



Notes – Patterns and Pattern Matching

- I. Patterns
 - a. One of the cool things about OCaml.
 - b. The idea is that you can define a pattern in the way things are bound.
 - c. Allows precise case analysis when deconstructing datatypes.
 - d. Let p range over patterns.
 - e. Patterns
 - i. x (simple, basic pattern – a variable)
 - ii. (p_1, \dots, p_n) tuples.
 - iii. c constants
 1. `let (1, y) = (1, 2)`
 2. *Match* left-hand element, *bind* right-hand element.
 3. `let (1, y) = (2, 1) ↓` raise match failure exception.
 4. NB: Match failure raised whenever a *required* match fails.
 - f. Patterns used in declarations
 - i. We can use a pattern to declare multiple variables simultaneously
 - ii. `let (x, y) = (1, 2);;`
 - iii. Introduces bindings $x : \text{int}, y : \text{int}, x = 1, y = 2$
 - iv. `# x;; - : int = 1`
 - v. `# x+y;; - : int = 3`
 - vi. FYI: `let z as (x, y) = (1, 2);;`
 - g. `let thrd = (fun (x, y, z) -> z);;`
 - i. We accept the pattern (x, y, z) and return the third element.
 - ii. This is a polymorphic function, polymorphic type!
 - iii. There's nothing to indicate what datatypes are involved except that the third element in the input must match the output.
 - iv. It will work for $(\text{int}, \text{int}, \text{float}) \rightarrow \text{float}$
 - v. $(\text{string}, \text{int}, \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$
 - vi. Et cetera.
 - vii. Has type $\forall \alpha, \beta, \gamma. \alpha * \beta * \gamma \rightarrow \gamma$
 - viii. Much more about this in the second half of the semester.
 - h. Wildcard Pattern
 - i. `_`
 - ii. Matches any pattern
 - iii. Introduces no bindings.
 - iv. `let _ = 5` never raises match failure, but introduces no bindings.
 - v. Used in conjunction with pattern matching (with clauses)
- II. Pattern Matching
 - a. Good for deconstructing data structures.
 - b. `let ((x, y), z) = ((1, 2), 5)` *Note the nested pattern*
 - c. Implement case matching.
 - i. `let rec fact = match x with 0 -> 1 | x -> x * fact(x - 1)`
 - ii. Less verbose, but equivalent to what we had before.
 - d. Example
 - i. Want to write `passing_grade`, returns true iff a given letter grade is passing.
 - ii. `let passing_grade grade = match grade with`

```

                                "A" -> true
                                |
                                "B" -> true
                                |
                                "C" -> true
                                |
                                _ -> false
          
```
 - iii. Only use `_` when you don't need the value on the right side.
 - iv. `if..then..else` is really sugar for match statement.

- v. if p then e_1 else e_2 really means $\text{match } p \text{ with } \text{true} \rightarrow e_1 \mid \text{false} \rightarrow e_2$
- e. Formal Definitions
 - i. $\text{match } e \text{ with } p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \dots \mid p_n \rightarrow e_n : \tau$ iff for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, $e_i : \tau$
 - ii. Match evaluation
 - 1. Match e with $p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \dots \mid p_n \rightarrow e_n \Downarrow v$ iff $e \Downarrow v'$ and $e_i \Downarrow v$ in an environment extended with bindings resulting from matching e with p_i where p_i is the *first* match for v' taken in order p_1, \dots, p_n
 - 2. Example
 - a. $\text{match } (1, (2, 3)) \text{ with } (0, (x, y)) \rightarrow x * y$
 $\mid (1, (x, y)) \rightarrow x + y$
 $\mid (1, (x, y)) \rightarrow x - y$
 - b. $x - y$ will never be the result! The *first* match is taken.
 - iii. Redundancy
 - 1. let rec fact $x = \text{match } x \text{ with } x \rightarrow x * \text{fact}(x - 1) \mid 0 \rightarrow 1$
 - 2. The base case will never be reached!
 - 3. This diverges on any input.
 - iv. Exhaustiveness
 - 1. let encode_bool $x = \text{match } x \text{ with } 1 \rightarrow \text{true} \mid 0 \rightarrow \text{false}$
 - 2. Provides compiler / interpreter warning: match not exhaustive.
 - 3. Could make an explicit wildcard case (perhaps raise an exception if it's reached)
 - 4. Could specify in comment: In: $x \in \{0, 1\}$
 - 5. Still get the warning if you use a comment, of course, but now it's acceptable from a programming standpoint.
- f. NB: Pattern matching clauses introduce new bindings
 - i. Now we have three ways to introduce bindings. Need to redefine our notion of scoping.
 - ii. Given match e with $p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \dots \mid p_n \rightarrow e_n$, $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n$, let x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ij} be all the variables in p_i . Then the scope of x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ij} is e_i
 - iii. Example
 - 1. let $x = \text{"fred"}$
 - 2. let $y = 5;;$
 - 3. $\text{match } (1, 2) \text{ with } (x, y) \rightarrow x + y \Downarrow 3$
 - 4. Even though we already had x, y bound, the new bindings shadow the originals.
 - 5. $x \Downarrow \text{"fred"}$ *after the match statement is done executing*

III. Type Polymorphism

- a. Very cool. One of the triumphs of programming language research.
- b. The idea is that when you define a function it can take on a variety of forms.
- c. Example
 - i. let third $(_, _, x) \rightarrow x$
 - ii. $\text{third}(1, 2, 3) \Downarrow 3$
 - iii. $\text{third}(\text{"word"}, 1.0, (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x)) \Downarrow (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x)$
 - iv. third: $'a * 'b * 'c \rightarrow 'c$
 - v. Interpret $'a, 'b, 'c$, etc as greek letters. These are type variables!
 - vi. Types with quantified variables are called type schemes, which can be instantiated to yield types via *consistent* substitution of types for type variables.
 - vii. So you can substitute int for $'a, 'b, 'c$ to get an instance of the type scheme.
 - viii. third: $\text{int} * \text{int} * \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$
 - ix. third: $\text{int} * \text{string} * \text{float} \rightarrow \text{float}$
 - x. NO GOOD: third: $\text{int} * \text{string} * \text{float} \rightarrow \text{int}$ *not consistent*
 - xi. These are all instances of the type scheme

- IV. Polymorphic Lists
- Act like stacks.
 - Recursively defined data structures.
 - Homogeneous (every element must have the same type τ for a particular list)
 - Polymorphic in the element type τ
 - `[2; 4; 6; 8]`
 - All OCaml lists are finite.
 - `(fun x-> x) : ('a -> 'a) list`
 - Lists are constructed inductively on the basis of the empty list and the cons operation
 $::$
 - Example `1 :: []` \Downarrow `[1]`
 - $\forall \tau$ the constant `[]` : τ list
 - In other words, `[]` : $\forall 'a, 'a$ list
 - If $v : \tau$ and $v' : \tau$ list then $v :: v' : \tau$ list
- i. Operations
- Constructing
 - $e_1 :: e_2 \Downarrow [v; v_1; v_2; \dots; v_n]$ iff $e_1 \Downarrow v$ and $e_2 \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots; v_n]$
 - Always cons onto the end. Acts like a stack!
 - Deconstructing
 - New pattern `p1::p2` (matches only non-empty lists)
 - Idea is that `p1` gets the head, `p2` gets the tail of the list.
 - Example
 - `let head(x, _) = x : 'a list -> 'a`
 - `let tail(_, x) = x : 'a list -> 'a list`
 - Example
 - `head [1; 2; 3]` \Downarrow `1`
 - `tail [1; 2; 3]` \Downarrow `[2; 3]`
 - Note that head doesn't address empty lists
 - New pattern `[]` will represent the empty list
- j. Lisp = List Processing Language. Just to give an idea of how important lists are to functional programming.
- k. `let rec length l = match l with [] -> 0 | _::xs -> 1 + length(xs) : 'a list -> int`
- l. Some people use `h::t` (head, tail). Skalka uses `x::x`
- V. Higher Order Functions
- These take functions as arguments, and can return functions as results.
 - $f \circ g = f' \Rightarrow \forall x \ f'(x) = f(g(x))$
 - `let compose = (fun f -> (fun g -> (fun x -> f(g(x)))))`
 - `((compose : (fun x -> x + 1))(fun x -> x + 2))1` \Downarrow `4`
 - `compose : ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b`
 - Syntactic Sugar
 - `let f x1 ... xn = e` `let f = (fun x1 -> fun x2 ... fun xn -> e)`
 - `let f(x1, ..., xn)` is not the same!
 - `let f g x = f(g(x))`
- g. Examples
- `let add1 x = x + 1`
 - `let add2 = compose add1 add1`
 - `add2 2` \Downarrow `4`
 - `let add3 = compose add1 add2`
- h. Partial Composition
- See above
 - `add1 : int -> int`
 - `compose add1 : ('a -> int) -> 'a -> int`

iv. `compose add1 add1 : int -> int`

i. **Currying**

i. After Haskell Curry

ii. Define functions that go between curried and uncurried form

iii. `let curry f = (fun x -> fun y -> fun(x, y))`

iv. `curry : ('a * 'b -> 'c) -> 'a -> 'b -> 'c`

v. `let uncurry f = (fun (x, y) -> f x y)`

vi. `uncurry : ('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> ('a * 'b) -> 'c`

vii. **Example**

1. `let f = compose add1`

2. `let f' = uncurry f`

3. `f add1` is the same as `add2`

4. `f'(add1, 2) ↓ 4`

5. `let f'' = curry f' (* back to f again! *)`

ERROR: undefinedfilename
OFFENDING COMMAND:

STACK: