

Datatypes and Patterns

Datatypes

Amtoft
from Hatcliff

Type Names

Datatypes

Patterns

Local Definitions

*ML datatypes and patterns can make
programs much more concise and elegant*

1. type abbreviations
2. ML datatypes
3. patterns and local variables

Simple Type Abbreviations

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Syntax:

type *<identifier>* = *<type expression>*

Semantics: **type** makes an **abbreviation**, not a new type.

```
- type signal = int list;
type signal = int list
- val v = [1,2,3] : signal;
val v = [1,2,3] : signal
- val w = [1,2,3];
val w = [1,2,3] : int list
- v = w;
val it = true : bool
- hd v;
val it = 1 : int
```

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Parametric Type Abbreviations

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Syntax:

```
type (<type parameters>) <identifier> =  
      <type expression>
```

Semantics: a **family** of abbreviations

```
- type ('k, 'v) table = ('k * 'v) list;  
type ('a, 'b) table = ('a * 'b) list  
  
- [("bob",1), ("jane",2)]  
  : (string, int) table;  
val it = [("bob",1), ("jane",2)]  
  : (string, int) table
```

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ML Datatype Facility

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- ▶ the ML datatype facility allows one to create tree structured data
- ▶ very flexible abstract mechanism for representing structured data

Simple Sum Types

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```
datatype suit =  
    Clubs | Diamonds  
    | Hearts | Spades
```

– Clubs;

```
val it = Clubs: suit
```

```
datatype card =  
    Club of int | Diamond of int  
    | Heart of int | Spade of int  
    | WildCard
```

– Heart 7;

```
val it = Heart 7 : card
```

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Parametrized Sum Types

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```
datatype ('a, 'b) pair_or_single =  
  Pair of 'a * 'b  
  | Single of 'a
```

```
- [Pair("ab",7), Single "cd"];  
val it = [Pair ("ab",7),Single "cd"]  
: (string,int) pair_or_single list
```

Recursive Types

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```
datatype int_tree =  
    Leaf of int  
  | Node of int * int_tree * int_tree
```

```
- Node (5, Node(5, Leaf 4, Leaf 7), Leaf 3);  
val it =  
  Node (5,Node (5,Leaf #,Leaf #),Leaf 3) :  
  int tree
```

We may generalize to other types than `int`

```
datatype 'a tree =  
    Lf of 'a  
  | Nd of 'a * 'a tree * 'a tree  
  
- Lf;  
val it = fn : 'a -> 'a tree
```

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Parametrized Recursive Types

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```
datatype 'a tree =
  Lf of 'a
  | Nd of 'a * 'a tree * 'a tree

– Lf;
val it = fn : 'a -> 'a tree

– Nd (3.0, Lf(3.5), Lf(4.2));
val it = Nd (3.0,Lf 3.5,Lf 4.2) : real tree

– Nd (3, Lf(5), Lf(4));
val it = Nd (3,Lf 5,Lf 4) : int tree

– Nd (3, Lf(5.0), Lf(4.6));

.. Error: operator and operand don't agree..
operator domain: int * int tree * int tree
operand:          int * real tree * real tree
```

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General Form of Data Types

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```
datatype (⟨type parameters⟩) ⟨identifier⟩ =  
    ⟨first constructor expression⟩ |  
    ⟨second constructor expression⟩ |  
    ... |  
    ⟨last constructor expression⟩
```

We have already seen the predefined `option` types:

```
datatype 'a option =  
    NONE  
  | SOME of 'a
```

List is the quintessential datatype; conceptually

```
datatype 'a list =  
    nil  
  | :: of 'a * 'a list
```

Case Patterns

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```
fun many_tests x =
  if x = nil
  then 0
  else if tl(x) = nil
    then 1
    else if hd(x) = 3 andalso tl(x) = [2]
      then 6
      else 12;
```

can be written more **concisely** using **case patterns**:

```
fun many_tests x =
  case x of
    nil          => 0 |
    (_ :: nil)   => 1 |
    (3 :: (2 :: nil)) => 6 |
    _              => 12;
```

- ▶ the **wildcard** `_` (“underscore”) matches anything.
- ▶ Patterns can be nested

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Patterns Save Computation

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```
fun accesses x =  
  if x = nil  
    then 0  
    else if hd(x) < 20  
      then hd(x)  
      else 30
```

involves taking `hd` of `x` twice. This is avoided by:

```
fun accesses nil      = 0  
| accesses (n::ns) =  
  if n < 20 then n else 30
```

- ▶ Variables used in patterns are bound to values (p.73)
- ▶ `fun` has an **implicit** case statement as has `fn`:

```
val accesses =  
  fn nil      => 0  
  | (n::ns)  => if n < 20 then n else 30
```

Having it Both Ways

Merging two sorted lists:

```
- fun merge(nil, M) = M | merge(L, nil) = L
  | merge(L, M) = if hd(L) < hd(M)
    then hd(L)::merge(tl(L), M)
    else hd(M)::merge(L, tl(M));
```

Introduce case patterns:

```
- fun merge(nil, M) = M | merge(L, nil) = L
  | merge(x::xs, y::ys) = if x<y
    then x::merge(xs, y::ys)
    else y::merge(x::xs, ys);
```

but now `X :: xs` has to be recomputed. Use “as”:

```
- fun merge(nil, M) = M
  | merge(L, nil) = L
  | merge(L as x::xs, M as y::ys) = if x<y
    then x::merge(xs, M)
    else y::merge(L, ys);
```

as names the entire data plus destructs it using a pattern.



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Patterns Should be Exhaustive

```
- fun non_exhaustive nil = 0;
... Warning: match nonexhaustive
           nil => ...
val non_exhaustive = fn : 'a list -> int
```

```
- non_exhaustive nil;
val it = 0 : int

- non_exhaustive [1,2];
uncaught exception Match ...
```

A **non-exhaustive** pattern

- ▶ causes a compile-time **warning**
- ▶ can cause a run-time **exception** for data corresponding to missing cases
- ▶ still might be appropriate if we know we will never encounter certain data

Pattern Matching versus Unification

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```
- fun test_pair (p : int * int) =  
    if #1(p) = #2(p) then "yes" else "no";  
  
val test_pair = fn : int * int -> string
```

We would like to rewrite to

```
- fun test_pair (n,n) = "yes"  
|     test_pair _      = "no";
```

.. Error: duplicate variable in pattern(s): n

- ▶ a variable **cannot** be repeated in the same pattern
- ▶ this would be equivalent to **unification**
- ▶ which is a more powerful technique
(used, e.g., in Prolog)

Local Variables

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```
fun double x = x + x;

fun dupdouble x y =
  [(double(x),double(y)),
   (double(x),double(y))];
```

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The `let` construct declares local variables

```
fun dupdouble x y =
  let val a = double(x);
      val b = double(y)
  in
    [(a,b),(a,b)]
  end;
```

and thus avoids duplicating computation

Patterns for Return Values

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When a local variable is bound to the result of a function

```
fun splitem x =  
    let val z = dupdouble x x  
        in (#1(hd(tl(z))),#2(hd(tl(z))))  
    end;
```

we may decompose that result using patterns:

```
fun splitem x =  
    let val [q,(s,t)] = dupdouble x x  
        in (s,t)  
    end;
```