Type synonyms

Syntax: type id = t

- Anywhere you write **t**, you can also write **id**
- The two names are synonymous

e.g.

- type point = float * float
- type vector = float list
- type matrix = float list list

Type synonyms

type point = float*float

let getx : point -> float =
 fun (x,_) -> x

let pt : point = (1.,2.)
let floatpair : float*float = (1.,3.)

let one = getx pt
let one' = getx floatpair

Type Abbreviations

• We have already seen some type abbreviations:

• These abbreviations can be helpful documentation:

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
    let square x = x *. x in
    let (x1,y1) = p1 in
    let (x2,y2) = p2 in
    sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

But they add nothing of *substance* to the language
 they are equal in every way to an existing type

Type Abbreviations

• We have already seen some type abbreviations:

• As far as O'Caml is concerned, you could have written:

```
let distance (p1:float*float)
        (p2:float*float) : float =
    let square x = x *. x in
    let (x1,y1) = p1 in
    let (x2,y2) = p2 in
    sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

- Since the types are equal, you can *substitute* the definition for the name wherever you want
 - we have not added any new data structures

DATA TYPES

• O'Caml provides a general mechanism called a data type for defining new data structures that consist of many alternatives



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• Creating values:



```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
let c1 : color = Yellow
let c2 : color = Red
```

• Using data type values:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue ->
  | Yellow ->
  | Green ->
  | Red ->
```

use pattern matching to determine which color you have; act accordingly

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
let c1 : color = Yellow
let c2 : color = Red
```

• Using data type values:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Green -> print_string "green"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
let c1 : color = Yellow
let c2 : color = Red
```

• Using data type values:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Green -> print_string "green"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```

Why not just use strings to represent colors instead of defining a new type?

type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red

oops!:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```

Warning 8: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive. Here is an example of a value that is not matched: Green

Data Types Can Carry Additional Values

• Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float
type simple_shape =
  Circle of point * float
| Square of point * float
```

- Read as: a simple_shape is either:
 - a Circle, which contains a pair of a point and float, or
 - a Square, which contains a pair of a point and float





Data Types Can Carry Additional Values

• Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float
type simple shape =
  Circle of point * float
 Square of point * float
let origin : point = (0.0, 0.0)
let circ1 : simple shape = Circle (origin, 1.0)
let circ2 : simple shape = Circle ((1.0, 1.0), 5.0)
let square : simple shape = Square (origin, 2.3)
```

Data Types Can Carry Additional Values

• Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float
type simple_shape =
  Circle of point * float
! Square of point * float
let simple_area (s:simple_shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Circle (_, radius) -> 3.14 *. radius *. radius
  | Square (_, side) -> side *. side
```









```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float
type shape =
    Square of side
    [ Ellipse of radius * radius
    [ RtTriangle of side * side
    [ Polygon of point list
```

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s ->
  | Ellipse (r1, r2)->
  | RtTriangle (s1, s2) ->
  | Polygon ps ->
```

a data type also defines a pattern for matching



```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float
type shape =
    Square of side
    Ellipse of radius * radius
    RtTriangle of side * side
    Polygon of point list
```

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
    | Square s -> s *. s
    | Ellipse (r1, r2)-> r1 *. r2
    | RtTriangle (s1, s2) -> s1*.s2/.2.
    | Polygon ps -> ???
```

a data type also defines a pattern for matching

- How do we compute polygon area?
- For convex polygons:
 - Case: the polygon has fewer than 3 points:
 - it has 0 area! (it is a line or a point or nothing at all)
 - Case: the polygon has 3 or more points:
 - Compute the area of the triangle formed by the first 3 vertices
 - Delete the second vertex to form a new polygon
 - Sum the area of the triangle and the new polygon



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 - Compute the area of the triangle formed by the first 3 vertices
 - Delete the second vertex to form a new polygon
 - Sum the area of the triangle and the new polygon
- Note: This is a beautiful inductive algorithm:
 - the area of a polygon with n points is computed in terms of a smaller polygon with only n-1 points!







```
let tri_area (p1:point) (p2:point) (p3:point) : float =
    let a = distance p1 p2 in
    let b = distance p2 p3 in
    let c = distance p3 p1 in
    let s = 0.5 *. (a +. b +. c) in
    sqrt (s *. (s -. a) *. (s -. b) *. (s -. c))
```

```
let rec poly_area (ps : point list) : float =
  match ps with
  | p1 :: p2 :: p3 :: tail ->
     tri_area p1 p2 p3 +. poly_area (p1::p3::ps)
     | -> 0.
```

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s -> s *. s
   | Ellipse (r1, r2)-> r1 *. r2
   | RtTriangle (s1, s2) -> s1*.s2/.2.
   | Polygon ps -> poly_area ps
```

INDUCTIVE DATA TYPES

- We can use data types to define inductive data
- A binary tree is:
 - a Leaf containing no data
 - a Node containing a key, a value, a left subtree and a right subtree

- We can use data types to define inductive data
- A binary tree is:
 - a Leaf containing no data
 - a Node containing a key, a value, a left subtree and a right subtree

```
type key = string
type value = int

type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
type key = int
type value = string
type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

let rec insert (t:tree) (k:key) (v:value) : tree =

```
type key = int
type value = string
type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```



```
type key = int
type value = string
type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
let rec insert (t:tree) (k:key) (v:value) : tree =
match t with
    | Leaf -> Node (k, v, Leaf, Leaf)
    | Node (k', v', left, right) ->
```

```
type key = int
type value = string
type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
type key = int
type value = string
type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
type key = int
type value = string
type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

type intlist = Nil | Cons **of** int * intlist

let emp = Nil
let l3 = Cons (3, Nil) (* 3::[] or [3]*)
let l123 = Cons(1, Cons(2, 13)) (* [1;2;3] *)

let rec length = function
 | Nil -> 0
 | Cons (_,t) -> 1 + length t
 (* length : intlist -> int *)

let empty = function
 | Nil -> true
 | Cons _ -> false
(* empty: intlist -> bool *)

```
let rec fold_right f l acc =
    match l with
    | Nil -> acc
    | Cons(h,t) -> f h (fold_right f t acc)
    (* fold_right:
        (int -> 'a -> 'a)
        -> intlist -> 'a -> 'a *)
```

let sumr l = fold_right (+) l 0
(* empty: intlist -> int *)

One possibility is to return an option:

But the standard library throws an exception...



Example: implement hd

```
# hd Nil;;
Exception: (Failure empty).
```

```
# head_or_zero Nil;;
- : int = 0
```

Exceptions: Syntax

Definition: exception E exception E of t

Raise (aka throw): raise e

```
Catch (aka handle):
try e with
| p1 -> e1
| ...
| pn -> en
```

Exception: Type checking

New kind of type: exn if E is defined as exception E then E : exn if E is defined as exception E of t and e : t then E e : exn

Raise:

if **e:exn** then **raise e** may have any type **t**

```
Catch:
if e and p1..pn and e1..en all have type t
then try e with p1 -> e1 | ... | pn -> en
has type t
```

Exceptions: Evaluation

Raise:

If **e** ==> **v** then **raise e** produces an *exception packet* containing **v** that propagates upward through the call stack to a handler.

Catch:

try e with p1 -> e1 | \dots | pn -> en

If e == v then the **try** expression evaluates to **v**.

If evaluation of **e** produces an exception packet, behave like a pattern match on the value in that packet.

But if none of the patterns matches, re-raise the exception, thus propagating it upwards.

Exceptions in standard library

exception Invalid_argument of string

raised by library functions to signal that the given arguments do not make sense

exception Failure of string

raised by library functions to signal that they are undefined on the given arguments

Convenience function in library:

let failwith : string -> 'a =

fun s -> raise (Failure s)

Inductive data types: Another Example

- Recall, we used the type "int" to represent natural numbers
 - but that was kind of broken: it also contained negative numbers
 - we had to use a dynamic test to guard entry to a function:

```
let double (n : int) : int =
    if n < 0 then
        raise (Failure "negative input!")
    else
        double_nat n</pre>
```

 it would be nice if there was a way to define the natural numbers exactly, and use OCaml's type system to guarantee no client ever attempts to double a negative number

- Recall, a natural number n is either:
 - zero, or
 - m + 1
- We use a data type to represent this definition exactly:

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 - zero, or
 - m + 1
- We use a data type to represent this definition exactly:

```
type nat = Zero | Next of nat
```

- Recall, a natural number n is either:
 - zero, or
 - m + 1
- We use a data type to represent this definition exactly:

```
type nat = Zero | Succ of nat
let rec nat_to_int (n : nat) : int =
match n with
Zero -> 0
| Succ n -> 1 + nat_to_int n
```

- Recall, a natural number n is either:
 - zero, or
 - m + 1
- We use a data type to represent this definition exactly:

```
type nat = Zero | Next of nat
let rec nat_to_int (n : nat) : int =
match n with
Zero -> 0
| Next n -> 1 + nat_to_int n
let rec double_nat (n : nat) : nat =
match n with
| Zero -> Zero
| Succ m -> Succ (Succ(double_nat m))
```

A Note on Parameterized Type Definitions

```
type ('key, 'val) tree =
  Leaf
  | Node of 'key * 'val * ('key, 'val) tree * ('key, 'val) tree
```

type 'a stree = (string, 'a) tree

type sitree = int stree

General form:

definition:

type 'x f = body

use:

arg f

<u>A Better Notation:</u>

definition:

type f x = body

use:

f arg

Take-home Message

- Think of parameterized types like functions:
 - a function that take a type as an argument
 - produces a type as a result
- Theoretical basis:
 - System F-omega
 - a typed lambda calculus with general type-level functions as well as value-level functions

Summary

- OCaml datatypes: a powerful mechanism for defining complex data structures:
 - They are precise
 - contain exactly the elements you want, not more elements
 - They are general
 - recursive, non-recursive (mutually recursive and polymorphic)
 - The type checker helps you detect errors
 - missing cases in your functions
 - Next time: help in program evolution