Simple Data

COS 326
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What is the single most important mathematical concept ever developed in human history?

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An answer: The mathematical variable

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(runner up: natural numbers/induction)

Why is the mathematical variable so important?

The mathematician says:

"Let x be some integer, we define a polynomial over x ..."

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The mathematician says:

"Let x be some integer, we define a polynomial over x ..."

What is going on here? The mathematician has separated a *definition* (of x) from its *use* (in the polynomial).

This is the most primitive kind of *abstraction*.

Abstraction is the key to controlling complexity and without it, modern mathematics, science, and computation would not exists.

OCAML BASICS: LET DECLARATIONS

Abstraction

- Good programmers identify repeated patterns in their code and factor out the repetition into meaningful components
- In O'Caml, the most basic technique for factoring your code is to use let expressions
- Instead of writing this expression:

$$(2 + 3) * (2 + 3)$$

Abstraction & Abbreviation

- Good programmers identify repeated patterns in their code and factor out the repetition into meaning components
- In O'Caml, the most basic technique for factoring your code is to use let expressions
- Instead of writing this expression:

We write this one:

let
$$x = 2 + 3$$
 in $x * x$

A Few More Let Expressions

```
let x = 2 in
let squared = x * x in
let cubed = x * squared in
squared * cubed
```

A Few More Let Expressions

```
let x = 2 in
let squared = x * x in
let cubed = x * squared in
squared * cubed
```

```
let a = "a" in
let b = "b" in
let as = a ^ a ^ a in
let bs = b ^ b ^ b in
as ^ bs
```

Abstraction & Abbreviation

Two kinds of let:

```
if tuesday() then
    let x = 2 + 3 in
    x + x
else
    0
;;
```

let ... in ... is an *expression* that can appear inside any other *expression*

The scope of x does not extend outside the enclosing "in"

```
let x = 2 + 3 ;;
let y = x + 17 / x ;;
```

let ... ;; without "in" is a top-level
declaration

Variables x and y may be exported; used by other modules

(Don't need;; if another let comes next; do need it if expression next)

- Each O'Caml variable is bound to 1 value
- The value to which a variable is bound to never changes!

```
let x = 3 ;;
let add three (y:int) : int = y + x;
```

- Each O'Caml variable is bound to 1 value
- The value to which a variable is bound to never changes!

```
let x = 3;
               let add three (y:int) : int = y + x;
It does not
matter what
I write next.
add_three
will always
add 3!
```

- Each O'Caml variable is bound to 1 value
- The value a variable is bound to never changes!

a distinct variable that "happens to be spelled the same"

```
let x = 3;
let add three (y:int) : int = y + x;
let x = 4 ;;
let add four (y:int): int = y + x;
```

 Since the 2 variables (both happened to be named x) are actually different, unconnected things, we can rename them

rename x
to zzz
if you want
to, replacing
its uses

```
let x = 3 ;;
let add three (y:int) : int = y + x;
let zzz = 4;
let add four (y:int) : int = y + zzz;
let add seven (y:int) : int =
  add three (add four y)
;;
```

- Each O'Caml variable is bound to 1 value
- O'Caml is a statically scoped language

we can use add_three without worrying about the second definition of x

```
let x = 3;
let add three (y:int) : int = y + x;
let x = 4 ;;
let add four (y:int): int = y + x;
let add seven (y:int) : int =
  add three (add four y)
;;
```

let
$$x = 2 + 1$$
 in $x * x$

let
$$x = 2 + 1$$
 in $x * x$

-->

let
$$x = 3$$
 in $x * x$

let
$$x = 2 + 1$$
 in $x * x$

-->

let
$$x = 3$$
 in $x * x$

3 * 3

substitute 3 for x

-->

e1 --> e2 when e1 evaluates to e2 in one step

```
let x = 2 in
let y = x + x in
y * x
```

let
$$x = 2$$
 in
let $y = x + x$ in
 $y * x$

substitute
2 for x

y * 2

substitute 2 for x

let
$$y = 2 + 2 in y * 2$$

-->
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \text{let } y = 4 \\ y & * 2 \end{vmatrix}$$
 in

let
$$x = 2$$
 in let $y = x + x$ in $y * x$

let $y = 2 + 2$ in $y * 2$

-->

let $y = 4$ in $y * 2$

substitute 2 for x

-->

 $x = 2$ in $y = 2$ in $y = 2$ in $y = 4$ in $y = 4$ in $y = 4$ for $y = 4$ in y

substitute 2 for x

substitute

4 for y

Moral: Let operates by substituting computed values for variables

-->
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1et & y = 4 \\ y & * 2 \end{vmatrix}$$
 in

--> 4 * 2

-->

Typing Simple Let Expressions

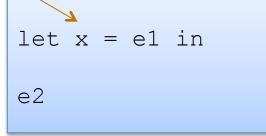
x granted type of e1 for use in e2

```
let x = e1 in
e2
```

overall expression takes on the type of e2

Typing Simple Let Expressions

x granted type of e1 for use in e2



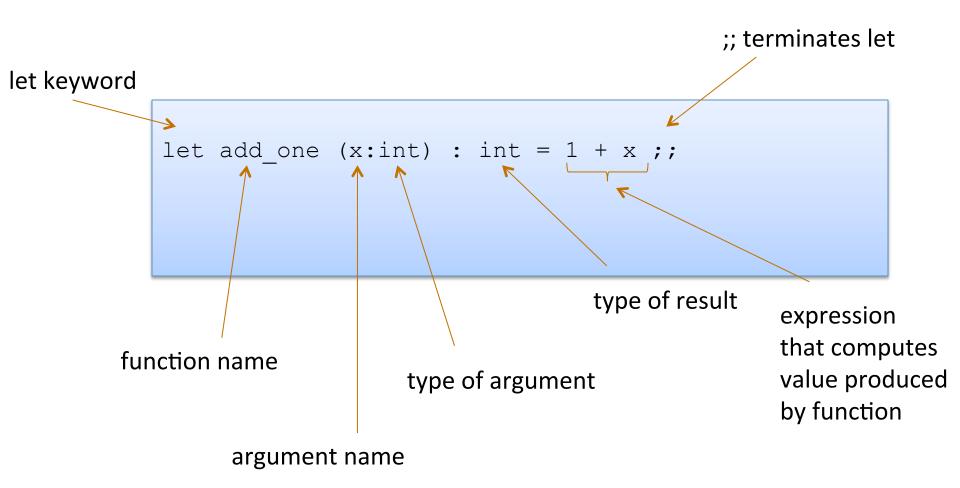
overall expression takes on the type of e2

x has type int for use inside the let body

overall expression has type string

OCAML BASICS: FUNCTIONS

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x ;;
```



Note: recursive functions with begin with "let rec"

Non-recursive functions:

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x ;;
let add_two (x:int) : int = add_one (add_one x) ;;
```

definition of add_one must come before use

Non-recursive functions:

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x ;;
let add_two (x:int) : int = add_one (add_one x) ;;
```

• With a local definition:

local function definition hidden from clients

```
let add_two' (x:int) : int =
    let add_one x = 1 + x in
    add_one (add_one x)
;;
```

I left off the types.
O'Caml figures them out

Good style: types on top-level definitions

Types for Functions

Some functions:

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x ;;
let add_two (x:int) : int = add_one (add_one x) ;;
let add (x:int) (y:int) : int = x + y ;;
```

function with two arguments

Types for functions:

```
add_one : int -> int
add_two : int -> int
add : int -> int
```

Rule for type-checking functions

General Rule:

```
If a function f: T1 -> T2 and an argument e: T1 then fe: T2
```

Example:

```
add_one : int -> int
3 + 4 : int
add_one (3 + 4) : int
```

Recall the type of add:

Definition:

```
let add (x:int) (y:int) : int =
    x + y
;;
```

Type:

```
add : int -> int ->
```

Recall the type of add:

Definition:

```
let add (x:int) (y:int) : int =
    x + y
;;
```

Type:

```
add: int -> int -> int
```

Same as:

```
add : int -> (int -> int)
```

General Rule:

If a function f: T1 -> T2 and an argument e: T1 then f e: T2

Note:

```
add: int -> int -> int
3 + 4: int
add (3 + 4): ???
```

General Rule:

If a function f: T1 -> T2 and an argument e: T1 then fe: T2

Remember:

```
add: int -> (int -> int)

3 + 4: int

add (3 + 4):
```

General Rule:

If a function f: T1 -> T2 and an argument e: T1 then fe: T2

Remember:

```
add: int -> (int -> int)

3 + 4: int

add (3 + 4): int -> int
```

General Rule:

If a function f: T1 -> T2 and an argument e: T1 then fe: T2

Remember:

```
add: int -> int -> int

3 + 4: int

add (3 + 4): int -> int

(add (3 + 4)) 7: int
```

General Rule:

If a function f: T1 -> T2 and an argument e: T1 then fe: T2

Remember:

```
add: int -> int -> int

3 + 4: int

add (3 + 4): int -> int

add (3 + 4) 7: int
```

```
let munge (b:bool) (x:int) : ?? =
  if not b then
    string_of_int x
  else
    "hello"
;;
let y = 17;;
```

```
munge (y > 17) : ??
munge true (f (munge false 3)) : ??
f : ??
munge true (g munge) : ??
g : ??
```

```
let munge (b:bool) (x:int) : ?? =
  if not b then
    string_of_int x
  else
    "hello"
;;
let y = 17;;
```

```
munge (y > 17) : ??

munge true (f (munge false 3)) : ??
  f : string -> int

munge true (g munge) : ??
  g : (bool -> int -> string) -> int
```

One key thing to remember

If you have a function f with a type like this:

 Then each time you add an argument, you can get the type of the result by knocking off the first type in the series

```
f a1 : B -> C -> D -> E -> F (if a1 : A)

f a1 a2 : C -> D -> E -> F (if a2 : B)

f a1 a2 a3 : D -> E -> F (if a3 : C)

f a1 a2 a3 a4 a5 : F (if a4 : D and a5 : E)
```

OUR FIRST* COMPLEX DATA STRUCTURE! THE TUPLE

^{*} it is really our second complex data structure since functions are data structures too!

- A tuple is a fixed, finite, ordered collection of values
- Some examples with their types:

- To use a tuple, we extract its components
- General case:

let
$$(id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2$$

An example:

let
$$(x, y) = (2, 4)$$
 in $x + x + y$

- To use a tuple, we extract its components
- General case:

let
$$(id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2$$

An example:

let
$$(x,y) = (2,4)$$
 in $x + x + y$ substitute!

- To use a tuple, we extract its components
- General case:

let
$$(id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2$$

An example:

let
$$(x,y) = (2,4)$$
 in $x + x + y$
--> 2 + 2 + 4
--> 8

Rules for Typing Tuples

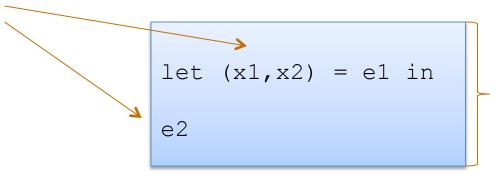
```
if e1:t1 and e2:t2
then (e1, e2):t1 * t2
```

Rules for Typing Tuples

```
if e1:t1 and e2:t2
then (e1, e2):t1*t2
```

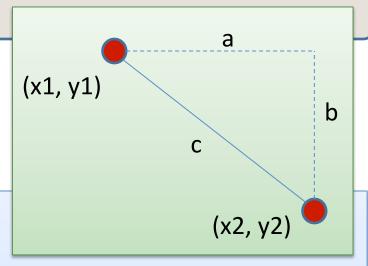
if e1:t1 * t2 then x1:t1 and x2:t2

inside the expression e2



overall expression takes on the type of e2

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$



Problem:

- A point is represented as a pair of floating point values.
- Write a function that takes in two points as arguments and returns the distance between them as a floating point number

- 1. Write down the function and argument names
- 2. Write down argument and result types
- 3. Write down some examples (in a comment)

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- 6. Clean up by identifying repeated patterns
 - define and reuse helper functions
 - your code should be elegant and easy to read

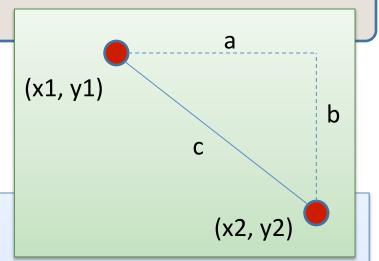
Steps to writing functions over typed data:

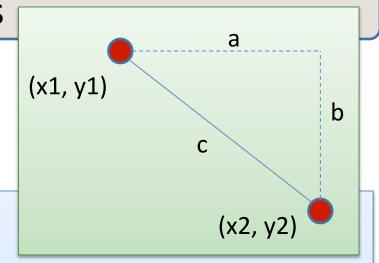
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Types help structure your thinking about how to write programs.

a type abbreviation

type point = float * float





```
type point = float * float
```

let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =

;;

write down function name argument names and types

examples

type point = float * float

```
(x1, y1) b c (x2, y2)
```

```
(* distance (0.0,0.0) (0.0,1.0) == 1.0
  * distance (0.0,0.0) (1.0,1.0) == sqrt(1.0 + 1.0)
  *
  * from the picture:
  * distance (x1,y1) (x2,y2) == sqrt(a^2 + b^2)
  *)
```

let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =

```
(x1, y1) b c (x2, y2)
```

```
type point = float * float
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
  let (x1, y1) = p1 in
  let (x2, y2) = p2 in
;;
                                      deconstruct
                                      function inputs
```

```
(x1, y1) b c (x2, y2)
```

```
type point = float * float
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in
  let (x2, y2) = p2 in
                                                   compute
  sqrt ((x2 -. x1) *. (x2 -. x1) +.
                                                   function
         (y2 -. y1) *. (y2 -. y1))
                                                   results
;;
                                 notice operators on
                                 floats have a "." in them
```

```
(x1, y1) b c (x2, y2)
```

```
type point = float * float

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))
;;
```

define helper functions to avoid repeated code

```
(x1, y1) b c (x2, y2)
```

```
type point = float * float
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))
;;
let pt1 = (2.0, 3.0);
let pt2 = (0.0, 1.0);
let dist12 = distance pt1 pt2;;
```

SUMMARY: BASIC FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING

- 1. Write down the function and argument names
- 2. Write down argument and result types
- 3. Write down some examples (in a comment)
- 4. Deconstruct input data structures
 - the argument types suggest how to do it
- 5. Build new output values
 - the result type suggest how you do it
- 6. Clean up by identifying repeated patterns
 - define and reuse helper functions
 - your code should be elegant and easy to read

Steps to writing functions over typed data:

- 1. Write down the function and argument names
- 2. Write down argument and result types
- 3. Write down some examples (in a comment)
- 4. Deconstruct input data structures
- 5. Build new output values
- 6. Clean up by identifying repeated patterns

For tuple types:

- when the input has type t1 * t2
 - use let (x,y) = ... to deconstruct
- when the output has type t1 * t2
 - use (e1, e2) to construct

We will see this paradigm repeat itself over and over

END