Simple Data

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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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An answer: The mathematical variable

(runner up: natural numbers/induction)

Why is the mathematical variable so important?

The mathematician says:

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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* (x is *some* integer)

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

It allows *reuse* of ideas, theorems ... functions and programs!

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:

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:

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
```

• 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*

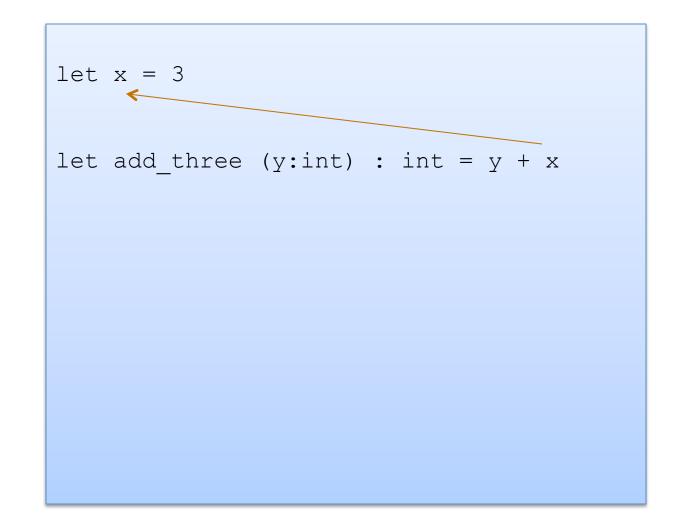
The scope of x does not extend outside the enclosing "in"

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

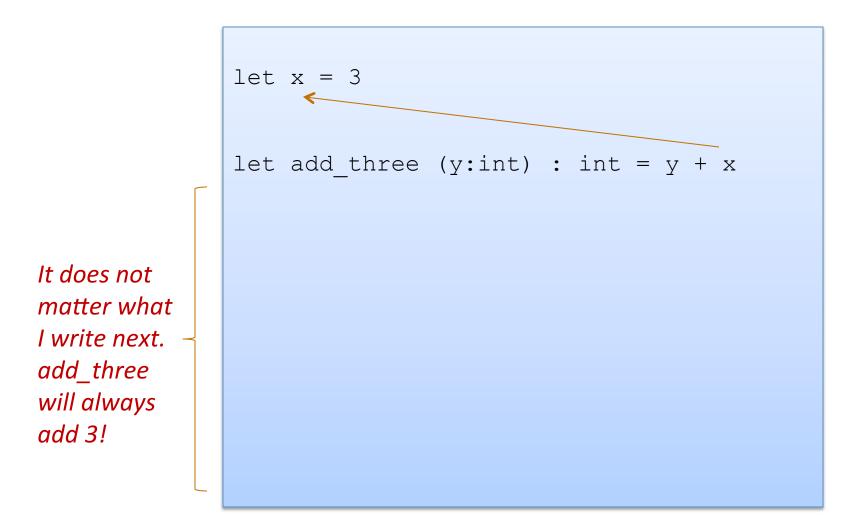
Variables x and y may be exported; used by other modules

(Don't need ;; if another let comes next; do need it if the next top-level declaration is an expression)

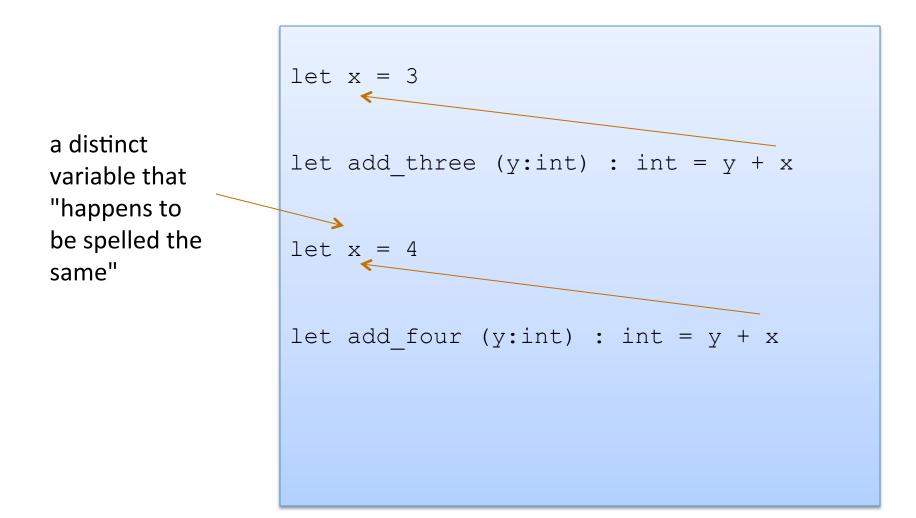
- Each OCaml variable is *bound* to 1 value
- The value to which a variable is bound to never changes!



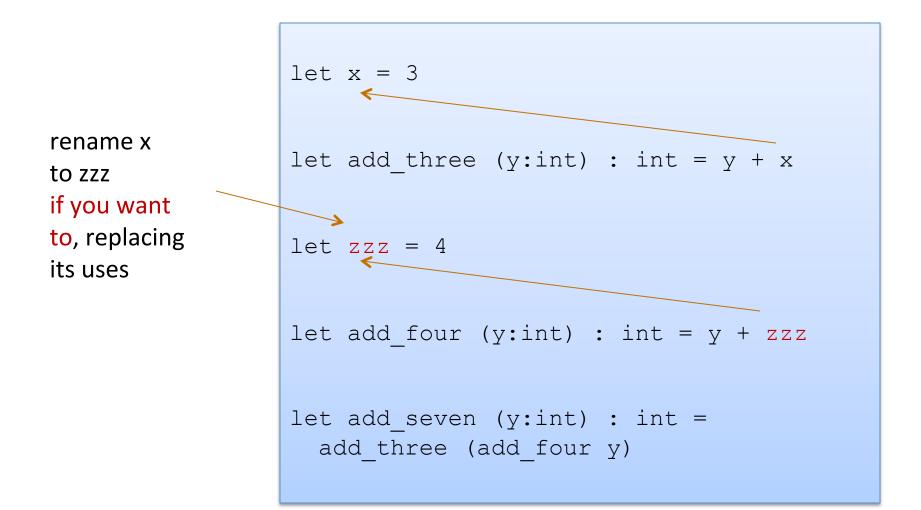
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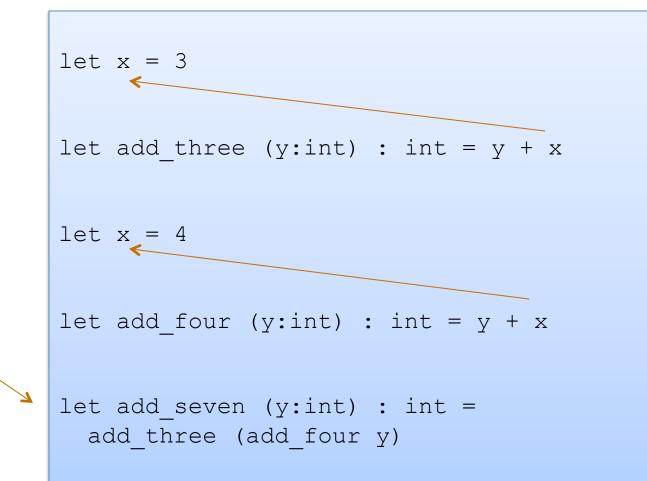
- Each OCaml variable is bound to 1 value
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 Since the 2 variables (both happened to be named x) are actually different, unconnected things, we can rename them



- Each OCaml variable is bound to 1 value
- OCaml is a statically scoped (or lexically scoped) language



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

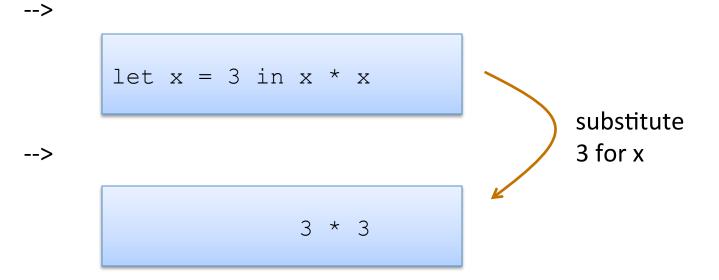
let
$$x = 2 + 1$$
 in $x * x$

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

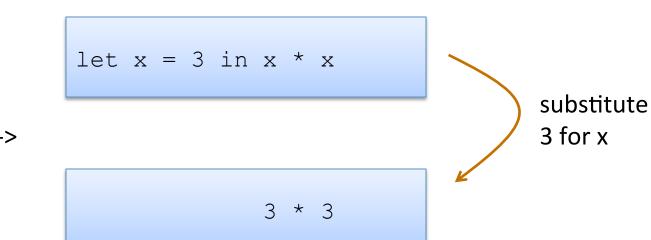
-->

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

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



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



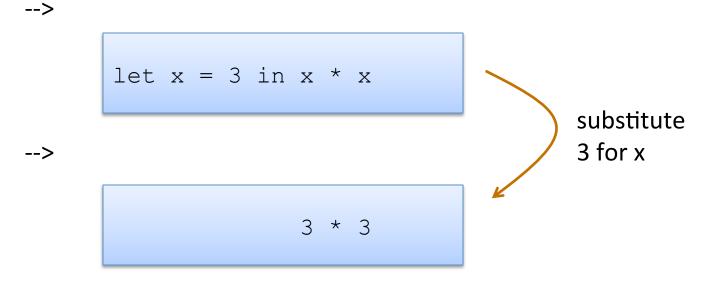
-->

-->

-->



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



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-->

Note: I write e1 --> e2 when e1 evaluates to e2 in one step

Did you see what I did there?

Did you see what I did there?

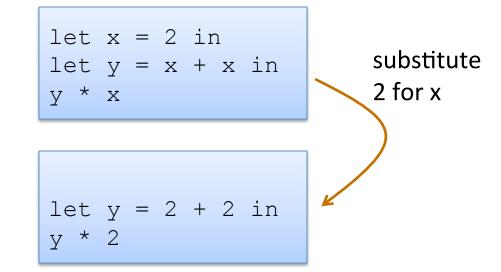
I defined the language in terms of itself:

let x = 2 in x + 3 --> 2 + 3

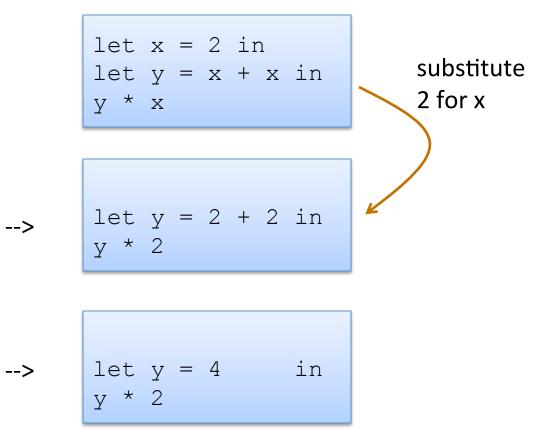
I'm trying to train you to think at a high level of abstraction.

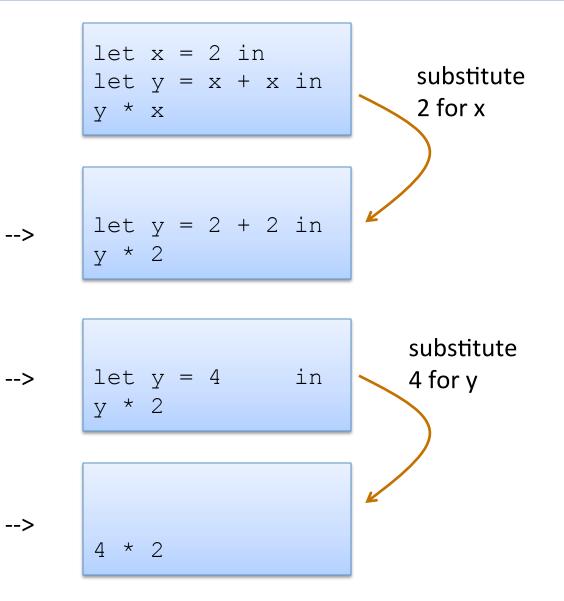
I didn't have to mention low-level abstractions like assembly code or registers or memory layout

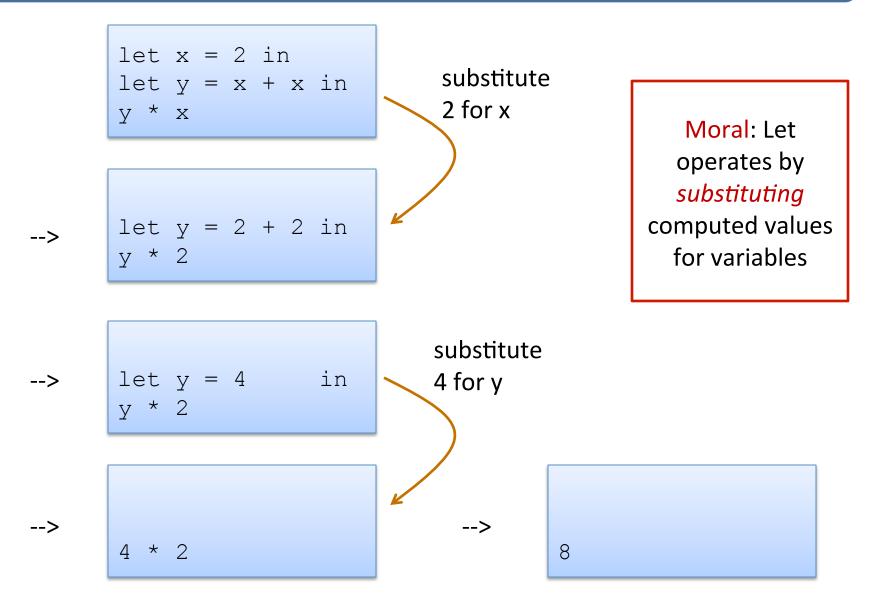
let x = 2 in let y = x + x in y * x



-->



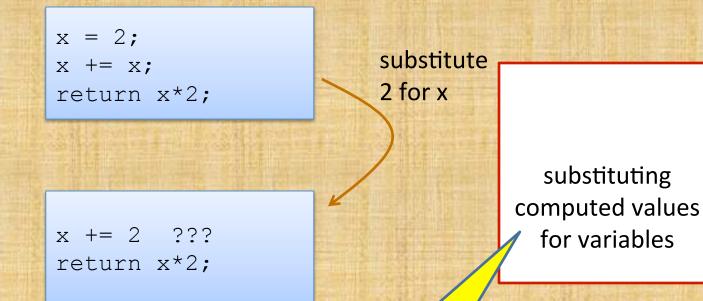




What would happen in an imperative language?

C program:

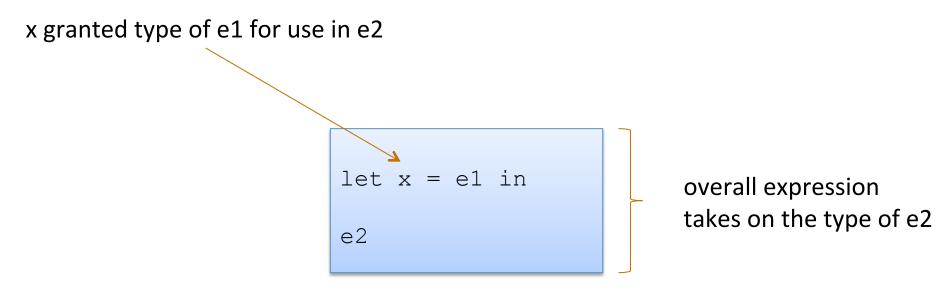
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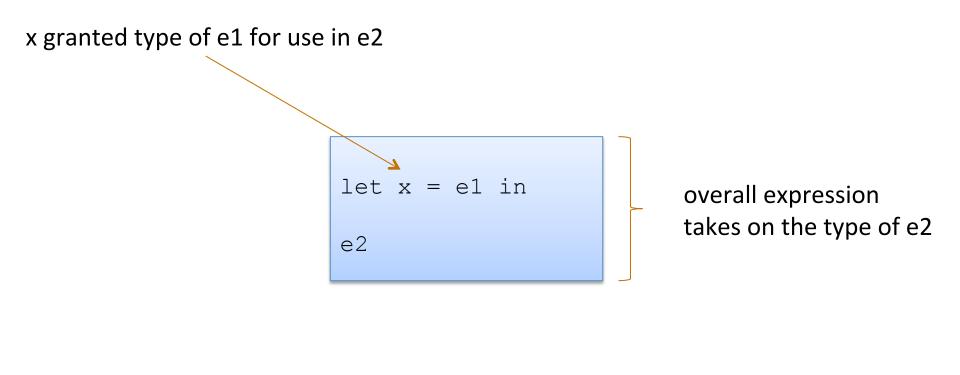
This principle works in functional languages, not so well in imperative languages

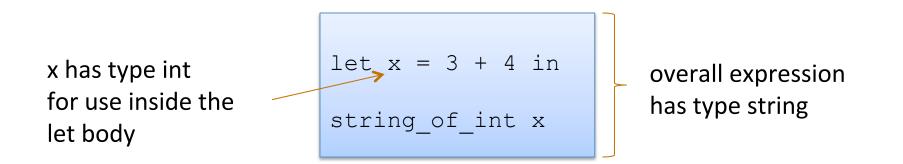
OCAML BASICS: TYPE CHECKING AGAIN

Back to Let Expressions ... Typing



Back to Let Expressions ... Typing



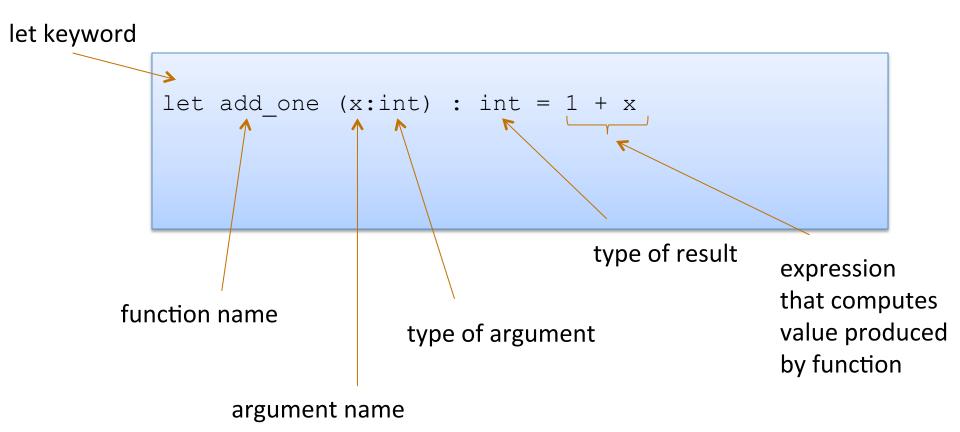


OCAML BASICS: FUNCTIONS

Defining functions



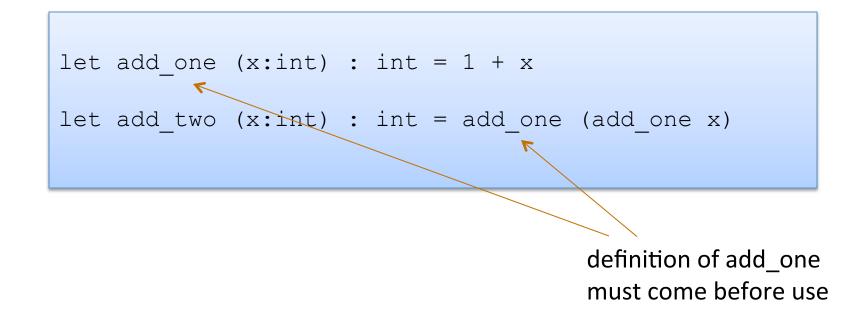
Defining functions



Note: recursive functions with begin with "let rec"

Defining functions

• Nonrecursive functions:



Defining functions

• Nonrecursive 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 -> int
```

General Rule:

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

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 -> 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 A -> B -> C same as: A -> (B -> C)

Example:

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

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General Rule:

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

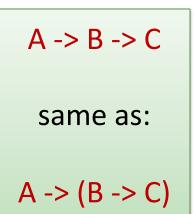
Example:

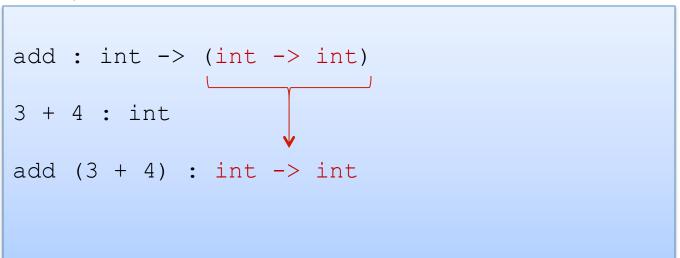
```
add : int -> (int -> int)
3 + 4 : int
add (3 + 4) :
```

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General Rule:

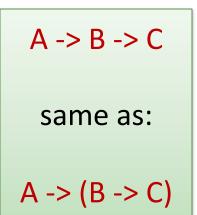
If a function f : T1 -> T2 and an argument e : T1 then f e : T2





General Rule:

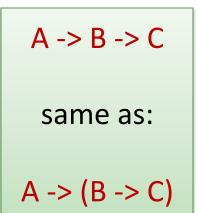
If a function f : T1 -> T2 and an argument e : T1 then f e : T2



```
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 f e : T2



```
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:

A -> B -> C -> D -> E -> F

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

fa1:B->C->D->E->F (if a1:A)
fa1 a2:C->D->E->F (if a2:B)
fa1 a2 a3:D->E->F (if a3:C)
fa1 a2 a3 a4 a5:F (if a4:D and a5:E)

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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:

(1, 2)	: int * int
("hello", 7 + 3, true)	: string * int * bool
('a', ("hello", "goodbye"))	: char * (string * string)

- 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!
--> 2 + 2 + 4

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

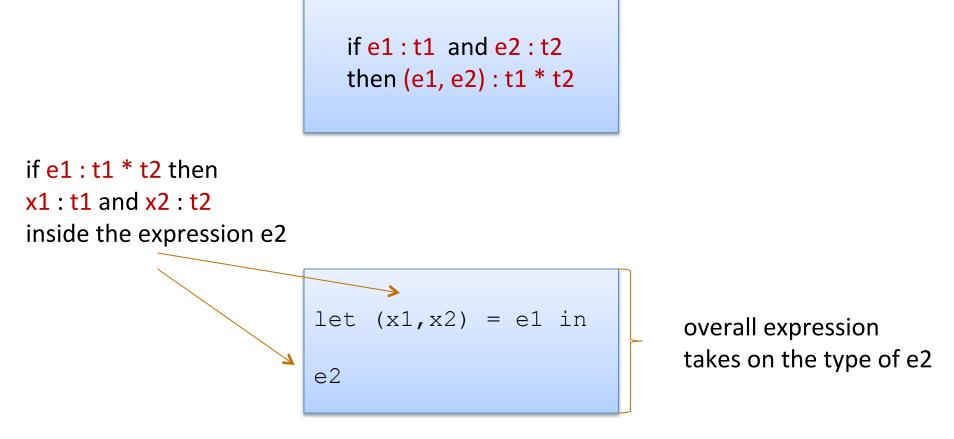
let (id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2

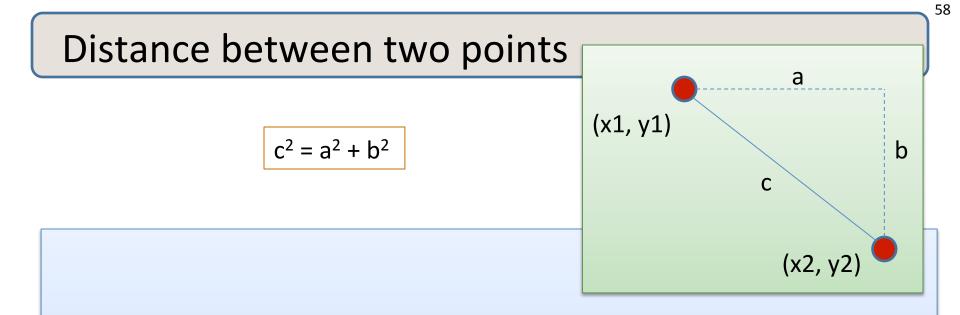
• An example:

Rules for Typing Tuples

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

Rules for Typing Tuples





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

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)

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- 5. Build new output values
 - the result type suggests how you do it

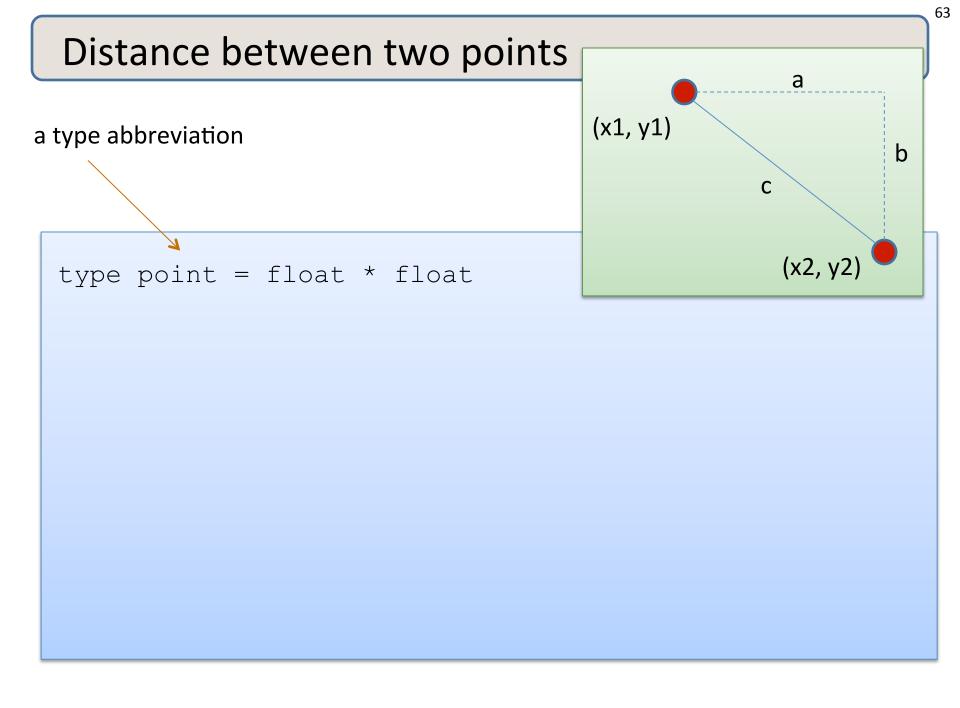
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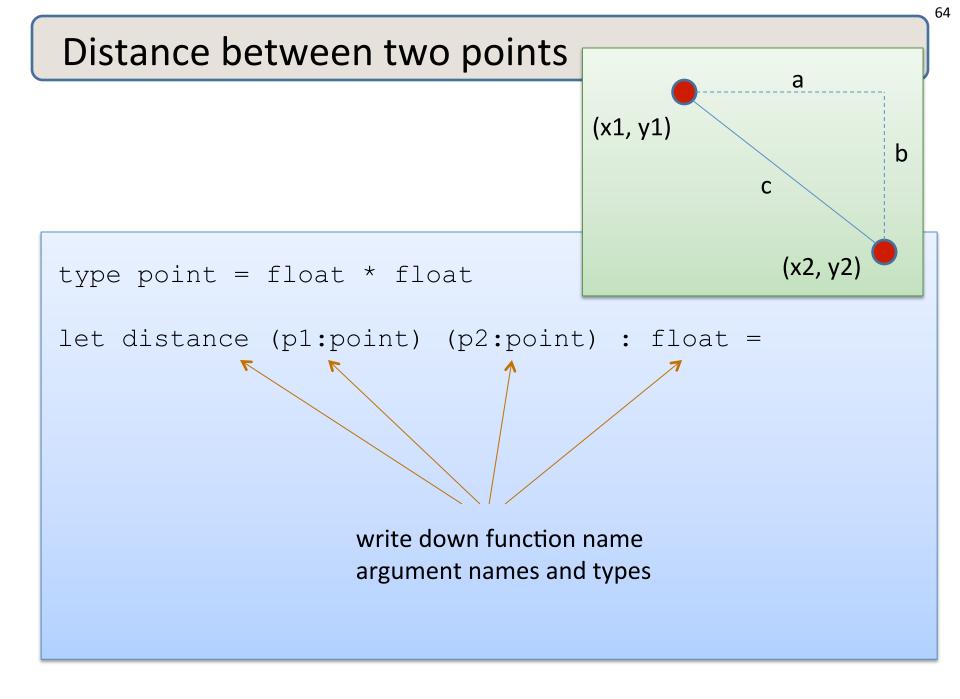
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- 6. Clean up by identifying repeated patterns
 - define and reuse helper functions
 - your code should be elegant and easy to read

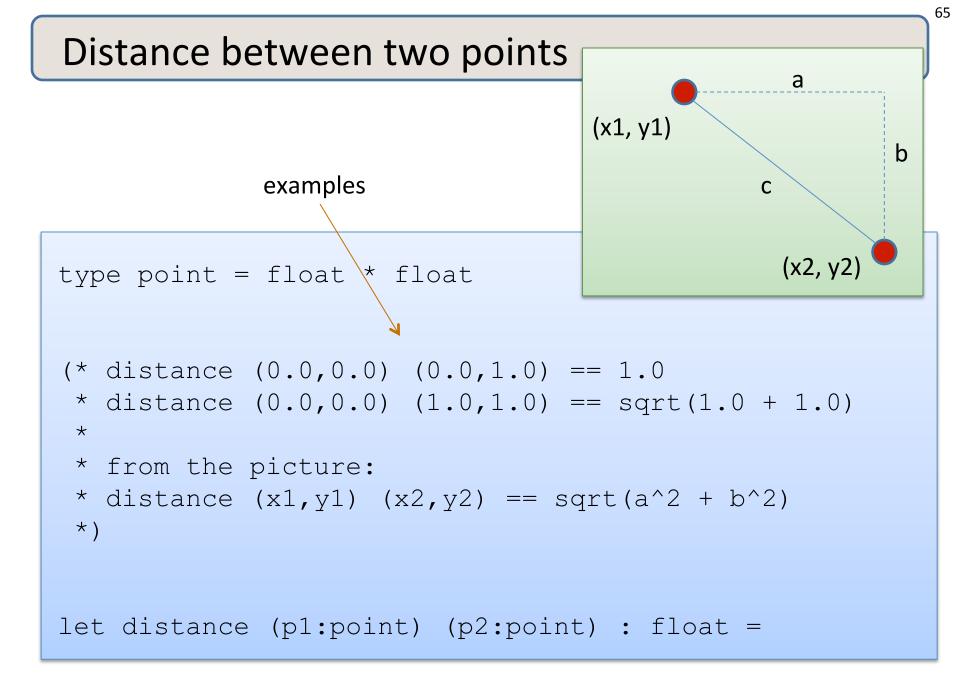
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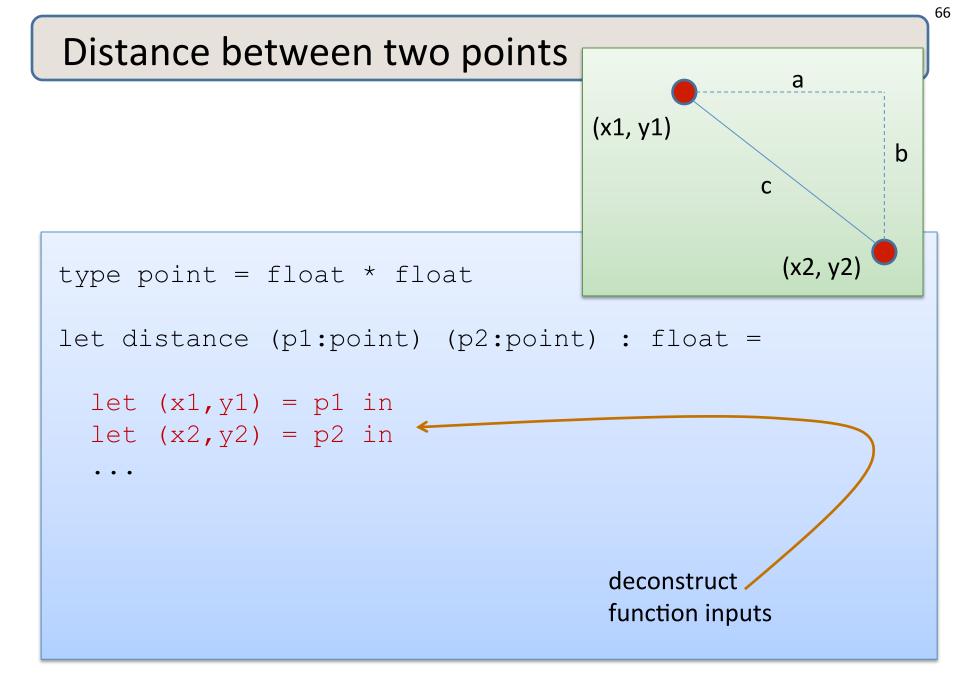
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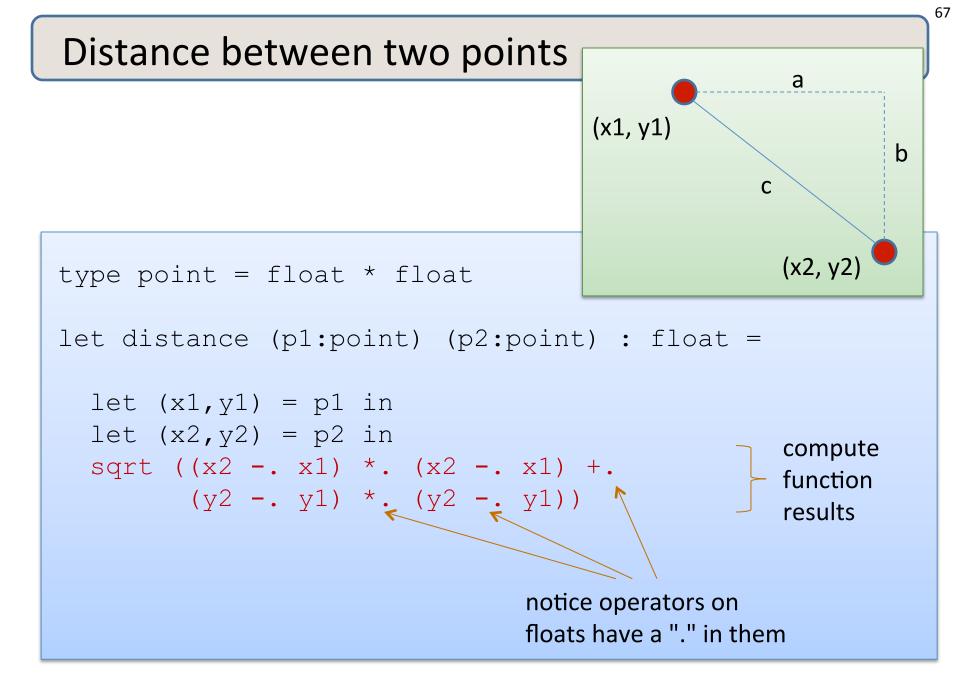
Types help structure your thinking about how to write programs.

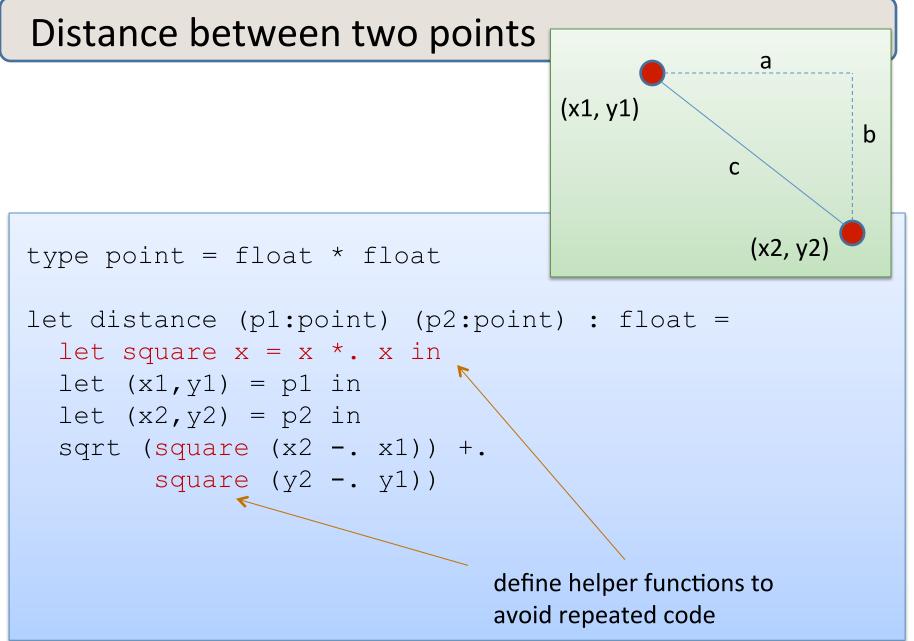


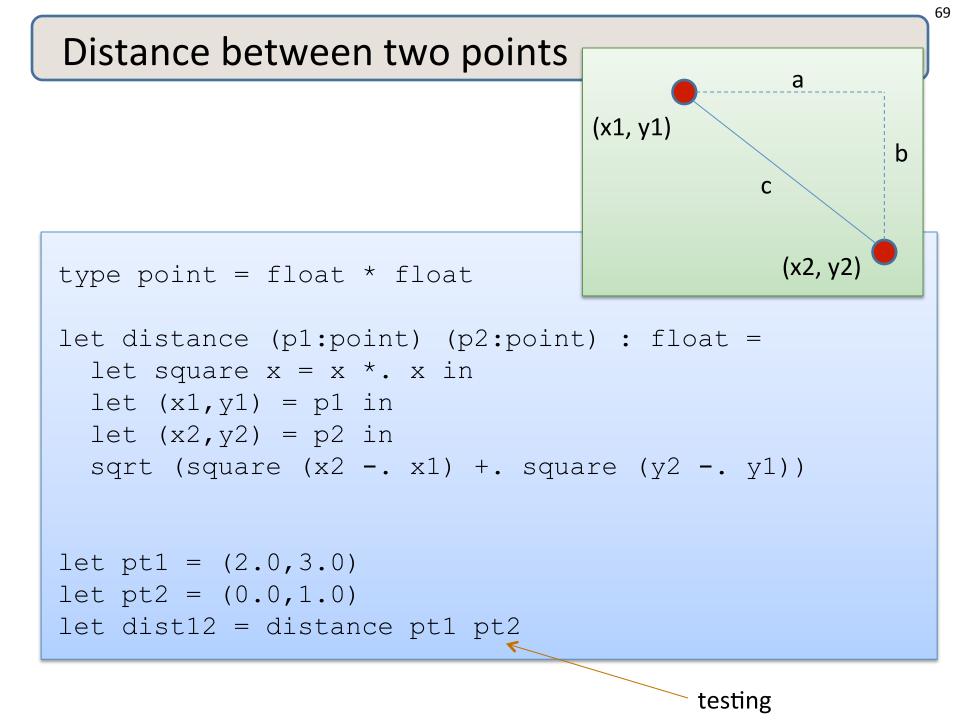












MORE TUPLES

(4.0, 5.0) : float * float

(4.0, 5.0) : float * float

• Here's a tuple with 3 fields:

(4.0, 5, "hello") : float * int * string

(4.0, 5.0) : float * float

• Here's a tuple with 3 fields:

(4.0, 5, "hello") : float * int * string

• Here's a tuple with 4 fields:

(4.0, 5, "hello", 55) : float * int * string * int

(4.0, 5.0) : float * float

• Here's a tuple with 3 fields:

(4.0, 5, "hello") : float * int * string

• Here's a tuple with 4 fields:

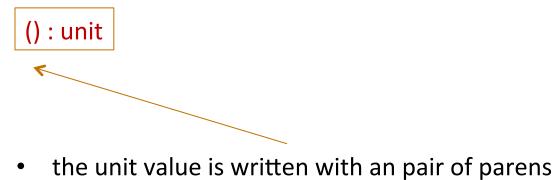
(4.0, 5, "hello", 55) : float * int * string * int

• Here's a tuple with 0 fields:

() : unit

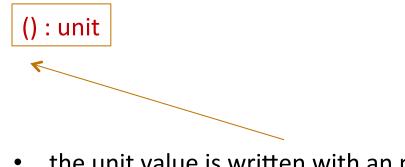
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• Unit is the tuple with zero fields!



• there are no other values with this type!

• Unit is the tuple with zero fields!



- the unit value is written with an pair of parens
- there are no other values with this type!
- Why is the unit type and value useful?
- Every expression has a type:

(print_string "hello world\n") : ???

• Unit is the tuple with zero fields!



- the unit value is written with an pair of parens
- there are no other values with this type!
- Why is the unit type and value useful?
- Every expression has a type:

(print_string "hello world\n") : unit

• Expressions executed for their *effect* return the unit value

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SUMMARY: BASIC FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING

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