



# CSE341: Programming Languages

## Lecture 5 Pattern-Matching

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# Review

Datatype bindings and pattern-matching so far:

```
datatype t = C1 of t1 | C2 of t2 | ... | Cn of tn
```

Adds type  $t$  and constructors  $C_i$  of type  $t_i \rightarrow t$

–  $C_i v$  is a value

```
case e of p1 => e1 | p2 => e2 | ... | pn => en
```

- Evaluate  $e$  to a value
- If  $p_i$  is the first pattern to match the value, then result is evaluation of  $e_i$  in environment extended by the match
- Pattern  $C_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  matches value  $C_i(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  and extends the environment with  $x_1$  to  $v_1$  ...  $x_n$  to  $v_n$
- This lecture: many more kinds of patterns and ways to use them

# *Recursive datatypes*

Datatype bindings can describe recursive structures

- Arithmetic expressions from last lecture
- Linked lists, for example:

```
datatype my_int_list = Empty
                    | Cons of int * my_int_list

val x = Cons (4, Cons (23, Cons (2008, Empty)))

fun append_my_list (xs, ys) =
  case xs of
    Empty => ys
  | Cons (x, xs') => Cons (x, append_my_list (xs', ys))
```

# Options are datatypes

Options are just a predefined datatyping binding

- **NONE** and **SOME** are constructors, not just functions
- So use pattern-matching not **isSome** and **valOf**

```
fun inc_or_zero intoption =  
  case intoption of  
    NONE => 0  
  | SOME i => i+1
```

# *Lists are datatypes*

Don't use `hd`, `tl`, or `null` either

- `[]` and `::` are constructors too
- (strange syntax, particularly *infix*)

```
fun sum_list intlist =
  case intlist of
    [] => 0
  | head::tail => head + sum_list tail

fun append (xs,ys) =
  case xs of
    [] => ys
  | x::xs' => x :: append(xs',ys)
```

# *Why pattern-matching*

- Pattern-matching is better for options and lists for the same reasons as for all datatypes
  - No missing cases, no exceptions for wrong variant, etc.
- We just learned the other way first for pedagogy
- So why are `null` and `t1` predefined then?
  - For passing as arguments to other functions (next week)
  - Because sometimes they're really convenient
  - But not a big deal: could define them yourself with case

# *Each-of types*

So far have used pattern-matching for one of types because we *needed* a way to access the values

Pattern matching also works for records and tuples:

- The pattern  $(\mathbf{x1}, \dots, \mathbf{xn})$   
matches the tuple value  $(\mathbf{v1}, \dots, \mathbf{vn})$
- The pattern  $\{\mathbf{f1}=\mathbf{x1}, \dots, \mathbf{fn}=\mathbf{xn}\}$   
matches the record value  $\{\mathbf{f1}=\mathbf{v1}, \dots, \mathbf{fn}=\mathbf{vn}\}$   
(and fields can be reordered)

# Example

This is poor style, but based on what I told you so far, the only way to use patterns

- Works but poor style to have one-branch cases

```
fun sum_triple triple =  
  case triple of  
    (x, y, z) => x + y + z
```

```
fun sum_stooges stooges =  
  case stooges of  
    {larry=x, moe=y, curly=z} => x + y + z
```

# Val-binding patterns

- New feature: A val-binding can use a pattern, not just a variable
  - (Turns out variables are just one kind of pattern, so we just told you a half-truth in lecture 1)

```
val p = e
```

- This is great for getting (all) pieces out of an each-of type
  - Can also get only parts out (see the book or ask later)
- Usually poor style to put a constructor pattern in a val-binding
  - This tests for the one variant and raises an exception if a different one is there (like `hd`, `tl`, and `valOf`)

# *Better example*

This is reasonable style

- Though we will improve it one more time next
- Semantically identical to one-branch case expressions

```
fun sum_triple triple =  
  let val (x, y, z) = triple  
  in  
    x + y + z  
  end
```

```
fun sum_stooges stooges =  
  let val {larry=x, moe=y, curly=z} = stooges  
  in  
    x + y + z  
  end
```

# *A new way to go*

- For homework 2:
  - Do not use the # character
  - You won't need to write down any explicit types
- These are related
  - Type-checker can use patterns to figure out the types
  - With just `#foo` it can't "guess what other fields"

# *Function-argument patterns*

A function argument can also be a pattern

- Match against the argument in a function call

```
fun f p = e
```

Examples:

```
fun sum_triple (x, y, z) =  
  x + y + z
```

```
fun sum_stooges {larry=x, moe=y, curly=z} =  
  x + y + z
```

# Hmm

A function that takes one triple of type `int*int*int` and returns an `int` that is their sum:

```
fun sum_triple (x, y, z) =  
  x + y + z
```

A function that takes three `int` arguments and returns an `int` that is their sum

```
fun sum_triple (x, y, z) =  
  x + y + z
```

See the difference? (Me neither.) 😊

# *The truth about functions*

- In ML, every function takes exactly one argument (\*)
- What we call multi-argument functions are just functions taking one tuple argument, implemented with a tuple pattern in the function binding
  - Elegant and flexible language design
- Enables cute and useful things you can't do in Java, e.g.,

```
fun rotate_left (x, y, z) = (y, z, x)
fun rotate_right t = rotate_left(rotate_left t)
```

\* “Zero arguments” is the unit pattern () matching the unit value ()

# One-of types in function bindings

As a matter of *taste*, I personally have never loved this syntax, but others love it and you're welcome to use it:

```
fun f p1 = e1
  | f p2 = e2
...
  | f pn = en
```

Example:

```
fun eval (Constant i) = i
  | eval (Add(e1, e2)) =
      (eval e1) + (eval e2)
  | eval (Negate e1) =
      ~ (eval e1)
```

As a matter of *semantics*, it's syntactic sugar for:

```
fun f x = e1
  case x of
    p1 => e1
  | p2 => e2
  ...
```

# *More sugar*

By the way, conditionals are just a predefined datatype and if-expressions are just syntactic sugar for case expressions

```
datatype bool = true | false
```

```
if e1 then e2 else e3
```

```
case e1 of true => e2 | false => e3
```

# *Nested patterns*

- We can nest patterns as deep as we want
  - Just like we can nest expressions as deep as we want
  - Often avoids hard-to-read, wordy nested case expressions
- So the full meaning of pattern-matching is to compare a pattern against a value for the “same shape” and bind variables to the “right parts”
  - More precise recursive definition coming after examples
- Examples:
  - Pattern  $\mathbf{a :: b :: c :: d}$  matches all lists with  $\geq 3$  elements
  - Pattern  $\mathbf{a :: b :: c :: []}$  matches all lists with 3 elements
  - Pattern  $\mathbf{( (a, b) , (c, d) ) :: e}$  matches all non-empty lists of pairs of pairs

## *Useful example: zip/unzip 3 lists*

```
fun zip3 lists =
  case lists of
    ([], [], []) => []
  | (hd1::t11, hd2::t12, hd3::t13) =>
      (hd1, hd2, hd3) :: zip3 (t11, t12, t13)
  | _ => raise ListLengthMismatch

fun unzip3 triples =
  case triples of
    [] => ([], [], [])
  | (a, b, c) :: t1 =>
      let val (l1, l2, l3) = unzip3 t1
      in
          (a::l1, b::l2, c::l3)
      end
end
```

More examples in the code for the lecture

## *(Most of) the full definition*

The semantics for pattern-matching takes a pattern  $p$  and a value  $v$  and decides (1) does it match and (2) if so, what variable bindings are introduced.

Since patterns can nest, the definition is elegantly recursive, with a separate rule for each kind of pattern. Some of the rules:

- If  $p$  is a variable  $x$ , the match succeeds and  $x$  is bound to  $v$
- If  $p$  is  $\_$ , the match succeeds and no bindings are introduced
- If  $p$  is  $(p_1, \dots, p_n)$  and  $v$  is  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ , the match succeeds if and only if  $p_1$  matches  $v_1$ , ...,  $p_n$  matches  $v_n$ . The bindings are the union of all bindings from the submatches
- If  $p$  is  $C p_1$ , the match succeeds if  $v$  is  $C v_1$  (i.e., the same constructor) and  $p_1$  matches  $v_1$ . The bindings are the bindings from the submatch.
- ... (there are several other similar forms of patterns)