The Benefits of Purity

Consider this impure code:

```java
static int x = 0
int foo(int y) {
    x++;
    return x + y;
}
```

What are the results of following calls?

f(0); f(0); f(0); . . .

Is this weird?

How does it compare to functions in math?

How does it affect reasoning?

Functional Data Structures

“… functional data structures are expected to be more flexible than their imperative counterparts. In particular, when we update an imperative data structure we typically accept that the old version of the data structure will no longer be available, but, when we update a functional data structure, we expect that both the old and new versions of the data structure will be available for further processing.”

Purely Functional Data Structures

Chris Okasaki

Functional Data Structures

Figure 2.5. Executing `zs = xs + ys` in a functional setting. Notice that the argument lists, `xs` and `ys`, are unaffected by the operation.
Why have impurity?

It is useful:
- printing
- file I/O
- time efficiency
- space efficiency
- exceptions
- divergence

Five different things

1. Syntax: How do you write language constructs?
3. Idioms: What are typical patterns for using language features to express your computation?
4. Libraries: What facilities does the language (or a well-known project) provide “standard”? (E.g., file access, data structures)
5. Tools: What do language implementations provide to make your job easier? (E.g., REPL, debugger, code formatter, …)

These are 5 separate issues
- In practice, all are essential for good programmers
- Many people confuse them, but shouldn’t

Our Focus

This course focuses on semantics and idioms

- Syntax is usually uninteresting
  - A fact to learn, like “The American Civil War ended in 1865”
  - People obsess over subjective preferences

- Libraries and tools crucial, but often learn new ones “on the job”
  - We are learning semantics and how to use that knowledge to understand all software and employ appropriate idioms
  - By avoiding most libraries/tools, our languages may look “silly” but so would any language used this way

How to build bigger types

- Already know:
  - Have various base types like int bool unit char
  - Ways to build (nested) compound types: tuples, lists, options

- Today: more ways to build compound types

- First: 3 most important type building blocks in any language
  - “Each of”: A t value contains values of each of t1 t2 … tn
  - “One of”: A t value contains values of one of t1 t2 … tn
  - “Self reference”: A t value can refer to other t values

Remarkable: A lot of data can be described with just these building blocks

Note: These are not the common names for these concepts
Examples

- Tuples build each-of types
  - `int * bool` contains an `int` and a `bool`
- Options build one-of types
  - `int option` contains an `int` or it contains no data
- Lists use all three building blocks
  - `int list` contains an `int` and another `int list` or it contains no data
- And of course we can nest compound types
  - `((int * int) option) * (int list list) option`

Rest of this Lecture

- Another way to build each-of types in ML
  - Records: have named fields
    - Connection to tuples and idea of syntactic sugar
- A way to build and use our own one-of types in ML
  - For example, a type that contains an `int` or a `string`
    - Will lead to pattern-matching, one of ML’s coolest and strangest-to-Java-programmers features
- Later in course: How OOP does one-of types
  - Key contrast with procedural and functional programming

Records

Record values have fields (any name) holding values
- `{f1 = v1, ..., fn = vn}`

Record types have fields (and name) holding types
- `{f1 : t1, ..., fn : tn}`

The order of fields in a record value or type never matters
- REPL alphabetizes fields just for consistency

Building records:
- `{f1 = e1, ..., fn = en}`

Accessing components:
- `#myfieldname e`

(Evaluation rules and type-checking as expected)

Example

```
{name = "Amélie", id = 41123 - 12}
```

Evaluates to

```
{id = 41111, name = "Amélie"}
```

And has type

```
{id : int, name : string}
```

If some expression such as a variable `x` has this type, then get fields with:
- `#id x`
- `#name x`

Note we did not have to declare any record types
- The same program could also make a
  - `{id=true,ego=false} of type {id:bool,ego:bool}`
By name vs. by position

- Little difference between \((4,7,9)\) and \(\{f=4,g=7,h=9\}\)
  - Tuples a little shorter
  - Records a little easier to remember “what is where”
  - Generally a matter of taste, but for many (6? 8? 12?) fields, a record is usually a better choice

- A common decision for a construct’s syntax is whether to refer to things by position (as in tuples) or by some (field) name (as with records)
  - A common hybrid is like with Java method arguments (and ML functions as used so far):
    - Caller uses position
    - Callee uses variables
    - Could totally do it differently; some languages have

The truth about tuples

Previous lecture gave tuples syntax, type-checking rules, and evaluation rules

But we could have done this instead:
- Tuple syntax is just a different way to write certain records
  - \((e_1,…,e_n)\) is another way of writing \(\{1=e_1,…,n=e_n\}\)
  - \(t_1*…*t_n\) is another way of writing \(\{1:t_1,…,n:t_n\}\)
  - In other words, records with field names 1, 2, …

In fact, this is how ML actually defines tuples
- Other than special syntax in programs and printing, they don’t exist
- You really can write \(\{1=4,2=7,3=9\}\), but it’s bad style

Syntactic sugar

“Tuples are just syntactic sugar for records with fields named 1, 2, … n”

- Syntactic: Can describe the semantics entirely by the corresponding record syntax
- Sugar: They make the language sweeter 😊

Will see many more examples of syntactic sugar
- They simplify understanding the language
- They simplify implementing the language

Why? Because there are fewer semantics to worry about even though we have the syntactic convenience of tuples

Another example we saw: andalso and orelse vs. if then else
Datatype bindings

A “strange” (?) and totally awesome (!) way to make one-of types:

- A datatype binding

```ml
datatype mytype = TwoInts of int * int
| Str of string
| Pizza
```

- Adds a new type `mytype` to the environment
- Adds constructors to the environment: `TwoInts`, `Str`, and `Pizza`
- A constructor is (among other things), a function that makes values of the new type (or is a value of the new type):
  - `TwoInts : int * int -> mytype`
  - `Str : string -> mytype`
  - `Pizza : mytype`  

The values we make

- Any value of type `mytype` is made from one of the constructors
- The value contains:
  - A “tag” for “which constructor” (e.g., `TwoInts`)
  - The corresponding data (e.g., `(7, 9)`)
- Examples:
  - `TwoInts(3+4, 5+4)` evaluates to `TwoInts(7, 9)`
  - `Str(if true then "hi" else "bye")` evaluates to `Str("hi")`
  - `Pizza` is a value

Using them

So we know how to build datatype values; need to access them

There are two aspects to accessing a datatype value

1. Check what variant it is (what constructor made it)
2. Extract the data (if that variant has any)

Notice how our other one-of types used functions for this:
- `null` and `isSome` check variants
- `hd`, `tl`, and `valOf` extract data (raise exception on wrong variant)

ML could have done the same for datatype bindings
- For example, functions like “isStr” and “getStrData”
- Instead it did something better

Case

ML combines the two aspects of accessing a one-of value with a case expression and pattern-matching

- Pattern-matching much more general/powerful (lecture 5)

Example:

```ml
fun f x = (* if f has type mytype -> int *)
case x of
  Pizza => 3
| TwoInts(i1,i2) => i1+i2
| Str s => String.size s
```

- A multi-branch conditional to pick branch based on variant
- Extracts data and binds to variables local to that branch
- Type-checking: all branches must have same type
- Evaluation: evaluate between `case ... of` and the right branch
Patterns

In general the syntax is:

```haskell
  case e0 of
    p1 => e1
    | p2 => e2
    ...
    | pn => en
```

For today, each pattern is a constructor name followed by the right number of variables (i.e., `C`, `C x`, `C (x, y)` or …)
- Syntactically most patterns (all today) look like expressions
- But patterns are not expressions
  - We do not evaluate them
  - We see if the result of `e0` matches them

Why this way is better

0. You can use pattern-matching to write your own testing and data-extractions functions if you must
   - But do not do that on your homework

1. You cannot forget a case (inexhaustive pattern-match warning)
2. You cannot duplicate a case (a type-checking error)
3. You will not forget to test the variant correctly and get an exception (like `hd []`)
4. Pattern-matching can be generalized and made more powerful, leading to elegant and concise code