# CSE 341: Programming Languages

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Lecture 5— Pattern-matching, one-argument functions, tail-recursion, accumulators

## Review: datatypes and pattern-matching

Evaluation rules for datatype bindings and case expressions:

datatype t = C1 of t1 | C2 of t2 |  $\dots$  | Cn of tn

Adds constructors Ci where Ci v is a value (and Ci has type  $ti \rightarrow t$ ).

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

- Evaluate e to v
- If pi is the first pattern to *match* v, then result is evaluation of ei in environment extended by the match.
- If C is a constructor of type t1 \* ... \* tn -> t, then
  C(x1,...,xn) is a pattern that matches C(v1,...,vn) and the match extends the environment with x1 to v1 ... xn to vn.
- Coming soon: more kinds of patterns.

### Expression trees

Think of values of type arith\_exp as trees where nodes are

- Constant with one int child
- Negate with one child that can be any arith\_exp tree.
- Add with two children that can be any arith\_exp trees.

In general, a type describes a set of values, which are often trees. One-of types give you different variants for nodes.

Constructors evaluate arguments to values (trees) and create bigger values (i.e., taller trees).

### Where we're going

So far, case gives us what we *need* to use datatypes:

• A (combined) way to test variants and extract values

In fact, pattern-matching is far more general and elegant:

- Can use it for datatypes already in the top-level environment (e.g., lists and options and bools)
- Can use it for each-of types (today)
- Can have deep (nested) patterns (next time)

# Why patterns?

Even without more pattern forms, this design has advantages over functions for "testing and destructing" (e.g., null, hd, and tl):

- easier to check for missing and redundant cases
- more concise syntax by combining "test, destruct, and bind"
- you can easily define testing and destructing in terms of pattern-matching

In fact, case expressions are the preferred way to test variants and extract values for all of ML's "one-of" types, including predefined ones ([] and :: just funny syntax).

So: *Don't* use functions hd, tl, null, isSome, valOf on homework 2

Teaser: These functions are useful for *passing to other functions* 

# Tuple/record patterns

You can also use patterns to extract fields from tuples and records: pattern {f1=x1, ..., fn=xn} (or (x1,...,xn)) matches {f1=v1, ..., fn=vn} (or (v1,...,vn)).

For record-patterns, field-order does not matter.

This is better style than #1 and #foo, and it means you do not (ever) need to write function-argument types.

Instead of a case with one pattern, better style is a pattern directly in a val binding.

• Or a function argument, which is what we have been doing the whole time with (allegedly) multi-argument functions!

#### Now where are we

Could use a short break from pattern-matching

• Deep (nested) patterns on Friday (along with course motivation)

Rest of today: Tail recursion, accumulators, function-call efficiency Section tomorrow: Some key features that will come up in minor ways on homework 2:

- type synonyms (e.g., type card = suit \* rank)
- 'a and 'a types and one type being "more general than another" (full lecture on polymorphism later)
- using = for comparing tuples and datatypes
- creating and raising (a.k.a. throwing) exceptions

## **Recursion**

You should now have the hang of recursion:

- It's no harder than using a loop (whatever that is)
- It's much easier when you have multiple recursive calls (e.g., with functions over trees)

But there are idioms you should learn for *elegance*, *efficiency*, and *understandability*.

Today: using an *accumulator*.

### Accumulator lessons

- Accumulators can reduce the depth of recursive calls that are not *tail calls*
- Key idioms:
  - Non-accumulator: compute recursive results and combine
  - Accumulator: use recursive result as new accumulator
  - The base case becomes the initial accumulator

You will use recursion in non-functional languages—this lesson still applies.

# Tail calls

If the result of f(x) is the "immediate result" for the enclosing function body, then f(x) is a *tail call*.

More precisely, a tail call is a call in *tail position*:

- In fun f(x) = e, e is in tail position.
- If if e1 then e2 else e3 is in tail position, then e2 and e3 are in tail position (not e1). (Similar for case).
- If let b1 ... bn in e end is in tail position, then e is in tail position (not any binding expressions).
- Function-call arguments are not in tail position.

# So what?

Why does this matter?

- Implementation takes space proportional to depth of function calls ("call stack" must "remember what to do next")
- But in functional languages, implementation must ensure tail calls eliminate the caller's space
- Accumulators are a systematic way to make some functions tail recursive
- "Self" tail-recursive is very loop-like because space does not grow