



# CSE341: Programming Languages

## Lecture 6

### Nested Patterns

### Exceptions

### Tail Recursion

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# *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

## *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 to come (see code files)

# Style

- Nested patterns can lead to very elegant, concise code
  - Avoid nested case expressions if nested patterns are simpler and avoid unnecessary branches or let-expressions
    - Example: **unzip3** and **nondecreasing**
  - A common idiom is matching against a tuple of datatypes to compare them
    - Examples: **zip3** and **multsign**
- Wildcards are good style: use them instead of variables when you do not need the data
  - Examples: **len** and **multsign**

## *(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)

# *Examples*

- Pattern  $\mathbf{a} :: \mathbf{b} :: \mathbf{c} :: \mathbf{d}$  matches all lists with  $\geq 3$  elements
- Pattern  $\mathbf{a} :: \mathbf{b} :: \mathbf{c} :: []$  matches all lists with 3 elements
- Pattern  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}), (\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{d}) :: \mathbf{e}$  matches all non-empty lists of pairs of pairs

# Exceptions

An exception binding introduces a new kind of exception

```
exception MyFirstException  
exception MySecondException of int * int
```

The `raise` primitive raises (a.k.a. throws) an exception

```
raise MyFirstException  
raise (MySecondException (7, 9))
```

A handle expression can handle (a.k.a. catch) an exception

- If doesn't match, exception continues to propagate

```
e1 handle MyFirstException => e2  
e1 handle MySecondException (x, y) => e2
```

# *Actually...*

Exceptions are a lot like datatype constructors...

- Declaring an exception adds a constructor for type **exn**
- Can pass values of **exn** anywhere (e.g., function arguments)
  - Not too common to do this but can be useful
- **handle** can have multiple branches with patterns for type **exn**



# *Recursion*

Should now be comfortable with recursion:

- No harder than using a loop (whatever that is 😊)
- Often much easier than a loop
  - When processing a tree (e.g., evaluate an arithmetic expression)
  - Examples like appending lists
  - Avoids mutation even for local variables
- Now:
  - How to reason about *efficiency* of recursion
  - The importance of *tail recursion*
  - Using an *accumulator* to achieve tail recursion
  - [No new language features here]

# Call-stacks

While a program runs, there is a *call stack* of function calls that have started but not yet returned

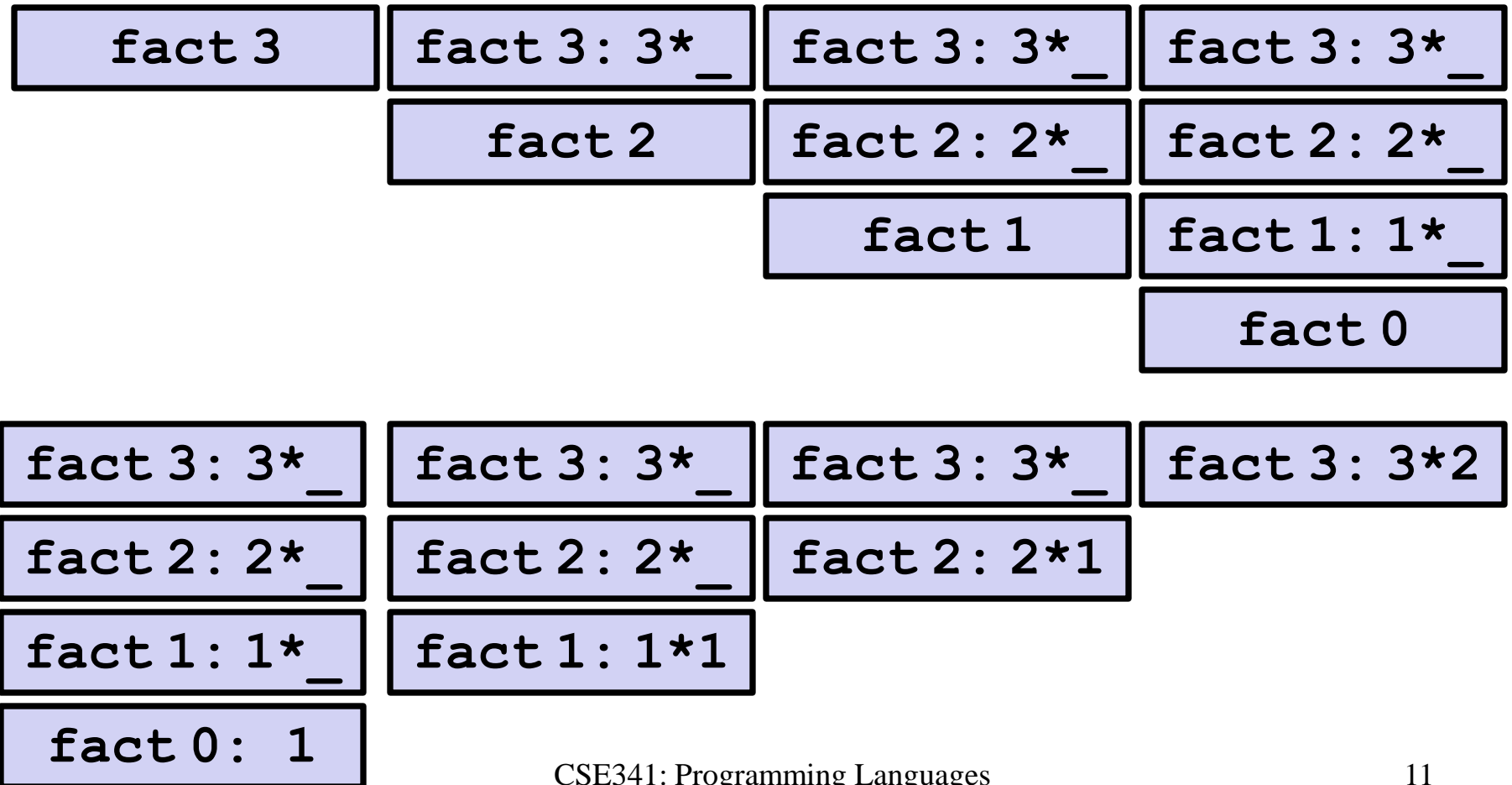
- Calling a function  $f$  pushes an instance of  $f$  on the stack
- When a call to  $f$  finishes, it is popped from the stack

These stack-frames store information like the value of local variables and “what is left to do” in the function

Due to recursion, multiple stack-frames may be calls to the same function

# Example

```
fun fact n = if n=0 then 1 else n*fact(n-1)
val x = fact 3
```

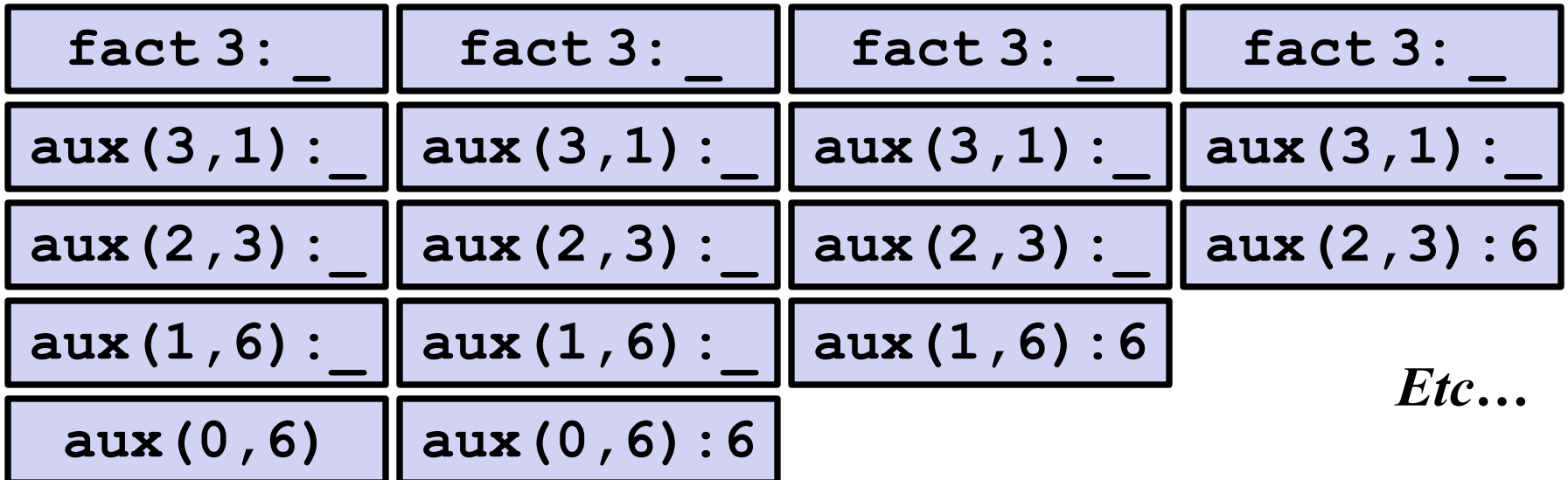
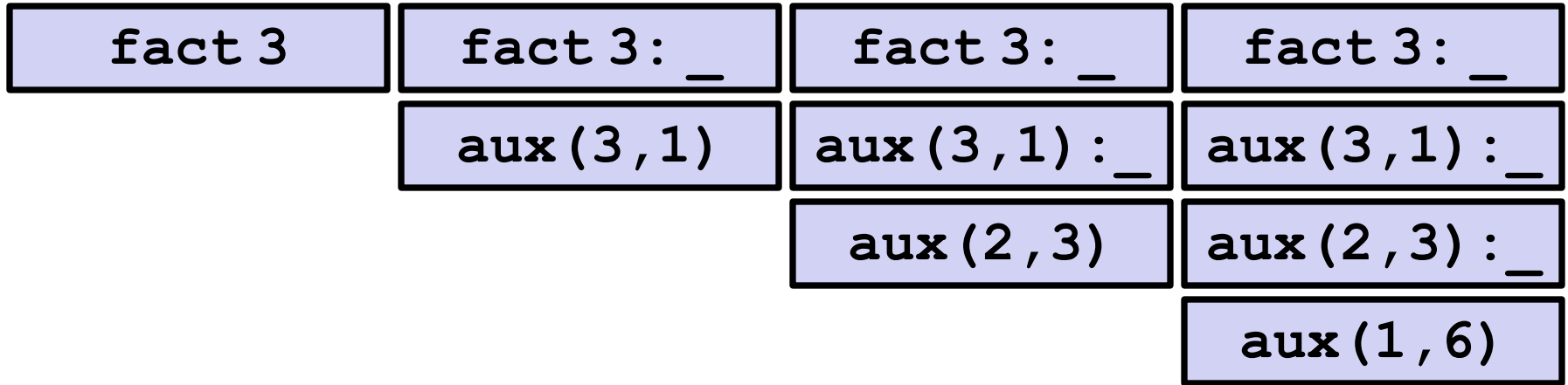


## Example Revised

```
fun fact n =  
  let fun aux(n,acc) =  
        if n=0  
        then acc  
        else aux(n-1,acc*n)  
  in  
    aux(n,1)  
  end  
val x = fact 3
```

Still recursive, more complicated, but the result of recursive calls *is* the result for the caller (no remaining multiplication)

# The call-stacks



*Etc...*

# *An optimization*

It is unnecessary to keep around a stack-frame just so it can get a callee's result and return it without any further evaluation

ML recognizes these *tail calls* in the compiler and treats them differently:

- Pop the caller *before* the call, allowing callee to *reuse* the same stack space
- (Along with other optimizations,) as efficient as a loop

Reasonable to assume all functional-language implementations do tail-call optimization

# What really happens

```
fun fact n =  
  let fun aux(n,acc) =  
        if n=0  
        then acc  
        else aux(n-1,acc*n)  
  in  
    aux(n,1)  
  end  
val x = fact 3
```

fact 3

aux(3,1)

aux(2,3)

aux(1,6)

aux(0,6)

# *Moral of tail recursion*

- Where reasonably elegant, feasible, and important, rewriting functions to be *tail-recursive* can be much more efficient
  - Tail-recursive: recursive calls are tail-calls
- There is a *methodology* that can often guide this transformation:
  - Create a helper function that takes an *accumulator*
  - Old base case becomes initial accumulator
  - New base case becomes final accumulator



## *Methodology already seen*

```
fun fact n =  
  let fun aux(n, acc) =  
        if n=0  
        then acc  
        else aux(n-1, acc*n)  
      in  
        aux(n, 1)  
      end  
val x = fact 3
```

fact 3

aux(3, 1)

aux(2, 3)

aux(1, 6)

aux(0, 6)

## *Another example*

```
fun sum xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] => 0  
  | x::xs' => x + sum xs'
```

```
fun sum xs =  
  let fun aux(xs, acc) =  
        case xs of  
          [] => acc  
        | x::xs' => aux(xs', x+acc)  
      in  
        aux(xs, 0)  
      end
```

## *And another*

```
fun rev xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (rev xs') @ [x]
```

```
fun rev xs =  
  let fun aux(xs, acc) =  
        case xs of  
          [] => acc  
        | x::xs' => aux(xs', x::acc)  
      in  
        aux(xs, [])  
      end
```

# *Actually much better*

```
fun rev xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (rev xs') @ [x]
```

- For **fact** and **sum**, tail-recursion is faster but both ways linear time
- Non-tail recursive **rev** is quadratic because each recursive call uses append, which must traverse the first list
  - And  $1+2+\dots+(\text{length}-1)$  is almost  $\text{length}*\text{length}/2$
  - Moral: beware list-append, especially within outer recursion
- Cons constant-time (and fast), so accumulator version much better

# *Always tail-recursive?*

There are certainly cases where recursive functions cannot be evaluated in a constant amount of space

Most obvious examples are functions that process trees

In these cases, the natural recursive approach is the way to go

- You could get one recursive call to be a tail call, but rarely worth the complication

Also beware the wrath of premature optimization

- Favor clear, concise code
- But do use less space if inputs may be large

# *What is a tail-call?*

The “nothing left for caller to do” intuition usually suffices

- If the result of  $f\ x$  is the “immediate result” for the enclosing function body, then  $f\ x$  is a tail call

But we can define “tail position” recursively

- Then a “tail call” is a function call in “tail position”

...

# *Precise definition*

A *tail call* is a function call in *tail position*

- If an expression is not in tail position, then no subexpressions are
- In `fun f p = e`, the body `e` is in tail position
- If `if e1 then e2 else e3` is in tail position, then `e2` and `e3` are in tail position (but `e1` is not). (Similar for case-expressions)
- If `let b1 ... bn in e end` is in tail position, then `e` is in tail position (but no binding expressions are)
- Function-call *arguments* `e1 e2` are not in tail position
- ...