

@SubSection{Defined Types}

Types can be given names:

```
@verbatim{
  - let type intpair = int # int;
  > type intpair = int # int

  - let p = 12,20;
  > p = (12,20) : int # int

  - p : intpair;
    (12,20) : intpair
}
```

The new name is simply an abbreviation; for example, 'intpair' and 'int # int' are completely equivalent. The system may use any of these equivalent type names when printing types, but tries to maintain the names which have been explicitly forced by ':':

@SubSection{Abstract Types}

New types (rather than mere abbreviations) can also be defined. For example, to define a type 'time' we could do:

```
@verbatim{
  - let type time <=> int # int
  = with maketime(hrs,mins) =
  =   if hrs<0 Or 23<hrs Or mins<0 Or 59<mins
  =   then fail
  =   else abstime(hrs,mins)
  = and hours t = fst(reptime t)
  = and minutes t = snd(reptime t);
  > type time = -
  | maketime = \ : (int # int) -> time
  | hours = \ : time -> int
  | minutes = \ : time -> int
}
```

This declaration defines an abstract (i.e. new) type 'time' together with three primitive functions: 'maketime', 'hours' and 'minutes'.

In general an abstract type declaration has the form 'type ty <=> ty1 with d' where d is a declaration, i.e. the kind of phrase that can follow 'let'.

Such a declaration introduces a new type ty which is represented by ty1.

Only within d can one use the (automatically declared) functions absty (of type ty'->ty) and repty (of type ty->ty'), which map between a type and its representation. In the example above 'abstime' and 'reptime' are only available in the definitions of 'maketime', 'hours' and 'minutes'; these latter three functions, on the other hand, are defined throughout the scope of the declaration. Thus an abstract type declaration simultaneously declares a new type together with primitive functions for the type. The representations of the type (i.e. ty'), and of the primitives (i.e. the right hand sides of the definitions in b), are not accessible outside the with-part of the declaration.

```
@verbatim{
  - let t = maketime(8,30);
  > t = - : time
}
```

```

- hours t, minutes t;
(8,30) : int # int
}

```

Notice that values of an abstract type are printed as '-'.

When interacting with the system, it is useful to be able to define abstract types incrementally in order to make experiments with them. This can be achieved by an open ended '<=>' declaration, where the 'with' part is omitted.

```

@verbatim{
- let type time <=> int # int;
> type time = -
| abstime = \ : (int # int) -> time
| reptime = \ : time -> (int # int)
}

```

Now 'abstime' and 'reptime' are available at the top level and can be used to define 'maketime', 'hours' and 'minutes' as before.

The 'with' construct is not a special syntax for abstract types: it is an environment operator which behaves like 'ins' on values (making 'abstime' and 'reptime' private) and like 'enc' on types (making 'time' available). Hence abstract types are obtained from the interaction of two orthogonal features: the *isomorphism* type constructor '<=>' and the environment operators.

@SubSection{Type operators}

Both 'list' and '#' are examples of type operators; 'list' has one argument (hence '@*{a list}') whereas '#' has two (hence '@*{a # *{b}'). Each type operator has various primitive operations associated with it, for example 'list' has 'null', 'hd', 'tl',... etc, and '#' has 'fst', 'snd' and the infix ','.

```

@verbatim{
- let z = it;
> z = 8,30 : int # int

- fst z;
8 : int

- snd z;
30 : int
}

```

Another standard operator of two arguments is '+'; '@*{a + *{b}' is the disjoint union of types @*{a and @*{b}, and associated with it are the following primitives:

```

@verbatim{
isl : (@*{a + *{b}) -> bool           -- tests membership of left summand
inl : @*{a -> (@*{a + *{b})          -- injects into left summand
inr : @*{a -> (@*{b + *{a})          -- injects into right summand
outl : (@*{a + *{b}) -> @*{a         -- projects out of left summand
outr : (@*{a + *{b}) -> @*{b         -- projects out of right summand
}

```

```
}
```

These are illustrated by:

```
@verbatim{
```

```
- let x = inl 1
= and y = inr 2;
> x = inl 1 : int + @*{a}
| y = inr 2 : @*{b} + int

- isl x;
  true : bool

- isl y;
  false : bool

- outl x;
  1 : int

- outl y;
  Failure: outl

- outr x;
  Failure: outr

- outr y;
  2 : int
```

```
}
```

The abstract type 'time' defined above can be thought of as a type operator with no arguments (i.e. a nullary operator); its primitives are 'maketime', 'hours' and 'minutes'. The 'type...<=>...with...' construct may also be used to define non-nullary type operators (with 'rec type' in place of 'type' if these are recursive). For example trees analogous to LISP S-expressions could be defined by:

```
@verbatim{
```

```
- let rec type @*{a} sexp <=> @*{a} + (@*{a} sexp) # (@*{a} sexp)
= with cons(s1,s2) = abssexp(inr(s1,s2))
= and car s = fst(outr(repsexp s))
= and cdr s = snd(outr(repsexp s))
= and atom s = isl(repsexp s)
= and makeatom a = abssexp(inl a);
> type @*{a} sexp = -
| cons = \ : (@*{a} sexp) # (@*{a} sexp) -> @*{a} sexp
| car = \ : @*{b} sexp -> @*{b} sexp
| cdr = \ : @*{c} sexp -> @*{c} sexp
| atom = \ : @*{d} sexp -> bool
| makeatom = \ : @*{e} -> @*{e} sexp
```

```
}
```

Exercise: introduce references in the above definition of sexp, so that the LISP operations 'replaca' and 'replacd' can be defined.

Exercise: modify the definition of sexp to obtain @i{lazy} S-expressions. (Hints: use functional objects to implement @i{suspensions} which prevent early evaluation, and use references to ensure that suspensions are evaluated at most once.)

```
@SubSection{Records}
```

A record is very similar to a tuple '(x@Sub{1},...,x@Sub{n})' where each x@Sub{i} is given a different label; then the order of the x@Sub{i} is not important because every component can be identified by its label.

```
@Verbatim{
  - let r = (|a=3; c="1"; b=true|);
  > r = (|a=3; b=true; c="1"|) : (|a:int; b:bool; c:tok list|)

  - r = (|c="1"; b=true; a=3|);
    true : bool
}

```

The special brackets '(|' and '|)') are used to delimit records and record types. Note how the labels 'a', 'b' and 'c' are rearranged in alphabetical order by the system.

The only operation defined on records is field selection 'r.a' where a is a label and r has a record type.

```
@Verbatim{
  - r.a;
    3 : int

  - (|a=r.a; b=r.b|);
    (|a=3; b=true|) : (|a:int; b:bool|)
}

```

Labels are not identifiers and cannot be computed. In the expression '\a. r.a' the first 'a' is a variable while the second 'a' is a label; it is not possible to parameterize with respect to a label. Also, labels are not tokens.

```
@Verbatim{
  - \a. r.a;
    \ : @*{a} -> int

  - it ();
    3 : int
}

```

A record field of the form 'a=a' (where the first 'a' is a label and the second one is a variable) can be abbreviated to 'a'; this is useful because often one uses variables having the same name as record fields for mnemonic reasons. The same applies to record types.

```
@verbatim{
  - let !{type R = (|bool; int|)!}
    = and f(x,y) = (|x; y|);
  > type R = (|bool:bool; int:int|)
    | f = \ : (@*{a} # @*{b}) -> (|x:@*{a}; y:@*{b}|)
}

```

The exact type of every record must be known; the expression '\r. r.a' will fail to typecheck in isolation because not all fields of 'r' are known (we only know it has an 'a' field). However '\r. r.a' is

accepted when the context provides enough information about 'r'.

```
@Verbatim{
  - \r. r.a;
  Unresolvable Record Selection of type: (|a:@*{a|)
  Field selector is: a
  - (\r. r.a) r;
  3 : int
}
```

```
@SubSection{Variants}
```

Variants and records can be considered as complementary concepts; a record type is a labelled product of types, while a variant type is a labelled sum (disjoint union) of types. An object of a variant type can belong to one of several types; these different cases are distinguished by the label attached to every variant object. Hence testing the label of a variant object is like testing its type out a finite set of possibilities.

```
@Verbatim{
  - let type OneOfTwo = [|int: int; bool: bool|];
  > type OneOfTwo = [|bool:bool; int:int|]
}
```

The special brackets '[' and ']' are used to delimit variants and variant types. Again, the labels 'bool' and 'int' are rearranged in alphabetical order (they should not be confused with the types `bool` and `int` which follow the `:`).

Two basic operations are defined on variants: `is` tests the label of a variant object, and `as` returns the object contained in the variant.

```
@Verbatim{
  - let v = [|int=3|] : OneOfTwo;
  > v = [|int=3|] : OneOfTwo
  - v is int, v is bool;
    (true,false) : bool # bool
  - v as int;
    3 : int
  - v as bool;
    Failure: as
}
```

We must specify `: OneOfTwo` in the definition of v because v might also belong to some different variant containing a case `int: int`. This type specification is not needed in general if the context gives enough information about v. Here is what happens if we forget to specify the type:

```
@Verbatim{
  - [|int=3|];
  Unresolvable Variant Type: [|int:int|]
```

```
}
```

A very useful abbreviation concerning variant types is the following: whenever we have a variant type with a field 'a: .' we can abbreviate that field specification to 'a', and whenever we have a variant object '[|a=()|]' we can abbreviate it to '[|a|]'.

```
@verbatim{
```

```
- let type color = [|red; orange; yellow|];
=       and fruit = [|apple; orange; banana|];
> type color = [|orange; red; yellow|]
| type fruit = [|apple; banana; orange|]

- let fruitcolor (fruit: fruit): color =
=   case fruit of
=     |apple. [|red|];
=     |banana. [|yellow|];
=     |orange. [|orange|]
=     |];
> fruitcolor = \ : fruit -> color
```

```
}
```

The 'case' construct is a convenient form of saying 'if fruit is apple then [|red|]; if fruit is banana then [|yellow|]; if fruit is orange then [|orange|] else fail' ('else fail' is never executed; a compile-time error message is given if some case is missing).

Note that ` [|orange|] ` is both a color and a fruit; it is possible to disambiguate the occurrence above because of the type declarations in the definition of fruitcolor.

```
@SubSection{Varstructs}
```

Structured variables (varstructs) can appear wherever a formal parameter is expected; we have already seen the simple case of tuples:

```
@verbatim{
```

```
- let a,b,c = 1,2,3;
> a = 1 : int
| b = 2 : int
| c = 3 : int
```

```
}
```

All the variables in a varstruct must be distinct, so that no ambiguities can arise.

Lists can also be used in varstructs, and they can be nested with tuples and with all the other kinds of varstructs:

```
@verbatim{
```

```
- let [a;b] = [1;2];
> a = 1 : int
| b = 2 : int

- let a::b = [1;2;3];
> a = 1 : int
| b = [2;3] : int list
```

```

- let a, [() ; b, c] = 1, [2, 3; 4, 5];
| a = 1 : int
| b = 4 : int
| c = 5 : int

- let [a; b] = [3];
Failure: varstruct

}

```

List varstructs may fail when the number of elements in a list is not the expected one. The varstruct '()' can be used to ignore parts of a structure.

Record and variant varstructs are also allowed.

```

@Verbatim{
- let (|a=x; b=[|int=y|]|) = (|a=3; b=[|int=4|]:OneOfTwo|);
> x = 3 : int
| y = 4 : int

}

```

Varstructs can also appear as formal parameters of functions and lambda-expressions, and in case statements. Note that record varstructs in functions allow to pass arguments in random order by associating them to labels; this feature is called 'call by keyword' in some languages.

```

@Verbatim{
- let f [a; b, c] = a, b+c;
> f = \ : ((int # int) list) -> ((int # int) # int)

- (\(|a; b|). a, b) (|b=3; a=4|);
(4, 3) : int # int

- let !{type IntOrPair = [|int:int; pair:(|x:int; y:int|)|]!}
= enc total (a: IntOrPair): int =
= case a of
= [|int=z. z;
= pair=(|x; y|). x+y
= |]
= in total [|pair= (|x=3; y=4|)|];
7 : int

}

```

The varstruct '(|x; y|)' above is an abbreviation for '(|x=x; y=y|)', just like in record expressions.