# CS115 - Module 4 - Compound data: structures

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Reminder: if you have not already, ensure you:

• Read How to Design Programs, sections 6-7, omitting 6.2, 6.6, 6.7, and 7.4.

It often comes up that we wish to join several pieces of data to form a single "package". We can then write function that consume and produce such packages.

A few examples:

A complex number

z = a + bi

is built of a real part *a* and an imaginary part *bi*.

A record in a student database might include the student's name, ID number, and program.

```
name: "James Bond"
ID: 00000007
program: 'pure-math
```

A labelled rooted binary tree has a label, left-child and right-child. 5

A Posn (short for Position) is a built-in structure that has two **fields** containing numbers intended to represent x and y coordinates. The computer knows these are called x and y. You can create a Posn using the **constructor** function, make-posn. Its contract is

;; make-posn Num Num -> Posn

(define my-posn (make-posn 4 3))

Note here were are storing *two things*, namely the x and y coordinates, in *one* value, which is a Posn.

# A Built-in structure: Posn

If you ask for the value of a Posn, it appears to just copy whatever you said. (define my-posn (make-posn 4 3)) my-posn ⇒ (make-posn 4 3) This is just like the quotation marks on a Str or Sym: (define my-str "foo") my-str ⇒ "foo" (define my-sym 'oak)

```
\texttt{my-sym} \Rightarrow \texttt{'oak}
```

# **Selector**s

With a Str, we have special functions which get a part of the value:

```
(substring "foobar" 0 3) \Rightarrow "foo"
```

In a somewhat similar way, with a Posn, we have two **selector** functions. Each selector produces the field which has the name of the selector:

```
(posn-x (make-posn 4 3)) \Rightarrow 4
(posn-y (make-posn 4 3)) \Rightarrow 3
```

```
Note: these selectors are called posn-x and posn-y because the value is a posn, and the fields are named x and y. Every structure has only the fields which are defined on it.
```

# Type predicates

#### One last function: the type predicate.

 $(posn? 42) \Rightarrow false$  $(posn? 'oak) \Rightarrow false$  $(posn? my-posn) \Rightarrow true$ 

The type predicate produces true if its argument is some object of that type.

Recall (posn-x p) produces the x coordinate, and (posn-y p) produces the y coordinate. So the difference in x coordinate between points p1 and p2 is

Complete the function distance.

```
(- (posn-x p1) (posn-x p2))
```



## Producing a Posn

## A function may produce a Posn just like any other value.

```
;; (offset-a-little x y) produce the point which is
;; moved over 3 and up 3 from (x, y).
;; offset-a-little: Num Num -> Posn
;; Example:
(check-expect (offset-a-little 5 7) (make-posn 8 10))
(define (offset-a-little x y)
  (make-posn (+ x 3) (+ y 3)))
```

Write a function +**vector** that consumes two Posn and does vector addition. (That is, it produces a new Posn where the x value is the sum of the x values, and y is the sum of the y values.) We can define a custom structure using the define-struct special form: (define-struct polarcoord (r theta))

- polarcoord is the name of the new structure type
- (r theta) are the names of the fields of the structure.

This automatically creates several functions:

Constructor make-polarcoord allows us to create values of this type Predicate polarcoord? lets us determine if a value is of this type Selectors are created, one for each field.

In this example, polarcoord-r and polarcoord-theta.

(define-struct polarcoord (r theta))

This define-struct does not tell us what the fields *mean*. So we need to document these; this is done in a comment called a **data definition**:

- ;; a Polarcoord is a (make-polarcoord Num Num)
- ;; Requires:
- ;; r is the distance to the point. r > 0.
- ;; theta is angle from the x-axis.

The data definition tells us:

- the type of each field, in a line resembling a contract.
- the meaning of each field, in a Requires section.

Write a function polarcoord->posn that consumes a Polarcoord and produces the Posn corresponding to the same point. (Mathematically,  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ .)

```
;; (polarcoord->posn p) convert p to rectangular coordinates
;; polarcoord->posn: Polarcoord -> Posn
;; Example:
(check-within (polarcoord->posn (make-polarcoord 2 (/ pi 4)))
                          (make-posn (sqrt 2) (sqrt 2)) 0.0001)
```

Write a function rotate-polar that consumes a Polarcoord and a Num and produces a Polarcoord modified by rotating it by the Num.

 What is the result of evaluating the following expression?

```
(define (pt1 (make-posn "Math135" "CS115")))
(define (pt2 (make-posn 'Red true)))
(distance pt1 pt2)
```

This causes a run-time error, but not at make-posn.

Inside distance, there it attempts to compute (- "Math 135" 'Red), which is nonsense. The system does not enforce contracts. If your contract says Int, but you give it a str, problems will probably occur.

## Contract Errors

;; (scale pt factor) produce pt

Contract errors will often manifest when we can't simplify an expression. In this case, we can't use posn-x on 2.

Many languages have **static typing**. Here the type of every value and parameter is specified as part of the code. If you break the "contract" the code will not compile.

```
typedef struct {
    float x;
    float y;
} Posn;

float distance (Posn p1, Posn p2);

int main(void) {
    Posn p1 = {2.0, 5.0};
    Posn p2 = {3.0, 4.0};
    distance(p1, p2);
}
```

This works fine! But if I add distance(p1, 3); it gives this error: distance.c: In function 'main': distance.c:20:16: error: incompatible type for argument 2 of 'distance' distance(p1, 3);

This can make it easier to write and debug your code.

# Dynamic Typing

Other languages, including Racket, have **dynamic typing**. This gives certain flexibility:

```
;; (classify n) determine if n is even or negative.
::
  Otherwise produce n.
;; classify: Int -> (anvof Sym Nat)
(define (classify n)
  (cond [(even? n) 'even]
        [(negative? n) 'negative]
        [else n]))
(define (explain n)
  (cond [(symbol? (classify n)) 'even-or-negative]
        [else 'positive-and-odd]))
```

Here a function can produce or consume values of different types in different contexts. This *can* make it easier to write and debug your code.

While Racket does not enforce contracts, we will always assume that contracts are followed.

Never call a function with arguments that violate the contract and requirements. If you desire to use one of your own helper functions in a way that violates its contract, that likely means you should modify its contract!

One of the ideas of the HtDP textbook is that the form of a program may mirror the form of the data.

A **template** is a general framework which we will complete with specifics. It is a starting point for our implementation.

A template is derived from a **data definition**. When we create a new form of data, create the template. Use the template in writing functions to consume that type of data.

```
(define-struct student
                                            ;; template for a function that
  (name id program))
                                            ;; consumes a Student.
  a Student is a
::
    (make-student Str Nat Svm)
                                            ;; mv-student-fn: Student -> Anv
;;
  Requires:
                                             (define (my-student-fn s)
;;
    name is the student's name
;;
                                               (... (student-name s) ...
;;
   id is 8 digits long
                                             The template lists all the selectors, but does
   program is sometimes fun.
;;
                                            nothing. To write a function, replace the dots
                                            with code, and remove unused selectors.
```

(define-struct household (me sally fish cat thing1 thing2))
;; a Household is is a (make-household Nat Nat Nat Nat Nat Nat)
;; Requires:
;; me is my age
;; sally is Sally's age

;; cat is the cat's age, etc.

and I want to change just one field. Do I really have to do all this work?!?

```
;; update-cat: Household -> Household
(define (update-cat house newcat)
  (make-household
   (household-me house)
   (household-sally house)
   (household-fish house)
   newcat
   (household-thing1 house)
   (household-thing2 house)))
```

...Yes. Structures in Racket are clumsy. But don't get put off structures! They are very useful, and much easier to use in every other language I know.

```
In many languages you would just say
```

```
house.cat = newcat
```

There are two new things in our syntax.

- The special form (define-struct sname (field1 ... fieldn)) defines the structure type and creates:
  - a constructor function make-sname
  - a predicate function sname?
  - *n* selectors, one for each field, named sname-field1...
- A value has additional possibilities. In addition to begin a Num, Str, Sym, or Bool, it may be of the form

```
(make-sname v1...vn)
```

Place your structure definitions and data definitions right at the top of the file, just after the file header.

```
(define-struct polarcoord (r theta))
;; a Polarcoord is a (make-polarcoord Num Num)
;; Requires:
;; r is the distance to the point. r > 0.
;; theta is angle from the x-axis.
```

Write a template, with a generic name and generic contract. (define (my-polarcoord-fn p) (...(polarcoord-r p)... ...(polarcoord-theta p)...))

The rest of the design recipe is essentially unchanged, except now you have the custom type (e.g. Polarcoord) which you added.

Become comfortable using structures: using the built-in Posn structure, and making your own structures using define-struct.

When working with your custom structures, understand how to use the constructor function, the type predicate, and the selector functions.

Before we begin the next module, please

• Read How to Design Programs, sections 9 and 10.