Lecture 1: Introduction to OCaml

CS 6371: Advanced Programming Languages

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`#1+1;;`
`- : int = 2`
`#1+2*3;;`
`- : int = 7`
	OCaml has a built-in type "int" that supports the usual binary operators.

`#let add x y = x+y;;` `add : int -> int -> int = <fun>`	Use "let" to define a function. OCaml responds by telling you the "type" of the new function you've created. This one is a function from two integers to an integer.
`#add 3 4;;` `- : int = 7`	Instead of applying a function with syntax "f(x,y)", OCaml uses syntax "(f x y)".

`#let hypotenuse x y =`
`  let xsquared = x*x in`
`  let ysquared = y*y in`
`  (xsquared + ysquared);;`
`hypotenuse : int -> int -> int = <fun>`
	"let … in …" can be used within a function definition to declare variables and assign them values. Note that a variable's definition never changes! It is assigned exactly once.

`#if 3<4 then (add 1 2) else (add 5 6);;` `- : int = 3`	In OCaml, "if…then…else…" is an expression not a command. It's like "… ? … : …" in C or Java.

`#let test x = if x<4 then "yes" else 0;;`
`Toplevel input:`
`>let test x = if x<4 then "yes" else 0;;`
`>                                  ^`
`This expression has type int,`
`but is used with type string.`
	The two branches of the "if" must return values of the same type. The example produces an error because one branch returns a string while the other returns an int.

`#true;;`
`- : bool = true`
`#false;;`
`- : bool = false`
`#true && false;;`
`- : bool = false`
`#false || false;;`
`- : bool = false`
	In addition to integers and strings, OCaml also has booleans. Conjunction is "&&" and disjunction is "||" just like in C or Java. Unlike C, booleans and integers are not interchangeable!

`#"foo" ^ "bar";;` `- : string = "foobar"`	The "^" operator performs string concatenation.

`#let rec factorial n =`
`  if n<=1 then 1 else n*(factorial (n-1));;`
`factorial : int -> int = <fun>`
	A "recursive function" calls itself. To define a recursive function, put "rec" after the "let".

`#type color = Red | Blue | Dark of color |`
`Light of color;;`
`Type color defined.`
`#Red;;`
`- : color = Red`
`#Dark Blue;;`
`- : color = Dark Blue`
`#Light (Dark Blue);;`
`- : color = Light (Dark Blue)`
	In OCaml you can define your own types with the "type" directive. In this type, "Red", "Blue", "Dark", and "Light" are the "type constructors" for type "color".

`#Light Dark Blue;;`
`Toplevel input:`
`>Light Dark Blue;;`
`>      ^^^^`
`This expression has type color -> color,`
`but is used with type color.`
	Notice that I used parentheses in the last example. If I hadn't, an error would have resulted. This is because type constructors associate left by default.

`#let isred c =`
`  (match c with Red -> true | x -> false);;`
`isred : color -> bool = <fun>`
`#let isdark c =`
`  (match c with Dark x -> true`
`  | x -> false);;`
`#let rec isred c =`
`  (match c with Red -> true`
`  | Dark x -> isred x`
`  | Light x -> isred x`
`  | x -> false);;`
`isred : color -> bool = <fun>`
	The "match … with …" operator allows you to test whether a value matches a type constructor. The left side of each -> is called a "pattern". Patterns can contain variables. If the pattern matches, the variables become bound to the respective parts of the value being tested and may be used with the right-hand side of the ->.

`#let rec isred c =`
`  (match c with Red -> true`
`  | Dark x -> isred x`
`  | Light x -> isred x`
`  | _ -> false);;`
`isred : color -> bool = <fun>`
`#isred (Dark Red);;`
`- : bool = true`
	Anywhere you would normally put a variable in a pattern you can instead put an underscore. Underscore matches to anything (just like a variable) except that it doesn't bind any variable to the matching sub-expression.

`#let mylist = [4; 8; 15; 16; 23];;`
`mylist : int list = [4; 8; 15; 16; 23]`
`#0::mylist;;`
`- : int list = [0; 4; 8; 15; 16; 23]`
`#0::1::mylist;;`
`- : int list = [0; 1; 4; 8; 15; 16; 23]`
	OCaml has a list type. Lists are enclosed in brackets and elements are separated by semicolons. The :: operator (called "cons") inserts an element onto the head of a list.

`>["foo"; 3];;`
`>^^^^^^^^^^`
`This expression has type int list,`
`but is used with type string list.`
	All elements of a list must have the same type.

`#let rec length s =`
`  (match s with`
`  [] -> 0`
`  | x::t -> (length t)+1);;`
`length : 'a list -> int = <fun>`
`#let rec addpairs s =`
`  (match s with`
`  [] -> []`
`  | x::[] -> [x]`
`  | x::y::t -> (x+y)::(addpairs t));;`
`addpairs : int list -> int list = <fun>`
	You can use "match" to match lists. The pattern "[]" matches the empty list. Pattern "a::b" matches a list with at least one element. Pattern "a::b::c" matches a list with at least two elements, etc.

`#("foo",3);;` `- : string * int = "foo", 3`	A "tuple" is a fixed-length collection of values. The members of the collection need not have the same type. This is an example of a string-int pair.

`#let math x y = (x+y, x-y, x*y);;`
`math : int -> int -> int * int * int =`
`<fun>`
	Tuples are useful when you want to return more than one value from a function.

`#let (sum,diff,prod) = (math 2 3);;`
`sum : int = 5`
`diff : int = -1`
`prod : int = 6`
`#let add (x,y) = x+y;;`
`add : int * int -> int = <fun>`
`#match (math 2 3) with (sum,_,_) -> sum;;`
`- : int = 5`
	You can "project" (i.e., pull apart) a tuple using "let" or "match".

`#();;`
`- : unit = ()`
`#let main () = "hello world";;`
`main : unit -> string = <fun>`
`#main ();;`
`- : string = "hello world"`
	The tuple with zero elements is called "unit". It is useful when you don't want to pass anything to a function.