## Lecture 1: Introduction to OCaml

## CS 4301/6371: Advanced Programming Languages

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| $\begin{aligned} & \# 1+1 ; \\ & -: \text { int }=2 \\ & \# 1+2 * 3 ; \\ & -: \text { int }=7 \end{aligned}$ | OCaml has a built-in type "int" that supports the usual binary operators. |
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| ```#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. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { \#add } 3 \text { 4; } \\ & -: \text { int }=7 \end{aligned}$ | 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: <br> >let test $\mathrm{x}=$ if $\mathrm{x}<4$ then "yes" else 0; ; $>$ <br> 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; ; <br> - : bool = true <br> \#false; ; <br> - : bool = false \#true \&\& false; <br> - : bool = false \#false \|| false; <br> - : 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 ->. |
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| ```#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. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { \#("foo",3); ; } \\ & \text { - : string * int = "foo", } 3 \end{aligned}$ | 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. |

