

## OCaml Cheatsheet

The explanations of the OCaml syntax in this sheet are by no means intended to be complete or even sufficient; check <http://mirror.ocamlcore.org/ocaml-tutorial.org/> for further information.

### 1 The `let` Keyword, Functions

Defining constants and functions in Caml is done through the `let` keyword.

- `let x = 2;;` defines a constant `x` with value 2.
- `let double a = 2 * a;;` defines a function `double` that returns the double of its parameter. Another possible syntax is `let double = fun a → 2 * a;;`.
- `let x = <value> in <expr>;;` binds `x` to *value*, but only in *expr*.

### 2 The OCaml interpreter

The command `ocaml` (without parameters) launches the Caml interpreter. You can type Caml instructions inside and immediately get their result—it is highly recommended to use the `ledit` command with `ocaml` as argument to make interacting with this interpreter bearable.

For instance, you can type:

```
# let x = 2;;
val x : int = 2
# let double = fun a → 2 * a;;
val double : int → int = <fun>
```

The shell returns information about the newly defined object in the form `val <name> : <type> = <value>`. Function types are of the form `<type_param> → <type_result>`.

You may want to import a source file in the interpreter. You can do so by using the command `#use "file.ml";;`. You can also directly run a file outside the interpreter by: `ocaml file.ml`. If you are using an external module, you might need to provide the `ocaml` command with a path, e.g. `ocaml -I +lablgtk` to add the LablTK library.

### 3 Polymorphism, Pairs

Let us look at the identity function:

```
# let id = fun x → x
val id : 'a → 'a = <fun>
```

This is a *polymorphic* function. It can take any type as input, and returns a value of the same type.

Given  $x$  and  $y$ , a pair can be built by using the notation  $(x, y)$ . If  $x$  is of type  $'a$  and  $y$  of type  $'b$ , then  $(x, y)$  is of product type  $'a * 'b$ .

**Exercise 1.** Write a function `dup` of type  $'a \rightarrow ('a * 'a)$  that, given a value, returns a pair with the input value as both first and second elements.

## 4 Curryfication

Let us redefine addition:

```
# let addition x y = x + y;;
val addition : int → int → int = <fun>
# addition 2;;
- : int → int = <fun>
```

Defined like this, addition is a function of type  $\text{int} \rightarrow (\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int})$ , that is, a function that takes an integer and returns 'a function that takes an integer and returns an integer'. This is called *curryfication*. This is the preferred way of defining functions with more than one parameter (instead of using pairs).

**Exercise 2.** Write a function `curry` of type  $(('a * 'b) \rightarrow 'c) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b \rightarrow 'c$ , that, given a function that uses a pair to encode parameters, returns a curried function.

**Exercise 3.** Write a function `decurry` of type  $('a \rightarrow 'b \rightarrow 'c) \rightarrow ('a * 'b) \rightarrow 'c$  that performs the opposite operation.

**Exercise 4.** The function `List.map` of type  $('a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a \text{ list} \rightarrow 'b \text{ list}$  takes a function and a list and returns the list obtained by applying the function to each element of the initial list. Write a function `add1` that takes a list and adds 1 to each element of this list.

## 5 Recursion

If you want to define a recursive function, then the `rec` keyword must be added:

```
# let f x = if x = 0 then 0 else (1 + f(x - 1));;
Error : Unbound value f
# let rec f x = if x=0 then 0 else (1 + f(x - 1));;
val f : int → int = <fun>
```

**Exercise 5.** Write a function `fibonacci` such that `fibonacci n` returns the  $n$ th term of the Fibonacci sequence.

**Exercise 6.** Test your Fibonacci function with  $n = 5$ , then  $n = 400$ . If this does not terminate within a reasonable time, improve your function!

## 6 Sum Types, Pattern Matching

A *sum type* can be defined by the following syntax:

```
# type sumtype = FirstCase [of type] |
> SecondCase [of type] ... |
> LastCase [of type]
```

This can be recursive. For example, Caml lists could be defined by:

```
# type 'a list = Nil | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

Then, you could build a list by using the syntax `Cons(1, Cons(2, Nil))`.

**Exercise 7.** Define a type that can represent propositional formulæ with the `Not`, `And`, and `Or` connectives and a `Var` constructor for variable names (using strings for names).

The interest of sum types lies with *pattern matching*. You can use the following constructions to filter `x` based on its type:

```
# match (x) with
> | FirstCase [(v1)] → ...
> ...
> | LastCase [(vn)] → ...
```

An extremely useful construction is `function x`, which is syntactic sugar for `fun x → match x with`.

**Exercise 8.** A propositional formula is in *negative normal form* if the negation operator is only applied to propositions.

Define a function `nmf` that turns a propositional formula into an equivalent formula in negative normal form.

**Exercise 9.** A *litteral* is either a variable or the negation of a variable. A propositional formula is in *conjunctive normal form* if it is of the form:

$$\bigwedge_i \bigvee_j \ell_{i,j} \quad (\text{where } \ell_{i,j} \text{ are litterals})$$

Define a function `cnf` that turns a propositional formula into an equivalent expression in conjunctive normal form.

**Exercise 10.** A list of variable assignments can be given in the following form (this uses the Caml notation for lists):

```
# let assoc = [("x", true); ("y", false); ("z", true)];;
val assoc : (string * bool) list = <val>
```

Define a function `eval` of type `(string * bool) list → propform → bool` that evaluates a propositional formula given a variable assignment. You might want to use the function `List.assoc`; check its documentation using `man List`.

**Exercise 11.** Define a function `fv` that, given a propositional formula, returns the list of variables that appear inside, without duplicates.

**Exercise 12.** Define a function `compile` that, given a propositional formula, prints on the standard output a Caml function that has the behaviour of the formula. For example, you should be able to have something like:

```
# compile (And(Or(Var "x", Var "y"), Or(Var "x", Var "z")));;
fun x y z → ((x) || (y)) && ((x) || (z))
- : unit
```

## 7 References

Up to now, we only used constants, and never mutable variables. So, how can we modify a variable value? A possible answer could be that you should never use mutable variables in Caml, but their use can sometimes be justified. To define a mutable variable (called a *reference*), do:

```
# let x = ref(0);;
val x : int ref = {contents = 0}
```

You can assign and retrieve the value of a reference by using `:=` and `!`:

```
# x := 1;;
# !x;;
- int = 1
```

**Exercise 13.** Translate the following functions into Caml by trying to stick as close as possible to C style.

```
int
factorielle (int n)
{
  int y = 1, res = 1;
  while (y <= n)
  {
    res *= y;
    y++;
  }
  return res;
}
```

```
int
findmax(int [] array, int length)
{
  int max, i = 1;
  assert (length > 0);
  max = array[0];
  while (i < length)
  {
    if (array[i] > max)
      max = array[i];
  }
}
```

```
    i++;  
  }  
  return max;  
}
```

**Exercise 14.** Rewrite these functions in Caml style (use a list instead of an array for findmax).