OCaml Cheatsheet

Note: this document comes from a previous course (by Sylvain Schmitz).
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 +labltk` 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 → ('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 int → (int → 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) → 'c) → 'a → 'b → 'c, that, given a function that uses a pair to encode parameters, returns a currified function.

Exercise 3. Write a function decurry of type ('a → 'b → 'c) → ('a ∗ 'b) → 'c that performs the opposite operation.

Exercise 4. The function List.map of type ('a → 'b) → 'a list → 'b 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 nth 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 fonction nnf 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:

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

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

Exercise 10. A list of variable assignements 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 assignement. 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).