The basic approach:

Rather than modify existing code, like an imperative language, we glue functions together. Advantages:

- compile-time checking for types (like C++, Java, & other "Professional" languages) this avoids exceptions!
- types need not be specified (like scheme, python, & other scripting languages)

```
Thread x = new Thread (); //Java
```

Note that pure interpreters would fail this, since they can't infer well.

```
let x = Thread ();;
(* OCaml uses type inference *)
```

- memory need not be manually managed (like Java, not C).
- good support for concurrency
- good support for higher-order functions

Our book chooses to use ML rather than OCaml, so why do we use OCaml?

- Intel & other companies use OCaml.
- OCaml is cleaner than ML
- It is good to see multiple forms of the same language

```
(* ML -> OCaml *)

x<y andalso z<w -> x<y \&\& z<w

[1, 3, 5] -> [1; 3; 5]

val x = 5 -> let x = 5

3.0 + 4.0 -> 3.0 +. 4.0
```

Note that OCaml's type inference is not as fancy as ML's.

## Properties of Code:

There is no redefinition of variables; only addition of new definitions.

```
# let x = 1 in
let f = fun y -> x + y in
let x = 2 in
f 2;;
- : int 3
(* f uses the definition of x within its code block *)
```

OCaml checks all types even if the code is unreachable.

```
# if 1<2 then "a" else "b";;
- : string "a"
#if 1<2 then "a" else 0;;
(* ERROR: OCaml is conservative,
    and assigns types to entire statements;
    We can get errors on non-errors, but if it compiles.
    we are guaranteed that there will be no type errors *)</pre>
```

Tuples have set length, lists have set type.

```
# (1, "a");;
- : int * string = (1, "a")
# [1; "a"];;
(* ^^^ ERROR: this expr has type string
but expr was expected of type int *)
# [1; 10; -3; 4*7] = [1; 7];;
- : bool = false
# (1, 10, -3, 4*7) = (1, 10);;
(* ^^^^^ ERROR: this expr has type int * int
but expr was expected of type int * ... * int *)
# [1; 5; -3] = [];;
```

```
- : bool = false
        # ["a"; "b"; "c"] = [];;
        - : bool = false
        (* huh? How is [] both int list and char list? *)
        # [];;
        - : 'a list = []
        (* this is called a generic type and 'a is a type variable *)
Functions take 1 parameter and return 1 result
        # let f = fun x \rightarrow x+1;;
        val f = int -> int = <fun>
        (* <fun> is a stand in for the tree
        or machine/byte code OCaml uses internally *)
        # let tup = (3, 12);;
        val tup = int * int = (3, 12)
        # let add = fun (x, y) -> x + y;;
        vall add : int * int -> int
        # add tup;;
        -: int = 15
        (* a tuple is a way of emulating multiple parameter functions *)
Currying is the canonical way to emulate multi-variable functions
        (* say we are attempting to emulate Lisp's 'cons' keywork *)
        (* we do this with currying: using functions that pass/return functions *)
        # let ccons = (fun a -> (fun b -> (a::b)));;
        val ccons : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
        (* we can use this in the standard two-variable way: *)
        # ccons 2 [5; 9; 27];;
        -: int list = [3; 5; 9; 27]
        (* but we can also take advantage of the function return value *)
        # let prepend_3 = (ccons 3);;
        val prepend_3 : int list -> int list
        (* thus we can create various functions without recompilation! *)
        (* this cannot be done with either element of a tuple! *)
        (* in practice, OCaml lets us simplify the declaration *)
        # let ccons = fun a b -> a::b;;
        val ccons : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
        (* because of this, function calls are left-associative:
           f g h = ((f g) h)
           but function types are right-associative:
           int -> float -> int = (int -> (float -> int))
           and the keyword 'list' has the highest priority \& '->' the lowest
           int -> float * float list = int -> (float * (float list)) *)
Pattern matching is the canonical way to test expressions
        # match 1 with
        | int n -> true
        | _ -> false ;;
        (* this returns true for ints and false otherwise *)
        (* we can use this in function parameter lists as shorthand *)
        # let car (h::_) -> h;;
        # let car = fun 1 -> match 1 with | (h::_) -> h;;
        (* ~~~~~ WARNING:
           This pattern matching is not exhaustive
           Here is an example of a case that is not matched:
           [] *)
        val car : 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
        (* this compiles, but throws an exception if we violate it *)
        Exception: Match_failure("//toplevel//", 1, 8).
        (* we would thus like to make car safer : *)
        # let safer_car = fun l -> match l with
        | (h::_) -> h
        | _ -> 0;;
```

```
val safer_car : int list -> list = <fun>
        (* this only works for integers, we would like it to be more general *)
        # let scar = fun d -> fun l = match l with
        | h::_ -> h
        | [] -> d;;
        val scar : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a = <fun>
        (* we can apply this specifically to turn it into our earlier safer_car *)
        # let safer_car = scar 0;;
        val safer_car = int -> int list -> int = <fun>
One can define custom types (in particular, unions).
  If we were to define a custom type in C
        union u (long 1; char *p;);
        union u v;
        // both of the following share an address location
        v.1 = 12;
        v.p = "abc";
        // so consider a function
        int f(union u a) { // is a.l valid or is a.p? We can't know!
        (* in OCaml, data type is known
           note that type constructors in OCaml are capitalized *)
        # type mytype =
        | Foo
        | Bar of int
        | Baz of int * int;;
        (* this leaves us with three constructors: # Foo; # Bar 12; #Baz (3, 5);
           we can use these constructors for pattern matching \& thus determine type *)
        # match myvalue with
        | Foo -> 0
        | Bar x -> x
        | Baz (y, z) -> y + z;;
        (* these unions can be generic: *)
        # type 'a option = | None (* None = type 'a option *)
        | Some of 'a;; (* Some + 'a = datatype *)
        (* this typing can be used to define an option for any type, string included
           We have thus defined a safer version of the nullptr;
           The nullptr can give runtime errors,
           but the OCaml compiler would give thisto us as a compile-time error *)
        (* we can even define types recursively *)
        # type 'a list =
        l []
        | 'a::'a list;;
We can use union pattern matching to define "polymorphic" functions:
        # fun x -> match x with
        | None -> 0
        | Some y -> y;;
        (* this is common enough that we have a shorthand *)
        # function | None -> 0 | Some y -> y
        (* this is the second major shorthand we have seen*)
        # fun x y -> x * x + y = fun x -> fun y -> x * x + y
        (* we could combine these notations; the following 3 are equivelant *)
        # let car (h:::_) -> h
        # let car = fun h_::_ -> h
        # let car = fun x \rightarrow match x with (h::_) \rightarrow h
        (* BUT we don't; we use fun for currying \& function for recursion*)
OCaml is very conducive to recursion
        (* let's try our canonical recursive function; reversing a list *)
        # let reverse = function
        | [] -> []
        | h::t -> (reverse t)@h;;
        Characters 69-76:
```

```
| h::t (reverse t)@h
        Error: unbound value reverse
        (* OCaml has an iron-clad rule -- no usage pre-definiton
           thus even x = x + 0 throws an error
           We need this functionality for recursive functions,
           so we use keyword rec *)
        # let rec reverse = function
        | [] -> []
        | h::t -> (reverse t)@h;;
        val reverse : 'a list list -> 'a list = <fun>
        (* that's not right; We want 'a list -> 'a list! See: *)
        # reverse [[3;4]; [-1;-3]; [5]; [6;9;12]];;
        int list = [6; 9; 12; 5; -1; -3; 3; 4]
        (* the static type checking caught our mistake! *)
        # let rec reverse = function
        | [] -> []
        | h::t -> (reverse t)@h;;
        (* this works, but @ is O(n), so reverse is O(n^2); we need better!
           we need an accumulator; solve a specific problem by solving a general
           this is the opposite of C, in which we get more specific to get speed *)
        # let revapp a = function
        | [] -> a
        | h::t -> (* ? *);;
        # let reverse l = revapp l [];;
        (* we just need to determine what goes in place of the question mark
           |h|t| |a| -> |t'|t|a| -- |t|a| is cheap to compute! Thus our function is:
           PLUS the program doesn't have to save stack since it won't return! *)
        # let rec apprev a = function
        | [] -> a
        | h::t -> apprev (h::a) t;;
Function type definition is only as general as the most specific operator/variable.
        (* we would like to find the minimum value in a list *)
        # let rec minlist = function
        | h::t -> let m = minlist t in
        if h \le m then h else m
        | [] -> (* ? *);;
        (* if we were doing sumlist, we would use the addition identity 0;
           if we had a minlist identity we would use it, we instead pass this to user *)
        # let rec minlist id = function
        | h::t -> let m = minlist id t in
        if h<m then h else m
        | [] -> id;;
        val minlist : int list -> int = <fun>
        (* (<) binds the function to integers; we must pass the comparison to user! *)
        # let rec minlist lt id = function
        | h::t -> let m = minlist lt id t in
        if lt h m then h else m
        | [] -> id;;
        val minlist ('a -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a -> 'a list -> 'a = \langle fun \rangle
        # minlist (<) 100000000 [3; -5; 7; -20];;</pre>
        -: int = -20
```