CENG 2010 - Programming Language Concepts Weeks 1-2: A Short Introduction to OCaml

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March 6 - March 13, 2023

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- 2 Interactive Compile
- 3 Syntax
- 4 Arrays
- 5 Algebraic Data Types
- 6 Lists
- Tuples
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General-purpose, strongly typed programming language

• successor of Caml Light (itself successor of Caml),

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- part of the ML family (SML, F#, etc.)

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- part of the ML family (SML, F#, etc.)
- designed and implemented at Inria Rocquencourt by Xavier Leroy and others
- Some applications: symbolic computation and languages (IBM, Intel, Dassault Systèmes), static analysis (Microsoft, ENS), file synchronization (Unison), peer-to-peer (MLDonkey), finance (LexiFi, Jane Street Capital), teaching

The First Program

• hello.ml

let () = print_string "hello_world! \n "

where

let () = ...

is the first entry of your program (like the "main" in C)

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let () = print_string "hello_world!\n"

where

let () = \dots

is the first entry of your program (like the "main" in C)

Compilation % ocamlopt -o hello hello.ml

Execution % ./hello
Output hello word!

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introducing a global variable

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let
$$x = e$$

- differences with respect to usual notion of variable:
 - necessarily initialized

OOP

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- · versus:

Java					OCa	ml			
final	int	Х	=	42;	let	X	=	42	

introducing a global variable

let
$$x = e$$

- differences with respect to usual notion of variable:
 - necessarily initialized
 - 2 type not necessarily declared but inferred
 - 3 cannot be assigned afterwards
- versus:

Java					OCaml					
	final	int	Х	=	42;	let	Х	=	42	

example:

where semicolon (";") is the expression separator – sequencing

References

a variable to be assigned is called a reference; it is introduced with ref

```
let a = ref 1
let b = ref 2

let () =
    print_int !a;
    print_int !b;
    b = !a + 3;
    print_int !b;
```

Expressions and Statements

no distinction between expression/statement in the syntax : only expressions

usual constructs:

conditional

let
$$i = 1$$

if i = 1 then print_int 1 else print_int 2

Expressions and Statements

no distinction between expression/statement in the syntax : only expressions

usual constructs:

conditional

for loop

let
$$a = ref 1$$

let () = for ind = 1 to 5 do $a := !a + ind$ done

• expressions with no meaningful value (assignment, loop, ...) have type unit

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let () = if !a > 0 then a := 0
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 - correct

let () = if
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 then $a := 0$

incorrect

• in C or Java, the scope of a local variable extends to the bloc:

```
{
  int x = 1;
  ...;
}
```

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```
int x = 1;
...;
```

```
let x = 12 in x * x
```

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```
int x = 1; ...;
```

• in OCaml, a local variable is introduced with let in:

let
$$x = 12$$
 in $x * x$

• as for a local variable:

• in C or Java, the scope of a local variable extends to the bloc:

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int x = 1;
...;
```

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$$x = 12$$
 in $x * x$

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• in C or Java, the scope of a local variable extends to the bloc:

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int x = 1;
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 in $x * x$

- as for a local variable:
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 - type inferred
 - immutable

• in C or Java, the scope of a local variable extends to the bloc:

```
int x = 1; ...;
```

let
$$x = 12$$
 in $x * x$

- as for a local variable:
 - necessarily initialized
 - type inferred
 - immutable
 - but scope limited to the expression following in

• let x = e1 in e2

is an expression

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- its type and value are those of e2

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- in an environment where x has the type and value of e1

• let x = e1 in e2

is an expression

- its type and value are those of e2
- in an environment where x has the type and value of e1
- Example:

let x = 1 in (let y = 2 in x + y) * (let z = 3 in x * z)

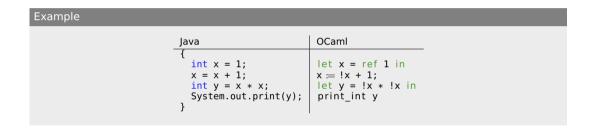


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 - : int = 3
- # let y = 1 + 2;;

val y : int = 3

- % ocaml
 OCaml version 4.14.0
 Enter #help;; for help.
- # let x = 1 in x + 2;
 - : int = 3
- # let y = 1 + 2;;

val y : int = 3

- # y * y;;
 - -: int = 9

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val $f : int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle$

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 - # f 4 ;;
 - -: int = 16

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  val f : int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle
     body = expression (no return)
     • type is inferred (types of argument x and result)
  # f 4 ;;
  -: int = 16
versus:
  Java
                           OCaml
  static int f(int x)
                            let f x = x * x
    return x * x;
```

```
• # let x = ref 1
let set v = x := v;;
```

```
val x : int ref = {contents = 1}
val set : int \rightarrow unit = <fun>
```

```
# let x = ref 1
let set v = x := v;;

val x : int ref = {contents = 1}
val set : int → unit = <fun>

# set 3;;
- : unit = ()
```

```
• # let x = ref 1
    let set v = x := v;;

val x : int ref = {contents = 1}
    val set : int → unit = <fun>
• # set 3;;
    - : unit = ()
• # !x;;
    - : int = 3
```

Functions without Arguments

takes an argument of type unit

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• # let reset () =
$$x := 0$$
;;

val reset : unit → unit = <fun>

Functions without Arguments

takes an argument of type unit

- # let reset () = x := 0;;
 - val reset : unit → unit = <fun>
- # reset ();;
 - : unit = ()

Functions with Several Arguments

takes an argument of type unit

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takes an argument of type unit

• # let f x y z = if
$$x > 0$$
 then $y + x$ else z - x;;

val f : int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int = <fun>

Functions with Several Arguments

takes an argument of type unit

- # let f x y z = if x > 0 then y + x else z x;;
 - val f : int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int = <fun>
- # f 1 2 3;;
 - -: int = 3

• function local to an expression

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 - # let sqr x = x * x in sqr 3 + sqr 4 = sqr 5;;
 - : bool = true

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- function local to another function

function local to an expression

• # let sqr
$$x = x * x in sqr 3 + sqr 4 = sqr 5;;$$

- : bool = true
- function local to another function

val pythagorean : int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int \rightarrow bool = <fun>

- # fun $x \rightarrow x+1$
 - : int \rightarrow int = <fun>

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 - : int \rightarrow int = <fun>
 - # (fun $x \rightarrow x+1$) 3;;
 - : int = 4

- # fun $x \rightarrow x+1$
 - : int \rightarrow int = <fun>
 - # (fun $x \rightarrow x+1$) 3;;
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function = yet another expression, introduced with fun

- # fun $x \rightarrow x+1$
 - : int \rightarrow int = $\langle \text{fun} \rangle$
 - # (fun $x \rightarrow x+1$) 3;;
 - -: int = 4

internally

let
$$f x = x+1;;$$

is identical to

let $f = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x+1;;$

fun x y
$$\rightarrow$$
 x*x + y*y

is the same as

fun
$$x \rightarrow fun y \rightarrow x*x + y*y$$

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 x*x + y*y

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$$x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow x*x + y*y$$

one can apply a function partially

fun x y
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 x*x + y*y

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$$x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow x*x + y*y$$

one can apply a function partially

• # let f x y =
$$x*x + y*y;;$$

val
$$f : int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle$$

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one can apply a function partially

• # let f x y =
$$x*x + y*y;;$$

val f : int
$$\rightarrow$$
 int \rightarrow int = $<$ fun>

val
$$g : int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle$$

Partial Application

fun x y
$$\rightarrow$$
 x*x + y*y

is the same as

fun
$$x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow x*x + y*y$$

one can apply a function partially

• # let f x y =
$$x*x + y*y;;$$

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$$-: int = 25$$

• a partial application is a way to return a function

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- but one can also return a function as the result of a computation

• # let f x = let x2 = x * x in fun y
$$\rightarrow$$
 x2 + y * y;;

val f : int
$$\rightarrow$$
 int \rightarrow int = $<$ fun $>$

- a partial application is a way to return a function
- but one can also return a function as the result of a computation

• # let f x = let
$$x2 = x * x$$
 in fun $y \rightarrow x2 + y * y$;

val
$$f : int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle$$

• a partial application of f computes x*x only once

Example (Partial Application)

• # let count_from n = let r = ref (n-1) in fun () \rightarrow incr r; !r;;

val count from : int \rightarrow unit \rightarrow int = <fun>

Example (Partial Application)

val c : unit \rightarrow int = $\langle fun \rangle$

```
• # let count_from n = let r = ref (n-1) in fun () → incr r; !r;;
val count_from : int → unit → int = <fun>
# let c = count_from 0;;
```

Example (Partial Application)

```
• # let count_from n = let r = ref (n-1) in fun () \rightarrow incr r; !r;;
  val count from : int \rightarrow unit \rightarrow int = <fun>
  # let c = count_from 0;;
  val c : unit \rightarrow int = <fun>
• # c ();;
  -: int = 0
  # c ();;
  -: int = 1
```

Higher-Order Functions

functions that input and output functions

```
# let riemann (f: float → float) (a: int) (b: int) (n: int): float =
let a = ref a in
let s = ref 0.0 in
let x = (b - !a)/n in
a := !a + x;
while !a ≤ b do
s := !s + . (f (float !a) *. float x);
a := !a + x
done;
!s;;
val riemann : (float → float) → int → int → float = <fun>
```

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 - a function call is cheap

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 - tail calls are optimized
- Example:

```
let zero f =
  let rec lookup i = if f i = 0 then i else lookup (i+1)
  in lookup 0
```

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- Example:

```
let zero f =
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```

recursive code ⇒ clearer, simpler to justify

refers to many forms

- refers to many forms
- polymorphic function = act over values with many different types

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- # let f x = x;;

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 - -: int = 3

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- # f 3;;
 - -: int = 3
- # f true;;
 - : bool = true

- · refers to many forms
- polymorphic function = act over values with many different types
- # let f x = x;;

val f :
$$\alpha \rightarrow \alpha = < \text{fun}>$$

- # f 3;;
 - -: int = 3
- # f true;;
 - : bool = true
- # f print_int;;
 - : int → unit = <fun>

- refers to many forms
- polymorphic function = act over values with many different types
- # let f x = x;;

val f :
$$\alpha \rightarrow \alpha = \langle \text{fun} \rangle$$

- # f 3;;
 - -: int = 3
- # f true;;
 - : bool = true
- # f print_int::
 - : int → unit = <fun>
- # f (print_int 20; Printf.printf "\n");;
 20
 - : unit = ()

Polymorphism (cont'd)

OCaml always infers the most general type

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Polymorphism (cont'd)

OCaml always infers the most general type

let compose f
$$q = \text{fun } x \rightarrow f (q x);$$

val compose :
$$(\alpha \to \beta) \to (\gamma \to \alpha) \to \gamma \to \beta = \langle \text{fun} \rangle$$

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```
• # let a = Array.make 10 0;;
```

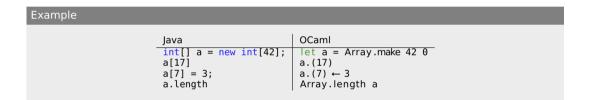
```
val a : int array = [ | 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0]
necessarily initialized
```

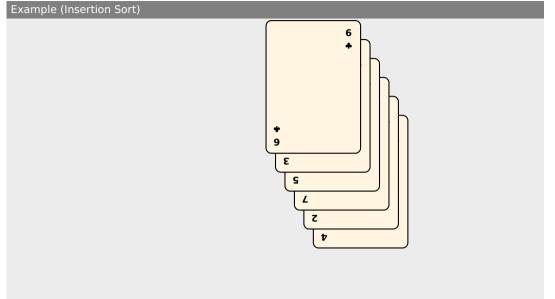
```
# let a = Array.make 10 0;;
val a : int array = [|0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0]
necessarily initialized
# let a = [| 1; 2; 3; 4 |];;
```

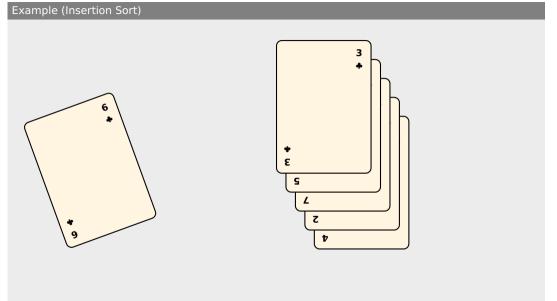
```
• # let a = [| 1; 2; 3; 4 |];
# a.(1);;
- : int = 2
```

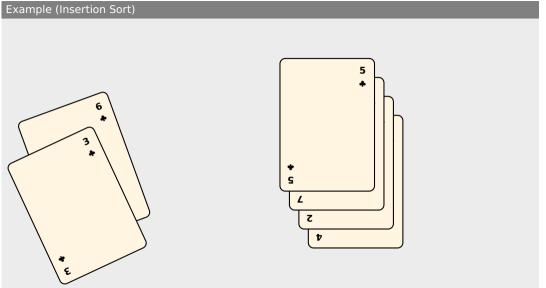
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 # a.(1);;
  -: int = 2
• # a.(1) ← 5::
  -: unit =()
```

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• # a.(1) ← 5::
  -: unit =()
• # a;;
  -: int array = [|1; 5; 3; 4|]
```

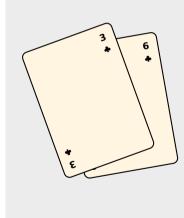


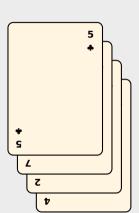




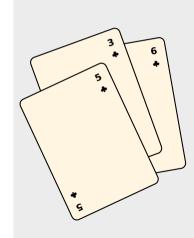


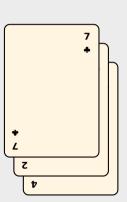
Example (Insertion Sort)



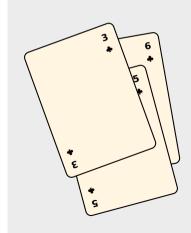


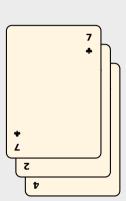
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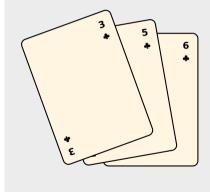


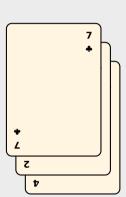


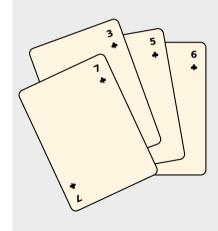
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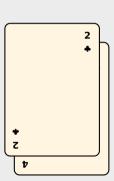


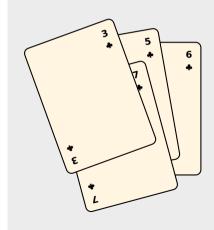


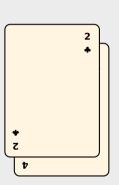


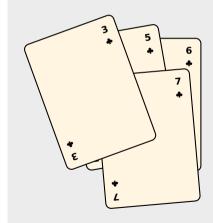


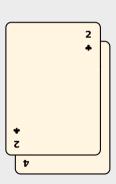


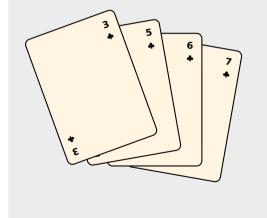


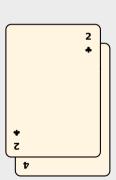


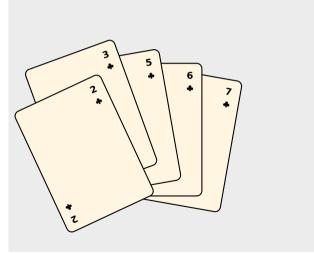




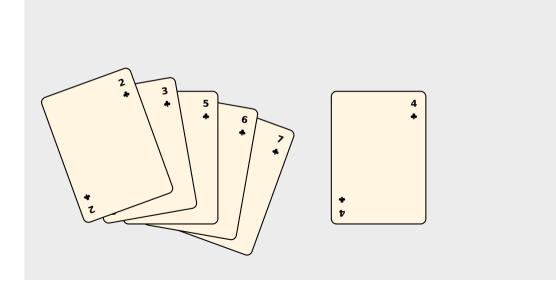


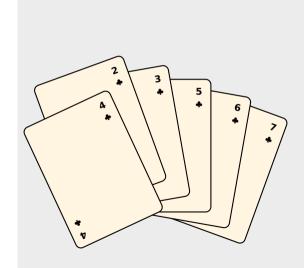


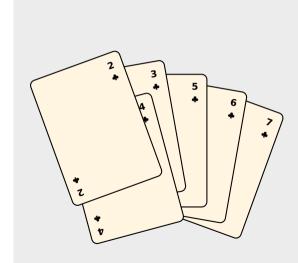


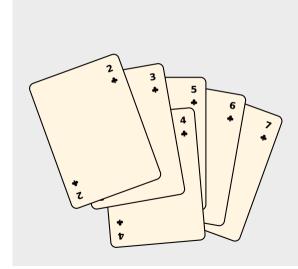


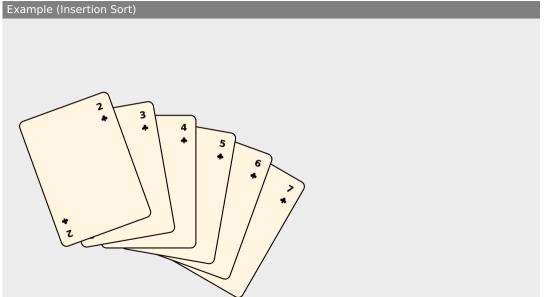












Example (Insertion Sort – iterative insertion)

```
let insertion sort a = let swap i \bar{j} = let t = a.(i) in a.(i) \leftarrow a.(j); a.(j) \leftarrow t in for i = 1 to Array.length a - 1 do (* insert element a[i] in a[0..i-1] *) let j = ref (i-1) in while !j \geq 0 && a.(!j) > a.(!j+1) do swap !j (!j + 1); decr j done done
```

Example (Insertion Sort – recursive insertion)

```
let insertion sort a = let swap i \bar{j} = let t = a.(i) in a.(i) \leftarrow a.(j); a.(j) \leftarrow t in for i = 1 to Array.length a - 1 do (* insert element a[i] in a[0..i-1] *) let rec insert j = if j \geq 0 && a.(j) > a.(j+1) then begin swap j (j+1); insert (j-1) end in insert (i-1) done
```

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Algebraic Data Types (Memory Representation)

• algebraic data type = union of several constructors

```
type formula =
    | True
    | False
    | And of formula * formula

# True;;
- : formula = True

# And (True, False);;
- : formula = And (True, False)
```

Pattern Matching (Algebraic Data Types)

pattern matching generalizes to algebraic data types

```
# let rec eval = function

| True \rightarrow true

| False \rightarrow false

| And (f1, f2) \rightarrow eval f1 && eval f2;;

val eval : formula \rightarrow bool = <fun>
```

Pattern Matching (Algebraic Data Types)

pattern matching generalizes to algebraic data types

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# let rec eval = function

| True \rightarrow true

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| And (f1, f2) \rightarrow eval f1 && eval f2;;
```

val eval : formula \rightarrow bool = <fun>

• patterns can be omitted or grouped:

```
let rec eval = function

| True \rightarrow true

| False \rightarrow false

| And (False, _) | And (_, False) \rightarrow false

| And (f1, f2) \rightarrow eval f1 && eval f2;;
```

Syntax

Example (Positive Integers)

```
type pos =
    XI: pos \rightarrow pos
    XO: pos → pos
    XH: pos
let rec pos2Int (p: pos): int =
  match p with
      XI k \rightarrow 2 * pos2Int k + 1
      XO k \rightarrow 2 * pos2Int k
      XH \rightarrow 1
let rec int2PosH (n: int) (m: int): pos =
  if n \ge 1 \&\& m \ge 2 then int2PosH (n-1) (m-2)
  else if n \ge 1 \&\& m = 1 then XO (int2PosH (n-1) (n-1))
  else if n \ge 1 \&\& m = 0 then XI (int2PosH (n-1) (n-1))
  else XH
let int2Pos (i: int): pos =
  if i < 1 then failwith "input_a_non-negative_integer"</pre>
  else int2PosH i (i+1)
```

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- predefined type of lists, α list, immutable and homogeneous
- built from the empty list [] and addition in front of a list ::

```
• # let l = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: [];;
val l : int list = [1; 2; 3]
```

shorter syntax

```
# let l = [1; 2; 3];;
```

Pattern Matching (Lists)

pattern matching = case analysis on a list

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pattern matching = case analysis on a list

```
* # let rec sum l =
    match I with
    | [] → 0
    | x :: r → x + sum r;;

val sum : int list → int = <fun>
# sum [1;2;3];;
- : int = 6
```

Pattern Matching (Lists)

pattern matching = case analysis on a list

• shorter notation for a function performing pattern matching on its argument

```
let rec sum = function

\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rightarrow 0 \\ x :: r \rightarrow x + \text{sum } r; \end{bmatrix}
```

Lists (Memory Representation)

OCaml lists = identical to lists in C or Java

Lists (Memory Representation)

- OCaml lists = identical to lists in C or Java
- the list [1; 2; 3] is represented as



Example (List Operations)

```
let rec myConcat (I1: \alpha list)

(I2: \alpha list): \alpha list = match I1 with

| [] \rightarrow I2

| x::xs \rightarrow x :: myConcat xs I2

let rec myReverse (I: \alpha list): \alpha list = match I with

| [] \rightarrow []

| x::xs \rightarrow myConcat (myReverse xs) [x]
```

```
let rec myMap (f: \alpha \rightarrow \beta) (I: \alpha \text{ list}): \beta \text{ list} = \max \{ 1 \text{ with} \}
|[] \rightarrow []
|x::xs \rightarrow f \text{ } x :: \text{ myMap } f \text{ } xs
let rec myFoldr (f: \alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \beta)
(u: \beta) (I: \alpha \text{ list}): \beta = \max \{ 1 \text{ with} \}
|[] \rightarrow u
|x::xs \rightarrow f \text{ } x \text{ } (\text{myFoldr} \text{ } f \text{ } u \text{ } xs)
```

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Tuples

usual notation:

```
# (1,2,3);;
```

-: int * int * int = (1, 2, 3)

Tuples

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```
# (1,2,3);;
- : int * int * int = (1, 2, 3)

# let v = (1, true, "hello", 'a');;
val v : int * bool * string * char = (1, true, "hello", 'a')
```

Tuples

```
usual notation:
```

```
# (1,2,3);;
- : int * int * int = (1, 2, 3)

# let v = (1, true, "hello", 'a');;
val v : int * bool * string * char = (1, true, "hello", 'a')
```

access to components

```
# let (a,b,c,d) = v;;

val a : int = 1
val b : bool = true
val c : string = "hello"
val d : char = 'a'
```

Tuples (cont'd)

• beneficial when it comes to returning several values:

```
# let rec division n m =
    if n < m then (0, n)
    else let (q,r) = division (n - m) m in (q + 1, r);;
val division : int → int → int * int = <fun>
```

Tuples (cont'd)

beneficial when it comes to returning several values:

```
# let rec division n m =
    if n < m then (0, n)
    else let (q,r) = division (n - m) m in (q + 1, r);;
val division : int → int → int * int = <fun>
```

• function taking a tuple as argument

```
# let f (x,y) = x + y;;
val f : int * int → int = <fun>
# f (1,2);;
- : int = 3
```

Example (Currification)

```
let myCurry (f: (\alpha*\beta) \rightarrow \gamma): (\alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma) = fun (x: \alpha) \rightarrow fun (y: \beta) \rightarrow f (x, y) let addP (t: (int*int)): int = fst t + snd t let myUnCurry (f: \alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma): ((\alpha*\beta) \rightarrow \gamma) = fun (x: (\alpha*\beta)) \rightarrow f (fst x) (snd x) let add (x: int) (y: int): int = x + y
```

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Records

• type complex = { re : float; im : float }

Records

- type complex = { re : float; im : float }
- allocation and initialization are simultaneous:

```
# let x = { re = 1.0; im = -1.0 };;
val x : complex = {re = 1.; im = -1.}
# x.im;;
- : float = -1.
```

Mutable Fields

```
type person = { name : string; mutable age : int }
# let p = { name = "Martin"; age = 23 };;
val p : person = {name = "Martin"; age = 23}
# p.age ← p.age + 1;;
- : unit = ()
# p.age;;
- : int = 24
```

```
Example
                     Java
                                               OCaml
                                               type t =
                     class T
                       final int v;
                                                 v: int;
                       boolean b:
                                                 mutable b: bool;
                       T(int v, boolean b)
                         this.v = v;
                         this.b = b;
                     T r = new T(42, true);
                                              let r = \{ v = 42; b = true \}
                     r.b = false;
                                               r.b ← false
                     r.v
                                               r.v
```

a reference = a record of that predefined type

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• type 'a ref = { mutable contents : 'a }

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- type 'a ref = { mutable contents : 'a }
- ref, ! and := are syntactic sugar

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- type 'a ref = { mutable contents : 'a }
- ref, ! and := are syntactic sugar
- only arrays and mutable fields can be mutated

Example (Rationals)

```
type rat =
{
   num : int;
   denom: pos;
}

let rat2String (r: rat): string =
   string_of_int (r.num) ^ "/" ^ string_of_int (pos2Int (r.denom))

let printRat (r: rat): unit =
   printf "%s\n" (rat2String r)

let ratEq (r1: rat) (r2: rat): bool =
   r1.num * (pos2Int r2.denom) = r2.num * (pos2Int r1.denom)
```

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OOP Classes

• class = collection of attributes (data) and methods

OOP Classes

- class = collection of attributes (data) and methods
- example:

```
class dice = object
  val max = 6
  val mutable faceValue = 0

method roll =
  Random.self_init();
  faceValue \( \cdot \) (Random.full_int max) + 1

method set_faceValue v =
  faceValue \( \cdot \) v

method get_faceValue =
  faceValue
```

Example (inheritance)

```
class rectangle (w: int) (h: int) = object (s)
  val mutable x = 0
  val mutable v = 0
  method get_x = x
  method set x v = x \leftarrow v
  method qet v = v
  method set y v = y \leftarrow v
  method area = w * h
end
class square (w: int) = object (s)
  inherit rectangle w w as r
  method is contained (px, py) =
    x \le px \& px \le x + w \&
    y \le py \&\& py \le y + w
end
```

Example (ad-hoc polymorphism)

```
class virtual shape (name: string) = object (s)
val virtual mutable x: int
val virtual mutable y: int
method virtual area: int

method describe =
    "shape_is_" ^name ^ "_at_" ^ "(" ^ string_of_int x ^ "," ^ string_of_int y ^ ")" ^
    "_with_the_area_=_" ^ string_of_int (s#area)
end
```

OOP

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```
class rectangle (w: int) (h: int) = object
inherit shape "rectangle" as r

val mutable x = 0
val mutable y = 0

method get_x = x
method set_x v = x ← v

method get_y = y
method set_y v = y ← v

method area = w * h
end
```

Example (ad-hoc polymorphism (cont'd))

```
class square (w: int) = object
inherit shape "square" as r

val mutable x = 0
val mutable y = 0

method get_x = x
method set_x v = x ← v

method get_y = y
method set_y v = y ← v

method area = w * w
end
```

Thanks! & Questions?