

Graduate Programming Languages: OCaml Tutorial

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Hello, World!

```
(* our first program *)
let x = print_string "Hello, World!\n"
```

- A program is a sequence of *bindings*
- One kind of binding is a *variable binding*
- Evaluation evaluates bindings in order
- To evaluate a variable binding:
 - Evaluate the expression (right of `=`) in the environment created by the previous bindings.
 - This produces a value.
 - Extend the (top-level) environment, binding the variable to the value.

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Some variations

```
let x = print_string "Hello, World!\n"
(*same as previous with nothing bound to ())
let _ = print_string "Hello, World!\n"
(*same w/ variables and infix concat function*)
let h = "Hello, "
let w = "World!\n"
let _ = print_string (h ^ w)
(*function f: ignores its argument & prints*)
let f x = print_string (h ^ w)
(*so these both print (call is juxtapose)*)
let y1 = f 37
let y2 = f f (* pass function itself *)
(*but this does not (y1 bound to ())*)
let y3 = y1
```

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Compiling/running

<code>ocamlc file.ml</code>	compile to bytecodes (put in executable)
<code>ocamlopt file.ml</code>	compile to native (1-5x faster, no need in class)
<code>ocamlc -i file.ml</code>	print types of all top-level bindings (an interface)
<code>ocaml</code>	read-eval-print loop (see manual for directives)
<code>ocamlprof,</code> <code>ocamldebug, ...</code>	see the manual (probably unnecessary)

- Later: multiple files

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Installing, learning

- Links from the web page:
 - www.ocaml.org
 - The on-line manual (great reference)
 - An on-line book (less of a reference)
 - Installation/use instructions
- Contact us with install problems soon!
- Ask questions (we know the language, want to share)

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Types

- Every expression has one type. So far:

```
int string unit t1->t2 'a
(* print_string : string->unit, ... : string *)
let x = print_string "Hello, World!\n"
(* x : unit *)
...
(* ^ : string -> string -> string *)
let f x = print_string (h ^ w)
(* f : 'a -> unit *)
let y1 = f 37 (* y1 : unit *)
let y2 = f f (* y2 : unit *)
let y3 = y1 (* y3 : unit *)
```

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Explicit types

- You (almost) never need to write down types
 - But can help debug or document
 - Can also constrain callers, e.g.:

```
let f x = print_string (h ^ w)
let g (x:int) = f x

let _ = g 37
let _ = g "hi" (*no typecheck, but f "hi" does*)
```

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Theory break

Some terminology and pedantry to serve us well:

- Expressions are *evaluated* in an environment
- An *environment* maps variables to values
- Expressions are *type-checked* in a context
- A *context* maps variables to types
- Values* are integers, strings, function-closures, ...
 - “things already evaluated”
- Constructs have evaluation rules (except values) and type-checking rules

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Recursion

- A let binding is not in scope for its expression, so:

```
let rec
  (* smallest infinite loop *)
  let rec forever x = forever x
  (* factorial (if x>=0, parens necessary) *)
  let rec fact x =
    if x==0 then 1 else x * (fact(x-1))
  (*everything an expression, e.g., if-then-else*)
  let fact2 x =
    if x==0 then 1 else x * (fact(x-1))) * 2 / 2
```

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Locals

- Local variables and functions much like top-level ones (with `in` keyword)

```
let quadruple x =
  let double y = y + y in
  let ans = double x + double x in
  ans

let _ =
  print_string((string_of_int(quadruple 7)) ^ "\n")
```

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Anonymous functions

- Functions need not be bound to names
 - In fact we can *desugar* what we have been doing

```
let quadruple2 x =
  (fun x -> x + x) x + (fun x -> x + x) x

let quadruple3 x =
  let double = fun x -> x + x in
  double x + double x
```

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Passing functions

```
(* without sharing (shame) *)
print_string((string_of_int(quadruple 7)) ^ "\n");
print_string((string_of_int(quadruple2 7)) ^ "\n");
print_string((string_of_int(quadruple3 7)) ^ "\n")
(* with "boring" sharing (fine here) *)
let print_i_nl i =
  print_string ((string_of_int i) ^ "\n")
let _ = print_i_nl (quadruple 7);
  print_i_nl (quadruple2 7);
  print_i_nl (quadruple3 7)
(* passing functions instead *)
let print_i_nl2 i f = print_i_nl (f i)
let _ = print_i_nl2 7 quadruple ;
  print_i_nl2 7 quadruple2;
  print_i_nl2 7 quadruple3
```

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Multiple args, currying

```
let print_i_nl2 i f = print_i_nl (f i)
```

- Inferior style (fine, but OCaml novice):

```
let print_on_seven f = print_i_nl2 7 f
```

- Partial application (elegant and addictive):

```
let print_on_seven = print_i_nl2 7
```

- Makes no difference to callers:

```
let _ = print_on_seven quadruple ;
  print_on_seven quadruple2;
  print_on_seven quadruple3
```

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Currying exposed

```
(* 2 ways to write the same thing *)
let print_i_nl2 i f = print_i_nl (f i)
let print_i_nl2 =
  fun i -> (fun f -> print_i_nl (f i))
(*print_i_nl2 : (int -> ((int -> int) -> unit))
 i.e.,          (int -> (int -> int) -> unit)
*)

(* 2 ways to write the same thing *)
print_i_nl2 7 quadruple

(print_i_nl2 7) quadruple
```

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Elegant generalization

- Partial application is just an *idiom*
 - Every function takes exactly one argument
 - Call (application) “associates to the left”
 - Function types “associate to the right”
- Using functions to simulate multiple arguments is called *currying* (somebody’s name)
- OCaml implementation plays cool tricks so full application is efficient (merges n calls into 1)

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Closures

Static (a.k.a. lexical) scope; a really big idea

```
let y = 5
let return11 = (* unit -> int *)
  let x = 6 in
    fun () -> x + y
let y = 7
let x = 8
let _ = print_i_nl (return11 ()) (* prints 11! *)
```

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The semantics

A function call $e_1 \ e_2$:

1. evaluates e_1, e_2 to values v_1, v_2 (order undefined)
where v_1 is a function with argument x , body e_3
2. Evaluates e_3 in the environment where v_1 was defined, extended to map x to v_2

Equivalent description:

- A function $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e$ evaluates to a triple of x, e , and the current environment
 - Triple called a *closure*
- Call evaluates closure’s body in closure’s environment extended to map x to v_2

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Closures are closed

```
let y = 5
let return11 = (* unit -> int *)
  let y = 6 in
    fun () -> x + y
```

`return11` is bound to a value `y`

- All you can do with this value is call it (with `()`)
- It will *always* return 11
 - Which environment is not determined by caller
 - The environment contents are immutable
- `let return11 () = 11`
guaranteed not to change the program

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Another example

```
let x = 9
let f () = x+1
let x = x+1
let g () = x+1
let _ = print_i_nl (f() + g())
```

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Mutation exists

There is a built-in type for mutable locations that can be read and assigned to:

```
let x = ref 9
let f () = (!x)+1
let _ = x := (!x)+1
let g () = (!x)+1
let _ = print_i_nl (f() + g())
```

While sometimes awkward to avoid, need it much less often than you think (and it leads to sadness)

On homework, do not use mutation unless we say

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Summary so far

- Bindings (top-level and local)
- Functions
 - Recursion
 - Currying
 - Closures
- Types
 - “base” types (`unit`, `int`, `string`, `bool`, ...)
 - Function types
 - Type variables

Now: compound data

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Record types

```
type int_pair = {first : int; second : int}
let sum_int_pr x = x.first + x.second
let pr1 = {first = 3; second = 4}
let _ = sum_int_pr pr1
  + sum_int_pr {first=5;second=6}
```

A type constructor for polymorphic data/code:

```
type 'a pair = {a_first : 'a; a_second : 'a}
let sum_pr f x = f x.a_first + f x.a_second
let pr2 = {a_first = 3; a_second = 4}(*int pair*)
let _ = sum_int_pr pr1
  + sum_int_pr (fun x->x) {a_first=5;a_second=6}
```

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More polymorphic code

```
type 'a pair = {a_first : 'a; a_second : 'a}
let sum_pr f x = f x.a_first + f x.a_second
let pr2 = {a_first = 3; a_second = 4}
let pr3 = {a_first = "hi"; a_second = "mom"}
let pr4 = {a_first = pr2; a_second = pr2}
let sum_int      = sum_pr (fun x -> x)
let sum_str      = sum_pr String.length
let sum_int_pair = sum_pr sum_int
let _ = print_i_nl (sum_int pr2)
let _ = print_i_nl (sum_str pr3)
let _ = print_i_nl (sum_int_pair pr4)
```

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Each-of vs. one-of

- Records build new types via “each of” existing types
- Also need new types via “one of” existing types
 - Subclasses in OOP
 - Enums or unions (with tags) in C
- OCaml does this directly; the tags are *constructors*
 - Type is called a *datatype*

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Datatypes

```
type food = Foo of int | Bar of int_pair
             | Baz of int * int | Quux

let foo3      = Foo (1 + 2)
let bar12    = Bar pr1
let baz1_120 = Baz(1,fact 5)
let quux     = Quux (* not much point in this *)

let is_a_foo x =
  match x with (* better than "downcasts" *)
  | Foo i    -> true
  | Bar pr   -> false
  | Baz(i,j) -> false
  | Quux     -> false
```

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Datatypes

- Syntax note: Constructors capitalized, variables not
- Use constructor to make a value of the type
- Use pattern-matching to use a value of the type
 - Only way to do it
 - Pattern-matching actually much more powerful

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Booleans revealed

Predefined datatype (violating capitalization rules ☺):

```
type bool = true | false
```

if is just sugar for **match** (but better style):

- **if e1 then e2 else e3**
- **match e1 with**
 - true -> e2**
 - false -> e3**

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Recursive types

A datatype can be recursive, allowing data structures of unbounded size

And it can be polymorphic, just like records

```
type int_tree = Leaf
              | Node of int * int_tree * int_tree
type 'a lst = Null
            | Cons of 'a * 'a lst
let lst1 = Cons(3,Null)
let lst2 = Cons(1,Cons(2,lst1))
(* let lst_bad = Cons("hi",lst2) *)
let lst3 = Cons("hi",Cons("mom",Null))
let lst4 = Cons (Cons (3,Null),
                 Cons (Cons (4,Null), Null))
```

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Recursive functions

```
type 'a lst = Null
           | Cons of 'a * 'a lst

let rec length lst = (* 'a lst -> int *)
  match lst with
  | Null -> 0
  | Cons(x,rest) -> 1 + length rest
```

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Recursive functions

```
type 'a lst = Null  
          | Cons of 'a * 'a lst  
  
let rec sum lst = (* int lst -> int *)  
  match lst with  
  Null -> 0  
  | Cons(x,rest) -> x + sum rest
```

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Recursive functions

```
type 'a lst = Null  
          | Cons of 'a * 'a lst  
  
let rec append lst1 lst2 =  
  (* 'a lst -> 'a lst -> 'a lst *)  
  match lst1 with  
  Null -> lst2  
  | Cons(x,rest) -> Cons(x, append rest lst2)
```

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Another built-in

Actually the type `'a list` is built-in:

- Null is written `[]`
- `Cons(x,y)` is written `x::y`
- And sugar for list literals `[5; 6; 7]`

```
let rec append lst1 lst2 = (* built-in infix @ *)  
  match lst1 with  
  [] -> lst2  
  | x::rest -> x :: append rest lst2
```

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Summary

- Now we really have it all
 - Recursive higher-order functions
 - Records
 - Recursive datatypes
- Some important odds and ends
 - Tuples
 - Nested patterns
 - Exceptions
- Then (simple) modules

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Tuples

Defining record types all the time is unnecessary:

- Types: `t1 * t2 * ... * tn`
- Construct tuples `e1,e2,...,en`
- Get elements with pattern-matching `x1,x2,...,xn`
- Advice: use parentheses

```
let x = (3,"hi", (fun x -> x), fun x -> x ^ "ism")  
  
let z = match x with (i,s,f1,f2) -> f1 i  
  
let z = (let (i,s,f1,f2) = x in f1 i)
```

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Pattern-matching revealed

- You can pattern-match anything
 - Only way to access datatypes and tuples
 - A variable or `_` matches anything
 - Patterns can nest
 - Patterns can include constants (3, “hi”, ...)
- `let` can have patterns, just sugar for `match!`
- “Quiz”: What is
 - `let f x y = x + y`
 - `let f pr = (match pr with (x,y) -> x+y)`
 - `let f (x,y) = x + y`
 - `let f (x1,y1) (x2,y2) = x1 + y2`

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Fancy patterns example

```
type sign = P | N | Z
let multsign x1 x2 =
  let sign x =
    if x>=0 then (if x=0 then Z else P) else N
  in
  match (sign x1,sign x2) with
  | (P,P) -> P
  | (N,N) -> P
  | (Z,_) -> Z
  | (_,Z) -> Z
  | _ -> N (* many say bad style! *)
```

To avoid *overlap*, two more cases
(more robust if datatype changes)

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Fancy patterns example

```
exception ZipLengthMismatch

let rec zip3 lst1 lst2 lst3 =
  match (lst1,lst2,lst3) with
  | ([],[],[]) -> []
  | (hd1::t1,hd2::t2,hd3::t3) ->
    (hd1,hd2,hd3)::(zip3 t1 t2 t3)
  | _ -> raise ZipLengthMismatch
```

Try that in your favorite language ☺

'a list -> 'b list -> 'c list -> ('a*'b*'c) list

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Modules

- So far, only way to hide things is local let
 - Not good for large programs
 - OCaml has a great *module system*, but we need only the basics
- **Modules** and **signatures** give
 - Namespace management
 - Hiding of values and types
 - Abstraction of types
 - Separate compilation
- By default, OCaml builds on the filesystem

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Module pragmatics

- **foo.ml** defines module **Foo**
- **Bar** uses variable **x**, type **t**, constructor **C** in **Foo** via **Foo.x**, **Foo.t**, **Foo.C**
 - Can **open** a module, use sparingly
- **foo.mli** defines signature for module **Foo**
 - Or “everything public” if no **foo.mli**
- Order matters (command-line)
 - No forward references (long story)
 - Program-evaluation order
- See manual for **.cm[i,o]** files, **-c** flag, etc.

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Module example

foo.ml

```
type t1 = X1 of int
       | X2 of int

let get_int t =
  match t with
  | X1 i -> i
  | X2 i -> i

type even = int

let makeEven i = i*2
let isEven1 i = true
(* isEven2 is "private" *)
let isEven2 i = (i mod 2)=0
```

foo.mli

```
(* choose to show *)
type t1 = X1 of int
       | X2 of int

val get_int : t1->int

(* choose to hide *)
type even

val makeEven : int->even
val isEven1 : even->bool
```

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Module example

bar.ml

```
type t1 = X1 of int
       | X2 of int

let conv1 t =
  match t with
  | X1 i -> Foo.X1 i
  | X2 i -> Foo.X2 i

let conv2 t =
  match t with
  | Foo.X1 i -> X1 i
  | Foo.X2 i -> X2 i

let _ =
  Foo.get_int(conv1(X1 17));
  Foo.isEven1(Foo.makeEven 17)
  (* Foo.isEven1 34 *)
```

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foo.mli

```
(* choose to show *)
type t1 = X1 of int
       | X2 of int

val get_int : t1->int

(* choose to hide *)
type even

val makeEven : int->even
val isEven1 : even->bool
```

Not the whole language

- Objects
- Loop forms (bleach)
- Fancy module stuff (functors)
- Polymorphic variants
- Mutable fields
- Catching exceptions; exceptions carrying values

Just don't need much of this for class
(nor do I use these features much)