

OCaml: The Basics

Concepts of Programming Languages
Lecture 2

Announcements

- » You must attend **both** the in-class quizzes
- » We will follow the online book: [OCaml Programming: Correct + Efficient + Beautiful](#)
- » Hope you all have installed OCaml

Outline

- » Briefly outline the use of **Dune**
- » Cover the **basic expressions** we need to start programming in OCaml, look at some examples
- » Define more carefully the notion of an **inference rule**
- » Write basic OCaml programs on primitive types

Recall: Expressions

In OCaml and (functional languages in general),
everything is an expression

Functions, variables,
arguments, assignments, etc.

All expressions have a value

$$2 + (2 * 3)$$

if x = 3 then 4 else 5

$$H(f(f(f(x, y), 2), g(z)))$$

An OCaml Program is an Expression

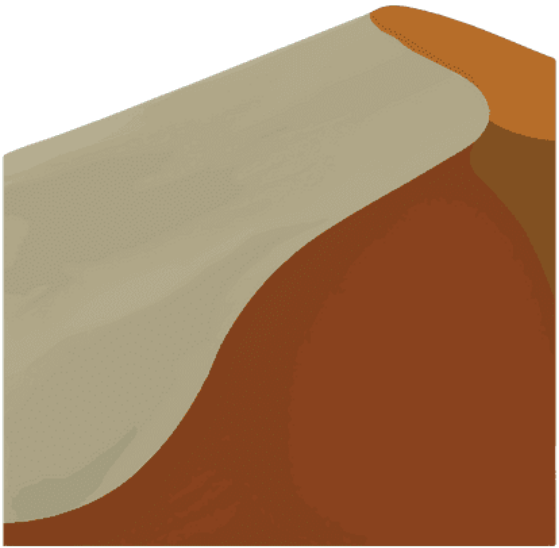
Therefore, it has a type

And a value

For every possible expression, we'll
define the syntax rules, the typing
rules, and the semantic rules

Working with OCaml

Dune



DUNE

Dune

Dune is a build tool for OCaml



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It allows us to specify project-level dependencies and configurations



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Cheatsheet:



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» **dune build:** type check your project



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Cheatsheet:

» **dune build:** type check your project

» **dune utop:** open Utop in a project aware way



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- » **dune utop:** open Utop in a project aware way
- » **dune test:** run a testing code associated with the project



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- » **dune build:** type check your project
- » **dune utop:** open Utop in a project aware way
- » **dune test:** run a testing code associated with the project
- » **dune exec PROJ_NAME:** run the executable of your project



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Cheatsheet:

- » **dune build:** type check your project
- » **dune utop:** open Utop in a project aware way
- » **dune test:** run a testing code associated with the project
- » **dune exec PROJ_NAME:** run the executable of your project
- » **dune clean:** removes files created by dune build (not so important but may come in handy)

UTop

```
Welcome to utop version %%VERSION%%

Findlib has been successfully loaded. Additional directives:
#require "package";;      to load a package
#list;;                   to list the available packages
#camlp4o;;                to load camlp4 (standard syntax)
#camlp4r;;                to load camlp4 (revised syntax)
#predicates "p,q,...";;   to set these predicates
Topfind.reset();;         to force that packages will be reloaded
#thread;;                 to enable threads

Type #utop_help for help about using utop.

-( 23:00:06 )-< command 0 >
utop # 1 + 2;;
- : int = 3
-( 23:00:06 )-< command 1 >
utop #
```

Afl_instrument	Alias_analysis	Allocated_const	Annot	Arc
----------------	----------------	-----------------	-------	-----

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» `#quit;;` or (Ctl-D) leaves UTop

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Expressions (Informally)

High Level View

Each expression has a **form**
(e.g. `2 + 7`, `true`, `"true"`)
[defined by **syntax rules**]

Each expression has a **unique type**
(e.g. `2 + 7 : int`, `true : bool`, `"true" : string`)
[defined by typing rules]

Each expression has a **unique value**
(e.g. `2 + 7 ↓ 9`, `true ↓ true`, `"true" ↓ "true"`)
[defined by semantics rules]

Primitive Types and Literals

As with any PL, OCaml has a collection of standard types and literals

Type	Literals	Operators
int	0, -2, 13, -023	+, -, *, /, mod
float	3., -1.01	+. , -. , *. , /.
bool	true, false	&&, , not
char	'b', 'c'	
string	"word", "@*&#"	^

demo

(simple use of primitive types)

A Couple Notes on Operators

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Operators for int and float are *different*,
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Comparison operators are standard, e.g., `<`, `<=`, `>`, `>=`, and
can be used to compare any expressions of the same type

Note that equality check is just `=` (not `==`) and inequality
is `<>` (not `!=`)

A Note on Type Annotations

```
let x : int = 2 + 7  
let y : bool = true  
let z : string = "true"
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OCaml has type inference which means we rarely have to *specify* the types of expression in our program

A Note on Type Annotations

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let x : int = 2 + 7  
let y : bool = true  
let z : string = "true"
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OCaml has type inference which means we rarely have to *specify* the types of expression in our program

That said, you **should** include type annotations, especially at the beginning, because they're useful for *documentation* and for *code clarity*

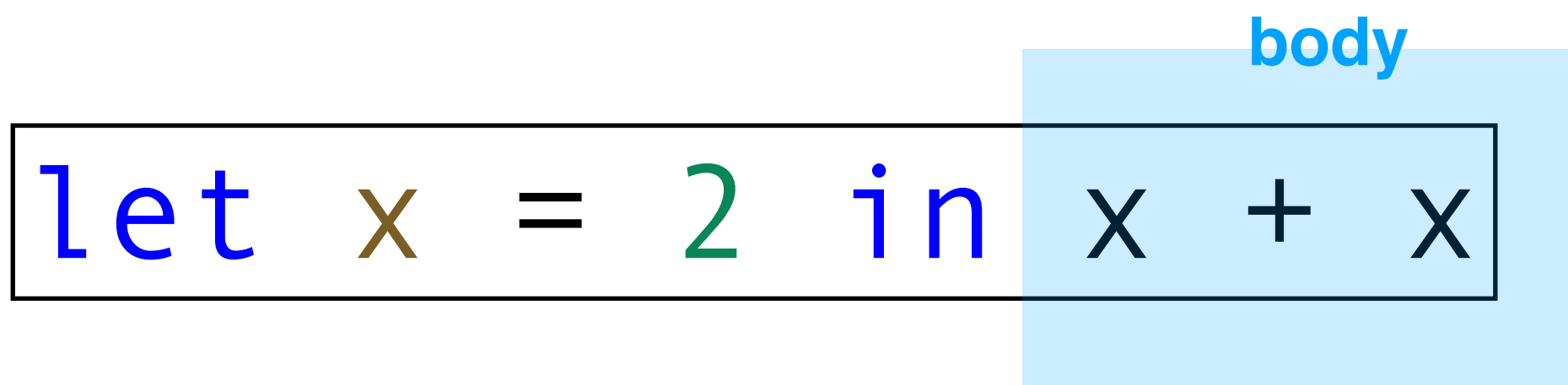
First Abstraction of the Day

Let Expressions and Variables

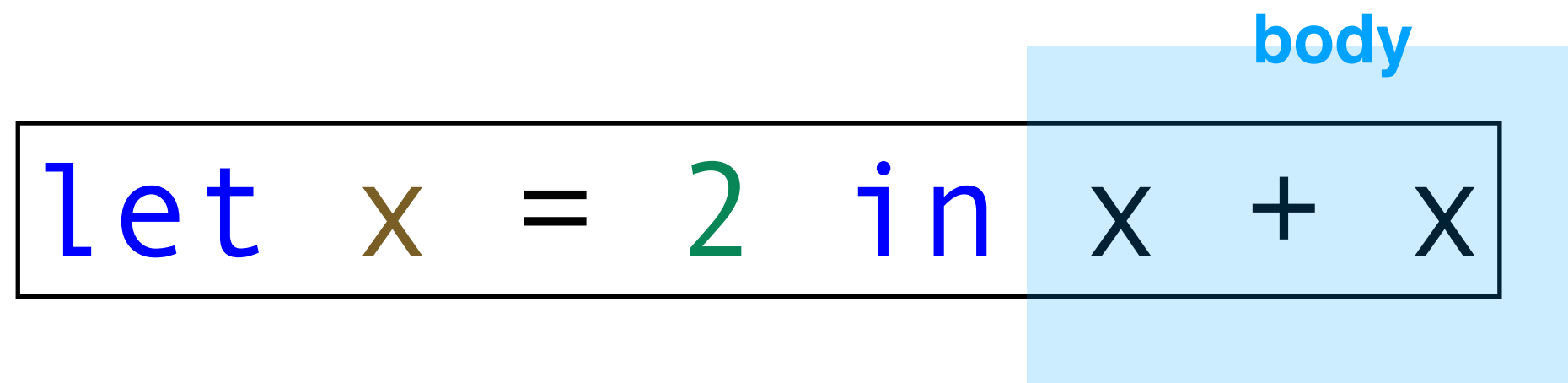
Local Variables

body

```
let x = 2 in x + x
```

A diagram illustrating a local variable binding. The code 'let x = 2 in x + x' is shown. The text 'let x = 2 in' is enclosed in a thin black rectangular box. The expression 'x + x' is enclosed in a light blue rectangular box. The word 'body' is written in blue text above the right side of the light blue box, indicating that 'x + x' is the body of the 'let' expression.

Local Variables

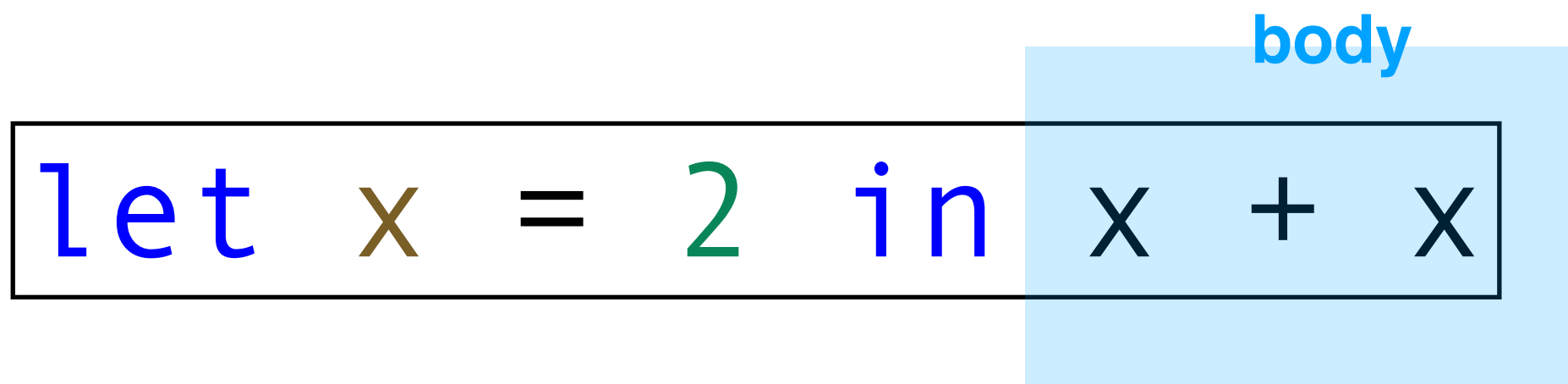


The diagram shows the OCaml expression `let x = 2 in x + x`. The text is enclosed in a black rectangular box. The word `let` is blue, `x` is brown, `=` is black, `2` is green, `in` is blue, `x` is black, `+` is black, and `x` is black. A light blue rectangular box highlights the expression `x + x`, with the word `body` written in blue above it.

```
let x = 2 in x + x
```

As with any reasonable PL, we can define local variables in OCaml

Local Variables

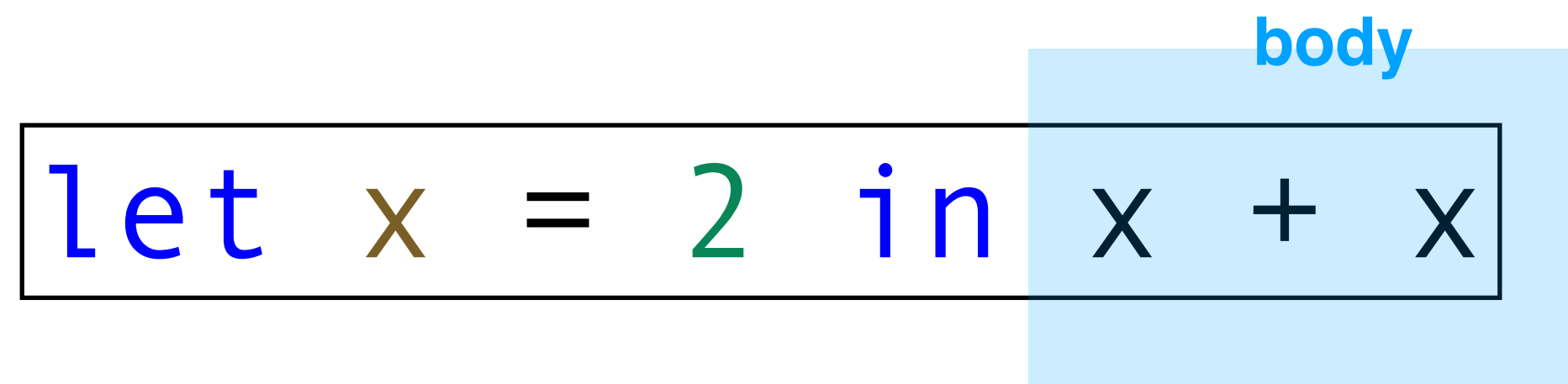


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This is useful for writing better abstractions

Local Variables



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Note that it reads like a sentence: *let x stand for 2 in the expression x + x*

Multiple Local Variables

```
def sum_of_squares(x, y):  
    x_squared = x * x  
    y_squared = y * y  
    return x_squared + y_squared
```

Python

```
let sum_of_squares x y =  
    let x_squared = x * x in  
    let y_squared = y * y in  
    x_squared + y_squared
```

OCaml

It's very easy to use multiple local variables, we just *nest* local variables

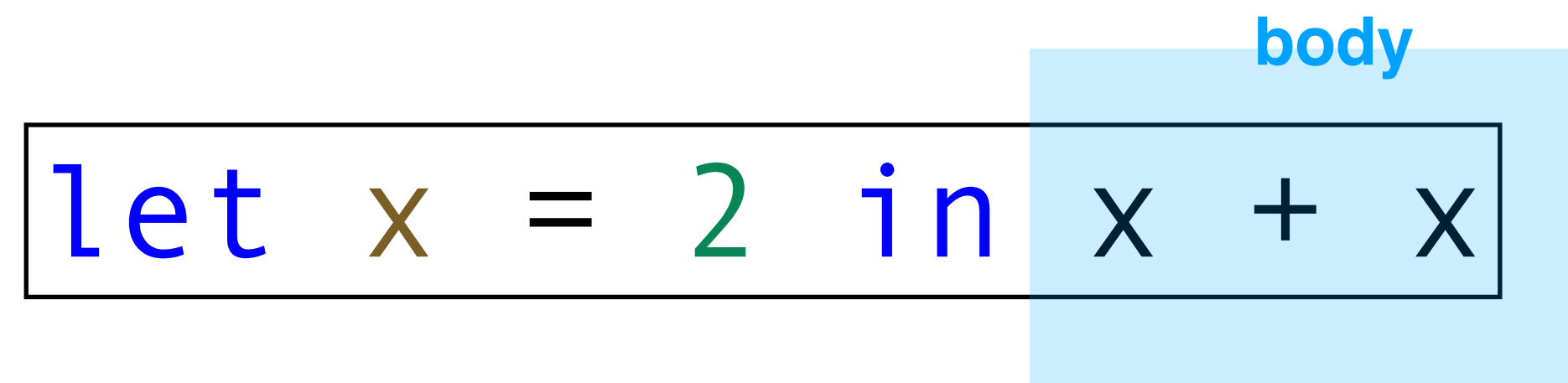
(If it helps, think of in as a semicolon ;)

IMPORTANT: `let x = e1 in e2` is an *expression* so it can be the body of a let expression.

Local Variables (Informal)

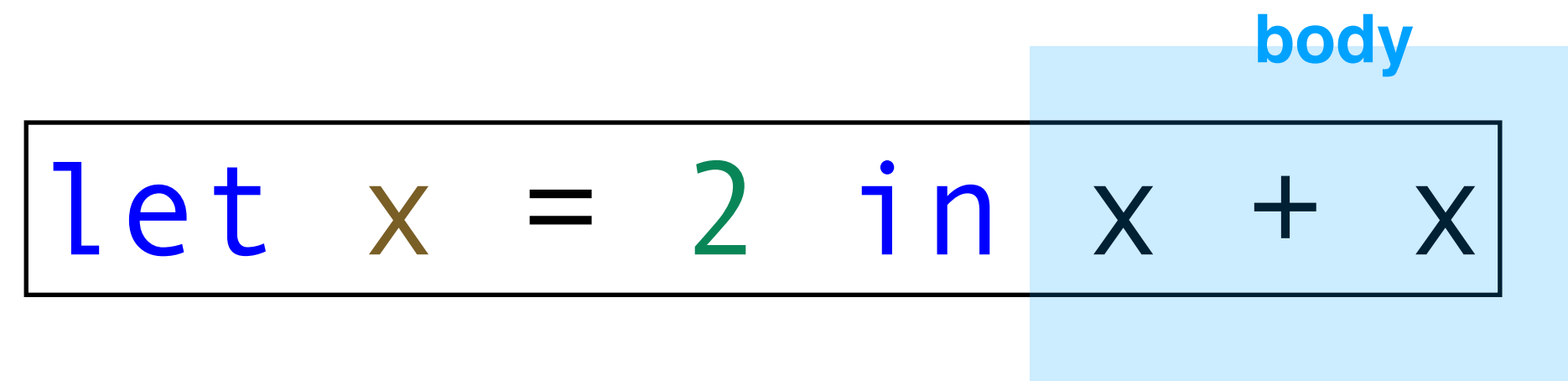
`let x = 2 in x + x`

body



The diagram illustrates the structure of a `let` expression. The code `let x = 2 in x + x` is shown. The text `let` is blue, `x` is brown, `=` is black, `2` is green, `in` is blue, `x` is black, `+` is black, and `x` is black. A light blue rectangular box highlights the expression `x + x`, which is the body of the `let` binding. The word `body` is written in blue above the right side of this box.

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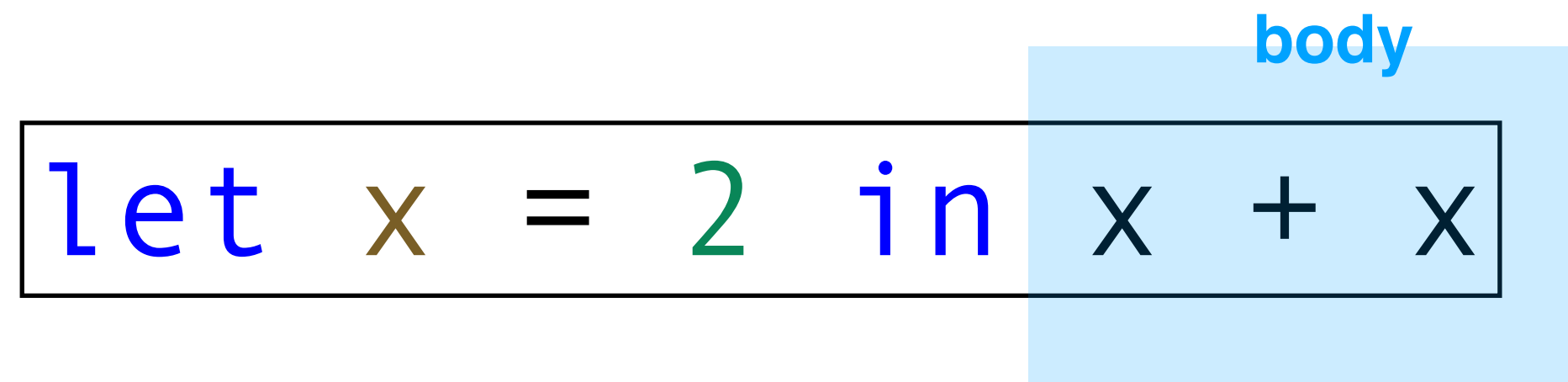


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let x = 2 in x + x
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syntax: `let VARIABLE = EXPRESSION in BODY`

Local Variables (Informal)

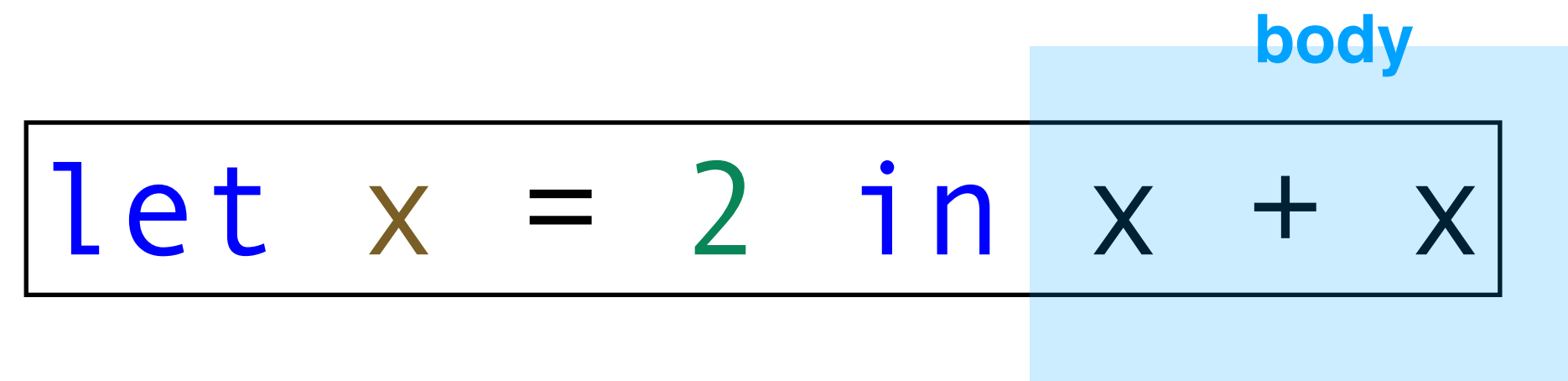


The diagram shows the code `let x = 2 in x + x` enclosed in a thin black rectangular border. A light blue rectangular box highlights the expression `x + x` on the right side of the code. Above this blue box, the word `body` is written in a light blue font.

syntax: `let VARIABLE = EXPRESSION in BODY`

typing: *compute type of* EXPRESSION; *assume*
VARIABLE *has that type; compute type of* BODY

Local Variables (Informal)



The diagram shows the code `let x = 2 in x + x` with syntax highlighting: `let` is blue, `x` is brown, `=` is black, `2` is green, `in` is blue, and `x + x` is black. A light blue rectangular box labeled "body" in blue text at the top right encloses the expression `x + x`.

syntax: `let VARIABLE = EXPRESSION in BODY`

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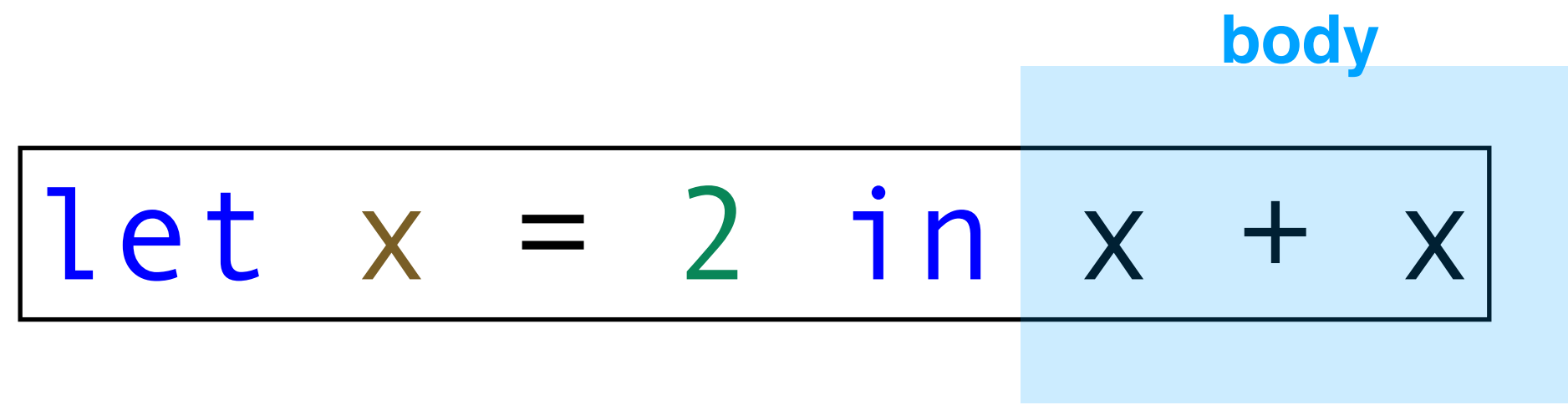
semantics: *compute value of* EXPRESSION; *substitute*
that value for VARIABLE *in* BODY

Syntax Examples

Syntax Examples

body

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let x = 2 in x + x
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body

```
let x = true in if x then 3 else 4
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Syntax Examples

body

```
let x = 2 in x + x
```

body

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let x = true in if x then 3 else 4
```

body

```
let x = 3.5 in 2. * . x
```

Syntax Examples

let *x* = 2 in *x* + *x*

body

let *x* = true in if *x* then 3 else 4

body

let *x* = 3.5 in 2. * . *x*

body

let *y* = (let *x* = 2 in *x* + *x*) in 4 * *y*

body

body

Example: Ill-Typed Let-Expression

```
let x = 2. in 3 + x
```

An ill-typed expression will throw a type error when you type it into `utop`

Note that the body of a let-expression may be ill-typed *depending on the value assigned to its variable*

Semantics Examples

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`let x = 2 in x + x` \longrightarrow `2 + 2`

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e.g., $[3/x](x + x)$ is the same as $3 + 3$

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Intuitively, substitution is simple: **replace the variable**

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Intuitively, substitution is simple: **replace the variable**

Turns out, this is **very hard** to do correctly, *it's subtle*
and a source of a lot of mistakes in PL implementations

demo

(simple use of lets)

Second Abstraction of the Day

If Expressions

If-Expressions

```
if x > 0 then x else -x
```

```
if x <> y then x+y else x-y
```

If-Expressions

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if x > 0 then x else -x
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As with any reasonable PL, OCaml has expressions for doing conditional reasoning

If-Expressions

```
if x > 0 then x else -x
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```

As with any reasonable PL, OCaml has expressions for doing conditional reasoning

Note: The **else** case is *required* and the **then** and **else** cases must be the *same type* (why?)

If-Expressions

```
if x < 0 then
  "negative"
else if x = 0 then
  "zero"
else
  "positive"
```

Answer: Remember, all we have is expressions. So every if-expression must have a value and a type (and therefore, an **else** case of the same type)

We can do **else if** just by nesting if-expressions! (neat)

If-Expressions (Informal)

```
if x > 0 then x else -x
```


If-Expressions (Informal)

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Syntax: if CONDITION then TRUE-CASE else FALSE-CASE

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Typing: CONDITION *must be a Boolean; compute the types of*
TRUE-CASE *and* FALSE-CASE; *must be the same type; expression*
type is same as that of TRUE-CASE *and* FALSE-CASE

If-Expressions (Informal)

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Typing: CONDITION *must be a Boolean; compute the types of* TRUE-CASE *and* FALSE-CASE; *must be the same type; expression type is same as that of* TRUE-CASE *and* FALSE-CASE

Semantics: *If* CONDITION *evaluates to true; evaluate* TRUE-CASE, *else evaluate* FALSE-CASE

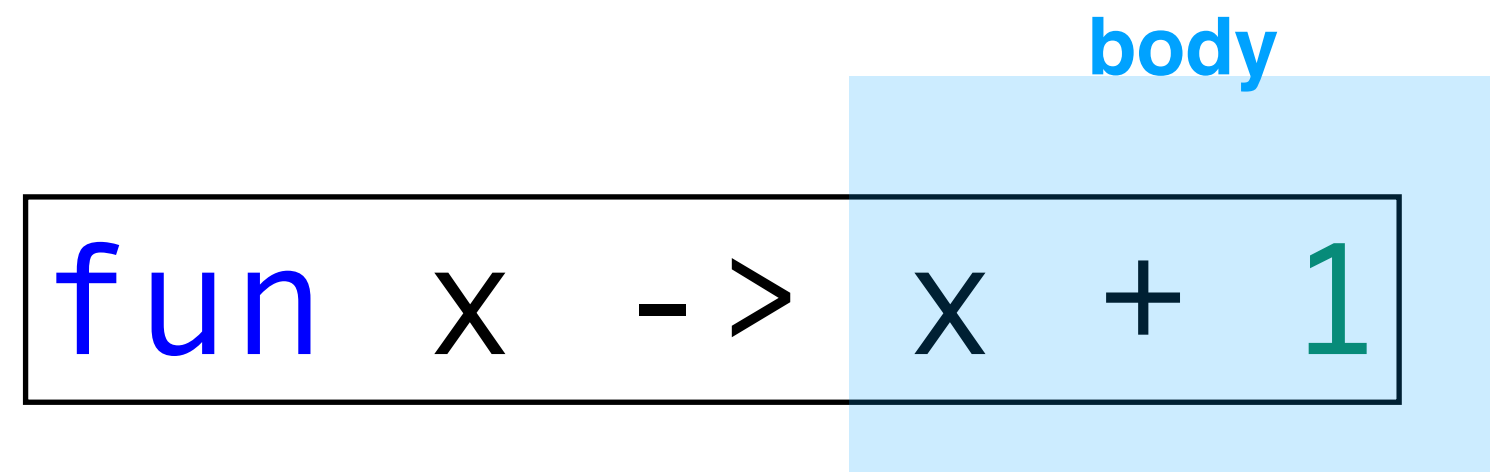
demo

(simple use of ifs)

Third (and Most Important) Abstraction of the Day

Functions

Functions (Informal)



body

fun x -> x + 1

Syntax: fun VARIABLE -> EXPRESSION

Typing: assume VARIABLE has type **T1**; compute the type of EXPRESSION; suppose it is **T2**; type of function is **T1 -> T2**

Semantics: A function is a value; evaluates to itself

Functions are also Expressions

`fun x -> 3 + x`

body

`fun y -> 2. * . x`

body

`fun x y z -> if x then y else z`

body

`fun x -> if x > 0 then x else -x`

body

In OCaml, we can define *anonymous functions*, which are just **functions without names**

We Can Give them Names using Let

let f = fun x -> 3 + x

body

let g = fun y -> 2. * . x

body

let h = fun x y z -> if x then y else z

body

let abs = fun x -> if x > 0 then x else -x

body

Another Way to Define Functions

```
let abs = fun x -> if x > 0 then x else -x
```

```
let h = fun x y z -> if x then y else z
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Another Way to Define Functions

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```
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```

Another Way: Curried Functions

```
let h = fun x y z -> if x then y else z
```

```
let h = fun x -> fun y -> fun z -> if x then y else z
```

Another way of thinking about functions:

The only kind of function we have is *single argument*

This seems restrictive, but ultimately it doesn't affect us at all

We can *simulate* multi-argument functions with nested functions. This is called **Currying** after Haskell Curry

Curried Functions Return Functions

```
let f = fun x -> fun y -> fun z -> x + y + z
```

We should think of the above function as something which takes an input and returns **another function**

In other words, we *partially apply* the function

Application

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2
```

Application is done by *juxtaposition* which means we put the arguments next to the function

Application is *left-associative*, which means we pass arguments from left to right

Application (Informally)

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2
```

Application (Informally)

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2
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Syntax: FUNCTION-EXPR ARG-EXPR

Application (Informally)

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2
```

Syntax: FUNCTION-EXPR ARG-EXPR

Typing: *compute type of* FUNCTION-EXPR; *say it is*
T1 *->* **T2**; *compute type of* ARG-EXPR; *it must be* **T1**;
then the type of expression is **T2**

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Syntax: FUNCTION-EXPR ARG-EXPR

Typing: *compute type of FUNCTION-EXPR; say it is T1 -> T2; compute type of ARG-EXPR; it must be T1; then the type of expression is T2*

Semantics: *Evaluate ARG-EXPR; substitute its value into the body of FUNCTION-EXPR; evaluate the result*

Application (Example)

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```
(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2
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`(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2`

is the same as

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is the same as

((fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3) 2

evaluates to

(fun y -> 3 + y + 1) 2

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is the same as

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evaluates to

(fun y -> 3 + y + 1) 2

evaluates to

3 + 2 + 1

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is the same as

`(fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3 2`

is the same as

`((fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3) 2`

evaluates to

`(fun y -> 3 + y + 1) 2`

evaluates to

`3 + 2 + 1`

is the same as

`(3 + 2) + 1`

Application (Example)

`(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2`

is the same as

`(fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3 2`

is the same as

`((fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3) 2`

evaluates to

`(fun y -> 3 + y + 1) 2`

evaluates to

`3 + 2 + 1`

is the same as

`(3 + 2) + 1`

evaluates to

`5 + 1`

Application (Example)

(fun x -> fun y -> x + y + 1) 3 2

is the same as

(fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3 2

is the same as

((fun x -> (fun y -> x + y + 1)) 3) 2

evaluates to

(fun y -> 3 + y + 1) 2

evaluates to

3 + 2 + 1

is the same as

(3 + 2) + 1

evaluates to

5 + 1

evaluates to

6

demo

(anonymous and curried functions)

Summary

OCaml is a language of **expressions**, everything is an expression

OCaml has everything we need to do basic programming