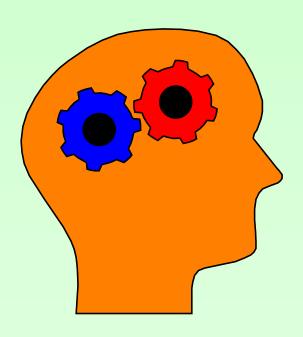


#### CS2104: Programming Languages Concepts

# Lecture 10 : **OCaml Basics and Imperative Programming**



#### "Basics of OCaml and Imperative Programming

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# **Topics**

- Basics of OCaml
- Mutable Reference & Records
- Input/Output Functions
- Iterators and Loops
- Arrays, String, Hash-Tables Modules
- Memoization

#### OCaml vs Haskell

OCaml	Haskell
strict (by default)	lazy (by default)
impure	pure
let & let rec	let (rec by default)
Impure IO	Monadic I/O
Modules/Functors	Type classes
OOP	Layout Rule
	Comprehension

#### Non-Recursive Let

• In OCaml, let binding is non-recursive.

```
let x = 1 in // 1
let x = x-3 in // 1-3
```

• For (mutual) recursive, use let rec instead:

```
let rec f x = ..g x..
    and g x = ..f x..g x..
in ...
```

• Non-recursive let supports shadowing and allows reuse of names.

## Post-fix Type Application

- Type variables are written as `a in OCaml
- In Haskell, prefix type application used

```
map :: (a->b) -> ([]) a -> ([]) b
```

• In OCaml, post-fix type application used

```
map :: (`a->`b) -> `a list -> `b list
```

#### Strict Evaluation

• let binding is strictly evaluated.

 Arguments are strictly evaluated but the order of evaluation is not specified

```
f e1 e2 // {e1,e2} are strictly evaluated
```

• Use let if argument order is important.

```
let v1 = e1 in // e1 is evaluated
let v2 = e2 in // e2 is evaluated
f v1 v2 // call is invoked
```

# Lazy Module

Laziness in OCaml is captured through type

```
t Lazy.t
```

• Deferred computation is built using:

```
let (v:`a Lazy.t) = lazy (e:`a)
```

• It is strictly evaluated through:

```
force : 'a Lazy.t -> `a
... force v ...
```

Can check if already evaluated using:

```
is_val : 'a Lazy.t -> bool
```

# Pure versus Imperative

#### Pure versus Imperative

• Thus far, used mostly pure functions (without side-effects).

- Benefits of Pure Functions
  - Easier to reason/debug
  - Less error prone
  - Easily composable

# When is Imperative Needed?

- Imperative feature also important
  - To model the real-world
  - For some high performance considerations (e.g. hash tables & mutable graphs)

- Compromise:
  - Use pure functions where possible (by default),
     and imperative features where necessary.

# Mutable Reference and Fields

#### Mutable Reference

• Reference type supports pointer to a memory location that can be updated.

```
(* creates a mutable reference ptr *)
let ptr = ref 10;;

(* prints content of ptr *)
print_endline (string_of_int !ptr);;

(* update the content of ptr *)
ptr := !ptr + 1;;

print_endline (string_of_int !ptr);;
```

## Creating Mutable Reference

• Command ref has type 'a → 'a ref.

```
(* creates a mutable reference ptr *)
let ptr = ref 10;;
let ptr2 = ref "hello";;
```

- In above example:
  - ptr has (int ref) type.
  - ptr2 has (string ref) type

#### Dereferencing Mutable Locations

• Command! has type 'a ref → 'a.

```
(* returns content of a mutable reference *)
let v:int = !ptr;;
let s:string = !ptr2;;
```

- In follow-up example:
  - v has int type.
  - s has string type

# Updating Mutable Reference

• Command := has type 'a ref → 'a → unit.

```
(* updating a mutable reference *)
let () = ptr := !ptr + 1;;
let () = ptr2 := !ptr2 ^ " there!";;
```

- In follow-up example:
  - ptr content will change to 11.
  - ptr2 will change to "hello there!"
- Assignment returns unit (or void) type.

#### Mutable Fields of Record

- Records are immutable by default, but we can selectively provide fields that are mutable.
- Example:

```
(* declaring a record type *)
type ('a, 'b) pair =
    { mutable first : 'a;
        second : 'b
    } ;;

(* constructing a record value *)
let p1 = {first = 1; second = "cs2104"};;
```

#### Retrieve Fields of Record

• We can retrieve mutable and immutable fields in the same way, namely record.field.

```
print_endline ("First: "^(string_of_int p1.first));;
print_endline ("Second: "^(p1.second));;
```

## **Updating Mutable Fields Only**

• Only mutable fields can be updated.

# Implementation of Ref Type

• How are reference types related to mutable fields of records?

• Each ref type is implemented as a record with exactly one mutable field!

• Thus, mutable fields are the fundamental construct in OCaml.

## Implementation of Ref Type

```
(* type declaration *)
type 'a ref = { mutable contents : 'a };;
(* construction *)
let ref v = { contents = v };;
(* retrieval *)
let (!) r = r.contents;;
(* update *)
let (:=) r v = r.contents <- v;</pre>
```

## Weak Polymorphism

• Types of mutable fields must <u>not</u> be polymorphic. Following is invalid:

```
let (p4:('a list) ref) = ref [];;
p4 := 1::!p4;
p4 := "hello"::!p4;; (* error *)
```

• Mutable reference must have a <u>single</u> type, so that update and retrieval remains consistent.

# Weak Polymorphism

• Immutable values can be polymorphic:

```
let id x = x;;
(* id: forall 'a. 'a -> 'a *)
```

• Mutable reference can only be monomorphic.

```
let p_id = ref id;;
(* p_id : ('_a -> '_a) ref *)
```

weak polymorphism that must be bound to a monotype

→ Error: The type of this expression, ('\_a -> '\_a) ref, contains type variables that cannot be generalized

## Weak Polymorphism

• Weakly polymorphic type must be instantiated to a monotype within the same module.

```
let p_id = ref id;;
(* p_id : ('_a -> '_a) ref *)

let v = !p_id 3;;
(* forces '_a be instantiated to int *)

let s = !p_id "hello";;
(* contradictory use cause type error *)
```

#### An Example

• Remembering first value.

```
let memo =
     let cache = ref None in
     (fun x ->
         match !cache with
         | Some y \rightarrow y
         | None \rightarrow cache := Some x; x);;
(* \text{ val memo} : '_a = < \text{fun} > *)
memo 3;; (* --> 3 *)
memo 4;; (* --> 3 *)
```

## Wrongly Placed

• Cache is now local to each call! where a new cache is created for each call.

```
let memo =
    (fun x ->
        let cache = ref None in
        match !cache with
        | Some y -> y
        | None -> cache := Some x; x);;

memo 3;; (* --> 3 *)
memo 4;; (* --> 4 *)
```

# Input/Output

# Input/Output

• Apart from data mutation, I/O is the other major source of side-effects.

• I/O involves interactions with the real world.

• Many I/O libraries including Asynchronous I/O library.

# **Buffered I/O Library**

• This allows buffering to optimize interaction with the Unix I/O library.

- Two types of channels:
  - in\_channel (for reading)
  - out\_channel (for writing)

#### Common I/O Channels

```
stdin (* standard input *)
stdout (* standard output*)
stderr (* standard error *)
```

#### Interact with Terminal

```
let test () =
    output_string stdout
        "What is your name?";
    flush stdout;
    let ans = input_line stdin in
        output_string stdout
        ("Hello "^ans^"\n");;
```

#### Output to a File

```
let file = open_out "test.out";;
(* creates an out_channel file *)

output_string file "Hello There!";;
   (* writes to file *)

close_out file;;
(* closes the file *)
```

#### Formatted Printing

• Formatted printing takes a format string to determine how printing is to be done.

```
let pr = Printf.printf
  ("%i is an integer, %F is a float"^^
   "\"%s\" is a string\n");;

pr 3 4.5 "five";;

3 is an integer, 4.5 is a float, "five" is a string
```

#### Formatted Printing

OCaml uses a type-safe solution:

```
let fmt = "%i is an integer, %F is a
    float"^^"\"%s\" is a string\n");;

    (int -> float -> string -> 'c, 'b, 'c) fmt

let pr = Printf.printf fmt;;

    pr : int -> float -> string -> ()

pr 3 4.5 "five";;
```

# Loops and Iterators

#### Loop Iterators

• OCaml provides for/while loops to make it easier for imperative programming.

```
for i = 0 to 3 do
    printf "i = %d\n" i done;;

i = 0
i = 1
    Note that i itself is
local and immutable
i = 3
- : unit = ()
```

#### Loop Iterators

A count-down for-loop.

```
for i = 3 downto 0 do
          printf "i = %d\n" i done;;

i = 3
i = 2
i = 1
i = 0
- : unit = ()
```

## Loop Iterators

• A while-loop.

```
let i = ref 3;;
while (!i>=0) do
 printf "i = %d\n" !i;
  i := !i-1
done;;
\rightarrow i = 3
      i = 2
      i = 1
      i = 0
       -: unit = ()
```

#### Loop Iterators

• Implementation of for\_loop using higher-order

```
let for_loop init final stmt =
  let rec aux i =
  if i<=final
  then (stmt i; aux (i+1))
  in aux init</pre>
```

 Exercise: write recursive codes for while and for\_downto loops.

#### List Iterator

• We also have iterators over data structures.

```
List.iter : ('a -> unit) -> 'a list -> unit

List.iter f [a1; ...; an]
     applies function f in turn to [a1; ...; an].

It is equivalent to
     begin f a1; f a2; ...; f an; () end.
```

# Sequences

## **Sequences**

• Sequences of the form: e1;e2;..;en are executed for their effects.

• It is equivalent to:

```
let _ = e1 in
let _ = e2 in
...
en
```

## **Sequences**

• Safer to use :

```
let () = e1 in
let () = e2 in
...
en
```

• All except en are of the unit type. Why?

#### **Evaluation Order**

• Evaluation-order of arguments are implementation-dependent!

• What is the outcome of below?

```
let eval x =
    printf "Elem %d\n" x; x ;;
[eval 1; eval 2]
→
Elem 2
Elem 1
-: int list = [1; 2]
```

#### **Evaluation Order**

• Similarly:

```
let eval x =
    printf "Elem %d\n" x; x ;;
(eval 1, eval 2)

Description

Elem 2
Elem 1
- : int * int = (1, 2)
```

## Mutable Modules

#### Mutable Modules

• Quite a number of modules have mutable data structures.

• Examples are: Arrays, Strings, Hash Tables.

• They could be used to support both imperative and functional-style programming.

## Array

• Key operators.

```
val make : int -> 'a -> 'a array
  (* make n v returns a mutable array of
     size n, with initial value v *)
val length : 'a array -> int
  (* returns size of array *)
val get : 'a array -> int -> 'a
  (* get a n returns n-th elem of array a *)
val set: 'a array -> int -> 'a -> unit
  (* set a n v updates n-th elem of
     array a with new value v *)
```

## Array

• Short-hands.

```
val get : 'a array -> int -> 'a
  (* Array.get a n = a(n) *)

val set: 'a array -> int -> 'a -> unit
  (* Array.set a n v = a(n) <-v *)</pre>
```

## Array

• Useful Higher-Order Functions.

## String

We have used only string in a functional way.

• String are not only compact (8 characters per memory word), it also supports mutation:

```
val set: string -> int -> char -> unit
  (* set s n c updates n-th elem of
    string s with value char c
    short-hand s.[n]<-c
    *)</pre>
```

## Hash Table (Hashtbl)

• Hash tables implement generic dictionary.

(\* Hashtbl.create n will create a new hash table of initial size n, while ~random:true allows a randomized seed to be used at creation \*)

#### Hash Table

Access operators.

```
val add : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b -> unit
  (* (add tbl x y) to add (x,y) to tbl *)

find : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b
  (* (find tbl x) returns current binding of x *)

remove : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> unit
  (* (remove tbl x) remove current binding of x *)
```

## Memoization

#### Memoization

 Redundant calls can be eliminated by tabulation using dynamic programming.

• General Technique: Memoization.

• Can use hash table to store previously computed value for retrieval rather than recomputation.

#### Recursion

• Recall naïve fibonacci.

```
let rec fib n =
   if n<=1 then 1
   else fib (n-1) + fib(n-2);;</pre>
```

• Contains many redundant fib calls when computed with moderately sized inputs.

#### **Using Memo-Functions**

• This stores previously computed values in say a hash table. Example:

Trade off memory space for time.

#### Pure Memo-Function

• Localize the effect of memo-table:

• Pure function when viewed from outside. Tradeoffs?