### CS 11 Ocaml track: lecture 3

#### Today:

- A (large) variety of odds and ends
- Imperative programming in Ocaml

### Equality/inequality operators

- Two inequality operators: <> and !=
- Two equality operators: = and ==
- Usually want to use = and <>
- means "structurally equal"
- means "structurally unequal"
- means "the same exact object"
- != means "not the same exact object"

### Unit type

- The unit type is a type with only one member: ()
  - not a tuple with only one element!
  - tuples must have at least two elements
- Seems useless, but
  - all Ocaml functions <u>must</u> return a value
  - return () when value is irrelevant
  - *i.e.* when function called for side effects

**Option types** 

- type 'a option =
  - | None
  - | Some of 'a
- Built in to Ocaml
- Used for functions that can return a value but can also "fail" (return None)
- Alternative to raising exception on failure

### String accessing/mutating (1)

- Strings are <u>not</u> immutable
- Can treat as an array of chars
- To access a particular char:
  - ∎s.[i]
- To mutate a particular char:

■s.[i] <- 'a'

### String accessing/mutating (2)

- # let s = "some string" ;;
- val s : string = "some string"
- # s.[0] ;; (\* note weird syntax \*)
- -: char = 's'
- # s.[0] <- 't' ;;</pre>
- -: unit = ()
- **#** s ;;
- : string = "tome string"

### String accessing/mutating (3)

- String mutation is a misfeature!
  - only in the language because of historical reasons
  - most new languages have immutable strings
- Ocaml is starting to move towards immutable strings by default
  - with a "bytes" type for when you want a mutable string-like type
- The -safe-string option turns off the ability to mutate strings

### printf and friends (1)

- # Printf.printf "hello, world!\n" ;; hello, world!
- -: unit = ()
- # open Printf ;;
- # printf "hello, world!\n" ;;
- hello, world!
- -: unit = ()

### printf and friends (2)

- # printf "s = %s\tf = %f\ti = %d\n"
   "foo" 3.2 1 ;;
- s = foo f = 3.200000 i = 1
- -: unit = ()
- **printf** has a weird type
  - not really well-typed
  - compiler "knows" about it and makes it work

### printf and friends (3)

- # fprintf stderr "Oops! An error occurred!\n" ;;
- -: unit = ()
- # stderr ;;
- : out\_channel = <abstr>
- Predefined I/O "channels":
- stdin : in\_channel
- stdout : out\_channel
- stderr : out\_channel

### printf and friends (4)

- # sprintf "%d + %d = %d\n" 2 2 4 ;;
- : string =  $"2 + 2 = 4 \setminus n"$
- sprintf is "printing to a string"
- Very useful!

# File I/O (1)

- Files come in two flavors: input and output # open in ;; - : string -> in channel = <fun> # open out ;; - : string -> out channel = <fun> # close in ;; - : in channel -> unit = <fun> # close out ;;
- : out\_channel -> unit = <fun>

File I/O (2)

Files come in two flavors: input and output

- let infile = open\_in "foo"
  - tries to open file named "foo" for input only
  - binds file object to infile
- close\_in infile
  - closes the input file

File I/O (3)

- Files come in two flavors: input and output
- let outfile = open\_out "bar"
  - tries to open file named "bar" for output only
  - binds file object to outfile
- close\_out outfile
  - closes the output file

File I/O (4)

#### flush stdout

- forces an output file (here, stdout) to write its buffers to the disk
- input\_line stdin
  - gets a line of input from an input file (here, stdin) and returns a string

### begin/end and sequencing (1)

- With side effects, often want multiple statements inside a function:
- let print\_and\_square x =
   Printf.printf "%d\n" x ;
   x \* x
- Single semicolon used to separate statements that execute one after another

### begin/end and sequencing (2)

- Sometimes want to say "these sequences should be treated as a single expression"
- Use begin/end for this:

begin

Printf.printf "%d\n" x;

x \* x

end

Can often leave out begin/end

### begin/end and sequencing (3)

- Sometimes can just use parentheses:
- (Printf.printf "%d\n" x ;
  - x \* x)
- I advise against this
- Can make code hard to read

### begin/end and sequencing (4)

- Very often, when you get weird error messages it's because you should have put in a begin/end somewhere
- Commonly found in nested match expressions (Ocaml grammar is highly ambiguous!)
- When in doubt, add explicit begin/end statements everywhere you use sequencing

#### assert

- Ocaml has an assert statement like most imperative languages
- Not a function!
- Takes one "argument", a boolean
- If it's false, raises Assert\_failure exception
- Turn off assertions with -noassert compiler option

## On to...

- Imperative programming!
- We've already done imperative programming
- **printf** is a function called for side-effects only
- begin/end and sequencing only useful for side effecting operations
- Now want to cover the "core" of imperative programming

### Imperative programming

- Imperative data types:
  - references
  - records with mutable fields
  - mutable arrays
- Imperative statements:
  - for loop
  - while loop
- Breaking out of loops

### References (1)

- A reference type is like a "box" that holds a single value:
- # let x = ref 0 ;;
- val x : int ref = {contents = 0}
- # !x ;;
- -: int = 0

### References (2)

- The ! operator fetches the value from the reference "box"
- The := operator assigns a new value to the reference
- **# x** := 10 ;;
- -: unit = ()
- **# x** ;;
- : int ref =  $\{contents = 10\}$
- LHS of := must be a reference, not a value!

### while loop

<stmtn>

done

### Example

let factorial n = let result = ref 1 in let i = ref n inwhile |i > 1 do result := !result \* !i; i := !i - 1 done; !result

Very easy to accidentally omit ! operators

#### Records with mutable fields (1)

- References are just a special case of records with mutable fields
- Recall record type declaration:
- type point = { x: int; y: int }
- This declares point as an *immutable* type
  - x and y fields can't change after point created
  - not always what you want

#### Records with mutable fields (2)

To get mutable fields: type point = { mutable x: int; mutable y: int } Now can change x, y fields: let  $p = \{ x = 10; y = 20 \} ;;$ val p : point =  $\{x = 10; y = 20\}$ # p.x <- 1000 ;; -: unit = ()# p ;;

- : point =  $\{x = 1000; y = 20\}$ 

#### Records with mutable fields (3)

To get only some mutable fields:
type point = { x: int; mutable y: int }
Now can change only change y field:
# let p = { x = 10; y = 20 } ;;
val p : point = {x = 10; y = 20}
# p.x <- 1000 ;;</li>
The record field label x is not mutable

### Records with mutable fields (4)

- The <- record mutation operator is not a true operator
  - Just built-in syntax
- The ! and := reference operators are true operators:

# (!) ;;

- : 'a ref -> 'a = <fun>

**#** (:=) ;;

- : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit = <fun>

#### Arrays

- Recall: literal arrays:
- # let arr = [| 10; 20; 30; 40; 50 |] ;;
- Arrays are <u>always</u> mutable:
- # arr.(0) ;;
- -: int = 10
- # arr.(0) <- 1000 ;; (\* same syntax as records \*)</pre>
- -: unit = ()
- **#** arr ;;
- : int array = [| 1000; 20; 30; 40; 50 |]

```
for loops
# for i = 1 to 10 do
    Printf.printf "%d " i
done;
Printf.printf "\n";;
```

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- -: unit = ()
- Index variable i assigned values from 1 to 10, inclusive
- Don't need to use !i syntax to refer to i's value

#### Breaking out of loops

- No break statement like in C/C++/Java
- Instead, raise an Exit exception and catch it:

```
# try
```

```
for i = 1 to 10 do
    if i = 5 then raise Exit (* like a "break" *)
    else Printf.printf "%d " i
    done
with Exit -> Printf.printf "\n";;
1 2 3 4
- : unit = ()
```



#### Modules

#### Functors