The OCaml system
release 4.02

Documentation and user's manual

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Contents

Foreword

This manual documents the release 4.02 of the OCaml system. It is organized as follows.

- Part I, "An introduction to OCaml", gives an overview of the language.
- Part II, "The OCaml language", is the reference description of the language.
- Part III, "The OCaml tools", documents the compilers, toplevel system, and programming utilities.
- Part IV, "The OCaml library", describes the modules provided in the standard library.
- Part V, "Appendix", contains an index of all identifiers defined in the standard library, and an index of keywords.

Conventions

OCaml runs on several operating systems. The parts of this manual that are specific to one operating system are presented as shown below:

Unix:
This is material specific to the Unix family of operating systems, including Linux and MacOS X.

Windows:
This is material specific to Microsoft Windows (2000, XP, Vista, Seven).

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Availability

The complete OCaml distribution can be accessed via the Web site `http://caml.inria.fr/`. This Web site contains a lot of additional information on OCaml.

Part I

An introduction to OCaml

Chapter 1

The core language

This part of the manual is a tutorial introduction to the OCaml language. A good familiarity with programming in a conventional languages (say, Pascal or C) is assumed, but no prior exposure to functional languages is required. The present chapter introduces the core language. Chapter 2 deals with the module system, chapter 3 with the object-oriented features, chapter 4 with extensions to the core language (labeled arguments and polymorphic variants), and chapter 5 gives some advanced examples.

1.1 Basics

For this overview of OCaml, we use the interactive system, which is started by running `ocaml` from the Unix shell, or by launching the `OCamlwin.exe` application under Windows. This tutorial is presented as the transcript of a session with the interactive system: lines starting with `#` represent user input; the system responses are printed below, without a leading `#`.

Under the interactive system, the user types OCaml phrases terminated by `;;` in response to the `#` prompt, and the system compiles them on the fly, executes them, and prints the outcome of evaluation. Phrases are either simple expressions, or `let` definitions of identifiers (either values or functions).

```
# 1+2*3;;
- : int = 7

# let pi = 4.0 *. atan 1.0;;
val pi : float = 3.14159265358979312

# let square x = x *. x;;
val square : float -> float = <fun>

# square (sin pi) +. square (cos pi);;
- : float = 1.
```

The OCaml system computes both the value and the type for each phrase. Even function parameters need no explicit type declaration: the system infers their types from their usage in the function. Notice also that integers and floating-point numbers are distinct types, with distinct operators: `+` and `*` operate on integers, but `+.` and `*.` operate on floats.

```
# 1.0 * 2;;
Error: This expression has type float but an expression was expected of type
         int
```

Recursive functions are defined with the `let rec` binding:

```
# let rec fib n =
#   if n < 2 then n else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2);;
val fib : int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# fib 10;;
- : int = 55
```

1.2 Data types

In addition to integers and floating-point numbers, OCaml offers the usual basic data types: booleans, characters, and character strings.

```
# (1 < 2) = false;;
- : bool = false
```

```
# 'a';;
- : char = 'a'
```

```
# "Hello world";;
- : string = "Hello world"
```

Predefined data structures include tuples, arrays, and lists. General mechanisms for defining your own data structures are also provided. They will be covered in more details later; for now, we concentrate on lists. Lists are either given in extension as a bracketed list of semicolon-separated elements, or built from the empty list `[]` (pronounce "nil") by adding elements in front using the `::` ("cons") operator.

```
# let l = ["is"; "a"; "tale"; "told"; "etc."];;
val l : string list = ["is"; "a"; "tale"; "told"; "etc."]
```

```
# "Life" :: l;;
- : string list = ["Life"; "is"; "a"; "tale"; "told"; "etc."]
```

As with all other OCaml data structures, lists do not need to be explicitly allocated and deallocated from memory: all memory management is entirely automatic in OCaml. Similarly, there is no explicit handling of pointers: the OCaml compiler silently introduces pointers where necessary.

As with most OCaml data structures, inspecting and destructuring lists is performed by pattern-matching. List patterns have the exact same shape as list expressions, with identifier representing unspecified parts of the list. As an example, here is insertion sort on a list:

```
# let rec sort lst =
#   match lst with
#     [] -> []
#   | head :: tail -> insert head (sort tail)
```

```
# and insert elt lst =
#   match lst with
#     [] -> [elt]
#   | head :: tail -> if elt <= head then elt :: lst else head :: insert elt tail
# ;;
val sort : 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
val insert : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>

# sort l;;
- : string list = ["a"; "etc."; "is"; "tale"; "told"]
```

The type inferred for `sort`, `'a list -> 'a list`, means that `sort` can actually apply to lists of any type, and returns a list of the same type. The type `'a` is a *type variable*, and stands for any given type. The reason why `sort` can apply to lists of any type is that the comparisons (`=`, `<=`, etc.) are *polymorphic* in OCaml: they operate between any two values of the same type. This makes `sort` itself polymorphic over all list types.

```
# sort [6;2;5;3];;
- : int list = [2; 3; 5; 6]

# sort [3.14; 2.718];;
- : float list = [2.718; 3.14]
```

The `sort` function above does not modify its input list: it builds and returns a new list containing the same elements as the input list, in ascending order. There is actually no way in OCaml to modify in-place a list once it is built: we say that lists are *immutable* data structures. Most OCaml data structures are immutable, but a few (most notably arrays) are *mutable*, meaning that they can be modified in-place at any time.

1.3 Functions as values

OCaml is a functional language: functions in the full mathematical sense are supported and can be passed around freely just as any other piece of data. For instance, here is a `deriv` function that takes any float function as argument and returns an approximation of its derivative function:

```
# let deriv f dx = function x -> (f (x +. dx) -. f x) /. dx;;
val deriv : (float -> float) -> float -> float -> float = <fun>

# let sin' = deriv sin 1e-6;;
val sin' : float -> float = <fun>

# sin' pi;;
- : float = -1.00000000013961143
```

Even function composition is definable:

```
# let compose f g = function x -> f (g x);;
val compose : ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b = <fun>

# let cos2 = compose square cos;;
val cos2 : float -> float = <fun>
```

Functions that take other functions as arguments are called "functionals", or "higher-order functions". Functionals are especially useful to provide iterators or similar generic operations over a data structure. For instance, the standard OCaml library provides a `List.map` functional that applies a given function to each element of a list, and returns the list of the results:

```
# List.map (function n -> n * 2 + 1) [0;1;2;3;4];;
- : int list = [1; 3; 5; 7; 9]
```

This functional, along with a number of other list and array functionals, is predefined because it is often useful, but there is nothing magic with it: it can easily be defined as follows.

```
# let rec map f l =
#   match l with
#     [] -> []
#   | hd :: tl -> f hd :: map f tl;;
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list = <fun>
```

1.4 Records and variants

User-defined data structures include records and variants. Both are defined with the `type` declaration. Here, we declare a record type to represent rational numbers.

```
# type ratio = {num: int; denom: int};;
type ratio = { num : int; denom : int; }

# let add_ratio r1 r2 =
#   {num = r1.num * r2.denom + r2.num * r1.denom;
#    denom = r1.denom * r2.denom};;
val add_ratio : ratio -> ratio -> ratio = <fun>

# add_ratio {num=1; denom=3} {num=2; denom=5};;
- : ratio = {num = 11; denom = 15}
```

The declaration of a variant type lists all possible shapes for values of that type. Each case is identified by a name, called a constructor, which serves both for constructing values of the variant type and inspecting them by pattern-matching. Constructor names are capitalized to distinguish them from variable names (which must start with a lowercase letter). For instance, here is a variant type for doing mixed arithmetic (integers and floats):

```
# type number = Int of int | Float of float | Error;;
type number = Int of int | Float of float | Error
```

This declaration expresses that a value of type `number` is either an integer, a floating-point number, or the constant `Error` representing the result of an invalid operation (e.g. a division by zero).

Enumerated types are a special case of variant types, where all alternatives are constants:

```
# type sign = Positive | Negative;;
type sign = Positive | Negative

# let sign_int n = if n >= 0 then Positive else Negative;;
val sign_int : int -> sign = <fun>
```

To define arithmetic operations for the `number` type, we use pattern-matching on the two numbers involved:

```
# let add_num n1 n2 =
#   match (n1, n2) with
#     (Int i1, Int i2) ->
#       (* Check for overflow of integer addition *)
#       if sign_int i1 = sign_int i2 && sign_int (i1 + i2) <> sign_int i1
#       then Float(float i1 +. float i2)
#       else Int(i1 + i2)
#   | (Int i1, Float f2) -> Float(float i1 +. f2)
#   | (Float f1, Int i2) -> Float(f1 +. float i2)
#   | (Float f1, Float f2) -> Float(f1 +. f2)
#   | (Error, _) -> Error
#   | (_, Error) -> Error;;
val add_num : number -> number -> number = <fun>

# add_num (Int 123) (Float 3.14159);;
- : number = Float 126.14159
```

The most common usage of variant types is to describe recursive data structures. Consider for example the type of binary trees:

```
# type 'a btree = Empty | Node of 'a * 'a btree * 'a btree;;
type 'a btree = Empty | Node of 'a * 'a btree * 'a btree
```

This definition reads as follow: a binary tree containing values of type `'a` (an arbitrary type) is either empty, or is a node containing one value of type `'a` and two subtrees containing also values of type `'a`, that is, two `'a btree`.

Operations on binary trees are naturally expressed as recursive functions following the same structure as the type definition itself. For instance, here are functions performing lookup and insertion in ordered binary trees (elements increase from left to right):

```
# let rec member x btree =
#   match btree with
#     Empty -> false
#   | Node(y, left, right) ->
#       if x = y then true else
#       if x < y then member x left else member x right;;
val member : 'a -> 'a btree -> bool = <fun>

# let rec insert x btree =
#   match btree with
#     Empty -> Node(x, Empty, Empty)
#   | Node(y, left, right) ->
#       if x <= y then Node(y, insert x left, right)
#                 else Node(y, left, insert x right);;
val insert : 'a -> 'a btree -> 'a btree = <fun>
```

1.5 Imperative features

Though all examples so far were written in purely applicative style, OCaml is also equipped with full imperative features. This includes the usual `while` and `for` loops, as well as mutable data structures such as arrays. Arrays are either given in extension between `[|` and `|]` brackets, or allocated and initialized with the `Array.create` function, then filled up later by assignments. For instance, the function below sums two vectors (represented as float arrays) componentwise.

```
# let add_vect v1 v2 =
#   let len = min (Array.length v1) (Array.length v2) in
#   let res = Array.create len 0.0 in
#   for i = 0 to len - 1 do
#     res.(i) <- v1.(i) +. v2.(i)
#   done;
#   res;;
Warning 3: deprecated: Array.create
val add_vect : float array -> float array -> float array = <fun>

# add_vect [| 1.0; 2.0 |] [| 3.0; 4.0 |];;
- : float array = [|4.; 6.|]
```

Record fields can also be modified by assignment, provided they are declared `mutable` in the definition of the record type:

```
# type mutable_point = { mutable x: float; mutable y: float };;
type mutable_point = { mutable x : float; mutable y : float; }

# let translate p dx dy =
#   p.x <- p.x +. dx; p.y <- p.y +. dy;;
val translate : mutable_point -> float -> float -> unit = <fun>

# let mypoint = { x = 0.0; y = 0.0 };;
val mypoint : mutable_point = {x = 0.; y = 0.}

# translate mypoint 1.0 2.0;;
- : unit = ()

# mypoint;;
- : mutable_point = {x = 1.; y = 2.}
```

OCaml has no built-in notion of variable – identifiers whose current value can be changed by assignment. (The `let` binding is not an assignment, it introduces a new identifier with a new scope.) However, the standard library provides references, which are mutable indirection cells (or one-element arrays), with operators `!` to fetch the current contents of the reference and `:=` to assign the contents. Variables can then be emulated by `let`-binding a reference. For instance, here is an in-place insertion sort over arrays:

```
# let insertion_sort a =
#   for i = 1 to Array.length a - 1 do
#     let val_i = a.(i) in
#     let j = ref i in
```

```
#     while !j > 0 && val_i < a.(!j - 1) do
#       a.(!j) <- a.(!j - 1);
#       j := !j - 1
#     done;
#     a.(!j) <- val_i
#   done;;
val insertion_sort : 'a array -> unit = <fun>
```

References are also useful to write functions that maintain a current state between two calls to the function. For instance, the following pseudo-random number generator keeps the last returned number in a reference:

```
# let current_rand = ref 0;;
val current_rand : int ref = {contents = 0}

# let random () =
#   current_rand := !current_rand * 25713 + 1345;
#   !current_rand;;
val random : unit -> int = <fun>
```

Again, there is nothing magical with references: they are implemented as a single-field mutable record, as follows.

```
# type 'a ref = { mutable contents: 'a };;
type 'a ref = { mutable contents : 'a; }

# let ( ! ) r = r.contents;;
val ( ! ) : 'a ref -> 'a = <fun>

# let ( := ) r newval = r.contents <- newval;;
val ( := ) : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit = <fun>
```

In some special cases, you may need to store a polymorphic function in a data structure, keeping its polymorphism. Without user-provided type annotations, this is not allowed, as polymorphism is only introduced on a global level. However, you can give explicitly polymorphic types to record fields.

```
# type idref = { mutable id: 'a. 'a -> 'a };;
type idref = { mutable id : 'a. 'a -> 'a; }

# let r = {id = fun x -> x};;
val r : idref = {id = <fun>}

# let g s = (s.id 1, s.id true);;
val g : idref -> int * bool = <fun>

# r.id <- (fun x -> print_string "called id\n"; x);;
- : unit = ()

# g r;;
called id
called id
- : int * bool = (1, true)
```

1.6 Exceptions

OCaml provides exceptions for signalling and handling exceptional conditions. Exceptions can also be used as a general-purpose non-local control structure. Exceptions are declared with the `exception` construct, and signalled with the `raise` operator. For instance, the function below for taking the head of a list uses an exception to signal the case where an empty list is given.

```
# exception Empty_list;;
exception Empty_list

# let head l =
#   match l with
#     [] -> raise Empty_list
#   | hd :: tl -> hd;;
val head : 'a list -> 'a = <fun>

# head [1;2];;
- : int = 1

# head [];;
Exception: Empty_list.
```

Exceptions are used throughout the standard library to signal cases where the library functions cannot complete normally. For instance, the `List.assoc` function, which returns the data associated with a given key in a list of (key, data) pairs, raises the predefined exception `Not_found` when the key does not appear in the list:

```
# List.assoc 1 [(0, "zero"); (1, "one")];;
- : string = "one"

# List.assoc 2 [(0, "zero"); (1, "one")];;
Exception: Not_found.
```

Exceptions can be trapped with the `try...with` construct:

```
# let name_of_binary_digit digit =
#   try
#     List.assoc digit [0, "zero"; 1, "one"]
#   with Not_found ->
#     "not a binary digit";;
val name_of_binary_digit : int -> string = <fun>

# name_of_binary_digit 0;;
- : string = "zero"

# name_of_binary_digit (-1);;
- : string = "not a binary digit"
```

The `with` part is actually a regular pattern-matching on the exception value. Thus, several exceptions can be caught by one `try...with` construct. Also, finalization can be performed by trapping all exceptions, performing the finalization, then raising again the exception:

```
# let temporarily_set_reference ref newval funct =
#   let oldval = !ref in
#   try
#     ref := newval;
#     let res = funct () in
#     ref := oldval;
#     res
#   with x ->
#     ref := oldval;
#     raise x;;
val temporarily_set_reference : 'a ref -> 'a -> (unit -> 'b) -> 'b = <fun>
```

1.7 Symbolic processing of expressions

We finish this introduction with a more complete example representative of the use of OCaml for symbolic processing: formal manipulations of arithmetic expressions containing variables. The following variant type describes the expressions we shall manipulate:

```
# type expression =
#     Const of float
#   | Var of string
#   | Sum of expression * expression    (* e1 + e2 *)
#   | Diff of expression * expression   (* e1 - e2 *)
#   | Prod of expression * expression   (* e1 * e2 *)
#   | Quot of expression * expression   (* e1 / e2 *)
# ;;
type expression =
    Const of float
  | Var of string
  | Sum of expression * expression
  | Diff of expression * expression
  | Prod of expression * expression
  | Quot of expression * expression
```

We first define a function to evaluate an expression given an environment that maps variable names to their values. For simplicity, the environment is represented as an association list.

```
# exception Unbound_variable of string;;
exception Unbound_variable of string
```

```
# let rec eval env exp =
#   match exp with
#     Const c -> c
#   | Var v ->
#       (try List.assoc v env with Not_found -> raise (Unbound_variable v))
#   | Sum(f, g) -> eval env f +. eval env g
#   | Diff(f, g) -> eval env f -. eval env g
```

```
#   | Prod(f, g) -> eval env f *. eval env g
#   | Quot(f, g) -> eval env f /. eval env g;;
val eval : (string * float) list -> expression -> float = <fun>

# eval [("x", 1.0); ("y", 3.14)] (Prod(Sum(Var "x", Const 2.0), Var "y"));;
- : float = 9.42
```

Now for a real symbolic processing, we define the derivative of an expression with respect to a variable `dv`:

```
# let rec deriv exp dv =
#   match exp with
#     Const c -> Const 0.0
#   | Var v -> if v = dv then Const 1.0 else Const 0.0
#   | Sum(f, g) -> Sum(deriv f dv, deriv g dv)
#   | Diff(f, g) -> Diff(deriv f dv, deriv g dv)
#   | Prod(f, g) -> Sum(Prod(f, deriv g dv), Prod(deriv f dv, g))
#   | Quot(f, g) -> Quot(Diff(Prod(deriv f dv, g), Prod(f, deriv g dv)),
#                        Prod(g, g))
# ;;
val deriv : expression -> string -> expression = <fun>

# deriv (Quot(Const 1.0, Var "x")) "x";;
- : expression =
Quot (Diff (Prod (Const 0., Var "x"), Prod (Const 1., Const 1.)),
 Prod (Var "x", Var "x"))
```

1.8 Pretty-printing and parsing

As shown in the examples above, the internal representation (also called *abstract syntax*) of expressions quickly becomes hard to read and write as the expressions get larger. We need a printer and a parser to go back and forth between the abstract syntax and the *concrete syntax*, which in the case of expressions is the familiar algebraic notation (e.g. `2*x+1`).

For the printing function, we take into account the usual precedence rules (i.e. `*` binds tighter than `+`) to avoid printing unnecessary parentheses. To this end, we maintain the current operator precedence and print parentheses around an operator only if its precedence is less than the current precedence.

```
# let print_expr exp =
#   (* Local function definitions *)
#   let open_paren prec op_prec =
#     if prec > op_prec then print_string "(" in
#   let close_paren prec op_prec =
#     if prec > op_prec then print_string ")" in
#   let rec print prec exp =     (* prec is the current precedence *)
#     match exp with
#       Const c -> print_float c
```

```
#     | Var v -> print_string v
#     | Sum(f, g) ->
#         open_paren prec 0;
#         print 0 f; print_string " + "; print 0 g;
#         close_paren prec 0
#     | Diff(f, g) ->
#         open_paren prec 0;
#         print 0 f; print_string " - "; print 1 g;
#         close_paren prec 0
#     | Prod(f, g) ->
#         open_paren prec 2;
#         print 2 f; print_string " * "; print 2 g;
#         close_paren prec 2
#     | Quot(f, g) ->
#         open_paren prec 2;
#         print 2 f; print_string " / "; print 3 g;
#         close_paren prec 2
#   in print 0 exp;;
val print_expr : expression -> unit = <fun>

# let e = Sum(Prod(Const 2.0, Var "x"), Const 1.0);;
val e : expression = Sum (Prod (Const 2., Var "x"), Const 1.)

# print_expr e; print_newline ();;
2. * x + 1.
- : unit = ()

# print_expr (deriv e "x"); print_newline ();;
2. * 1. + 0. * x + 0.
- : unit = ()
```

1.9 Standalone OCaml programs

All examples given so far were executed under the interactive system. OCaml code can also be compiled separately and executed non-interactively using the batch compilers `ocamlc` and `ocamlopt`. The source code must be put in a file with extension `.ml`. It consists of a sequence of phrases, which will be evaluated at runtime in their order of appearance in the source file. Unlike in interactive mode, types and values are not printed automatically; the program must call printing functions explicitly to produce some output. Here is a sample standalone program to print Fibonacci numbers:

```
(* File fib.ml *)
let rec fib n =
  if n < 2 then 1 else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2);;
let main () =
  let arg = int_of_string Sys.argv.(1) in
  print_int (fib arg);
  print_newline ();
```

```
  exit 0;;
main ();;
```

`Sys.argv` is an array of strings containing the command-line parameters. `Sys.argv.(1)` is thus the first command-line parameter. The program above is compiled and executed with the following shell commands:

```
$ ocamlc -o fib fib.ml
$ ./fib 10
89
$ ./fib 20
10946
```

More complex standalone OCaml programs are typically composed of multiple source files, and can link with precompiled libraries. Chapters 8 and 11 explain how to use the batch compilers `ocamlc` and `ocamlopt`. Recompilation of multi-file OCaml projects can be automated using the `ocamlbuild` compilation manager, documented in chapter 18.

Chapter 2

The module system

This chapter introduces the module system of OCaml.

2.1 Structures

A primary motivation for modules is to package together related definitions (such as the definitions of a data type and associated operations over that type) and enforce a consistent naming scheme for these definitions. This avoids running out of names or accidentally confusing names. Such a package is called a *structure* and is introduced by the `struct`...`end` construct, which contains an arbitrary sequence of definitions. The structure is usually given a name with the `module` binding. Here is for instance a structure packaging together a type of priority queues and their operations:

```
# module PrioQueue =
#   struct
#     type priority = int
#     type 'a queue = Empty | Node of priority * 'a * 'a queue * 'a queue
#     let empty = Empty
#     let rec insert queue prio elt =
#       match queue with
#         Empty -> Node(prio, elt, Empty, Empty)
#       | Node(p, e, left, right) ->
#           if prio <= p
#           then Node(prio, elt, insert right p e, left)
#           else Node(p, e, insert right prio elt, left)
#     exception Queue_is_empty
#     let rec remove_top = function
#         Empty -> raise Queue_is_empty
#       | Node(prio, elt, left, Empty) -> left
#       | Node(prio, elt, Empty, right) -> right
#       | Node(prio, elt, (Node(lprio, lelt, _, _) as left),
#                         (Node(rprio, relt, _, _) as right)) ->
#           if lprio <= rprio
#           then Node(lprio, lelt, remove_top left, right)
```

```
#           else Node(rprio, relt, left, remove_top right)
#     let extract = function
#         Empty -> raise Queue_is_empty
#       | Node(prio, elt, _, _) as queue -> (prio, elt, remove_top queue)
#   end;;
module PrioQueue :
  sig
    type priority = int
    type 'a queue = Empty | Node of priority * 'a * 'a queue * 'a queue
    val empty : 'a queue
    val insert : 'a queue -> priority -> 'a -> 'a queue
    exception Queue_is_empty
    val remove_top : 'a queue -> 'a queue
    val extract : 'a queue -> priority * 'a * 'a queue
  end
```

Outside the structure, its components can be referred to using the "dot notation", that is, identifiers qualified by a structure name. For instance, `PrioQueue.insert` is the function `insert` defined inside the structure `PrioQueue` and `PrioQueue.queue` is the type `queue` defined in `PrioQueue`.

```
# PrioQueue.insert PrioQueue.empty 1 "hello";;
- : string PrioQueue.queue =
PrioQueue.Node (1, "hello", PrioQueue.Empty, PrioQueue.Empty)
```

2.2 Signatures

Signatures are interfaces for structures. A signature specifies which components of a structure are accessible from the outside, and with which type. It can be used to hide some components of a structure (e.g. local function definitions) or export some components with a restricted type. For instance, the signature below specifies the three priority queue operations `empty`, `insert` and `extract`, but not the auxiliary function `remove_top`. Similarly, it makes the `queue` type abstract (by not providing its actual representation as a concrete type).

```
# module type PRIOQUEUE =
#   sig
#     type priority = int         (* still concrete *)
#     type 'a queue               (* now abstract *)
#     val empty : 'a queue
#     val insert : 'a queue -> int -> 'a -> 'a queue
#     val extract : 'a queue -> int * 'a * 'a queue
#     exception Queue_is_empty
#   end;;
module type PRIOQUEUE =
  sig
    type priority = int
    type 'a queue
    val empty : 'a queue
```

```
    val insert : 'a queue -> int -> 'a -> 'a queue
    val extract : 'a queue -> int * 'a * 'a queue
    exception Queue_is_empty
  end
```

Restricting the `PrioQueue` structure by this signature results in another view of the `PrioQueue` structure where the `remove_top` function is not accessible and the actual representation of priority queues is hidden:

```
# module AbstractPrioQueue = (PrioQueue : PRIOQUEUE);;
module AbstractPrioQueue : PRIOQUEUE

# AbstractPrioQueue.remove_top;;
Error: Unbound value AbstractPrioQueue.remove_top

# AbstractPrioQueue.insert AbstractPrioQueue.empty 1 "hello";;
- : string AbstractPrioQueue.queue = <abstr>
```

The restriction can also be performed during the definition of the structure, as in

```
module PrioQueue = (struct ... end : PRIOQUEUE);;
```

An alternate syntax is provided for the above:

```
module PrioQueue : PRIOQUEUE = struct ... end;;
```

2.3 Functors

Functors are "functions" from structures to structures. They are used to express parameterized structures: a structure A parameterized by a structure B is simply a functor F with a formal parameter B (along with the expected signature for B) which returns the actual structure A itself. The functor F can then be applied to one or several implementations $B_1 \ldots B_n$ of B, yielding the corresponding structures $A_1 \ldots A_n$.

For instance, here is a structure implementing sets as sorted lists, parameterized by a structure providing the type of the set elements and an ordering function over this type (used to keep the sets sorted):

```
# type comparison = Less | Equal | Greater;;
type comparison = Less | Equal | Greater

# module type ORDERED_TYPE =
#   sig
#     type t
#     val compare: t -> t -> comparison
#   end;;
module type ORDERED_TYPE = sig type t val compare : t -> t -> comparison end

# module Set =
#   functor (Elt: ORDERED_TYPE) ->
#     struct
#       type element = Elt.t
```

```
#       type set = element list
#       let empty = []
#       let rec add x s =
#         match s with
#           [] -> [x]
#         | hd::tl ->
#             match Elt.compare x hd with
#               Equal   -> s         (* x is already in s *)
#             | Less    -> x :: s    (* x is smaller than all elements of s *)
#             | Greater -> hd :: add x tl
#       let rec member x s =
#         match s with
#           [] -> false
#         | hd::tl ->
#             match Elt.compare x hd with
#               Equal   -> true     (* x belongs to s *)
#             | Less    -> false    (* x is smaller than all elements of s *)
#             | Greater -> member x tl
#     end;;
module Set :
  functor (Elt : ORDERED_TYPE) ->
    sig
      type element = Elt.t
      type set = element list
      val empty : 'a list
      val add : Elt.t -> Elt.t list -> Elt.t list
      val member : Elt.t -> Elt.t list -> bool
    end
```

By applying the `Set` functor to a structure implementing an ordered type, we obtain set operations for this type:

```
# module OrderedString =
#   struct
#     type t = string
#     let compare x y = if x = y then Equal else if x < y then Less else Greater
#   end;;
module OrderedString :
  sig type t = string val compare : 'a -> 'a -> comparison end
```

```
# module StringSet = Set(OrderedString);;
module StringSet :
  sig
    type element = OrderedString.t
    type set = element list
    val empty : 'a list
    val add : OrderedString.t -> OrderedString.t list -> OrderedString.t list
    val member : OrderedString.t -> OrderedString.t list -> bool
  end
```

```
# StringSet.member "bar" (StringSet.add "foo" StringSet.empty);;
- : bool = false
```

2.4 Functors and type abstraction

As in the PrioQueue example, it would be good style to hide the actual implementation of the type set, so that users of the structure will not rely on sets being lists, and we can switch later to another, more efficient representation of sets without breaking their code. This can be achieved by restricting Set by a suitable functor signature:

```
# module type SETFUNCTOR =
#   functor (Elt: ORDERED_TYPE) ->
#     sig
#       type element = Elt.t      (* concrete *)
#       type set                  (* abstract *)
#       val empty : set
#       val add : element -> set -> set
#       val member : element -> set -> bool
#     end;;
module type SETFUNCTOR =
  functor (Elt : ORDERED_TYPE) ->
    sig
      type element = Elt.t
      type set
      val empty : set
      val add : element -> set -> set
      val member : element -> set -> bool
    end

# module AbstractSet = (Set : SETFUNCTOR);;
module AbstractSet : SETFUNCTOR

# module AbstractStringSet = AbstractSet(OrderedString);;
module AbstractStringSet :
  sig
    type element = OrderedString.t
    type set = AbstractSet(OrderedString).set
    val empty : set
    val add : element -> set -> set
    val member : element -> set -> bool
  end

# AbstractStringSet.add "gee" AbstractStringSet.empty;;
- : AbstractStringSet.set = <abstr>
```

In an attempt to write the type constraint above more elegantly, one may wish to name the signature of the structure returned by the functor, then use that signature in the constraint:

```
# module type SET =
```

```
#   sig
#     type element
#     type set
#     val empty : set
#     val add : element -> set -> set
#     val member : element -> set -> bool
#   end;;
module type SET =
  sig
    type element
    type set
    val empty : set
    val add : element -> set -> set
    val member : element -> set -> bool
  end
```

```
# module WrongSet = (Set : functor(Elt: ORDERED_TYPE) -> SET);;
module WrongSet : functor (Elt : ORDERED_TYPE) -> SET
```

```
# module WrongStringSet = WrongSet(OrderedString);;
module WrongStringSet :
  sig
    type element = WrongSet(OrderedString).element
    type set = WrongSet(OrderedString).set
    val empty : set
    val add : element -> set -> set
    val member : element -> set -> bool
  end
```

```
# WrongStringSet.add "gee" WrongStringSet.empty;;
Error: This expression has type string but an expression was expected of type
         WrongStringSet.element = WrongSet(OrderedString).element
```

The problem here is that `SET` specifies the type `element` abstractly, so that the type equality between `element` in the result of the functor and `t` in its argument is forgotten. Consequently, `WrongStringSet.element` is not the same type as `string`, and the operations of `WrongStringSet` cannot be applied to strings. As demonstrated above, it is important that the type `element` in the signature `SET` be declared equal to `Elt.t`; unfortunately, this is impossible above since `SET` is defined in a context where `Elt` does not exist. To overcome this difficulty, OCaml provides a `with type` construct over signatures that allows enriching a signature with extra type equalities:

```
# module AbstractSet2 =
#   (Set : functor(Elt: ORDERED_TYPE) -> (SET with type element = Elt.t));;
module AbstractSet2 :
  functor (Elt : ORDERED_TYPE) ->
    sig
      type element = Elt.t
      type set
      val empty : set
      val add : element -> set -> set
      val member : element -> set -> bool
```

```
  end
```

As in the case of simple structures, an alternate syntax is provided for defining functors and restricting their result:

```
module AbstractSet2(Elt: ORDERED_TYPE) : (SET with type element = Elt.t) =
  struct ... end;;
```

Abstracting a type component in a functor result is a powerful technique that provides a high degree of type safety, as we now illustrate. Consider an ordering over character strings that is different from the standard ordering implemented in the `OrderedString` structure. For instance, we compare strings without distinguishing upper and lower case.

```
# module NoCaseString =
#   struct
#     type t = string
#     let compare s1 s2 =
#       OrderedString.compare (String.lowercase s1) (String.lowercase s2)
#   end;;
module NoCaseString :
  sig type t = string val compare : string -> string -> comparison end
# module NoCaseStringSet = AbstractSet(NoCaseString);;
module NoCaseStringSet :
  sig
    type element = NoCaseString.t
    type set = AbstractSet(NoCaseString).set
    val empty : set
    val add : element -> set -> set
    val member : element -> set -> bool
  end
# NoCaseStringSet.add "FOO" AbstractStringSet.empty;;
Error: This expression has type
         AbstractStringSet.set = AbstractSet(OrderedString).set
       but an expression was expected of type
         NoCaseStringSet.set = AbstractSet(NoCaseString).set
```

Note that the two types `AbstractStringSet.set` and `NoCaseStringSet.set` are not compatible, and values of these two types do not match. This is the correct behavior: even though both set types contain elements of the same type (strings), they are built upon different orderings of that type, and different invariants need to be maintained by the operations (being strictly increasing for the standard ordering and for the case-insensitive ordering). Applying operations from `AbstractStringSet` to values of type `NoCaseStringSet.set` could give incorrect results, or build lists that violate the invariants of `NoCaseStringSet`.

2.5 Modules and separate compilation

All examples of modules so far have been given in the context of the interactive system. However, modules are most useful for large, batch-compiled programs. For these programs, it is a practical necessity to split the source into several files, called compilation units, that can be compiled separately, thus minimizing recompilation after changes.

In OCaml, compilation units are special cases of structures and signatures, and the relationship between the units can be explained easily in terms of the module system. A compilation unit A comprises two files:

- the implementation file A`.ml`, which contains a sequence of definitions, analogous to the inside of a `struct`...`end` construct;
- the interface file A`.mli`, which contains a sequence of specifications, analogous to the inside of a `sig`...`end` construct.

These two files together define a structure named A as if the following definition was entered at top-level:

```
module A: sig (* contents of file A.mli *) end
        = struct (* contents of file A.ml *) end;;
```

The files that define the compilation units can be compiled separately using the `ocamlc -c` command (the `-c` option means "compile only, do not try to link"); this produces compiled interface files (with extension `.cmi`) and compiled object code files (with extension `.cmo`). When all units have been compiled, their `.cmo` files are linked together using the `ocamlc` command. For instance, the following commands compile and link a program composed of two compilation units `Aux` and `Main`:

```
$ ocamlc -c Aux.mli                     # produces aux.cmi
$ ocamlc -c Aux.ml                      # produces aux.cmo
$ ocamlc -c Main.mli                    # produces main.cmi
$ ocamlc -c Main.ml                     # produces main.cmo
$ ocamlc -o theprogram Aux.cmo Main.cmo
```

The program behaves exactly as if the following phrases were entered at top-level:

```
module Aux: sig (* contents of Aux.mli *) end
          = struct (* contents of Aux.ml *) end;;
module Main: sig (* contents of Main.mli *) end
           = struct (* contents of Main.ml *) end;;
```

In particular, `Main` can refer to `Aux`: the definitions and declarations contained in `Main.ml` and `Main.mli` can refer to definition in `Aux.ml`, using the `Aux.`*ident* notation, provided these definitions are exported in `Aux.mli`.

The order in which the `.cmo` files are given to `ocamlc` during the linking phase determines the order in which the module definitions occur. Hence, in the example above, `Aux` appears first and `Main` can refer to it, but `Aux` cannot refer to `Main`.

Note that only top-level structures can be mapped to separately-compiled files, but neither functors nor module types. However, all module-class objects can appear as components of a structure, so the solution is to put the functor or module type inside a structure, which can then be mapped to a file.

Chapter 3

Objects in OCaml

(Chapter written by Jérôme Vouillon, Didier Rémy and Jacques Garrigue)

This chapter gives an overview of the object-oriented features of OCaml. Note that the relation between object, class and type in OCaml is very different from that in mainstream object-oriented languages like Java or C++, so that you should not assume that similar keywords mean the same thing.

3.1 Classes and objects

The class `point` below defines one instance variable `x` and two methods `get_x` and `move`. The initial value of the instance variable is `0`. The variable `x` is declared mutable, so the method `move` can change its value.

```
# class point =
#   object
#     val mutable x = 0
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class point :
  object val mutable x : int method get_x : int method move : int -> unit end
```

We now create a new point `p`, instance of the `point` class.

```
# let p = new point;;
val p : point = <obj>
```

Note that the type of `p` is `point`. This is an abbreviation automatically defined by the class definition above. It stands for the object type `<get_x : int; move : int -> unit>`, listing the methods of class `point` along with their types.

We now invoke some methods to `p`:

```
# p#get_x;;
- : int = 0
```

```
# p#move 3;;
- : unit = ()
# p#get_x;;
- : int = 3
```

The evaluation of the body of a class only takes place at object creation time. Therefore, in the following example, the instance variable `x` is initialized to different values for two different objects.

```
# let x0 = ref 0;;
val x0 : int ref = {contents = 0}
# class point =
#   object
#     val mutable x = incr x0; !x0
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class point :
  object val mutable x : int method get_x : int method move : int -> unit end
# new point#get_x;;
- : int = 1
# new point#get_x;;
- : int = 2
```

The class `point` can also be abstracted over the initial values of the `x` coordinate.

```
# class point = fun x_init ->
#   object
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class point :
  int ->
  object val mutable x : int method get_x : int method move : int -> unit end
```

Like in function definitions, the definition above can be abbreviated as:

```
# class point x_init =
#   object
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class point :
  int ->
  object val mutable x : int method get_x : int method move : int -> unit end
```

An instance of the class `point` is now a function that expects an initial parameter to create a point object:

```
# new point;;
- : int -> point = <fun>
```

```
# let p = new point 7;;
val p : point = <obj>
```

The parameter `x_init` is, of course, visible in the whole body of the definition, including methods. For instance, the method `get_offset` in the class below returns the position of the object relative to its initial position.

```
# class point x_init =
#   object
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_x = x
#     method get_offset = x - x_init
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method get_offset : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

Expressions can be evaluated and bound before defining the object body of the class. This is useful to enforce invariants. For instance, points can be automatically adjusted to the nearest point on a grid, as follows:

```
# class adjusted_point x_init =
#   let origin = (x_init / 10) * 10 in
#   object
#     val mutable x = origin
#     method get_x = x
#     method get_offset = x - origin
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class adjusted_point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method get_offset : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

(One could also raise an exception if the `x_init` coordinate is not on the grid.) In fact, the same effect could here be obtained by calling the definition of class `point` with the value of the `origin`.

```
# class adjusted_point x_init =  point ((x_init / 10) * 10);;
class adjusted_point : int -> point
```

An alternate solution would have been to define the adjustment in a special allocation function:

```
# let new_adjusted_point x_init = new point ((x_init / 10) * 10);;
val new_adjusted_point : int -> point = <fun>
```

However, the former pattern is generally more appropriate, since the code for adjustment is part of the definition of the class and will be inherited.

This ability provides class constructors as can be found in other languages. Several constructors can be defined this way to build objects of the same class but with different initialization patterns; an alternative is to use initializers, as described below in section 3.4.

3.2 Immediate objects

There is another, more direct way to create an object: create it without going through a class.

The syntax is exactly the same as for class expressions, but the result is a single object rather than a class. All the constructs described in the rest of this section also apply to immediate objects.

```
# let p =
#   object
#     val mutable x = 0
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
val p : < get_x : int; move : int -> unit > = <obj>

# p#get_x;;
- : int = 0

# p#move 3;;
- : unit = ()

# p#get_x;;
- : int = 3
```

Unlike classes, which cannot be defined inside an expression, immediate objects can appear anywhere, using variables from their environment.

```
# let minmax x y =
#   if x < y then object method min = x method max = y end
#   else object method min = y method max = x end;;
val minmax : 'a -> 'a -> < max : 'a; min : 'a > = <fun>
```

Immediate objects have two weaknesses compared to classes: their types are not abbreviated, and you cannot inherit from them. But these two weaknesses can be advantages in some situations, as we will see in sections 3.3 and 3.10.

3.3 Reference to self

A method or an initializer can send messages to self (that is, the current object). For that, self must be explicitly bound, here to the variable `s` (`s` could be any identifier, even though we will often choose the name `self`.)

```
# class printable_point x_init =
#   object (s)
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#     method print = print_int s#get_x
#   end;;
class printable_point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
    method print : unit
  end

# let p = new printable_point 7;;
val p : printable_point = <obj>

# p#print;;
7- : unit = ()
```

Dynamically, the variable `s` is bound at the invocation of a method. In particular, when the class `printable_point` is inherited, the variable `s` will be correctly bound to the object of the subclass.

A common problem with self is that, as its type may be extended in subclasses, you cannot fix it in advance. Here is a simple example.

```
# let ints = ref [];;
val ints : '_a list ref = {contents = []}

# class my_int =
#   object (self)
#     method n = 1
#     method register = ints := self :: !ints
#   end;;
Error: This expression has type < n : int; register : 'b; .. > as 'a
       but an expression was expected of type 'a
       Self type cannot escape its class
```

You can ignore the first two lines of the error message. What matters is the last one: putting self into an external reference would make it impossible to extend it through inheritance. We will see in section 3.12 a workaround to this problem. Note however that, since immediate objects are not extensible, the problem does not occur with them.

```
# let my_int =
#   object (self)
#     method n = 1
#     method register = ints := self :: !ints
#   end;;
val my_int : < n : int; register : unit > = <obj>
```

3.4 Initializers

Let-bindings within class definitions are evaluated before the object is constructed. It is also possible to evaluate an expression immediately after the object has been built. Such code is written as an anonymous hidden method called an initializer. Therefore, it can access self and the instance variables.

```
# class printable_point x_init =
#   let origin = (x_init / 10) * 10 in
#   object (self)
#     val mutable x = origin
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#     method print = print_int self#get_x
#     initializer print_string "new point at "; self#print; print_newline ()
#   end;;
class printable_point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
    method print : unit
  end

# let p = new printable_point 17;;
new point at 10
val p : printable_point = <obj>
```

Initializers cannot be overridden. On the contrary, all initializers are evaluated sequentially. Initializers are particularly useful to enforce invariants. Another example can be seen in section 5.1.

3.5 Virtual methods

It is possible to declare a method without actually defining it, using the keyword `virtual`. This method will be provided later in subclasses. A class containing virtual methods must be flagged `virtual`, and cannot be instantiated (that is, no object of this class can be created). It still defines type abbreviations (treating virtual methods as other methods.)

```
# class virtual abstract_point x_init =
#   object (self)
#     method virtual get_x : int
#     method get_offset = self#get_x - x_init
#     method virtual move : int -> unit
#   end;;
class virtual abstract_point :
  int ->
  object
    method get_offset : int
    method virtual get_x : int
    method virtual move : int -> unit
  end
```

```
# class point x_init =
#   object
#     inherit abstract_point x_init
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method get_offset : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

Instance variables can also be declared as virtual, with the same effect as with methods.

```
# class virtual abstract_point2 =
#   object
#     val mutable virtual x : int
#     method move d = x <- x + d
#   end;;
class virtual abstract_point2 :
  object val mutable virtual x : int method move : int -> unit end
```

```
# class point2 x_init =
#   object
#     inherit abstract_point2
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_offset = x - x_init
#   end;;
class point2 :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
```

```
    method get_offset : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

3.6 Private methods

Private methods are methods that do not appear in object interfaces. They can only be invoked from other methods of the same object.

```
# class restricted_point x_init =
#   object (self)
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get_x = x
#     method private move d = x <- x + d
#     method bump = self#move 1
#   end;;
class restricted_point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method bump : unit
    method get_x : int
    method private move : int -> unit
  end

# let p = new restricted_point 0;;
val p : restricted_point = <obj>

# p#move 10;;
Error: This expression has type restricted_point
       It has no method move

# p#bump;;
- : unit = ()
```

Note that this is not the same thing as private and protected methods in Java or C++, which can be called from other objects of the same class. This is a direct consequence of the independence between types and classes in OCaml: two unrelated classes may produce objects of the same type, and there is no way at the type level to ensure that an object comes from a specific class. However a possible encoding of friend methods is given in section 3.17.

Private methods are inherited (they are by default visible in subclasses), unless they are hidden by signature matching, as described below.

Private methods can be made public in a subclass.

```
# class point_again x =
#   object (self)
#     inherit restricted_point x
#     method virtual move : _
#   end;;
```

```
class point_again :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method bump : unit
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

The annotation `virtual` here is only used to mention a method without providing its definition. Since we didn't add the `private` annotation, this makes the method public, keeping the original definition.

An alternative definition is

```
# class point_again x =
#   object (self : < move : _; ..> )
#     inherit restricted_point x
#   end;;
class point_again :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method bump : unit
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

The constraint on self's type is requiring a public `move` method, and this is sufficient to override `private`.

One could think that a private method should remain private in a subclass. However, since the method is visible in a subclass, it is always possible to pick its code and define a method of the same name that runs that code, so yet another (heavier) solution would be:

```
# class point_again x =
#   object
#     inherit restricted_point x as super
#     method move = super#move
#   end;;
class point_again :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method bump : unit
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

Of course, private methods can also be virtual. Then, the keywords must appear in this order `method private virtual`.

3.7 Class interfaces

Class interfaces are inferred from class definitions. They may also be defined directly and used to restrict the type of a class. Like class declarations, they also define a new type abbreviation.

```
# class type restricted_point_type =
#   object
#     method get_x : int
#     method bump : unit
# end;;
class type restricted_point_type =
  object method bump : unit method get_x : int end
```

```
# fun (x : restricted_point_type) -> x;;
- : restricted_point_type -> restricted_point_type = <fun>
```

In addition to program documentation, class interfaces can be used to constrain the type of a class. Both concrete instance variables and concrete private methods can be hidden by a class type constraint. Public methods and virtual members, however, cannot.

```
# class restricted_point' x = (restricted_point x : restricted_point_type);;
class restricted_point' : int -> restricted_point_type
```

Or, equivalently:

```
# class restricted_point' = (restricted_point : int -> restricted_point_type);;
class restricted_point' : int -> restricted_point_type
```

The interface of a class can also be specified in a module signature, and used to restrict the inferred signature of a module.

```
# module type POINT = sig
#   class restricted_point' : int ->
#     object
#       method get_x : int
#       method bump : unit
#     end
# end;;
module type POINT =
  sig
    class restricted_point' :
      int -> object method bump : unit method get_x : int end
  end
```

```
# module Point : POINT = struct
#   class restricted_point' = restricted_point
# end;;
module Point : POINT
```

3.8 Inheritance

We illustrate inheritance by defining a class of colored points that inherits from the class of points. This class has all instance variables and all methods of class `point`, plus a new instance variable `c` and a new method `color`.

```
# class colored_point x (c : string) =
#   object
#     inherit point x
#     val c = c
#     method color = c
#   end;;
class colored_point :
  int ->
  string ->
  object
    val c : string
    val mutable x : int
    method color : string
    method get_offset : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

```
# let p' = new colored_point 5 "red";;
val p' : colored_point = <obj>
```

```
# p'#get_x, p'#color;;
- : int * string = (5, "red")
```

A point and a colored point have incompatible types, since a point has no method `color`. However, the function `get_x` below is a generic function applying method `get_x` to any object `p` that has this method (and possibly some others, which are represented by an ellipsis in the type). Thus, it applies to both points and colored points.

```
# let get_succ_x p = p#get_x + 1;;
val get_succ_x : < get_x : int; .. > -> int = <fun>
```

```
# get_succ_x p + get_succ_x p';;
- : int = 8
```

Methods need not be declared previously, as shown by the example:

```
# let set_x p = p#set_x;;
val set_x : < set_x : 'a; .. > -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# let incr p = set_x p (get_succ_x p);;
val incr : < get_x : int; set_x : int -> 'a; .. > -> 'a = <fun>
```

3.9 Multiple inheritance

Multiple inheritance is allowed. Only the last definition of a method is kept: the redefinition in a subclass of a method that was visible in the parent class overrides the definition in the parent class. Previous definitions of a method can be reused by binding the related ancestor. Below, `super` is bound to the ancestor `printable_point`. The name `super` is a pseudo value identifier that can only be used to invoke a super-class method, as in `super#print`.

```
# class printable_colored_point y c =
#   object (self)
#     val c = c
#     method color = c
#     inherit printable_point y as super
#     method print =
#       print_string "(";
#       super#print;
#       print_string ", ";
#       print_string (self#color);
#       print_string ")"
#   end;;
class printable_colored_point :
  int ->
  string ->
  object
    val c : string
    val mutable x : int
    method color : string
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
    method print : unit
  end
```

```
# let p' = new printable_colored_point 17 "red";;
new point at (10, red)
val p' : printable_colored_point = <obj>
```

```
# p'#print;;
(10, red)- : unit = ()
```

A private method that has been hidden in the parent class is no longer visible, and is thus not overridden. Since initializers are treated as private methods, all initializers along the class hierarchy are evaluated, in the order they are introduced.

3.10 Parameterized classes

Reference cells can be implemented as objects. The naive definition fails to typecheck:

```
# class ref x_init =
#   object
```

```
#       val mutable x = x_init
#       method get = x
#       method set y = x <- y
#     end;;
Error: Some type variables are unbound in this type:
         class ref :
           'a ->
           object
             val mutable x : 'a
             method get : 'a
             method set : 'a -> unit
           end
       The method get has type 'a where 'a is unbound
```

The reason is that at least one of the methods has a polymorphic type (here, the type of the value stored in the reference cell), thus either the class should be parametric, or the method type should be constrained to a monomorphic type. A monomorphic instance of the class could be defined by:

```
# class ref (x_init:int) =
#   object
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get = x
#     method set y = x <- y
#   end;;
class ref :
  int ->
  object val mutable x : int method get : int method set : int -> unit end
```

Note that since immediate objects do not define a class type, they have no such restriction.

```
# let new_ref x_init =
#   object
#     val mutable x = x_init
#     method get = x
#     method set y = x <- y
#   end;;
val new_ref : 'a -> < get : 'a; set : 'a -> unit > = <fun>
```

On the other hand, a class for polymorphic references must explicitly list the type parameters in its declaration. Class type parameters are listed between `[` and `]`. The type parameters must also be bound somewhere in the class body by a type constraint.

```
# class ['a] ref x_init =
#   object
#     val mutable x = (x_init : 'a)
#     method get = x
#     method set y = x <- y
#   end;;
class ['a] ref :
```

```
  'a -> object val mutable x : 'a method get : 'a method set : 'a -> unit end
# let r = new ref 1 in r#set 2; (r#get);;
- : int = 2
```

The type parameter in the declaration may actually be constrained in the body of the class definition. In the class type, the actual value of the type parameter is displayed in the `constraint` clause.

```
# class ['a] ref_succ (x_init:'a) =
#   object
#     val mutable x = x_init + 1
#     method get = x
#     method set y = x <- y
#   end;;
class ['a] ref_succ :
  'a ->
  object
    constraint 'a = int
    val mutable x : int
    method get : int
    method set : int -> unit
  end
```

Let us consider a more complex example: define a circle, whose center may be any kind of point. We put an additional type constraint in method `move`, since no free variables must remain unaccounted for by the class type parameters.

```
# class ['a] circle (c : 'a) =
#   object
#     val mutable center = c
#     method center = center
#     method set_center c = center <- c
#     method move = (center#move : int -> unit)
#   end;;
class ['a] circle :
  'a ->
  object
    constraint 'a = < move : int -> unit; .. >
    val mutable center : 'a
    method center : 'a
    method move : int -> unit
    method set_center : 'a -> unit
  end
```

An alternate definition of `circle`, using a `constraint` clause in the class definition, is shown below. The type `#point` used below in the `constraint` clause is an abbreviation produced by the definition of class `point`. This abbreviation unifies with the type of any object belonging to a subclass of class `point`. It actually expands to `< get_x : int; move : int -> unit; .. >`. This leads to the following alternate definition of `circle`, which has slightly stronger constraints on its argument, as we now expect `center` to have a method `get_x`.

```
# class ['a] circle (c : 'a) =
#   object
#     constraint 'a = #point
#     val mutable center = c
#     method center = center
#     method set_center c = center <- c
#     method move = center#move
#   end;;
class ['a] circle :
  'a ->
  object
    constraint 'a = #point
    val mutable center : 'a
    method center : 'a
    method move : int -> unit
    method set_center : 'a -> unit
  end
```

The class `colored_circle` is a specialized version of class `circle` that requires the type of the center to unify with `#colored_point`, and adds a method `color`. Note that when specializing a parameterized class, the instance of type parameter must always be explicitly given. It is again written between `[` and `]`.

```
# class ['a] colored_circle c =
#   object
#     constraint 'a = #colored_point
#     inherit ['a] circle c
#     method color = center#color
#   end;;
class ['a] colored_circle :
  'a ->
  object
    constraint 'a = #colored_point
    val mutable center : 'a
    method center : 'a
    method color : string
    method move : int -> unit
    method set_center : 'a -> unit
  end
```

3.11 Polymorphic methods

While parameterized classes may be polymorphic in their contents, they are not enough to allow polymorphism of method use.

A classical example is defining an iterator.

```
# List.fold_left;;
- : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# class ['a] intlist (l : int list) =
#   object
#     method empty = (l = [])
#     method fold f (accu : 'a) = List.fold_left f accu l
#   end;;
class ['a] intlist :
  int list ->
  object method empty : bool method fold : ('a -> int -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a end
```

At first look, we seem to have a polymorphic iterator, however this does not work in practice.

```
# let l = new intlist [1; 2; 3];;
val l : '_a intlist = <obj>

# l#fold (fun x y -> x+y) 0;;
- : int = 6

# l;;
- : int intlist = <obj>

# l#fold (fun s x -> s ^ string_of_int x ^ " ") "";;
Error: This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type
         string
```

Our iterator works, as shows its first use for summation. However, since objects themselves are not polymorphic (only their constructors are), using the `fold` method fixes its type for this individual object. Our next attempt to use it as a string iterator fails.

The problem here is that quantification was wrongly located: it is not the class we want to be polymorphic, but the `fold` method. This can be achieved by giving an explicitly polymorphic type in the method definition.

```
# class intlist (l : int list) =
#   object
#     method empty = (l = [])
#     method fold : 'a. ('a -> int -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a =
#       fun f accu -> List.fold_left f accu l
#   end;;
class intlist :
  int list ->
  object method empty : bool method fold : ('a -> int -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a end

# let l = new intlist [1; 2; 3];;
val l : intlist = <obj>

# l#fold (fun x y -> x+y) 0;;
- : int = 6

# l#fold (fun s x -> s ^ string_of_int x ^ " ") "";;
- : string = "1 2 3 "
```

As you can see in the class type shown by the compiler, while polymorphic method types must be fully explicit in class definitions (appearing immediately after the method name), quantified type variables can be left implicit in class descriptions. Why require types to be explicit? The problem is that (int -> int -> int) -> int -> int would also be a valid type for fold, and it happens to be incompatible with the polymorphic type we gave (automatic instantiation only works for toplevel types variables, not for inner quantifiers, where it becomes an undecidable problem.) So the compiler cannot choose between those two types, and must be helped.

However, the type can be completely omitted in the class definition if it is already known, through inheritance or type constraints on self. Here is an example of method overriding.

```
# class intlist_rev l =
#   object
#     inherit intlist l
#     method fold f accu = List.fold_left f accu (List.rev l)
#   end;;
```

The following idiom separates description and definition.

```
# class type ['a] iterator =
#   object method fold : ('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'b end;;
```

```
# class intlist l =
#   object (self : int #iterator)
#     method empty = (l = [])
#     method fold f accu = List.fold_left f accu l
#   end;;
```

Note here the (self : int #iterator) idiom, which ensures that this object implements the interface iterator.

Polymorphic methods are called in exactly the same way as normal methods, but you should be aware of some limitations of type inference. Namely, a polymorphic method can only be called if its type is known at the call site. Otherwise, the method will be assumed to be monomorphic, and given an incompatible type.

```
# let sum lst = lst#fold (fun x y -> x+y) 0;;
val sum : < fold : (int -> int -> int) -> int -> 'a; .. > -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# sum l;;
Error: This expression has type intlist
       but an expression was expected of type
         < fold : (int -> int -> int) -> int -> 'a; .. >
       Types for method fold are incompatible
```

The workaround is easy: you should put a type constraint on the parameter.

```
# let sum (lst : _ #iterator) = lst#fold (fun x y -> x+y) 0;;
val sum : int #iterator -> int = <fun>
```

Of course the constraint may also be an explicit method type. Only occurences of quantified variables are required.

```
# let sum lst =
#   (lst : < fold : 'a. ('a -> _ -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a; .. >)#fold (+) 0;;
val sum : < fold : 'a. ('a -> int -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a; .. > -> int = <fun>
```

Another use of polymorphic methods is to allow some form of implicit subtyping in method arguments. We have already seen in section 3.8 how some functions may be polymorphic in the class of their argument. This can be extended to methods.

```
# class type point0 = object method get_x : int end;;
class type point0 = object method get_x : int end
```

```
# class distance_point x =
#   object
#     inherit point x
#     method distance : 'a. (#point0 as 'a) -> int =
#       fun other -> abs (other#get_x - x)
#   end;;
class distance_point :
  int ->
  object
    val mutable x : int
    method distance : #point0 -> int
    method get_offset : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> unit
  end
```

```
# let p = new distance_point 3 in
# (p#distance (new point 8), p#distance (new colored_point 1 "blue"));;
- : int * int = (5, 2)
```

Note here the special syntax `(#point0 as 'a)` we have to use to quantify the extensible part of `#point0`. As for the variable binder, it can be omitted in class specifications. If you want polymorphism inside object field it must be quantified independently.

```
# class multi_poly =
#   object
#     method m1 : 'a. (< n1 : 'b. 'b -> 'b; .. > as 'a) -> _ =
#       fun o -> o#n1 true, o#n1 "hello"
#     method m2 : 'a 'b. (< n2 : 'b -> bool; .. > as 'a) -> 'b -> _ =
#       fun o x -> o#n2 x
#   end;;
class multi_poly :
  object
    method m1 : < n1 : 'b. 'b -> 'b; .. > -> bool * string
    method m2 : < n2 : 'b -> bool; .. > -> 'b -> bool
  end
```

In method `m1`, `o` must be an object with at least a method `n1`, itself polymorphic. In method `m2`, the argument of `n2` and `x` must have the same type, which is quantified at the same level as `'a`.

3.12 Using coercions

Subtyping is never implicit. There are, however, two ways to perform subtyping. The most general construction is fully explicit: both the domain and the codomain of the type coercion must be given.

We have seen that points and colored points have incompatible types. For instance, they cannot be mixed in the same list. However, a colored point can be coerced to a point, hiding its `color` method:

```
# let colored_point_to_point cp = (cp : colored_point :> point);;
val colored_point_to_point : colored_point -> point = <fun>

# let p = new point 3 and q = new colored_point 4 "blue";;
val p : point = <obj>
val q : colored_point = <obj>

# let l = [p; (colored_point_to_point q)];;
val l : point list = [<obj>; <obj>]
```

An object of type `t` can be seen as an object of type `t'` only if `t` is a subtype of `t'`. For instance, a point cannot be seen as a colored point.

```
# (p : point :> colored_point);;
Error: Type point = < get_offset : int; get_x : int; move : int -> unit >
       is not a subtype of
         colored_point =
           < color : string; get_offset : int; get_x : int;
             move : int -> unit >
```

Indeed, narrowing coercions without runtime checks would be unsafe. Runtime type checks might raise exceptions, and they would require the presence of type information at runtime, which is not the case in the OCaml system. For these reasons, there is no such operation available in the language.

Be aware that subtyping and inheritance are not related. Inheritance is a syntactic relation between classes while subtyping is a semantic relation between types. For instance, the class of colored points could have been defined directly, without inheriting from the class of points; the type of colored points would remain unchanged and thus still be a subtype of points.

The domain of a coercion can often be omitted. For instance, one can define:

```
# let to_point cp = (cp :> point);;
val to_point : #point -> point = <fun>
```

In this case, the function `colored_point_to_point` is an instance of the function `to_point`. This is not always true, however. The fully explicit coercion is more precise and is sometimes unavoidable. Consider, for example, the following class:

```
# class c0 = object method m = {< >} method n = 0 end;;
class c0 : object ('a) method m : 'a method n : int end
```

The object type `c0` is an abbreviation for `<m : 'a; n : int> as 'a`. Consider now the type declaration:

```
# class type c1 =  object method m : c1 end;;
class type c1 = object method m : c1 end
```

The object type `c1` is an abbreviation for the type `<m : 'a> as 'a`. The coercion from an object of type `c0` to an object of type `c1` is correct:

```
# fun (x:c0) -> (x : c0 :> c1);;
- : c0 -> c1 = <fun>
```

However, the domain of the coercion cannot always be omitted. In that case, the solution is to use the explicit form. Sometimes, a change in the class-type definition can also solve the problem

```
# class type c2 = object ('a) method m : 'a end;;
class type c2 = object ('a) method m : 'a end

# fun (x:c0) -> (x :> c2);;
- : c0 -> c2 = <fun>
```

While class types `c1` and `c2` are different, both object types `c1` and `c2` expand to the same object type (same method names and types). Yet, when the domain of a coercion is left implicit and its co-domain is an abbreviation of a known class type, then the class type, rather than the object type, is used to derive the coercion function. This allows leaving the domain implicit in most cases when coercing form a subclass to its superclass. The type of a coercion can always be seen as below:

```
# let to_c1 x = (x :> c1);;
val to_c1 : < m : #c1; .. > -> c1 = <fun>

# let to_c2 x = (x :> c2);;
val to_c2 : #c2 -> c2 = <fun>
```

Note the difference between these two coercions: in the case of `to_c2`, the type `#c2 = < m : 'a; .. > as 'a` is polymorphically recursive (according to the explicit recursion in the class type of `c2`); hence the success of applying this coercion to an object of class `c0`. On the other hand, in the first case, `c1` was only expanded and unrolled twice to obtain `< m : < m : c1; .. >; .. >` (remember `#c1 = < m : c1; .. >`), without introducing recursion. You may also note that the type of `to_c2` is `#c2 -> c2` while the type of `to_c1` is more general than `#c1 -> c1`. This is not always true, since there are class types for which some instances of `#c` are not subtypes of `c`, as explained in section 3.16. Yet, for parameterless classes the coercion `(_ :> c)` is always more general than `(_ : #c :> c)`.

A common problem may occur when one tries to define a coercion to a class `c` while defining class `c`. The problem is due to the type abbreviation not being completely defined yet, and so its subtypes are not clearly known. Then, a coercion `(_ :> c)` or `(_ : #c :> c)` is taken to be the identity function, as in

```
# function x -> (x :> 'a);;
- : 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

As a consequence, if the coercion is applied to `self`, as in the following example, the type of `self` is unified with the closed type `c` (a closed object type is an object type without ellipsis). This would constrain the type of self be closed and is thus rejected. Indeed, the type of self cannot be closed: this would prevent any further extension of the class. Therefore, a type error is generated when the unification of this type with another type would result in a closed object type.

```
# class c = object method m = 1 end
# and d = object (self)
#   inherit c
#   method n = 2
#   method as_c = (self :> c)
# end;;
Error: This expression cannot be coerced to type c = < m : int >; it has type
         < as_c : c; m : int; n : int; .. >
       but is here used with type c
       Self type cannot escape its class
```

However, the most common instance of this problem, coercing self to its current class, is detected as a special case by the type checker, and properly typed.

```
# class c = object (self) method m = (self :> c) end;;
class c : object method m : c end
```

This allows the following idiom, keeping a list of all objects belonging to a class or its subclasses:

```
# let all_c = ref [];;
val all_c : '_a list ref = {contents = []}

# class c (m : int) =
#   object (self)
#     method m = m
#     initializer all_c := (self :> c) :: !all_c
#   end;;
class c : int -> object method m : int end
```

This idiom can in turn be used to retrieve an object whose type has been weakened:

```
# let rec lookup_obj obj = function [] -> raise Not_found
#   | obj' :: l ->
#      if (obj :> < >) = (obj' :> < >) then obj' else lookup_obj obj l ;;
val lookup_obj : < .. > -> (< .. > as 'a) list -> 'a = <fun>

# let lookup_c obj = lookup_obj obj !all_c;;
val lookup_c : < .. > -> < m : int > = <fun>
```

The type `< m : int >` we see here is just the expansion of `c`, due to the use of a reference; we have succeeded in getting back an object of type `c`.

The previous coercion problem can often be avoided by first defining the abbreviation, using a class type:

```
# class type c' = object method m : int end;;
class type c' = object method m : int end

# class c : c' = object method m = 1 end
# and d = object (self)
#   inherit c
#   method n = 2
```

```
#   method as_c = (self :> c')
# end;;
class c : c'
and d : object method as_c : c' method m : int method n : int end
```

It is also possible to use a virtual class. Inheriting from this class simultaneously forces all methods of `c` to have the same type as the methods of `c'`.

```
# class virtual c' = object method virtual m : int end;;
class virtual c' : object method virtual m : int end
```

```
# class c = object (self) inherit c' method m = 1 end;;
class c : object method m : int end
```

One could think of defining the type abbreviation directly:

```
# type c' = <m : int>;;
```

However, the abbreviation `#c'` cannot be defined directly in a similar way. It can only be defined by a class or a class-type definition. This is because a `#`-abbreviation carries an implicit anonymous variable `..` that cannot be explicitly named. The closer you get to it is:

```
# type 'a c'_class = 'a constraint 'a = < m : int; .. >;;
```

with an extra type variable capturing the open object type.

3.13 Functional objects

It is possible to write a version of class `point` without assignments on the instance variables. The override construct `{< ... >}` returns a copy of "self" (that is, the current object), possibly changing the value of some instance variables.

```
# class functional_point y =
#   object
#     val x = y
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = {< x = x + d >}
#   end;;
class functional_point :
  int ->
  object ('a) val x : int method get_x : int method move : int -> 'a end
```

```
# let p = new functional_point 7;;
val p : functional_point = <obj>
```

```
# p#get_x;;
- : int = 7
```

```
# (p#move 3)#get_x;;
- : int = 10
```

```
# p#get_x;;
- : int = 7
```

Note that the type abbreviation `functional_point` is recursive, which can be seen in the class type of `functional_point`: the type of self is `'a` and `'a` appears inside the type of the method `move`.

The above definition of `functional_point` is not equivalent to the following:

```
# class bad_functional_point y =
#   object
#     val x = y
#     method get_x = x
#     method move d = new bad_functional_point (x+d)
#   end;;
class bad_functional_point :
  int ->
  object
    val x : int
    method get_x : int
    method move : int -> bad_functional_point
  end
```

While objects of either class will behave the same, objects of their subclasses will be different. In a subclass of `bad_functional_point`, the method `move` will keep returning an object of the parent class. On the contrary, in a subclass of `functional_point`, the method `move` will return an object of the subclass.

Functional update is often used in conjunction with binary methods as illustrated in section 5.2.1.

3.14 Cloning objects

Objects can also be cloned, whether they are functional or imperative. The library function `Oo.copy` makes a shallow copy of an object. That is, it returns a new object that has the same methods and instance variables as its argument. The instance variables are copied but their contents are shared. Assigning a new value to an instance variable of the copy (using a method call) will not affect instance variables of the original, and conversely. A deeper assignment (for example if the instance variable is a reference cell) will of course affect both the original and the copy.

The type of `Oo.copy` is the following:

```
# Oo.copy;;
- : (< .. > as 'a) -> 'a = <fun>
```

The keyword `as` in that type binds the type variable `'a` to the object type `< .. >`. Therefore, `Oo.copy` takes an object with any methods (represented by the ellipsis), and returns an object of the same type. The type of `Oo.copy` is different from type `< .. > -> < .. >` as each ellipsis represents a different set of methods. Ellipsis actually behaves as a type variable.

```
# let p = new point 5;;
val p : point = <obj>

# let q = Oo.copy p;;
```

```
val q : point = <obj>

# q#move 7; (p#get_x, q#get_x);;
- : int * int = (5, 12)
```

In fact, `Oo.copy p` will behave as `p#copy` assuming that a public method `copy` with body `{< >}` has been defined in the class of `p`.

Objects can be compared using the generic comparison functions `=` and `<>`. Two objects are equal if and only if they are physically equal. In particular, an object and its copy are not equal.

```
# let q = Oo.copy p;;
val q : point = <obj>

# p = q, p = p;;
- : bool * bool = (false, true)
```

Other generic comparisons such as (`<`, `<=`, ...) can also be used on objects. The relation `<` defines an unspecified but strict ordering on objects. The ordering relationship between two objects is fixed once for all after the two objects have been created and it is not affected by mutation of fields.

Cloning and override have a non empty intersection. They are interchangeable when used within an object and without overriding any field:

```
# class copy =
#   object
#     method copy = {< >}
#   end;;
class copy : object ('a) method copy : 'a end

# class copy =
#   object (self)
#     method copy = Oo.copy self
#   end;;
class copy : object ('a) method copy : 'a end
```

Only the override can be used to actually override fields, and only the `Oo.copy` primitive can be used externally.

Cloning can also be used to provide facilities for saving and restoring the state of objects.

```
# class backup =
#   object (self : 'mytype)
#     val mutable copy = None
#     method save = copy <- Some {< copy = None >}
#     method restore = match copy with Some x -> x | None -> self
#   end;;
class backup :
  object ('a)
    val mutable copy : 'a option
    method restore : 'a
    method save : unit
  end
```

The above definition will only backup one level. The backup facility can be added to any class by using multiple inheritance.

```
# class ['a] backup_ref x = object inherit ['a] ref x inherit backup end;;
class ['a] backup_ref :
  'a ->
  object ('b)
    val mutable copy : 'b option
    val mutable x : 'a
    method get : 'a
    method restore : 'b
    method save : unit
    method set : 'a -> unit
  end
```

```
# let rec get p n = if n = 0 then p # get else get (p # restore) (n-1);;
val get : (< get : 'b; restore : 'a; .. > as 'a) -> int -> 'b = <fun>
```

```
# let p = new backup_ref 0  in
# p # save; p # set 1; p # save; p # set 2;
# [get p 0; get p 1; get p 2; get p 3; get p 4];;
- : int list = [2; 1; 1; 1; 1]
```

We can define a variant of backup that retains all copies. (We also add a method `clear` to manually erase all copies.)

```
# class backup =
#   object (self : 'mytype)
#     val mutable copy = None
#     method save = copy <- Some {< >}
#     method restore = match copy with Some x -> x | None -> self
#     method clear = copy <- None
#   end;;
class backup :
  object ('a)
    val mutable copy : 'a option
    method clear : unit
    method restore : 'a
    method save : unit
  end
```

```
# class ['a] backup_ref x = object inherit ['a] ref x inherit backup end;;
class ['a] backup_ref :
  'a ->
  object ('b)
    val mutable copy : 'b option
    val mutable x : 'a
    method clear : unit
    method get : 'a
    method restore : 'b
```

```
    method save : unit
    method set : 'a -> unit
  end
```

```
# let p = new backup_ref 0  in
# p # save; p # set 1; p # save; p # set 2;
# [get p 0; get p 1; get p 2; get p 3; get p 4];;
- : int list = [2; 1; 0; 0; 0]
```

3.15 Recursive classes

Recursive classes can be used to define objects whose types are mutually recursive.

```
# class window =
#   object
#     val mutable top_widget = (None : widget option)
#     method top_widget = top_widget
#   end
# and widget (w : window) =
#   object
#     val window = w
#     method window = window
#   end;;
class window :
  object
    val mutable top_widget : widget option
    method top_widget : widget option
  end
and widget : window -> object val window : window method window : window end
```

Although their types are mutually recursive, the classes `widget` and `window` are themselves independent.

3.16 Binary methods

A binary method is a method which takes an argument of the same type as self. The class `comparable` below is a template for classes with a binary method `leq` of type `'a -> bool` where the type variable `'a` is bound to the type of self. Therefore, `#comparable` expands to `< leq : 'a -> bool; .. > as 'a`. We see here that the binder `as` also allows writing recursive types.

```
# class virtual comparable =
#   object (_ : 'a)
#     method virtual leq : 'a -> bool
#   end;;
class virtual comparable : object ('a) method virtual leq : 'a -> bool end
```

We then define a subclass `money` of `comparable`. The class `money` simply wraps floats as comparable objects. We will extend it below with more operations. We have to use a type constraint on the class parameter `x` because the primitive `<=` is a polymorphic function in OCaml. The `inherit` clause ensures that the type of objects of this class is an instance of `#comparable`.

```
# class money (x : float) =
#   object
#     inherit comparable
#     val repr = x
#     method value = repr
#     method leq p = repr <= p#value
#   end;;
class money :
  float ->
  object ('a)
    val repr : float
    method leq : 'a -> bool
    method value : float
  end
```

Note that the type `money` is not a subtype of type `comparable`, as the self type appears in contravariant position in the type of method `leq`. Indeed, an object `m` of class `money` has a method `leq` that expects an argument of type `money` since it accesses its `value` method. Considering `m` of type `comparable` would allow a call to method `leq` on `m` with an argument that does not have a method `value`, which would be an error.

Similarly, the type `money2` below is not a subtype of type `money`.

```
# class money2 x =
#   object
#     inherit money x
#     method times k = {< repr = k *. repr >}
#   end;;
class money2 :
  float ->
  object ('a)
    val repr : float
    method leq : 'a -> bool
    method times : float -> 'a
    method value : float
  end
```

It is however possible to define functions that manipulate objects of type either `money` or `money2`: the function `min` will return the minimum of any two objects whose type unifies with `#comparable`. The type of `min` is not the same as `#comparable -> #comparable -> #comparable`, as the abbreviation `#comparable` hides a type variable (an ellipsis). Each occurrence of this abbreviation generates a new variable.

```
# let min (x : #comparable) y =
#   if x#leq y then x else y;;
val min : (#comparable as 'a) -> 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

This function can be applied to objects of type `money` or `money2`.

```
# (min (new money  1.3) (new money 3.1))#value;;
- : float = 1.3
```

```
# (min (new money2 5.0) (new money2 3.14))#value;;
- : float = 3.14
```

More examples of binary methods can be found in sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.3.

Note the use of override for method `times`. Writing `new money2 (k *. repr)` instead of `{< repr = k *. repr >}` would not behave well with inheritance: in a subclass `money3` of `money2` the `times` method would return an object of class `money2` but not of class `money3` as would be expected.

The class `money` could naturally carry another binary method. Here is a direct definition:

```
# class money x =
#   object (self : 'a)
#     val repr = x
#     method value = repr
#     method print = print_float repr
#     method times k = {< repr = k *. x >}
#     method leq (p : 'a) = repr <= p#value
#     method plus (p : 'a) = {< repr = x +. p#value >}
#   end;;
class money :
  float ->
  object ('a)
    val repr : float
    method leq : 'a -> bool
    method plus : 'a -> 'a
    method print : unit
    method times : float -> 'a
    method value : float
  end
```

3.17 Friends

The above class `money` reveals a problem that often occurs with binary methods. In order to interact with other objects of the same class, the representation of `money` objects must be revealed, using a method such as `value`. If we remove all binary methods (here `plus` and `leq`), the representation can easily be hidden inside objects by removing the method `value` as well. However, this is not possible as soon as some binary method requires access to the representation of objects of the same class (other than self).

```
# class safe_money x =
#   object (self : 'a)
#     val repr = x
#     method print = print_float repr
```

```
#     method times k = {< repr = k *. x >}
#   end;;
class safe_money :
  float ->
  object ('a)
    val repr : float
    method print : unit
    method times : float -> 'a
  end
```

Here, the representation of the object is known only to a particular object. To make it available to other objects of the same class, we are forced to make it available to the whole world. However we can easily restrict the visibility of the representation using the module system.

```
# module type MONEY =
#   sig
#     type t
#     class c : float ->
#       object ('a)
#         val repr : t
#         method value : t
#         method print : unit
#         method times : float -> 'a
#         method leq : 'a -> bool
#         method plus : 'a -> 'a
#       end
#   end;;
```

```
# module Euro : MONEY =
#   struct
#     type t = float
#     class c x =
#       object (self : 'a)
#         val repr = x
#         method value = repr
#         method print = print_float repr
#         method times k = {< repr = k *. x >}
#         method leq (p : 'a) = repr <= p#value
#         method plus (p : 'a) = {< repr = x +. p#value >}
#       end
#   end;;
```

Another example of friend functions may be found in section 5.2.3. These examples occur when a group of objects (here objects of the same class) and functions should see each others internal representation, while their representation should be hidden from the outside. The solution is always to define all friends in the same module, give access to the representation and use a signature constraint to make the representation abstract outside the module.

Chapter 4

Labels and variants

(Chapter written by Jacques Garrigue)

This chapter gives an overview of the new features in OCaml 3: labels, and polymorphic variants.

4.1 Labels

If you have a look at modules ending in `Labels` in the standard library, you will see that function types have annotations you did not have in the functions you defined yourself.

```
# ListLabels.map;;
- : f:('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list = <fun>

# StringLabels.sub;;
- : string -> pos:int -> len:int -> string = <fun>
```

Such annotations of the form `name:` are called *labels*. They are meant to document the code, allow more checking, and give more flexibility to function application. You can give such names to arguments in your programs, by prefixing them with a tilde `~`.

```
# let f ~x ~y = x - y;;
val f : x:int -> y:int -> int = <fun>

# let x = 3 and y = 2 in f ~x ~y;;
- : int = 1
```

When you want to use distinct names for the variable and the label appearing in the type, you can use a naming label of the form `~name:`. This also applies when the argument is not a variable.

```
# let f ~x:x1 ~y:y1 = x1 - y1;;
val f : x:int -> y:int -> int = <fun>

# f ~x:3 ~y:2;;
- : int = 1
```

Labels obey the same rules as other identifiers in OCaml, that is you cannot use a reserved keyword (like `in` or `to`) as label.

Formal parameters and arguments are matched according to their respective labels[1], the absence of label being interpreted as the empty label. This allows commuting arguments in applications. One can also partially apply a function on any argument, creating a new function of the remaining parameters.

```
# let f ~x ~y = x - y;;
val f : x:int -> y:int -> int = <fun>

# f ~y:2 ~x:3;;
- : int = 1

# ListLabels.fold_left;;
- : f:('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> init:'a -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>

# ListLabels.fold_left [1;2;3] ~init:0 ~f:( + );;
- : int = 6

# ListLabels.fold_left ~init:0;;
- : f:(int -> 'a -> int) -> 'a list -> int = <fun>
```

If several arguments of a function bear the same label (or no label), they will not commute among themselves, and order matters. But they can still commute with other arguments.

```
# let hline ~x:x1 ~x:x2 ~y = (x1, x2, y);;
val hline : x:'a -> x:'b -> y:'c -> 'a * 'b * 'c = <fun>

# hline ~x:3 ~y:2 ~x:5;;
- : int * int * int = (3, 5, 2)
```

As an exception to the above parameter matching rules, if an application is total (omitting all optional arguments), labels may be omitted. In practice, many applications are total, so that labels can often be omitted.

```
# f 3 2;;
- : int = 1

# ListLabels.map succ [1;2;3];;
- : int list = [2; 3; 4]
```

But beware that functions like `ListLabels.fold_left` whose result type is a type variable will never be considered as totally applied.

```
# ListLabels.fold_left ( + ) 0 [1;2;3];;
Error: This expression has type int -> int -> int
       but an expression was expected of type 'a list
```

When a function is passed as an argument to a higher-order function, labels must match in both types. Neither adding nor removing labels are allowed.

[1]This correspond to the commuting label mode of Objective Caml 3.00 through 3.02, with some additional flexibility on total applications. The so-called classic mode (`-nolabels` options) is now deprecated for normal use.

```
# let h g = g ~x:3 ~y:2;;
val h : (x:int -> y:int -> 'a) -> 'a = <fun>

# h f;;
- : int = 1

# h ( + );;
Error: This expression has type int -> int -> int
       but an expression was expected of type x:int -> y:int -> 'a
```

Note that when you don't need an argument, you can still use a wildcard pattern, but you must prefix it with the label.

```
# h (fun ~x:_ ~y -> y+1);;
- : int = 3
```

4.1.1 Optional arguments

An interesting feature of labeled arguments is that they can be made optional. For optional parameters, the question mark `?` replaces the tilde `~` of non-optional ones, and the label is also prefixed by `?` in the function type. Default values may be given for such optional parameters.

```
# let bump ?(step = 1) x = x + step;;
val bump : ?step:int -> int -> int = <fun>

# bump 2;;
- : int = 3

# bump ~step:3 2;;
- : int = 5
```

A function taking some optional arguments must also take at least one non-optional argument. The criterion for deciding whether an optional argument has been omitted is the non-labeled application of an argument appearing after this optional argument in the function type. Note that if that argument is labeled, you will only be able to eliminate optional arguments through the special case for total applications.

```
# let test ?(x = 0) ?(y = 0) () ?(z = 0) () = (x, y, z);;
val test : ?x:int -> ?y:int -> unit -> ?z:int -> unit -> int * int * int =
  <fun>

# test ();;
- : ?z:int -> unit -> int * int * int = <fun>

# test ~x:2 () ~z:3 ();;
- : int * int * int = (2, 0, 3)
```

Optional parameters may also commute with non-optional or unlabeled ones, as long as they are applied simultaneously. By nature, optional arguments do not commute with unlabeled arguments applied independently.

```
# test ~y:2 ~x:3 () ();;
- : int * int * int = (3, 2, 0)

# test () () ~z:1 ~y:2 ~x:3;;
- : int * int * int = (3, 2, 1)

# (test () ()) ~z:1;;
Error: This expression has type int * int * int
       This is not a function; it cannot be applied.
```

Here `(test () ())` is already `(0,0,0)` and cannot be further applied.

Optional arguments are actually implemented as option types. If you do not give a default value, you have access to their internal representation, `type 'a option = None | Some of 'a`. You can then provide different behaviors when an argument is present or not.

```
# let bump ?step x =
#   match step with
#   | None -> x * 2
#   | Some y -> x + y
# ;;
val bump : ?step:int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

It may also be useful to relay an optional argument from a function call to another. This can be done by prefixing the applied argument with `?`. This question mark disables the wrapping of optional argument in an option type.

```
# let test2 ?x ?y () = test ?x ?y () ();;
val test2 : ?x:int -> ?y:int -> unit -> int * int * int = <fun>

# test2 ?x:None;;
- : ?y:int -> unit -> int * int * int = <fun>
```

4.1.2 Labels and type inference

While they provide an increased comfort for writing function applications, labels and optional arguments have the pitfall that they cannot be inferred as completely as the rest of the language.

You can see it in the following two examples.

```
# let h' g = g ~y:2 ~x:3;;
val h' : (y:int -> x:int -> 'a) -> 'a = <fun>

# h' f;;
Error: This expression has type x:int -> y:int -> int
       but an expression was expected of type y:int -> x:int -> 'a

# let bump_it bump x =
#   bump ~step:2 x;;
val bump_it : (step:int -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b = <fun>

# bump_it bump 1;;
Error: This expression has type ?step:int -> int -> int
       but an expression was expected of type step:int -> 'a -> 'b
```

The first case is simple: `g` is passed `~y` and then `~x`, but `f` expects `~x` and then `~y`. This is correctly handled if we know the type of `g` to be `x:int -> y:int -> int` in advance, but otherwise this causes the above type clash. The simplest workaround is to apply formal parameters in a standard order.

The second example is more subtle: while we intended the argument `bump` to be of type `?step:int -> int -> int`, it is inferred as `step:int -> int -> 'a`. These two types being incompatible (internally normal and optional arguments are different), a type error occurs when applying `bump_it` to the real `bump`.

We will not try here to explain in detail how type inference works. One must just understand that there is not enough information in the above program to deduce the correct type of `g` or `bump`. That is, there is no way to know whether an argument is optional or not, or which is the correct order, by looking only at how a function is applied. The strategy used by the compiler is to assume that there are no optional arguments, and that applications are done in the right order.

The right way to solve this problem for optional parameters is to add a type annotation to the argument `bump`.

```
# let bump_it (bump : ?step:int -> int -> int) x =
#   bump ~step:2 x;;
val bump_it : (?step:int -> int -> int) -> int -> int = <fun>

# bump_it bump 1;;
- : int = 3
```

In practice, such problems appear mostly when using objects whose methods have optional arguments, so that writing the type of object arguments is often a good idea.

Normally the compiler generates a type error if you attempt to pass to a function a parameter whose type is different from the expected one. However, in the specific case where the expected type is a non-labeled function type, and the argument is a function expecting optional parameters, the compiler will attempt to transform the argument to have it match the expected type, by passing `None` for all optional parameters.

```
# let twice f (x : int) = f(f x);;
val twice : (int -> int) -> int -> int = <fun>

# twice bump 2;;
- : int = 8
```

This transformation is coherent with the intended semantics, including side-effects. That is, if the application of optional parameters shall produce side-effects, these are delayed until the received function is really applied to an argument.

4.1.3 Suggestions for labeling

Like for names, choosing labels for functions is not an easy task. A good labeling is a labeling which

- makes programs more readable,
- is easy to remember,

- when possible, allows useful partial applications.

We explain here the rules we applied when labeling OCaml libraries.

To speak in an "object-oriented" way, one can consider that each function has a main argument, its *object*, and other arguments related with its action, the *parameters*. To permit the combination of functions through functionals in commuting label mode, the object will not be labeled. Its role is clear from the function itself. The parameters are labeled with names reminding of their nature or their role. The best labels combine nature and role. When this is not possible the role is to be preferred, since the nature will often be given by the type itself. Obscure abbreviations should be avoided.

```
ListLabels.map : f:('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
UnixLabels.write : file_descr -> buf:bytes -> pos:int -> len:int -> unit
```

When there are several objects of same nature and role, they are all left unlabeled.

```
ListLabels.iter2 : f:('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> unit
```

When there is no preferable object, all arguments are labeled.

```
BytesLabels.blit :
  src:bytes -> src_pos:int -> dst:bytes -> dst_pos:int -> len:int -> unit
```

However, when there is only one argument, it is often left unlabeled.

```
BytesLabels.create : int -> bytes
```

This principle also applies to functions of several arguments whose return type is a type variable, as long as the role of each argument is not ambiguous. Labeling such functions may lead to awkward error messages when one attempts to omit labels in an application, as we have seen with `ListLabels.fold_left`.

Here are some of the label names you will find throughout the libraries.

Label	Meaning
`f:`	a function to be applied
`pos:`	a position in a string, array or byte sequence
`len:`	a length
`buf:`	a byte sequence or string used as buffer
`src:`	the source of an operation
`dst:`	the destination of an operation
`init:`	the initial value for an iterator
`cmp:`	a comparison function, *e.g.* `Pervasives.compare`
`mode:`	an operation mode or a flag list

All these are only suggestions, but keep in mind that the choice of labels is essential for readability. Bizarre choices will make the program harder to maintain.

In the ideal, the right function name with right labels should be enough to understand the function's meaning. Since one can get this information with OCamlBrowser or the `ocaml` toplevel, the documentation is only used when a more detailed specification is needed.

4.2 Polymorphic variants

Variants as presented in section 1.4 are a powerful tool to build data structures and algorithms. However they sometimes lack flexibility when used in modular programming. This is due to the fact every constructor reserves a name to be used with a unique type. One cannot use the same name in another type, or consider a value of some type to belong to some other type with more constructors.

With polymorphic variants, this original assumption is removed. That is, a variant tag does not belong to any type in particular, the type system will just check that it is an admissible value according to its use. You need not define a type before using a variant tag. A variant type will be inferred independently for each of its uses.

Basic use

In programs, polymorphic variants work like usual ones. You just have to prefix their names with a backquote character `` ` ``.

```
# [`On; `Off];;
- : [> `Off | `On ] list = [`On; `Off]

# `Number 1;;
- : [> `Number of int ] = `Number 1

# let f = function `On -> 1 | `Off -> 0 | `Number n -> n;;
val f : [< `Number of int | `Off | `On ] -> int = <fun>

# List.map f [`On; `Off];;
- : int list = [1; 0]
```

``[>`Off|`On] list`` means that to match this list, you should at least be able to match `` `Off `` and `` `On ``, without argument. ``[<`On|`Off|`Number of int]`` means that `f` may be applied to `` `Off ``, `` `On `` (both without argument), or `` `Number `` n where n is an integer. The `>` and `<` inside the variant types show that they may still be refined, either by defining more tags or by allowing less. As such, they contain an implicit type variable. Because each of the variant types appears only once in the whole type, their implicit type variables are not shown.

The above variant types were polymorphic, allowing further refinement. When writing type annotations, one will most often describe fixed variant types, that is types that cannot be refined. This is also the case for type abbreviations. Such types do not contain `<` or `>`, but just an enumeration of the tags and their associated types, just like in a normal datatype definition.

```
# type 'a vlist = [`Nil | `Cons of 'a * 'a vlist];;
type 'a vlist = [ `Cons of 'a * 'a vlist | `Nil ]

# let rec map f : 'a vlist -> 'b vlist = function
#   | `Nil -> `Nil
#   | `Cons(a, l) -> `Cons(f a, map f l)
# ;;
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a vlist -> 'b vlist = <fun>
```

Advanced use

Type-checking polymorphic variants is a subtle thing, and some expressions may result in more complex type information.

```
# let f = function `A -> `C | `B -> `D | x -> x;;
val f : ([> `A | `B | `C | `D ] as 'a) -> 'a = <fun>

# f `E;;
- : [> `A | `B | `C | `D | `E ] = `E
```

Here we are seeing two phenomena. First, since this matching is open (the last case catches any tag), we obtain the type `[> `A | `B]` rather than `[< `A | `B]` in a closed matching. Then, since `x` is returned as is, input and return types are identical. The notation `as 'a` denotes such type sharing. If we apply `f` to yet another tag `` `E ``, it gets added to the list.

```
# let f1 = function `A x -> x = 1 | `B -> true | `C -> false
# let f2 = function `A x -> x = "a" | `B -> true ;;
val f1 : [< `A of int | `B | `C ] -> bool = <fun>
val f2 : [< `A of string | `B ] -> bool = <fun>

# let f x = f1 x && f2 x;;
val f : [< `A of string & int | `B ] -> bool = <fun>
```

Here `f1` and `f2` both accept the variant tags `` `A `` and `` `B ``, but the argument of `` `A `` is `int` for `f1` and `string` for `f2`. In `f`'s type `` `C ``, only accepted by `f1`, disappears, but both argument types appear for `` `A `` as `int & string`. This means that if we pass the variant tag `` `A `` to `f`, its argument should be *both* `int` and `string`. Since there is no such value, `f` cannot be applied to `` `A ``, and `` `B `` is the only accepted input.

Even if a value has a fixed variant type, one can still give it a larger type through coercions. Coercions are normally written with both the source type and the destination type, but in simple cases the source type may be omitted.

```
# type 'a wlist = [`Nil | `Cons of 'a * 'a wlist | `Snoc of 'a wlist * 'a];;
type 'a wlist = [ `Cons of 'a * 'a wlist | `Nil | `Snoc of 'a wlist * 'a ]

# let wlist_of_vlist  l = (l : 'a vlist :> 'a wlist);;
val wlist_of_vlist : 'a vlist -> 'a wlist = <fun>

# let open_vlist l = (l : 'a vlist :> [> 'a vlist]);;
val open_vlist : 'a vlist -> [> 'a vlist ] = <fun>

# fun x -> (x :> [`A|`B|`C]);;
- : [< `A | `B | `C ] -> [ `A | `B | `C ] = <fun>
```

You may also selectively coerce values through pattern matching.

```
# let split_cases = function
#   | `Nil | `Cons _ as x -> `A x
#   | `Snoc _ as x -> `B x
# ;;
val split_cases :
  [< `Cons of 'a | `Nil | `Snoc of 'b ] ->
  [> `A of [> `Cons of 'a | `Nil ] | `B of [> `Snoc of 'b ] ] = <fun>
```

When an or-pattern composed of variant tags is wrapped inside an alias-pattern, the alias is given a type containing only the tags enumerated in the or-pattern. This allows for many useful idioms, like incremental definition of functions.

```
# let num x = `Num x
# let eval1 eval (`Num x) = x
# let rec eval x = eval1 eval x ;;
val num : 'a -> [> `Num of 'a ] = <fun>
val eval1 : 'a -> [< `Num of 'b ] -> 'b = <fun>
val eval : [< `Num of 'a ] -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# let plus x y = `Plus(x,y)
# let eval2 eval = function
#   | `Plus(x,y) -> eval x + eval y
#   | `Num _ as x -> eval1 eval x
# let rec eval x = eval2 eval x ;;
val plus : 'a -> 'b -> [> `Plus of 'a * 'b ] = <fun>
val eval2 : ('a -> int) -> [< `Num of int | `Plus of 'a * 'a ] -> int = <fun>
val eval : ([< `Num of int | `Plus of 'a * 'a ] as 'a) -> int = <fun>
```

To make this even more comfortable, you may use type definitions as abbreviations for or-patterns. That is, if you have defined `type myvariant = [`Tag1 of int | `Tag2 of bool]`, then the pattern `#myvariant` is equivalent to writing ``(`Tag1(_ : int) | `Tag2(_ : bool))``.

Such abbreviations may be used alone,

```
# let f = function
#   | #myvariant -> "myvariant"
#   | `Tag3 -> "Tag3";;
val f : [< `Tag1 of int | `Tag2 of bool | `Tag3 ] -> string = <fun>
```

or combined with with aliases.

```
# let g1 = function `Tag1 _ -> "Tag1" | `Tag2 _ -> "Tag2";;
val g1 : [< `Tag1 of 'a | `Tag2 of 'b ] -> string = <fun>
```

```
# let g = function
#   | #myvariant as x -> g1 x
#   | `Tag3 -> "Tag3";;
val g : [< `Tag1 of int | `Tag2 of bool | `Tag3 ] -> string = <fun>
```

4.2.1 Weaknesses of polymorphic variants

After seeing the power of polymorphic variants, one may wonder why they were added to core language variants, rather than replacing them.

The answer is twofold. One first aspect is that while being pretty efficient, the lack of static type information allows for less optimizations, and makes polymorphic variants slightly heavier than core language ones. However noticeable differences would only appear on huge data structures.

More important is the fact that polymorphic variants, while being type-safe, result in a weaker type discipline. That is, core language variants do actually much more than ensuring type-safety, they also check that you use only declared constructors, that all constructors present in a data-structure are compatible, and they enforce typing constraints to their parameters.

For this reason, you must be more careful about making types explicit when you use polymorphic variants. When you write a library, this is easy since you can describe exact types in interfaces, but for simple programs you are probably better off with core language variants.

Beware also that some idioms make trivial errors very hard to find. For instance, the following code is probably wrong but the compiler has no way to see it.

```
# type abc = [`A | `B | `C] ;;
type abc = [ `A | `B | `C ]

# let f = function
#   | `As -> "A"
#   | #abc -> "other" ;;
val f : [< `A | `As | `B | `C ] -> string = <fun>

# let f : abc -> string = f ;;
val f : abc -> string = <fun>
```

You can avoid such risks by annotating the definition itself.

```
# let f : abc -> string = function
#   | `As -> "A"
#   | #abc -> "other" ;;
Error: This pattern matches values of type [? `As ]
       but a pattern was expected which matches values of type abc
       The second variant type does not allow tag(s) `As
```

Chapter 5

Advanced examples with classes and modules

(Chapter written by Didier Rémy)

In this chapter, we show some larger examples using objects, classes and modules. We review many of the object features simultaneously on the example of a bank account. We show how modules taken from the standard library can be expressed as classes. Lastly, we describe a programming pattern know of as *virtual types* through the example of window managers.

5.1 Extended example: bank accounts

In this section, we illustrate most aspects of Object and inheritance by refining, debugging, and specializing the following initial naive definition of a simple bank account. (We reuse the module `Euro` defined at the end of chapter 3.)

```
# let euro = new Euro.c;;
val euro : float -> Euro.c = <fun>

# let zero = euro 0.;;
val zero : Euro.c = <obj>

# let neg x = x#times (-1.);;
val neg : < times : float -> 'a; .. > -> 'a = <fun>

# class account =
#   object
#     val mutable balance = zero
#     method balance = balance
#     method deposit x = balance <- balance # plus x
#     method withdraw x =
#       if x#leq balance then (balance <- balance # plus (neg x); x) else zero
#   end;;
class account :
  object
```

```
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

```
# let c = new account in c # deposit (euro 100.); c # withdraw (euro 50.);;
- : Euro.c = <obj>
```

We now refine this definition with a method to compute interest.

```
# class account_with_interests =
#   object (self)
#     inherit account
#     method private interest = self # deposit (self # balance # times 0.03)
#   end;;
class account_with_interests :
  object
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method private interest : unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

We make the method `interest` private, since clearly it should not be called freely from the outside. Here, it is only made accessible to subclasses that will manage monthly or yearly updates of the account.

We should soon fix a bug in the current definition: the deposit method can be used for withdrawing money by depositing negative amounts. We can fix this directly:

```
# class safe_account =
#   object
#     inherit account
#     method deposit x = if zero#leq x then balance <- balance#plus x
#   end;;
class safe_account :
  object
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

However, the bug might be fixed more safely by the following definition:

```
# class safe_account =
#   object
#     inherit account as unsafe
#     method deposit x =
```

```
#         if zero#leq x then unsafe # deposit x
#         else raise (Invalid_argument "deposit")
#     end;;
class safe_account :
  object
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

In particular, this does not require the knowledge of the implementation of the method `deposit`.

To keep track of operations, we extend the class with a mutable field `history` and a private method `trace` to add an operation in the log. Then each method to be traced is redefined.

```
# type 'a operation = Deposit of 'a | Retrieval of 'a;;
type 'a operation = Deposit of 'a | Retrieval of 'a
```

```
# class account_with_history =
#   object (self)
#     inherit safe_account as super
#     val mutable history = []
#     method private trace x = history <- x :: history
#     method deposit x = self#trace (Deposit x);  super#deposit x
#     method withdraw x = self#trace (Retrieval x); super#withdraw x
#     method history = List.rev history
#   end;;
class account_with_history :
  object
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
    val mutable history : Euro.c operation list
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method history : Euro.c operation list
    method private trace : Euro.c operation -> unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

One may wish to open an account and simultaneously deposit some initial amount. Although the initial implementation did not address this requirement, it can be achieved by using an initializer.

```
# class account_with_deposit x =
#   object
#     inherit account_with_history
#     initializer balance <- x
#   end;;
class account_with_deposit :
  Euro.c ->
  object
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
```

```
    val mutable history : Euro.c operation list
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method history : Euro.c operation list
    method private trace : Euro.c operation -> unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

A better alternative is:

```
# class account_with_deposit x =
#   object (self)
#     inherit account_with_history
#     initializer self#deposit x
#   end;;
class account_with_deposit :
  Euro.c ->
  object
    val mutable balance : Euro.c
    val mutable history : Euro.c operation list
    method balance : Euro.c
    method deposit : Euro.c -> unit
    method history : Euro.c operation list
    method private trace : Euro.c operation -> unit
    method withdraw : Euro.c -> Euro.c
  end
```

Indeed, the latter is safer since the call to `deposit` will automatically benefit from safety checks and from the trace. Let's test it:

```
# let ccp = new account_with_deposit (euro 100.) in
# let _balance = ccp#withdraw (euro 50.) in
# ccp#history;;
- : Euro.c operation list = [Deposit <obj>; Retrieval <obj>]
```

Closing an account can be done with the following polymorphic function:

```
# let close c = c#withdraw c#balance;;
val close : < balance : 'a; withdraw : 'a -> 'b; .. > -> 'b = <fun>
```

Of course, this applies to all sorts of accounts.

Finally, we gather several versions of the account into a module `Account` abstracted over some currency.

```
# let today () = (01,01,2000) (* an approximation *)
# module Account (M:MONEY) =
#   struct
#     type m = M.c
#     let m = new M.c
#     let zero = m 0.
```

```
#     class bank =
#       object (self)
#         val mutable balance = zero
#         method balance = balance
#         val mutable history = []
#         method private trace x = history <- x::history
#         method deposit x =
#           self#trace (Deposit x);
#           if zero#leq x then balance <- balance # plus x
#           else raise (Invalid_argument "deposit")
#         method withdraw x =
#           if x#leq balance then
#             (balance <- balance # plus (neg x); self#trace (Retrieval x); x)
#           else zero
#         method history = List.rev history
#       end
#     class type client_view =
#       object
#         method deposit : m -> unit
#         method history : m operation list
#         method withdraw : m -> m
#         method balance : m
#       end
#     class virtual check_client x =
#       let y = if (m 100.)#leq x then x
#       else raise (Failure "Insufficient initial deposit") in
#       object (self) initializer self#deposit y end
#     module Client (B : sig class bank : client_view end) =
#       struct
#         class account x : client_view =
#           object
#             inherit B.bank
#             inherit check_client x
#           end
#         let discount x =
#           let c = new account x in
#           if today() < (1998,10,30) then c # deposit (m 100.); c
#       end
#   end;;
```

This shows the use of modules to group several class definitions that can in fact be thought of as a single unit. This unit would be provided by a bank for both internal and external uses. This is implemented as a functor that abstracts over the currency so that the same code can be used to provide accounts in different currencies.

The class `bank` is the *real* implementation of the bank account (it could have been inlined). This is the one that will be used for further extensions, refinements, etc. Conversely, the client will only be given the client view.

```
# module Euro_account = Account(Euro);;
```

```
# module Client = Euro_account.Client (Euro_account);;
```

```
# new Client.account (new Euro.c 100.);;
```

Hence, the clients do not have direct access to the `balance`, nor the `history` of their own accounts. Their only way to change their balance is to deposit or withdraw money. It is important to give the clients a class and not just the ability to create accounts (such as the promotional `discount` account), so that they can personalize their account. For instance, a client may refine the `deposit` and `withdraw` methods so as to do his own financial bookkeeping, automatically. On the other hand, the function `discount` is given as such, with no possibility for further personalization.

It is important to provide the client's view as a functor `Client` so that client accounts can still be built after a possible specialization of the `bank`. The functor `Client` may remain unchanged and be passed the new definition to initialize a client's view of the extended account.

```
# module Investment_account (M : MONEY) =
#   struct
#     type m = M.c
#     module A = Account(M)
#     class bank =
#       object
#         inherit A.bank as super
#         method deposit x =
#           if (new M.c 1000.)#leq x then
#             print_string "Would you like to invest?";
#           super#deposit x
#       end
#     module Client = A.Client
#   end;;
```

The functor `Client` may also be redefined when some new features of the account can be given to the client.

```
# module Internet_account (M : MONEY) =
#   struct
#     type m = M.c
#     module A = Account(M)
#     class bank =
#       object
#         inherit A.bank
#         method mail s = print_string s
#       end
#     class type client_view =
#       object
#         method deposit : m -> unit
```

```
#         method history : m operation list
#         method withdraw : m -> m
#         method balance : m
#         method mail : string -> unit
#       end
#     module Client (B : sig class bank : client_view end) =
#       struct
#         class account x : client_view =
#           object
#             inherit B.bank
#             inherit A.check_client x
#           end
#       end
#   end;;
```

5.2 Simple modules as classes

One may wonder whether it is possible to treat primitive types such as integers and strings as objects. Although this is usually uninteresting for integers or strings, there may be some situations where this is desirable. The class `money` above is such an example. We show here how to do it for strings.

5.2.1 Strings

A naive definition of strings as objects could be:

```
# class ostring s =
#   object
#      method get n = String.get s n
#      method print = print_string s
#      method copy = new ostring (String.copy s)
#   end;;
Warning 3: deprecated: String.copy
class ostring :
  string ->
  object
    method copy : ostring
    method get : int -> char
    method print : unit
  end
```

However, the method `copy` returns an object of the class `ostring`, and not an object of the current class. Hence, if the class is further extended, the method `copy` will only return an object of the parent class.

```
# class sub_string s =
#   object
```

```
#      inherit ostring s
#      method sub start len = new sub_string (String.sub s  start len)
#   end;;
class sub_string :
  string ->
  object
    method copy : ostring
    method get : int -> char
    method print : unit
    method sub : int -> int -> sub_string
  end
```

As seen in section 3.16, the solution is to use functional update instead. We need to create an instance variable containing the representation `s` of the string.

```
# class better_string s =
#   object
#      val repr = s
#      method get n = String.get repr n
#      method print = print_string repr
#      method copy = {< repr = String.copy repr >}
#      method sub start len = {< repr = String.sub s  start len >}
#   end;;
Warning 3: deprecated: String.copy
class better_string :
  string ->
  object ('a)
    val repr : string
    method copy : 'a
    method get : int -> char
    method print : unit
    method sub : int -> int -> 'a
  end
```

As shown in the inferred type, the methods `copy` and `sub` now return objects of the same type as the one of the class.

Another difficulty is the implementation of the method `concat`. In order to concatenate a string with another string of the same class, one must be able to access the instance variable externally. Thus, a method `repr` returning s must be defined. Here is the correct definition of strings:

```
# class ostring s =
#   object (self : 'mytype)
#      val repr = s
#      method repr = repr
#      method get n = String.get repr n
#      method print = print_string repr
#      method copy = {< repr = String.copy repr >}
#      method sub start len = {< repr = String.sub s start len >}
#      method concat (t : 'mytype) = {< repr = repr ^ t#repr >}
```

```
#   end;;
Warning 3: deprecated: String.copy
class ostring :
  string ->
  object ('a)
    val repr : string
    method concat : 'a -> 'a
    method copy : 'a
    method get : int -> char
    method print : unit
    method repr : string
    method sub : int -> int -> 'a
  end
```

Another constructor of the class string can be defined to return a new string of a given length:

```
# class cstring n = ostring (String.make n ' ');;
class cstring : int -> ostring
```

Here, exposing the representation of strings is probably harmless. We do could also hide the representation of strings as we hid the currency in the class `money` of section 3.17.

Stacks

There is sometimes an alternative between using modules or classes for parametric data types. Indeed, there are situations when the two approaches are quite similar. For instance, a stack can be straightforwardly implemented as a class:

```
# exception Empty;;
exception Empty
```

```
# class ['a] stack =
#   object
#     val mutable l = ([] : 'a list)
#     method push x = l <- x::l
#     method pop = match l with [] -> raise Empty | a::l' -> l <- l'; a
#     method clear = l <- []
#     method length = List.length l
#   end;;
class ['a] stack :
  object
    val mutable l : 'a list
    method clear : unit
    method length : int
    method pop : 'a
    method push : 'a -> unit
  end
```

However, writing a method for iterating over a stack is more problematic. A method `fold` would have type `('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'b`. Here `'a` is the parameter of the stack. The parameter `'b` is not related to the class `'a stack` but to the argument that will be passed to the method `fold`. A naive approach is to make `'b` an extra parameter of class `stack`:

```
# class ['a, 'b] stack2 =
#   object
#     inherit ['a] stack
#     method fold f (x : 'b) = List.fold_left f x l
#   end;;
class ['a, 'b] stack2 :
  object
    val mutable l : 'a list
    method clear : unit
    method fold : ('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'b
    method length : int
    method pop : 'a
    method push : 'a -> unit
  end
```

However, the method `fold` of a given object can only be applied to functions that all have the same type:

```
# let s = new stack2;;
val s : ('_a, '_b) stack2 = <obj>

# s#fold ( + ) 0;;
- : int = 0

# s;;
- : (int, int) stack2 = <obj>
```

A better solution is to use polymorphic methods, which were introduced in OCaml version 3.05. Polymorphic methods makes it possible to treat the type variable `'b` in the type of `fold` as universally quantified, giving `fold` the polymorphic type `Forall 'b. ('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'b`. An explicit type declaration on the method `fold` is required, since the type checker cannot infer the polymorphic type by itself.

```
# class ['a] stack3 =
#   object
#     inherit ['a] stack
#     method fold : 'b. ('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'b
#                 = fun f x -> List.fold_left f x l
#   end;;
class ['a] stack3 :
  object
    val mutable l : 'a list
    method clear : unit
    method fold : ('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'b
    method length : int
    method pop : 'a
    method push : 'a -> unit
  end
```

5.2.2 Hashtbl

A simplified version of object-oriented hash tables should have the following class type.

```
# class type ['a, 'b] hash_table =
#   object
#     method find : 'a -> 'b
#     method add : 'a -> 'b -> unit
#   end;;
class type ['a, 'b] hash_table =
  object method add : 'a -> 'b -> unit method find : 'a -> 'b end
```

A simple implementation, which is quite reasonable for small hash tables is to use an association list:

```
# class ['a, 'b] small_hashtbl : ['a, 'b] hash_table =
#   object
#     val mutable table = []
#     method find key = List.assoc key table
#     method add key valeur = table <- (key, valeur) :: table
#   end;;
class ['a, 'b] small_hashtbl : ['a, 'b] hash_table
```

A better implementation, and one that scales up better, is to use a true hash table… whose elements are small hash tables!

```
# class ['a, 'b] hashtbl size : ['a, 'b] hash_table =
#   object (self)
#     val table = Array.init size (fun i -> new small_hashtbl)
#     method private hash key =
#       (Hashtbl.hash key) mod (Array.length table)
#     method find key = table.(self#hash key) # find key
#     method add key = table.(self#hash key) # add key
#   end;;
class ['a, 'b] hashtbl : int -> ['a, 'b] hash_table
```

5.2.3 Sets

Implementing sets leads to another difficulty. Indeed, the method `union` needs to be able to access the internal representation of another object of the same class.

This is another instance of friend functions as seen in section 3.17. Indeed, this is the same mechanism used in the module `Set` in the absence of objects.

In the object-oriented version of sets, we only need to add an additional method `tag` to return the representation of a set. Since sets are parametric in the type of elements, the method `tag` has a parametric type `'a tag`, concrete within the module definition but abstract in its signature. From outside, it will then be guaranteed that two objects with a method `tag` of the same type will share the same representation.

```
# module type SET =
#   sig
#     type 'a tag
#     class ['a] c :
#       object ('b)
#         method is_empty : bool
#         method mem : 'a -> bool
#         method add : 'a -> 'b
#         method union : 'b -> 'b
#         method iter : ('a -> unit) -> unit
#         method tag : 'a tag
#       end
#   end;;
```

```
# module Set : SET =
#   struct
#     let rec merge l1 l2 =
#       match l1 with
#         [] -> l2
#       | h1 :: t1 ->
#           match l2 with
#             [] -> l1
#           | h2 :: t2 ->
#               if h1 < h2 then h1 :: merge t1 l2
#               else if h1 > h2 then h2 :: merge l1 t2
#               else merge t1 l2
#     type 'a tag = 'a list
#     class ['a] c =
#       object (_ : 'b)
#         val repr = ([] : 'a list)
#         method is_empty = (repr = [])
#         method mem x = List.exists (( = ) x) repr
#         method add x = {< repr = merge [x] repr >}
#         method union (s : 'b) = {< repr = merge repr s#tag >}
#         method iter (f : 'a -> unit) = List.iter f repr
#         method tag = repr
#       end
#   end;;
```

5.3 The subject/observer pattern

The following example, known as the subject/observer pattern, is often presented in the literature as a difficult inheritance problem with inter-connected classes. The general pattern amounts to the definition a pair of two classes that recursively interact with one another.

The class `observer` has a distinguished method `notify` that requires two arguments, a subject and an event to execute an action.

```
# class virtual ['subject, 'event] observer =
#   object
#     method virtual notify : 'subject ->  'event -> unit
#   end;;
class virtual ['subject, 'event] observer :
  object method virtual notify : 'subject -> 'event -> unit end
```

The class `subject` remembers a list of observers in an instance variable, and has a distinguished method `notify_observers` to broadcast the message `notify` to all observers with a particular event `e`.

```
# class ['observer, 'event] subject =
#   object (self)
#     val mutable observers = ([]:'observer list)
#     method add_observer obs = observers <- (obs :: observers)
#     method notify_observers (e : 'event) =
#         List.iter (fun x -> x#notify self e) observers
#   end;;
class ['a, 'event] subject :
  object ('b)
    constraint 'a = < notify : 'b -> 'event -> unit; .. >
    val mutable observers : 'a list
    method add_observer : 'a -> unit
    method notify_observers : 'event -> unit
  end
```

The difficulty usually lies in defining instances of the pattern above by inheritance. This can be done in a natural and obvious manner in OCaml, as shown on the following example manipulating windows.

```
# type event = Raise | Resize | Move;;
type event = Raise | Resize | Move

# let string_of_event = function
#     Raise -> "Raise" | Resize -> "Resize" | Move -> "Move";;
val string_of_event : event -> string = <fun>

# let count = ref 0;;
val count : int ref = {contents = 0}

# class ['observer] window_subject =
#   let id = count := succ !count; !count in
#   object (self)
#     inherit ['observer, event] subject
#     val mutable position = 0
#     method identity = id
#     method move x = position <- position + x; self#notify_observers Move
```

```
#     method draw = Printf.printf "{Position = %d}\n"  position;
#   end;;
class ['a] window_subject :
  object ('b)
    constraint 'a = < notify : 'b -> event -> unit; .. >
    val mutable observers : 'a list
    val mutable position : int
    method add_observer : 'a -> unit
    method draw : unit
    method identity : int
    method move : int -> unit
    method notify_observers : event -> unit
  end
```

```
# class ['subject] window_observer =
#   object
#     inherit ['subject, event] observer
#     method notify s e = s#draw
#   end;;
class ['a] window_observer :
  object
    constraint 'a = < draw : unit; .. >
    method notify : 'a -> event -> unit
  end
```

As can be expected, the type of `window` is recursive.

```
# let window = new window_subject;;
val window : < notify : 'a -> event -> unit; _.. > window_subject as 'a =
  <obj>
```

However, the two classes of `window_subject` and `window_observer` are not mutually recursive.

```
# let window_observer = new window_observer;;
val window_observer : < draw : unit; _.. > window_observer = <obj>
```

```
# window#add_observer window_observer;;
- : unit = ()
```

```
# window#move 1;;
{Position = 1}
- : unit = ()
```

Classes `window_observer` and `window_subject` can still be extended by inheritance. For instance, one may enrich the `subject` with new behaviors and refine the behavior of the observer.

```
# class ['observer] richer_window_subject =
#   object (self)
#     inherit ['observer] window_subject
#     val mutable size = 1
#     method resize x = size <- size + x; self#notify_observers Resize
#     val mutable top = false
```

```
#     method raise = top <- true; self#notify_observers Raise
#     method draw = Printf.printf "{Position = %d; Size = %d}\n"  position size;
#   end;;
class ['a] richer_window_subject :
  object ('b)
    constraint 'a = < notify : 'b -> event -> unit; .. >
    val mutable observers : 'a list
    val mutable position : int
    val mutable size : int
    val mutable top : bool
    method add_observer : 'a -> unit
    method draw : unit
    method identity : int
    method move : int -> unit
    method notify_observers : event -> unit
    method raise : unit
    method resize : int -> unit
  end
```

```
# class ['subject] richer_window_observer =
#   object
#     inherit ['subject] window_observer as super
#     method notify s e = if e <> Raise then s#raise; super#notify s e
#   end;;
class ['a] richer_window_observer :
  object
    constraint 'a = < draw : unit; raise : unit; .. >
    method notify : 'a -> event -> unit
  end
```

We can also create a different kind of observer:

```
# class ['subject] trace_observer =
#   object
#     inherit ['subject, event] observer
#     method notify s e =
#       Printf.printf
#         "<Window %d <== %s>\n" s#identity (string_of_event e)
#   end;;
class ['a] trace_observer :
  object
    constraint 'a = < identity : int; .. >
    method notify : 'a -> event -> unit
  end
```

and attach several observers to the same object:

```
# let window = new richer_window_subject;;
val window :
  < notify : 'a -> event -> unit; _.. > richer_window_subject as 'a = <obj>
```

```
# window#add_observer (new richer_window_observer);;
- : unit = ()

# window#add_observer (new trace_observer);;
- : unit = ()

# window#move 1; window#resize 2;;
<Window 1 <== Move>
<Window 1 <== Raise>
{Position = 1; Size = 1}
{Position = 1; Size = 1}
<Window 1 <== Resize>
<Window 1 <== Raise>
{Position = 1; Size = 3}
{Position = 1; Size = 3}
- : unit = ()
```

Part II

The OCaml language

Chapter 6

The OCaml language

Foreword

This document is intended as a reference manual for the OCaml language. It lists the language constructs, and gives their precise syntax and informal semantics. It is by no means a tutorial introduction to the language: there is not a single example. A good working knowledge of OCaml is assumed.

No attempt has been made at mathematical rigor: words are employed with their intuitive meaning, without further definition. As a consequence, the typing rules have been left out, by lack of the mathematical framework required to express them, while they are definitely part of a full formal definition of the language.

Notations

The syntax of the language is given in BNF-like notation. Terminal symbols are set in typewriter font (`like this`). Non-terminal symbols are set in italic font (*like that*). Square brackets [...] denote optional components. Curly brackets {...} denotes zero, one or several repetitions of the enclosed components. Curly brackets with a trailing plus sign $\{\ldots\}^+$ denote one or several repetitions of the enclosed components. Parentheses (...) denote grouping.

6.1 Lexical conventions

Blanks

The following characters are considered as blanks: space, horizontal tabulation, carriage return, line feed and form feed. Blanks are ignored, but they separate adjacent identifiers, literals and keywords that would otherwise be confused as one single identifier, literal or keyword.

Comments

Comments are introduced by the two characters `(*`, with no intervening blanks, and terminated by the characters `*)`, with no intervening blanks. Comments are treated as blank characters. Comments do not occur inside string or character literals. Nested comments are handled correctly.

Identifiers

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{ident} & ::= & (\textit{letter} \mid \texttt{\_})\ \{\textit{letter} \mid \texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_} \mid \texttt{'}\} \\
\textit{capitalized-ident} & ::= & (\texttt{A}\ldots\texttt{Z})\ \{\textit{letter} \mid \texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_} \mid \texttt{'}\} \\
\textit{lowercase-ident} & ::= & (\texttt{a}\ldots\texttt{z} \mid \texttt{\_})\ \{\textit{letter} \mid \texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_} \mid \texttt{'}\} \\
\textit{letter} & ::= & \texttt{A}\ldots\texttt{Z} \mid \texttt{a}\ldots\texttt{z}
\end{array}
$$

Identifiers are sequences of letters, digits, `_` (the underscore character), and `'` (the single quote), starting with a letter or an underscore. Letters contain at least the 52 lowercase and uppercase letters from the ASCII set. The current implementation also recognizes as letters some characters from the ISO 8859-1 set (characters 192–214 and 216–222 as uppercase letters; characters 223–246 and 248–255 as lowercase letters). This feature is deprecated and should be avoided for future compatibility.

All characters in an identifier are meaningful. The current implementation accepts identifiers up to 16000000 characters in length.

In many places, OCaml makes a distinction between capitalized identifiers and identifiers that begin with a lowercase letter. The underscore character is considered a lowercase letter for this purpose.

Integer literals

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{integer-literal} & ::= & [\texttt{-}]\ (\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9})\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_}\} \\
 & \mid & [\texttt{-}]\ (\texttt{0x} \mid \texttt{0X})\ (\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{A}\ldots\texttt{F} \mid \texttt{a}\ldots\texttt{f})\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{A}\ldots\texttt{F} \mid \texttt{a}\ldots\texttt{f} \mid \texttt{\_}\} \\
 & \mid & [\texttt{-}]\ (\texttt{0o} \mid \texttt{0O})\ (\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{7})\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{7} \mid \texttt{\_}\} \\
 & \mid & [\texttt{-}]\ (\texttt{0b} \mid \texttt{0B})\ (\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{1})\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{1} \mid \texttt{\_}\}
\end{array}
$$

An integer literal is a sequence of one or more digits, optionally preceded by a minus sign. By default, integer literals are in decimal (radix 10). The following prefixes select a different radix:

Prefix	Radix
`0x`, `0X`	hexadecimal (radix 16)
`0o`, `0O`	octal (radix 8)
`0b`, `0B`	binary (radix 2)

(The initial `0` is the digit zero; the `O` for octal is the letter O.) The interpretation of integer literals that fall outside the range of representable integer values is undefined.

For convenience and readability, underscore characters (`_`) are accepted (and ignored) within integer literals.

Floating-point literals

$$
\textit{float-literal} ::= [\texttt{-}]\ (\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9})\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_}\}\ [\texttt{.}\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_}\}]\ [(\texttt{e} \mid \texttt{E})\ [\texttt{+} \mid \texttt{-}]\ (\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9})\ \{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9} \mid \texttt{\_}\}]
$$

Floating-point decimals consist in an integer part, a decimal part and an exponent part. The integer part is a sequence of one or more digits, optionally preceded by a minus sign. The decimal part is a decimal point followed by zero, one or more digits. The exponent part is the character `e` or `E` followed by an optional `+` or `-` sign, followed by one or more digits. The decimal part or the exponent part can be omitted but not both, to avoid ambiguity with integer literals. The interpretation of floating-point literals that fall outside the range of representable floating-point values is undefined.

For convenience and readability, underscore characters (`_`) are accepted (and ignored) within floating-point literals.

Character literals

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{char-literal} & ::= & \texttt{'}\ \textit{regular-char}\ \texttt{'} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{'}\ \textit{escape-sequence}\ \texttt{'} \\
\textit{escape-sequence} & ::= & \texttt{\textbackslash}\ (\texttt{\textbackslash} \mid \texttt{"} \mid \texttt{'} \mid \texttt{n} \mid \texttt{t} \mid \texttt{b} \mid \texttt{r} \mid \textit{space}) \\
 & \mid & \texttt{\textbackslash}\ (\texttt{0} \ldots \texttt{9})\ (\texttt{0} \ldots \texttt{9})\ (\texttt{0} \ldots \texttt{9}) \\
 & \mid & \texttt{\textbackslash x}\ (\texttt{0} \ldots \texttt{9} \mid \texttt{A} \ldots \texttt{F} \mid \texttt{a} \ldots \texttt{f})\ (\texttt{0} \ldots \texttt{9} \mid \texttt{A} \ldots \texttt{F} \mid \texttt{a} \ldots \texttt{f})
\end{array}
$$

Character literals are delimited by `'` (single quote) characters. The two single quotes enclose either one character different from `'` and `\`, or one of the escape sequences below:

Sequence	Character denoted
`\\`	backslash (`\`)
`\"`	double quote (`"`)
`\'`	single quote (`'`)
`\n`	linefeed (LF)
`\r`	carriage return (CR)
`\t`	horizontal tabulation (TAB)
`\b`	backspace (BS)
`\`*space*	space (SPC)
`\`*ddd*	the character with ASCII code *ddd* in decimal
`\x`*hh*	the character with ASCII code *hh* in hexadecimal

String literals

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{string-literal} & ::= & \texttt{"}\ \{\textit{string-character}\}\ \texttt{"} \\
\textit{string-character} & ::= & \textit{regular-string-char} \\
 & \mid & \textit{escape-sequence} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{\textbackslash}\ \textit{newline}\ \{\textit{space} \mid \textit{tab}\}
\end{array}
$$

String literals are delimited by `"` (double quote) characters. The two double quotes enclose a sequence of either characters different from `"` and `\`, or escape sequences from the table given above for character literals.

To allow splitting long string literals across lines, the sequence `\`*newline spaces-or-tabs* (a backslash at the end of a line followed by any number of spaces and horizontal tabulations at the beginning of the next line) is ignored inside string literals.

The current implementation places practically no restrictions on the length of string literals.

Naming labels

To avoid ambiguities, naming labels in expressions cannot just be defined syntactically as the sequence of the three tokens `~`, *ident* and `:`, and have to be defined at the lexical level.

label-name	::=	*lowercase-ident*
label	::=	`~` *label-name* `:`
optlabel	::=	`?` *label-name* `:`

Naming labels come in two flavours: *label* for normal arguments and *optlabel* for optional ones. They are simply distinguished by their first character, either `~` or `?`.

Despite *label* and *optlabel* being lexical entities in expressions, their expansions `~` *label-name* `:` and `?` *label-name* `:` will be used in grammars, for the sake of readability. Note also that inside type expressions, this expansion can be taken literally, *i.e.* there are really 3 tokens, with optional blanks between them.

Prefix and infix symbols

infix-symbol	::=	(`=` | `<` | `>` | `@` | `^` | `|` | `&` | `+` | `-` | `*` | `/` | `$` | `%`) {*operator-char*}
prefix-symbol	::=	`!` {*operator-char*}
	|	(`?` | `~`) {*operator-char*}+
operator-char	::=	`!` | `$` | `%` | `&` | `*` | `+` | `-` | `.` | `/` | `:` | `<` | `=` | `>` | `?` | `@` | `^` | `|` | `~`

Sequences of "operator characters", such as `<=>` or `!!`, are read as a single token from the *infix-symbol* or *prefix-symbol* class. These symbols are parsed as prefix and infix operators inside expressions, but otherwise behave like normal identifiers.

Keywords

The identifiers below are reserved as keywords, and cannot be employed otherwise:

```
and         as          assert      asr         begin       class
constraint  do          done        downto      else        end
exception   external    false       for         fun         function
functor     if          in          include     inherit     initializer
land        lazy        let         lor         lsl         lsr
lxor        match       method      mod         module      mutable
new         object      of          open        or          private
rec         sig         struct      then        to          true
try         type        val         virtual     when        while
with
```

The following character sequences are also keywords:

```
!=    #     &     &&    '     (     )     *     +     ,     -
-.    ->    .     ..    :     ::    :=    :>    ;     ;;    <
<-    =     >     >]    >}    ?     [     [<    [>    [|    ]
_     `     {     {<    |     |]    ||    }     ~
```

Note that the following identifiers are keywords of the Camlp4 extensions and should be avoided for compatibility reasons.

```
parser    value    $    $$    $:    <:    <<    >>    ??
```

Ambiguities

Lexical ambiguities are resolved according to the "longest match" rule: when a character sequence can be decomposed into two tokens in several different ways, the decomposition retained is the one with the longest first token.

Line number directives

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{linenum-directive} & ::= & \texttt{\#}\,\{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9}\}^{+} \\ & \mid & \texttt{\#}\,\{\texttt{0}\ldots\texttt{9}\}^{+}\ \texttt{"}\ \{\textit{string-character}\}\ \texttt{"} \end{array}$$

Preprocessors that generate OCaml source code can insert line number directives in their output so that error messages produced by the compiler contain line numbers and file names referring to the source file before preprocessing, instead of after preprocessing. A line number directive is composed of a `#` (sharp sign), followed by a positive integer (the source line number), optionally followed by a character string (the source file name). Line number directives are treated as blanks during lexical analysis.

6.2 Values

This section describes the kinds of values that are manipulated by OCaml programs.

6.2.1 Base values

Integer numbers

Integer values are integer numbers from -2^{30} to $2^{30}-1$, that is -1073741824 to 1073741823. The implementation may support a wider range of integer values: on 64-bit platforms, the current implementation supports integers ranging from -2^{62} to $2^{62}-1$.

Floating-point numbers

Floating-point values are numbers in floating-point representation. The current implementation uses double-precision floating-point numbers conforming to the IEEE 754 standard, with 53 bits of mantissa and an exponent ranging from -1022 to 1023.

Characters

Character values are represented as 8-bit integers between 0 and 255. Character codes between 0 and 127 are interpreted following the ASCII standard. The current implementation interprets character codes between 128 and 255 following the ISO 8859-1 standard.

Character strings

String values are finite sequences of characters. The current implementation supports strings containing up to $2^{24} - 5$ characters (16777211 characters); on 64-bit platforms, the limit is $2^{57} - 9$.

6.2.2 Tuples

Tuples of values are written `(`v_1 `,` ... `,`v_n `)`, standing for the n-tuple of values v_1 to v_n. The current implementation supports tuple of up to $2^{22} - 1$ elements (4194303 elements).

6.2.3 Records

Record values are labeled tuples of values. The record value written `{` *field*$_1$ `=`v_1 `;` ... `;` *field*$_n$ `=`v_n `}` associates the value v_i to the record field *field*$_i$, for $i = 1 \ldots n$. The current implementation supports records with up to $2^{22} - 1$ fields (4194303 fields).

6.2.4 Arrays

Arrays are finite, variable-sized sequences of values of the same type. The current implementation supports arrays containing up to $2^{22} - 1$ elements (4194303 elements) unless the elements are floating-point numbers (2097151 elements in this case); on 64-bit platforms, the limit is $2^{54} - 1$ for all arrays.

6.2.5 Variant values

Variant values are either a constant constructor, or a non-constant constructor applied to a number of values. The former case is written *constr*; the latter case is written *constr* `(`v_1 `,`... `,`v_n `)`, where the v_i are said to be the arguments of the non-constant constructor *constr*. The parentheses may be omitted if there is only one argument.

The following constants are treated like built-in constant constructors:

Constant	Constructor
`false`	the boolean false
`true`	the boolean true
`()`	the "unit" value
`[]`	the empty list

The current implementation limits each variant type to have at most 246 non-constant constructors and $2^{30} - 1$ constant constructors.

6.2.6 Polymorphic variants

Polymorphic variants are an alternate form of variant values, not belonging explicitly to a predefined variant type, and following specific typing rules. They can be either constant, written ` *tag-name*, or non-constant, written ` *tag-name* (*v*).

6.2.7 Functions

Functional values are mappings from values to values.

6.2.8 Objects

Objects are composed of a hidden internal state which is a record of instance variables, and a set of methods for accessing and modifying these variables. The structure of an object is described by the toplevel class that created it.

6.3 Names

Identifiers are used to give names to several classes of language objects and refer to these objects by name later:

- value names (syntactic class *value-name*),
- value constructors and exception constructors (class *constr-name*),
- labels (*label-name*, defined in section 6.1),
- polymorphic variant tags (*tag-name*),
- type constructors (*typeconstr-name*),
- record fields (*field-name*),
- class names (*class-name*),
- method names (*method-name*),
- instance variable names (*inst-var-name*),
- module names (*module-name*),
- module type names (*modtype-name*).

These eleven name spaces are distinguished both by the context and by the capitalization of the identifier: whether the first letter of the identifier is in lowercase (written *lowercase-ident* below) or in uppercase (written *capitalized-ident*). Underscore is considered a lowercase letter for this purpose.

Naming objects

value-name ::= *lowercase-ident*
  | `(` *operator-name* `)`

operator-name ::= *prefix-symbol* | *infix-op*

infix-op ::= *infix-symbol*
  | `*` | `+` | `-` | `-.` | `=` | `!=` | `<` | `>` | `or` | `||` | `&` | `&&` | `:=`
  | `mod` | `land` | `lor` | `lxor` | `lsl` | `lsr` | `asr`

constr-name ::= *capitalized-ident*

tag-name ::= *capitalized-ident*

typeconstr-name ::= *lowercase-ident*

field-name ::= *lowercase-ident*

module-name ::= *capitalized-ident*

modtype-name ::= *ident*

class-name ::= *lowercase-ident*

inst-var-name ::= *lowercase-ident*

method-name ::= *lowercase-ident*

As shown above, prefix and infix symbols as well as some keywords can be used as value names, provided they are written between parentheses. The capitalization rules are summarized in the table below.

Name space	Case of first letter
Values	lowercase
Constructors	uppercase
Labels	lowercase
Polymorphic variant tags	uppercase
Exceptions	uppercase
Type constructors	lowercase
Record fields	lowercase
Classes	lowercase
Instance variables	lowercase
Methods	lowercase
Modules	uppercase
Module types	any

Note on polymorphic variant tags: the current implementation accepts lowercase variant tags in addition to capitalized variant tags, but we suggest you avoid lowercase variant tags for portability and compatibility with future OCaml versions.

Referring to named objects

value-path	::=	[*module-path* `.`] *value-name*
constr	::=	[*module-path* `.`] *constr-name*
typeconstr	::=	[*extended-module-path* `.`] *typeconstr-name*
field	::=	[*module-path* `.`] *field-name*
modtype-path	::=	[*extended-module-path* `.`] *modtype-name*
class-path	::=	[*module-path* `.`] *class-name*
classtype-path	::=	[*extended-module-path* `.`] *class-name*
module-path	::=	*module-name* {`.` *module-name*}
extended-module-path	::=	*extended-module-name* {`.` *extended-module-name*}
extended-module-name	::=	*module-name* {`(` *extended-module-path* `)`}

A named object can be referred to either by its name (following the usual static scoping rules for names) or by an access path *prefix* `.` *name*, where *prefix* designates a module and *name* is the name of an object defined in that module. The first component of the path, *prefix*, is either a simple module name or an access path $name_1$ `.` $name_2 \ldots$, in case the defining module is itself nested inside other modules. For referring to type constructors, module types, or class types, the *prefix* can also contain simple functor applications (as in the syntactic class *extended-module-path* above) in case the defining module is the result of a functor application.

Label names, tag names, method names and instance variable names need not be qualified: the former three are global labels, while the latter are local to a class.

6.4 Type expressions

typexpr ::= `'` *ident*
  | `_`
  | `(` *typexpr* `)`
  | [[`?`] *label-name* `:`] *typexpr* `->` *typexpr*
  | *typexpr* {`*` *typexpr*}$^+$
  | *typeconstr*
  | *typexpr* *typeconstr*
  | `(` *typexpr* {`,` *typexpr*} `)` *typeconstr*
  | *typexpr* `as` `'` *ident*
  | *polymorphic-variant-type*
  | `<` [`..`] `>`
  | `<` *method-type* {`;` *method-type*} [`;` | `; ..`] `>`
  | `#` *class-path*
  | *typexpr* `#` *class-path*
  | `(` *typexpr* {`,` *typexpr*} `)` `#` *class-path*

poly-typexpr ::= *typexpr*
  | {`'` *ident*}$^+$ `.` *typexpr*

method-type ::= *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*

The table below shows the relative precedences and associativity of operators and non-closed type constructions. The constructions with higher precedences come first.

Operator	Associativity
Type constructor application	–
`#`	–
`*`	–
`->`	right
`as`	–

Type expressions denote types in definitions of data types as well as in type constraints over patterns and expressions.

Type variables

The type expression `'` *ident* stands for the type variable named *ident*. The type expression `_` stands for an anonymous type variable. In data type definitions, type variables are names for the data type parameters. In type constraints, they represent unspecified types that can be instantiated by any type to satisfy the type constraint. In general the scope of a named type variable is the whole top-level phrase where it appears, and it can only be generalized when leaving this scope. Anonymous variables have no such restriction. In the following cases, the scope of named type variables is restricted to the type expression where they appear: 1) for universal (explicitly polymorphic) type variables; 2) for type variables that only appear in public method specifications (as those variables will be made universal, as described in section 6.9.1); 3) for variables used as aliases, when the type they are aliased to would be invalid in the scope of the enclosing definition (*i.e.* when it contains free universal type variables, or locally defined types.)

Parenthesized types

The type expression `(` *typexpr* `)` denotes the same type as *typexpr*.

Function types

The type expression $typexpr_1$ `->` $typexpr_2$ denotes the type of functions mapping arguments of type $typexpr_1$ to results of type $typexpr_2$.

label-name `:` $typexpr_1$ `->` $typexpr_2$ denotes the same function type, but the argument is labeled *label*.

`?` *label-name* `:` $typexpr_1$ `->` $typexpr_2$ denotes the type of functions mapping an optional labeled argument of type $typexpr_1$ to results of type $typexpr_2$. That is, the physical type of the function will be $typexpr_1$ `option` `->` $typexpr_2$.

Tuple types

The type expression $typexpr_1$ `*`...`*` $typexpr_n$ denotes the type of tuples whose elements belong to types $typexpr_1, \ldots typexpr_n$ respectively.

Constructed types

Type constructors with no parameter, as in *typeconstr*, are type expressions.

The type expression *typexpr typeconstr*, where *typeconstr* is a type constructor with one parameter, denotes the application of the unary type constructor *typeconstr* to the type *typexpr*.

The type expression $(typexpr_1, \ldots, typexpr_n)$ *typeconstr*, where *typeconstr* is a type constructor with n parameters, denotes the application of the n-ary type constructor *typeconstr* to the types $typexpr_1$ through $typexpr_n$.

Aliased and recursive types

The type expression *typexpr* `as` `'` *ident* denotes the same type as *typexpr*, and also binds the type variable *ident* to type *typexpr* both in *typexpr* and in other types. In general the scope of an alias is the same as for a named type variable, and covers the whole enclosing definition. If the type variable *ident* actually occurs in *typexpr*, a recursive type is created. Recursive types for which there exists a recursive path that does not contain an object or polymorphic variant type constructor are rejected, except when the `-rectypes` mode is selected.

If `'` *ident* denotes an explicit polymorphic variable, and *typexpr* denotes either an object or polymorphic variant type, the row variable of *typexpr* is captured by `'` *ident*, and quantified upon.

Polymorphic variant types

```
polymorphic-variant-type ::= [ tag-spec-first {| tag-spec} ]
                           | [> [tag-spec] {| tag-spec} ]
                           | [< [|] tag-spec-full {| tag-spec-full} [> {` tag-name}+] ]
          tag-spec-first ::= ` tag-name [of typexpr]
                           | [typexpr] | tag-spec
                tag-spec ::= ` tag-name [of typexpr]
                           | typexpr
           tag-spec-full ::= ` tag-name [of [&] typexpr {& typexpr}]
                           | typexpr
```

Polymorphic variant types describe the values a polymorphic variant may take.

The first case is an exact variant type: all possible tags are known, with their associated types, and they can all be present. Its structure is fully known.

The second case is an open variant type, describing a polymorphic variant value: it gives the list of all tags the value could take, with their associated types. This type is still compatible with a variant type containing more tags. A special case is the unknown type, which does not define any tag, and is compatible with any variant type.

The third case is a closed variant type. It gives information about all the possible tags and their associated types, and which tags are known to potentially appear in values. The exact variant type (first case) is just an abbreviation for a closed variant type where all possible tags are also potentially present.

In all three cases, tags may be either specified directly in the `` ` `` *tag-name* [`of` *typexpr*] form, or indirectly through a type expression, which must expand to an exact variant type, whose tag specifications are inserted in its place.

Full specifications of variant tags are only used for non-exact closed types. They can be understood as a conjunctive type for the argument: it is intended to have all the types enumerated in the specification.

Such conjunctive constraints may be unsatisfiable. In such a case the corresponding tag may not be used in a value of this type. This does not mean that the whole type is not valid: one can still use other available tags. Conjunctive constraints are mainly intended as output from the type checker. When they are used in source programs, unsolvable constraints may cause early failures.

Object types

An object type `<` [*method-type* {`;` *method-type*}] `>` is a record of method types.

Each method may have an explicit polymorphic type: {`'` *ident*}$^+$ `.` *typexpr*. Explicit polymorphic variables have a local scope, and an explicit polymorphic type can only be unified to an equivalent one, where only the order and names of polymorphic variables may change.

The type `<` {*method-type* `;`} `..` `>` is the type of an object whose method names and types are described by *method-type*$_1, \ldots,$ *method-type*$_n$, and possibly some other methods represented by the ellipsis. This ellipsis actually is a special kind of type variable (called *row variable* in the literature) that stands for any number of extra method types.

#-types

The type `#` *class-path* is a special kind of abbreviation. This abbreviation unifies with the type of any object belonging to a subclass of class *class-path*. It is handled in a special way as it usually hides a type variable (an ellipsis, representing the methods that may be added in a subclass). In particular, it vanishes when the ellipsis gets instantiated. Each type expression `#` *class-path* defines a new type variable, so type `#` *class-path* `->` `#` *class-path* is usually not the same as type (`#` *class-path* `as` `'` *ident*) `->` `'` *ident*.

Use of #-types to abbreviate polymorphic variant types is deprecated. If t is an exact variant type then `#`t translates to `[<`t `]`, and `#`t `[>` `` ` `` $tag_1 \ldots$ `` ` `` tag_k `]` translates to `[<`t `>` `` ` `` $tag_1 \ldots$ `` ` `` tag_k `]`

Variant and record types

There are no type expressions describing (defined) variant types nor record types, since those are always named, i.e. defined before use and referred to by name. Type definitions are described in section 6.8.1.

6.5 Constants

constant	::=	*integer-literal*
	|	*float-literal*
	|	*char-literal*
	|	*string-literal*
	|	*constr*
	|	`false`
	|	`true`
	|	`( )`
	|	`begin end`
	|	`[ ]`
	|	`[| |]`
	|	`` ` `` *tag-name*

The syntactic class of constants comprises literals from the four base types (integers, floating-point numbers, characters, character strings), and constant constructors from both normal and polymorphic variants, as well as the special constants `false`, `true`, `( )`, `[ ]`, and `[| |]`, which behave like constant constructors, and `begin end`, which is equivalent to `( )`.

6.6 Patterns

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{pattern} & ::= & \textit{value-name} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{\_} \\
 & \mid & \textit{constant} \\
 & \mid & \textit{pattern}\ \texttt{as}\ \textit{value-name} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{(}\ \textit{pattern}\ \texttt{)} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{(}\ \textit{pattern}\ \texttt{:}\ \textit{typexpr}\ \texttt{)} \\
 & \mid & \textit{pattern}\ \texttt{|}\ \textit{pattern} \\
 & \mid & \textit{constr}\ \textit{pattern} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{`}\ \textit{tag-name}\ \textit{pattern} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{\#}\ \textit{typeconstr} \\
 & \mid & \textit{pattern}\ \{\texttt{,}\ \textit{pattern}\}^{+} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{\{}\ \textit{field}\ \texttt{=}\ \textit{pattern}\ \{\texttt{;}\ \textit{field}\ \texttt{=}\ \textit{pattern}\}\ [\texttt{;}]\ \texttt{\}} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{[}\ \textit{pattern}\ \{\texttt{;}\ \textit{pattern}\}\ [\texttt{;}]\ \texttt{]} \\
 & \mid & \textit{pattern}\ \texttt{::}\ \textit{pattern} \\
 & \mid & \texttt{[|}\ \textit{pattern}\ \{\texttt{;}\ \textit{pattern}\}\ [\texttt{;}]\ \texttt{|]}
\end{array}
$$

The table below shows the relative precedences and associativity of operators and non-closed pattern constructions. The constructions with higher precedences come first.

Operator	Associativity
`..` (see section 7.4)	–
`lazy` (see section 7.6)	–
Constructor application, Tag application	right
`::`	right
`,`	–
|	left
`as`	–

Patterns are templates that allow selecting data structures of a given shape, and binding identifiers to components of the data structure. This selection operation is called pattern matching; its outcome is either "this value does not match this pattern", or "this value matches this pattern, resulting in the following bindings of names to values".

Variable patterns

A pattern that consists in a value name matches any value, binding the name to the value. The pattern `_` also matches any value, but does not bind any name.

Patterns are *linear*: a variable cannot be bound several times by a given pattern. In particular, there is no way to test for equality between two parts of a data structure using only a pattern (but `when` guards can be used for this purpose).

Constant patterns

A pattern consisting in a constant matches the values that are equal to this constant.

Alias patterns

The pattern $pattern_1$ `as` *value-name* matches the same values as $pattern_1$. If the matching against $pattern_1$ is successful, the name *value-name* is bound to the matched value, in addition to the bindings performed by the matching against $pattern_1$.

Parenthesized patterns

The pattern `(` $pattern_1$ `)` matches the same values as $pattern_1$. A type constraint can appear in a parenthesized pattern, as in `(` $pattern_1$ `:` *typexpr* `)`. This constraint forces the type of $pattern_1$ to be compatible with *typexpr*.

"Or" patterns

The pattern $pattern_1$ `|` $pattern_2$ represents the logical "or" of the two patterns $pattern_1$ and $pattern_2$. A value matches $pattern_1$ `|` $pattern_2$ if it matches $pattern_1$ or $pattern_2$. The two sub-patterns $pattern_1$ and $pattern_2$ must bind exactly the same identifiers to values having the same types. Matching is performed from left to right. More precisely, in case some value v matches $pattern_1$ `|` $pattern_2$, the bindings performed are those of $pattern_1$ when v matches $pattern_1$. Otherwise, value v matches $pattern_2$ whose bindings are performed.

Variant patterns

The pattern *constr* `(` $pattern_1$ `,` … `,` $pattern_n$ `)` matches all variants whose constructor is equal to *constr*, and whose arguments match $pattern_1 \ldots pattern_n$. It is a type error if n is not the number of arguments expected by the constructor.

The pattern *constr* `_` matches all variants whose constructor is *constr*.

The pattern $pattern_1$ `::` $pattern_2$ matches non-empty lists whose heads match $pattern_1$, and whose tails match $pattern_2$.

The pattern `[` $pattern_1$ `;` … `;` $pattern_n$ `]` matches lists of length n whose elements match $pattern_1 \ldots pattern_n$, respectively. This pattern behaves like $pattern_1$ `::` … `::` $pattern_n$ `::` `[]`.

Polymorphic variant patterns

The pattern `` ` `` *tag-name* $pattern_1$ matches all polymorphic variants whose tag is equal to *tag-name*, and whose argument matches $pattern_1$.

Polymorphic variant abbreviation patterns

If the type [`('a,'b,...)`] *typeconstr* = `[` `` ` `` $tag\text{-}name_1$ $typexpr_1$ `|` … `|` `` ` `` $tag\text{-}name_n$ $typexpr_n$ `]` is defined, then the pattern `#` *typeconstr* is a shorthand for the following or-pattern: `(` `` ` `` $tag\text{-}name_1$ `(_` `:` $typexpr_1$ `)` `|` … `|` `` ` `` $tag\text{-}name_n$ `(_` `:` $typexpr_n$ `))`. It matches all values of type `[<` *typeconstr* `]`.

Tuple patterns

The pattern *pattern*$_1$ `,` … `,` *pattern*$_n$ matches n-tuples whose components match the patterns *pattern*$_1$ through *pattern*$_n$. That is, the pattern matches the tuple values $(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ such that *pattern*$_i$ matches v_i for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

Record patterns

The pattern `{` *field*$_1$ `=` *pattern*$_1$ `;` … `;` *field*$_n$ `=` *pattern*$_n$ `}` matches records that define at least the fields *field*$_1$ through *field*$_n$, and such that the value associated to *field*$_i$ matches the pattern *pattern*$_i$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. The record value can define more fields than *field*$_1$ … *field*$_n$; the values associated to these extra fields are not taken into account for matching.

Array patterns

The pattern `[|` *pattern*$_1$ `;` … `;` *pattern*$_n$ `|]` matches arrays of length n such that the i-th array element matches the pattern *pattern*$_i$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

6.7 Expressions

```
expr ::= value-path
       | constant
       | ( expr )
       | begin expr end
       | ( expr : typexpr )
       | expr {, expr}+
       | constr expr
       | ` tag-name expr
       | expr :: expr
       | [ expr {; expr} [;] ]
       | [| expr {; expr} [;] |]
       | { field = expr {; field = expr} [;] }
       | { expr with field = expr {; field = expr} [;] }
       | expr {argument}+
       | prefix-symbol expr
       | - expr
       | -. expr
       | expr infix-op expr
       | expr . field
       | expr . field <- expr
       | expr .( expr )
       | expr .( expr ) <- expr
       | expr .[ expr ]
       | expr .[ expr ] <- expr
       | if expr then expr [else expr]
       | while expr do expr done
       | for value-name = expr (to | downto) expr do expr done
       | expr ; expr
       | match expr with pattern-matching
       | function pattern-matching
       | fun multiple-matching
       | try expr with pattern-matching
       | let [rec] let-binding {and let-binding} in expr
       | new class-path
       | object class-body end
       | expr # method-name
       | inst-var-name
       | inst-var-name <- expr
       | ( expr :> typexpr )
       | ( expr : typexpr :> typexpr )
       | {< [inst-var-name = expr {; inst-var-name = expr} [;]] >}
```

argument ::= *expr*
  | `~` *label-name*
  | `~` *label-name* `:` *expr*
  | `?` *label-name*
  | `?` *label-name* `:` *expr*

pattern-matching ::= [`|`] *pattern* [`when` *expr*] `->` *expr* {`|` *pattern* [`when` *expr*] `->` *expr*}

multiple-matching ::= {*parameter*}+ [`when` *expr*] `->` *expr*

let-binding ::= *pattern* `=` *expr*
  | *value-name* {*parameter*} [`:` *typexpr*] [`:>` *typexpr*] `=` *expr*

parameter ::= *pattern*
  | `~` *label-name*
  | `~` `(` *label-name* [`:` *typexpr*] `)`
  | `~` *label-name* `:` *pattern*
  | `?` *label-name*
  | `?` `(` *label-name* [`:` *typexpr*] [`=` *expr*] `)`
  | `?` *label-name* `:` *pattern*
  | `?` *label-name* `:` `(` *pattern* [`:` *typexpr*] [`=` *expr*] `)`

The table below shows the relative precedences and associativity of operators and non-closed constructions. The constructions with higher precedence come first. For infix and prefix symbols, we write “`*`…” to mean “any symbol starting with `*`”.

<table>
<tr><th>Construction or operator</th><th>Associativity</th></tr>
<tr><td>prefix-symbol</td><td>–</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>.</code> <code>.(</code> <code>.[</code> <code>.{</code> (see section 7.21)</td><td>–</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>#</code></td><td>–</td></tr>
<tr><td>function application, constructor application, tag application, <code>assert</code> (see 7.5), <code>lazy</code> (see 7.6)</td><td>left</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>-</code> <code>-.</code> (prefix)</td><td>–</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>**...</code> <code>lsl</code> <code>lsr</code> <code>asr</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>*...</code> <code>/...</code> <code>%...</code> <code>mod</code> <code>land</code> <code>lor</code> <code>lxor</code></td><td>left</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>+...</code> <code>-...</code></td><td>left</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>::</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>@...</code> <code>^...</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>=...</code> <code><...</code> <code>>...</code> <code>|...</code> <code>&...</code> <code>$...</code> <code>!=</code></td><td>left</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>&</code> <code>&&</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>or</code> <code>||</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>,</code></td><td>–</td></tr>
<tr><td><code><-</code> <code>:=</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>if</code></td><td>–</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>;</code></td><td>right</td></tr>
<tr><td><code>let</code> <code>match</code> <code>fun</code> <code>function</code> <code>try</code></td><td>–</td></tr>
</table>

6.7.1 Basic expressions

Constants

An expression consisting in a constant evaluates to this constant.

Value paths

An expression consisting in an access path evaluates to the value bound to this path in the current evaluation environment. The path can be either a value name or an access path to a value component of a module.

Parenthesized expressions

The expressions `(` *expr* `)` and `begin` *expr* `end` have the same value as *expr*. The two constructs are semantically equivalent, but it is good style to use `begin`...`end` inside control structures:

```
if ... then begin ... ; ... end else begin ... ; ... end
```

and `(`...`)` for the other grouping situations.

Parenthesized expressions can contain a type constraint, as in `(` *expr* `:` *typexpr* `)`. This constraint forces the type of *expr* to be compatible with *typexpr*.

Parenthesized expressions can also contain coercions `(` *expr* [`:` *typexpr*] `:>` *typexpr* `)` (see subsection 6.7.6 below).

Function application

Function application is denoted by juxtaposition of (possibly labeled) expressions. The expression *expr* $argument_1 \ldots argument_n$ evaluates the expression *expr* and those appearing in $argument_1$ to $argument_n$. The expression *expr* must evaluate to a functional value f, which is then applied to the values of $argument_1, \ldots, argument_n$.

The order in which the expressions *expr*, $argument_1, \ldots, argument_n$ are evaluated is not specified.

Arguments and parameters are matched according to their respective labels. Argument order is irrelevant, except among arguments with the same label, or no label.

If a parameter is specified as optional (label prefixed by `?`) in the type of *expr*, the corresponding argument will be automatically wrapped with the constructor `Some`, except if the argument itself is also prefixed by `?`, in which case it is passed as is. If a non-labeled argument is passed, and its corresponding parameter is preceded by one or several optional parameters, then these parameters are *defaulted*, *i.e.* the value `None` will be passed for them. All other missing parameters (without corresponding argument), both optional and non-optional, will be kept, and the result of the function will still be a function of these missing parameters to the body of f.

As a special case, if the function has a known arity, all the arguments are unlabeled, and their number matches the number of non-optional parameters, then labels are ignored and non-optional parameters are matched in their definition order. Optional arguments are defaulted.

In all cases but exact match of order and labels, without optional parameters, the function type should be known at the application point. This can be ensured by adding a type constraint. Principality of the derivation can be checked in the `-principal` mode.

Function definition

Two syntactic forms are provided to define functions. The first form is introduced by the keyword `function`:

```
function  pattern1  ->  expr1
        |  ...
        |  patternn  ->  exprn
```

This expression evaluates to a functional value with one argument. When this function is applied to a value v, this value is matched against each pattern $pattern_1$ to $pattern_n$. If one of these matchings succeeds, that is, if the value v matches the pattern $pattern_i$ for some i, then the expression $expr_i$ associated to the selected pattern is evaluated, and its value becomes the value of the function application. The evaluation of $expr_i$ takes place in an environment enriched by the bindings performed during the matching.

If several patterns match the argument v, the one that occurs first in the function definition is selected. If none of the patterns matches the argument, the exception `Match_failure` is raised.

The other form of function definition is introduced by the keyword `fun`:

`fun` $parameter_1 \ldots parameter_n$ `->` *expr*

This expression is equivalent to:

`fun` $parameter_1$ `->` … `fun` $parameter_n$ `->` *expr*

The parameter patterns `~` *lab* and `~(` *lab* [`:` *typ*] `)` are shorthands for respectively `~` *lab* `:` *lab* and `~` *lab* `:(` *lab* [`:` *typ*] `)`, and similarly for their optional counterparts.

A function of the form `fun ?` *lab* `:(` *pattern* `=` $expr_0$ `)` `->` *expr* is equivalent to

`fun ?` *lab* `:` *ident* `->` `let` *pattern* `=` `match` *ident* `with Some` *ident* `->` *ident* `| None ->` $expr_0$ `in` *expr*

where *ident* is a fresh variable, except that it is unspecified when $expr_0$ is evaluated.

After these two transformations, expressions are of the form

`fun` [$label_1$] $pattern_1$ `->` … `fun` [$label_n$] $pattern_n$ `->` *expr*

If we ignore labels, which will only be meaningful at function application, this is equivalent to

`function` $pattern_1$ `->` … `function` $pattern_n$ `->` *expr*

That is, the `fun` expression above evaluates to a curried function with n arguments: after applying this function n times to the values $v_1 \ldots v_n$, the values will be matched in parallel against the patterns $pattern_1 \ldots pattern_n$. If the matching succeeds, the function returns the value of *expr* in an environment enriched by the bindings performed during the matchings. If the matching fails, the exception `Match_failure` is raised.

Guards in pattern-matchings

The cases of a pattern matching (in the `function`, `fun`, `match` and `try` constructs) can include guard expressions, which are arbitrary boolean expressions that must evaluate to `true` for the match case to be selected. Guards occur just before the `->` token and are introduced by the `when` keyword:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \texttt{function} & \mathit{pattern}_1\ [\texttt{when}\ \mathit{cond}_1] & \texttt{->} & \mathit{expr}_1 \\ \texttt{|} & \ldots & & \\ \texttt{|} & \mathit{pattern}_n\ [\texttt{when}\ \mathit{cond}_n] & \texttt{->} & \mathit{expr}_n \end{array}$$

Matching proceeds as described before, except that if the value matches some pattern $\mathit{pattern}_i$ which has a guard cond_i, then the expression cond_i is evaluated (in an environment enriched by the bindings performed during matching). If cond_i evaluates to `true`, then expr_i is evaluated and its value returned as the result of the matching, as usual. But if cond_i evaluates to `false`, the matching is resumed against the patterns following $\mathit{pattern}_i$.

Local definitions

The `let` and `let rec` constructs bind value names locally. The construct

$$\texttt{let}\ \mathit{pattern}_1\ \texttt{=}\ \mathit{expr}_1\ \texttt{and} \ldots \texttt{and}\ \mathit{pattern}_n\ \texttt{=}\ \mathit{expr}_n\ \texttt{in}\ \mathit{expr}$$

evaluates $\mathit{expr}_1 \ldots \mathit{expr}_n$ in some unspecified order and matches their values against the patterns $\mathit{pattern}_1 \ldots \mathit{pattern}_n$. If the matchings succeed, *expr* is evaluated in the environment enriched by the bindings performed during matching, and the value of *expr* is returned as the value of the whole `let` expression. If one of the matchings fails, the exception `Match_failure` is raised.

An alternate syntax is provided to bind variables to functional values: instead of writing

$$\texttt{let}\ \mathit{ident}\ \texttt{=}\ \texttt{fun}\ \mathit{parameter}_1 \ldots \mathit{parameter}_m\ \texttt{->}\ \mathit{expr}$$

in a `let` expression, one may instead write

$$\texttt{let}\ \mathit{ident}\ \mathit{parameter}_1 \ldots \mathit{parameter}_m\ \texttt{=}\ \mathit{expr}$$

Recursive definitions of names are introduced by `let rec`:

$$\texttt{let rec}\ \mathit{pattern}_1\ \texttt{=}\ \mathit{expr}_1\ \texttt{and} \ldots \texttt{and}\ \mathit{pattern}_n\ \texttt{=}\ \mathit{expr}_n\ \texttt{in}\ \mathit{expr}$$

The only difference with the `let` construct described above is that the bindings of names to values performed by the pattern-matching are considered already performed when the expressions expr_1 to expr_n are evaluated. That is, the expressions expr_1 to expr_n can reference identifiers that are bound by one of the patterns $\mathit{pattern}_1, \ldots, \mathit{pattern}_n$, and expect them to have the same value as in *expr*, the body of the `let rec` construct.

The recursive definition is guaranteed to behave as described above if the expressions expr_1 to expr_n are function definitions (`fun`... or `function`...), and the patterns $\mathit{pattern}_1 \ldots \mathit{pattern}_n$ are just value names, as in:

$$\texttt{let rec}\ \mathit{name}_1\ \texttt{= fun} \ldots \texttt{and} \ldots \texttt{and}\ \mathit{name}_n\ \texttt{= fun} \ldots \texttt{in}\ \mathit{expr}$$

This defines $\mathit{name}_1 \ldots \mathit{name}_n$ as mutually recursive functions local to *expr*.

The behavior of other forms of `let rec` definitions is implementation-dependent. The current implementation also supports a certain class of recursive definitions of non-functional values, as explained in section 7.3.

6.7.2 Control structures

Sequence

The expression $expr_1$ `;` $expr_2$ evaluates $expr_1$ first, then $expr_2$, and returns the value of $expr_2$.

Conditional

The expression `if` $expr_1$ `then` $expr_2$ `else` $expr_3$ evaluates to the value of $expr_2$ if $expr_1$ evaluates to the boolean `true`, and to the value of $expr_3$ if $expr_1$ evaluates to the boolean `false`.

The `else` $expr_3$ part can be omitted, in which case it defaults to `else ()`.

Case expression

The expression

$$
\begin{array}{rlll}
\texttt{match} & expr & & \\
\texttt{with} & pattern_1 & \texttt{->} & expr_1 \\
\texttt{|} & \ldots & & \\
\texttt{|} & pattern_n & \texttt{->} & expr_n
\end{array}
$$

matches the value of *expr* against the patterns $pattern_1$ to $pattern_n$. If the matching against $pattern_i$ succeeds, the associated expression $expr_i$ is evaluated, and its value becomes the value of the whole `match` expression. The evaluation of $expr_i$ takes place in an environment enriched by the bindings performed during matching. If several patterns match the value of *expr*, the one that occurs first in the `match` expression is selected. If none of the patterns match the value of *expr*, the exception `Match_failure` is raised.

Boolean operators

The expression $expr_1$ `&&` $expr_2$ evaluates to `true` if both $expr_1$ and $expr_2$ evaluate to `true`; otherwise, it evaluates to `false`. The first component, $expr_1$, is evaluated first. The second component, $expr_2$, is not evaluated if the first component evaluates to `false`. Hence, the expression $expr_1$ `&&` $expr_2$ behaves exactly as

`if` $expr_1$ `then` $expr_2$ `else false`.

The expression $expr_1$ `||` $expr_2$ evaluates to `true` if one of the expressions $expr_1$ and $expr_2$ evaluates to `true`; otherwise, it evaluates to `false`. The first component, $expr_1$, is evaluated first. The second component, $expr_2$, is not evaluated if the first component evaluates to `true`. Hence, the expression $expr_1$ `||` $expr_2$ behaves exactly as

`if` $expr_1$ `then true else` $expr_2$.

The boolean operators `&` and `or` are deprecated synonyms for (respectively) `&&` and `||`.

Loops

The expression `while` $expr_1$ `do` $expr_2$ `done` repeatedly evaluates $expr_2$ while $expr_1$ evaluates to `true`. The loop condition $expr_1$ is evaluated and tested at the beginning of each iteration. The whole `while`...`done` expression evaluates to the unit value `()`.

The expression `for` *name* `=` $expr_1$ `to` $expr_2$ `do` $expr_3$ `done` first evaluates the expressions $expr_1$ and $expr_2$ (the boundaries) into integer values n and p. Then, the loop body $expr_3$ is repeatedly evaluated in an environment where *name* is successively bound to the values n, $n+1$, ..., $p-1$, p. The loop body is never evaluated if $n > p$.

The expression `for` *name* `=` $expr_1$ `downto` $expr_2$ `do` $expr_3$ `done` evaluates similarly, except that *name* is successively bound to the values n, $n-1$, ..., $p+1$, p. The loop body is never evaluated if $n < p$.

In both cases, the whole `for` expression evaluates to the unit value `()`.

Exception handling

The expression

```
try   expr
with  pattern1  ->  expr1
   |  ...
   |  patternn  ->  exprn
```

evaluates the expression *expr* and returns its value if the evaluation of *expr* does not raise any exception. If the evaluation of *expr* raises an exception, the exception value is matched against the patterns $pattern_1$ to $pattern_n$. If the matching against $pattern_i$ succeeds, the associated expression $expr_i$ is evaluated, and its value becomes the value of the whole `try` expression. The evaluation of $expr_i$ takes place in an environment enriched by the bindings performed during matching. If several patterns match the value of *expr*, the one that occurs first in the `try` expression is selected. If none of the patterns matches the value of *expr*, the exception value is raised again, thereby transparently "passing through" the `try` construct.

6.7.3 Operations on data structures

Products

The expression $expr_1$ `,` ... `,` $expr_n$ evaluates to the n-tuple of the values of expressions $expr_1$ to $expr_n$. The evaluation order of the subexpressions is not specified.

Variants

The expression *constr expr* evaluates to the unary variant value whose constructor is *constr*, and whose argument is the value of *expr*. Similarly, the expression *constr* `(` $expr_1$ `,` ... `,` $expr_n$ `)` evaluates to the n-ary variant value whose constructor is *constr* and whose arguments are the values of $expr_1, \ldots, expr_n$.

The expression *constr* `(` $expr_1, \ldots, expr_n$ `)` evaluates to the variant value whose constructor is *constr*, and whose arguments are the values of $expr_1 \ldots expr_n$.

For lists, some syntactic sugar is provided. The expression $expr_1$ `::` $expr_2$ stands for the constructor `( :: )` applied to the arguments `(` $expr_1$ `,` $expr_2$ `)`, and therefore evaluates to the list whose head is the value of $expr_1$ and whose tail is the value of $expr_2$. The expression `[` $expr_1$ `;` ... `;` $expr_n$ `]` is equivalent to $expr_1$ `::` ... `::` $expr_n$ `::` `[]`, and therefore evaluates to the list whose elements are the values of $expr_1$ to $expr_n$.

Polymorphic variants

The expression `` ` `` *tag-name expr* evaluates to the polymorphic variant value whose tag is *tag-name*, and whose argument is the value of *expr*.

Records

The expression `{` $field_1$ `=` $expr_1$ `;` ... `;` $field_n$ `=` $expr_n$ `}` evaluates to the record value $\{field_1 = v_1; \ldots; field_n = v_n\}$ where v_i is the value of $expr_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. The fields $field_1$ to $field_n$ must all belong to the same record type; each field of this record type must appear exactly once in the record expression, though they can appear in any order. The order in which $expr_1$ to $expr_n$ are evaluated is not specified.

The expression `{` *expr* `with` $field_1$ `=` $expr_1$ `;` ... `;` $field_n$ `=` $expr_n$ `}` builds a fresh record with fields $field_1 \ldots field_n$ equal to $expr_1 \ldots expr_n$, and all other fields having the same value as in the record *expr*. In other terms, it returns a shallow copy of the record *expr*, except for the fields $field_1 \ldots field_n$, which are initialized to $expr_1 \ldots expr_n$.

The expression $expr_1$ `.` *field* evaluates $expr_1$ to a record value, and returns the value associated to *field* in this record value.

The expression $expr_1$ `.` *field* `<-` $expr_2$ evaluates $expr_1$ to a record value, which is then modified in-place by replacing the value associated to *field* in this record by the value of $expr_2$. This operation is permitted only if *field* has been declared `mutable` in the definition of the record type. The whole expression $expr_1$ `.` *field* `<-` $expr_2$ evaluates to the unit value `()`.

Arrays

The expression `[|` $expr_1$ `;` ... `;` $expr_n$ `|]` evaluates to a n-element array, whose elements are initialized with the values of $expr_1$ to $expr_n$ respectively. The order in which these expressions are evaluated is unspecified.

The expression $expr_1$ `.(` $expr_2$ `)` returns the value of element number $expr_2$ in the array denoted by $expr_1$. The first element has number 0; the last element has number $n-1$, where n is the size of the array. The exception `Invalid_argument` is raised if the access is out of bounds.

The expression $expr_1$ `.(` $expr_2$ `)` `<-` $expr_3$ modifies in-place the array denoted by $expr_1$, replacing element number $expr_2$ by the value of $expr_3$. The exception `Invalid_argument` is raised if the access is out of bounds. The value of the whole expression is `()`.

Strings

The expression $expr_1$ `.[` $expr_2$ `]` returns the value of character number $expr_2$ in the string denoted by $expr_1$. The first character has number 0; the last character has number $n-1$, where n is the length of the string. The exception `Invalid_argument` is raised if the access is out of bounds.

The expression $expr_1$ `.[` $expr_2$ `]` `<-` $expr_3$ modifies in-place the string denoted by $expr_1$, replacing character number $expr_2$ by the value of $expr_3$. The exception `Invalid_argument` is raised if the access is out of bounds. The value of the whole expression is `()`.

Note: this possibility is offered only for backward compatibility with older versions of OCaml and will be removed in a future version. New code should use byte sequences and the `Bytes.set` function.

6.7.4 Operators

Symbols from the class *infix-symbol*, as well as the keywords `*`, `+`, `-`, `-.`, `=`, `!=`, `<`, `>`, `or`, `||`, `&`, `&&`, `:=`, `mod`, `land`, `lor`, `lxor`, `lsl`, `lsr`, and `asr` can appear in infix position (between two expressions). Symbols from the class *prefix-symbol*, as well as the keywords `-` and `-.` can appear in prefix position (in front of an expression).

Infix and prefix symbols do not have a fixed meaning: they are simply interpreted as applications of functions bound to the names corresponding to the symbols. The expression *prefix-symbol expr* is interpreted as the application `(` *prefix-symbol* `)` *expr*. Similarly, the expression $expr_1$ *infix-symbol* $expr_2$ is interpreted as the application `(` *infix-symbol* `)` $expr_1$ $expr_2$.

The table below lists the symbols defined in the initial environment and their initial meaning. (See the description of the core library module `Pervasives` in chapter 20 for more details). Their meaning may be changed at any time using `let (` *infix-op* `)` $name_1$ $name_2$ `=`...

Note: the operators `&&`, `||`, and `~-` are handled specially and it is not advisable to change their meaning.

The keywords `-` and `-.` can appear both as infix and prefix operators. When they appear as prefix operators, they are interpreted respectively as the functions `(~-)` and `(~-.)`.

Operator	Initial meaning
`+`	Integer addition.
`-` (infix)	Integer subtraction.
`~-` `-` (prefix)	Integer negation.
`*`	Integer multiplication.
`/`	Integer division. Raise `Division_by_zero` if second argument is zero.
`mod`	Integer modulus. Raise `Division_by_zero` if second argument is zero.
`land`	Bitwise logical “and” on integers.
`lor`	Bitwise logical “or” on integers.
`lxor`	Bitwise logical “exclusive or” on integers.
`lsl`	Bitwise logical shift left on integers.
`lsr`	Bitwise logical shift right on integers.
`asr`	Bitwise arithmetic shift right on integers.
`+.`	Floating-point addition.
`-.` (infix)	Floating-point subtraction.
`~-.` `-.` (prefix)	Floating-point negation.
`*.`	Floating-point multiplication.
`/.`	Floating-point division.
`**`	Floating-point exponentiation.
`@`	List concatenation.
`^`	String concatenation.
`!`	Dereferencing (return the current contents of a reference).
`:=`	Reference assignment (update the reference given as first argument with the value of the second argument).
`=`	Structural equality test.
`<>`	Structural inequality test.
`==`	Physical equality test.
`!=`	Physical inequality test.
`<`	Test “less than”.
`<=`	Test “less than or equal”.
`>`	Test “greater than”.
`>=`	Test “greater than or equal”.
`&&` `&`	Boolean conjunction.
`||` `or`	Boolean disjunction.

6.7.5 Objects

Object creation

When *class-path* evaluates to a class body, `new` *class-path* evaluates to a new object containing the instance variables and methods of this class.

When *class-path* evaluates to a class function, `new` *class-path* evaluates to a function expecting the same number of arguments and returning a new object of this class.

Immediate object creation

Creating directly an object through the `object` *class-body* `end` construct is operationally equivalent to defining locally a `class` *class-name* `=` `object` *class-body* `end` —see sections 6.9.2 and following for the syntax of *class-body*— and immediately creating a single object from it by `new` *class-name*.

The typing of immediate objects is slightly different from explicitly defining a class in two respects. First, the inferred object type may contain free type variables. Second, since the class body of an immediate object will never be extended, its self type can be unified with a closed object type.

Method invocation

The expression *expr* `#` *method-name* invokes the method *method-name* of the object denoted by *expr*.

If *method-name* is a polymorphic method, its type should be known at the invocation site. This is true for instance if *expr* is the name of a fresh object (`let` *ident* = `new` *class-path* ...) or if there is a type constraint. Principality of the derivation can be checked in the `-principal` mode.

Accessing and modifying instance variables

The instance variables of a class are visible only in the body of the methods defined in the same class or a class that inherits from the class defining the instance variables. The expression *inst-var-name* evaluates to the value of the given instance variable. The expression *inst-var-name* `<-` *expr* assigns the value of *expr* to the instance variable *inst-var-name*, which must be mutable. The whole expression *inst-var-name* `<-` *expr* evaluates to `()`.

Object duplication

An object can be duplicated using the library function `Oo.copy` (see section 21.23). Inside a method, the expression `{<` *inst-var-name* `=` *expr* {`;` *inst-var-name* `=` *expr*} `>}` returns a copy of self with the given instance variables replaced by the values of the associated expressions; other instance variables have the same value in the returned object as in self.

6.7.6 Coercions

Expressions whose type contains object or polymorphic variant types can be explicitly coerced (weakened) to a supertype. The expression `(` *expr* `:>` *typexpr* `)` coerces the expression *expr* to type *typexpr*. The expression `(` *expr* `:` $typexpr_1$ `:>` $typexpr_2$ `)` coerces the expression *expr* from type $typexpr_1$ to type $typexpr_2$.

The former operator will sometimes fail to coerce an expression *expr* from a type typ_1 to a type typ_2 even if type typ_1 is a subtype of type typ_2: in the current implementation it only expands two levels of type abbreviations containing objects and/or polymorphic variants, keeping only recursion when it is explicit in the class type (for objects). As an exception to the above algorithm, if both the inferred type of *expr* and *typ* are ground (*i.e.* do not contain type variables), the former operator behaves as the latter one, taking the inferred type of *expr* as typ_1. In case of failure with the former operator, the latter one should be used.

It is only possible to coerce an expression *expr* from type typ_1 to type typ_2, if the type of *expr* is an instance of typ_1 (like for a type annotation), and typ_1 is a subtype of typ_2. The type of the coerced expression is an instance of typ_2. If the types contain variables, they may be instantiated by the subtyping algorithm, but this is only done after determining whether typ_1 is a potential subtype of typ_2. This means that typing may fail during this latter unification step, even if some instance of typ_1 is a subtype of some instance of typ_2. In the following paragraphs we describe the subtyping relation used.

Object types

A fixed object type admits as subtype any object type that includes all its methods. The types of the methods shall be subtypes of those in the supertype. Namely,

$$\texttt{<}\ met_1 : typ_1 \ \texttt{;} \ldots \texttt{;}\ met_n : typ_n\ \texttt{>}$$

is a supertype of

$$\texttt{<}\ met_1 : typ'_1 \texttt{;} \ldots \texttt{;}\ met_n : typ'_n \texttt{;}\ met_{n+1} : typ'_{n+1} \texttt{;} \ldots \texttt{;}\ met_{n+m} : typ'_{n+m}\ [\texttt{; ..}]\ \texttt{>}$$

which may contain an ellipsis `..` if every typ_i is a supertype of the corresponding typ'_i.

A monomorphic method type can be a supertype of a polymorphic method type. Namely, if *typ* is an instance of typ', then $\texttt{'}a_1 \ldots \texttt{'}a_n \texttt{.}\ typ'$ is a subtype of *typ*.

Inside a class definition, newly defined types are not available for subtyping, as the type abbreviations are not yet completely defined. There is an exception for coercing *self* to the (exact) type of its class: this is allowed if the type of *self* does not appear in a contravariant position in the class type, *i.e.* if there are no binary methods.

Polymorphic variant types

A polymorphic variant type *typ* is a subtype of another polymorphic variant type typ' if the upper bound of *typ* (*i.e.* the maximum set of constructors that may appear in an instance of *typ*) is included in the lower bound of typ', and the types of arguments for the constructors of *typ* are subtypes of those in typ'. Namely,

$$\texttt{[}\ [\texttt{<}]\ \texttt{`}C_1\ \texttt{of}\ typ_1 \ \texttt{|} \ldots \texttt{|}\ \texttt{`}C_n\ \texttt{of}\ typ_n\ \texttt{]}$$

which may be a shrinkable type, is a subtype of

$$\texttt{[}\ [\texttt{>}]\ \texttt{`}C_1\ \texttt{of}\ typ'_1 \texttt{|} \ldots \texttt{|}\ \texttt{`}C_n\ \texttt{of}\ typ'_n \texttt{|}\ \texttt{`}C_{n+1}\texttt{of}\ typ'_{n+1} \texttt{|} \ldots \texttt{|}\ \texttt{`}C_{n+m}\texttt{of}\ typ'_{n+m}\texttt{]}$$

which may be an extensible type, if every typ_i is a subtype of typ'_i.

Variance

Other types do not introduce new subtyping, but they may propagate the subtyping of their arguments. For instance, typ_1 `*` typ_2 is a subtype of typ'_1`*` typ'_2 when typ_1 and typ_2 are respectively subtypes of typ'_1 and typ'_2. For function types, the relation is more subtle: typ_1 `->` typ_2 is a subtype of typ'_1 `->` typ'_2 if typ_1 is a supertype of typ'_1 and typ_2 is a subtype of typ'_2. For this reason, function types are covariant in their second argument (like tuples), but contravariant in their first argument.

Mutable types, like `array` or `ref` are neither covariant nor contravariant, they are nonvariant, that is they do not propagate subtyping.

For user-defined types, the variance is automatically inferred: a parameter is covariant if it has only covariant occurrences, contravariant if it has only contravariant occurrences, variance-free if it has no occurrences, and nonvariant otherwise. A variance-free parameter may change freely through subtyping, it does not have to be a subtype or a supertype. For abstract and private types, the variance must be given explicitly (see section 6.8.1), otherwise the default is nonvariant. This is also the case for constrained arguments in type definitions.

6.8 Type and exception definitions

6.8.1 Type definitions

Type definitions bind type constructors to data types: either variant types, record types, type abbreviations, or abstract data types. They also bind the value constructors and record fields associated with the definition.

type-definition ::= `type` *typedef* {`and` *typedef*}

typedef ::= [*type-params*] *typeconstr-name* *type-information*

type-information ::= [*type-equation*] [*type-representation*] {*type-constraint*}

type-equation ::= `=` *typexpr*

type-representation ::= `=` [`|`] *constr-decl* {`|` *constr-decl*}
 | `= {` *field-decl* {`;` *field-decl*} [`;`] `}`

type-params ::= *type-param*
 | `(` *type-param* {`,` *type-param*} `)`

type-param ::= [*variance*] `'` *ident*

variance ::= `+`
 | `-`

constr-decl ::= (*constr-name* | `()`) [`of` *typexpr* {`*` *typexpr*}]

field-decl ::= [`mutable`] *field-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*

type-constraint ::= `constraint` `'` *ident* `=` *typexpr*

Type definitions are introduced by the `type` keyword, and consist in one or several simple definitions, possibly mutually recursive, separated by the `and` keyword. Each simple definition defines one type constructor.

A simple definition consists in a lowercase identifier, possibly preceded by one or several type parameters, and followed by an optional type equation, then an optional type representation, and then a constraint clause. The identifier is the name of the type constructor being defined.

The optional type parameters are either one type variable `'` *ident*, for type constructors with one parameter, or a list of type variables `('` $ident_1, \ldots,$ `'` $ident_n$ `)`, for type constructors with several parameters. Each type parameter may be prefixed by a variance constraint `+` (resp. `-`) indicating that the parameter is covariant (resp. contravariant). These type parameters can appear in the type expressions of the right-hand side of the definition, optionally restricted by a variance constraint ; *i.e.* a covariant parameter may only appear on the right side of a functional arrow (more precisely, follow the left branch of an even number of arrows), and a contravariant parameter only the left side (left branch of an odd number of arrows). If the type has a representation or an equation, and the parameter is free (*i.e.* not bound via a type constraint to a constructed type), its variance constraint is checked but subtyping *etc.* will use the inferred variance of the parameter, which may be less restrictive; otherwise (*i.e.* for abstract types or non-free parameters), the variance must be given explicitly, and the parameter is invariant if no variance is given.

The optional type equation `=` *typexpr* makes the defined type equivalent to the type expression *typexpr*: one can be substituted for the other during typing. If no type equation is given, a new type is generated: the defined type is incompatible with any other type.

The optional type representation describes the data structure representing the defined type, by giving the list of associated constructors (if it is a variant type) or associated fields (if it is a record type). If no type representation is given, nothing is assumed on the structure of the type besides what is stated in the optional type equation.

The type representation `=` [`|`] *constr-decl* {`|` *constr-decl*} describes a variant type. The constructor declarations *constr-decl*$_1, \ldots,$ *constr-decl*$_n$ describe the constructors associated to this variant type. The constructor declaration *constr-name* `of` *typexpr*$_1$ `*`...`*` *typexpr*$_n$ declares the name *constr-name* as a non-constant constructor, whose arguments have types *typexpr*$_1$ ... *typexpr*$_n$. The constructor declaration *constr-name* declares the name *constr-name* as a constant constructor. Constructor names must be capitalized.

The type representation `= {` *field-decl* {`;` *field-decl*} [`;`] `}` describes a record type. The field declarations *field-decl*$_1, \ldots,$ *field-decl*$_n$ describe the fields associated to this record type. The field declaration *field-name* `:` *poly-typexpr* declares *field-name* as a field whose argument has type *poly-typexpr*. The field declaration `mutable` *field-name* `:` *poly-typexpr* behaves similarly; in addition, it allows physical modification of this field. Immutable fields are covariant, mutable fields are non-variant. Both mutable and immutable fields may have a explicitly polymorphic types. The polymorphism of the contents is statically checked whenever a record value is created or modified. Extracted values may have their types instantiated.

The two components of a type definition, the optional equation and the optional representation, can be combined independently, giving rise to four typical situations:

Abstract type: no equation, no representation.
When appearing in a module signature, this definition specifies nothing on the type constructor, besides its number of parameters: its representation is hidden and it is assumed incompatible with any other type.

Type abbreviation: an equation, no representation.
This defines the type constructor as an abbreviation for the type expression on the right of the `=` sign.

New variant type or record type: no equation, a representation.
This generates a new type constructor and defines associated constructors or fields, through which values of that type can be directly built or inspected.

Re-exported variant type or record type: an equation, a representation.

In this case, the type constructor is defined as an abbreviation for the type expression given in the equation, but in addition the constructors or fields given in the representation remain attached to the defined type constructor. The type expression in the equation part must agree with the representation: it must be of the same kind (record or variant) and have exactly the same constructors or fields, in the same order, with the same arguments.

The type variables appearing as type parameters can optionally be prefixed by `+` or `-` to indicate that the type constructor is covariant or contravariant with respect to this parameter. This variance information is used to decide subtyping relations when checking the validity of `:>` coercions (see section 6.7.6).

For instance, `type +'a t` declares `t` as an abstract type that is covariant in its parameter; this means that if the type τ is a subtype of the type σ, then τ `t` is a subtype of σ `t`. Similarly, `type -'a t` declares that the abstract type `t` is contravariant in its parameter: if τ is a subtype of σ, then σ `t` is a subtype of τ `t`. If no `+` or `-` variance annotation is given, the type constructor is assumed non-variant in the corresponding parameter. For instance, the abstract type declaration `type 'a t` means that τ `t` is neither a subtype nor a supertype of σ `t` if τ is subtype of σ.

The variance indicated by the `+` and `-` annotations on parameters are required only for abstract types. For abbreviations, variant types or record types, the variance properties of the type constructor are inferred from its definition, and the variance annotations are only checked for conformance with the definition.

The construct `constraint '` *ident* `=` *typexpr* allows the specification of type parameters. Any actual type argument corresponding to the type parameter *ident* has to be an instance of *typexpr* (more precisely, *ident* and *typexpr* are unified). Type variables of *typexpr* can appear in the type equation and the type declaration.

6.8.2 Exception definitions

exception-definition	::=	`exception` *constr-name* [`of` *typexpr* {`*` *typexpr*}]
	|	`exception` *constr-name* `=` *constr*

Exception definitions add new constructors to the built-in variant type `exn` of exception values. The constructors are declared as for a definition of a variant type.

The form `exception` *constr-name* [`of` *typexpr* {`*` *typexpr*}] generates a new exception, distinct from all other exceptions in the system. The form `exception` *constr-name* `=` *constr* gives an alternate name to an existing exception.

6.9 Classes

Classes are defined using a small language, similar to the module language.

6.9.1 Class types

Class types are the class-level equivalent of type expressions: they specify the general shape and type properties of classes.

class-type	::=	[[?] *label-name* :] *typexpr* `->` *class-type*
	|	*class-body-type*
class-body-type	::=	`object` [`(` *typexpr* `)`] {*class-field-spec*} `end`
	|	[`[` *typexpr* {`,` *typexpr*} `]`] *classtype-path*
class-field-spec	::=	`inherit` *class-body-type*
	|	`val` [`mutable`] [`virtual`] *inst-var-name* `:` *typexpr*
	|	`val virtual mutable` *inst-var-name* `:` *typexpr*
	|	`method` [`private`] [`virtual`] *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*
	|	`method virtual private` *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*
	|	`constraint` *typexpr* `=` *typexpr*

Simple class expressions

The expression *classtype-path* is equivalent to the class type bound to the name *classtype-path*. Similarly, the expression `[` $typexpr_1$ `,` ... $typexpr_n$ `]` *classtype-path* is equivalent to the parametric class type bound to the name *classtype-path*, in which type parameters have been instantiated to respectively $typexpr_1$, ... $typexpr_n$.

Class function type

The class type expression *typexpr* `->` *class-type* is the type of class functions (functions from values to classes) that take as argument a value of type *typexpr* and return as result a class of type *class-type*.

Class body type

The class type expression `object` [`(` *typexpr* `)`] {*class-field-spec*} `end` is the type of a class body. It specifies its instance variables and methods. In this type, *typexpr* is matched against the self type, therefore providing a name for the self type.

A class body will match a class body type if it provides definitions for all the components specified in the class body type, and these definitions meet the type requirements given in the class body type. Furthermore, all methods either virtual or public present in the class body must also be present in the class body type (on the other hand, some instance variables and concrete private methods may be omitted). A virtual method will match a concrete method, which makes it possible to forget its implementation. An immutable instance variable will match a mutable instance variable.

Inheritance

The inheritance construct `inherit` *class-body-type* provides for inclusion of methods and instance variables from other class types. The instance variable and method types from *class-body-type* are added into the current class type.

Instance variable specification

A specification of an instance variable is written `val` [`mutable`] [`virtual`] *inst-var-name* `:` *typexpr*, where *inst-var-name* is the name of the instance variable and *typexpr* its expected type. The flag `mutable` indicates whether this instance variable can be physically modified. The flag `virtual` indicates that this instance variable is not initialized. It can be initialized later through inheritance.

An instance variable specification will hide any previous specification of an instance variable of the same name.

Method specification

The specification of a method is written `method` [`private`] *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*, where *method-name* is the name of the method and *poly-typexpr* its expected type, possibly polymorphic. The flag `private` indicates that the method cannot be accessed from outside the object.

The polymorphism may be left implicit in public method specifications: any type variable which is not bound to a class parameter and does not appear elsewhere inside the class specification will be assumed to be universal, and made polymorphic in the resulting method type. Writing an explicit polymorphic type will disable this behaviour.

If several specifications are present for the same method, they must have compatible types. Any non-private specification of a method forces it to be public.

Virtual method specification

A virtual method specification is written `method` [`private`] `virtual` *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*, where *method-name* is the name of the method and *poly-typexpr* its expected type.

Constraints on type parameters

The construct `constraint` $typexpr_1$ `=` $typexpr_2$ forces the two type expressions to be equal. This is typically used to specify type parameters: in this way, they can be bound to specific type expressions.

6.9.2 Class expressions

Class expressions are the class-level equivalent of value expressions: they evaluate to classes, thus providing implementations for the specifications expressed in class types.

```
class-expr ::= class-path
             | [ typexpr {, typexpr} ] class-path
             | ( class-expr )
             | ( class-expr : class-type )
             | class-expr {argument}+
             | fun {parameter}+ -> class-expr
             | let [rec] let-binding {and let-binding} in class-expr
             | object class-body end
```

class-field	::=	`inherit` *class-expr* [`as` *lowercase-ident*]
	|	`val` [`mutable`] *inst-var-name* [`:` *typexpr*] `=` *expr*
	|	`val` [`mutable`] `virtual` *inst-var-name* `:` *typexpr*
	|	`val` `virtual` `mutable` *inst-var-name* `:` *typexpr*
	|	`method` [`private`] *method-name* {*parameter*} [`:` *typexpr*] `=` *expr*
	|	`method` [`private`] *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr* `=` *expr*
	|	`method` [`private`] `virtual` *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*
	|	`method` `virtual` `private` *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*
	|	`constraint` *typexpr* `=` *typexpr*
	|	`initializer` *expr*

Simple class expressions

The expression *class-path* evaluates to the class bound to the name *class-path*. Similarly, the expression `[` $typexpr_1$ `,` ... $typexpr_n$ `]` *class-path* evaluates to the parametric class bound to the name *class-path*, in which type parameters have been instantiated respectively to $typexpr_1$, ... $typexpr_n$.

The expression `(` *class-expr* `)` evaluates to the same module as *class-expr*.

The expression `(` *class-expr* `:` *class-type* `)` checks that *class-type* matches the type of *class-expr* (that is, that the implementation *class-expr* meets the type specification *class-type*). The whole expression evaluates to the same class as *class-expr*, except that all components not specified in *class-type* are hidden and can no longer be accessed.

Class application

Class application is denoted by juxtaposition of (possibly labeled) expressions. It denotes the class whose constructor is the first expression applied to the given arguments. The arguments are evaluated as for expression application, but the constructor itself will only be evaluated when objects are created. In particular, side-effects caused by the application of the constructor will only occur at object creation time.

Class function

The expression `fun` [[`?`] *label-name* `:`] *pattern* `->` *class-expr* evaluates to a function from values to classes. When this function is applied to a value *v*, this value is matched against the pattern *pattern* and the result is the result of the evaluation of *class-expr* in the extended environment.

Conversion from functions with default values to functions with patterns only works identically for class functions as for normal functions.

The expression

`fun` $parameter_1$ ... $parameter_n$ `->` *class-expr*

is a short form for

`fun` $parameter_1$ `->` ... `fun` $parameter_n$ `->` *expr*

Local definitions

The `let` and `let rec` constructs bind value names locally, as for the core language expressions.

If a local definition occurs at the very beginning of a class definition, it will be evaluated when the class is created (just as if the definition was outside of the class). Otherwise, it will be evaluated when the object constructor is called.

Class body

class-body ::= [`(` *pattern* [`:` *typexpr*] `)`] {*class-field*}

The expression `object` *class-body* `end` denotes a class body. This is the prototype for an object : it lists the instance variables and methods of an objet of this class.

A class body is a class value: it is not evaluated at once. Rather, its components are evaluated each time an object is created.

In a class body, the pattern `(` *pattern* [`:` *typexpr*] `)` is matched against self, therefore providing a binding for self and self type. Self can only be used in method and initializers.

Self type cannot be a closed object type, so that the class remains extensible.

Since OCaml 4.01, it is an error if the same method or instance variable name is defined several times in the same class body.

Inheritance

The inheritance construct `inherit` *class-expr* allows reusing methods and instance variables from other classes. The class expression *class-expr* must evaluate to a class body. The instance variables, methods and initializers from this class body are added into the current class. The addition of a method will override any previously defined method of the same name.

An ancestor can be bound by appending `as` *lowercase-ident* to the inheritance construct. *lowercase-ident* is not a true variable and can only be used to select a method, i.e. in an expression *lowercase-ident* `#` *method-name*. This gives access to the method *method-name* as it was defined in the parent class even if it is redefined in the current class. The scope of this ancestor binding is limited to the current class. The ancestor method may be called from a subclass but only indirectly.

Instance variable definition

The definition `val` [`mutable`] *inst-var-name* `=` *expr* adds an instance variable *inst-var-name* whose initial value is the value of expression *expr*. The flag `mutable` allows physical modification of this variable by methods.

An instance variable can only be used in the methods and initializers that follow its definition.

Since version 3.10, redefinitions of a visible instance variable with the same name do not create a new variable, but are merged, using the last value for initialization. They must have identical types and mutability. However, if an instance variable is hidden by omitting it from an interface, it will be kept distinct from other instance variables with the same name.

Virtual instance variable definition

A variable specification is written `val` [`mutable`] `virtual` *inst-var-name* `:` *typexpr*. It specifies whether the variable is modifiable, and gives its type.

Virtual instance variables were added in version 3.10.

Method definition

A method definition is written `method` *method-name* `=` *expr*. The definition of a method overrides any previous definition of this method. The method will be public (that is, not private) if any of the definition states so.

A private method, `method private` *method-name* `=` *expr*, is a method that can only be invoked on self (from other methods of the same object, defined in this class or one of its subclasses). This invocation is performed using the expression *value-name* `#` *method-name*, where *value-name* is directly bound to self at the beginning of the class definition. Private methods do not appear in object types. A method may have both public and private definitions, but as soon as there is a public one, all subsequent definitions will be made public.

Methods may have an explicitly polymorphic type, allowing them to be used polymorphically in programs (even for the same object). The explicit declaration may be done in one of three ways: (1) by giving an explicit polymorphic type in the method definition, immediately after the method name, *i.e.* `method` [`private`] *method-name* `:` {`'` *ident*}$^+$ `.` *typexpr* `=` *expr*; (2) by a forward declaration of the explicit polymorphic type through a virtual method definition; (3) by importing such a declaration through inheritance and/or constraining the type of *self*.

Some special expressions are available in method bodies for manipulating instance variables and duplicating self:

expr	::=	...
	|	*inst-var-name* `<-` *expr*
	|	`{<` [*inst-var-name* `=` *expr* {`;` *inst-var-name* `=` *expr*} [`;`]] `>}`

The expression *inst-var-name* `<-` *expr* modifies in-place the current object by replacing the value associated to *inst-var-name* by the value of *expr*. Of course, this instance variable must have been declared mutable.

The expression `{<` $\mathit{inst\text{-}var\text{-}name}_1$ `=` expr_1 `;` ... `;` $\mathit{inst\text{-}var\text{-}name}_n$ `=` expr_n `>}` evaluates to a copy of the current object in which the values of instance variables $\mathit{inst\text{-}var\text{-}name}_1, \ldots, \mathit{inst\text{-}var\text{-}name}_n$ have been replaced by the values of the corresponding expressions $\mathit{expr}_1, \ldots, \mathit{expr}_n$.

Virtual method definition

A method specification is written `method` [`private`] `virtual` *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr*. It specifies whether the method is public or private, and gives its type. If the method is intended to be polymorphic, the type must be explicitly polymorphic.

Constraints on type parameters

The construct `constraint` $\mathit{typexpr}_1$ `=` $\mathit{typexpr}_2$ forces the two type expressions to be equals. This is typically used to specify type parameters: in that way they can be bound to specific type expressions.

Initializers

A class initializer `initializer` *expr* specifies an expression that will be evaluated whenever an object is created from the class, once all its instance variables have been initialized.

6.9.3 Class definitions

class-definition	::=	`class` *class-binding* {`and` *class-binding*}
class-binding	::=	[`virtual`] [`[` *type-parameters* `]`] *class-name* {*parameter*} [`:` *class-type*] `=` *class-expr*
type-parameters	::=	`'` *ident* {`,` `'` *ident*}

A class definition `class` *class-binding* {`and` *class-binding*} is recursive. Each *class-binding* defines a *class-name* that can be used in the whole expression except for inheritance. It can also be used for inheritance, but only in the definitions that follow its own.

A class binding binds the class name *class-name* to the value of expression *class-expr*. It also binds the class type *class-name* to the type of the class, and defines two type abbreviations : *class-name* and `#` *class-name*. The first one is the type of objects of this class, while the second is more general as it unifies with the type of any object belonging to a subclass (see section 6.4).

Virtual class

A class must be flagged virtual if one of its methods is virtual (that is, appears in the class type, but is not actually defined). Objects cannot be created from a virtual class.

Type parameters

The class type parameters correspond to the ones of the class type and of the two type abbreviations defined by the class binding. They must be bound to actual types in the class definition using type constraints. So that the abbreviations are well-formed, type variables of the inferred type of the class must either be type parameters or be bound in the constraint clause.

6.9.4 Class specifications

class-specification	::=	`class` *class-spec* {`and` *class-spec*}
class-spec	::=	[`virtual`] [`[` *type-parameters* `]`] *class-name* `:` *class-type*

This is the counterpart in signatures of class definitions. A class specification matches a class definition if they have the same type parameters and their types match.

6.9.5 Class type definitions

classtype-definition	::=	`class type` *classtype-def* {`and` *classtype-def*}
classtype-def	::=	[`virtual`] [`[` *type-parameters* `]`] *class-name* `=` *class-body-type*

A class type definition `class` *class-name* `=` *class-body-type* defines an abbreviation *class-name* for the class body type *class-body-type*. As for class definitions, two type abbreviations *class-name* and `#` *class-name* are also defined. The definition can be parameterized by some type parameters. If any method in the class type body is virtual, the definition must be flagged `virtual`.

Two class type definitions match if they have the same type parameters and they expand to matching types.

6.10 Module types (module specifications)

Module types are the module-level equivalent of type expressions: they specify the general shape and type properties of modules.

module-type	::=	*modtype-path*
	|	`sig` {*specification* [`;;`]} `end`
	|	`functor` `(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)` `->` *module-type*
	|	*module-type* `with` *mod-constraint* {`and` *mod-constraint*}
	|	`(` *module-type* `)`
mod-constraint	::=	`type` [*type-params*] *typeconstr* *type-equation*
	|	`module` *module-path* `=` *extended-module-path*

specification	::=	`val` *value-name* `:` *typexpr*
	|	`external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration*
	|	*type-definition*
	|	`exception` *constr-decl*
	|	*class-specification*
	|	*classtype-definition*
	|	`module` *module-name* `:` *module-type*
	|	`module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)`} `:` *module-type*
	|	`module` `type` *modtype-name*
	|	`module` `type` *modtype-name* `=` *module-type*
	|	`open` *module-path*
	|	`include` *module-type*

6.10.1 Simple module types

The expression *modtype-path* is equivalent to the module type bound to the name *modtype-path*. The expression `(` *module-type* `)` denotes the same type as *module-type*.

6.10.2 Signatures

Signatures are type specifications for structures. Signatures `sig`...`end` are collections of type specifications for value names, type names, exceptions, module names and module type names.

A structure will match a signature if the structure provides definitions (implementations) for all the names specified in the signature (and possibly more), and these definitions meet the type requirements given in the signature.

An optional `;;` is allowed after each specification in a signature. It serves as a syntactic separator with no semantic meaning.

Value specifications

A specification of a value component in a signature is written `val` *value-name* `:` *typexpr*, where *value-name* is the name of the value and *typexpr* its expected type.

The form `external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration* is similar, except that it requires in addition the name to be implemented as the external function specified in *external-declaration* (see chapter 19).

Type specifications

A specification of one or several type components in a signature is written `type` *typedef* {`and` *typedef*} and consists of a sequence of mutually recursive definitions of type names.

Each type definition in the signature specifies an optional type equation `=` *typexpr* and an optional type representation `=` *constr-decl* ... or `= {` *field-decl* ... `}`. The implementation of the type name in a matching structure must be compatible with the type expression specified in the equation (if given), and have the specified representation (if given). Conversely, users of that signature will be able to rely on the type equation or type representation, if given. More precisely, we have the following four situations:

Abstract type: no equation, no representation.
Names that are defined as abstract types in a signature can be implemented in a matching structure by any kind of type definition (provided it has the same number of type parameters). The exact implementation of the type will be hidden to the users of the structure. In particular, if the type is implemented as a variant type or record type, the associated constructors and fields will not be accessible to the users; if the type is implemented as an abbreviation, the type equality between the type name and the right-hand side of the abbreviation will be hidden from the users of the structure. Users of the structure consider that type as incompatible with any other type: a fresh type has been generated.

Type abbreviation: an equation `=` *typexpr*, no representation.
The type name must be implemented by a type compatible with *typexpr*. All users of the structure know that the type name is compatible with *typexpr*.

New variant type or record type: no equation, a representation.
The type name must be implemented by a variant type or record type with exactly the constructors or fields specified. All users of the structure have access to the constructors or fields, and can use them to create or inspect values of that type. However, users of the structure consider that type as incompatible with any other type: a fresh type has been generated.

Re-exported variant type or record type: an equation, a representation.

This case combines the previous two: the representation of the type is made visible to all users, and no fresh type is generated.

Exception specification

The specification `exception` *constr-decl* in a signature requires the matching structure to provide an exception with the name and arguments specified in the definition, and makes the exception available to all users of the structure.

Class specifications

A specification of one or several classes in a signature is written `class` *class-spec* {`and` *class-spec*} and consists of a sequence of mutually recursive definitions of class names.

Class specifications are described more precisely in section 6.9.4.

Class type specifications

A specification of one or several classe types in a signature is written `class type` *classtype-def* {`and` *classtype-def*} and consists of a sequence of mutually recursive definitions of class type names. Class type specifications are described more precisely in section 6.9.5.

Module specifications

A specification of a module component in a signature is written `module` *module-name* `:` *module-type*, where *module-name* is the name of the module component and *module-type* its expected type. Modules can be nested arbitrarily; in particular, functors can appear as components of structures and functor types as components of signatures.

For specifying a module component that is a functor, one may write

$$\texttt{module}\ \textit{module-name}\ \texttt{(}\ \textit{name}_1\ \texttt{:}\ \textit{module-type}_1\ \texttt{)} \ldots \texttt{(}\ \textit{name}_n\ \texttt{:}\ \textit{module-type}_n\ \texttt{)}\ \texttt{:}\ \textit{module-type}$$

instead of

$$\texttt{module}\ \textit{module-name}\ \texttt{:}\ \texttt{functor}\ \texttt{(}\ \textit{name}_1\ \texttt{:}\ \textit{module-type}_1\ \texttt{)}\ \texttt{->} \ldots \texttt{->}\ \textit{module-type}$$

Module type specifications

A module type component of a signature can be specified either as a manifest module type or as an abstract module type.

An abstract module type specification `module type` *modtype-name* allows the name *modtype-name* to be implemented by any module type in a matching signature, but hides the implementation of the module type to all users of the signature.

A manifest module type specification `module type` *modtype-name* `=` *module-type* requires the name *modtype-name* to be implemented by the module type *module-type* in a matching signature, but makes the equality between *modtype-name* and *module-type* apparent to all users of the signature.

Opening a module path

The expression `open` *module-path* in a signature does not specify any components. It simply affects the parsing of the following items of the signature, allowing components of the module denoted by *module-path* to be referred to by their simple names *name* instead of path accesses *module-path* `.` *name*. The scope of the `open` stops at the end of the signature expression.

Including a signature

The expression `include` *module-type* in a signature performs textual inclusion of the components of the signature denoted by *module-type*. It behaves as if the components of the included signature were copied at the location of the `include`. The *module-type* argument must refer to a module type that is a signature, not a functor type.

6.10.3 Functor types

The module type expression `functor (` *module-name* `:` $\textit{module-type}_1$ `) ->` $\textit{module-type}_2$ is the type of functors (functions from modules to modules) that take as argument a module of type $\textit{module-type}_1$ and return as result a module of type $\textit{module-type}_2$. The module type $\textit{module-type}_2$ can use the name *module-name* to refer to type components of the actual argument of the functor. No restrictions are placed on the type of the functor argument; in particular, a functor may take another functor as argument ("higher-order" functor).

6.10.4 The `with` operator

Assuming *module-type* denotes a signature, the expression *module-type* `with` *mod-constraint* {`and` *mod-constraint*} denotes the same signature where type equations have been added to some of the type specifications, as described by the constraints following the `with` keyword. The constraint `type` [*type-parameters*] *typeconstr* `=` *typexpr* adds the type equation `=` *typexpr* to the specification of the type component named *typeconstr* of the constrained signature. The constraint `module` *module-path* `=` *extended-module-path* adds type equations to all type components of the sub-structure denoted by *module-path*, making them equivalent to the corresponding type components of the structure denoted by *extended-module-path*.

For instance, if the module type name `S` is bound to the signature

```
sig type t module M: (sig type u end) end
```

then `S with type t=int` denotes the signature

```
sig type t=int module M: (sig type u end) end
```

and `S with module M = N` denotes the signature

```
sig type t module M: (sig type u=N.u end) end
```

A functor taking two arguments of type `S` that share their `t` component is written

```
functor (A: S) (B: S with type t = A.t) ...
```

Constraints are added left to right. After each constraint has been applied, the resulting signature must be a subtype of the signature before the constraint was applied. Thus, the `with` operator can only add information on the type components of a signature, but never remove information.

6.11 Module expressions (module implementations)

Module expressions are the module-level equivalent of value expressions: they evaluate to modules, thus providing implementations for the specifications expressed in module types.

module-expr	::=	*module-path*
	|	`struct` [*module-items*] `end`
	|	`functor` `(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)` `->` *module-expr*
	|	*module-expr* `(` *module-expr* `)`
	|	`(` *module-expr* `)`
	|	`(` *module-expr* `:` *module-type* `)`
module-items	::=	[`;;`] (*definition* | *expr*) {[`;;`] *definition* | `;;` *expr*} [`;;`]
definition	::=	`let` [`rec`] *let-binding* {`and` *let-binding*}
	|	`external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration*
	|	*type-definition*
	|	*exception-definition*
	|	*class-definition*
	|	*classtype-definition*
	|	`module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)`} [`:` *module-type*] `=` *module-expr*
	|	`module` `type` *modtype-name* `=` *module-type*
	|	`open` *module-path*
	|	`include` *module-expr*

6.11.1 Simple module expressions

The expression *module-path* evaluates to the module bound to the name *module-path*.

The expression `(` *module-expr* `)` evaluates to the same module as *module-expr*.

The expression `(` *module-expr* `:` *module-type* `)` checks that the type of *module-expr* is a subtype of *module-type*, that is, that all components specified in *module-type* are implemented in *module-expr*, and their implementation meets the requirements given in *module-type*. In other terms, it checks that the implementation *module-expr* meets the type specification *module-type*. The whole expression evaluates to the same module as *module-expr*, except that all components not specified in *module-type* are hidden and can no longer be accessed.

6.11.2 Structures

Structures `struct`...`end` are collections of definitions for value names, type names, exceptions, module names and module type names. The definitions are evaluated in the order in which they appear in the structure. The scopes of the bindings performed by the definitions extend to the end of the structure. As a consequence, a definition may refer to names bound by earlier definitions in the same structure.

For compatibility with toplevel phrases (chapter 9), an optional `;;` is allowed after each definition in a structure. The `;;` has no semantic meaning. Also for compatibility, *expr* is allowed as a component of a structure, meaning `let _ =` *expr*, i.e. evaluate *expr* for its side-effects. In this case, the `;;` of the previous component (if any) is not optional.

Value definitions

A value definition `let` [`rec`] *let-binding* {`and` *let-binding*} bind value names in the same way as a `let`...`in`... expression (see section 6.7.1). The value names appearing in the left-hand sides of the bindings are bound to the corresponding values in the right-hand sides.

A value definition `external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration* implements *value-name* as the external function specified in *external-declaration* (see chapter 19).

Type definitions

A definition of one or several type components is written `type` *typedef* {`and` *typedef*} and consists of a sequence of mutually recursive definitions of type names.

Exception definitions

Exceptions are defined with the syntax `exception` *constr-decl* or `exception` *constr-name* `=` *constr*.

Class definitions

A definition of one or several classes is written `class` *class-binding* {`and` *class-binding*} and consists of a sequence of mutually recursive definitions of class names. Class definitions are described more precisely in section 6.9.3.

Class type definitions

A definition of one or several classes is written `class type` *classtype-def* {`and` *classtype-def*} and consists of a sequence of mutually recursive definitions of class type names. Class type definitions are described more precisely in section 6.9.5.

Module definitions

The basic form for defining a module component is `module` *module-name* `=` *module-expr*, which evaluates *module-expr* and binds the result to the name *module-name*.

One can write

`module` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `=` *module-expr*

instead of

`module` *module-name* `= (` *module-expr* `:` *module-type* `)`.

Another derived form is

`module` *module-name* `(` $name_1$ `:` $module\text{-}type_1$ `)` ... `(` $name_n$ `:` $module\text{-}type_n$ `) =` *module-expr*

which is equivalent to

`module` *module-name* `= functor (` $name_1$ `:` $module\text{-}type_1$ `) ->` ... `->` *module-expr*

Module type definitions

A definition for a module type is written `module type` *modtype-name* `=` *module-type*. It binds the name *modtype-name* to the module type denoted by the expression *module-type*.

Opening a module path

The expression `open` *module-path* in a structure does not define any components nor perform any bindings. It simply affects the parsing of the following items of the structure, allowing components of the module denoted by *module-path* to be referred to by their simple names *name* instead of path accesses *module-path* `.` *name*. The scope of the `open` stops at the end of the structure expression.

Including the components of another structure

The expression `include` *module-expr* in a structure re-exports in the current structure all definitions of the structure denoted by *module-expr*. For instance, if the identifier `S` is bound to the module

```
struct type t = int  let x = 2 end
```

the module expression

```
struct include S  let y = (x + 1 : t) end
```

is equivalent to the module expression

```
struct type t = S.t  let x = S.x  let y = (x + 1 : t) end
```

The difference between `open` and `include` is that `open` simply provides short names for the components of the opened structure, without defining any components of the current structure, while `include` also adds definitions for the components of the included structure.

6.11.3 Functors

Functor definition

The expression `functor (` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `) ->` *module-expr* evaluates to a functor that takes as argument modules of the type *module-type*$_1$, binds *module-name* to these modules, evaluates *module-expr* in the extended environment, and returns the resulting modules as results. No restrictions are placed on the type of the functor argument; in particular, a functor may take another functor as argument (“higher-order” functor).

Functor application

The expression *module-expr*$_1$ `(` *module-expr*$_2$ `)` evaluates *module-expr*$_1$ to a functor and *module-expr*$_2$ to a module, and applies the former to the latter. The type of *module-expr*$_2$ must match the type expected for the arguments of the functor *module-expr*$_1$.

6.12 Compilation units

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{unit-interface} & ::= & \{\textit{specification}\ [\texttt{;;}]\} \\
\textit{unit-implementation} & ::= & [\textit{module-items}]
\end{array}
$$

Compilation units bridge the module system and the separate compilation system. A compilation unit is composed of two parts: an interface and an implementation. The interface contains a sequence of specifications, just as the inside of a `sig` ... `end` signature expression. The implementation contains a sequence of definitions and expressions, just as the inside of a `struct` ... `end` module expression. A compilation unit also has a name *unit-name*, derived from the names of the files containing the interface and the implementation (see chapter 8 for more details). A compilation unit behaves roughly as the module definition

`module` *unit-name* `:` `sig` *unit-interface* `end` `=` `struct` *unit-implementation* `end`

A compilation unit can refer to other compilation units by their names, as if they were regular modules. For instance, if `U` is a compilation unit that defines a type `t`, other compilation units can refer to that type under the name `U.t`; they can also refer to `U` as a whole structure. Except for names of other compilation units, a unit interface or unit implementation must not have any other free variables. In other terms, the type-checking and compilation of an interface or implementation proceeds in the initial environment

$$\textit{name}_1 \ \texttt{:}\ \texttt{sig}\ \textit{specification}_1\ \texttt{end} \ldots \textit{name}_n \ \texttt{:}\ \texttt{sig}\ \textit{specification}_n\ \texttt{end}$$

where $\textit{name}_1 \ldots \textit{name}_n$ are the names of the other compilation units available in the search path (see chapter 8 for more details) and $\textit{specification}_1 \ldots \textit{specification}_n$ are their respective interfaces.

Chapter 7

Language extensions

This chapter describes language extensions and convenience features that are implemented in OCaml, but not described in the OCaml reference manual.

7.1 Integer literals for types `int32`, `int64` and `nativeint`

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.07)

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{constant} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{int32-literal} \\
 & \mid & \textit{int64-literal} \\
 & \mid & \textit{nativeint-literal} \\
\textit{int32-literal} & ::= & \textit{integer-literal}\ \texttt{l} \\
\textit{int64-literal} & ::= & \textit{integer-literal}\ \texttt{L} \\
\textit{nativeint-literal} & ::= & \textit{integer-literal}\ \texttt{n}
\end{array}
$$

An integer literal can be followed by one of the letters `l`, `L` or `n` to indicate that this integer has type `int32`, `int64` or `nativeint` respectively, instead of the default type `int` for integer literals. The library modules `Int32`[21.14], `Int64`[21.15] and `Nativeint`[21.22] provide operations on these integer types.

7.2 Streams and stream parsers

(Removed in Objective Caml 3.03)

The syntax for streams and stream parsers is no longer part of the OCaml language, but available through a Camlp4 syntax extension. See the Camlp4 reference manual for more information. Support for basic operations on streams is still available through the `Stream`[21.34] module of the standard library. OCaml programs that use the stream parser syntax should be compiled with the `-pp camlp4o` option to `ocamlc` and `ocamlopt`. For interactive use, run `ocaml` and issue the `#load "dynlink.cma";;` command, followed by the `#load "camlp4o.cma";;` command.

7.3 Recursive definitions of values

(Introduced in Objective Caml 1.00)

As mentioned in section 6.7.1, the `let rec` binding construct, in addition to the definition of recursive functions, also supports a certain class of recursive definitions of non-functional values, such as

`let rec` *name*$_1$ `= 1 ::` *name*$_2$ `and` *name*$_2$ `= 2 ::` *name*$_1$ `in` *expr*

which binds *name*$_1$ to the cyclic list `1::2::1::2::`..., and *name*$_2$ to the cyclic list `2::1::2::1::`... Informally, the class of accepted definitions consists of those definitions where the defined names occur only inside function bodies or as argument to a data constructor.

More precisely, consider the expression:

`let rec` *name*$_1$ `=` *expr*$_1$ `and`... `and` *name*$_n$ `=` *expr*$_n$ `in` *expr*

It will be accepted if each one of *expr*$_1$ ... *expr*$_n$ is statically constructive with respect to *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$, is not immediately linked to any of *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$, and is not an array constructor whose arguments have abstract type.

An expression e is said to be *statically constructive with respect to* the variables *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$ if at least one of the following conditions is true:

- e has no free occurrence of any of *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$
- e is a variable
- e has the form `fun`... `->`...
- e has the form `function`... `->`...
- e has the form `lazy (`... `)`
- e has one of the following forms, where each one of *expr*$_1$ ... *expr*$_m$ is statically constructive with respect to *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$, and *expr*$_0$ is statically constructive with respect to *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$, *xname*$_1$ ... *xname*$_m$:
  - `let` [`rec`] *xname*$_1$ `=` *expr*$_1$ `and`... `and` *xname*$_m$ `=` *expr*$_m$ `in` *expr*$_0$
  - `let module`... `in` *expr*$_1$
  - *constr* `(` *expr*$_1$ `,` ... `,` *expr*$_m$ `)`
  - `` ` `` *tag-name* `(` *expr*$_1$ `,` ... `,` *expr*$_m$ `)`
  - `[|` *expr*$_1$ `;` ... `;` *expr*$_m$ `|]`
  - `{` *field*$_1$ `=` *expr*$_1$ `;` ... `;` *field*$_m$ = *expr*$_m$ `}`
  - `{` *expr*$_1$ `with` *field*$_2$ `=` *expr*$_2$ `;` ... `;` *field*$_m$ = *expr*$_m$ `}` where *expr*$_1$ is not immediately linked to *name*$_1$ ... *name*$_n$
  - `(` *expr*$_1$ `,` ... `,` *expr*$_m$ `)`
  - *expr*$_1$ `;` ... `;` *expr*$_m$

An expression e is said to be *immediately linked to* the variable *name* in the following cases:

- e is *name*
- e has the form $expr_1$ `;` ... `;` $expr_m$ where $expr_m$ is immediately linked to *name*
- e has the form `let` [`rec`] $xname_1$ `=` $expr_1$ `and`... `and` $xname_m$ `=` $expr_m$ `in` $expr_0$ where $expr_0$ is immediately linked to *name* or to one of the $xname_i$ such that $expr_i$ is immediately linked to *name*.

7.4 Range patterns

(Introduced in Objective Caml 1.00)

pattern ::= ...
| *char-literal* `..` *char-literal*

In patterns, OCaml recognizes the form `'` *c* `'` `..` `'` *d* `'` as shorthand for the pattern

`'` c `'` `|` `'` c_1 `'` `|` `'` c_2 `'` `|` ... `|` `'` c_n `'` `|` `'` d `'`

where c_1, c_2, ..., c_n are the characters that occur between c and d in the ASCII character set. For instance, the pattern `'0'..'9'` matches all characters that are digits.

7.5 Assertion checking

(Introduced in Objective Caml 1.06)

expr ::= ...
| `assert` *expr*

OCaml supports the `assert` construct to check debugging assertions. The expression `assert` *expr* evaluates the expression *expr* and returns `()` if *expr* evaluates to `true`. If it evaluates to `false` the exception `Assert_failure` is raised with the source file name and the location of *expr* as arguments. Assertion checking can be turned off with the `-noassert` compiler option. In this case, *expr* is not evaluated at all.

As a special case, `assert␣false` is reduced to `raise (Assert_failure ...)`, which gives it a polymorphic type. This means that it can be used in place of any expression (for example as a branch of any pattern-matching). It also means that the `assert␣false` "assertions" cannot be turned off by the `-noassert` option.

7.6 Lazy evaluation

7.6.1 Lazy expressions

(Introduced in Objective Caml 1.06)

expr ::= ...
| `lazy` *expr*

The expression `lazy` *expr* returns a value *v* of type `Lazy.t` that encapsulates the computation of *expr*. The argument *expr* is not evaluated at this point in the program. Instead, its evaluation will be performed the first time the function `Lazy.force` is applied to the value *v*, returning the actual value of *expr*. Subsequent applications of `Lazy.force` to *v* do not evaluate *expr* again. Applications of `Lazy.force` may be implicit through pattern matching (see below).

7.6.2 Lazy patterns

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.11)

pattern ::= ...
| `lazy` *pattern*

The pattern `lazy` *pattern* matches a value *v* of type `Lazy.t`, provided *pattern* matches the result of forcing *v* with `Lazy.force`. A successful match of a pattern containing `lazy` sub-patterns forces the corresponding parts of the value being matched, even those that imply no test such as `lazy` *value-name* or `lazy _`. Matching a value with a *pattern-matching* where some patterns contain `lazy` sub-patterns may imply forcing parts of the value, even when the pattern selected in the end has no `lazy` sub-pattern.

For more information, see the description of module `Lazy` in the standard library (section 21.16).

7.7 Local modules

(Introduced in Objective Caml 2.00)

expr ::= ...
| `let module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)`} [`:` *module-type*]
`=` *module-expr* `in` *expr*

The expression `let module` *module-name* `=` *module-expr* `in` *expr* locally binds the module expression *module-expr* to the identifier *module-name* during the evaluation of the expression *expr*. It then returns the value of *expr*. For example:

```
let remove_duplicates comparison_fun string_list =
  let module StringSet =
    Set.Make(struct type t = string
                    let compare = comparison_fun end) in
  StringSet.elements
    (List.fold_right StringSet.add string_list StringSet.empty)
```

7.8 Recursive modules

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.07)

definition ::= ...
| `module rec` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `=` *module-expr*
{`and` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `=` *module-expr*}

specification ::= ...
| `module rec` *module-name* `:` *module-type* {`and` *module-name* `:` *module-type*}

Recursive module definitions, introduced by the `module␣rec` ... `and` ... construction, generalize regular module definitions `module` *module-name* `=` *module-expr* and module specifications `module` *module-name* `:` *module-type* by allowing the defining *module-expr* and the *module-type* to refer recursively to the module identifiers being defined. A typical example of a recursive module definition is:

```
module rec A : sig
                 type t = Leaf of string | Node of ASet.t
                 val compare: t -> t -> int
               end
             = struct
                 type t = Leaf of string | Node of ASet.t
                 let compare t1 t2 =
                   match (t1, t2) with
                     (Leaf s1, Leaf s2) -> Pervasives.compare s1 s2
                   | (Leaf _, Node _) -> 1
                   | (Node _, Leaf _) -> -1
                   | (Node n1, Node n2) -> ASet.compare n1 n2
               end
    and ASet : Set.S with type elt = A.t
             = Set.Make(A)
```

It can be given the following specification:

```
module rec A : sig
                 type t = Leaf of string | Node of ASet.t
                 val compare: t -> t -> int
               end
    and ASet : Set.S with type elt = A.t
```

This is an experimental extension of OCaml: the class of recursive definitions accepted, as well as its dynamic semantics are not final and subject to change in future releases.

Currently, the compiler requires that all dependency cycles between the recursively-defined module identifiers go through at least one "safe" module. A module is "safe" if all value definitions that it contains have function types $typexpr_1$ `->` $typexpr_2$. Evaluation of a recursive module definition proceeds by building initial values for the safe modules involved, binding all (functional) values to `fun _ -> raiseUndefined_recursive_module`. The defining module expressions are then evaluated, and the initial values for the safe modules are replaced by the values thus computed. If a function component of a safe module is applied during this computation (which corresponds to an ill-founded recursive definition), the `Undefined_recursive_module` exception is raised.

Note that, in the *specification* case, the *module-type*s must be parenthesized if they use the `with` *mod-constraint* construct.

7.9 Private types

Private type declarations in module signatures, of the form `type t = private ...`, enable libraries to reveal some, but not all aspects of the implementation of a type to clients of the library. In this respect, they strike a middle ground between abstract type declarations, where no information is revealed on the type implementation, and data type definitions and type abbreviations, where all aspects of the type implementation are publicized. Private type declarations come in three flavors: for variant and record types (section 7.9.1), for type abbreviations (section 7.9.2), and for row types (section 7.9.3).

7.9.1 Private variant and record types

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.07)

type-representation	::=	...
	|	`= private` [`|`] *constr-decl* {`|` *constr-decl*}
	|	`= private {` *field-decl* {`;` *field-decl*} [`;`] `}`

Values of a variant or record type declared `private` can be de-structured normally in pattern-matching or via the *expr* `.` *field* notation for record accesses. However, values of these types cannot be constructed directly by constructor application or record construction. Moreover, assignment on a mutable field of a private record type is not allowed.

The typical use of private types is in the export signature of a module, to ensure that construction of values of the private type always go through the functions provided by the module, while still allowing pattern-matching outside the defining module. For example:

```
module M : sig
             type t = private A | B of int
             val a : t
             val b : int -> t
           end
         = struct
             type t = A | B of int
             let a = A
             let b n = assert (n > 0); B n
           end
```

Here, the `private` declaration ensures that in any value of type `M.t`, the argument to the `B` constructor is always a positive integer.

With respect to the variance of their parameters, private types are handled like abstract types. That is, if a private type has parameters, their variance is the one explicitly given by prefixing the parameter by a '`+`' or a '`-`', it is invariant otherwise.

7.9.2 Private type abbreviations

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.11)

type-equation ::= ...
| `= private` *typexpr*

Unlike a regular type abbreviation, a private type abbreviation declares a type that is distinct from its implementation type *typexpr*. However, coercions from the type to *typexpr* are permitted. Moreover, the compiler "knows" the implementation type and can take advantage of this knowledge to perform type-directed optimizations. For ambiguity reasons, *typexpr* cannot be an object or polymorphic variant type, but a similar behaviour can be obtained through private row types.

The following example uses a private type abbreviation to define a module of nonnegative integers:

```
module N : sig
             type t = private int
             val of_int: int -> t
             val to_int: t -> int
           end
         = struct
             type t = int
             let of_int n = assert (n >= 0); n
             let to_int n = n
           end
```

The type `N.t` is incompatible with `int`, ensuring that nonnegative integers and regular integers are not confused. However, if `x` has type `N.t`, the coercion `(x :> int)` is legal and returns the underlying integer, just like `N.to_int x`. Deep coercions are also supported: if `l` has type `N.t list`, the coercion `(l :> int list)` returns the list of underlying integers, like `List.map N.to_int l` but without copying the list `l`.

Note that the coercion `(` *expr* `:>` *typexpr* `)` is actually an abbreviated form, and will only work in presence of private abbreviations if neither the type of *expr* nor *typexpr* contain any type variables. If they do, you must use the full form `(` *expr* `:` $typexpr_1$ `:>` $typexpr_2$ `)` where $typexpr_1$ is the expected type of *expr*. Concretely, this would be `(x : N.t :> int)` and `(l : N.t list :> int list)` for the above examples.

7.9.3 Private row types

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.09)

type-equation ::= ...
| `= private` *typexpr*

Private row types are type abbreviations where part of the structure of the type is left abstract. Concretely *typexpr* in the above should denote either an object type or a polymorphic variant type, with some possibility of refinement left. If the private declaration is used in an interface, the corresponding implementation may either provide a ground instance, or a refined private type.

```
module M : sig type c = private < x : int; .. > val o : c end =
  struct
    class c = object method x = 3 method y = 2 end
    let o = new c
  end
```

This declaration does more than hiding the `y` method, it also makes the type `c` incompatible with any other closed object type, meaning that only `o` will be of type `c`. In that respect it behaves similarly to private record types. But private row types are more flexible with respect to incremental refinement. This feature can be used in combination with functors.

```
module F(X : sig type c = private < x : int; .. > end) =
  struct
    let get_x (o : X.c) = o#x
  end
module G(X : sig type c = private < x : int; y : int; .. > end) =
  struct
    include F(X)
    let get_y (o : X.c) = o#y
  end
```

Polymorphic variant types can be refined in two ways, either to allow the addition of new constructors, or to allow the disparition of declared constructors. The second case corresponds to private variant types (one cannot create a value of the private type), while the first case requires default cases in pattern-matching to handle addition.

```
type t = [ `A of int | `B of bool ]
type u = private [< t > `A ]
type v = private [> t ]
```

With type `u`, it is possible to create values of the form ``(`A n)``, but not ``(`B b)``. With type `v`, construction is not restricted but pattern-matching must have a default case.

Similarly to abstract types, the variance of type parameters is not inferred, and must be given explicitly.

7.10 Local opens

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

expr	::=	...
	|	`let open` *module-path* `in` *expr*
	|	*module-path* `.(` *expr* `)`

The expressions `let open` *module-path* `in` *expr* and *module-path* `.(` *expr* `)` are strictly equivalent. They locally open the module referred to by the module path *module-path* in the scope of the expression *expr*.

Restricting opening to the scope of a single expression instead of a whole structure allows one to benefit from shorter syntax to refer to components of the opened module, without polluting the global scope. Also, this can make the code easier to read (the open statement is closer to where it is used) and to refactor (because the code fragment is more self-contained).

7.11 Record notations

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

pattern ::= ...
| `{` *field* [`=` *pattern*] { `;` *field* [`=` *pattern*]} [`;` `_`] [`;`] `}`

expr ::= ...
| `{` *field* [`=` *expr*] { `;` *field* [`=` *expr*]} [`;`] `}`
| `{` *expr* `with` *field* [`=` *expr*] { `;` *field* [`=` *expr*]} [`;`] `}`

In a record pattern or a record construction expression, a single identifier *id* stands for *id* `=` *id*, and a qualified identifier *module-path* `.` *id* stands for *module-path* `.` *id* `=` *id*. For example, assuming the record type

```
type point = { x: float; y: float }
```

has been declared, the following expressions are equivalent:

```
let x = 1 and y = 2 in { x = x; y = y }
let x = 1 and y = 2 in { x; y }
let x = 1 and y = 2 in { x = x; y }
```

Likewise, the following functions are equivalent:

```
fun {x = x; y = y} -> x + y
fun {x; y} -> x + y
```

Optionally, a record pattern can be terminated by `; _` to convey the fact that not all fields of the record type are listed in the record pattern and that it is intentional. By default, the compiler ignores the `; _` annotation. If warning 9 is turned on, the compiler will warn when a record pattern fails to list all fields of the corresponding record type and is not terminated by `; _`. Continuing the `point` example above,

```
fun {x} -> x + 1
```

will warn if warning 9 is on, while

```
fun {x; _} -> x + 1
```

will not warn. This warning can help spot program points where record patterns may need to be modified after new fields are added to a record type.

7.12 Explicit polymorphic type annotations

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

let-binding ::= ...
| *value-name* : *poly-typexpr* = *expr*

Polymorphic type annotations in `let`-definitions behave in a way similar to polymorphic methods: they explicitly require the defined value to be polymorphic, and allow one to use this polymorphism in recursive occurrences (when using `let rec`). Note however that this is a normal polymorphic type, unifiable with any instance of itself.

There are two possible applications of this feature. One is polymorphic recursion:

```
type 'a t = Leaf of 'a | Node of ('a * 'a) t
let rec depth : 'a. 'a t -> 'b = function
    Leaf _ -> 1
  | Node x -> 1 + depth x
```

Note that `'b` is not explicitly polymorphic here, and it will actually be unified with `int`.

The other application is to ensure that some definition is sufficiently polymorphic.

```
# let id : 'a. 'a -> 'a = fun x -> x+1 ;;
Error: This definition has type int -> int which is less general than
         'a. 'a -> 'a
```

7.13 Locally abstract types

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

parameter ::= ...
| (`type` *typeconstr-name*)

The expression `fun ( type` *typeconstr-name* `) ->` *expr* introduces a type constructor named *typeconstr-name* which is considered abstract in the scope of the sub-expression, but then replaced by a fresh type variable. Note that contrary to what the syntax could suggest, the expression `fun ( type` *typeconstr-name* `) ->` *expr* itself does not suspend the evaluation of *expr* as a regular abstraction would. The syntax has been chosen to fit nicely in the context of function declarations, where it is generally used. It is possible to freely mix regular function parameters with pseudo type parameters, as in:

```
let f = fun (type t) (foo : t list) -> ...
```

and even use the alternative syntax for declaring functions:

```
let f (type t) (foo : t list) = ...
```

This construction is useful because the type constructor it introduces can be used in places where a type variable is not allowed. For instance, one can use it to define an exception in a local module within a polymorphic function.

```
let f (type t) () =
  let module M = struct exception E of t end in
  (fun x -> M.E x), (function M.E x -> Some x | _ -> None)
```

Here is another example:

```
let sort_uniq (type s) (cmp : s -> s -> int) =
  let module S = Set.Make(struct type t = s let compare = cmp end) in
  fun l ->
    S.elements (List.fold_right S.add l S.empty)
```

It is also extremely useful for first-class modules and GADTs.

Polymorphic syntax (Introduced in OCaml 4.00)

let-binding	::=	...
	|	*value-name* `:` `type` {*typeconstr-name*}$^+$ `.` *typexpr* `=` *expr*
class-field	::=	...
	|	`method` [`private`] *method-name* `:` `type` {*typeconstr-name*}$^+$ `.` *typexpr* `=` *expr*
	|	`method!` [`private`] *method-name* `:` `type` {*typeconstr-name*}$^+$ `.` *typexpr* `=` *expr*

The `(type` *typeconstr-name* `)` syntax construction by itself does not make polymorphic the type variable it introduces, but it can be combined with explicit polymorphic annotations where needed. The above rule is provided as syntactic sugar to make this easier:

```
let rec f : type t1 t2. t1 * t2 list -> t1 = ...
```

is automatically expanded into

```
let rec f : 't1 't2. 't1 * 't2 list -> 't1 =
  fun (type t1) (type t2) -> (... : t1 * t2 list -> t1)
```

The same feature is provided for method definitions. The `method!` form combines this extension with the "explicit overriding" extension described in section 7.18.

7.14 First-class modules

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12; pattern syntax and package type inference introduced in 4.00; structural comparison of package types introduced in 4.02.)

typexpr	::=	...
	|	`(` `module` *package-type* `)`
module-expr	::=	...
	|	`(` `val` *expr* [`:` *package-type*] `)`
expr	::=	...
	|	`(` `module` *module-expr* [`:` *package-type*] `)`
pattern	::=	...
	|	`(` `module` *module-name* [`:` *package-type*] `)`
package-type	::=	*modtype-path*
	|	*modtype-path* `with` *package-constraint* {`and` *package-constraint*}
package-constraint	::=	`type` *typeconstr* `=` *typexpr*

Modules are typically thought of as static components. This extension makes it possible to pack a module as a first-class value, which can later be dynamically unpacked into a module.

The expression `(` `module` *module-expr* `:` *package-type* `)` converts the module (structure or functor) denoted by module expression *module-expr* to a value of the core language that encapsulates this module. The type of this core language value is `(` `module` *package-type* `)`. The *package-type* annotation can be omitted if it can be inferred from the context.

Conversely, the module expression `(` `val` *expr* `:` *package-type* `)` evaluates the core language expression *expr* to a value, which must have type `module` *package-type*, and extracts the module that was encapsulated in this value. Again *package-type* can be omitted if the type of *expr* is known.

The pattern `(` `module` *module-name* `:` *package-type* `)` matches a package with type *package-type* and binds it to *module-name*. It is not allowed in toplevel let bindings. Again *package-type* can be omitted if it can be inferred from the enclosing pattern.

The *package-type* syntactic class appearing in the `(` `module` *package-type* `)` type expression and in the annotated forms represents a subset of module types. This subset consists of named module types with optional constraints of a limited form: only non-parametrized types can be specified.

For type-checking purposes (and starting from OCaml 4.02), package types are compared using the structural comparison of module types.

In general, the module expression `(` `val` *expr* `:` *package-type* `)` cannot be used in the body of a functor, because this could cause unsoundness in conjunction with applicative functors. Since OCaml 4.02, this is relaxed in two ways: if *package-type* does not contain nominal type declarations (*i.e.* types that are created with a proper identity), then this expression can be used anywhere, and even if it contains such types it can be used inside the body of a generative functor, described in section 7.27. It can also be used anywhere in the context of a local module binding `let` `module` *module-name* `=` `(` `val` $expr_1$ `:` *package-type* `)` `in` $expr_2$.

Basic example A typical use of first-class modules is to select at run-time among several implementations of a signature. Each implementation is a structure that we can encapsulate as a first-class module, then store in a data structure such as a hash table:

```
module type DEVICE = sig ... end
let devices : (string, (module DEVICE)) Hashtbl.t = Hashtbl.create 17

module SVG = struct ... end
let _ = Hashtbl.add devices "SVG" (module SVG : DEVICE)

module PDF = struct ... end
let _ = Hashtbl.add devices "PDF" (module PDF: DEVICE)
```

We can then select one implementation based on command-line arguments, for instance:

```
module Device =
  (val (try Hashtbl.find devices (parse_cmdline())
        with Not_found -> eprintf "Unknown device %s\n"; exit 2)
   : DEVICE)
```

Alternatively, the selection can be performed within a function:

```
let draw_using_device device_name picture =
  let module Device =
    (val (Hashtbl.find_devices device_name) : DEVICE)
  in
    Device.draw picture
```

Advanced examples With first-class modules, it is possible to parametrize some code over the implementation of a module without using a functor.

```
let sort (type s) (module Set : Set.S with type elt = s) l =
  Set.elements (List.fold_right Set.add l Set.empty)
val sort : (module Set.S with type elt = 'a) -> 'a list -> 'a list
```

To use this function, one can wrap the `Set.Make` functor:

```
let make_set (type s) cmp =
  let module S = Set.Make(struct
    type t = s
    let compare = cmp
  end) in
  (module S : Set.S with type elt = s)
val make_set : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> (module Set.S with type elt = 'a)
```

7.15 Recovering the type of a module

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

module-type ::= ...
| `module type of` *module-expr*

The construction `module type of` *module-expr* expands to the module type (signature or functor type) inferred for the module expression *module-expr*. To make this module type reusable in many situations, it is intentionally not strengthened: abstract types and datatypes are not explicitly related with the types of the original module. For the same reason, module aliases in the inferred type are expanded.

A typical use, in conjunction with the signature-level `include` construct, is to extend the signature of an existing structure. In that case, one wants to keep the types equal to types in the original module. This can done using the following idiom.

```
module type MYHASH = sig
  include module type of struct include Hashtbl end
  val replace: ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b -> unit
end
```

The signature `MYHASH` then contains all the fields of the signature of the module `Hashtbl` (with strengthened type definitions), plus the new field `replace`. An implementation of this signature can be obtained easily by using the `include` construct again, but this time at the structure level:

```
module MyHash : MYHASH = struct
  include Hashtbl
  let replace t k v = remove t k; add t k v
end
```

Another application where the absence of strengthening comes handy, is to provide an alternative implementation for an existing module.

```
module MySet : module type of Set = struct
  ...
end
```

This idiom guarantees that `Myset` is compatible with Set, but allows it to represent sets internally in a different way.

7.16 Substituting inside a signature

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

mod-constraint ::= ...
| `type` [*type-params*] *typeconstr-name* `:=` *typexpr*
| `module` *module-name* `:=` *extended-module-path*

"Destructive" substitution (`with`... `:=`...) behaves essentially like normal signature constraints (`with`... `=`...), but it additionally removes the redefined type or module from the signature. There are a number of restrictions: one can only remove types and modules at the outermost level (not inside submodules), and in the case of `with␣type` the definition must be another type constructor with the same type parameters.

A natural application of destructive substitution is merging two signatures sharing a type name.

```
module type Printable = sig
  type t
  val print : Format.formatter -> t -> unit
end
module type Comparable = sig
  type t
  val compare : t -> t -> int
end
module type PrintableComparable = sig
  include Printable
  include Comparable with type t := t
end
```

One can also use this to completely remove a field:

```
# module type S = Comparable with type t := int;;
module type S = sig val compare : int -> int -> int end
```

or to rename one:

```
# module type S = sig
#   type u
#   include Comparable with type t := u
# end;;
module type S = sig type u val compare : u -> u -> int end
```

Note that you can also remove manifest types, by substituting with the same type.

```
# module type ComparableInt = Comparable with type t = int ;;
module type ComparableInt = sig type t = int val compare : t -> t -> int end
# module type CompareInt = ComparableInt with type t := int ;;
module type CompareInt = sig val compare : int -> int -> int end
```

7.17 Type-level module aliases

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

specification	::=	...
	|	`module` *module-name* `=` *module-path*

The above specification, inside a signature, only matches a module definition equal to *module-path*. Conversely, a type-level module alias can be matched by itself, or by any supertype of the type of the module it references.

There are several restrictions on *module-path*:

1. it should be of the form $M_0.M_1...M_n$ (*i.e.* without functor applications);
2. inside the body of a functor, M_0 should not be one of the functor parameters;
3. inside a recursive module definition, M_0 should not be one of the recursively defined modules.

Such specifications are also inferred. Namely, when P is a path satisfying the above constraints,

```
# module N = P
```

has type

```
module N = P
```

Type-level module aliases are used when checking module path equalities. That is, in a context where module name N is known to be an alias for P, not only these two module paths check as equal, but F (N) and F (P) are also recognized as equal. In the default compilation mode, this is the only difference with the previous approach of module aliases having just the same module type as the module they reference.

When the compiler flag `-no-alias-deps` is enabled, type-level module aliases are also exploited to avoid introducing dependencies between compilation units. Namely, a module alias referring to a module inside another compilation unit does not introduce a link-time dependency on that compilation unit, as long as it is not dereferenced; it still introduces a compile-time dependency if the interface needs to be read, *i.e.* if the module is a submodule of the compilation unit, or if some type components are referred to. Additionally, accessing a module alias introduces a link-time dependency on the compilation unit containing the module referenced by the alias, rather than the compilation unit containing the alias. Note that these differences in link-time behavior may be incompatible with the previous behavior, as some compilation units might not be extracted from libraries, and their side-effects ignored.

These weakened dependencies make possible to use module aliases in place of the `-pack` mechanism. Suppose that you have a library `Mylib` composed of modules `A` and `B`. Using `-pack`, one would issue the command line

```
ocamlc -pack a.cmo b.cmo -o mylib.cmo
```

and as a result obtain a `Mylib` compilation unit, containing physically `A` and `B` as submodules, and with no dependencies on their respective compilation units. Here is a concrete example of a possible alternative approach:

1. Rename the files containing `A` and `B` to `Mylib_A` and `Mylib_B`.
2. Create a packing interface `Mylib.ml`, containing the following lines.

   ```
   module A = Mylib_A
   module B = Mylib_B
   ```

3. Compile `Mylib.ml` using `-no-alias-deps`, and the other files using `-no-alias-deps` and `-open Mylib` (the last one is equivalent to adding the line `open! Mylib` at the top of each file).

```
ocamlc -c -no-alias-deps Mylib.ml
ocamlc -c -no-alias-deps -open Mylib Mylib_*.mli Mylib_*.ml
```

4. Finally, create a library containing all the compilation units, and export all the compiled interfaces.

```
ocamlc -a Mylib*.cmo -o Mylib.cma
```

This approach lets you access `A` and `B` directly inside the library, and as `Mylib.A` and `Mylib.B` from outside. It also has the advantage that `Mylib` is no longer monolithic: if you use `Mylib.A`, only `Mylib_A` will be linked in, not `Mylib_B`.

7.18 Explicit overriding in class definitions

(Introduced in OCaml 3.12)

class-field	::=	...
	|	`inherit!` *class-expr* [`as` *lowercase-ident*]
	|	`val!` [`mutable`] *inst-var-name* [`:` *typexpr*] `=` *expr*
	|	`method!` [`private`] *method-name* {*parameter*} [`:` *typexpr*] `=` *expr*
	|	`method!` [`private`] *method-name* `:` *poly-typexpr* `=` *expr*

The keywords `inherit!`, `val!` and `method!` have the same semantics as `inherit`, `val` and `method`, but they additionally require the definition they introduce to be an overriding. Namely, `method!` requires *method-name* to be already defined in this class, `val!` requires *inst-var-name* to be already defined in this class, and `inherit!` requires *class-expr* to override some definitions. If no such overriding occurs, an error is signaled.

As a side-effect, these 3 keywords avoid the warnings 7 (method override) and 13 (instance variable override). Note that warning 7 is disabled by default.

7.19 Overriding in open statements

(Introduced in OCaml 4.01)

definition	::=	...
	|	`open!` *module-path*
specification	::=	...
	|	`open!` *module-path*
expr	::=	...
	|	`let open!` *module-path* `in` *expr*

Since OCaml 4.01, `open` statements shadowing an existing identifier (which is later used) trigger the warning 44. Adding a `!` character after the `open` keyword indicates that such a shadowing is intentional and should not trigger the warning.

7.20 Generalized algebraic datatypes

(Introduced in OCaml 4.00)

constr-decl	::=	...
	|	*constr-name* : [*typexpr* {* *typexpr*} ->] *typexpr*
type-param	::=	...
	|	[*variance*] _

Generalized algebraic datatypes, or GADTs, extend usual sum types in two ways: constraints on type parameters may change depending on the value constructor, and some type variables may be existentially quantified. Adding constraints is done by giving an explicit return type (the rightmost *typexpr* in the above syntax), where type parameters are instantiated. This return type must use the same type constructor as the type being defined, and have the same number of parameters. Variables are made existential when they appear inside a constructor's argument, but not in its return type.

Since the use of a return type often eliminates the need to name type parameters in the left-hand side of a type definition, one can replace them with anonymous types _ in that case.

The constraints associated to each constructor can be recovered through pattern-matching. Namely, if the type of the scrutinee of a pattern-matching contains a locally abstract type, this type can be refined according to the constructor used. These extra constraints are only valid inside the corresponding branch of the pattern-matching. If a constructor has some existential variables, fresh locally abstract types are generated, and they must not escape the scope of this branch.

Here is a concrete example:

```
type _ term =
  | Int : int -> int term
  | Add : (int -> int -> int) term
  | App : ('b -> 'a) term * 'b term -> 'a term

let rec eval : type a. a term -> a = function
  | Int n    -> n                 (* a = int *)
  | Add      -> (fun x y -> x+y)  (* a = int -> int -> int *)
  | App(f,x) -> (eval f) (eval x)
          (* eval called at types (b->a) and b for fresh b *)

let two = eval (App (App (Add, Int 1), Int 1))
val two : int = 2
```

Type inference for GADTs is notoriously hard. This is due to the fact some types may become ambiguous when escaping from a branch. For instance, in the `Int` case above, `n` could have either type `int` or `a`, and they are not equivalent outside of that branch. As a first approximation, type inference will always work if a pattern-matching is annotated with types containing no free type variables (both on the scrutinee and the return type). This is the case in the above example, thanks to the type annotation containing only locally abstract types.

In practice, type inference is a bit more clever than that: type annotations do not need to be immediately on the pattern-matching, and the types do not have to be always closed. As a result, it is usually enough to only annotate functions, as in the example above. Type annotations are propagated in two ways: for the scrutinee, they follow the flow of type inference, in a way similar to polymorphic methods; for the return type, they follow the structure of the program, they are split on functions, propagated to all branches of a pattern matching, and go through tuples, records, and sum types. Moreover, the notion of ambiguity used is stronger: a type is only seen as ambiguous if it was mixed with incompatible types (equated by constraints), without type annotations between them. For instance, the following program types correctly.

```
let rec sum : type a. a term -> _ = fun x ->
  let y =
    match x with
    | Int n -> n
    | Add   -> 0
    | App(f,x) -> sum f + sum x
  in y + 1
val sum : 'a term -> int = <fun>
```

Here the return type `int` is never mixed with `a`, so it is seen as non-ambiguous, and can be inferred. When using such partial type annotations we strongly suggest specifying the `-principal` mode, to check that inference is principal.

The exhaustiveness check is aware of GADT constraints, and can automatically infer that some cases cannot happen. For instance, the following pattern matching is correctly seen as exhaustive (the `Add` case cannot happen).

```
let get_int : int term -> int = function
  | Int n    -> n
  | App(_,_) -> 0
```

Advanced examples The `term` type we have defined above is an *indexed* type, where a type parameter reflects a property of the value contents. Another use of GADTs is *singleton* types, where a GADT value represents exactly one type. This value can be used as runtime representation for this type, and a function receiving it can have a polytypic behavior.

Here is an example of a polymorphic function that takes the runtime representation of some type `t` and a value of the same type, then pretty-prints the value as a string:

```
type _ typ =
  | Int : int typ
  | String : string typ
  | Pair : 'a typ * 'b typ -> ('a * 'b) typ

let rec to_string: type t. t typ -> t -> string =
  fun t x ->
  match t with
  | Int -> string_of_int x
  | String -> Printf.sprintf "%S" x
```

```
  | Pair(t1,t2) ->
      let (x1, x2) = x in
      Printf.sprintf "(%s,%s)" (to_string t1 x1) (to_string t2 x2)
```

Another frequent application of GADTs is equality witnesses.

```
type (_,_) eq = Eq : ('a,'a) eq

let cast : type a b. (a,b) eq -> a -> b = fun Eq x -> x
```

Here type `eq` has only one constructor, and by matching on it one adds a local constraint allowing the conversion between `a` and `b`. By building such equality witnesses, one can make equal types which are syntactically different.

Here is an example using both singleton types and equality witnesses to implement dynamic types.

```
let rec eq_type : type a b. a typ -> b typ -> (a,b) eq option =
  fun a b ->
  match a, b with
  | Int, Int -> Some Eq
  | String, String -> Some Eq
  | Pair(a1,a2), Pair(b1,b2) ->
      begin match eq_type a1 b1, eq_type a2 b2 with
      | Some Eq, Some Eq -> Some Eq
      | _ -> None
      end
  | _ -> None

type dyn = Dyn : 'a typ * 'a -> dyn

let get_dyn : type a. a typ -> dyn -> a option =
  fun a (Dyn(b,x)) ->
  match eq_type a b with
  | None -> None
  | Some Eq -> Some x
```

7.21 Syntax for Bigarray access

(Introduced in Objective Caml 3.00)

expr	::=	...
	|	*expr* `.{` *expr* { `,` *expr*} `}`
	|	*expr* `.{` *expr* { `,` *expr*} `}` `<-` *expr*

This extension provides syntactic sugar for getting and setting elements in the arrays provided by the `Bigarray`[28.1] library.

The short expressions are translated into calls to functions of the `Bigarray` module as described in the following table.

expression	translation
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `}`	`Bigarray.Array1.get` $expr_0$ $expr_1$
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `} <-` $expr$	`Bigarray.Array1.set` $expr_0$ $expr_1$ $expr$
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `,` $expr_2$ `}`	`Bigarray.Array2.get` $expr_0$ $expr_1$ $expr_2$
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `,` $expr_2$ `} <-` $expr$	`Bigarray.Array2.set` $expr_0$ $expr_1$ $expr_2$ $expr$
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `,` $expr_2$ `,` $expr_3$ `}`	`Bigarray.Array3.get` $expr_0$ $expr_1$ $expr_2$ $expr_3$
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `,` $expr_2$ `,` $expr_3$ `} <-` $expr$	`Bigarray.Array3.set` $expr_0$ $expr_1$ $expr_2$ $expr_3$ $expr$
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `,` ... `,` $expr_n$ `}`	`Bigarray.Genarray.get` $expr_0$ `[|` $expr_1$ `,` ... `,` $expr_n$ `|]`
$expr_0$ `.{` $expr_1$ `,` ... `,` $expr_n$ `} <-` $expr$	`Bigarray.Genarray.set` $expr_0$ `[|` $expr_1$ `,` ... `,` $expr_n$ `|]` $expr$

The last two entries are valid for any $n > 3$.

7.22 Attributes

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

Attributes are "decorations" of the syntax tree which are mostly ignored by the type-checker but can be used by external tools. An attribute is made of an identifier and a payload, which can be a structure, a type expression (prefixed with `:`) or a pattern (prefixed with `?`) optionally followed by a `when` clause:

attr-id	::=	*lowercase-ident*
	|	*capitalized-ident*
	|	*attr-id* `.` *attr-id*
attr-payload	::=	[*module-items*]
	|	`:` *typexpr*
	|	`?` *pattern* [`when` *expr*]

The first form of attributes is attached with a postfix notation on "algebraic" categories:

attribute	::=	`[@` *attr-id* *attr-payload* `]`
expr	::=	...
	|	*expr* *attribute*
typexpr	::=	...
	|	*typexpr* *attribute*
pattern	::=	...
	|	*pattern* *attribute*
module-expr	::=	...
	|	*module-expr* *attribute*
module-type	::=	...
	|	*module-type* *attribute*
class-expr	::=	...
	|	*class-expr* *attribute*
class-type	::=	...
	|	*class-type* *attribute*

This form of attributes can also be inserted after the ` *tag-name* in polymorphic variant type expressions (*tag-spec-first*, *tag-spec*, *tag-spec-full*) or after the *method-name* in *method-type*.

The same syntactic form is also used to attach attributes to labels and constructors in type declarations:

field-decl	::=	[`mutable`] *field-name* {*attribute*} `:` *poly-typexpr*
constr-decl	::=	(*constr-name* | `()`) {*attribute*} [`of` *typexpr* {`*` *typexpr*}]

The second form of attributes are attached to “blocks” such as type declarations, class fields, etc:

item-attribute ::= `[@@` *attr-id attr-payload* `]`

typedef ::= ...
| *typedef item-attribute*

exception-definition ::= `exception` *constr-name* {*attribute*} [`of` *typexpr* {`*` *typexpr*}]
| `exception` *constr-name* `=` *constr*

module-items ::= [`;;`] (*definition* | *expr* {*item-attribute*}) {[`;;`] *definition* | `;;` *expr* {*item-attribute*}} [`;`

class-binding ::= ...
| *class-binding item-attribute*

class-spec ::= ...
| *class-spec item-attribute*

classtype-def ::= ...
| *classtype-def item-attribute*

definition ::= `let` [`rec`] *let-binding* {`and` *let-binding*}
| `external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration* {*item-attribute*}
| *type-definition*
| *exception-definition* {*item-attribute*}
| *class-definition*
| *classtype-definition*
| `module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)`} [`:` *module-type*]
`=` *module-expr* {*item-attribute*}
| `module type` *modtype-name* `=` *module-type* {*item-attribute*}
| `open` *module-path* {*item-attribute*}
| `include` *module-expr* {*item-attribute*}
| `module rec` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `=`
module-expr {*item-attribute*}
{`and` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `=` *module-expr*
{*item-attribute*}}

specification ::= `val` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* {*item-attribute*}
| `external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration* {*item-attribute*}
| *type-definition*
| `exception` *constr-decl* {*item-attribute*}
| *class-specification*
| *classtype-definition*
| `module` *module-name* `:` *module-type* {*item-attribute*}
| `module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)`} `:` *module-type* {*item-attribu*
| `module type` *modtype-name* {*item-attribute*}
| `module type` *modtype-name* `=` *module-type* {*item-attribute*}
| `open` *module-path* {*item-attribute*}
| `include` *module-type* {*item-attribute*}

class-field-spec ::= ...
| *class-field-spec item-attribute*

class-field ::= ...
| *class-field item-attribute*

A third form of attributes appears as stand-alone structure or signature items in the module or class sub-languages. They are not attached to any specific node in the syntax tree:

floating-attribute	::=	`[@@@` *attr-id attr-payload* `]`
definition	::=	...
	|	*floating-attribute*
specification	::=	...
	|	*floating-attribute*
class-field-spec	::=	...
	|	*floating-attribute*
class-field	::=	...
	|	*floating-attribute*

(Note: contrary to what the grammar above describes, *item-attributes* cannot be attached to these floating attributes in *class-field-spec* and *class-field*.)

It is also possible to specify attributes on expressions using an infix syntax. This applies to all expressions starting with one or two keywords: `assert`, `begin`, `for`, `fun`, `function`, `if`, `lazy`, `let`, `let module`, `let open`, `match`, `new`, `object`, `try`, `while`. Those expressions supports adding one or several attributes just after those initial keyword(s). For instance:

```
let [@foo][@bar x] x = 2 in x + 1 === (let x = 2 in x + 1)[@foo][@bar x]
begin[@foo] ... end               === (begin ... end)[@foo]
```

7.22.1 Built-in attributes

Some attributes are understood by the type-checker:

- “ocaml.warning” or “warning”, with a string literal payload. This can be used as floating attributes in a signature/structure/object/object type. The string is parsed and has the same effect as the `-w` command-line option, in the scope between the attribute and the end of the current signature/structure/object/object type. The attribute can also be used on an expression, in which case its scope is limited to that expression. Note that it is not well-defined which scope is used for a specific warning. This is implementation dependant and can change between versions. For instance, warnings triggerd by the “ppwarning” attribute (see below) are issued using the global warning configuration.

- “ocaml.warnerror” or “warnerror”, with a string literal payload. Same as “ocaml.warning”, for the `-warn-error` command-line option.

- “ocaml.deprecated” or “deprecated”. Can be applied to most kind of items in signatures or structures. When the element is later referenced, a warning (3) is triggered. If the payload of the attribute is a string literal, the warning message includes this text.

- “ocaml.ppwarning” or “ppwarning”, in any context, with a string literal payload. The text is reported as warning (22) by the compiler (currently, the warning location is the location of the string payload). This is mostly useful for preprocessors which need to communicate warnings to the user. This could also be used to mark explicitly some code location for further inspection.

```
module X = struct
  [@@warning "+9"]  (* locally enable warning 9 in this structure *)
  ...
end

let x = begin[@warning "+9] ... end in ....

type t = A | B
  [@@deprecated "Please use type 's' instead.]


let f x =
  assert (x >= 0) [@ppwarning "TODO: remove this later"];
  ....
```

7.23 Extension nodes

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

Extension nodes are generic placeholders in the syntax tree. They are rejected by the type-checker and are intended to be “expanded” by external tools such as `-ppx` rewriters.

Extension nodes share the same notion of identifier and payload as attributes 7.22.

The first form of extension node is used for “algebraic” categories:

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{extension} & ::= & \texttt{[\%}\ \textit{attr-id}\ \textit{attr-payload}\ \texttt{]} \\
\textit{expr} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension} \\
\textit{typexpr} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension} \\
\textit{pattern} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension} \\
\textit{module-expr} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension} \\
\textit{module-type} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension} \\
\textit{class-expr} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension} \\
\textit{class-type} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{extension}
\end{array}
$$

A second form of extension node can be used in structures and signatures, both in the module and object languages:

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
\textit{item-extension} & ::= & \texttt{[\%\%}\ \textit{attr-id}\ \textit{attr-payload}\ \texttt{]} \\
\textit{definition} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{item-extension} \\
\textit{specification} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{item-extension} \\
\textit{class-field-spec} & ::= & \ldots \\
 & \mid & \textit{item-extension} \\
\textit{class-field} & ::= & \\
 & \mid & \textit{item-extension}
\end{array}
$$

An infix form is available for extension nodes as expressions, when the payload is a single expression. This form applies to all expressions starting with one or two keywords: the percent sign and then and extension identifier follow immediately the initial keyword(s).

Examples:

```
let%foo x = 2 in x + 1      === [%foo let x = 2 in x + 1]
begin%foo ... end           === [%foo begin ... end]
```

When this form is used together with the infix syntax for attributes, the attributes are considered to apply to the payload:

```
begin%foo[@bar] ... end     === [%foo (let x = 2 in x + 1) [@bar]]
```

7.24 Quoted strings

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

Quoted strings provide a different lexical syntax to write string literals in OCaml code. This can be used to embed pieces of foreign syntax fragments in OCaml code, to be interpret by a `-ppx` filter or just a library.

string-literal	::=	...
	|	`{` *quoted-string-id* `|`........ `|` *quoted-string-id* `}`
quoted-string-id	::=	{`a`... `z` | `_`}

The opening delimiter has the form `{id|` where `id` is a (possibly empty) sequence of lowercase letters and underscores. The corresponding closing delimiter is `|id}` (with the same identifier). Unlike regular OCaml string literals, quoted strings do not interpret any character in a special way.

Example:

```
String.length {|\"|}         (* returns 2 *)
String.length {foo|\"|foo}   (* returns 2 *)
```

7.25 Exception cases in pattern matching

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

A new form of exception patterns is allowed, only as a toplevel pattern under a `match`...`with` pattern-matching (other occurrences are rejected by the type-checker).

pattern	::=	...
	|	`exception` *pattern*

Cases with such a toplevel pattern are called "exception cases", as opposed to regular "value cases". Exception cases are applied when the evaluation of the matched expression raises an exception. The exception value is then matched against all the exception cases and re-raised if none of them accept the exception (as for a `try`...`with` block). Since the bodies of all exception and value cases is outside the scope of the exception handler, they are all considered to be in tail-position: if the `match`...`with` block itself is in tail position in the current function, any function call in tail position in one of the case bodies results in an actual tail call.

It is an error if all cases are exception cases in a given pattern matching.

7.26 Extensible variant types

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

type-representation	::=	...
	|	`= ..`
specification	::=	...
	|	`type` [*type-params*] *typeconstr* *type-extension-spec*
definition	::=	...
	|	`type` [*type-params*] *typeconstr* *type-extension-def*
type-extension-spec	::=	`+=` [`private`] [`|`] *constr-decl* { `|` *constr-decl* }
type-extension-def	::=	`+=` [`private`] [`|`] *constr-def* { `|` *constr-def* }
constr-def	::=	*constr-decl*
	|	*constr-name* `=` *constr*

Extensible variant types are variant types which can be extended with new variant constructors. Extensible variant types are defined using `..`. New variant constructors are added using `+=`.

```
type attr = ..

type attr += Str of string

type attr +=
  | Int of int
  | Float of float
```

Pattern matching on an extensible variant type requires a default case to handle unknown variant constructors:

```
let to_string = function
  | Str s -> s
  | Int i -> string_of_int i
  | Float f -> string_of_float f
  | _ -> "?"
```

A preexisting example of an extensible variant type is the built-in `exn` type used for exceptions. Indeed, exception constructors can be declared using the type extension syntax:

```
type exn += Exc of int
```

Extensible variant constructors can be rebound to a different name. This allows exporting variants from another module.

```
type Expr.attr += Str = Expr.Str
```

Extensible variant constructors can be declared `private`. As with regular variants, this prevents them from being constructed directly by constructor application while still allowing them to be destructured in pattern-matching.

7.27 Generative functors

(Introduced in OCaml 4.02)

module-expr	::=	...
	|	`functor () ->` *module-expr*
	|	*module-expr* `()`
definition	::=	...
	|	`module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)` | `()`} [`:` *module-type*] `=` *module-expr*
module-type	::=	...
	|	`functor () ->` *module-type*
specification	::=	...
	|	`module` *module-name* {`(` *module-name* `:` *module-type* `)` | `()`} `:` *module-type*

A generative functor takes a unit `()` argument. In order to use it, one must necessarily apply it to this unit argument, ensuring that all type components in the result of the functor behave in a generative way, *i.e.* they are different from types obtained by other applications of the same functor. This is equivalent to taking an argument of signature `sig end`, and always applying to `struct end`, but not to some defined module (in the latter case, applying twice to the same module would return identical types).

As a side-effect of this generativity, one is allowed to unpack first-class modules in the body of generative functors.

Part III

The OCaml tools

Chapter 8

Batch compilation (ocamlc)

This chapter describes the OCaml batch compiler `ocamlc`, which compiles OCaml source files to bytecode object files and links these object files to produce standalone bytecode executable files. These executable files are then run by the bytecode interpreter `ocamlrun`.

8.1 Overview of the compiler

The `ocamlc` command has a command-line interface similar to the one of most C compilers. It accepts several types of arguments and processes them sequentially:

- Arguments ending in `.mli` are taken to be source files for compilation unit interfaces. Interfaces specify the names exported by compilation units: they declare value names with their types, define public data types, declare abstract data types, and so on. From the file *x*`.mli`, the `ocamlc` compiler produces a compiled interface in the file *x*`.cmi`.

- Arguments ending in `.ml` are taken to be source files for compilation unit implementations. Implementations provide definitions for the names exported by the unit, and also contain expressions to be evaluated for their side-effects. From the file *x*`.ml`, the `ocamlc` compiler produces compiled object bytecode in the file *x*`.cmo`.

  If the interface file *x*`.mli` exists, the implementation *x*`.ml` is checked against the corresponding compiled interface *x*`.cmi`, which is assumed to exist. If no interface *x*`.mli` is provided, the compilation of *x*`.ml` produces a compiled interface file *x*`.cmi` in addition to the compiled object code file *x*`.cmo`. The file *x*`.cmi` produced corresponds to an interface that exports everything that is defined in the implementation *x*`.ml`.

- Arguments ending in `.cmo` are taken to be compiled object bytecode. These files are linked together, along with the object files obtained by compiling `.ml` arguments (if any), and the OCaml standard library, to produce a standalone executable program. The order in which `.cmo` and `.ml` arguments are presented on the command line is relevant: compilation units are initialized in that order at run-time, and it is a link-time error to use a component of a unit before having initialized it. Hence, a given *x*`.cmo` file must come before all `.cmo` files that refer to the unit *x*.

- Arguments ending in `.cma` are taken to be libraries of object bytecode. A library of object bytecode packs in a single file a set of object bytecode files (`.cmo` files). Libraries are built with `ocamlc -a` (see the description of the `-a` option below). The object files contained in the library are linked as regular `.cmo` files (see above), in the order specified when the `.cma` file was built. The only difference is that if an object file contained in a library is not referenced anywhere in the program, then it is not linked in.

- Arguments ending in `.c` are passed to the C compiler, which generates a `.o` object file (`.obj` under Windows). This object file is linked with the program if the `-custom` flag is set (see the description of `-custom` below).

- Arguments ending in `.o` or `.a` (`.obj` or `.lib` under Windows) are assumed to be C object files and libraries. They are passed to the C linker when linking in `-custom` mode (see the description of `-custom` below).

- Arguments ending in `.so` (`.dll` under Windows) are assumed to be C shared libraries (DLLs). During linking, they are searched for external C functions referenced from the OCaml code, and their names are written in the generated bytecode executable. The run-time system `ocamlrun` then loads them dynamically at program start-up time.

The output of the linking phase is a file containing compiled bytecode that can be executed by the OCaml bytecode interpreter: the command named `ocamlrun`. If `a.out` is the name of the file produced by the linking phase, the command

`ocamlrun a.out` arg_1 arg_2 ... arg_n

executes the compiled code contained in `a.out`, passing it as arguments the character strings arg_1 to arg_n. (See chapter 10 for more details.)

On most systems, the file produced by the linking phase can be run directly, as in:

`./a.out` arg_1 arg_2 ... arg_n

The produced file has the executable bit set, and it manages to launch the bytecode interpreter by itself.

8.2 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamlc`. The options `-pack`, `-a`, `-c` and `-output-obj` are mutually exclusive.

`-a` Build a library (`.cma` file) with the object files (`.cmo` files) given on the command line, instead of linking them into an executable file. The name of the library must be set with the `-o` option.

If `-custom`, `-cclib` or `-ccopt` options are passed on the command line, these options are stored in the resulting `.cma` library. Then, linking with this library automatically adds back the `-custom`, `-cclib` and `-ccopt` options as if they had been provided on the command line, unless the `-noautolink` option is given.

`-absname`
: Force error messages to show absolute paths for file names.

`-annot`
: Dump detailed information about the compilation (types, bindings, tail-calls, etc). The information for file *src*`.ml` is put into file *src*`.annot`. In case of a type error, dump all the information inferred by the type-checker before the error. The *src*`.annot` file can be used with the emacs commands given in `emacs/caml-types.el` to display types and other annotations interactively.

`-bin-annot`
: Dump detailed information about the compilation (types, bindings, tail-calls, etc) in binary format. The information for file *src*`.ml` is put into file *src*`.cmt`. In case of a type error, dump all the information inferred by the type-checker before the error. The `*.cmt` files produced by `-bin-annot` contain more information and are much more compact than the files produced by `-annot`.

`-c`
: Compile only. Suppress the linking phase of the compilation. Source code files are turned into compiled files, but no executable file is produced. This option is useful to compile modules separately.

`-cc` *ccomp*
: Use *ccomp* as the C linker when linking in "custom runtime" mode (see the `-custom` option) and as the C compiler for compiling `.c` source files.

`-cclib -l`*libname*
: Pass the `-l`*libname* option to the C linker when linking in "custom runtime" mode (see the `-custom` option). This causes the given C library to be linked with the program.

`-ccopt` *option*
: Pass the given option to the C compiler and linker. When linking in "custom runtime" mode, for instance, `-ccopt -L`*dir* causes the C linker to search for C libraries in directory *dir*. (See the `-custom` option.)

`-compat-32`
: Check that the generated bytecode executable can run on 32-bit platforms and signal an error if it cannot. This is useful when compiling bytecode on a 64-bit machine.

`-config`
: Print the version number of `ocamlc` and a detailed summary of its configuration, then exit.

`-custom`
: Link in "custom runtime" mode. In the default linking mode, the linker produces bytecode that is intended to be executed with the shared runtime system, `ocamlrun`. In the custom runtime mode, the linker produces an output file that contains both the runtime system and the bytecode for the program. The resulting file is larger, but it can be executed directly, even if the `ocamlrun` command is not installed. Moreover, the "custom runtime" mode enables static linking of OCaml code with user-defined C functions, as described in chapter 19.

Unix:

Never use the `strip` command on executables produced by `ocamlc -custom`, this would remove the bytecode part of the executable.

`-dllib -l`*libname*
: Arrange for the C shared library `dll`*libname*`.so` (`dll`*libname*`.dll` under Windows) to be loaded dynamically by the run-time system `ocamlrun` at program start-up time.

`-dllpath` *dir*
: Adds the directory *dir* to the run-time search path for shared C libraries. At link-time, shared libraries are searched in the standard search path (the one corresponding to the `-I` option). The `-dllpath` option simply stores *dir* in the produced executable file, where `ocamlrun` can find it and use it as described in section 10.3.

`-for-pack` *ident*
: This option is accepted for compatibility with `ocamlopt`; it does nothing.

`-g`
: Add debugging information while compiling and linking. This option is required in order to be able to debug the program with `ocamldebug` (see chapter 16), and to produce stack backtraces when the program terminates on an uncaught exception (see section 10.2).

`-i`
: Cause the compiler to print all defined names (with their inferred types or their definitions) when compiling an implementation (`.ml` file). No compiled files (`.cmo` and `.cmi` files) are produced. This can be useful to check the types inferred by the compiler. Also, since the output follows the syntax of interfaces, it can help in writing an explicit interface (`.mli` file) for a file: just redirect the standard output of the compiler to a `.mli` file, and edit that file to remove all declarations of unexported names.

`-I` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for compiled interface files (`.cmi`), compiled object code files (`.cmo`), libraries (`.cma`), and C libraries specified with `-cclib -lxxx`. By default, the current directory is searched first, then the standard library directory. Directories added with `-I` are searched after the current directory, in the order in which they were given on the command line, but before the standard library directory. See also option `-nostdlib`.

  If the given directory starts with `+`, it is taken relative to the standard library directory. For instance, `-I +labltk` adds the subdirectory `labltk` of the standard library to the search path.

`-impl` *filename*
: Compile the file *filename* as an implementation file, even if its extension is not `.ml`.

`-intf` *filename*
: Compile the file *filename* as an interface file, even if its extension is not `.mli`.

`-intf-suffix` *string*
: Recognize file names ending with *string* as interface files (instead of the default `.mli`).

`-labels`
: Labels are not ignored in types, labels may be used in applications, and labelled parameters can be given in any order. This is the default.

`-linkall`
: Force all modules contained in libraries to be linked in. If this flag is not given, unreferenced modules are not linked in. When building a library (option `-a`), setting the `-linkall` option forces all subsequent links of programs involving that library to link all the modules contained in the library.

`-make-runtime`
: Build a custom runtime system (in the file specified by option `-o`) incorporating the C object files and libraries given on the command line. This custom runtime system can be used later to execute bytecode executables produced with the `ocamlc -use-runtime` *runtime-name* option. See section 19.1.6 for more information.

`-no-alias-deps`
: Do not record dependencies for module aliases. See section 7.17 for more information.

`-no-app-funct`
: Deactivates the applicative behaviour of functors. With this option, each functor application generates new types in its result and applying the same functor twice to the same argument yields two incompatible structures.

`-noassert`
: Do not compile assertion checks. Note that the special form `assert false` is always compiled because it is typed specially. This flag has no effect when linking already-compiled files.

`-noautolink`
: When linking `.cma` libraries, ignore `-custom`, `-cclib` and `-ccopt` options potentially contained in the libraries (if these options were given when building the libraries). This can be useful if a library contains incorrect specifications of C libraries or C options; in this case, during linking, set `-noautolink` and pass the correct C libraries and options on the command line.

`-nolabels`
: Ignore non-optional labels in types. Labels cannot be used in applications, and parameter order becomes strict.

`-nostdlib`
: Do not include the standard library directory in the list of directories searched for compiled interface files (`.cmi`), compiled object code files (`.cmo`), libraries (`.cma`), and C libraries specified with `-cclib -lxxx`. See also option `-I`.

`-o` *exec-file*
: Specify the name of the output file produced by the compiler. The default output name is `a.out` under Unix and `camlprog.exe` under Windows. If the `-a` option is given, specify the name of the library produced. If the `-pack` option is given, specify the name of the packed

object file produced. If the `-output-obj` option is given, specify the name of the output file produced. If the `-c` option is given, specify the name of the object file produced for the *next* source file that appears on the command line.

`-open` *Module*
: Opens the given module before processing the interface or implementation files. If several `-open` options are given, they are processed in order, just as if the statements `open!` *Module1*`;;` `... open!` *ModuleN*`;;` were added at the top of each file.

`-output-obj`
: Cause the linker to produce a C object file instead of a bytecode executable file. This is useful to wrap OCaml code as a C library, callable from any C program. See chapter 19, section 19.7.5. The name of the output object file must be set with the `-o` option. This option can also be used to produce a C source file (`.c` extension) or a compiled shared/dynamic library (`.so` extension, `.dll` under Windows).

`-pack`
: Build a bytecode object file (`.cmo` file) and its associated compiled interface (`.cmi`) that combines the object files given on the command line, making them appear as sub-modules of the output `.cmo` file. The name of the output `.cmo` file must be given with the `-o` option. For instance,

```
ocamlc -pack -o p.cmo a.cmo b.cmo c.cmo
```

generates compiled files `p.cmo` and `p.cmi` describing a compilation unit having three sub-modules `A`, `B` and `C`, corresponding to the contents of the object files `a.cmo`, `b.cmo` and `c.cmo`. These contents can be referenced as `P.A`, `P.B` and `P.C` in the remainder of the program.

`-pp` *command*
: Cause the compiler to call the given *command* as a preprocessor for each source file. The output of *command* is redirected to an intermediate file, which is compiled. If there are no compilation errors, the intermediate file is deleted afterwards.

`-ppx` *command*
: After parsing, pipe the abstract syntax tree through the preprocessor *command*. The format of the input and ouput of the preprocessor are not yet documented.

`-principal`
: Check information path during type-checking, to make sure that all types are derived in a principal way. When using labelled arguments and/or polymorphic methods, this flag is required to ensure future versions of the compiler will be able to infer types correctly, even if internal algorithms change. All programs accepted in `-principal` mode are also accepted in the default mode with equivalent types, but different binary signatures, and this may slow down type checking; yet it is a good idea to use it once before publishing source code.

`-rectypes`
: Allow arbitrary recursive types during type-checking. By default, only recursive types where the recursion goes through an object type are supported. Note that once you have created an interface using this flag, you must use it again for all dependencies.

`-runtime-variant` *suffix*
: Add the *suffix* string to the name of the runtime library used by the program. Currently, only one such suffix is supported: `d`, and only if the OCaml compiler was configured with option `-with-debug-runtime`. This suffix gives the debug version of the runtime, which is useful for debugging pointer problems in low-level code such as C stubs.

`-safe-string`
: Enforce the separation between types `string` and `bytes`, thereby making strings read-only. This will become the default in a future version of OCaml.

`-short-paths`
: When a type is visible under several module-paths, use the shortest one when printing the type's name in inferred interfaces and error and warning messages.

`-strict-sequence`
: Force the left-hand part of each sequence to have type unit.

`-strict-formats`
: Reject invalid formats that were accepted in legacy format implementations. You should use this flag to detect and fix such invalid formats, as they will be rejected by future OCaml versions.

`-thread`
: Compile or link multithreaded programs, in combination with the system `threads` library described in chapter 25.

`-unsafe`
: Turn bound checking off for array and string accesses (the `v.(i)` and `s.[i]` constructs). Programs compiled with `-unsafe` are therefore slightly faster, but unsafe: anything can happen if the program accesses an array or string outside of its bounds.

`-unsafe-string`
: Identify the types `string` and `bytes`, thereby making strings writable. For reasons of backward compatibility, this is the default setting for the moment, but this will change in a future version of OCaml.

`-use-runtime` *runtime-name*
: Generate a bytecode executable file that can be executed on the custom runtime system *runtime-name*, built earlier with `ocamlc -make-runtime` *runtime-name*. See section 19.1.6 for more information.

`-v`
: Print the version number of the compiler and the location of the standard library directory, then exit.

`-verbose`
: Print all external commands before they are executed, in particular invocations of the C compiler and linker in `-custom` mode. Useful to debug C library problems.

`-vmthread`

Compile or link multithreaded programs, in combination with the VM-level `threads` library described in chapter 25.

`-version` or `-vnum`

Print the version number of the compiler in short form (e.g. `3.11.0`), then exit.

`-w` *warning-list*

Enable, disable, or mark as fatal the warnings specified by the argument *warning-list*. Each warning can be *enabled* or *disabled*, and each warning can be *fatal* or *non-fatal*. If a warning is disabled, it isn't displayed and doesn't affect compilation in any way (even if it is fatal). If a warning is enabled, it is displayed normally by the compiler whenever the source code triggers it. If it is enabled and fatal, the compiler will also stop with an error after displaying it.

The *warning-list* argument is a sequence of warning specifiers, with no separators between them. A warning specifier is one of the following:

`+`*num*

Enable warning number *num*.

`-`*num*

Disable warning number *num*.

`@`*num*

Enable and mark as fatal warning number *num*.

`+`*num1*`..`*num2*

Enable warnings in the given range.

`-`*num1*`..`*num2*

Disable warnings in the given range.

`@`*num1*`..`*num2*

Enable and mark as fatal warnings in the given range.

`+`*letter*

Enable the set of warnings corresponding to *letter*. The letter may be uppercase or lowercase.

`-`*letter*

Disable the set of warnings corresponding to *letter*. The letter may be uppercase or lowercase.

`@`*letter*

Enable and mark as fatal the set of warnings corresponding to *letter*. The letter may be uppercase or lowercase.

uppercase-letter

Enable the set of warnings corresponding to *uppercase-letter*.

lowercase-letter

Disable the set of warnings corresponding to *lowercase-letter*.

Warning numbers and letters which are out of the range of warnings that are currently defined are ignored. The warning are as follows.

1 Suspicious-looking start-of-comment mark.

2 Suspicious-looking end-of-comment mark.

3 Deprecated feature.

4 Fragile pattern matching: matching that will remain complete even if additional constructors are added to one of the variant types matched.

5 Partially applied function: expression whose result has function type and is ignored.

6 Label omitted in function application.

7 Method overridden.

8 Partial match: missing cases in pattern-matching.

9 Missing fields in a record pattern.

10 Expression on the left-hand side of a sequence that doesn't have type `unit` (and that is not a function, see warning number 5).

11 Redundant case in a pattern matching (unused match case).

12 Redundant sub-pattern in a pattern-matching.

13 Instance variable overridden.

14 Illegal backslash escape in a string constant.

15 Private method made public implicitly.

16 Unerasable optional argument.

17 Undeclared virtual method.

18 Non-principal type.

19 Type without principality.

20 Unused function argument.

21 Non-returning statement.

22 Proprocessor warning.

23 Useless record `with` clause.

24 Bad module name: the source file name is not a valid OCaml module name.

25 Pattern-matching with all clauses guarded. Exhaustiveness cannot be checked.

26 Suspicious unused variable: unused variable that is bound with `let` or `as`, and doesn't start with an underscore (`_`) character.

27 Innocuous unused variable: unused variable that is not bound with `let` nor `as`, and doesn't start with an underscore (`_`) character.

28 Wildcard pattern given as argument to a constant constructor.

29 Unescaped end-of-line in a string constant (non-portable code).

30 Two labels or constructors of the same name are defined in two mutually recursive types.

31 A module is linked twice in the same executable.

32 Unused value declaration.

33 Unused open statement.

34 Unused type declaration.

35 Unused for-loop index.

36 Unused ancestor variable.

37 Unused constructor.

38 Unused extension constructor.

39 Unused rec flag.

40 Constructor or label name used out of scope.

41 Ambiguous constructor or label name.

42 Disambiguated constructor or label name.

43 Nonoptional label applied as optional.

44 Open statement shadows an already defined identifier.

45 Open statement shadows an already defined label or constructor.

46 Illegal environment variable.

47 Illegal attribute payload.

48 Implicit elimination of optional arguments.

49 Absent cmi file when looking up module alias.

A All warnings.

C Set of warnings 1, 2.

D Synonym for warning 3.

E Synonym for warning 4.

F Synonym for warning 5.

K Set of warnings 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39.

L Synonym for warning 6.

M Synonym for warning 7.

P Synonym for warning 8.

R Synonym for warning 9.

S Synonym for warning 10.

U Set of warnings 11, 12.

V Synonym for warning 13.

X Set of warnings 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 30.

Y Synonym for warning 26.

Z Synonym for warning 27.

The default setting is `-w +a-4-6-7-9-27-29-32..39-41..42-44-45`. It is displayed by `ocamlc -help`. Note that warnings 5 and 10 are not always triggered, depending on the internals of the type checker.

`-warn-error` *warning-list*
: Mark as fatal the warnings specified in the argument *warning-list*. The compiler will stop with an error when one of these warnings is emitted. The *warning-list* has the same meaning as for the `-w` option: a `+` sign (or an uppercase letter) marks the corresponding warnings as fatal, a `-` sign (or a lowercase letter) turns them back into non-fatal warnings, and a `@` sign both enables and marks as fatal the corresponding warnings.

Note: it is not recommended to use warning sets (i.e. letters) as arguments to `-warn-error` in production code, because this can break your build when future versions of OCaml add some new warnings.

The default setting is `-warn-error -a` (all warnings are non-fatal).

`-warn-help`
: Show the description of all available warning numbers.

`-where`
: Print the location of the standard library, then exit.

`-` *file*
: Process *file* as a file name, even if it starts with a dash (`-`) character.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

8.3 Modules and the file system

This short section is intended to clarify the relationship between the names of the modules corresponding to compilation units and the names of the files that contain their compiled interface and compiled implementation.

The compiler always derives the module name by taking the capitalized base name of the source file (`.ml` or `.mli` file). That is, it strips the leading directory name, if any, as well as the `.ml` or `.mli` suffix; then, it set the first letter to uppercase, in order to comply with the requirement that module names must be capitalized. For instance, compiling the file `mylib/misc.ml` provides an implementation for the module named `Misc`. Other compilation units may refer to components defined in `mylib/misc.ml` under the names `Misc.`*name*; they can also do `open Misc`, then use unqualified names *name*.

The `.cmi` and `.cmo` files produced by the compiler have the same base name as the source file. Hence, the compiled files always have their base name equal (modulo capitalization of the first letter) to the name of the module they describe (for `.cmi` files) or implement (for `.cmo` files).

When the compiler encounters a reference to a free module identifier `Mod`, it looks in the search path for a file named `Mod.cmi` or `mod.cmi` and loads the compiled interface contained in that file. As a consequence, renaming `.cmi` files is not advised: the name of a `.cmi` file must always correspond to the name of the compilation unit it implements. It is admissible to move them to another directory, if their base name is preserved, and the correct `-I` options are given to the compiler. The compiler will flag an error if it loads a `.cmi` file that has been renamed.

Compiled bytecode files (`.cmo` files), on the other hand, can be freely renamed once created. That's because the linker never attempts to find by itself the `.cmo` file that implements a module with a given name: it relies instead on the user providing the list of `.cmo` files by hand.

8.4 Common errors

This section describes and explains the most frequently encountered error messages.

Cannot find file *filename*

The named file could not be found in the current directory, nor in the directories of the search path. The *filename* is either a compiled interface file (`.cmi` file), or a compiled bytecode file (`.cmo` file). If *filename* has the format *mod*`.cmi`, this means you are trying to compile a file that references identifiers from module *mod*, but you have not yet compiled an interface for module *mod*. Fix: compile *mod*`.mli` or *mod*`.ml` first, to create the compiled interface *mod*`.cmi`.

If *filename* has the format *mod*`.cmo`, this means you are trying to link a bytecode object file that does not exist yet. Fix: compile *mod*`.ml` first.

If your program spans several directories, this error can also appear because you haven't specified the directories to look into. Fix: add the correct `-I` options to the command line.

Corrupted compiled interface *filename*

The compiler produces this error when it tries to read a compiled interface file (`.cmi` file) that has the wrong structure. This means something went wrong when this `.cmi` file was written: the disk was full, the compiler was interrupted in the middle of the file creation, and so on. This error can also appear if a `.cmi` file is modified after its creation by the compiler. Fix: remove the corrupted `.cmi` file, and rebuild it.

This expression has type t_1, but is used with type t_2

This is by far the most common type error in programs. Type t_1 is the type inferred for the expression (the part of the program that is displayed in the error message), by looking at the expression itself. Type t_2 is the type expected by the context of the expression; it is deduced by looking at how the value of this expression is used in the rest of the program. If the two types t_1 and t_2 are not compatible, then the error above is produced.

In some cases, it is hard to understand why the two types t_1 and t_2 are incompatible. For instance, the compiler can report that "expression of type `foo` cannot be used with type `foo`", and it really seems that the two types `foo` are compatible. This is not always true. Two type constructors can have the same name, but actually represent different types. This can happen if a type constructor is redefined. Example:

```
type foo = A | B
let f = function A -> 0 | B -> 1
type foo = C | D
f C
```

This result in the error message "expression `C` of type `foo` cannot be used with type `foo`".

The type of this expression, *t*, contains type variables that cannot be generalized

Type variables (`'a`, `'b`, ...) in a type *t* can be in either of two states: generalized (which means that the type *t* is valid for all possible instantiations of the variables) and not generalized (which means that the type *t* is valid only for one instantiation of the variables). In a `let` binding `let` *name* `=` *expr*, the type-checker normally generalizes as many type variables as possible in the type of *expr*. However, this leads to unsoundness (a well-typed program can crash) in conjunction with polymorphic mutable data structures. To avoid this, generalization is performed at `let` bindings only if the bound expression *expr* belongs to the class of "syntactic values", which includes constants, identifiers, functions, tuples of syntactic values, etc. In all other cases (for instance, *expr* is a function application), a polymorphic mutable could have been created and generalization is therefore turned off for all variables occurring in contravariant or non-variant branches of the type. For instance, if the type of a non-value is `'a list` the variable is generalizable (`list` is a covariant type constructor), but not in `'a list -> 'a list` (the left branch of `->` is contravariant) or `'a ref` (`ref` is non-variant).

Non-generalized type variables in a type cause no difficulties inside a given structure or compilation unit (the contents of a `.ml` file, or an interactive session), but they cannot be allowed inside signatures nor in compiled interfaces (`.cmi` file), because they could be used inconsistently later. Therefore, the compiler flags an error when a structure or compilation unit defines a value *name* whose type contains non-generalized type variables. There are two ways to fix this error:

- Add a type constraint or a `.mli` file to give a monomorphic type (without type variables) to *name*. For instance, instead of writing

  ```
  let sort_int_list = Sort.list (<)
  (* inferred type 'a list -> 'a list, with 'a not generalized *)
  ```

  write

  ```
  let sort_int_list = (Sort.list (<) : int list -> int list);;
  ```

- If you really need *name* to have a polymorphic type, turn its defining expression into a function by adding an extra parameter. For instance, instead of writing

  ```
  let map_length = List.map Array.length
  (* inferred type 'a array list -> int list, with 'a not generalized *)
  ```

  write

  ```
  let map_length lv = List.map Array.length lv
  ```

Reference to undefined global *mod*

This error appears when trying to link an incomplete or incorrectly ordered set of files. Either you have forgotten to provide an implementation for the compilation unit named *mod* on the command line (typically, the file named *mod*`.cmo`, or a library containing that file). Fix: add the missing `.ml` or `.cmo` file to the command line. Or, you have provided an implementation for the module named *mod*, but it comes too late on the command line: the implementation of *mod* must come before all bytecode object files that reference *mod*. Fix: change the order of `.ml` and `.cmo` files on the command line.

Of course, you will always encounter this error if you have mutually recursive functions across modules. That is, function `Mod1.f` calls function `Mod2.g`, and function `Mod2.g` calls function `Mod1.f`. In this case, no matter what permutations you perform on the command line, the program will be rejected at link-time. Fixes:

- Put `f` and `g` in the same module.
- Parameterize one function by the other. That is, instead of having

  ```
  mod1.ml:    let f x = ... Mod2.g ...
  mod2.ml:    let g y = ... Mod1.f ...
  ```

  define

  ```
  mod1.ml:    let f g x = ... g ...
  mod2.ml:    let rec g y = ... Mod1.f g ...
  ```

  and link `mod1.cmo` before `mod2.cmo`.
- Use a reference to hold one of the two functions, as in :

  ```
  mod1.ml:    let forward_g =
                  ref((fun x -> failwith "forward_g") : <type>)
              let f x = ... !forward_g ...
  mod2.ml:    let g y = ... Mod1.f ...
              let _ = Mod1.forward_g := g
  ```

The external function *f* is not available

This error appears when trying to link code that calls external functions written in C. As explained in chapter 19, such code must be linked with C libraries that implement the required *f* C function. If the C libraries in question are not shared libraries (DLLs), the code must be linked in "custom runtime" mode. Fix: add the required C libraries to the command line, and possibly the `-custom` option.

Chapter 9

The toplevel system (ocaml)

This chapter describes the toplevel system for OCaml, that permits interactive use of the OCaml system through a read-eval-print loop. In this mode, the system repeatedly reads OCaml phrases from the input, then typechecks, compile and evaluate them, then prints the inferred type and result value, if any. The system prints a `#` (sharp) prompt before reading each phrase.

Input to the toplevel can span several lines. It is terminated by `;;` (a double-semicolon). The toplevel input consists in one or several toplevel phrases, with the following syntax:

toplevel-input	::=	{*definition*}+ `;;`
	|	*expr* `;;`
	|	`#` *ident* [*directive-argument*] `;;`
directive-argument	::=	*string-literal*
	|	*integer-literal*
	|	*value-path*
	|	`true` | `false`

A phrase can consist of a definition, like those found in implementations of compilation units or in `struct`... `end` module expressions. The definition can bind value names, type names, an exception, a module name, or a module type name. The toplevel system performs the bindings, then prints the types and values (if any) for the names thus defined.

A phrase may also consist in a value expression (section 6.7). It is simply evaluated without performing any bindings, and its value is printed.

Finally, a phrase can also consist in a toplevel directive, starting with `#` (the sharp sign). These directives control the behavior of the toplevel; they are listed below in section 9.2.

Unix:

The toplevel system is started by the command `ocaml`, as follows:

```
ocaml options objects                # interactive mode
ocaml options objects scriptfile     # script mode
```

options are described below. *objects* are filenames ending in `.cmo` or `.cma`; they are loaded into the interpreter immediately after *options* are set. *scriptfile* is any file name not ending in `.cmo` or `.cma`.

If no *scriptfile* is given on the command line, the toplevel system enters interactive mode: phrases are read on standard input, results are printed on standard output, errors on standard error. End-of-file on standard input terminates `ocaml` (see also the `#quit` directive in section 9.2).

On start-up (before the first phrase is read), if the file `.ocamlinit` exists in the current directory, its contents are read as a sequence of OCaml phrases and executed as per the `#use` directive described in section 9.2. The evaluation outcode for each phrase are not displayed. If the current directory does not contain an `.ocamlinit` file, but the user's home directory (environment variable `HOME`) does, the latter is read and executed as described below.

The toplevel system does not perform line editing, but it can easily be used in conjunction with an external line editor such as `ledit`, `ocaml2` or `rlwrap` (see the Caml Hump `http://caml.inria.fr/humps/index_framed_caml.html`). Another option is to use `ocaml` under Gnu Emacs, which gives the full editing power of Emacs (command `run-caml` from library `inf-caml`).

At any point, the parsing, compilation or evaluation of the current phrase can be interrupted by pressing `ctrl-C` (or, more precisely, by sending the `INTR` signal to the `ocaml` process). The toplevel then immediately returns to the `#` prompt.

If *scriptfile* is given on the command-line to `ocaml`, the toplevel system enters script mode: the contents of the file are read as a sequence of OCaml phrases and executed, as per the `#use` directive (section 9.2). The outcome of the evaluation is not printed. On reaching the end of file, the `ocaml` command exits immediately. No commands are read from standard input. `Sys.argv` is transformed, ignoring all OCaml parameters, and starting with the script file name in `Sys.argv.(0)`.

In script mode, the first line of the script is ignored if it starts with `#!`. Thus, it should be possible to make the script itself executable and put as first line `#!/usr/local/bin/ocaml`, thus calling the toplevel system automatically when the script is run. However, `ocaml` itself is a `#!` script on most installations of OCaml, and Unix kernels usually do not handle nested `#!` scripts. A better solution is to put the following as the first line of the script:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/ocamlrun /usr/local/bin/ocaml
```

Windows:

In addition to the text-only command `ocaml.exe`, which works exactly as under Unix (see above), a graphical user interface for the toplevel is available under the name `ocamlwin.exe`. It should be launched from the Windows file manager or program manager. This interface provides a text window in which commands can be entered and edited, and the toplevel responses are printed.

9.1 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by the `ocaml` command.

`-absname`

Force error messages to show absolute paths for file names.

`-I` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for source and compiled files. By default, the current directory is searched first, then the standard library directory. Directories added with `-I` are searched after the current directory, in the order in which they were given on the command line, but before the standard library directory.

  If the given directory starts with `+`, it is taken relative to the standard library directory. For instance, `-I +labltk` adds the subdirectory `labltk` of the standard library to the search path.

  Directories can also be added to the list once the toplevel is running with the `#directory` directive (section 9.2).

`-init` *file*
: Load the given file instead of the default initialization file. The default file is `.ocamlinit` in the current directory if it exists, otherwise `.ocamlinit` in the user's home directory.

`-labels`
: Labels are not ignored in types, labels may be used in applications, and labelled parameters can be given in any order. This is the default.

`-no-app-funct`
: Deactivates the applicative behaviour of functors. With this option, each functor application generates new types in its result and applying the same functor twice to the same argument yields two incompatible structures.

`-noassert`
: Do not compile assertion checks. Note that the special form `assert false` is always compiled because it is typed specially.

`-nolabels`
: Ignore non-optional labels in types. Labels cannot be used in applications, and parameter order becomes strict.

`-noprompt`
: Do not display any prompt when waiting for input.

`-nopromptcont`
: Do not display the secondary prompt when waiting for continuation lines in multi-line inputs. This should be used e.g. when running `ocaml` in an `emacs` window.

`-nostdlib`
: Do not include the standard library directory in the list of directories searched for source and compiled files.

`-ppx` *command*
: After parsing, pipe the abstract syntax tree through the preprocessor *command*. The format of the input and ouput of the preprocessor are not yet documented.

`-principal`

Check information paths during type-checking, to make sure that all types are derived in a principal way. When using labelled arguments and/or polymorphic methods, this flag is required to ensure future versions of the compiler will be able to infer types correctly, even if internal algorithms change. All programs accepted in `-principal` mode are also accepted in the default mode with equivalent types, but different binary signatures, and this may slow down type checking; yet it is a good idea to use it once before publishing source code.

`-rectypes`

Allow arbitrary recursive types during type-checking. By default, only recursive types where the recursion goes through an object type are supported.

`-safe-string`

Enforce the separation between types `string` and `bytes`, thereby making strings read-only. This will become the default in a future version of OCaml.

`-short-paths`

When a type is visible under several module-paths, use the shortest one when printing the type's name in inferred interfaces and error and warning messages.

`-stdin`

Read the standard input as a script file rather than starting an interactive session.

`-strict-sequence`

Force the left-hand part of each sequence to have type unit.

`-strict-formats`

Reject invalid formats that were accepted in legacy format implementations. You should use this flag to detect and fix such invalid formats, as they will be rejected by future OCaml versions.

`-unsafe`

See the corresponding option for `ocamlc`, chapter 8. Turn bound checking off on array and string accesses (the `v.(i)` and `s.[i]` constructs). Programs compiled with `-unsafe` are therefore slightly faster, but unsafe: anything can happen if the program accesses an array or string outside of its bounds.

`-unsafe-string`

Identify the types `string` and `bytes`, thereby making strings writable. For reasons of backward compatibility, this is the default setting for the moment, but this will change in a future version of OCaml.

`-version`

Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`

Print short version number and exit.

`-w` *warning-list*
: Enable or disable warnings according to the argument *warning-list*. See section 8.2 for the syntax of the argument.

`-warn-error` *warning-list*
: Mark as fatal the warnings enabled by the argument *warning-list*. See section 8.2 for the syntax of the argument.

`-warn-help`
: Show the description of all available warning numbers.

`-` *file*
: Use *file* as a script file name, even when it starts with a hyphen (-).

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

Unix:
The following environment variables are also consulted:

`LC_CTYPE`
: If set to `iso_8859_1`, accented characters (from the ISO Latin-1 character set) in string and character literals are printed as is; otherwise, they are printed as decimal escape sequences (*ddd*).

`TERM`
: When printing error messages, the toplevel system attempts to underline visually the location of the error. It consults the `TERM` variable to determines the type of output terminal and look up its capabilities in the terminal database.

`HOME`
: Directory where the `.ocamlinit` file is searched.

9.2 Toplevel directives

The following directives control the toplevel behavior, load files in memory, and trace program execution.

Note: all directives start with a `#` (sharp) symbol. This `#` must be typed before the directive, and must not be confused with the `#` prompt displayed by the interactive loop. For instance, typing `#quit;;` will exit the toplevel loop, but typing `quit;;` will result in an "unbound value `quit`" error.

`#quit;;`
: Exit the toplevel loop and terminate the `ocaml` command.

`#labels` *bool*`;;`
: Ignore labels in function types if argument is `false`, or switch back to default behaviour (commuting style) if argument is `true`.

`#principal` *bool*`;;`
: If the argument is `true`, check information paths during type-checking, to make sure that all types are derived in a principal way. If the argument is `false`, do not check information paths.

`#rectypes;;`
: Allow arbitrary recursive types during type-checking. Note: once enabled, this option cannot be disabled because that would lead to unsoundness of the type system.

`#warnings "`*warning-list*`";;`
: Enable or disable warnings according to the argument.

`#warn_error "`*warning-list*`";;`
: Treat as errors the warnings enabled by the argument and as normal warnings the warnings disabled by the argument.

`#directory "`*dir-name*`";;`
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for source and compiled files.

`#remove_directory "`*dir-name*`";;`
: Remove the given directory from the list of directories searched for source and compiled files. Do nothing if the list does not contain the given directory.

`#cd "`*dir-name*`";;`
: Change the current working directory.

`#load "`*file-name*`";;`
: Load in memory a bytecode object file (`.cmo` file) or library file (`.cma` file) produced by the batch compiler `ocamlc`.

`#load_rec "`*file-name*`";;`
: Load in memory a bytecode object file (`.cmo` file) or library file (`.cma` file) produced by the batch compiler `ocamlc`. When loading an object file that depends on other modules which have not been loaded yet, the .cmo files for these modules are searched and loaded as well, recursively. The loading order is not specified.

`#use "`*file-name*`";;`
: Read, compile and execute source phrases from the given file. This is textual inclusion: phrases are processed just as if they were typed on standard input. The reading of the file stops at the first error encountered.

`#mod_use "`*file-name*`";;`
: Similar to `#use` but also wrap the code into a top-level module of the same name as capitalized file name without extensions, following semantics of the compiler.

`#install_printer` *printer-name*`;;`
: This directive registers the function named *printer-name* (a value path) as a printer for values whose types match the argument type of the function. That is, the toplevel loop will call *printer-name* when it has such a value to print.

The printing function *printer-name* should have type `Format.formatter ->`*t* `-> unit`, where *t* is the type for the values to be printed, and should output its textual representation for the value of type *t* on the given formatter, using the functions provided by the `Format` library. For backward compatibility, *printer-name* can also have type *t*`-> unit` and should then output on the standard formatter, but this usage is deprecated.

`#remove_printer` *printer-name*`;;`
: Remove the named function from the table of toplevel printers.

`#trace` *function-name*`;;`
: After executing this directive, all calls to the function named *function-name* will be "traced". That is, the argument and the result are displayed for each call, as well as the exceptions escaping out of the function, raised either by the function itself or by another function it calls. If the function is curried, each argument is printed as it is passed to the function.

`#untrace` *function-name*`;;`
: Stop tracing the given function.

`#untrace_all;;`
: Stop tracing all functions traced so far.

`#print_depth` *n*`;;`
: Limit the printing of values to a maximal depth of *n*. The parts of values whose depth exceeds *n* are printed as `...` (ellipsis).

`#print_length` *n*`;;`
: Limit the number of value nodes printed to at most *n*. Remaining parts of values are printed as `...` (ellipsis).

`#show_val` *value-path*`;;`
`#show_type` *typeconstr*`;;`
`#show_module` *module-path*`;;`
`#show_module_type` *modtype-path*`;;`
`#show_class` *class-path*`;;`
`#show_class_type` *class-path*`;;`
: Print the signature of the corresponding component.

`#show` *ident*`;;`
: Print the signatures of components with name *ident* in all the above categories.

9.3 The toplevel and the module system

Toplevel phrases can refer to identifiers defined in compilation units with the same mechanisms as for separately compiled units: either by using qualified names (`Modulename.localname`), or by using the `open` construct and unqualified names (see section 6.3).

However, before referencing another compilation unit, an implementation of that unit must be present in memory. At start-up, the toplevel system contains implementations for all the modules in the the standard library. Implementations for user modules can be entered with the `#load` directive described above. Referencing a unit for which no implementation has been provided results in the error `Reference to undefined global `...'`.

Note that entering `open` *Mod* merely accesses the compiled interface (`.cmi` file) for *Mod*, but does not load the implementation of *Mod*, and does not cause any error if no implementation of *Mod* has been loaded. The error "reference to undefined global *Mod*" will occur only when executing a value or module definition that refers to *Mod*.

9.4 Common errors

This section describes and explains the most frequently encountered error messages.

Cannot find file *filename*

The named file could not be found in the current directory, nor in the directories of the search path.

If *filename* has the format *mod*`.cmi`, this means you have referenced the compilation unit *mod*, but its compiled interface could not be found. Fix: compile *mod*`.mli` or *mod*`.ml` first, to create the compiled interface *mod*`.cmi`.

If *filename* has the format *mod*`.cmo`, this means you are trying to load with `#load` a bytecode object file that does not exist yet. Fix: compile *mod*`.ml` first.

If your program spans several directories, this error can also appear because you haven't specified the directories to look into. Fix: use the `#directory` directive to add the correct directories to the search path.

This expression has type t_1**, but is used with type** t_2

See section 8.4.

Reference to undefined global *mod*

You have neglected to load in memory an implementation for a module with `#load`. See section 9.3 above.

9.5 Building custom toplevel systems: `ocamlmktop`

The `ocamlmktop` command builds OCaml toplevels that contain user code preloaded at start-up.

The `ocamlmktop` command takes as argument a set of `.cmo` and `.cma` files, and links them with the object files that implement the OCaml toplevel. The typical use is:

```
ocamlmktop -o mytoplevel foo.cmo bar.cmo gee.cmo
```

This creates the bytecode file `mytoplevel`, containing the OCaml toplevel system, plus the code from the three `.cmo` files. This toplevel is directly executable and is started by:

```
./mytoplevel
```

This enters a regular toplevel loop, except that the code from `foo.cmo`, `bar.cmo` and `gee.cmo` is already loaded in memory, just as if you had typed:

```
#load "foo.cmo";;
#load "bar.cmo";;
#load "gee.cmo";;
```

on entrance to the toplevel. The modules `Foo`, `Bar` and `Gee` are not opened, though; you still have to do

```
open Foo;;
```

yourself, if this is what you wish.

9.6 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamlmktop`.

`-cclib` *libname*
: Pass the `-l`*libname* option to the C linker when linking in "custom runtime" mode. See the corresponding option for `ocamlc`, in chapter 8.

`-ccopt` *option*
: Pass the given option to the C compiler and linker, when linking in "custom runtime" mode. See the corresponding option for `ocamlc`, in chapter 8.

`-custom`
: Link in "custom runtime" mode. See the corresponding option for `ocamlc`, in chapter 8.

`-I` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for compiled object code files (`.cmo` and `.cma`).

`-o` *exec-file*
: Specify the name of the toplevel file produced by the linker. The default is `a.out`.

Chapter 10

The runtime system (ocamlrun)

The `ocamlrun` command executes bytecode files produced by the linking phase of the `ocamlc` command.

10.1 Overview

The `ocamlrun` command comprises three main parts: the bytecode interpreter, that actually executes bytecode files; the memory allocator and garbage collector; and a set of C functions that implement primitive operations such as input/output.

The usage for `ocamlrun` is:

`ocamlrun` *options bytecode-executable* arg_1 ... arg_n

The first non-option argument is taken to be the name of the file containing the executable bytecode. (That file is searched in the executable path as well as in the current directory.) The remaining arguments are passed to the OCaml program, in the string array `Sys.argv`. Element 0 of this array is the name of the bytecode executable file; elements 1 to n are the remaining arguments arg_1 to arg_n.

As mentioned in chapter 8, the bytecode executable files produced by the `ocamlc` command are self-executable, and manage to launch the `ocamlrun` command on themselves automatically. That is, assuming `a.out` is a bytecode executable file,

`a.out` arg_1 ... arg_n

works exactly as

`ocamlrun a.out` arg_1 ... arg_n

Notice that it is not possible to pass options to `ocamlrun` when invoking `a.out` directly.

Windows:

Under several versions of Windows, bytecode executable files are self-executable only if their name ends in `.exe`. It is recommended to always give `.exe` names to bytecode executables, e.g. compile with `ocamlc -o myprog.exe ...` rather than `ocamlc -o myprog ...`.

10.2 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamlrun`.

`-b` When the program aborts due to an uncaught exception, print a detailed "back trace" of the execution, showing where the exception was raised and which function calls were outstanding at this point. The back trace is printed only if the bytecode executable contains debugging information, i.e. was compiled and linked with the `-g` option to `ocamlc` set. This is equivalent to setting the `b` flag in the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable (see below).

`-I` *dir*
: Search the directory *dir* for dynamically-loaded libraries, in addition to the standard search path (see section 10.3).

`-p` Print the names of the primitives known to this version of `ocamlrun` and exit.

`-v` Direct the memory manager to print some progress messages on standard error. This is equivalent to setting `v=63` in the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable (see below).

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

The following environment variables are also consulted:

`CAML_LD_LIBRARY_PATH`
: Additional directories to search for dynamically-loaded libraries (see section 10.3).

`OCAMLLIB`
: The directory containing the OCaml standard library. (If `OCAMLLIB` is not set, `CAMLLIB` will be used instead.) Used to locate the `ld.conf` configuration file for dynamic loading (see section 10.3). If not set, default to the library directory specified when compiling OCaml.

`OCAMLRUNPARAM`
: Set the runtime system options and garbage collection parameters. (If `OCAMLRUNPARAM` is not set, `CAMLRUNPARAM` will be used instead.) This variable must be a sequence of parameter specifications. A parameter specification is an option letter followed by an `=` sign, a decimal number (or an hexadecimal number prefixed by `0x`), and an optional multiplier. The options are documented below; the last six correspond to the fields of the `control` record documented in section 21.11.

  b (backtrace) Trigger the printing of a stack backtrace when an uncaught exception aborts the program. This option takes no argument.

  p (parser trace) Turn on debugging support for `ocamlyacc`-generated parsers. When this option is on, the pushdown automaton that executes the parsers prints a trace of its actions. This option takes no argument.

R (randomize) Turn on randomization of all hash tables by default (see section 21.13). This option takes no argument.

h The initial size of the major heap (in words).

a (`allocation_policy`) The policy used for allocating in the OCaml heap. Possible values are 0 for the next-fit policy, and 1 for the first-fit policy. Next-fit is usually faster, but first-fit is better for avoiding fragmentation and the associated heap compactions.

s (`minor_heap_size`) Size of the minor heap. (in words)

i (`major_heap_increment`) Default size increment for the major heap. (in words)

o (`space_overhead`) The major GC speed setting.

O (`max_overhead`) The heap compaction trigger setting.

l (`stack_limit`) The limit (in words) of the stack size.

v (`verbose`) What GC messages to print to stderr. This is a sum of values selected from the following:

1 (= 0x001)
Start of major GC cycle.

2 (= 0x002)
Minor collection and major GC slice.

4 (= 0x004)
Growing and shrinking of the heap.

8 (= 0x008)
Resizing of stacks and memory manager tables.

16 (= 0x010)
Heap compaction.

32 (= 0x020)
Change of GC parameters.

64 (= 0x040)
Computation of major GC slice size.

128 (= 0x080)
Calling of finalization functions

256 (= 0x100)
Startup messages (loading the bytecode executable file, resolving shared libraries).

The multiplier is `k`, `M`, or `G`, for multiplication by 2^{10}, 2^{20}, and 2^{30} respectively. For example, on a 32-bit machine, under `bash` the command

```
export OCAMLRUNPARAM='b,s=256k,v=0x015'
```

tells a subsequent `ocamlrun` to print backtraces for uncaught exceptions, set its initial minor heap size to 1 megabyte and print a message at the start of each major GC cycle, when the heap size changes, and when compaction is triggered.

`CAMLRUNPARAM`
If `OCAMLRUNPARAM` is not found in the environment, then `CAMLRUNPARAM` will be used instead. If `CAMLRUNPARAM` is not found, then the default values will be used.

`PATH`

List of directories searched to find the bytecode executable file.

10.3 Dynamic loading of shared libraries

On platforms that support dynamic loading, `ocamlrun` can link dynamically with C shared libraries (DLLs) providing additional C primitives beyond those provided by the standard runtime system. The names for these libraries are provided at link time as described in section 19.1.4), and recorded in the bytecode executable file; `ocamlrun`, then, locates these libraries and resolves references to their primitives when the bytecode executable program starts.

The `ocamlrun` command searches shared libraries in the following directories, in the order indicated:

1. Directories specified on the `ocamlrun` command line with the `-I` option.
2. Directories specified in the `CAML_LD_LIBRARY_PATH` environment variable.
3. Directories specified at link-time via the `-dllpath` option to `ocamlc`. (These directories are recorded in the bytecode executable file.)
4. Directories specified in the file `ld.conf`. This file resides in the OCaml standard library directory, and lists directory names (one per line) to be searched. Typically, it contains only one line naming the `stublibs` subdirectory of the OCaml standard library directory. Users can add there the names of other directories containing frequently-used shared libraries; however, for consistency of installation, we recommend that shared libraries are installed directly in the system `stublibs` directory, rather than adding lines to the `ld.conf` file.
5. Default directories searched by the system dynamic loader. Under Unix, these generally include `/lib` and `/usr/lib`, plus the directories listed in the file `/etc/ld.so.conf` and the environment variable `LD_LIBRARY_PATH`. Under Windows, these include the Windows system directories, plus the directories listed in the `PATH` environment variable.

10.4 Common errors

This section describes and explains the most frequently encountered error messages.

filename`: no such file or directory`

If *filename* is the name of a self-executable bytecode file, this means that either that file does not exist, or that it failed to run the `ocamlrun` bytecode interpreter on itself. The second possibility indicates that OCaml has not been properly installed on your system.

`Cannot exec ocamlrun`

(When launching a self-executable bytecode file.) The `ocamlrun` could not be found in the executable path. Check that OCaml has been properly installed on your system.

`Cannot find the bytecode file`

The file that `ocamlrun` is trying to execute (e.g. the file given as first non-option argument to `ocamlrun`) either does not exist, or is not a valid executable bytecode file.

`Truncated bytecode file`

The file that `ocamlrun` is trying to execute is not a valid executable bytecode file. Probably it has been truncated or mangled since created. Erase and rebuild it.

`Uncaught exception`

The program being executed contains a “stray” exception. That is, it raises an exception at some point, and this exception is never caught. This causes immediate termination of the program. The name of the exception is printed, along with its string, byte sequence, and integer arguments (arguments of more complex types are not correctly printed). To locate the context of the uncaught exception, compile the program with the `-g` option and either run it again under the `ocamldebug` debugger (see chapter 16), or run it with `ocamlrun -b` or with the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable set to `b=1`.

`Out of memory`

The program being executed requires more memory than available. Either the program builds excessively large data structures; or the program contains too many nested function calls, and the stack overflows. In some cases, your program is perfectly correct, it just requires more memory than your machine provides. In other cases, the “out of memory” message reveals an error in your program: non-terminating recursive function, allocation of an excessively large array, string or byte sequence, attempts to build an infinite list or other data structure, ...

To help you diagnose this error, run your program with the `-v` option to `ocamlrun`, or with the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable set to `v=63`. If it displays lots of “`Growing stack`...” messages, this is probably a looping recursive function. If it displays lots of “`Growing heap`...” messages, with the heap size growing slowly, this is probably an attempt to construct a data structure with too many (infinitely many?) cells. If it displays few “`Growing heap`...” messages, but with a huge increment in the heap size, this is probably an attempt to build an excessively large array, string or byte sequence.

Chapter 11

Native-code compilation (ocamlopt)

This chapter describes the OCaml high-performance native-code compiler `ocamlopt`, which compiles OCaml source files to native code object files and link these object files to produce standalone executables.

The native-code compiler is only available on certain platforms. It produces code that runs faster than the bytecode produced by `ocamlc`, at the cost of increased compilation time and executable code size. Compatibility with the bytecode compiler is extremely high: the same source code should run identically when compiled with `ocamlc` and `ocamlopt`.

It is not possible to mix native-code object files produced by `ocamlopt` with bytecode object files produced by `ocamlc`: a program must be compiled entirely with `ocamlopt` or entirely with `ocamlc`. Native-code object files produced by `ocamlopt` cannot be loaded in the toplevel system `ocaml`.

11.1 Overview of the compiler

The `ocamlopt` command has a command-line interface very close to that of `ocamlc`. It accepts the same types of arguments, and processes them sequentially:

- Arguments ending in `.mli` are taken to be source files for compilation unit interfaces. Interfaces specify the names exported by compilation units: they declare value names with their types, define public data types, declare abstract data types, and so on. From the file *x*`.mli`, the `ocamlopt` compiler produces a compiled interface in the file *x*`.cmi`. The interface produced is identical to that produced by the bytecode compiler `ocamlc`.

- Arguments ending in `.ml` are taken to be source files for compilation unit implementations. Implementations provide definitions for the names exported by the unit, and also contain expressions to be evaluated for their side-effects. From the file *x*`.ml`, the `ocamlopt` compiler produces two files: *x*`.o`, containing native object code, and *x*`.cmx`, containing extra information for linking and optimization of the clients of the unit. The compiled implementation should always be referred to under the name *x*`.cmx` (when given a `.o` or `.obj` file, `ocamlopt` assumes that it contains code compiled from C, not from OCaml).

  The implementation is checked against the interface file *x*`.mli` (if it exists) as described in the manual for `ocamlc` (chapter 8).

- Arguments ending in `.cmx` are taken to be compiled object code. These files are linked together, along with the object files obtained by compiling `.ml` arguments (if any), and the OCaml standard library, to produce a native-code executable program. The order in which `.cmx` and `.ml` arguments are presented on the command line is relevant: compilation units are initialized in that order at run-time, and it is a link-time error to use a component of a unit before having initialized it. Hence, a given *x*`.cmx` file must come before all `.cmx` files that refer to the unit *x*.
- Arguments ending in `.cmxa` are taken to be libraries of object code. Such a library packs in two files (*lib*`.cmxa` and *lib*`.a`/`.lib`) a set of object files (`.cmx` and `.o`/`.obj` files). Libraries are build with `ocamlopt -a` (see the description of the `-a` option below). The object files contained in the library are linked as regular `.cmx` files (see above), in the order specified when the library was built. The only difference is that if an object file contained in a library is not referenced anywhere in the program, then it is not linked in.
- Arguments ending in `.c` are passed to the C compiler, which generates a `.o`/`.obj` object file. This object file is linked with the program.
- Arguments ending in `.o`, `.a` or `.so` (`.obj`, `.lib` and `.dll` under Windows) are assumed to be C object files and libraries. They are linked with the program.

The output of the linking phase is a regular Unix or Windows executable file. It does not need `ocamlrun` to run.

11.2 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamlopt`. The options `-pack`, `-a`, `-shared`, `-c` and `-output-obj` are mutually exclusive.

`-a` Build a library (`.cmxa` and `.a`/`.lib` files) with the object files (`.cmx` and `.o`/`.obj` files) given on the command line, instead of linking them into an executable file. The name of the library must be set with the `-o` option.

If `-cclib` or `-ccopt` options are passed on the command line, these options are stored in the resulting `.cmxa` library. Then, linking with this library automatically adds back the `-cclib` and `-ccopt` options as if they had been provided on the command line, unless the `-noautolink` option is given.

`-absname`

Force error messages to show absolute paths for file names.

`-annot`

Dump detailed information about the compilation (types, bindings, tail-calls, etc). The information for file *src*`.ml` is put into file *src*`.annot`. In case of a type error, dump all the information inferred by the type-checker before the error. The *src*`.annot` file can be used with the emacs commands given in `emacs/caml-types.el` to display types and other annotations interactively.

`-bin-annot`
: Dump detailed information about the compilation (types, bindings, tail-calls, etc) in binary format. The information for file *src*`.ml` is put into file *src*`.cmt`. In case of a type error, dump all the information inferred by the type-checker before the error. The `*.cmt` files produced by `-bin-annot` contain more information and are much more compact than the files produced by `-annot`.

`-c`
: Compile only. Suppress the linking phase of the compilation. Source code files are turned into compiled files, but no executable file is produced. This option is useful to compile modules separately.

`-cc` *ccomp*
: Use *ccomp* as the C linker called to build the final executable and as the C compiler for compiling `.c` source files.

`-cclib -l`*libname*
: Pass the `-l`*libname* option to the linker. This causes the given C library to be linked with the program.

`-ccopt` *option*
: Pass the given option to the C compiler and linker. For instance, `-ccopt -L`*dir* causes the C linker to search for C libraries in directory *dir*.

`-compact`
: Optimize the produced code for space rather than for time. This results in slightly smaller but slightly slower programs. The default is to optimize for speed.

`-config`
: Print the version number of `ocamlopt` and a detailed summary of its configuration, then exit.

`-for-pack` *module-path*
: Generate an object file (`.cmx` and `.o`/`.obj` files) that can later be included as a sub-module (with the given access path) of a compilation unit constructed with `-pack`. For instance, `ocamlopt -for-pack P -c A.ml` will generate `a.cmx` and `a.o` files that can later be used with `ocamlopt -pack -o P.cmx a.cmx`.

`-g`
: Add debugging information while compiling and linking. This option is required in order to produce stack backtraces when the program terminates on an uncaught exception (see section 10.2).

`-i`
: Cause the compiler to print all defined names (with their inferred types or their definitions) when compiling an implementation (`.ml` file). No compiled files (`.cmo` and `.cmi` files) are produced. This can be useful to check the types inferred by the compiler. Also, since the output follows the syntax of interfaces, it can help in writing an explicit interface (`.mli` file) for a file: just redirect the standard output of the compiler to a `.mli` file, and edit that file to remove all declarations of unexported names.

`-I` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for compiled interface files (`.cmi`),

compiled object code files (`.cmx`), and libraries (`.cmxa`). By default, the current directory is searched first, then the standard library directory. Directories added with `-I` are searched after the current directory, in the order in which they were given on the command line, but before the standard library directory. See also option `-nostdlib`.

If the given directory starts with `+`, it is taken relative to the standard library directory. For instance, `-I +labltk` adds the subdirectory `labltk` of the standard library to the search path.

`-impl` *filename*
: Compile the file *filename* as an implementation file, even if its extension is not `.ml`.

`-inline` *n*
: Set aggressiveness of inlining to *n*, where *n* is a positive integer. Specifying `-inline 0` prevents all functions from being inlined, except those whose body is smaller than the call site. Thus, inlining causes no expansion in code size. The default aggressiveness, `-inline 1`, allows slightly larger functions to be inlined, resulting in a slight expansion in code size. Higher values for the `-inline` option cause larger and larger functions to become candidate for inlining, but can result in a serious increase in code size.

`-intf` *filename*
: Compile the file *filename* as an interface file, even if its extension is not `.mli`.

`-intf-suffix` *string*
: Recognize file names ending with *string* as interface files (instead of the default `.mli`).

`-labels`
: Labels are not ignored in types, labels may be used in applications, and labelled parameters can be given in any order. This is the default.

`-linkall`
: Force all modules contained in libraries to be linked in. If this flag is not given, unreferenced modules are not linked in. When building a library (`-a` flag), setting the `-linkall` flag forces all subsequent links of programs involving that library to link all the modules contained in the library.

`-no-app-funct`
: Deactivates the applicative behaviour of functors. With this option, each functor application generates new types in its result and applying the same functor twice to the same argument yields two incompatible structures.

`-noassert`
: Do not compile assertion checks. Note that the special form `assert false` is always compiled because it is typed specially. This flag has no effect when linking already-compiled files.

`-noautolink`
: When linking `.cmxa` libraries, ignore `-cclib` and `-ccopt` options potentially contained in the libraries (if these options were given when building the libraries). This can be useful if a library contains incorrect specifications of C libraries or C options; in this case, during linking, set `-noautolink` and pass the correct C libraries and options on the command line.

`-nodynlink`
: Allow the compiler to use some optimizations that are valid only for code that is never dynlinked.

`-nolabels`
: Ignore non-optional labels in types. Labels cannot be used in applications, and parameter order becomes strict.

`-nostdlib`
: Do not automatically add the standard library directory the list of directories searched for compiled interface files (`.cmi`), compiled object code files (`.cmx`), and libraries (`.cmxa`). See also option `-I`.

`-o` *exec-file*
: Specify the name of the output file produced by the linker. The default output name is `a.out` under Unix and `camlprog.exe` under Windows. If the `-a` option is given, specify the name of the library produced. If the `-pack` option is given, specify the name of the packed object file produced. If the `-output-obj` option is given, specify the name of the output file produced. If the `-shared` option is given, specify the name of plugin file produced.

`-output-obj`
: Cause the linker to produce a C object file instead of an executable file. This is useful to wrap OCaml code as a C library, callable from any C program. See chapter 19, section 19.7.5. The name of the output object file must be set with the `-o` option. This option can also be used to produce a compiled shared/dynamic library (`.so` extension, `.dll` under Windows).

`-p`
: Generate extra code to write profile information when the program is executed. The profile information can then be examined with the analysis program `gprof`. (See chapter 17 for more information on profiling.) The `-p` option must be given both at compile-time and at link-time. Linking object files not compiled with `-p` is possible, but results in less precise profiling.

Unix:

See the Unix manual page for `gprof(1)` for more information about the profiles.

Full support for `gprof` is only available for certain platforms (currently: Intel x86 32 and 64 bits under Linux, BSD and MacOS X). On other platforms, the `-p` option will result in a less precise profile (no call graph information, only a time profile).

Windows:

The `-p` option does not work under Windows.

`-pack`
: Build an object file (`.cmx` and `.o`/`.obj` files) and its associated compiled interface (`.cmi`)

that combines the `.cmx` object files given on the command line, making them appear as sub-modules of the output `.cmx` file. The name of the output `.cmx` file must be given with the `-o` option. For instance,

```
ocamlopt -pack -o P.cmx A.cmx B.cmx C.cmx
```

generates compiled files `P.cmx`, `P.o` and `P.cmi` describing a compilation unit having three sub-modules `A`, `B` and `C`, corresponding to the contents of the object files `A.cmx`, `B.cmx` and `C.cmx`. These contents can be referenced as `P.A`, `P.B` and `P.C` in the remainder of the program.

The `.cmx` object files being combined must have been compiled with the appropriate `-for-pack` option. In the example above, `A.cmx`, `B.cmx` and `C.cmx` must have been compiled with `ocamlopt -for-pack P`.

Multiple levels of packing can be achieved by combining `-pack` with `-for-pack`. Consider the following example:

```
ocamlopt -for-pack P.Q -c A.ml
ocamlopt -pack -o Q.cmx -for-pack P A.cmx
ocamlopt -for-pack P -c B.ml
ocamlopt -pack -o P.cmx Q.cmx B.cmx
```

The resulting `P.cmx` object file has sub-modules `P.Q`, `P.Q.A` and `P.B`.

`-pp` *command*
: Cause the compiler to call the given *command* as a preprocessor for each source file. The output of *command* is redirected to an intermediate file, which is compiled. If there are no compilation errors, the intermediate file is deleted afterwards.

`-ppx` *command*
: After parsing, pipe the abstract syntax tree through the preprocessor *command*. The format of the input and ouput of the preprocessor are not yet documented.

`-principal`
: Check information path during type-checking, to make sure that all types are derived in a principal way. All programs accepted in `-principal` mode are also accepted in default mode with equivalent types, but different binary signatures.

`-rectypes`
: Allow arbitrary recursive types during type-checking. By default, only recursive types where the recursion goes through an object type are supported. Note that once you have created an interface using this flag, you must use it again for all dependencies.

`-runtime-variant` *suffix*
: Add the *suffix* string to the name of the runtime library used by the program. Currently, only one such suffix is supported: `d`, and only if the OCaml compiler was configured with option `-with-debug-runtime`. This suffix gives the debug version of the runtime, which is useful for debugging pointer problems in low-level code such as C stubs.

`-S` Keep the assembly code produced during the compilation. The assembly code for the source file *x*`.ml` is saved in the file *x*`.s`.

`-shared`
Build a plugin (usually `.cmxs`) that can be dynamically loaded with the `Dynlink` module. The name of the plugin must be set with the `-o` option. A plugin can include a number of OCaml modules and libraries, and extra native objects (`.o`, `.obj`, `.a`, `.lib` files). Building native plugins is only supported for some operating system. Under some systems (currently, only Linux AMD 64), all the OCaml code linked in a plugin must have been compiled without the `-nodynlink` flag. Some constraints might also apply to the way the extra native objects have been compiled (under Linux AMD 64, they must contain only position-independent code).

`-safe-string`
Enforce the separation between types `string` and `bytes`, thereby making strings read-only. This will become the default in a future version of OCaml.

`-short-paths`
When a type is visible under several module-paths, use the shortest one when printing the type's name in inferred interfaces and error and warning messages.

`-strict-sequence`
Force the left-hand part of each sequence to have type unit.

`-strict-formats`
Reject invalid formats that were accepted in legacy format implementations. You should use this flag to detect and fix such invalid formats, as they will be rejected by future OCaml versions.

`-thread`
Compile or link multithreaded programs, in combination with the system `threads` library described in chapter 25.

`-unsafe`
Turn bound checking off for array and string accesses (the `v.(i)` and `s.[i]` constructs). Programs compiled with `-unsafe` are therefore faster, but unsafe: anything can happen if the program accesses an array or string outside of its bounds. Additionally, turn off the check for zero divisor in integer division and modulus operations. With `-unsafe`, an integer division (or modulus) by zero can halt the program or continue with an unspecified result instead of raising a `Division_by_zero` exception.

`-unsafe-string`
Identify the types `string` and `bytes`, thereby making strings writable. For reasons of backward compatibility, this is the default setting for the moment, but this will change in a future version of OCaml.

`-v` Print the version number of the compiler and the location of the standard library directory, then exit.

`-verbose`
Print all external commands before they are executed, in particular invocations of the assembler, C compiler, and linker.

`-version` or `-vnum`
Print the version number of the compiler in short form (e.g. `3.11.0`), then exit.

`-w` *warning-list*
Enable, disable, or mark as fatal the warnings specified by the argument *warning-list*. Each warning can be *enabled* or *disabled*, and each warning can be *fatal* or *non-fatal*. If a warning is disabled, it isn't displayed and doesn't affect compilation in any way (even if it is fatal). If a warning is enabled, it is displayed normally by the compiler whenever the source code triggers it. If it is enabled and fatal, the compiler will also stop with an error after displaying it.

The *warning-list* argument is a sequence of warning specifiers, with no separators between them. A warning specifier is one of the following:

`+`*num*
Enable warning number *num*.

`-`*num*
Disable warning number *num*.

`@`*num*
Enable and mark as fatal warning number *num*.

`+`*num1*`..`*num2*
Enable warnings in the given range.

`-`*num1*`..`*num2*
Disable warnings in the given range.

`@`*num1*`..`*num2*
Enable and mark as fatal warnings in the given range.

`+`*letter*
Enable the set of warnings corresponding to *letter*. The letter may be uppercase or lowercase.

`-`*letter*
Disable the set of warnings corresponding to *letter*. The letter may be uppercase or lowercase.

`@`*letter*
Enable and mark as fatal the set of warnings corresponding to *letter*. The letter may be uppercase or lowercase.

uppercase-letter
Enable the set of warnings corresponding to *uppercase-letter*.

lowercase-letter
Disable the set of warnings corresponding to *lowercase-letter*.

Warning numbers and letters which are out of the range of warnings that are currently defined are ignored. The warning are as follows.

1 Suspicious-looking start-of-comment mark.

2 Suspicious-looking end-of-comment mark.

3 Deprecated feature.

4 Fragile pattern matching: matching that will remain complete even if additional constructors are added to one of the variant types matched.

5 Partially applied function: expression whose result has function type and is ignored.

6 Label omitted in function application.

7 Method overridden.

8 Partial match: missing cases in pattern-matching.

9 Missing fields in a record pattern.

10 Expression on the left-hand side of a sequence that doesn't have type `unit` (and that is not a function, see warning number 5).

11 Redundant case in a pattern matching (unused match case).

12 Redundant sub-pattern in a pattern-matching.

13 Instance variable overridden.

14 Illegal backslash escape in a string constant.

15 Private method made public implicitly.

16 Unerasable optional argument.

17 Undeclared virtual method.

18 Non-principal type.

19 Type without principality.

20 Unused function argument.

21 Non-returning statement.

22 Proprocessor warning.

23 Useless record `with` clause.

24 Bad module name: the source file name is not a valid OCaml module name.

25 Pattern-matching with all clauses guarded. Exhaustiveness cannot be checked.

26 Suspicious unused variable: unused variable that is bound with `let` or `as`, and doesn't start with an underscore (`_`) character.

27 Innocuous unused variable: unused variable that is not bound with `let` nor `as`, and doesn't start with an underscore (`_`) character.

28 Wildcard pattern given as argument to a constant constructor.

29 Unescaped end-of-line in a string constant (non-portable code).

30 Two labels or constructors of the same name are defined in two mutually recursive types.

31 A module is linked twice in the same executable.

32 Unused value declaration.

33 Unused open statement.

34 Unused type declaration.

35 Unused for-loop index.

36 Unused ancestor variable.

37 Unused constructor.

38 Unused extension constructor.

39 Unused rec flag.

40 Constructor or label name used out of scope.

41 Ambiguous constructor or label name.

42 Disambiguated constructor or label name.

43 Nonoptional label applied as optional.

44 Open statement shadows an already defined identifier.

45 Open statement shadows an already defined label or constructor.

46 Illegal environment variable.

47 Illegal attribute payload.

48 Implicit elimination of optional arguments.

49 Absent cmi file when looking up module alias.

A All warnings.

C Set of warnings 1, 2.

D Synonym for warning 3.

E Synonym for warning 4.

F Synonym for warning 5.

K Set of warnings 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39.

L Synonym for warning 6.

M Synonym for warning 7.

P Synonym for warning 8.

R Synonym for warning 9.

S Synonym for warning 10.

U Set of warnings 11, 12.

V Synonym for warning 13.

X Set of warnings 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 30.

Y Synonym for warning 26.

Z Synonym for warning 27.

The default setting is `-w +a-4-6-7-9-27-29-32..39-41..42-44-45`. It is displayed by `ocamlopt -help`. Note that warnings 5 and 10 are not always triggered, depending on the internals of the type checker.

`-warn-error` *warning-list*
: Mark as fatal the warnings specified in the argument *warning-list*. The compiler will stop with an error when one of these warnings is emitted. The *warning-list* has the same meaning as for the `-w` option: a `+` sign (or an uppercase letter) marks the corresponding warnings as fatal, a `-` sign (or a lowercase letter) turns them back into non-fatal warnings, and a `@` sign both enables and marks as fatal the corresponding warnings.

  Note: it is not recommended to use warning sets (i.e. letters) as arguments to `-warn-error` in production code, because this can break your build when future versions of OCaml add some new warnings.

  The default setting is `-warn-error -a` (all warnings are non-fatal).

`-warn-help`
: Show the description of all available warning numbers.

`-where`
: Print the location of the standard library, then exit.

`-` *file*
: Process *file* as a file name, even if it starts with a dash (-) character.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

Options for the IA32 architecture The IA32 code generator (Intel Pentium, AMD Athlon) supports the following additional option:

`-ffast-math`
: Use the IA32 instructions to compute trigonometric and exponential functions, instead of calling the corresponding library routines. The functions affected are: `atan`, `atan2`, `cos`, `log`, `log10`, `sin`, `sqrt` and `tan`. The resulting code runs faster, but the range of supported arguments and the precision of the result can be reduced. In particular, trigonometric operations `cos`, `sin`, `tan` have their range reduced to $[-2^{64}, 2^{64}]$.

Options for the AMD64 architecture The AMD64 code generator (64-bit versions of Intel Pentium and AMD Athlon) supports the following additional options:

`-fPIC`
: Generate position-independent machine code. This is the default.

`-fno-PIC`
: Generate position-dependent machine code.

Options for the Sparc architecture The Sparc code generator supports the following additional options:

`-march=v8`
: Generate SPARC version 8 code.

`-march=v9`
: Generate SPARC version 9 code.

The default is to generate code for SPARC version 7, which runs on all SPARC processors.

11.3 Common errors

The error messages are almost identical to those of `ocamlc`. See section 8.4.

11.4 Running executables produced by ocamlopt

Executables generated by `ocamlopt` are native, stand-alone executable files that can be invoked directly. They do not depend on the `ocamlrun` bytecode runtime system nor on dynamically-loaded C/OCaml stub libraries.

During execution of an `ocamlopt`-generated executable, the following environment variables are also consulted:

`OCAMLRUNPARAM`
: Same usage as in `ocamlrun` (see section 10.2), except that option `l` is ignored (the operating system's stack size limit is used instead).

`CAMLRUNPARAM`
: If `OCAMLRUNPARAM` is not found in the environment, then `CAMLRUNPARAM` will be used instead. If `CAMLRUNPARAM` is not found, then the default values will be used.

11.5 Compatibility with the bytecode compiler

This section lists the known incompatibilities between the bytecode compiler and the native-code compiler. Except on those points, the two compilers should generate code that behave identically.

- Signals are detected only when the program performs an allocation in the heap. That is, if a signal is delivered while in a piece of code that does not allocate, its handler will not be called until the next heap allocation.
- Stack overflow, typically caused by excessively deep recursion, is handled in one of the following ways, depending on the platform used:
  - By raising a `Stack_overflow` exception, like the bytecode compiler does. (IA32/Linux, AMD64/Linux, PowerPC/MacOSX, MS Windows 32-bit ports).
  - By aborting the program on a "segmentation fault" signal. (All other Unix systems.)

  - By terminating the program silently. (MS Windows 64 bits).

- On IA32 processors only (Intel and AMD x86 processors in 32-bit mode), some intermediate results in floating-point computations are kept in extended precision rather than being rounded to double precision like the bytecode compiler always does. Floating-point results can therefore differ slightly between bytecode and native code.

Chapter 12

Lexer and parser generators (ocamllex, ocamlyacc)

This chapter describes two program generators: `ocamllex`, that produces a lexical analyzer from a set of regular expressions with associated semantic actions, and `ocamlyacc`, that produces a parser from a grammar with associated semantic actions.

These program generators are very close to the well-known `lex` and `yacc` commands that can be found in most C programming environments. This chapter assumes a working knowledge of `lex` and `yacc`: while it describes the input syntax for `ocamllex` and `ocamlyacc` and the main differences with `lex` and `yacc`, it does not explain the basics of writing a lexer or parser description in `lex` and `yacc`. Readers unfamiliar with `lex` and `yacc` are referred to "Compilers: principles, techniques, and tools" by Aho, Sethi and Ullman (Addison-Wesley, 1986), or "Lex & Yacc", by Levine, Mason and Brown (O'Reilly, 1992).

12.1 Overview of `ocamllex`

The `ocamllex` command produces a lexical analyzer from a set of regular expressions with attached semantic actions, in the style of `lex`. Assuming the input file is *lexer*`.mll`, executing

    ocamllex lexer.mll

produces OCaml code for a lexical analyzer in file *lexer*`.ml`. This file defines one lexing function per entry point in the lexer definition. These functions have the same names as the entry points. Lexing functions take as argument a lexer buffer, and return the semantic attribute of the corresponding entry point.

Lexer buffers are an abstract data type implemented in the standard library module `Lexing`. The functions `Lexing.from_channel`, `Lexing.from_string` and `Lexing.from_function` create lexer buffers that read from an input channel, a character string, or any reading function, respectively. (See the description of module `Lexing` in chapter 21.)

When used in conjunction with a parser generated by `ocamlyacc`, the semantic actions compute a value belonging to the type `token` defined by the generated parsing module. (See the description of `ocamlyacc` below.)

12.1.1 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamllex`.

`-ml` Output code that does not use OCaml's built-in automata interpreter. Instead, the automaton is encoded by OCaml functions. This option mainly is useful for debugging `ocamllex`, using it for production lexers is not recommended.

`-o` *output-file*
: Specify the name of the output file produced by `ocamllex`. The default is the input file name with its extension replaced by `.ml`.

`-q` Quiet mode. `ocamllex` normally outputs informational messages to standard output. They are suppressed if option `-q` is used.

`-v` **or** `-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

12.2 Syntax of lexer definitions

The format of lexer definitions is as follows:

```
{ header }
let ident = regexp ...
[refill { refill-handler }]
rule entrypoint [arg1... argn] =
  parse regexp { action }
      | ...
      | regexp { action }
and entrypoint [arg1... argn] =
  parse ...
and ...
{ trailer }
```

Comments are delimited by `(*` and `*)`, as in OCaml. The `parse` keyword, can be replaced by the `shortest` keyword, with the semantic consequences explained below.

Refill handlers are a recent (optional) feature introduced in 4.02, documented below in subsection 12.2.7.

12.2.1 Header and trailer

The *header* and *trailer* sections are arbitrary OCaml text enclosed in curly braces. Either or both can be omitted. If present, the header text is copied as is at the beginning of the output file and the trailer text at the end. Typically, the header section contains the `open` directives required by the actions, and possibly some auxiliary functions used in the actions.

12.2.2 Naming regular expressions

Between the header and the entry points, one can give names to frequently-occurring regular expressions. This is written `let` *ident* `=` *regexp*. In regular expressions that follow this declaration, the identifier *ident* can be used as shorthand for *regexp*.

12.2.3 Entry points

The names of the entry points must be valid identifiers for OCaml values (starting with a lowercase letter). Similarily, the arguments $arg_1 \ldots \quad arg_n$ must be valid identifiers for OCaml. Each entry point becomes an OCaml function that takes $n + 1$ arguments, the extra implicit last argument being of type `Lexing.lexbuf`. Characters are read from the `Lexing.lexbuf` argument and matched against the regular expressions provided in the rule, until a prefix of the input matches one of the rule. The corresponding action is then evaluated and returned as the result of the function.

If several regular expressions match a prefix of the input, the "longest match" rule applies: the regular expression that matches the longest prefix of the input is selected. In case of tie, the regular expression that occurs earlier in the rule is selected.

However, if lexer rules are introduced with the `shortest` keyword in place of the `parse` keyword, then the "shortest match" rule applies: the shortest prefix of the input is selected. In case of tie, the regular expression that occurs earlier in the rule is still selected. This feature is not intended for use in ordinary lexical analyzers, it may facilitate the use of `ocamllex` as a simple text processing tool.

12.2.4 Regular expressions

The regular expressions are in the style of `lex`, with a more OCaml-like syntax.

regexp ::= ...

`'` *regular-char* | *escape-sequence* `'`
: A character constant, with the same syntax as OCaml character constants. Match the denoted character.

`_`
: (underscore) Match any character.

`eof`
: Match the end of the lexer input.
Note: On some systems, with interactive input, an end-of-file may be followed by more characters. However, `ocamllex` will not correctly handle regular expressions that contain `eof` followed by something else.

`"` {*string-character*} `"`
: A string constant, with the same syntax as OCaml string constants. Match the corresponding sequence of characters.

`[` *character-set* `]`
: Match any single character belonging to the given character set. Valid character sets are: single character constants `'`*c*`'`; ranges of characters `'`c_1`'` `-` `'`c_2`'` (all characters between c_1 and c_2, inclusive); and the union of two or more character sets, denoted by concatenation.

`[` `^` *character-set* `]`
: Match any single character not belonging to the given character set.

regexp$_1$ `#` *regexp*$_2$
: (difference of character sets) Regular expressions *regexp*$_1$ and *regexp*$_2$ must be character sets defined with `[...]` (or a a single character expression or underscore `_`). Match the difference of the two specified character sets.

regexp `*`
: (repetition) Match the concatenation of zero or more strings that match *regexp*.

regexp `+`
: (strict repetition) Match the concatenation of one or more strings that match *regexp*.

regexp `?`
: (option) Match the empty string, or a string matching *regexp*.

regexp$_1$ `|` *regexp*$_2$
: (alternative) Match any string that matches *regexp*$_1$ or *regexp*$_2$

regexp$_1$ *regexp*$_2$
: (concatenation) Match the concatenation of two strings, the first matching *regexp*$_1$, the second matching *regexp*$_2$.

`(` *regexp* `)`
: Match the same strings as *regexp*.

ident
: Reference the regular expression bound to *ident* by an earlier `let` *ident* `=` *regexp* definition.

regexp `as` *ident*
: Bind the substring matched by *regexp* to identifier *ident*.

Concerning the precedences of operators, `#` has the highest precedence, followed by `*`, `+` and `?`, then concatenation, then `|` (alternation), then `as`.

12.2.5 Actions

The actions are arbitrary OCaml expressions. They are evaluated in a context where the identifiers defined by using the `as` construct are bound to subparts of the matched string. Additionally, `lexbuf` is bound to the current lexer buffer. Some typical uses for `lexbuf`, in conjunction with the operations on lexer buffers provided by the `Lexing` standard library module, are listed below.

`Lexing.lexeme lexbuf`
: Return the matched string.

`Lexing.lexeme_char lexbuf` *n*
: Return the n^{th} character in the matched string. The first character corresponds to $n = 0$.

`Lexing.lexeme_start lexbuf`
: Return the absolute position in the input text of the beginning of the matched string (i.e. the offset of the first character of the matched string). The first character read from the input text has offset 0.

`Lexing.lexeme_end lexbuf`
: Return the absolute position in the input text of the end of the matched string (i.e. the offset of the first character after the matched string). The first character read from the input text has offset 0.

entrypoint [exp_1`...` exp_n] `lexbuf`
: (Where *entrypoint* is the name of another entry point in the same lexer definition.) Recursively call the lexer on the given entry point. Notice that `lexbuf` is the last argument. Useful for lexing nested comments, for example.

12.2.6 Variables in regular expressions

The `as` construct is similar to "*groups*" as provided by numerous regular expression packages. The type of these variables can be `string`, `char`, `string option` or `char option`.

We first consider the case of linear patterns, that is the case when all `as` bound variables are distinct. In *regexp* `as` *ident*, the type of *ident* normally is `string` (or `string option`) except when *regexp* is a character constant, an underscore, a string constant of length one, a character set specification, or an alternation of those. Then, the type of *ident* is `char` (or `char option`). Option types are introduced when overall rule matching does not imply matching of the bound sub-pattern. This is in particular the case of `(` *regexp* `as` *ident* `) ?` and of $regexp_1$ `| (` $regexp_2$ `as` *ident* `)`.

There is no linearity restriction over `as` bound variables. When a variable is bound more than once, the previous rules are to be extended as follows:

- A variable is a `char` variable when all its occurrences bind `char` occurrences in the previous sense.
- A variable is an `option` variable when the overall expression can be matched without binding this variable.

For instance, in `('a' as x) | ( 'a' (_ as x) )` the variable `x` is of type `char`, whereas in `("ab" as x) | ( 'a' (_ as x) ? )` the variable `x` is of type `string option`.

In some cases, a successful match may not yield a unique set of bindings. For instance the matching of `aba` by the regular expression `(('a'|"ab") as x) (("ba"|'a') as y)` may result in binding either `x` to `"ab"` and `y` to `"a"`, or `x` to `"a"` and `y` to `"ba"`. The automata produced `ocamllex` on such ambiguous regular expressions will select one of the possible resulting sets of bindings. The selected set of bindings is purposely left unspecified.

12.2.7 Refill handlers

By default, when ocamllex reaches the end of its lexing buffer, it will silently call the `refill_buff` function of `lexbuf` structure and continue lexing. It is sometimes useful to be able to take control of refilling action; typically, if you use a library for asynchronous computation, you may want to wrap the refilling action in a delaying function to avoid blocking synchronous operations.

Since OCaml 4.02, it is possible to specify a *refill-handler*, a function that will be called when refill happens. It is passed the continuation of the lexing, on which it has total control. The OCaml expression used as refill action should have a type that is an instance of

```
(Lexing.lexbuf -> 'a) -> Lexing.lexbuf -> 'a
```

where the first argument is the continuation which captures the processing ocamllex would usually perform (refilling the buffer, then calling the lexing function again), and the result type that instantiates ['a] should unify with the result type of all lexing rules.

As an example, consider the following lexer that is parametrized over an arbitrary monad:

```
{
type token = EOL | INT of int | PLUS

module Make (M : sig
               type 'a t
               val return: 'a -> 'a t
               val bind: 'a t -> ('a -> 'b t) -> 'b t
               val fail : string -> 'a t

               (* Set up lexbuf *)
               val on_refill : Lexing.lexbuf -> unit t
             end)
= struct

let refill_handler k lexbuf arg =
    M.bind (M.on_refill lexbuf) (fun () -> k lexbuf arg)

}

refill {refill_handler}

rule token = parse
| [' ' '\t']
    { token lexbuf }
| '\n'
    { M.return EOL }
| ['0'-'9']+ as i
    { M.return (INT (int_of_string i)) }
| '+'
    { M.return PLUS }
```

```
| _
    { M.fail "unexpected character" }
{
end
}
```

12.2.8 Reserved identifiers

All identifiers starting with `__ocaml_lex` are reserved for use by `ocamllex`; do not use any such identifier in your programs.

12.3 Overview of `ocamlyacc`

The `ocamlyacc` command produces a parser from a context-free grammar specification with attached semantic actions, in the style of `yacc`. Assuming the input file is *grammar*`.mly`, executing

`ocamlyacc` *options* *grammar*`.mly`

produces OCaml code for a parser in the file *grammar*`.ml`, and its interface in file *grammar*`.mli`.

The generated module defines one parsing function per entry point in the grammar. These functions have the same names as the entry points. Parsing functions take as arguments a lexical analyzer (a function from lexer buffers to tokens) and a lexer buffer, and return the semantic attribute of the corresponding entry point. Lexical analyzer functions are usually generated from a lexer specification by the `ocamllex` program. Lexer buffers are an abstract data type implemented in the standard library module `Lexing`. Tokens are values from the concrete type `token`, defined in the interface file *grammar*`.mli` produced by `ocamlyacc`.

12.4 Syntax of grammar definitions

Grammar definitions have the following format:

```
%{
  header
%}
  declarations
%%
  rules
%%
  trailer
```

Comments are enclosed between `/*` and `*/` (as in C) in the "declarations" and "rules" sections, and between `(*` and `*)` (as in OCaml) in the "header" and "trailer" sections.

12.4.1 Header and trailer

The header and the trailer sections are OCaml code that is copied as is into file *grammar*`.ml`. Both sections are optional. The header goes at the beginning of the output file; it usually contains `open` directives and auxiliary functions required by the semantic actions of the rules. The trailer goes at the end of the output file.

12.4.2 Declarations

Declarations are given one per line. They all start with a `%` sign.

`%token` *constr ... constr*

Declare the given symbols *constr ... constr* as tokens (terminal symbols). These symbols are added as constant constructors for the `token` concrete type.

`%token <` *typexpr* `>` *constr ... constr*

Declare the given symbols *constr ... constr* as tokens with an attached attribute of the given type. These symbols are added as constructors with arguments of the given type for the `token` concrete type. The *typexpr* part is an arbitrary OCaml type expression, except that all type constructor names must be fully qualified (e.g. `Modname.typename`) for all types except standard built-in types, even if the proper `open` directives (e.g. `open Modname`) were given in the header section. That's because the header is copied only to the `.ml` output file, but not to the `.mli` output file, while the *typexpr* part of a `%token` declaration is copied to both.

`%start` *symbol ... symbol*

Declare the given symbols as entry points for the grammar. For each entry point, a parsing function with the same name is defined in the output module. Non-terminals that are not declared as entry points have no such parsing function. Start symbols must be given a type with the `%type` directive below.

`%type <` *typexpr* `>` *symbol ... symbol*

Specify the type of the semantic attributes for the given symbols. This is mandatory for start symbols only. Other nonterminal symbols need not be given types by hand: these types will be inferred when running the output files through the OCaml compiler (unless the `-s` option is in effect). The *typexpr* part is an arbitrary OCaml type expression, except that all type constructor names must be fully qualified, as explained above for `%token`.

`%left` *symbol ... symbol*

`%right` *symbol ... symbol*

`%nonassoc` *symbol ... symbol*

Associate precedences and associativities to the given symbols. All symbols on the same line are given the same precedence. They have higher precedence than symbols declared before in a `%left`, `%right` or `%nonassoc` line. They have lower precedence than symbols declared after in a `%left`, `%right` or `%nonassoc` line. The symbols are declared to associate to the left (`%left`), to the right (`%right`), or to be non-associative (`%nonassoc`). The symbols are usually tokens. They can also be dummy nonterminals, for use with the `%prec` directive inside the rules.

The precedence declarations are used in the following way to resolve reduce/reduce and shift/reduce conflicts:

- Tokens and rules have precedences. By default, the precedence of a rule is the precedence of its rightmost terminal. You can override this default by using the `%prec` directive in the rule.
- A reduce/reduce conflict is resolved in favor of the first rule (in the order given by the source file), and `ocamlyacc` outputs a warning.
- A shift/reduce conflict is resolved by comparing the precedence of the rule to be reduced with the precedence of the token to be shifted. If the precedence of the rule is higher, then the rule will be reduced; if the precedence of the token is higher, then the token will be shifted.
- A shift/reduce conflict between a rule and a token with the same precedence will be resolved using the associativity: if the token is left-associative, then the parser will reduce; if the token is right-associative, then the parser will shift. If the token is non-associative, then the parser will declare a syntax error.
- When a shift/reduce conflict cannot be resolved using the above method, then `ocamlyacc` will output a warning and the parser will always shift.

12.4.3 Rules

The syntax for rules is as usual:

nonterminal `:`
    symbol ... *symbol* `{` *semantic-action* `}`
  `|` ...
  `|` *symbol* ... *symbol* `{` *semantic-action* `}`
`;`

Rules can also contain the `%prec` *symbol* directive in the right-hand side part, to override the default precedence and associativity of the rule with the precedence and associativity of the given symbol.

Semantic actions are arbitrary OCaml expressions, that are evaluated to produce the semantic attribute attached to the defined nonterminal. The semantic actions can access the semantic attributes of the symbols in the right-hand side of the rule with the `$` notation: `$1` is the attribute for the first (leftmost) symbol, `$2` is the attribute for the second symbol, etc.

The rules may contain the special symbol `error` to indicate resynchronization points, as in `yacc`.

Actions occurring in the middle of rules are not supported.

Nonterminal symbols are like regular OCaml symbols, except that they cannot end with `'` (single quote).

12.4.4 Error handling

Error recovery is supported as follows: when the parser reaches an error state (no grammar rules can apply), it calls a function named `parse_error` with the string `"syntax error"` as argument. The default `parse_error` function does nothing and returns, thus initiating error recovery (see below). The user can define a customized `parse_error` function in the header section of the grammar file.

The parser also enters error recovery mode if one of the grammar actions raises the `Parsing.Parse_error` exception.

In error recovery mode, the parser discards states from the stack until it reaches a place where the error token can be shifted. It then discards tokens from the input until it finds three successive tokens that can be accepted, and starts processing with the first of these. If no state can be uncovered where the error token can be shifted, then the parser aborts by raising the `Parsing.Parse_error` exception.

Refer to documentation on `yacc` for more details and guidance in how to use error recovery.

12.5 Options

The `ocamlyacc` command recognizes the following options:

`-b`*prefix*
: Name the output files *prefix*`.ml`, *prefix*`.mli`, *prefix*`.output`, instead of the default naming convention.

`-q`
: This option has no effect.

`-v`
: Generate a description of the parsing tables and a report on conflicts resulting from ambiguities in the grammar. The description is put in file *grammar*`.output`.

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

`-`
: Read the grammar specification from standard input. The default output file names are `stdin.ml` and `stdin.mli`.

`--` *file*
: Process *file* as the grammar specification, even if its name starts with a dash (-) character. This option must be the last on the command line.

At run-time, the `ocamlyacc`-generated parser can be debugged by setting the `p` option in the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable (see section 10.2). This causes the pushdown automaton executing the parser to print a trace of its action (tokens shifted, rules reduced, etc). The trace mentions rule numbers and state numbers that can be interpreted by looking at the file *grammar*`.output` generated by `ocamlyacc -v`.

12.6 A complete example

The all-time favorite: a desk calculator. This program reads arithmetic expressions on standard input, one per line, and prints their values. Here is the grammar definition:

```
/* File parser.mly */
%token <int> INT
%token PLUS MINUS TIMES DIV
%token LPAREN RPAREN
%token EOL
%left PLUS MINUS        /* lowest precedence */
%left TIMES DIV         /* medium precedence */
%nonassoc UMINUS        /* highest precedence */
%start main             /* the entry point */
%type <int> main
%%
main:
    expr EOL                { $1 }
;
expr:
    INT                     { $1 }
  | LPAREN expr RPAREN      { $2 }
  | expr PLUS expr          { $1 + $3 }
  | expr MINUS expr         { $1 - $3 }
  | expr TIMES expr         { $1 * $3 }
  | expr DIV expr           { $1 / $3 }
  | MINUS expr %prec UMINUS { - $2 }
;
```

Here is the definition for the corresponding lexer:

```
(* File lexer.mll *)
{
open Parser        (* The type token is defined in parser.mli *)
exception Eof
}
rule token = parse
    [' ' '\t']     { token lexbuf }     (* skip blanks *)
  | ['\n' ]        { EOL }
  | ['0'-'9']+ as lxm { INT(int_of_string lxm) }
  | '+'            { PLUS }
  | '-'            { MINUS }
  | '*'            { TIMES }
  | '/'            { DIV }
  | '('            { LPAREN }
  | ')'            { RPAREN }
  | eof            { raise Eof }
```

Here is the main program, that combines the parser with the lexer:

```
(* File calc.ml *)
let _ =
  try
    let lexbuf = Lexing.from_channel stdin in
    while true do
      let result = Parser.main Lexer.token lexbuf in
        print_int result; print_newline(); flush stdout
    done
  with Lexer.Eof ->
    exit 0
```

To compile everything, execute:

```
ocamllex lexer.mll       # generates lexer.ml
ocamlyacc parser.mly     # generates parser.ml and parser.mli
ocamlc -c parser.mli
ocamlc -c lexer.ml
ocamlc -c parser.ml
ocamlc -c calc.ml
ocamlc -o calc lexer.cmo parser.cmo calc.cmo
```

12.7 Common errors

ocamllex: transition table overflow, automaton is too big

The deterministic automata generated by `ocamllex` are limited to at most 32767 transitions. The message above indicates that your lexer definition is too complex and overflows this limit. This is commonly caused by lexer definitions that have separate rules for each of the alphabetic keywords of the language, as in the following example.

```
rule token = parse
  "keyword1"   { KWD1 }
| "keyword2"   { KWD2 }
| ...
| "keyword100" { KWD100 }
| ['A'-'Z' 'a'-'z'] ['A'-'Z' 'a'-'z' '0'-'9' '_'] * as id
               { IDENT id}
```

To keep the generated automata small, rewrite those definitions with only one general "identifier" rule, followed by a hashtable lookup to separate keywords from identifiers:

```
{ let keyword_table = Hashtbl.create 53
  let _ =
    List.iter (fun (kwd, tok) -> Hashtbl.add keyword_table kwd tok)
```

```
              [ "keyword1", KWD1;
                "keyword2", KWD2; ...
                "keyword100", KWD100 ]
}
rule token = parse
  ['A'-'Z' 'a'-'z'] ['A'-'Z' 'a'-'z' '0'-'9' '_'] * as id
               { try
                   Hashtbl.find keyword_table id
                 with Not_found ->
                   IDENT id }
```

ocamllex: Position memory overflow, too many bindings

The deterministic automata generated by `ocamllex` maintain a table of positions inside the scanned lexer buffer. The size of this table is limited to at most 255 cells. This error should not show up in normal situations.

Chapter 13

Dependency generator (ocamldep)

The `ocamldep` command scans a set of OCaml source files (`.ml` and `.mli` files) for references to external compilation units, and outputs dependency lines in a format suitable for the `make` utility. This ensures that `make` will compile the source files in the correct order, and recompile those files that need to when a source file is modified.

The typical usage is:

```
ocamldep options *.mli *.ml > .depend
```

where `*.mli *.ml` expands to all source files in the current directory and `.depend` is the file that should contain the dependencies. (See below for a typical `Makefile`.)

Dependencies are generated both for compiling with the bytecode compiler `ocamlc` and with the native-code compiler `ocamlopt`.

The `ocamlbuild` compilation manager (see chapter 18) provide a higher-level, more automated alternative to the combination of `make` and `ocamldep`.

13.1 Options

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamldep`.

`-I` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for source files. If a source file `foo.ml` mentions an external compilation unit `Bar`, a dependency on that unit's interface `bar.cmi` is generated only if the source for `bar` is found in the current directory or in one of the directories specified with `-I`. Otherwise, `Bar` is assumed to be a module from the standard library, and no dependencies are generated. For programs that span multiple directories, it is recommended to pass `ocamldep` the same `-I` options that are passed to the compiler.

`-ml-synonym` *.ext*
: Consider the given extension (with leading dot) to be a synonym for .ml.

`-mli-synonym` *.ext*
: Consider the given extension (with leading dot) to be a synonym for .mli.

`-modules`
: Output raw dependencies of the form

```
filename: Module1 Module2 ... ModuleN
```

where `Module1`, ..., `ModuleN` are the names of the compilation units referenced within the file `filename`, but these names are not resolved to source file names. Such raw dependencies cannot be used by `make`, but can be post-processed by other tools such as `Omake`.

`-native`
: Generate dependencies for a pure native-code program (no bytecode version). When an implementation file (`.ml` file) has no explicit interface file (`.mli` file), `ocamldep` generates dependencies on the bytecode compiled file (`.cmo` file) to reflect interface changes. This can cause unnecessary bytecode recompilations for programs that are compiled to native-code only. The flag `-native` causes dependencies on native compiled files (`.cmx`) to be generated instead of on `.cmo` files. (This flag makes no difference if all source files have explicit `.mli` interface files.)

`-pp` *command*
: Cause `ocamldep` to call the given *command* as a preprocessor for each source file.

`-slash`
: Under Windows, use a forward slash (/) as the path separator instead of the usual backward slash (\). Under Unix, this option does nothing.

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

13.2 A typical Makefile

Here is a template `Makefile` for a OCaml program.

```
OCAMLC=ocamlc
OCAMLOPT=ocamlopt
OCAMLDEP=ocamldep
INCLUDES=                 # all relevant -I options here
OCAMLFLAGS=$(INCLUDES)    # add other options for ocamlc here
OCAMLOPTFLAGS=$(INCLUDES) # add other options for ocamlopt here

# prog1 should be compiled to bytecode, and is composed of three
# units: mod1, mod2 and mod3.
```

```
# The list of object files for prog1
PROG1_OBJS=mod1.cmo mod2.cmo mod3.cmo

prog1: $(PROG1_OBJS)
        $(OCAMLC) -o prog1 $(OCAMLFLAGS) $(PROG1_OBJS)

# prog2 should be compiled to native-code, and is composed of two
# units: mod4 and mod5.

# The list of object files for prog2
PROG2_OBJS=mod4.cmx mod5.cmx

prog2: $(PROG2_OBJS)
        $(OCAMLOPT) -o prog2 $(OCAMLFLAGS) $(PROG2_OBJS)

# Common rules
.SUFFIXES: .ml .mli .cmo .cmi .cmx

.ml.cmo:
        $(OCAMLC) $(OCAMLFLAGS) -c $<

.mli.cmi:
        $(OCAMLC) $(OCAMLFLAGS) -c $<

.ml.cmx:
        $(OCAMLOPT) $(OCAMLOPTFLAGS) -c $<

# Clean up
clean:
        rm -f prog1 prog2
        rm -f *.cm[iox]

# Dependencies
depend:
        $(OCAMLDEP) $(INCLUDES) *.mli *.ml > .depend

include .depend
```

Chapter 14

The browser/editor (ocamlbrowser)

This chapter describes OCamlBrowser, a source and compiled interface browser, written using LablTk. This is a useful companion to the programmer.

Its functions are:

- navigation through OCaml's modules (using compiled interfaces).
- source editing, type-checking, and browsing.
- integrated OCaml shell, running as a subprocess.

14.1 Invocation

The browser is started by the command `ocamlbrowser`, as follows:

`ocamlbrowser` *options*

The following command-line options are recognized by `ocamlbrowser`.

`-I` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the list of directories searched for source and compiled files. By default, only the standard library directory is searched. The standard library can also be changed by setting the `OCAMLLIB` environment variable.

`-nolabels`
: Ignore non-optional labels in types. Labels cannot be used in applications, and parameter order becomes strict.

`-oldui`
: Old multi-window interface. The default is now more like Smalltalk's class browser.

`-rectypes`
: Allow arbitrary recursive types during type-checking. By default, only recursive types where the recursion goes through an object type are supported.

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
Print short version number and exit.

`-w` *warning-list*
Enable or disable warnings according to the argument *warning-list*.

Most options can also be modified inside the application by the **Modules - Path editor** and **Compiler - Preferences** commands. They are inherited when you start a toplevel shell.

14.2 Viewer

This is the first window you get when you start OCamlBrowser. It displays a search window, and the list of modules in the load path. At the top a row of menus.

- **File - Open** and **File - Editor** give access to the editor.
- **File - Shell** creates an OCaml subprocess in a shell.
- **View - Show all defs** displays the signature of the currently selected module.
- **View - Search entry** shows/hides the search entry just below the menu bar.
- **Modules - Path editor** changes the load path. **Modules - Reset cache** rescans the load path and resets the module cache. Do it if you recompile some interface, or get confused about what is in the cache.
- **Modules - Search symbol** allows searching a symbol either by its name, like the bottom line of the viewer, or more interestingly, by its type. **Exact type** searches for a type with exactly the same information as the pattern (variables match only variables). **Included type** allows giving only partial information: the actual type may take more arguments and return more results, and variables in the pattern match anything. In both cases, argument and tuple order is irrelevant[1], and unlabeled arguments in the pattern match any label.
- The **Search entry** just below the menu bar allows one to search for an identifier in all modules (wildcards "?" and "*" allowed). If you choose the `type` option, the search is done by type inclusion (*cf.* Search Symbol - Included type).
- The **Close all** button is there to dismiss the windows created by the Detach button. By double-clicking on it you will quit the browser.

14.3 Module browsing

You select a module in the leftmost box by either clicking on it or pressing return when it is selected. Fast access is available in all boxes pressing the first few letter of the desired name. Double-clicking / double-return displays the whole signature for the module.

[1] To avoid combinatorial explosion of the search space, optional arguments in the actual type are ignored in the actual if (1) there are too many of them, and (2) they do not appear explicitly in the pattern.

Defined identifiers inside the module are displayed in a box to the right of the previous one. If you click on one, this will either display its contents in another box (if this is a sub-module) or display the signature for this identifier below.

Signatures are clickable. Double clicking with the left mouse button on an identifier in a signature brings you to its signature. A single click on the right button pops up a menu displaying the type declaration for the selected identifier. Its title, when selectable, also brings you to its signature.

At the bottom, a series of buttons, depending on the context.

- **Detach** copies the currently displayed signature in a new window, to keep it.
- **Impl** and **Intf** bring you to the implementation or interface of the currently displayed signature, if it is available.

Control-S lets you search a string in the signature.

14.4 File editor

You can edit files with it, if you're not yet used to emacs. Otherwise you can use it as a browser, making occasional corrections.

The **Edit** menu contains commands for jump (C-g), search (C-s), and sending the current phrase (or selection if some text is selected) to a sub-shell (M-x). For this last option, you may choose the shell via a dialog.

Essential functions are in the **Compiler** menu.

- **Preferences** opens a dialog to set internals of the editor and type-checker.
- **Lex** adds colors according to lexical categories.
- **Typecheck** verifies typing, and memorizes to let one see an expression's type by double-clicking on it. This is also valid for interfaces. If an error occurs, the part of the interface preceding the error is computed.

  After typechecking, pressing the right button pops up a menu that gives the type of the pointed expression and, where applicable, provides some links that can be followed.
- **Clear errors** dismisses type-checker error messages and warnings.
- **Signature** shows the signature of the current file (after type checking).

14.5 Shell

When you create a shell, a dialog is presented to you, letting you choose which command you want to run, and the title of the shell (to choose it in the Editor).

The executed subshell is given the current load path.

- **File** use a source file or load a bytecode file. You may also import the browser's path into the subprocess.

- **History** M-p and M-n browse up and down.
- **Signal** C-c interrupts, and you can also kill the subprocess.

Chapter 15

The documentation generator (ocamldoc)

This chapter describes OCamldoc, a tool that generates documentation from special comments embedded in source files. The comments used by OCamldoc are of the form `(**...*)` and follow the format described in section 15.2.

OCamldoc can produce documentation in various formats: HTML, LaTeX, TeXinfo, Unix man pages, and `dot` dependency graphs. Moreover, users can add their own custom generators, as explained in section 15.3.

In this chapter, we use the word *element* to refer to any of the following parts of an OCaml source file: a type declaration, a value, a module, an exception, a module type, a type constructor, a record field, a class, a class type, a class method, a class value or a class inheritance clause.

15.1 Usage

15.1.1 Invocation

OCamldoc is invoked via the command `ocamldoc`, as follows:

`ocamldoc` *options sourcefiles*

Options for choosing the output format

The following options determine the format for the generated documentation.

`-html`
: Generate documentation in HTML default format. The generated HTML pages are stored in the current directory, or in the directory specified with the `-d` option. You can customize the style of the generated pages by editing the generated `style.css` file, or by providing your own style sheet using option `-css-style`. The file `style.css` is not generated if it already exists or if -css-style is used.

`-latex`
: Generate documentation in LaTeX default format. The generated LaTeX document is saved in

file `ocamldoc.out`, or in the file specified with the `-o` option. The document uses the style file `ocamldoc.sty`. This file is generated when using the `-latex` option, if it does not already exist. You can change this file to customize the style of your LaTeX documentation.

`-texi`
: Generate documentation in TeXinfo default format. The generated LaTeX document is saved in file `ocamldoc.out`, or in the file specified with the `-o` option.

`-man`
: Generate documentation as a set of Unix `man` pages. The generated pages are stored in the current directory, or in the directory specified with the `-d` option.

`-dot`
: Generate a dependency graph for the toplevel modules, in a format suitable for displaying and processing by `dot`. The `dot` tool is available from `http://www.research.att.com/sw/tools/graphviz/`. The textual representation of the graph is written to the file `ocamldoc.out`, or to the file specified with the `-o` option. Use `dot ocamldoc.out` to display it.

`-g` *file.cm[o,a,xs]*
: Dynamically load the given file, which defines a custom documentation generator. See section 15.4.1. This option is supported by the `ocamldoc` command (to load `.cmo` and `.cma` files) and by its native-code version `ocamldoc.opt` (to load `.cmxs` files). If the given file is a simple one and does not exist in the current directory, then ocamldoc looks for it in the custom generators default directory, and in the directories specified with optional `-i` options.

`-customdir`
: Display the custom generators default directory.

`-i` *directory*
: Add the given directory to the path where to look for custom generators.

General options

`-d` *dir*
: Generate files in directory *dir*, rather than the current directory.

`-dump` *file*
: Dump collected information into *file*. This information can be read with the `-load` option in a subsequent invocation of `ocamldoc`.

`-hide` *modules*
: Hide the given complete module names in the generated documentation. *modules* is a list of complete module names separated by '`,`', without blanks. For instance: `Pervasives,M2.M3`.

`-inv-merge-ml-mli`
: Reverse the precedence of implementations and interfaces when merging. All elements in implementation files are kept, and the `-m` option indicates which parts of the comments in interface files are merged with the comments in implementation files.

`-keep-code`
: Always keep the source code for values, methods and instance variables, when available. The source code is always kept when a `.ml` file is given, but is by default discarded when a `.mli` is given. This option keeps the source code in all cases.

`-load` *file*
: Load information from *file*, which has been produced by `ocamldoc -dump`. Several `-load` options can be given.

`-m` *flags*
: Specify merge options between interfaces and implementations. (see section 15.1.2 for details). *flags* can be one or several of the following characters:

  - `d` merge description
  - `a` merge `@author`
  - `v` merge `@version`
  - `l` merge `@see`
  - `s` merge `@since`
  - `b` merge `@before`
  - `o` merge `@deprecated`
  - `p` merge `@param`
  - `e` merge `@raise`
  - `r` merge `@return`
  - `A` merge everything

`-no-custom-tags`
: Do not allow custom @-tags (see section 15.2.5).

`-no-stop`
: Keep elements placed after/between the `(**/**)` special comment(s) (see section 15.2).

`-o` *file*
: Output the generated documentation to *file* instead of `ocamldoc.out`. This option is meaningful only in conjunction with the `-latex`, `-texi`, or `-dot` options.

`-pp` *command*
: Pipe sources through preprocessor *command*.

`-impl` *filename*
: Process the file *filename* as an implementation file, even if its extension is not `.ml`.

`-intf` *filename*
: Process the file *filename* as an interface file, even if its extension is not `.mli`.

`-text` *filename*
: Process the file *filename* as a text file, even if its extension is not `.txt`.

`-sort`
: Sort the list of top-level modules before generating the documentation.

`-stars`
: Remove blank characters until the first asterisk ('`*`') in each line of comments.

`-t` *title*
: Use *title* as the title for the generated documentation.

`-intro` *file*
: Use content of *file* as ocamldoc text to use as introduction (HTML, LaTeX and TeXinfo only). For HTML, the file is used to create the whole `index.html` file.

`-v` Verbose mode. Display progress information.

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

`-warn-error`
: Treat Ocamldoc warnings as errors.

`-hide-warnings`
: Do not print OCamldoc warnings.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

Type-checking options

OCamldoc calls the OCaml type-checker to obtain type information. The following options impact the type-checking phase. They have the same meaning as for the `ocamlc` and `ocamlopt` commands.

`-I` *directory*
: Add *directory* to the list of directories search for compiled interface files (`.cmi` files).

`-nolabels`
: Ignore non-optional labels in types.

`-rectypes`
: Allow arbitrary recursive types. (See the `-rectypes` option to `ocamlc`.)

Options for generating HTML pages

The following options apply in conjunction with the `-html` option:

`-all-params`
: Display the complete list of parameters for functions and methods.

`-charset` *charset*
: Add information about character encoding being *charset* (default is iso-8859-1).

`-colorize-code`
: Colorize the OCaml code enclosed in `[ ]` and `{[ ]}`, using colors to emphasize keywords, etc. If the code fragments are not syntactically correct, no color is added.

`-css-style` *filename*
: Use *filename* as the Cascading Style Sheet file.

`-index-only`
: Generate only index files.

`-short-functors`
: Use a short form to display functors:

```
module M : functor (A:Module) -> functor (B:Module2) -> sig .. end
```

is displayed as:

```
module M (A:Module) (B:Module2) : sig .. end
```

Options for generating LaTeX files

The following options apply in conjunction with the `-latex` option:

`-latex-value-prefix` *prefix*
: Give a prefix to use for the labels of the values in the generated LaTeX document. The default prefix is the empty string. You can also use the options `-latex-type-prefix`, `-latex-exception-prefix`, `-latex-module-prefix`, `-latex-module-type-prefix`, `-latex-class-prefix`, `-latex-class-type-prefix`, `-latex-attribute-prefix` and `-latex-method-prefix`.

These options are useful when you have, for example, a type and a value with the same name. If you do not specify prefixes, LaTeX will complain about multiply defined labels.

`-latextitle` *n,style*
: Associate style number *n* to the given LaTeX sectioning command *style*, e.g. `section` or `subsection`. (LaTeX only.) This is useful when including the generated document in another LaTeX document, at a given sectioning level. The default association is 1 for `section`, 2 for `subsection`, 3 for `subsubsection`, 4 for `paragraph` and 5 for `subparagraph`.

`-noheader`
: Suppress header in generated documentation.

`-notoc`
: Do not generate a table of contents.

`-notrailer`
: Suppress trailer in generated documentation.

`-sepfiles`
Generate one `.tex` file per toplevel module, instead of the global `ocamldoc.out` file.

Options for generating TeXinfo files

The following options apply in conjunction with the `-texi` option:

`-esc8`
Escape accented characters in Info files.

`-info-entry`
Specify Info directory entry.

`-info-section`
Specify section of Info directory.

`-noheader`
Suppress header in generated documentation.

`-noindex`
Do not build index for Info files.

`-notrailer`
Suppress trailer in generated documentation.

Options for generating `dot` graphs

The following options apply in conjunction with the `-dot` option:

`-dot-colors` *colors*
Specify the colors to use in the generated `dot` code. When generating module dependencies, `ocamldoc` uses different colors for modules, depending on the directories in which they reside. When generating types dependencies, `ocamldoc` uses different colors for types, depending on the modules in which they are defined. *colors* is a list of color names separated by ',', as in `Red,Blue,Green`. The available colors are the ones supported by the `dot` tool.

`-dot-include-all`
Include all modules in the `dot` output, not only modules given on the command line or loaded with the `-load` option.

`-dot-reduce`
Perform a transitive reduction of the dependency graph before outputting the `dot` code. This can be useful if there are a lot of transitive dependencies that clutter the graph.

`-dot-types`
Output `dot` code describing the type dependency graph instead of the module dependency graph.

Options for generating man files

The following options apply in conjunction with the `-man` option:

`-man-mini`
: Generate man pages only for modules, module types, classes and class types, instead of pages for all elements.

`-man-suffix` *suffix*
: Set the suffix used for generated man filenames. Default is '`3o`', as in `List.3o`.

`-man-section` *section*
: Set the section number used for generated man filenames. Default is '`3`'.

15.1.2 Merging of module information

Information on a module can be extracted either from the `.mli` or `.ml` file, or both, depending on the files given on the command line. When both `.mli` and `.ml` files are given for the same module, information extracted from these files is merged according to the following rules:

- Only elements (values, types, classes, ...) declared in the `.mli` file are kept. In other terms, definitions from the `.ml` file that are not exported in the `.mli` file are not documented.
- Descriptions of elements and descriptions in @-tags are handled as follows. If a description for the same element or in the same @-tag of the same element is present in both files, then the description of the `.ml` file is concatenated to the one in the `.mli` file, if the corresponding `-m` flag is given on the command line. If a description is present in the `.ml` file and not in the `.mli` file, the `.ml` description is kept. In either case, all the information given in the `.mli` file is kept.

15.1.3 Coding rules

The following rules must be respected in order to avoid name clashes resulting in cross-reference errors:

- In a module, there must not be two modules, two module types or a module and a module type with the same name. In the default HTML generator, modules `ab` and `AB` will be printed to the same file on case insensitive file systems.
- In a module, there must not be two classes, two class types or a class and a class type with the same name.
- In a module, there must not be two values, two types, or two exceptions with the same name.
- Values defined in tuple, as in `let (x,y,z) = (1,2,3)` are not kept by OCamldoc.
- Avoid the following construction:

```
open Foo (* which has a module Bar with a value x *)
module Foo =
  struct
    module Bar =
      struct
        let x = 1
      end
  end
  let dummy = Bar.x
```

In this case, OCamldoc will associate `Bar.x` to the `x` of module `Foo` defined just above, instead of to the `Bar.x` defined in the opened module `Foo`.

15.2 Syntax of documentation comments

Comments containing documentation material are called *special comments* and are written between `(**` and `*)`. Special comments must start exactly with `(**`. Comments beginning with `(` and more than two `*` are ignored.

15.2.1 Placement of documentation comments

OCamldoc can associate comments to some elements of the language encountered in the source files. The association is made according to the locations of comments with respect to the language elements. The locations of comments in `.mli` and `.ml` files are different.

Comments in `.mli` files

A special comment is associated to an element if it is placed before or after the element.
A special comment before an element is associated to this element if :

- There is no blank line or another special comment between the special comment and the element. However, a regular comment can occur between the special comment and the element.
- The special comment is not already associated to the previous element.
- The special comment is not the first one of a toplevel module.

A special comment after an element is associated to this element if there is no blank line or comment between the special comment and the element.

There are two exceptions: for constructors and record fields in type definitions, the associated comment can only be placed after the constructor or field definition, without blank lines or other comments between them. The special comment for a constructor with another constructor following must be placed before the '`|`' character separating the two constructors.

The following sample interface file `foo.mli` illustrates the placement rules for comments in `.mli` files.

```
(** The first special comment of the file is the comment associated
    with the whole module.*)


(** Special comments can be placed between elements and are kept
    by the OCamldoc tool, but are not associated to any element.
    @-tags in these comments are ignored.*)

(*******************************************************************)
(** Comments like the one above, with more than two asterisks,
    are ignored. *)

(** The comment for function f. *)
val f : int -> int -> int
(** The continuation of the comment for function f. *)

(** Comment for exception My_exception, even with a simple comment
    between the special comment and the exception.*)
(* Hello, I'm a simple comment :-) *)
exception My_exception of (int -> int) * int

(** Comment for type weather  *)
type weather =
| Rain of int (** The comment for constructor Rain *)
| Sun (** The comment for constructor Sun *)

(** Comment for type weather2  *)
type weather2 =
| Rain of int (** The comment for constructor Rain *)
| Sun (** The comment for constructor Sun *)
(** I can continue the comment for type weather2 here
  because there is already a comment associated to the last constructor.*)

(** The comment for type my_record *)
type my_record = {
    val foo : int ;    (** Comment for field foo *)
    val bar : string ; (** Comment for field bar *)
  }
  (** Continuation of comment for type my_record *)

(** Comment for foo *)
val foo : string
(** This comment is associated to foo and not to bar. *)
val bar : string
(** This comment is associated to bar. *)
```

```
(** The comment for class my_class *)
class my_class :
  object
    (** A comment to describe inheritance from cl *)
    inherit cl

    (** The comment for attribute tutu *)
    val mutable tutu : string

    (** The comment for attribute toto. *)
    val toto : int

    (** This comment is not attached to titi since
        there is a blank line before titi, but is kept
        as a comment in the class. *)

    val titi : string

    (** Comment for method toto *)
    method toto : string

    (** Comment for method m *)
    method m : float -> int
  end

(** The comment for the class type my_class_type *)
class type my_class_type =
  object
    (** The comment for variable x. *)
    val mutable x : int

    (** The commend for method m. *)
    method m : int -> int
end

(** The comment for module Foo *)
module Foo =
  struct
    (** The comment for x *)
    val x : int

    (** A special comment that is kept but not associated to any element *)
  end
```

```
(** The comment for module type my_module_type. *)
module type my_module_type =
  sig
    (** The comment for value x. *)
    val x : int

    (** The comment for module M. *)
    module M =
      struct
        (** The comment for value y. *)
        val y : int

        (* ... *)
      end

  end
```

Comments in `.ml` files

A special comment is associated to an element if it is placed before the element and there is no blank line between the comment and the element. Meanwhile, there can be a simple comment between the special comment and the element. There are two exceptions, for constructors and record fields in type definitions, whose associated comment must be placed after the constructor or field definition, without blank line between them. The special comment for a constructor with another constructor following must be placed before the '`|`' character separating the two constructors.

The following example of file `toto.ml` shows where to place comments in a `.ml` file.

```
(** The first special comment of the file is the comment associated
    to the whole module. *)

(** The comment for function f *)
let f x y = x + y

(** This comment is not attached to any element since there is another
    special comment just before the next element. *)

(** Comment for exception My_exception, even with a simple comment
    between the special comment and the exception.*)
(* A simple comment. *)
exception My_exception of (int -> int) * int

(** Comment for type weather  *)
type weather =
| Rain of int (** The comment for constructor Rain *)
| Sun (** The comment for constructor Sun *)
```

```
(** The comment for type my_record *)
type my_record = {
    val foo : int ;    (** Comment for field foo *)
    val bar : string ; (** Comment for field bar *)
  }

(** The comment for class my_class *)
class my_class =
    object
      (** A comment to describe inheritance from cl *)
      inherit cl

      (** The comment for the instance variable tutu *)
      val mutable tutu = "tutu"
      (** The comment for toto *)
      val toto = 1
      val titi = "titi"
      (** Comment for method toto *)
      method toto = tutu ^ "!"
      (** Comment for method m *)
      method m (f : float) = 1
    end

(** The comment for class type my_class_type *)
class type my_class_type =
  object
    (** The comment for the instance variable x. *)
    val mutable x : int
    (** The commend for method m. *)
    method m : int -> int
  end

(** The comment for module Foo *)
module Foo =
  struct
    (** The comment for x *)
    val x : int
    (** A special comment in the class, but not associated to any element. *)
  end

(** The comment for module type my_module_type. *)
module type my_module_type =
  sig
    (* Comment for value x. *)
```

```
    val x : int
    (* ... *)
  end
```

15.2.2 The Stop special comment

The special comment `(**/**)` tells OCamldoc to discard elements placed after this comment, up to the end of the current class, class type, module or module type, or up to the next stop comment. For instance:

```
class type foo =
  object
    (** comment for method m *)
    method m : string

    (**/**)

    (** This method won't appear in the documentation *)
    method bar : int
  end

(** This value appears in the documentation, since the Stop special comment
    in the class does not affect the parent module of the class.*)
val foo : string

(**/**)
(** The value bar does not appear in the documentation.*)
val bar : string
(**/**)

(** The type t appears since in the documentation since the previous stop comment
toggled off the "no documentation mode". *)
type t = string
```

The `-no-stop` option to `ocamldoc` causes the Stop special comments to be ignored.

15.2.3 Syntax of documentation comments

The inside of documentation comments `(**...*)` consists of free-form text with optional formatting annotations, followed by optional *tags* giving more specific information about parameters, version, authors, ... The tags are distinguished by a leading `@` character. Thus, a documentation comment has the following shape:

```
(** The comment begins with a description, which is text formatted
   according to the rules described in the next section.
   The description continues until the first non-escaped '@' character.
   @author Mr Smith
```

```
   @param x description for parameter x
*)
```

Some elements support only a subset of all @-tags. Tags that are not relevant to the documented element are simply ignored. For instance, all tags are ignored when documenting type constructors, record fields, and class inheritance clauses. Similarly, a `@param` tag on a class instance variable is ignored.

At last, `(**)` is the empty documentation comment.

15.2.4 Text formatting

Here is the BNF grammar for the simple markup language used to format text descriptions.

text ::= {*text-element*}$^+$

text-element ::=

|	`{` {`0`...`9`}$^+$ *text* `}`	format *text* as a section header; the integer following `{` indicates the sectioning level.
|	`{` {`0`...`9`}$^+$ `:` *label text* `}`	same, but also associate the name *label* to the current point. This point can be referenced by its fully-qualified label in a `{!` command, just like any other element.
|	`{b` *text* `}`	set *text* in bold.
|	`{i` *text* `}`	set *text* in italic.
|	`{e` *text* `}`	emphasize *text*.
|	`{C` *text* `}`	center *text*.
|	`{L` *text* `}`	left align *text*.
|	`{R` *text* `}`	right align *text*.
|	`{ul` *list* `}`	build a list.
|	`{ol` *list* `}`	build an enumerated list.
|	`{{:` *string* `}` *text* `}`	put a link to the given address (given as *string*) on the given *text*.
|	`[` *string* `]`	set the given *string* in source code style.
|	`{[` *string* `]}`	set the given *string* in preformatted source code style.
|	`{v` *string* `v}`	set the given *string* in verbatim style.
|	`{%` *string* `%}`	target-specific content (LaTeX code by default, see details in 15.2.4.4)
|	`{!` *string* `}`	insert a cross-reference to an element (see section 15.2.4.2 for the syntax of cross-references).
|	`{!modules:` *string string...* `}`	insert an index table for the given module names. Used in HTML only.
|	`{!indexlist}`	insert a table of links to the various indexes (types, values, modules, ...). Used in HTML only.
|	`{^` *text* `}`	set text in superscript.
|	`{_` *text* `}`	set text in subscript.
|	*escaped-string*	typeset the given string as is; special characters ('`{`', '`}`', '`[`', '`]`' and '`@`') must be escaped by a '`\`'
|	*blank-line*	force a new line.

15.2.4.1 List formatting

list ::=
| {`{-` *text* `}`}$^+$
| {`{li` *text* `}`}$^+$

A shortcut syntax exists for lists and enumerated lists:

```
(** Here is a {b list}
```

```
- item 1
- item 2
- item 3

The list is ended by the blank line.*)
```

is equivalent to:

```
(** Here is a {b list}
{ul {- item 1}
{- item 2}
{- item 3}}
The list is ended by the blank line.*)
```

The same shortcut is available for enumerated lists, using '`+`' instead of '`-`'. Note that only one list can be defined by this shortcut in nested lists.

15.2.4.2 Cross-reference formatting

Cross-references are fully qualified element names, as in the example `{!Foo.Bar.t}`. This is an ambiguous reference as it may designate a type name, a value name, a class name, etc. It is possible to make explicit the intended syntactic class, using `{!type:Foo.Bar.t}` to designate a type, and `{!val:Foo.Bar.t}` a value of the same name.

The list of possible syntactic class is as follows:

`tag`	syntactic class
`module:`	module
`modtype:`	module type
`class:`	class
`classtype:`	class type
`val:`	value
`type:`	type
`exception:`	exception
`attribute:`	attribute
`method:`	class method
`section:`	ocamldoc section
`const:`	variant constructor
`recfield:`	record field

In the case of variant constructors or record field, the constructor or field name should be preceded by the name of the correspond type – to avoid the ambiguity of several types having the same constructor names. For example, the constructor `Node` of the type `tree` will be referenced as `{!tree.Node}` or `{!const:tree.Node}`, or possibly `{!Mod1.Mod2.tree.Node}` from outside the module.

15.2.4.3 First sentence

In the description of a value, type, exception, module, module type, class or class type, the *first sentence* is sometimes used in indexes, or when just a part of the description is needed. The first sentence is composed of the first characters of the description, until

- the first dot followed by a blank, or
- the first blank line

outside of the following text formatting : {ul *list* }, {ol *list* }, [*string*], {[*string*]}, {v *string* v}, {% *string* %}, {! *string* }, {^ *text* }, {_ *text* }.

15.2.4.4 Target-specific formatting

The content inside {%foo: ... %} is target-specific and will only be interpreted by the backend foo, and ignored by the others. The backends of the distribution are latex, html, texi and man. If no target is specified (syntax {% ... %}), latex is chosen by default. Custom generators may support their own target prefix.

15.2.4.5 Recognized HTML tags

The HTML tags .., <code>..</code>, <i>..</i>, <ul>.., <ol>.., <li>.., <center>..</center> and <h[0-9]>..</h[0-9]> can be used instead of, respectively, {b␣..}, [..], {i␣..}, {ul␣..}, {ol␣..}, {li␣..}, {C␣..} and {[0-9] ..}.

15.2.5 Documentation tags (@-tags)

Predefined tags

The following table gives the list of predefined @-tags, with their syntax and meaning.

`@author` *string*	The author of the element. One author per `@author` tag. There may be several `@author` tags for the same element.
`@deprecated` *text*	The *text* should describe when the element was deprecated, what to use as a replacement, and possibly the reason for deprecation.
`@param` *id text*	Associate the given description (*text*) to the given parameter name *id*. This tag is used for functions, methods, classes and functors.
`@raise` *Exc text*	Explain that the element may raise the exception *Exc*.
`@return` *text*	Describe the return value and its possible values. This tag is used for functions and methods.
`@see` < *URL* > *text*	Add a reference to the *URL* with the given *text* as comment.
`@see` '*filename*' *text*	Add a reference to the given file name (written between single quotes), with the given *text* as comment.
`@see` "*document-name*" *text*	Add a reference to the given document name (written between double quotes), with the given *text* as comment.
`@since` *string*	Indicate when the element was introduced.
`@before` *version text*	Associate the given description (*text*) to the given *version* in order to document compatibility issues.
`@version` *string*	The version number for the element.

Custom tags

You can use custom tags in the documentation comments, but they will have no effect if the generator used does not handle them. To use a custom tag, for example `foo`, just put `@foo` with some text in your comment, as in:

```
(** My comment to show you a custom tag.
@foo this is the text argument to the [foo] custom tag.
*)
```

To handle custom tags, you need to define a custom generator, as explained in section 15.3.2.

15.3 Custom generators

OCamldoc operates in two steps:

1. analysis of the source files;
2. generation of documentation, through a documentation generator, which is an object of class `Odoc_args.class_generator`.

Users can provide their own documentation generator to be used during step 2 instead of the default generators. All the information retrieved during the analysis step is available through the `Odoc_info` module, which gives access to all the types and functions representing the elements found in the given modules, with their associated description.

The files you can use to define custom generators are installed in the `ocamldoc` sub-directory of the OCaml standard library.

15.3.1 The generator modules

The type of a generator module depends on the kind of generated documentation. Here is the list of generator module types, with the name of the generator class in the module :

- for HTML : `Odoc_html.Html_generator` (class `html`),
- for LaTeX : `Odoc_latex.Latex_generator` (class `latex`),
- for TeXinfo : `Odoc_texi.Texi_generator` (class `texi`),
- for man pages : `Odoc_man.Man_generator` (class `man`),
- for graphviz (dot) : `Odoc_dot.Dot_generator` (class `dot`),
- for other kinds : `Odoc_gen.Base` (class `generator`).

That is, to define a new generator, one must implement a module with the expected signature, and with the given generator class, providing the `generate` method as entry point to make the generator generates documentation for a given list of modules :

```
method generate : Odoc_info.Module.t_module list -> unit
```

This method will be called with the list of analysed and possibly merged `Odoc_info.t_module` structures.

It is recommended to inherit from the current generator of the same kind as the one you want to define. Doing so, it is possible to load various custom generators to combine improvements brought by each one.

This is done using first class modules (see chapter 7.14).

The easiest way to define a custom generator is the following this example, here extending the current HTML generator. We don't have to know if this is the original HTML generator defined in ocamldoc or if it has been extended already by a previously loaded custom generator :

```
module Generator (G : Odoc_html.Html_generator) =
struct
  class html =
    object(self)
      inherit G.html as html
      (* ... *)

      method generate module_list =
        (* ... *)
        ()

      (* ... *)
  end
end;;

let _ = Odoc_args.extend_html_generator (module Generator : Odoc_gen.Html_functor);;
```

To know which methods to override and/or which methods are available, have a look at the different base implementations, depending on the kind of generator you are extending :

- for HTML : `odoc_html.ml`,
- for LaTeX : `odoc_latex.ml`,
- for TeXinfo : `odoc_texi.ml`,
- for man pages : `odoc_man.ml`,
- for graphviz (dot) : `odoc_dot.ml`.

15.3.2 Handling custom tags

Making a custom generator handle custom tags (see 15.2.5) is very simple.

For HTML

Here is how to develop a HTML generator handling your custom tags.

The class `Odoc_html.Generator.html` inherits from the class `Odoc_html.info`, containing a field `tag_functions` which is a list pairs composed of a custom tag (e.g. `"foo"`) and a function taking a `text` and returning HTML code (of type `string`). To handle a new tag `bar`, extend the current HTML generator and complete the `tag_functions` field:

```
module Generator (G : Odoc_html.Html_generator) =
struct
  class html =
    object(self)
      inherit G.html

      (** Return HTML code for the given text of a bar tag. *)
      method html_of_bar t = (* your code here *)

      initializer
        tag_functions <- ("bar", self#html_of_bar) :: tag_functions
  end
end
let _ = Odoc_args.extend_html_generator (module Generator : Odoc_gen.Html_functor);;
```

Another method of the class `Odoc_html.info` will look for the function associated to a custom tag and apply it to the text given to the tag. If no function is associated to a custom tag, then the method prints a warning message on `stderr`.

For other generators

You can act the same way for other kinds of generators.

15.4 Adding command line options

The command line analysis is performed after loading the module containing the documentation generator, thus allowing command line options to be added to the list of existing ones. Adding an option can be done with the function

```
Odoc_args.add_option : string * Arg.spec * string -> unit
```

Note: Existing command line options can be redefined using this function.

15.4.1 Compilation and usage

Defining a custom generator class in one file

Let `custom.ml` be the file defining a new generator class. Compilation of `custom.ml` can be performed by the following command :

```
ocamlc -I +ocamldoc -c custom.ml
```

The file `custom.cmo` is created and can be used this way :

`ocamldoc -g custom.cmo` *other-options source-files*

It is important not to give the `-html` or any other option selecting a built-in generator to `ocamldoc`, which would result in using this generator instead of the one you just loaded.

Defining a custom generator class in several files

It is possible to define a generator class in several modules, which are defined in several files *file*$_1$`.ml`[`i`], *file*$_2$`.ml`[`i`], ..., *file*$_n$`.ml`[`i`]. A `.cma` library file must be created, including all these files.

The following commands create the `custom.cma` file from files *file*$_1$`.ml`[`i`], ..., *file*$_n$`.ml`[`i`] :

`ocamlc -I +ocamldoc -c` *file*$_1$`.ml`[`i`]
`ocamlc -I +ocamldoc -c` *file*$_2$`.ml`[`i`]
`...`
`ocamlc -I +ocamldoc -c` *file*$_n$`.ml`[`i`]
`ocamlc -o custom.cma -a` *file*$_1$`.cmo` *file*$_2$`.cmo ...` *file*$_n$`.cmo`

Then, the following command uses `custom.cma` as custom generator:

`ocamldoc -g custom.cma` *other-options source-files*

Again, it is important not to give the `-html` or any other option selecting a built-in generator to `ocamldoc`, which would result in using this generator instead of the one you just loaded.

Chapter 16

The debugger (ocamldebug)

This chapter describes the OCaml source-level replay debugger `ocamldebug`.

Unix:
The debugger is available on Unix systems that provide BSD sockets.

Windows:
The debugger is available under the Cygwin port of OCaml, but not under the native Win32 ports.

16.1 Compiling for debugging

Before the debugger can be used, the program must be compiled and linked with the `-g` option: all `.cmo` and `.cma` files that are part of the program should have been created with `ocamlc -g`, and they must be linked together with `ocamlc -g`.

Compiling with `-g` entails no penalty on the running time of programs: object files and bytecode executable files are bigger and take longer to produce, but the executable files run at exactly the same speed as if they had been compiled without `-g`.

16.2 Invocation

16.2.1 Starting the debugger

The OCaml debugger is invoked by running the program `ocamldebug` with the name of the bytecode executable file as first argument:

`ocamldebug` [*options*] *program* [*arguments*]

The arguments following *program* are optional, and are passed as command-line arguments to the program being debugged. (See also the `set arguments` command.)

The following command-line options are recognized:

`-c` *count*
Set the maximum number of simultaneously live checkpoints to *count*.

`-cd` *dir*
: Run the debugger program from the working directory *dir*, instead of the current directory. (See also the `cd` command.)

`-emacs`
: Tell the debugger it is executed under Emacs. (See section 16.10 for information on how to run the debugger under Emacs.)

`-I` *directory*
: Add *directory* to the list of directories searched for source files and compiled files. (See also the `directory` command.)

`-s` *socket*
: Use *socket* for communicating with the debugged program. See the description of the command `set socket` (section 16.8.6) for the format of *socket*.

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

16.2.2 Exiting the debugger

The command `quit` exits the debugger. You can also exit the debugger by typing an end-of-file character (usually `ctrl-D`).

Typing an interrupt character (usually `ctrl-C`) will not exit the debugger, but will terminate the action of any debugger command that is in progress and return to the debugger command level.

16.3 Commands

A debugger command is a single line of input. It starts with a command name, which is followed by arguments depending on this name. Examples:

```
run
goto 1000
set arguments arg1 arg2
```

A command name can be truncated as long as there is no ambiguity. For instance, `go 1000` is understood as `goto 1000`, since there are no other commands whose name starts with `go`. For the most frequently used commands, ambiguous abbreviations are allowed. For instance, `r` stands for `run` even though there are others commands starting with `r`. You can test the validity of an abbreviation using the `help` command.

If the previous command has been successful, a blank line (typing just `RET`) will repeat it.

16.3.1 Getting help

The OCaml debugger has a simple on-line help system, which gives a brief description of each command and variable.

`help`
: Print the list of commands.

`help` *command*
: Give help about the command *command*.

`help set` *variable*, `help show` *variable*
: Give help about the variable *variable*. The list of all debugger variables can be obtained with `help set`.

`help info` *topic*
: Give help about *topic*. Use `help info` to get a list of known topics.

16.3.2 Accessing the debugger state

`set` *variable value*
: Set the debugger variable *variable* to the value *value*.

`show` *variable*
: Print the value of the debugger variable *variable*.

`info` *subject*
: Give information about the given subject. For instance, `info breakpoints` will print the list of all breakpoints.

16.4 Executing a program

16.4.1 Events

Events are "interesting" locations in the source code, corresponding to the beginning or end of evaluation of "interesting" sub-expressions. Events are the unit of single-stepping (stepping goes to the next or previous event encountered in the program execution). Also, breakpoints can only be set at events. Thus, events play the role of line numbers in debuggers for conventional languages.

During program execution, a counter is incremented at each event encountered. The value of this counter is referred as the *current time*. Thanks to reverse execution, it is possible to jump back and forth to any time of the execution.

Here is where the debugger events (written ⋈) are located in the source code:

- Following a function application:

  ```
  (f arg)⋈
  ```

- On entrance to a function:

```
fun x y z -> ⋈ ...
```

- On each case of a pattern-matching definition (function, `match`...`with` construct, `try`...`with` construct):

```
function pat1 -> ⋈ expr1
       | ...
       | patN -> ⋈ exprN
```

- Between subexpressions of a sequence:

```
expr1; ⋈ expr2; ⋈ ...; ⋈ exprN
```

- In the two branches of a conditional expression:

```
if cond then ⋈ expr1 else ⋈ expr2
```

- At the beginning of each iteration of a loop:

```
while cond do ⋈ body done
for i = a to b do ⋈ body done
```

Exceptions: A function application followed by a function return is replaced by the compiler by a jump (tail-call optimization). In this case, no event is put after the function application.

16.4.2 Starting the debugged program

The debugger starts executing the debugged program only when needed. This allows setting breakpoints or assigning debugger variables before execution starts. There are several ways to start execution:

`run` Run the program until a breakpoint is hit, or the program terminates.

`goto 0`
: Load the program and stop on the first event.

`goto` *time*
: Load the program and execute it until the given time. Useful when you already know approximately at what time the problem appears. Also useful to set breakpoints on function values that have not been computed at time 0 (see section 16.5).

The execution of a program is affected by certain information it receives when the debugger starts it, such as the command-line arguments to the program and its working directory. The debugger provides commands to specify this information (`set arguments` and `cd`). These commands must be used before program execution starts. If you try to change the arguments or the working directory after starting your program, the debugger will kill the program (after asking for confirmation).

16.4.3 Running the program

The following commands execute the program forward or backward, starting at the current time. The execution will stop either when specified by the command or when a breakpoint is encountered.

`run` Execute the program forward from current time. Stops at next breakpoint or when the program terminates.

`reverse`
: Execute the program backward from current time. Mostly useful to go to the last breakpoint encountered before the current time.

`step` [*count*]
: Run the program and stop at the next event. With an argument, do it *count* times. If *count* is 0, run until the program terminates or a breakpoint is hit.

`backstep` [*count*]
: Run the program backward and stop at the previous event. With an argument, do it *count* times.

`next` [*count*]
: Run the program and stop at the next event, skipping over function calls. With an argument, do it *count* times.

`previous` [*count*]
: Run the program backward and stop at the previous event, skipping over function calls. With an argument, do it *count* times.

`finish`
: Run the program until the current function returns.

`start`
: Run the program backward and stop at the first event before the current function invocation.

16.4.4 Time travel

You can jump directly to a given time, without stopping on breakpoints, using the `goto` command.

As you move through the program, the debugger maintains an history of the successive times you stop at. The `last` command can be used to revisit these times: each `last` command moves one step back through the history. That is useful mainly to undo commands such as `step` and `next`.

`goto` *time*
: Jump to the given time.

`last` [*count*]
: Go back to the latest time recorded in the execution history. With an argument, do it *count* times.

`set history` *size*
: Set the size of the execution history.

16.4.5 Killing the program

`kill`

Kill the program being executed. This command is mainly useful if you wish to recompile the program without leaving the debugger.

16.5 Breakpoints

A breakpoint causes the program to stop whenever a certain point in the program is reached. It can be set in several ways using the `break` command. Breakpoints are assigned numbers when set, for further reference. The most comfortable way to set breakpoints is through the Emacs interface (see section 16.10).

`break`

Set a breakpoint at the current position in the program execution. The current position must be on an event (i.e., neither at the beginning, nor at the end of the program).

`break` *function*

Set a breakpoint at the beginning of *function*. This works only when the functional value of the identifier *function* has been computed and assigned to the identifier. Hence this command cannot be used at the very beginning of the program execution, when all identifiers are still undefined; use `goto` *time* to advance execution until the functional value is available.

`break @` [*module*] *line*

Set a breakpoint in module *module* (or in the current module if *module* is not given), at the first event of line *line*.

`break @` [*module*] *line column*

Set a breakpoint in module *module* (or in the current module if *module* is not given), at the event closest to line *line*, column *column*.

`break @` [*module*] `#` *character*

Set a breakpoint in module *module* at the event closest to character number *character*.

`break` *address*

Set a breakpoint at the code address *address*.

`delete` [*breakpoint-numbers*]

Delete the specified breakpoints. Without argument, all breakpoints are deleted (after asking for confirmation).

`info breakpoints`

Print the list of all breakpoints.

16.6 The call stack

Each time the program performs a function application, it saves the location of the application (the return address) in a block of data called a stack frame. The frame also contains the local variables of the caller function. All the frames are allocated in a region of memory called the call stack. The command `backtrace` (or `bt`) displays parts of the call stack.

At any time, one of the stack frames is "selected" by the debugger; several debugger commands refer implicitly to the selected frame. In particular, whenever you ask the debugger for the value of a local variable, the value is found in the selected frame. The commands `frame`, `up` and `down` select whichever frame you are interested in.

When the program stops, the debugger automatically selects the currently executing frame and describes it briefly as the `frame` command does.

`frame`
: Describe the currently selected stack frame.

`frame` *frame-number*
: Select a stack frame by number and describe it. The frame currently executing when the program stopped has number 0; its caller has number 1; and so on up the call stack.

`backtrace` [*count*], `bt` [*count*]
: Print the call stack. This is useful to see which sequence of function calls led to the currently executing frame. With a positive argument, print only the innermost *count* frames. With a negative argument, print only the outermost -*count* frames.

`up` [*count*]
: Select and display the stack frame just "above" the selected frame, that is, the frame that called the selected frame. An argument says how many frames to go up.

`down` [*count*]
: Select and display the stack frame just "below" the selected frame, that is, the frame that was called by the selected frame. An argument says how many frames to go down.

16.7 Examining variable values

The debugger can print the current value of simple expressions. The expressions can involve program variables: all the identifiers that are in scope at the selected program point can be accessed.

Expressions that can be printed are a subset of OCaml expressions, as described by the following grammar:

simple-expr	::=	*lowercase-ident*
	|	{*capitalized-ident* `.`} *lowercase-ident*
	|	`*`
	|	`$` *integer*
	|	*simple-expr* `.` *lowercase-ident*
	|	*simple-expr* `.(` *integer* `)`
	|	*simple-expr* `.[` *integer* `]`
	|	`!` *simple-expr*
	|	`(` *simple-expr* `)`

The first two cases refer to a value identifier, either unqualified or qualified by the path to the structure that define it. `*` refers to the result just computed (typically, the value of a function application), and is valid only if the selected event is an "after" event (typically, a function application). `$` *integer* refer to a previously printed value. The remaining four forms select part of an expression: respectively, a record field, an array element, a string element, and the current contents of a reference.

`print` *variables*
: Print the values of the given variables. `print` can be abbreviated as `p`.

`display` *variables*
: Same as `print`, but limit the depth of printing to 1. Useful to browse large data structures without printing them in full. `display` can be abbreviated as `d`.

When printing a complex expression, a name of the form `$`*integer* is automatically assigned to its value. Such names are also assigned to parts of the value that cannot be printed because the maximal printing depth is exceeded. Named values can be printed later on with the commands `p $`*integer* or `d $`*integer*. Named values are valid only as long as the program is stopped. They are forgotten as soon as the program resumes execution.

`set print_depth` *d*
: Limit the printing of values to a maximal depth of *d*.

`set print_length` *l*
: Limit the printing of values to at most *l* nodes printed.

16.8 Controlling the debugger

16.8.1 Setting the program name and arguments

`set program` *file*
: Set the program name to *file*.

`set arguments` *arguments*
: Give *arguments* as command-line arguments for the program.

A shell is used to pass the arguments to the debugged program. You can therefore use wildcards, shell variables, and file redirections inside the arguments. To debug programs that read from standard input, it is recommended to redirect their input from a file (using `set arguments < input-file`), otherwise input to the program and input to the debugger are not properly separated, and inputs are not properly replayed when running the program backwards.

16.8.2 How programs are loaded

The `loadingmode` variable controls how the program is executed.

`set loadingmode direct`
: The program is run directly by the debugger. This is the default mode.

`set loadingmode runtime`
: The debugger execute the OCaml runtime `ocamlrun` on the program. Rarely useful; moreover it prevents the debugging of programs compiled in "custom runtime" mode.

`set loadingmode manual`
: The user starts manually the program, when asked by the debugger. Allows remote debugging (see section 16.8.6).

16.8.3 Search path for files

The debugger searches for source files and compiled interface files in a list of directories, the search path. The search path initially contains the current directory `.` and the standard library directory. The `directory` command adds directories to the path.

Whenever the search path is modified, the debugger will clear any information it may have cached about the files.

`directory` *directorynames*
: Add the given directories to the search path. These directories are added at the front, and will therefore be searched first.

`directory` *directorynames* `for` *modulename*
: Same as `directory` *directorynames*, but the given directories will be searched only when looking for the source file of a module that has been packed into *modulename*.

`directory`
: Reset the search path. This requires confirmation.

16.8.4 Working directory

Each time a program is started in the debugger, it inherits its working directory from the current working directory of the debugger. This working directory is initially whatever it inherited from its parent process (typically the shell), but you can specify a new working directory in the debugger with the `cd` command or the `-cd` command-line option.

`cd` *directory*
: Set the working directory for `ocamldebug` to *directory*.

`pwd` Print the working directory for `ocamldebug`.

16.8.5 Turning reverse execution on and off

In some cases, you may want to turn reverse execution off. This speeds up the program execution, and is also sometimes useful for interactive programs.

Normally, the debugger takes checkpoints of the program state from time to time. That is, it makes a copy of the current state of the program (using the Unix system call `fork`). If the variable *checkpoints* is set to `off`, the debugger will not take any checkpoints.

`set checkpoints` *on/off*
: Select whether the debugger makes checkpoints or not.

16.8.6 Communication between the debugger and the program

The debugger communicate with the program being debugged through a Unix socket. You may need to change the socket name, for example if you need to run the debugger on a machine and your program on another.

`set socket` *socket*
: Use *socket* for communication with the program. *socket* can be either a file name, or an Internet port specification *host*:*port*, where *host* is a host name or an Internet address in dot notation, and *port* is a port number on the host.

On the debugged program side, the socket name is passed through the `CAML_DEBUG_SOCKET` environment variable.

16.8.7 Fine-tuning the debugger

Several variables enables to fine-tune the debugger. Reasonable defaults are provided, and you should normally not have to change them.

`set processcount` *count*
: Set the maximum number of checkpoints to *count*. More checkpoints facilitate going far back in time, but use more memory and create more Unix processes.

As checkpointing is quite expensive, it must not be done too often. On the other hand, backward execution is faster when checkpoints are taken more often. In particular, backward single-stepping is more responsive when many checkpoints have been taken just before the current time. To fine-tune the checkpointing strategy, the debugger does not take checkpoints at the same frequency for long displacements (e.g. `run`) and small ones (e.g. `step`). The two variables `bigstep` and `smallstep` contain the number of events between two checkpoints in each case.

`set bigstep` *count*
: Set the number of events between two checkpoints for long displacements.

`set smallstep` *count*
: Set the number of events between two checkpoints for small displacements.

The following commands display information on checkpoints and events:

`info checkpoints`
: Print a list of checkpoints.

`info events` [*module*]
: Print the list of events in the given module (the current module, by default).

16.8.8 User-defined printers

Just as in the toplevel system (section 9.2), the user can register functions for printing values of certain types. For technical reasons, the debugger cannot call printing functions that reside in the program being debugged. The code for the printing functions must therefore be loaded explicitly in the debugger.

`load_printer` "*file-name*"
: Load in the debugger the indicated `.cmo` or `.cma` object file. The file is loaded in an environment consisting only of the OCaml standard library plus the definitions provided by object files previously loaded using `load_printer`. If this file depends on other object files not yet loaded, the debugger automatically loads them if it is able to find them in the search path. The loaded file does not have direct access to the modules of the program being debugged.

`install_printer` *printer-name*
: Register the function named *printer-name* (a value path) as a printer for objects whose types match the argument type of the function. That is, the debugger will call *printer-name* when it has such an object to print. The printing function *printer-name* must use the `Format` library module to produce its output, otherwise its output will not be correctly located in the values printed by the toplevel loop.

  The value path *printer-name* must refer to one of the functions defined by the object files loaded using `load_printer`. It cannot reference the functions of the program being debugged.

`remove_printer` *printer-name*
: Remove the named function from the table of value printers.

16.9 Miscellaneous commands

`list` [*module*] [*beginning*] [*end*]
: List the source of module *module*, from line number *beginning* to line number *end*. By default, 20 lines of the current module are displayed, starting 10 lines before the current position.

`source` *filename*
: Read debugger commands from the script *filename*.

16.10 Running the debugger under Emacs

The most user-friendly way to use the debugger is to run it under Emacs. See the file `emacs/README` in the distribution for information on how to load the Emacs Lisp files for OCaml support.

The OCaml debugger is started under Emacs by the command `M-x camldebug`, with argument the name of the executable file *progname* to debug. Communication with the debugger takes place in an Emacs buffer named `*camldebug-`*progname*`*`. The editing and history facilities of Shell mode are available for interacting with the debugger.

In addition, Emacs displays the source files containing the current event (the current position in the program execution) and highlights the location of the event. This display is updated synchronously with the debugger action.

The following bindings for the most common debugger commands are available in the `*camldebug-`*progname*`*` buffer:

`C-c C-s`
: (command `step`): execute the program one step forward.

`C-c C-k`
: (command `backstep`): execute the program one step backward.

`C-c C-n`
: (command `next`): execute the program one step forward, skipping over function calls.

Middle mouse button
: (command `display`): display named value. `$`*n* under mouse cursor (support incremental browsing of large data structures).

`C-c C-p`
: (command `print`): print value of identifier at point.

`C-c C-d`
: (command `display`): display value of identifier at point.

`C-c C-r`
: (command `run`): execute the program forward to next breakpoint.

`C-c C-v`
: (command `reverse`): execute the program backward to latest breakpoint.

`C-c C-l`
: (command `last`): go back one step in the command history.

`C-c C-t`
: (command `backtrace`): display backtrace of function calls.

`C-c C-f`
: (command `finish`): run forward till the current function returns.

`C-c <`
: (command `up`): select the stack frame below the current frame.

`C-c >`
: (command `down`): select the stack frame above the current frame.

In all buffers in OCaml editing mode, the following debugger commands are also available:

`C-x C-a C-b`
: (command `break`): set a breakpoint at event closest to point

`C-x C-a C-p`
: (command `print`): print value of identifier at point

`C-x C-a C-d`
: (command `display`): display value of identifier at point

Chapter 17

Profiling (ocamlprof)

This chapter describes how the execution of OCaml programs can be profiled, by recording how many times functions are called, branches of conditionals are taken, ...

17.1 Compiling for profiling

Before profiling an execution, the program must be compiled in profiling mode, using the `ocamlcp` front-end to the `ocamlc` compiler (see chapter 8) or the `ocamloptp` front-end to the `ocamlopt` compiler (see chapter 11). When compiling modules separately, `ocamlcp` or `ocamloptp` must be used when compiling the modules (production of `.cmo` or `.cmx` files), and can also be used (though this is not strictly necessary) when linking them together.

Note If a module (`.ml` file) doesn't have a corresponding interface (`.mli` file), then compiling it with `ocamlcp` will produce object files (`.cmi` and `.cmo`) that are not compatible with the ones produced by `ocamlc`, which may lead to problems (if the `.cmi` or `.cmo` is still around) when switching between profiling and non-profiling compilations. To avoid this problem, you should always have a `.mli` file for each `.ml` file. The same problem exists with `ocamloptp`.

Note To make sure your programs can be compiled in profiling mode, avoid using any identifier that begins with `__ocaml_prof`.

The amount of profiling information can be controlled through the `-P` option to `ocamlcp` or `ocamloptp`, followed by one or several letters indicating which parts of the program should be profiled:

`a` all options

`f` function calls : a count point is set at the beginning of each function body

`i` **if ... then ... else ...** : count points are set in both **then** branch and **else** branch

`l` **while, for** loops: a count point is set at the beginning of the loop body

`m` **match** branches: a count point is set at the beginning of the body of each branch `t` **try ... with ...** branches: a count point is set at the beginning of the body of each branch

For instance, compiling with `ocamlcp -P film` profiles function calls, if... then... else..., loops and pattern matching.

Calling `ocamlcp` or `ocamloptp` without the `-P` option defaults to `-P fm`, meaning that only function calls and pattern matching are profiled.

Note For compatibility with previous releases, `ocamlcp` also accepts the `-p` option, with the same arguments and behaviour as `-P`.

The `ocamlcp` and `ocamloptp` commands also accept all the options of the corresponding `ocamlc` or `ocamlopt` compiler, except the `-pp` (preprocessing) option.

17.2 Profiling an execution

Running an executable that has been compiled with `ocamlcp` or `ocamloptp` records the execution counts for the specified parts of the program and saves them in a file called `ocamlprof.dump` in the current directory.

If the environment variable `OCAMLPROF_DUMP` is set when the program exits, its value is used as the file name instead of `ocamlprof.dump`.

The dump file is written only if the program terminates normally (by calling `exit` or by falling through). It is not written if the program terminates with an uncaught exception.

If a compatible dump file already exists in the current directory, then the profiling information is accumulated in this dump file. This allows, for instance, the profiling of several executions of a program on different inputs. Note that dump files produced by byte-code executables (compiled with `ocamlcp`) are compatible with the dump files produced by native executables (compiled with `ocamloptp`).

17.3 Printing profiling information

The `ocamlprof` command produces a source listing of the program modules where execution counts have been inserted as comments. For instance,

```
ocamlprof foo.ml
```

prints the source code for the `foo` module, with comments indicating how many times the functions in this module have been called. Naturally, this information is accurate only if the source file has not been modified after it was compiled.

The following options are recognized by `ocamlprof`:

`-f` *dumpfile*
: Specifies an alternate dump file of profiling information to be read.

`-F` *string*
: Specifies an additional string to be output with profiling information. By default, `ocamlprof` will annotate programs with comments of the form `(*` *n* `*)` where *n* is the counter value for a profiling point. With option `-F` *s*, the annotation will be `(*` *sn* `*)`.

`-impl` *filename*
: Process the file *filename* as an implementation file, even if its extension is not `.ml`.

`-intf` *filename*
: Process the file *filename* as an interface file, even if its extension is not `.mli`.

`-version`
: Print version string and exit.

`-vnum`
: Print short version number and exit.

`-help` **or** `--help`
: Display a short usage summary and exit.

17.4 Time profiling

Profiling with `ocamlprof` only records execution counts, not the actual time spent within each function. There is currently no way to perform time profiling on bytecode programs generated by `ocamlc`.

Native-code programs generated by `ocamlopt` can be profiled for time and execution counts using the `-p` option and the standard Unix profiler `gprof`. Just add the `-p` option when compiling and linking the program:

```
ocamlopt -o myprog -p other-options files
./myprog
gprof myprog
```

OCaml function names in the output of `gprof` have the following format:

Module-name_function-name_unique-number

Other functions shown are either parts of the OCaml run-time system or external C functions linked with the program.

The output of `gprof` is described in the Unix manual page for `gprof(1)`. It generally consists of two parts: a “flat” profile showing the time spent in each function and the number of invocation of each function, and a “hierarchical” profile based on the call graph. Currently, only the Intel x86 ports of `ocamlopt` under Linux, BSD and MacOS X support the two profiles. On other platforms, `gprof` will report only the “flat” profile with just time information. When reading the output of `gprof`, keep in mind that the accumulated times computed by `gprof` are based on heuristics and may not be exact.

Note The `ocamloptp` command also accepts the `-p` option. In that case, both kinds of profiling are performed by the program, and you can display the results with the `gprof` and `ocamlprof` commands, respectively.

Chapter 18

The ocamlbuild compilation manager

(Chapter written by Berke Durak and Nicolas Pouillard)

`ocamlbuild` is a tool automating the compilation of most OCaml projects with minimal user input. Its use is not restricted to projects having a simple structure – the extra effort needed to make it work with the more complex projects is in reasonable proportion with their added complexity. In practice, one will use a set of small text files, and, if needed, an OCaml compilation module that can fine-tune the behaviour and define custom rules.

18.1 Features of `ocamlbuild`

This section is intended to read like a sales brochure or a datasheet.

- Built-in compilation rules for OCaml projects handle all the nasty cases: native and bytecode, missing `.mli` files, preprocessor rules, libraries, package (-pack) debugging and profiling flags, C stubs.
- Plugin mechanism for writing compilation rules and actions in a real programming language, OCaml itself.
- Automatic inference of dependencies.
- Correct handling of dynamically discovered dependencies.
- Object files and other temporary files are created in a specific directory, leaving your main directory uncluttered.
- Sanity checks ensure that object files are where they are supposed to be: in the build directory.
- Regular projects are built using a single command with no extra files.
- Parallel compilation to speed up things on multi-core systems.
- Sophisticated display mode to keep your screen free of boring and repetitive compilation message while giving you important progress information in a glimpse, and correctly multiplexing the error messages.

- Tags and flags provide a concise and convenient mechanism for automatic selection of compilation, preprocessing and other options.
- Extended shell-like glob patterns, that can be combined using boolean operators, allow you to concisely define the tags that apply to a given file.
- Mechanisms for defining the mutual visibility of subdirectories.
- Cache mechanism avoiding unnecessary compilations where reasonably computable.

18.2 Limitations

Not perfect nor complete yet, but already pretty damn useful.

We were not expecting to write the ultimate compilation tool in a few man-months, however we believe we have a tool that solves many compilation problems, especially our own, in a satisfactory way. Hence there are a lot of missing features, incomplete options and hideous bugs lurking in `ocamlbuild`, and we hope that the OCaml community will find our first try at `ocamlbuild` useful and hopefully help it grow into a tool that satisfies most needs of most users by providing feedback, bug reports and patches.

The plugin API maybe somewhat lacking in maturity, as it has only been tested by a few people. We believe a good API can only evolve under pressure from many peers and the courage to rewrite things cleanly when time is ripe by the developers. Most of the important functions a user will need are encapsulated in the plugin API, which is the `Ocamlbuild_plugin` module pack. We intend to keep that API backwards compatible. It may happen that intricate projects need features not available in that module – you may then use functions or values directly from the core `ocamlbuild` modules. We ask you to report such usage to the authors so that we may make the necessary changes to the API; you may also want to isolate calls to the non-API parts of the `ocamlbuild` library from the rest of your plugin to be able to keep the later when incompatible changes arise.

The way that `ocamlbuild` handles the command-line options, the `_tags` file, the target names, names of the tags, and so on, are not expected to change in incompatible ways. We intend to keep a project that compiles without a plugin compilable without modifications in the future.

18.3 Using `ocamlbuild`

Learn how to use `ocamlbuild` with short, specific, straight-to-the-point examples.

The amount of time and effort spent on the compilation process of a project should be proportionate to that spent on the project itself. It should be easy to set up a small project, maybe a little harder for a medium-sized project, and it may take some more time, but not too much, for a big project. Ideally setting up a big project would be as easy as setting up a small project. However, as projects grow, modularization techniques start to be used, and the probability of using meta programming or multiple programming languages increases, thus making the compilation process more delicate.

`ocamlbuild` is intended to be very easy to use for projects, large or small, with a simple compilation process: typing `ocamlbuild foo.native` should be enough to compile the native version of a program whose top module is `foo.ml` and whose dependencies are in the same directory. As your project gets more complex, you will gradually start to use command-line options to specify libraries to link with, then configuration files, ultimately culminating in a custom OCaml plugin for complex projects with arbitrary dependencies and actions.

18.3.1 Hygiene & where is my code ?

Your code is in the `_build` directory, but `ocamlbuild` automatically creates a symbolic link to the executables it produces in the current directory. `ocamlbuild` copies the source files and compiles them in a separate directory which is `_build` by default.

For `ocamlbuild`, any file that is not in the build directory is a source file. It is not unreasonable to think that some users may have bought binary object files they keep in their project directory. Usually binary files cluttering the project directory are due to previous builds using other systems. `ocamlbuild` has so-called "hygiene" rules that state that object files (`.cmo`, `.cmi`, or `.o` files, for instance) must not appear outside of the build directory. These rules are enforced at startup; any violations will be reported and `ocamlbuild` will exit. You must then remove these files by hand or run, with caution, the script `sanitize.sh`, which is generated in your source directory. This script will contain commands to remove them for you.

To disable these checks, you can use the `-no-hygiene` flag. If you have files that must elude the hygiene squad, just tag them with `precious` or `not_hygienic`.

18.3.2 Hello, world !

Assuming we are in a directory named `example1` containing one file `hello.ml` whose contents are

```
let _ =
  Printf.printf "Hello, %s ! My name is %s\n"
    (if Array.length Sys.argv > 1 then Sys.argv.(1) else "stranger")
    Sys.argv.(0)
;;
```

we can compile and link it into a native executable by invoking `ocamlbuild hello.native`. Here, `hello` is the basename of the top-level module and `native` is an extension used by `ocamlbuild` to denote native code executables.

```
% ls
hello.ml
% ocamlbuild hello.native
Finished, 4 targets (0 cached) in 00:00:00.
% ls -l
total 12
drwxrwx--- 2 linus gallium 4096 2007-01-17 16:24 _build/
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium   43 2007-01-17 16:23 hello.ml
lrwxrwxrwx 1 linus gallium   19 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.native -> _build/hello.native*
```

What's this funny `_build` directory ? Well that's where `ocamlbuild` does its dirty work of compiling. You usually won't have to look very often into this directory. Source files are copied into `_build` and this is where the compilers will be run. Various cache files are also stored there. Its contents may look like this:

```
% ls -l _build
total 208
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium    337 2007-01-17 16:24 _digests
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium    191 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.cmi
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium    262 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.cmo
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium    225 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.cmx
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium     43 2007-01-17 16:23 hello.ml
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium     17 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.ml.depends
-rwxrwx--- 1 linus gallium 173528 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.native*
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium    936 2007-01-17 16:24 hello.o
-rw-rw---- 1 linus gallium     22 2007-01-17 16:24 ocamlc.where
```

18.3.3 Executing my code

You can execute your code the old-fashioned way (`./hello.native`). You may also type

```
ocamlbuild hello.native -- Caesar
```

and it will compile and then run `hello.native` with the arguments following `--`, which should display:

```
% ocamlbuild hello.native -- Caesar
Finished, 4 targets (0 cached) in 00:00:00.
Hello, Caesar ! My name is _build/hello.native
```

18.3.4 The log file, verbosity and debugging

By default, if you run `ocamlbuild` on a terminal, it will use some ANSI escape sequences to display a nice, one-line progress indicator. To see what commands `ocamlbuild` has actually run, you can check the contents of the `_build/_log` file. To change the name of the log file or to disable logging, use the `-log <file>` or `-no-log` options. Note that the log file is truncated at each execution of `ocamlbuild`.

The log file contains all the external commands that `ocamlbuild` ran or intended to run along with the target name and the computed tags. With the `-verbose <level>` option, `ocamlbuild` will also write more or less useful debugging information; a verbosity level of 1 (which can also be specified using the `-verbose` switch) prints generally useful information; higher levels produce much more output.

18.3.5 Cleaning

`ocamlbuild` may leave a `_build` directory and symbolic links to executables in that directory (unless when using -no-links). All of these can be removed safely by hand, or by invoking `ocamlbuild` with the `-clean` flag.

18.3.6 Where and how to run `ocamlbuild`?

An important point is that `ocamlbuild` must be invoked from the root of the project, even if this project has multiple, nested subdirectories. This is because `ocamlbuild` likes to store the object files in a single `_build` directory. You can change the name of that directory with the `-build-dir` option.

`ocamlbuild` can be either invoked manually from the UNIX or Windows shell, or automatically from a build script or a Makefile. Unless run with the `-no-hygiene` option, there is the possibility that `ocamlbuild` will prompt the user for a response. By default, on UNIX systems, if `ocamlbuild` senses that the standard output is a terminal, it will use a nice progress indicator using ANSI codes, instrumenting the output of the processes it spawns to have a consistent display. Under non-UNIX systems, or if the standard output is not a terminal, it will run in classic mode where it will echo the executed commands on its standard output. This selection can be overridden with the `-classic-display` option.

18.3.7 Dependencies

Dependencies are automatically discovered.

Most of the value of `ocamlbuild` lies in the fact that it often needs no extra information to compile a project besides the name of the top-level module. `ocamlbuild` calls `ocamldep` to automatically find the dependencies of any modules it wants to compile. These dependencies are dynamically incorporated in the dependency graph, something `make` cannot do. For instance, let's add a module `Greet` that implements various ways of greeting people.

```
% cat greet.ml
type how = Nicely | Badly;;

let greet how who =
  match how with Nicely -> Printf.printf "Hello, %s !\n" who
               | Badly  -> Printf.printf "Oh, here is that %s again.\n" who
;;
% cat hello.ml
open Greet

let _ =
  let name =
    if Array.length Sys.argv > 1 then
      Sys.argv.(1)
    else
      "stranger"
  in
  greet
    (if name = "Caesar" then Nicely else Badly)
    name;
  Printf.printf "My name is %s\n" Sys.argv.(0)
;;
```

Then the module Hello depends on the module Greet and ocamlbuild can figure this out for himself – we still only have to invoke ocamlbuild hello.native. Needless to say, this works for any number of modules.

18.3.8 Native and byte-code

If we want to compile byte-code instead of native, we just a target name of hello.byte instead of hello.native, i.e., we type ocamlbuild hello.byte.

18.3.9 Compile flags

To pass a flag to the compiler, such as the -rectypes option, use the -cflag option as in:

```
ocamlbuild -cflag -rectypes hello.native
```

You can put multiple -cflag options, they will be passed to the compiler in the same order. You can also give them in a comma-separated list with the -cflags option (notice the plural):

```
ocamlbuild -cflags -I,+lablgtk,-rectypes hello.native
```

These flags apply when compiling, that is, when producing .cmi, .cmo,.cmx and .o files from .ml or .mli files.

18.3.10 Link flags

Link flags apply when the various object files are collected and linked into one executable. These will typically be include directories for libraries. They are given using the -lflag and -lflags options, which work in the same way as the -cflag and -cflags options.

18.3.11 Linking with external libraries

In our third example, we use one Unix system call and functions from the num library:

```
% cat epoch.ml
let _ =
  let s = Num.num_of_string (Printf.sprintf "%.0f" (Unix.gettimeofday ())) in
  let ps = Num.mult_num (Num.num_of_string "1000000000000") s in
  Printf.printf "%s picoseconds have passed since January 1st, 1970.\n"
    (Num.string_of_num ps)
;;
```

This requires linking with the unix and num modules, which is accomplished by using the -lib unix and -lib num flags, or, alternatively, -libs unix,num:

```
% ocamlbuild -libs nums,unix epoch.native --
Finished, 4 targets (4 cached) in 00:00:00.
1169051647000000000000 picoseconds have passed since January 1st, 1970.
```

You may need to add options such as -cflags -I,/usr/local/lib/ocaml/ and -lflags -I,/usr/local/lib/ocaml/ if the libraries you wish to link with are not in OCaml's default search path.

18.3.12 The `_tags` files

Finer control over the compiler flags applied to each source file, such as preprocessing, debugging, profiling and linking options, can be gained using `ocamlbuild`'s tagging mechanism.

Every source file has a set of tags which tells `ocamlbuild` what kind of file it is and what to do with it. A tag is simply a string, usually lowercase, for example `ocaml` or `native`. The set of tags attached to a file is computed by applying the tagging rules to the filename. Tagging rules are defined in `_tags` files in any parent directory of a file, up to the main project directory.

Each line in the `_tags` file is made of a glob pattern (see subsection 18.3.13) and a list of tags. More than one rule can apply to a file and rules are applied in the order in which they appear in a file. By preceding a tag with a minus sign, one may remove tags from one or more files.

Example: the built-in `_tags` file

```
<**/*.ml> or <**/*.mli> or <**/*.mlpack> or <**/*.ml.depends>: ocaml
<**/*.byte>: ocaml, byte, program
<**/*.odoc>: ocaml, doc
<**/*.native>: ocaml, native, program
<**/*.cma>: ocaml, byte, library
<**/*.cmxa>: ocaml, native, library
<**/*.cmo>: ocaml, byte
<**/*.cmi>: ocaml, byte, native
<**/*.cmx>: ocaml, native
```

Two special tags made from the path name of the file relative to the toplevel of the project are automatically defined for each file. For a file `foo/bar.ml` those tags will be `file:foo/bar.ml`, and `extension:ml`.

If you do not have subdirectories, you can put `*.ml` instead of `**/*.ml`.

18.3.13 Glob patterns and expressions

Glob patterns have a syntax similar to those used by UNIX shells to select path names (like `foo_*.ba?`). They are used in `ocamlbuild` to define the files and directories to which tags apply. Glob expressions are glob patterns enclosed in brackets `<` and `>` combined using the standard boolean operators `and`, `or`, `not`. This allows one to describe sets of path names in more concise and more readable ways.

Please note that file and directory names are supposed to be made of the following characters: `a`, …, `z`, `A`, …, `Z`, `0`, …, `9`, `_`, `-` and `.`. This is called the pathname alphabet P.

18.3.14 Subdirectories

If the files of your project are held in one or more subdirectories, `ocamlbuild` must be made aware of that fact using the `-I` or `-Is` options or by adding an `include` tag. For instance, assume your project is made of three subdirectories, `foo`, `bar` and `baz` containing various `.ml` files, the main file being `foo/main.ml`. Then you can either type:

```
% ocamlbuild -Is foo,bar,baz foo/main.native
```

Formal syntax	*Example*	*Matches*	*Does not match*	*Meaning (formal meaning)*
u A string of pathname characters	foo.ml	foo.ml	fo.ml, bar/foo.ml	The exact string u ($\{u\}$, where $u \in P^*$)
* The wild-card star	*	ε, foo, bar	foo/bar, /bar	Any string not containing a slash (P^*)
? The joker	?	a, b, z	/, bar	Any one-letter string, excluding the slash
**/ The prefix inter-directory star	**/foo.ml	foo.ml, bar/foo.ml, bar/baz/foo.ml	foo/bar, /bar	The empty string, or any string ending with a slash ($\varepsilon \cup P^*/$)
/** The suffix inter-directory star	foo/**	foo, foo/bar	bar/foo	Any string starting with a slash, or the empty string ($\varepsilon \cup /P^*$)
/**/ The infix inter-directory star	bar/**/foo.ml	bar/foo.ml, bar/baz/foo.ml	foo.ml	Any string starting and ending with a slash ($\varepsilon \cup /P^*/$)
$[r_1 r_2 \cdots r_k]$ where r_i is either c or $c_1 - c_2$ $(1 \leq i \leq k)$ The positive character class	[a-fA-F0-9_.]	3, F, .	z, bar	Any one-letter string made of characters from one of the ranges r_i $(1 \leq i \leq n)$. $(\mathcal{L}(r_1) \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{L}(r_n))$
[^$r_1 r_2 \cdots r_k$] where r_i is either c or $c_1 - c_2$ $(1 \leq i \leq k)$ The negative character class	[^a-fA-F0-9_.]	z, bar	3, F, .	Any one-letter string NOT made of characters from one of the ranges r_i $(1 \leq i \leq n)$. $(\Sigma^* \setminus (\mathcal{L}(r_1) \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{L}(r_n)))$
$p_1 p_2$ A concatenation of patterns	foo*	foo, foob, foobar	fo, bar	Any string with a prefix matching p_1 and the corresponding suffix matching p_2, $(\{uv \mid u \in \mathcal{L}(p_1), v \in \mathcal{L}(p_2)\})$
$\{p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_k\}$ A union of patterns	toto.{ml,mli}	toto.ml, toto.mli	toto.	Any string matching one of the patterns p_i for $1 \leq i \leq k$. $(\mathcal{L}(p_1) \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{L}(p_k))$

Table 18.1: Syntax and semantics of glob patterns.

Formal syntax	*Example*	*Meaning (formal meaning)*
<p>	<foo.ml>	Pathnames matching the pattern p
e_1 or e_2	<*.ml> or <foo/bar.ml>	Pathnames matching at least one of the expressions e_1 and e_2
e_1 and e_2	<*.ml> and <foo_*>	Pathnames matching both expressions e_1 and e_2
not e	not <*.mli>	Pathnames not matching the expression e
true	true	All pathnames
false	false	No pathnames

Table 18.2: Syntax and semantics of glob expressions.

or add the following line in the `_tags` file

```
<foo> or <bar> or <baz>: include
```

and call

```
% ocamlbuild foo/main.native
```

There are then two cases. If no other modules named `Bar` or `Baz` exist elsewhere in the project, then you are done. Just use `Foo`, `Foo.Bar` and `Foo.Baz` in your code. Otherwise, you will need to use the plugin mechanism and define the mutual visibility of the subdirectories using the `Pathname.define_context` function.

Note on subdirectory traversal

`ocamlbuild` used to traverse by default any subdirectory not explicitly excluded. This is no longer the case. Note that you can still have a fine grained control using your `_tags` file and the `traverse` tag.

There is no longer the `true: traverse` tag declaration by default. To make `ocamlbuild` recursive use one of these:

1. Give the `-r` flag to ocamlbuild.
2. Have a `_tags` or myocamlbuild.ml file in your top directory.

18.3.15 Grouping targets with `.itarget`

You can create a file named `foo.itarget` containing a list of targets, one per line, such as

```
main.native
main.byte
stuff.docdir/index.html
```

Requesting the target `foo.otarget` will then build every target listed in the file `foo.itarget`. Blank lines and lines starting with a sharp (`#`) are ignored.

18.3.16 Packing subdirectories into modules

OCaml's `-pack` option allows you to structure the contents of a module in a subdirectory. For instance, assume you have a directory `foo` containing two modules `bar.ml` and `baz.ml`. You want from these to build a module `Foo` containing `Bar` and `Baz` as submodules. In the case where no modules named `Bar` or `Baz` exist outside of `Foo`, to do this you must write a file `foo.mlpack`, preferably sitting in the same directory as the directory `Foo` and containing the list of modules (one per line) it must contain:

```
Bar
Baz
```

Then when you will request for building `foo.cmo` the package will be made from `bar.cmo` and `baz.cmo`.

18.3.17 Making an OCaml library

In a similar way than for packaged modules you can make a library by putting it's contents in a file (with the mllib extension). For instance, assume you have a two modules `bar.ml` and `baz.ml`. You want from these to build a library `foo.cmx?a` containing `Bar` and `Baz` modules. To do this you must write a file `foo.mllib` containing the list of modules (one per line) it must contain:

```
Bar
Baz
```

Then when you will request for building `foo.cma` the library will be made from `bar.cmo` and `baz.cmo`.

18.3.18 Making an OCaml toplevel

Making a toplevel is almost the same thing than making a packaged module or a library. Just write a file with the `mltop` extension (like `foo.mltop`) and request for building the toplevel using the `top` extension (`foo.top` in this example).

18.3.19 Preprocessor options and tags

You can specify preprocessor options with `-pp` followed by the preprocessor string, for instance `ocamlbuild -pp camlp4o.opt -unsafe` would run your sources through CamlP4 with the `-unsafe` option. Another way is to use the tags file.

Tag	**Preprocessor command**	**Remark**
`pp(cmd...)`	`cmd...`	Arbitrary preprocessor command[1]
`camlp4o`	`camlp4o`	Original OCaml syntax
`camlp4r`	`camlp4r`	Revised OCaml syntax
`camlp4of`	`camlp4of`	Original OCaml syntax with extensions
`camlp4rf`	`camlp4rf`	Revised OCaml syntax with extensions

18.3.20 Debugging byte code and profiling native code

The preferred way of compiling code suitable for debugging with `ocamldebug` or profiling native code with `ocamlprof` is to use the appropriate target extensions, `.d.byte` for debugging or `.p.native`.

Another way is to add use the `debug` or `profile` tags. Note that these tags must be applied at the compilation and linking stages. Hence you must either use `-tag debug` or `-tag profile` on the command line, or add a

```
true: debug
```

line to your `_tags` file. Please note that the byte-code profiler works in a wholly different way and is not supported by `ocamlbuild`.

18.3.21 Generating documentation using `ocamldoc`

Write the names of the modules whose interfaces will be documented in a file whose extension is `.odocl`, for example `foo.odocl`, then invoke `ocamlbuild` on the target `foo.docdir/index.html`. This will collect all the documentation from the interfaces (which will be build, if necessary) using `ocamldoc` and generate a set of HTML files under the directory `foo.docdir/`, which is actually a link to `_build/foo.docdir/`. As for packing subdirectories into modules, the module names must be written one per line, without extensions and correctly capitalized. Note that generating documentation in formats other than HTML or from implementations is not supported.

18.3.22 The display line

Provided `ocamlbuild` runs in a terminal under a POSIX environment, it will display a sophisticated progress-indicator line that graciously interacts with the output of subcommands. This line looks like this:

```
00:00:02 210  (180 ) main.cmx                                 ONbp--il /
```

Here, 00:00:02 is the elapsed time in hour:minute:second format since `ocamlbuild` has been invoked; 210 is the number of external commands, typically calls to the compiler or the like, that may or may not have been invoked; 180 is the number of external commands that have not been invoked since their result is already in the build directory; `main.cmx` is the name of the last target built; `ONbp--il` is a short string that describes the tags that have been encountered and the slash at the end is a frame from a rotating ticker. Hence, the display line has the following structure:

```
HH:MM:SS JOBS (CACHED) PATHNAME                               TAGS TICKER
```

The tag string is made of 8 indicators which each monitor a tag. These tags are `ocaml`, `native`, `byte`, `program`, `pp`, `debug`, `interf` and `link`. Initially, each indicator displays a dash `-`. If the current target has the monitored tag, then the indicator displays the corresponding character (see table 18.3) in uppercase. Otherwise, it displays that character in lowercase. This allows you to see the set of tags that have been applied to files in your project during the current invocation of `ocamlbuild`.

Hence the tag string `ONbp--il` means that the current target `main.cmx` has the tags `ocaml` and `native`, and that the tags `ocaml`, `native`, `byte`, `program`, `interf` and `link` have already been seen.

18.3.23 `ocamllex`, `ocamlyacc` and `menhir`

`ocamlbuild` knows how to run the standard lexer and parser generator tools `ocamllex` and `ocamlyacc` when your files have the standard `.mll` and `.mly` extensions. If you want to use `menhir` instead of `ocamlyacc`, you can either launch `ocamlbuild` with the `-use-menhir` option or add a

```
true: use_menhir
```

line to your `_tags` file. Note that there is currently no way of using `menhir` and `ocamlyacc` in the same execution of `ocamlbuild`.

Tag	Display character
ocaml	O
native	N
byte	B
program	P
pp	R
debug	D
interf	I
link	L

Table 18.3: Relation between the characters displayed in the tag string and the tags.

18.3.24 Changing the compilers or tools

As `ocamlbuild` is part of your OCaml distribution, it knows if it can call the native compilers and tools (`ocamlc.opt`, `ocamlopt.opt`...) or not. However you may want `ocamlbuild` to use another `ocaml` compiler for different reasons (such as cross-compiling or using a wrapper such as `ocamlfind`). Here is the list of relevant options:

- `-ocamlc <command>`
- `-ocamlopt <command>`
- `-ocamldep <command>`
- `-ocamlyacc <command>`
- `-menhir <command>`
- `-ocamllex <command>`
- `-ocamlmktop <command>`
- `-ocamlrun <command>`

18.3.25 Interaction with version control systems

Here are tips for configuring your version control system to ignore the files and directories generated by `ocamlbuild`.

The directory `_build` and any symbolic links pointing into `_build` should be ignored. To do this, you must add the following ignore patterns to your version control system's ignore set:

```
_build
*.native
*.byte
*.d.native
*.p.byte
```

For CVS, add the above lines to the `.cvsignore` file. For Subversion (SVN), type `svn propedit svn:ignore .` and add the above lines.

18.3.26 A shell script for driving it all?

To shell or to make ? Traditionally, makefiles have two major functions. The first one is the dependency-ordering, rule-matching logic used for compiling. The second one is as a dispatcher for various actions defined using phony targets with shell script actions. These actions include cleaning, cleaning really well, archiving, uploading and so on. Their characteristic is that they rely little or not on the building process – they either need the building to have been completed, or they don't need anything. As `/bin/sh` scripts have been here for three to four decades and are not going anywhere, why not replace that functionality of makefiles with a shell script ? We have thought of three bad reasons:

- Typing `make` to compile is now an automatism,
- We need to share variable definitions between rules and actions,
- Escaping already way too special-character-sensitive shell code with invisible tabs and backslashes is a dangerously fun game.

We also have bad reasons for not using an OCaml script to drive everything:

- `Sys.command` calls the `/bin/sh` anyway,
- Shell scripts can execute partial commands or commands with badly formed arguments.
- Shell scripts are more concise for expressing... shell scripts.

Anyway you are of course free to use a makefile or an OCaml script to call ocamlbuild. Here is an example shell driver script:

```
#!/bin/sh

set -e

TARGET=epoch
FLAGS="-libs unix,nums"
OCAMLBUILD=ocamlbuild

ocb()
{
  $OCAMLBUILD $FLAGS $*
}

rule() {
  case $1 in
    clean)  ocb -clean;;
    native) ocb $TARGET.native;;
    byte)   ocb $TARGET.byte;;
    all)    ocb $TARGET.native $TARGET.byte;;
    depend) echo "Not needed.";;
```

```
    *)      echo "Unknown action $1";;
  esac;
}

if [ $# -eq 0 ]; then
  rule all
else
  while [ $# -gt 0 ]; do
    rule $1;
    shift
  done
fi
```

18.4 Appendix: Motivations

This inflammatory appendix describes the frustration that led us to write ***ocamlbuild****.*

Many people have painfully found that the utilities of the `make` family, namely GNU Make, BSD Make, and their derivatives, fail to scale to large projects, especially when using multi-stage compilation rules, such as custom pre-processors, unless dependencies are hand-defined. But as your project gets larger, more modular, and uses more diverse pre-processing tools, it becomes increasingly difficult to correctly define dependencies by hand. Hence people tend to use language-specific tools that attempt to extract dependencies. However another problem then appears: `make` was designed with the idea of a static dependency graph. Dependency extracting tools, however, are typically run by a rule in `make` itself; this means that make has to reload the dependency information. This is the origin of the `make clean; make depend; make` mantra. This approach tends to work quite well as long as all the files sit in a single directory and there is only one stage of pre-processing. If there are two or more stages, then dependency extracting tools must be run two or more times - and this means multiple invocations of `make`. Also, if one distributes the modules of a large project into multiple subdirectories, it becomes difficult to distribute the makefiles themselves, because the language of `make` was not conceived to be modular; the only two mechanisms permitted, inclusion of makefile fragments, and invocation of other make instances, must be skillfully coordinated with phony target names (`depend1, depend2...`) to insure inclusion of generated dependencies with multi-stage programming; changes in the structure of the project must be reflected by hand and the order of variable definitions must be well-thought ahead to avoid long afternoons spent combinatorially fiddling makefiles until it works but no one understands why.

These problems become especially apparent with OCaml: to ensure type safety and to allow a small amount of cross-unit optimization when compiling native code, interface and object files include cryptographical digests of interfaces they are to be linked with. This means that linking is safer, but that makefile sloppiness leads to messages such as:

```
Files foo.cmo and bar.cmo
make inconsistent assumptions over interface Bar
```

The typical reaction is then to issue the mantra `make clean; make depend; make` and everything compiles just fine... from the beginning. Hence on medium projects, the programmer often has to wait for minutes instead of the few seconds that would be taken if `make` could correctly guess the small number of files that really had to be recompiled.

It is not surprising that hacking a build tool such as `make` to include a programming language while retaining the original syntax and semantics gives an improvised and cumbersome macro language of dubious expressive power. For example, using GNU make, suppose you have a list of `.ml`s that you want to convert into a list including both `.cmo`s and `.cmi`s, that is you want to transform `a.ml b.ml c.ml` into `a.cmi a.cmo b.cmi b.cmo c.cmi c.cmo` while preserving the dependency order which must be hand specified for linking [2]. Unfortunately `$patsubst %.ml, %.cmi %.cmo, a.ml b.ml c.ml` won't work since the %-sign in the right-hand of a `patsubst` gets substituted only once. You then have to delve into something that is hardly lambda calculus: an intricate network of `foreach`, `eval`, `call` and `define`s may get you the job done, unless you chicken out and opt for an external `awk`, `sed` or `perl` call. People who at this point have not lost their temper or sanity usually resort to metaprogramming by writing Makefile generators using a mixture of shell and m4. One such an attempt gave something that is the nightmare of wannabe package maintainers: it's called `autotools`.

Note that it is also difficult to write `Makefiles` to build object files in a separate directory. It is not impossible since the language of `make` is Turing-complete, a proof of which is left as an exercise. Note that building things in a separate directory is not necessarily a young enthusiast's way of giving a different look and feel to his projects – it may be a good way of telling the computer that `foo.mli` is generated by `ocamlyacc` using `foo.mly` and can thus be removed.

18.5 Appendix: Summary of default rules

The contents of this table give a summary of the most important default rules. To get the most accurate and up-to-date information, launch `ocamlbuild` with the `-documentation` option.

[2] By the way, what's the point of having a declarative language if `make` can't sort the dependencies in topological order for giving them to `gcc` or whatever ?

Tags	Dependencies	Targets
	%.itarget	%.otarget
ocaml	%.mli %.mli.depends	%.cmi
byte, debug, ocaml	%.mlpack %.cmi	%.d.cmo
byte, ocaml	%.mlpack	%.cmo %.cmi
byte, ocaml	%.mli %.ml %.ml.depends %.cmi	%.d.cmo
byte, ocaml	%.mli %.ml %.ml.depends %.cmi	%.cmo
native, ocaml, profile	%.mlpack %.cmi	%.p.cmx %.p.o
native, ocaml	%.mlpack %.cmi	%.cmx %.o
native, ocaml, profile	%.ml %.ml.depends %.cmi	%.p.cmx %.p.o
native, ocaml	%.ml %.ml.depends %.cmi	%.cmx %.o
debug, ocaml	%.ml %.ml.depends %.cmi	%.d.cmo
ocaml	%.ml %.ml.depends	%.cmo %.cmi
byte, debug, ocaml, program	%.d.cmo	%.d.byte
byte, ocaml, program	%.cmo	%.byte
native, ocaml, profile, program	%.p.cmx %.p.o	%.p.native
native, ocaml, program	%.cmx %.o	%.native
byte, debug, library, ocaml	%.mllib	%.d.cma
byte, library, ocaml	%.mllib	%.cma
byte, debug, library, ocaml	%.d.cmo	%.d.cma
byte, library, ocaml	%.cmo	%.cma
	lib%(libname).clib	lib%(libname).a dll%(libname).so
	%(path)/lib%(libname).clib	%(path)/lib%(libname).a %(path)/dll%(libname).so
library, native, ocaml, profile	%.mllib	%.p.cmxa %.p.a
library, native, ocaml	%.mllib	%.cmxa %.a
library, native, ocaml, profile	%.p.cmx %.p.o	%.p.cmxa %.p.a
library, native, ocaml	%.cmx %.o	%.cmxa %.a
	%.ml	%.ml.depends
	%.mli	%.mli.depends
ocaml	%.mll	%.ml
doc, ocaml	%.mli %.mli.depends	%.odoc
	%.odocl	%.docdir/index.html
ocaml	%.mly	%.ml %.mli
	%.c	%.o
	%.ml %.ml.depends	%.inferred.mli

Chapter 19

Interfacing C with OCaml

This chapter describes how user-defined primitives, written in C, can be linked with OCaml code and called from OCaml functions, and how these C functions can call back to OCaml code.

19.1 Overview and compilation information

19.1.1 Declaring primitives

definition	::=	...
	|	`external` *value-name* `:` *typexpr* `=` *external-declaration*
external-declaration	::=	*string-literal* [*string-literal* [*string-literal*]]

User primitives are declared in an implementation file or `struct`...`end` module expression using the `external` keyword:

`external` *name* `:` *type* `=` *C-function-name*

This defines the value name *name* as a function with type *type* that executes by calling the given C function. For instance, here is how the `input` primitive is declared in the standard library module `Pervasives`:

```
external input : in_channel -> bytes -> int -> int -> int
               = "input"
```

Primitives with several arguments are always curried. The C function does not necessarily have the same name as the ML function.

External functions thus defined can be specified in interface files or `sig`...`end` signatures either as regular values

`val` *name* `:` *type*

thus hiding their implementation as C functions, or explicitly as "manifest" external functions

`external` *name* `:` *type* `=` *C-function-name*

The latter is slightly more efficient, as it allows clients of the module to call directly the C function instead of going through the corresponding OCaml function. On the other hand, it should not be used in library modules if they have side-effects at toplevel, as this direct call interferes with the linker's algorithm for removing unused modules from libraries at link-time.

The arity (number of arguments) of a primitive is automatically determined from its OCaml type in the `external` declaration, by counting the number of function arrows in the type. For instance, `input` above has arity 4, and the `input` C function is called with four arguments. Similarly,

```
external input2 : in_channel * bytes * int * int -> int = "input2"
```

has arity 1, and the `input2` C function receives one argument (which is a quadruple of OCaml values).

Type abbreviations are not expanded when determining the arity of a primitive. For instance,

```
type int_endo = int -> int
external f : int_endo -> int_endo = "f"
external g : (int -> int) -> (int -> int) = "f"
```

`f` has arity 1, but `g` has arity 2. This allows a primitive to return a functional value (as in the `f` example above): just remember to name the functional return type in a type abbreviation.

The language accepts external declarations with one or two flag strings in addition to the C function's name. These flags are reserved for the implementation of the standard library.

19.1.2 Implementing primitives

User primitives with arity $n \leq 5$ are implemented by C functions that take n arguments of type `value`, and return a result of type `value`. The type `value` is the type of the representations for OCaml values. It encodes objects of several base types (integers, floating-point numbers, strings, ...) as well as OCaml data structures. The type `value` and the associated conversion functions and macros are described in detail below. For instance, here is the declaration for the C function implementing the `input` primitive:

```
CAMLprim value input(value channel, value buffer, value offset, value length)
{
  ...
}
```

When the primitive function is applied in an OCaml program, the C function is called with the values of the expressions to which the primitive is applied as arguments. The value returned by the function is passed back to the OCaml program as the result of the function application.

User primitives with arity greater than 5 should be implemented by two C functions. The first function, to be used in conjunction with the bytecode compiler `ocamlc`, receives two arguments: a pointer to an array of OCaml values (the values for the arguments), and an integer which is the number of arguments provided. The other function, to be used in conjunction with the native-code compiler `ocamlopt`, takes its arguments directly. For instance, here are the two C functions for the 7-argument primitive `Nat.add_nat`:

```
CAMLprim value add_nat_native(value nat1, value ofs1, value len1,
                              value nat2, value ofs2, value len2,
                              value carry_in)
{
  ...
}
CAMLprim value add_nat_bytecode(value * argv, int argn)
{
  return add_nat_native(argv[0], argv[1], argv[2], argv[3],
                        argv[4], argv[5], argv[6]);
}
```

The names of the two C functions must be given in the primitive declaration, as follows:

> `external` *name* `:` *type* `=`
> *bytecode-C-function-name native-code-C-function-name*

For instance, in the case of `add_nat`, the declaration is:

```
external add_nat: nat -> int -> int -> nat -> int -> int -> int -> int
                = "add_nat_bytecode" "add_nat_native"
```

Implementing a user primitive is actually two separate tasks: on the one hand, decoding the arguments to extract C values from the given OCaml values, and encoding the return value as an OCaml value; on the other hand, actually computing the result from the arguments. Except for very simple primitives, it is often preferable to have two distinct C functions to implement these two tasks. The first function actually implements the primitive, taking native C values as arguments and returning a native C value. The second function, often called the "stub code", is a simple wrapper around the first function that converts its arguments from OCaml values to C values, call the first function, and convert the returned C value to OCaml value. For instance, here is the stub code for the `input` primitive:

```
CAMLprim value input(value channel, value buffer, value offset, value length)
{
  return Val_long(getblock((struct channel *) channel,
                           &Byte(buffer, Long_val(offset)),
                           Long_val(length)));
}
```

(Here, `Val_long`, `Long_val` and so on are conversion macros for the type `value`, that will be described later. The `CAMLprim` macro expands to the required compiler directives to ensure that the function is exported and accessible from OCaml.) The hard work is performed by the function `getblock`, which is declared as:

```
long getblock(struct channel * channel, char * p, long n)
{
  ...
}
```

To write C code that operates on OCaml values, the following include files are provided:

Include file	Provides
`caml/mlvalues.h`	definition of the `value` type, and conversion macros
`caml/alloc.h`	allocation functions (to create structured OCaml objects)
`caml/memory.h`	miscellaneous memory-related functions and macros (for GC interface, in-place modification of structures, etc).
`caml/fail.h`	functions for raising exceptions (see section 19.4.5)
`caml/callback.h`	callback from C to OCaml (see section 19.7).
`caml/custom.h`	operations on custom blocks (see section 19.9).
`caml/intext.h`	operations for writing user-defined serialization and deserialization functions for custom blocks (see section 19.9).
`caml/threads.h`	operations for interfacing in the presence of multiple threads (see section 19.10).

These files reside in the `caml/` subdirectory of the OCaml standard library directory, which is returned by the command `ocamlc -where` (usually `/usr/local/lib/ocaml` or `/usr/lib/ocaml`).

Note: It is recommended to define the macro `CAML_NAME_SPACE` before including these header files. If you do not define it, the header files will also define short names (without the `caml_` prefix) for most functions, which usually produce clashes with names defined by other C libraries that you might use. Including the header files without `CAML_NAME_SPACE` is only supported for backward compatibility.

19.1.3 Statically linking C code with OCaml code

The OCaml runtime system comprises three main parts: the bytecode interpreter, the memory manager, and a set of C functions that implement the primitive operations. Some bytecode instructions are provided to call these C functions, designated by their offset in a table of functions (the table of primitives).

In the default mode, the OCaml linker produces bytecode for the standard runtime system, with a standard set of primitives. References to primitives that are not in this standard set result in the "unavailable C primitive" error. (Unless dynamic loading of C libraries is supported – see section 19.1.4 below.)

In the "custom runtime" mode, the OCaml linker scans the object files and determines the set of required primitives. Then, it builds a suitable runtime system, by calling the native code linker with:

- the table of the required primitives;
- a library that provides the bytecode interpreter, the memory manager, and the standard primitives;
- libraries and object code files (`.o` files) mentioned on the command line for the OCaml linker, that provide implementations for the user's primitives.

This builds a runtime system with the required primitives. The OCaml linker generates bytecode for this custom runtime system. The bytecode is appended to the end of the custom runtime system, so that it will be automatically executed when the output file (custom runtime + bytecode) is launched.

To link in "custom runtime" mode, execute the `ocamlc` command with:

- the `-custom` option;
- the names of the desired OCaml object files (`.cmo` and `.cma` files) ;
- the names of the C object files and libraries (`.o` and `.a` files) that implement the required primitives. Under Unix and Windows, a library named `lib`*name*`.a` (respectively, `.lib`) residing in one of the standard library directories can also be specified as `-cclib -l`*name*.

If you are using the native-code compiler `ocamlopt`, the `-custom` flag is not needed, as the final linking phase of `ocamlopt` always builds a standalone executable. To build a mixed OCaml/C executable, execute the `ocamlopt` command with:

- the names of the desired OCaml native object files (`.cmx` and `.cmxa` files);
- the names of the C object files and libraries (`.o`, `.a`, `.so` or `.dll` files) that implement the required primitives.

Starting with Objective Caml 3.00, it is possible to record the `-custom` option as well as the names of C libraries in an OCaml library file `.cma` or `.cmxa`. For instance, consider an OCaml library `mylib.cma`, built from the OCaml object files `a.cmo` and `b.cmo`, which reference C code in `libmylib.a`. If the library is built as follows:

```
ocamlc -a -o mylib.cma -custom a.cmo b.cmo -cclib -lmylib
```

users of the library can simply link with `mylib.cma`:

```
ocamlc -o myprog mylib.cma ...
```

and the system will automatically add the `-custom` and `-cclib -lmylib` options, achieving the same effect as

```
ocamlc -o myprog -custom a.cmo b.cmo ... -cclib -lmylib
```

The alternative is of course to build the library without extra options:

```
ocamlc -a -o mylib.cma a.cmo b.cmo
```

and then ask users to provide the `-custom` and `-cclib -lmylib` options themselves at link-time:

```
ocamlc -o myprog -custom mylib.cma ... -cclib -lmylib
```

The former alternative is more convenient for the final users of the library, however.

19.1.4 Dynamically linking C code with OCaml code

Starting with Objective Caml 3.03, an alternative to static linking of C code using the `-custom` code is provided. In this mode, the OCaml linker generates a pure bytecode executable (no embedded custom runtime system) that simply records the names of dynamically-loaded libraries containing the C code. The standard OCaml runtime system `ocamlrun` then loads dynamically these libraries, and resolves references to the required primitives, before executing the bytecode.

This facility is currently supported and known to work well under Linux, MacOS X, and Windows. It is supported, but not fully tested yet, under FreeBSD, Tru64, Solaris and Irix. It is not supported yet under other Unixes.

To dynamically link C code with OCaml code, the C code must first be compiled into a shared library (under Unix) or DLL (under Windows). This involves 1- compiling the C files with appropriate C compiler flags for producing position-independent code (when required by the operating system), and 2- building a shared library from the resulting object files. The resulting shared library or DLL file must be installed in a place where `ocamlrun` can find it later at program start-up time (see section 10.3). Finally (step 3), execute the `ocamlc` command with

- the names of the desired OCaml object files (`.cmo` and `.cma` files) ;
- the names of the C shared libraries (`.so` or `.dll` files) that implement the required primitives. Under Unix and Windows, a library named `dll`*name*`.so` (respectively, `.dll`) residing in one of the standard library directories can also be specified as `-dllib -l`*name*.

Do *not* set the `-custom` flag, otherwise you're back to static linking as described in section 19.1.3. The `ocamlmklib` tool (see section 19.11) automates steps 2 and 3.

As in the case of static linking, it is possible (and recommended) to record the names of C libraries in an OCaml `.cma` library archive. Consider again an OCaml library `mylib.cma`, built from the OCaml object files `a.cmo` and `b.cmo`, which reference C code in `dllmylib.so`. If the library is built as follows:

```
ocamlc -a -o mylib.cma a.cmo b.cmo -dllib -lmylib
```

users of the library can simply link with `mylib.cma`:

```
ocamlc -o myprog mylib.cma ...
```

and the system will automatically add the `-dllib -lmylib` option, achieving the same effect as

```
ocamlc -o myprog a.cmo b.cmo ... -dllib -lmylib
```

Using this mechanism, users of the library `mylib.cma` do not need to known that it references C code, nor whether this C code must be statically linked (using `-custom`) or dynamically linked.

19.1.5 Choosing between static linking and dynamic linking

After having described two different ways of linking C code with OCaml code, we now review the pros and cons of each, to help developers of mixed OCaml/C libraries decide.

The main advantage of dynamic linking is that it preserves the platform-independence of bytecode executables. That is, the bytecode executable contains no machine code, and can therefore be compiled on platform A and executed on other platforms B, C, ..., as long as the required shared libraries are available on all these platforms. In contrast, executables generated by `ocamlc -custom` run only on the platform on which they were created, because they embark a custom-tailored runtime system specific to that platform. In addition, dynamic linking results in smaller executables.

Another advantage of dynamic linking is that the final users of the library do not need to have a C compiler, C linker, and C runtime libraries installed on their machines. This is no big deal under Unix and Cygwin, but many Windows users are reluctant to install Microsoft Visual C just to be able to do `ocamlc -custom`.

There are two drawbacks to dynamic linking. The first is that the resulting executable is not stand-alone: it requires the shared libraries, as well as `ocamlrun`, to be installed on the machine executing the code. If you wish to distribute a stand-alone executable, it is better to link it statically, using `ocamlc -custom -ccopt -static` or `ocamlopt -ccopt -static`. Dynamic linking also raises the "DLL hell" problem: some care must be taken to ensure that the right versions of the shared libraries are found at start-up time.

The second drawback of dynamic linking is that it complicates the construction of the library. The C compiler and linker flags to compile to position-independent code and build a shared library vary wildly between different Unix systems. Also, dynamic linking is not supported on all Unix systems, requiring a fall-back case to static linking in the Makefile for the library. The `ocamlmklib` command (see section 19.11) tries to hide some of these system dependencies.

In conclusion: dynamic linking is highly recommended under the native Windows port, because there are no portability problems and it is much more convenient for the end users. Under Unix, dynamic linking should be considered for mature, frequently used libraries because it enhances platform-independence of bytecode executables. For new or rarely-used libraries, static linking is much simpler to set up in a portable way.

19.1.6 Building standalone custom runtime systems

It is sometimes inconvenient to build a custom runtime system each time OCaml code is linked with C libraries, like `ocamlc -custom` does. For one thing, the building of the runtime system is slow on some systems (that have bad linkers or slow remote file systems); for another thing, the platform-independence of bytecode files is lost, forcing to perform one `ocamlc -custom` link per platform of interest.

An alternative to `ocamlc -custom` is to build separately a custom runtime system integrating the desired C libraries, then generate "pure" bytecode executables (not containing their own runtime system) that can run on this custom runtime. This is achieved by the `-make-runtime` and `-use-runtime` flags to `ocamlc`. For example, to build a custom runtime system integrating the C parts of the "Unix" and "Threads" libraries, do:

```
ocamlc -make-runtime -o /home/me/ocamlunixrun unix.cma threads.cma
```

To generate a bytecode executable that runs on this runtime system, do:

```
ocamlc -use-runtime /home/me/ocamlunixrun -o myprog \
        unix.cma threads.cma your .cmo and .cma files
```

The bytecode executable `myprog` can then be launched as usual: `myprog` *args* or `/home/me/ocamlunixrun myprog` *args*.

Notice that the bytecode libraries `unix.cma` and `threads.cma` must be given twice: when building the runtime system (so that `ocamlc` knows which C primitives are required) and also when building the bytecode executable (so that the bytecode from `unix.cma` and `threads.cma` is actually linked in).

19.2 The `value` type

All OCaml objects are represented by the C type `value`, defined in the include file `caml/mlvalues.h`, along with macros to manipulate values of that type. An object of type `value` is either:

- an unboxed integer;
- a pointer to a block inside the heap (such as the blocks allocated through one of the `caml_alloc_*` functions below);
- a pointer to an object outside the heap (e.g., a pointer to a block allocated by `malloc`, or to a C variable).

19.2.1 Integer values

Integer values encode 63-bit signed integers (31-bit on 32-bit architectures). They are unboxed (unallocated).

19.2.2 Blocks

Blocks in the heap are garbage-collected, and therefore have strict structure constraints. Each block includes a header containing the size of the block (in words), and the tag of the block. The tag governs how the contents of the blocks are structured. A tag lower than `No_scan_tag` indicates a structured block, containing well-formed values, which is recursively traversed by the garbage collector. A tag greater than or equal to `No_scan_tag` indicates a raw block, whose contents are not scanned by the garbage collector. For the benefit of ad-hoc polymorphic primitives such as equality and structured input-output, structured and raw blocks are further classified according to their tags as follows:

Tag	Contents of the block
0 to `No_scan_tag` − 1	A structured block (an array of OCaml objects). Each field is a `value`.
`Closure_tag`	A closure representing a functional value. The first word is a pointer to a piece of code, the remaining words are `value` containing the environment.
`String_tag`	A character string or a byte sequence.
`Double_tag`	A double-precision floating-point number.
`Double_array_tag`	An array or record of double-precision floating-point numbers.
`Abstract_tag`	A block representing an abstract datatype.
`Custom_tag`	A block representing an abstract datatype with user-defined finalization, comparison, hashing, serialization and deserialization functions atttached.

19.2.3 Pointers outside the heap

Any word-aligned pointer to an address outside the heap can be safely cast to and from the type `value`. This includes pointers returned by `malloc`, and pointers to C variables (of size at least one word) obtained with the `&` operator.

Caution: if a pointer returned by `malloc` is cast to the type `value` and returned to OCaml, explicit deallocation of the pointer using `free` is potentially dangerous, because the pointer may still be accessible from the OCaml world. Worse, the memory space deallocated by `free` can later be reallocated as part of the OCaml heap; the pointer, formerly pointing outside the OCaml heap, now points inside the OCaml heap, and this can crash the garbage collector. To avoid these problems, it is preferable to wrap the pointer in a OCaml block with tag `Abstract_tag` or `Custom_tag`.

19.3 Representation of OCaml data types

This section describes how OCaml data types are encoded in the `value` type.

19.3.1 Atomic types

OCaml type	Encoding
`int`	Unboxed integer values.
`char`	Unboxed integer values (ASCII code).
`float`	Blocks with tag `Double_tag`.
`bytes`	Blocks with tag `String_tag`.
`string`	Blocks with tag `String_tag`.
`int32`	Blocks with tag `Custom_tag`.
`int64`	Blocks with tag `Custom_tag`.
`nativeint`	Blocks with tag `Custom_tag`.

19.3.2 Tuples and records

Tuples are represented by pointers to blocks, with tag 0.

Records are also represented by zero-tagged blocks. The ordering of labels in the record type declaration determines the layout of the record fields: the value associated to the label declared first is stored in field 0 of the block, the value associated to the second label goes in field 1, and so on.

As an optimization, records whose fields all have static type `float` are represented as arrays of floating-point numbers, with tag `Double_array_tag`. (See the section below on arrays.)

19.3.3 Arrays

Arrays of integers and pointers are represented like tuples, that is, as pointers to blocks tagged 0. They are accessed with the `Field` macro for reading and the `caml_modify` function for writing.

Arrays of floating-point numbers (type `float array`) have a special, unboxed, more efficient representation. These arrays are represented by pointers to blocks with tag `Double_array_tag`. They should be accessed with the `Double_field` and `Store_double_field` macros.

19.3.4 Concrete data types

Constructed terms are represented either by unboxed integers (for constant constructors) or by blocks whose tag encode the constructor (for non-constant constructors). The constant constructors and the non-constant constructors for a given concrete type are numbered separately, starting from 0, in the order in which they appear in the concrete type declaration. A constant constructor is represented by the unboxed integer equal to its constructor number. A non-constant constructor declared with n arguments is represented by a block of size n, tagged with the constructor number; the n fields contain its arguments. Example:

Constructed term	Representation
`()`	`Val_int(0)`
`false`	`Val_int(0)`
`true`	`Val_int(1)`
`[]`	`Val_int(0)`
`h::t`	Block with size = 2 and tag = 0; first field contains `h`, second field `t`.

As a convenience, `caml/mlvalues.h` defines the macros `Val_unit`, `Val_false` and `Val_true` to refer to `()`, `false` and `true`.

The following example illustrates the assignment of integers and block tags to constructors:

```
type t =
  | A             (* First constant constructor -> integer "Val_int(0)" *)
  | B of string   (* First non-constant constructor -> block with tag 0 *)
  | C             (* Second constant constructor -> integer "Val_int(1)" *)
  | D of bool     (* Second non-constant constructor -> block with tag 1 *)
  | E of t * t    (* Third non-constant constructor -> block with tag 2 *)
```

19.3.5 Objects

Objects are represented as blocks with tag `Object_tag`. The first field of the block refers to the object's class and associated method suite, in a format that cannot easily be exploited from C. The second field contains a unique object ID, used for comparisons. The remaining fields of the object contain the values of the instance variables of the object. It is unsafe to access directly instance variables, as the type system provides no guarantee about the instance variables contained by an object.

One may extract a public method from an object using the C function `caml_get_public_method` (declared in `<caml/mlvalues.h>`.) Since public method tags are hashed in the same way as variant tags, and methods are functions taking self as first argument, if you want to do the method call `foo#bar` from the C side, you should call:

```
callback(caml_get_public_method(foo, hash_variant("bar")), foo);
```

19.3.6 Polymorphic variants

Like constructed terms, polymorphic variant values are represented either as integers (for polymorphic variants without argument), or as blocks (for polymorphic variants with an argument). Unlike constructed terms, variant constructors are not numbered starting from 0, but identified by a hash value (an OCaml integer), as computed by the C function `hash_variant` (declared in `<caml/mlvalues.h>`): the hash value for a variant constructor named, say, `VConstr` is `hash_variant("VConstr")`.

The variant value `` `VConstr `` is represented by `hash_variant("VConstr")`. The variant value `` `VConstr( ``v`)` is represented by a block of size 2 and tag 0, with field number 0 containing `hash_variant("VConstr")` and field number 1 containing v.

Unlike constructed values, polymorphic variant values taking several arguments are not flattened. That is, `` `VConstr( ``v`, `w`)` is represented by a block of size 2, whose field number 1 contains the representation of the pair `(`v`, `w`)`, rather than a block of size 3 containing v and w in fields 1 and 2.

19.4 Operations on values

19.4.1 Kind tests

- `Is_long(`v`)` is true if value v is an immediate integer, false otherwise
- `Is_block(`v`)` is true if value v is a pointer to a block, and false if it is an immediate integer.

19.4.2 Operations on integers

- `Val_long(`l`)` returns the value encoding the `long int` l.
- `Long_val(`v`)` returns the `long int` encoded in value v.
- `Val_int(`i`)` returns the value encoding the `int` i.
- `Int_val(`v`)` returns the `int` encoded in value v.

- `Val_bool(`x`)` returns the OCaml boolean representing the truth value of the C integer x.
- `Bool_val(`v`)` returns 0 if v is the OCaml boolean `false`, 1 if v is `true`.
- `Val_true`, `Val_false` represent the OCaml booleans `true` and `false`.

19.4.3 Accessing blocks

- `Wosize_val(`v`)` returns the size of the block v, in words, excluding the header.
- `Tag_val(`v`)` returns the tag of the block v.
- `Field(`v`, `n`)` returns the value contained in the n^{th} field of the structured block v. Fields are numbered from 0 to `Wosize_val`(v) $-$ 1.
- `Store_field(`b`, `n`, `v`)` stores the value v in the field number n of value b, which must be a structured block.
- `Code_val(`v`)` returns the code part of the closure v.
- `caml_string_length(`v`)` returns the length (number of bytes) of the string or byte sequence v.
- `Byte(`v`, `n`)` returns the n^{th} byte of the string or byte sequence v, with type `char`. Bytes are numbered from 0 to `string_length`(v) $-$ 1.
- `Byte_u(`v`, `n`)` returns the n^{th} byte of the string or byte sequence v, with type `unsigned char`. Bytes are numbered from 0 to `string_length`(v) $-$ 1.
- `String_val(`v`)` returns a pointer to the first byte of the string or byte sequence v, with type `char *`. This pointer is a valid C string: there is a null byte after the last byte in the string. However, OCaml strings and byte sequences can contain embedded null bytes, which will confuse the usual C functions over strings.
- `Double_val(`v`)` returns the floating-point number contained in value v, with type `double`.
- `Double_field(`v`, `n`)` returns the n^{th} element of the array of floating-point numbers v (a block tagged `Double_array_tag`).
- `Store_double_field(`v`, `n`, `d`)` stores the double precision floating-point number d in the n^{th} element of the array of floating-point numbers v.
- `Data_custom_val(`v`)` returns a pointer to the data part of the custom block v. This pointer has type `void *` and must be cast to the type of the data contained in the custom block.
- `Int32_val(`v`)` returns the 32-bit integer contained in the `int32` v.
- `Int64_val(`v`)` returns the 64-bit integer contained in the `int64` v.
- `Nativeint_val(`v`)` returns the long integer contained in the `nativeint` v.

The expressions `Field(`v`, `n`)`, `Byte(`v`, `n`)` and `Byte_u(`v`, `n`)` are valid l-values. Hence, they can be assigned to, resulting in an in-place modification of value v. Assigning directly to `Field(`v`, `n`)` must be done with care to avoid confusing the garbage collector (see below).

19.4.4 Allocating blocks

Simple interface

- `Atom(`t`)` returns an "atom" (zero-sized block) with tag t. Zero-sized blocks are preallocated outside of the heap. It is incorrect to try and allocate a zero-sized block using the functions below. For instance, `Atom(0)` represents the empty array.
- `caml_alloc(`n`, `t`)` returns a fresh block of size n with tag t. If t is less than `No_scan_tag`, then the fields of the block are initialized with a valid value in order to satisfy the GC constraints.
- `caml_alloc_tuple(`n`)` returns a fresh block of size n words, with tag 0.
- `caml_alloc_string(`n`)` returns a byte sequence (or string) value of length n bytes. The sequence initially contains uninitialized bytes.
- `caml_copy_string(`s`)` returns a string or byte sequence value containing a copy of the null-terminated C string s (a `char *`).
- `caml_copy_double(`d`)` returns a floating-point value initialized with the `double` d.
- `caml_copy_int32(`i`)`, `caml_copy_int64(`i`)` and `caml_copy_nativeint(`i`)` return a value of OCaml type `int32`, `int64` and `nativeint`, respectively, initialized with the integer i.
- `caml_alloc_array(`f`, `a`)` allocates an array of values, calling function f over each element of the input array a to transform it into a value. The array a is an array of pointers terminated by the null pointer. The function f receives each pointer as argument, and returns a value. The zero-tagged block returned by `alloc_array(`f`, `a`)` is filled with the values returned by the successive calls to f. (This function must not be used to build an array of floating-point numbers.)
- `caml_copy_string_array(`p`)` allocates an array of strings or byte sequences, copied from the pointer to a string array p (a `char **`). p must be NULL-terminated.

Low-level interface

The following functions are slightly more efficient than `caml_alloc`, but also much more difficult to use.

From the standpoint of the allocation functions, blocks are divided according to their size as zero-sized blocks, small blocks (with size less than or equal to `Max_young_wosize`), and large blocks (with size greater than `Max_young_wosize`). The constant `Max_young_wosize` is declared in the include file `mlvalues.h`. It is guaranteed to be at least 64 (words), so that any block with constant size less than or equal to 64 can be assumed to be small. For blocks whose size is computed at run-time, the size must be compared against `Max_young_wosize` to determine the correct allocation procedure.

- `caml_alloc_small(`n`, `t`)` returns a fresh small block of size $n \leq$ `Max_young_wosize` words, with tag t. If this block is a structured block (i.e. if $t <$ `No_scan_tag`), then the fields of the block (initially containing garbage) must be initialized with legal values (using direct assignment to the fields of the block) before the next allocation.

- `caml_alloc_shr(`n`, `t`)` returns a fresh block of size n, with tag t. The size of the block can be greater than `Max_young_wosize`. (It can also be smaller, but in this case it is more efficient to call `caml_alloc_small` instead of `caml_alloc_shr`.) If this block is a structured block (i.e. if $t <$ `No_scan_tag`), then the fields of the block (initially containing garbage) must be initialized with legal values (using the `caml_initialize` function described below) before the next allocation.

19.4.5 Raising exceptions

Two functions are provided to raise two standard exceptions:

- `caml_failwith(`s`)`, where s is a null-terminated C string (with type `char *`), raises exception `Failure` with argument s.
- `caml_invalid_argument(`s`)`, where s is a null-terminated C string (with type `char *`), raises exception `Invalid_argument` with argument s.

Raising arbitrary exceptions from C is more delicate: the exception identifier is dynamically allocated by the OCaml program, and therefore must be communicated to the C function using the registration facility described below in section 19.7.3. Once the exception identifier is recovered in C, the following functions actually raise the exception:

- `caml_raise_constant(`*id*`)` raises the exception *id* with no argument;
- `caml_raise_with_arg(`*id*`, `v`)` raises the exception *id* with the OCaml value v as argument;
- `caml_raise_with_args(`*id*`, `n`, `v`)` raises the exception *id* with the OCaml values v`[0]`, ..., v`[`n`-1]` as arguments;
- `caml_raise_with_string(`*id*`, `s`)`, where s is a null-terminated C string, raises the exception *id* with a copy of the C string s as argument.

19.5 Living in harmony with the garbage collector

Unused blocks in the heap are automatically reclaimed by the garbage collector. This requires some cooperation from C code that manipulates heap-allocated blocks.

19.5.1 Simple interface

All the macros described in this section are declared in the `memory.h` header file.

Rule 1 *A function that has parameters or local variables of type* `value` *must begin with a call to one of the* `CAMLparam` *macros and return with* `CAMLreturn`*,* `CAMLreturn0`*, or* `CAMLreturnT`*.*

There are six `CAMLparam` macros: `CAMLparam0` to `CAMLparam5`, which take zero to five arguments respectively. If your function has no more than 5 parameters of type `value`, use the corresponding macros with these parameters as arguments. If your function has more than 5 parameters of type `value`, use `CAMLparam5` with five of these parameters, and use one or more calls to the `CAMLxparam` macros for the remaining parameters (`CAMLxparam1` to `CAMLxparam5`).

The macros `CAMLreturn`, `CAMLreturn0`, and `CAMLreturnT` are used to replace the C keyword `return`. Every occurrence of `return x` must be replaced by `CAMLreturn (x)` if `x` has type `value`, or `CAMLreturnT (t, x)` (where `t` is the type of `x`); every occurrence of `return` without argument must be replaced by `CAMLreturn0`. If your C function is a procedure (i.e. if it returns void), you must insert `CAMLreturn0` at the end (to replace C's implicit `return`).

Note: some C compilers give bogus warnings about unused variables `caml__dummy_xxx` at each use of `CAMLparam` and `CAMLlocal`. You should ignore them.

Example:

```
void foo (value v1, value v2, value v3)
{
  CAMLparam3 (v1, v2, v3);
  ...
  CAMLreturn0;
}
```

Note: if your function is a primitive with more than 5 arguments for use with the byte-code runtime, its arguments are not `value`s and must not be declared (they have types `value *` and `int`).

Rule 2 *Local variables of type* `value` *must be declared with one of the* `CAMLlocal` *macros. Arrays of* `value`*s are declared with* `CAMLlocalN`*. These macros must be used at the beginning of the function, not in a nested block.*

The macros `CAMLlocal1` to `CAMLlocal5` declare and initialize one to five local variables of type `value`. The variable names are given as arguments to the macros. `CAMLlocalN(`x`, `n`)` declares and initializes a local variable of type `value [`n`]`. You can use several calls to these macros if you have more than 5 local variables.

Example:

```
value bar (value v1, value v2, value v3)
{
  CAMLparam3 (v1, v2, v3);
  CAMLlocal1 (result);
  result = caml_alloc (3, 0);
  ...
  CAMLreturn (result);
}
```

Rule 3 *Assignments to the fields of structured blocks must be done with the* `Store_field` *macro (for normal blocks) or* `Store_double_field` *macro (for arrays and records of floating-point numbers). Other assignments must not use* `Store_field` *nor* `Store_double_field`*.*

`Store_field (`*b*`, `*n*`, `*v*`)` stores the value *v* in the field number *n* of value *b*, which must be a block (i.e. `Is_block(`*b*`)` must be true).

Example:

```
value bar (value v1, value v2, value v3)
{
  CAMLparam3 (v1, v2, v3);
  CAMLlocal1 (result);
  result = caml_alloc (3, 0);
  Store_field (result, 0, v1);
  Store_field (result, 1, v2);
  Store_field (result, 2, v3);
  CAMLreturn (result);
}
```

Warning: The first argument of `Store_field` and `Store_double_field` must be a variable declared by `CAMLparam*` or a parameter declared by `CAMLlocal*` to ensure that a garbage collection triggered by the evaluation of the other arguments will not invalidate the first argument after it is computed.

Rule 4 *Global variables containing values must be registered with the garbage collector using the* `caml_register_global_root` *function.*

Registration of a global variable `v` is achieved by calling `caml_register_global_root(&v)` just before or just after a valid value is stored in `v` for the first time. You must not call any of the OCaml runtime functions or macros between registering and storing the value.

A registered global variable `v` can be un-registered by calling `caml_remove_global_root(&v)`.

If the contents of the global variable `v` are seldom modified after registration, better performance can be achieved by calling `caml_register_generational_global_root(&v)` to register `v` (after its initialization with a valid `value`, but before any allocation or call to the GC functions), and `caml_remove_generational_global_root(&v)` to un-register it. In this case, you must not modify the value of `v` directly, but you must use `caml_modify_generational_global_root(&v,x)` to set it to `x`. The garbage collector takes advantage of the guarantee that `v` is not modified between calls to `caml_modify_generational_global_root` to scan it less often. This improves performance if the modifications of `v` happen less often than minor collections.

Note: The `CAML` macros use identifiers (local variables, type identifiers, structure tags) that start with `caml__`. Do not use any identifier starting with `caml__` in your programs.

19.5.2 Low-level interface

We now give the GC rules corresponding to the low-level allocation functions `caml_alloc_small` and `caml_alloc_shr`. You can ignore those rules if you stick to the simplified allocation function `caml_alloc`.

Rule 5 *After a structured block (a block with tag less than* `No_scan_tag`*) is allocated with the low-level functions, all fields of this block must be filled with well-formed values before the next allocation operation. If the block has been allocated with* `caml_alloc_small`*, filling is performed by direct assignment to the fields of the block:*

`Field(`v`, `n`) = `v_n`;`

If the block has been allocated with `caml_alloc_shr`*, filling is performed through the* `caml_initialize` *function:*

`caml_initialize(&Field(`v`, `n`), `v_n`);`

The next allocation can trigger a garbage collection. The garbage collector assumes that all structured blocks contain well-formed values. Newly created blocks contain random data, which generally do not represent well-formed values.

If you really need to allocate before the fields can receive their final value, first initialize with a constant value (e.g. `Val_unit`), then allocate, then modify the fields with the correct value (see rule 6).

Rule 6 *Direct assignment to a field of a block, as in*

`Field(`v`, `n`) = `w`;`

is safe only if v is a block newly allocated by `caml_alloc_small`*; that is, if no allocation took place between the allocation of v and the assignment to the field. In all other cases, never assign directly. If the block has just been allocated by* `caml_alloc_shr`*, use* `caml_initialize` *to assign a value to a field for the first time:*

`caml_initialize(&Field(`v`, `n`), `w`);`

Otherwise, you are updating a field that previously contained a well-formed value; then, call the `caml_modify` *function:*

`caml_modify(&Field(`v`, `n`), `w`);`

To illustrate the rules above, here is a C function that builds and returns a list containing the two integers given as parameters. First, we write it using the simplified allocation functions:

```
value alloc_list_int(int i1, int i2)
{
  CAMLparam0 ();
  CAMLlocal2 (result, r);

  r = caml_alloc(2, 0);                    /* Allocate a cons cell */
```

```
  Store_field(r, 0, Val_int(i2));          /* car = the integer i2 */
  Store_field(r, 1, Val_int(0));           /* cdr = the empty list [] */
  result = caml_alloc(2, 0);               /* Allocate the other cons cell */
  Store_field(result, 0, Val_int(i1));     /* car = the integer i1 */
  Store_field(result, 1, r);               /* cdr = the first cons cell */
  CAMLreturn (result);
}
```

Here, the registering of `result` is not strictly needed, because no allocation takes place after it gets its value, but it's easier and safer to simply register all the local variables that have type `value`.

Here is the same function written using the low-level allocation functions. We notice that the cons cells are small blocks and can be allocated with `caml_alloc_small`, and filled by direct assignments on their fields.

```
value alloc_list_int(int i1, int i2)
{
  CAMLparam0 ();
  CAMLlocal2 (result, r);

  r = caml_alloc_small(2, 0);              /* Allocate a cons cell */
  Field(r, 0) = Val_int(i2);               /* car = the integer i2 */
  Field(r, 1) = Val_int(0);                /* cdr = the empty list [] */
  result = caml_alloc_small(2, 0);         /* Allocate the other cons cell */
  Field(result, 0) = Val_int(i1);          /* car = the integer i1 */
  Field(result, 1) = r;                    /* cdr = the first cons cell */
  CAMLreturn (result);
}
```

In the two examples above, the list is built bottom-up. Here is an alternate way, that proceeds top-down. It is less efficient, but illustrates the use of `caml_modify`.

```
value alloc_list_int(int i1, int i2)
{
  CAMLparam0 ();
  CAMLlocal2 (tail, r);

  r = caml_alloc_small(2, 0);              /* Allocate a cons cell */
  Field(r, 0) = Val_int(i1);               /* car = the integer i1 */
  Field(r, 1) = Val_int(0);                /* A dummy value
  tail = caml_alloc_small(2, 0);           /* Allocate the other cons cell */
  Field(tail, 0) = Val_int(i2);            /* car = the integer i2 */
  Field(tail, 1) = Val_int(0);             /* cdr = the empty list [] */
  caml_modify(&Field(r, 1), tail);         /* cdr of the result = tail */
  CAMLreturn (r);
}
```

It would be incorrect to perform `Field(r, 1) = tail` directly, because the allocation of `tail` has taken place since `r` was allocated.

19.6 A complete example

This section outlines how the functions from the Unix `curses` library can be made available to OCaml programs. First of all, here is the interface `curses.mli` that declares the `curses` primitives and data types:

```
(* File curses.mli -- declaration of primitives and data types *)
type window                   (* The type "window" remains abstract *)
external initscr: unit -> window = "caml_curses_initscr"
external endwin: unit -> unit = "caml_curses_endwin"
external refresh: unit -> unit = "caml_curses_refresh"
external wrefresh : window -> unit = "caml_curses_wrefresh"
external newwin: int -> int -> int -> int -> window = "caml_curses_newwin"
external addch: char -> unit = "caml_curses_addch"
external mvwaddch: window -> int -> int -> char -> unit = "caml_curses_mvwaddch"
external addstr: string -> unit = "caml_curses_addstr"
external mvwaddstr: window -> int -> int -> string -> unit
         = "caml_curses_mvwaddstr"
(* lots more omitted *)
```

To compile this interface:

```
ocamlc -c curses.mli
```

To implement these functions, we just have to provide the stub code; the core functions are already implemented in the `curses` library. The stub code file, `curses_stubs.c`, looks like this:

```
/* File curses_stubs.c -- stub code for curses */
#include <curses.h>
#include <caml/mlvalues.h>
#include <caml/memory.h>
#include <caml/alloc.h>
#include <caml/custom.h>

/* Encapsulation of opaque window handles (of type WINDOW *)
   as OCaml custom blocks. */

static struct custom_operations curses_window_ops = {
  "fr.inria.caml.curses_windows",
  custom_finalize_default,
  custom_compare_default,
  custom_hash_default,
  custom_serialize_default,
  custom_deserialize_default
```

```
};

/* Accessing the WINDOW * part of an OCaml custom block */
#define Window_val(v) (*((WINDOW **) Data_custom_val(v)))

/* Allocating an OCaml custom block to hold the given WINDOW * */
static value alloc_window(WINDOW * w)
{
  value v = alloc_custom(&curses_window_ops, sizeof(WINDOW *), 0, 1);
  Window_val(v) = w;
  return v;
}

value caml_curses_initscr(value unit)
{
  CAMLparam1 (unit);
  CAMLreturn (alloc_window(initscr()));
}

value caml_curses_endwin(value unit)
{
  CAMLparam1 (unit);
  endwin();
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

value caml_curses_refresh(value unit)
{
  CAMLparam1 (unit);
  refresh();
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

value caml_curses_wrefresh(value win)
{
  CAMLparam1 (win);
  wrefresh(Window_val(win));
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

value caml_curses_newwin(value nlines, value ncols, value x0, value y0)
{
  CAMLparam4 (nlines, ncols, x0, y0);
  CAMLreturn (alloc_window(newwin(Int_val(nlines), Int_val(ncols),
                                  Int_val(x0), Int_val(y0))));
```

```
}

value caml_curses_addch(value c)
{
  CAMLparam1 (c);
  addch(Int_val(c));           /* Characters are encoded like integers */
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

value caml_curses_mvwaddch(value win, value x, value y, value c)
{
  CAMLparam4 (win, x, y, c);
  mvwaddch(Window_val(win), Int_val(x), Int_val(y), Int_val(c));
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

value caml_curses_addstr(value s)
{
  CAMLparam1 (s);
  addstr(String_val(s));
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

value caml_curses_mvwaddstr(value win, value x, value y, value s)
{
  CAMLparam4 (win, x, y, s);
  mvwaddstr(Window_val(win), Int_val(x), Int_val(y), String_val(s));
  CAMLreturn (Val_unit);
}

/* This goes on for pages. */
```

The file `curses_stubs.c` can be compiled with:

```
cc -c -I`ocamlc -where` curses_stubs.c
```

or, even simpler,

```
ocamlc -c curses_stubs.c
```

(When passed a `.c` file, the `ocamlc` command simply calls the C compiler on that file, with the right `-I` option.)

Now, here is a sample OCaml program `prog.ml` that uses the `curses` module:

```
(* File prog.ml -- main program using curses *)
open Curses;;
let main_window = initscr () in
```

```
let small_window = newwin 10 5 20 10 in
  mvwaddstr main_window 10 2 "Hello";
  mvwaddstr small_window 4 3 "world";
  refresh();
  Unix.sleep 5;
  endwin()
```

To compile and link this program, run:

```
ocamlc -custom -o prog unix.cma prog.ml curses_stubs.o -cclib -lcurses
```

(On some machines, you may need to put `-cclib -lcurses -cclib -ltermcap` or `-cclib -ltermcap` instead of `-cclib -lcurses`.)

19.7 Advanced topic: callbacks from C to OCaml

So far, we have described how to call C functions from OCaml. In this section, we show how C functions can call OCaml functions, either as callbacks (OCaml calls C which calls OCaml), or with the main program written in C.

19.7.1 Applying OCaml closures from C

C functions can apply OCaml function values (closures) to OCaml values. The following functions are provided to perform the applications:

- `caml_callback(`*f, a*`)` applies the functional value *f* to the value *a* and returns the value returned by *f*.
- `caml_callback2(`*f, a, b*`)` applies the functional value *f* (which is assumed to be a curried OCaml function with two arguments) to *a* and *b*.
- `caml_callback3(`*f, a, b, c*`)` applies the functional value *f* (a curried OCaml function with three arguments) to *a*, *b* and *c*.
- `caml_callbackN(`*f, n, args*`)` applies the functional value *f* to the *n* arguments contained in the array of values *args*.

If the function *f* does not return, but raises an exception that escapes the scope of the application, then this exception is propagated to the next enclosing OCaml code, skipping over the C code. That is, if an OCaml function *f* calls a C function *g* that calls back an OCaml function *h* that raises a stray exception, then the execution of *g* is interrupted and the exception is propagated back into *f*.

If the C code wishes to catch exceptions escaping the OCaml function, it can use the functions `caml_callback_exn`, `caml_callback2_exn`, `caml_callback3_exn`, `caml_callbackN_exn`. These functions take the same arguments as their non-`_exn` counterparts, but catch escaping exceptions and return them to the C code. The return value *v* of the `caml_callback*_exn` functions must be tested with the macro `Is_exception_result(`*v*`)`. If the macro returns "false", no exception occured, and *v* is the value returned by the OCaml function. If `Is_exception_result(`*v*`)` returns "true", an exception escaped, and its value (the exception descriptor) can be recovered using `Extract_exception(`*v*`)`.

Warning: If the OCaml function returned with an exception, `Extract_exception` should be applied to the exception result prior to calling a function that may trigger garbage collection. Otherwise, if v is reachable during garbage collection, the runtime can crash since v does not contain a valid value.

Example:

```
value call_caml_f_ex(value closure, value arg)
{
  CAMLparam2(closure, arg);
  CAMLlocal2(res, tmp);
  res = caml_callback_exn(closure, arg);
  if(Is_exception_result(res)) {
    res = Extract_exception(res);
    tmp = caml_alloc(3, 0); /* Safe to allocate: res contains valid value. */
    ...
  }
  CAMLreturn (res);
}
```

19.7.2 Obtaining or registering OCaml closures for use in C functions

There are two ways to obtain OCaml function values (closures) to be passed to the `callback` functions described above. One way is to pass the OCaml function as an argument to a primitive function. For example, if the OCaml code contains the declaration

```
external apply : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b = "caml_apply"
```

the corresponding C stub can be written as follows:

```
CAMLprim value caml_apply(value vf, value vx)
{
  CAMLparam2(vf, vx);
  CAMLlocal1(vy);
  vy = caml_callback(vf, vx);
  CAMLreturn(vy);
}
```

Another possibility is to use the registration mechanism provided by OCaml. This registration mechanism enables OCaml code to register OCaml functions under some global name, and C code to retrieve the corresponding closure by this global name.

On the OCaml side, registration is performed by evaluating `Callback.register` n v. Here, n is the global name (an arbitrary string) and v the OCaml value. For instance:

```
let f x = print_string "f is applied to "; print_int x; print_newline()
let _ = Callback.register "test function" f
```

On the C side, a pointer to the value registered under name n is obtained by calling `caml_named_value(`n`)`. The returned pointer must then be dereferenced to recover the actual OCaml value. If no value is registered under the name n, the null pointer is returned. For example, here is a C wrapper that calls the OCaml function `f` above:

```
void call_caml_f(int arg)
{
    caml_callback(*caml_named_value("test function"), Val_int(arg));
}
```

The pointer returned by `caml_named_value` is constant and can safely be cached in a C variable to avoid repeated name lookups. On the other hand, the value pointed to can change during garbage collection and must always be recomputed at the point of use. Here is a more efficient variant of `call_caml_f` above that calls `caml_named_value` only once:

```
void call_caml_f(int arg)
{
    static value * closure_f = NULL;
    if (closure_f == NULL) {
        /* First time around, look up by name */
        closure_f = caml_named_value("test function");
    }
    caml_callback(*closure_f, Val_int(arg));
}
```

19.7.3 Registering OCaml exceptions for use in C functions

The registration mechanism described above can also be used to communicate exception identifiers from OCaml to C. The OCaml code registers the exception by evaluating `Callback.register_exception` *n* *exn*, where *n* is an arbitrary name and *exn* is an exception value of the exception to register. For example:

```
exception Error of string
let _ = Callback.register_exception "test exception" (Error "any string")
```

The C code can then recover the exception identifier using `caml_named_value` and pass it as first argument to the functions `raise_constant`, `raise_with_arg`, and `raise_with_string` (described in section 19.4.5) to actually raise the exception. For example, here is a C function that raises the `Error` exception with the given argument:

```
void raise_error(char * msg)
{
    caml_raise_with_string(*caml_named_value("test exception"), msg);
}
```

19.7.4 Main program in C

In normal operation, a mixed OCaml/C program starts by executing the OCaml initialization code, which then may proceed to call C functions. We say that the main program is the OCaml code. In some applications, it is desirable that the C code plays the role of the main program, calling OCaml functions when needed. This can be achieved as follows:

- The C part of the program must provide a `main` function, which will override the default `main` function provided by the OCaml runtime system. Execution will start in the user-defined `main` function just like for a regular C program.
- At some point, the C code must call `caml_main(argv)` to initialize the OCaml code. The `argv` argument is a C array of strings (type `char **`), terminated with a `NULL` pointer, which represents the command-line arguments, as passed as second argument to `main`. The OCaml array `Sys.argv` will be initialized from this parameter. For the bytecode compiler, `argv[0]` and `argv[1]` are also consulted to find the file containing the bytecode.
- The call to `caml_main` initializes the OCaml runtime system, loads the bytecode (in the case of the bytecode compiler), and executes the initialization code of the OCaml program. Typically, this initialization code registers callback functions using `Callback.register`. Once the OCaml initialization code is complete, control returns to the C code that called `caml_main`.
- The C code can then invoke OCaml functions using the callback mechanism (see section 19.7.1).

19.7.5 Embedding the OCaml code in the C code

The bytecode compiler in custom runtime mode (`ocamlc -custom`) normally appends the bytecode to the executable file containing the custom runtime. This has two consequences. First, the final linking step must be performed by `ocamlc`. Second, the OCaml runtime library must be able to find the name of the executable file from the command-line arguments. When using `caml_main(argv)` as in section 19.7.4, this means that `argv[0]` or `argv[1]` must contain the executable file name.

An alternative is to embed the bytecode in the C code. The `-output-obj` option to `ocamlc` is provided for this purpose. It causes the `ocamlc` compiler to output a C object file (`.o` file, `.obj` under Windows) containing the bytecode for the OCaml part of the program, as well as a `caml_startup` function. The C object file produced by `ocamlc -output-obj` can then be linked with C code using the standard C compiler, or stored in a C library.

The `caml_startup` function must be called from the main C program in order to initialize the OCaml runtime and execute the OCaml initialization code. Just like `caml_main`, it takes one `argv` parameter containing the command-line parameters. Unlike `caml_main`, this `argv` parameter is used only to initialize `Sys.argv`, but not for finding the name of the executable file.

The `-output-obj` option can also be used to obtain the C source file. More interestingly, the same option can also produce directly a shared library (`.so` file, `.dll` under Windows) that contains the OCaml code, the OCaml runtime system and any other static C code given to `ocamlc` (`.o`, `.a`, respectively, `.obj`, `.lib`). This use of `-output-obj` is very similar to a normal linking step, but instead of producing a main program that automatically runs the OCaml code, it produces a shared library that can run the OCaml code on demand. The three possible behaviors of `-output-obj` are selected according to the extension of the resulting file (given with `-o`).

The native-code compiler `ocamlopt` also supports the `-output-obj` option, causing it to output a C object file or a shared library containing the native code for all OCaml modules on the command-line, as well as the OCaml startup code. Initialization is performed by calling `caml_startup` as in the case of the bytecode compiler.

For the final linking phase, in addition to the object file produced by `-output-obj`, you will have to provide the OCaml runtime library (`libcamlrun.a` for bytecode, `libasmrun.a` for native-code), as well as all C libraries that are required by the OCaml libraries used. For instance, assume the OCaml part of your program uses the Unix library. With `ocamlc`, you should do:

```
ocamlc -output-obj -o camlcode.o unix.cma other .cmo and .cma files
cc -o myprog C objects and libraries \
   camlcode.o -L‘ocamlc -where‘ -lunix -lcamlrun
```

With `ocamlopt`, you should do:

```
ocamlopt -output-obj -o camlcode.o unix.cmxa other .cmx and .cmxa files
cc -o myprog C objects and libraries \
   camlcode.o -L‘ocamlc -where‘ -lunix -lasmrun
```

Warning: On some ports, special options are required on the final linking phase that links together the object file produced by the `-output-obj` option and the remainder of the program. Those options are shown in the configuration file `config/Makefile` generated during compilation of OCaml, as the variables `BYTECCLINKOPTS` (for object files produced by `ocamlc -output-obj`) and `NATIVECCLINKOPTS` (for object files produced by `ocamlopt -output-obj`).

- Windows with the MSVC compiler: the object file produced by OCaml have been compiled with the `/MD` flag, and therefore all other object files linked with it should also be compiled with `/MD`.
- other systems: you may have to add one or more of `-lcurses`, `-lm`, `-ldl`, depending on your OS and C compiler.

Stack backtraces. When OCaml bytecode produced by `ocamlc -g` is embedded in a C program, no debugging information is included, and therefore it is impossible to print stack backtraces on uncaught exceptions. This is not the case when native code produced by `ocamlopt -g` is embedded in a C program: stack backtrace information is available, but the backtrace mechanism needs to be turned on programmatically. This can be achieved from the OCaml side by calling `Printexc.record_backtrace true` in the initialization of one of the OCaml modules. This can also be achieved from the C side by calling `caml_record_backtrace(Val_int(1));` in the OCaml-C glue code.

19.8 Advanced example with callbacks

This section illustrates the callback facilities described in section 19.7. We are going to package some OCaml functions in such a way that they can be linked with C code and called from C just like any C functions. The OCaml functions are defined in the following `mod.ml` OCaml source:

```
(* File mod.ml -- some "useful" OCaml functions *)

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

```
let format_result n = Printf.sprintf "Result is: %d\n" n

(* Export those two functions to C *)

let _ = Callback.register "fib" fib
let _ = Callback.register "format_result" format_result
```

Here is the C stub code for calling these functions from C:

```
/* File modwrap.c -- wrappers around the OCaml functions */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <caml/mlvalues.h>
#include <caml/callback.h>

int fib(int n)
{
  static value * fib_closure = NULL;
  if (fib_closure == NULL) fib_closure = caml_named_value("fib");
  return Int_val(caml_callback(*fib_closure, Val_int(n)));
}

char * format_result(int n)
{
  static value * format_result_closure = NULL;
  if (format_result_closure == NULL)
    format_result_closure = caml_named_value("format_result");
  return strdup(String_val(caml_callback(*format_result_closure, Val_int(n))));
  /* We copy the C string returned by String_val to the C heap
     so that it remains valid after garbage collection. */
}
```

We now compile the OCaml code to a C object file and put it in a C library along with the stub code in `modwrap.c` and the OCaml runtime system:

```
ocamlc -custom -output-obj -o modcaml.o mod.ml
ocamlc -c modwrap.c
cp `ocamlc -where`/libcamlrun.a mod.a && chmod +w mod.a
ar r mod.a modcaml.o modwrap.o
```

(One can also use `ocamlopt -output-obj` instead of `ocamlc -custom -output-obj`. In this case, replace `libcamlrun.a` (the bytecode runtime library) by `libasmrun.a` (the native-code runtime library).)

Now, we can use the two functions `fib` and `format_result` in any C program, just like regular C functions. Just remember to call `caml_startup` once before.

```
/* File main.c -- a sample client for the OCaml functions */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <caml/callback.h>

extern int fib(int n);
extern char * format_result(int n);

int main(int argc, char ** argv)
{
  int result;

  /* Initialize OCaml code */
  caml_startup(argv);
  /* Do some computation */
  result = fib(10);
  printf("fib(10) = %s\n", format_result(result));
  return 0;
}
```

To build the whole program, just invoke the C compiler as follows:

```
cc -o prog -I `ocamlc -where` main.c mod.a -lcurses
```

(On some machines, you may need to put `-ltermcap` or `-lcurses -ltermcap` instead of `-lcurses`.)

19.9 Advanced topic: custom blocks

Blocks with tag `Custom_tag` contain both arbitrary user data and a pointer to a C struct, with type `struct custom_operations`, that associates user-provided finalization, comparison, hashing, serialization and deserialization functions to this block.

19.9.1 The `struct custom_operations`

The `struct custom_operations` is defined in `<caml/custom.h>` and contains the following fields:

- `char *identifier`
  A zero-terminated character string serving as an identifier for serialization and deserialization operations.

- `void  (*finalize)(value v)`
  The `finalize` field contains a pointer to a C function that is called when the block becomes unreachable and is about to be reclaimed. The block is passed as first argument to the function. The `finalize` field can also be `custom_finalize_default` to indicate that no finalization function is associated with the block.

- `int (*compare)(value v1, value v2)`
  The `compare` field contains a pointer to a C function that is called whenever two custom blocks are compared using OCaml's generic comparison operators (`=`, `<>`, `<=`, `>=`, `<`, `>` and `compare`). The C function should return 0 if the data contained in the two blocks are structurally equal, a negative integer if the data from the first block is less than the data from the second block, and a positive integer if the data from the first block is greater than the data from the second block.

  The `compare` field can be set to `custom_compare_default`; this default comparison function simply raises `Failure`.

- `int (*compare_ext)(value v1, value v2)`
  (Since 3.12.1) The `compare_ext` field contains a pointer to a C function that is called whenever one custom block and one unboxed integer are compared using OCaml's generic comparison operators (`=`, `<>`, `<=`, `>=`, `<`, `>` and `compare`). As in the case of the `compare` field, the C function should return 0 if the two arguments are structurally equal, a negative integer if the first argument compares less than the second argument, and a positive integer if the first argument compares greater than the second argument.

  The `compare_ext` field can be set to `custom_compare_ext_default`; this default comparison function simply raises `Failure`.

- `intnat (*hash)(value v)`
  The `hash` field contains a pointer to a C function that is called whenever OCaml's generic hash operator (see module `Hashtbl`) is applied to a custom block. The C function can return an arbitrary integer representing the hash value of the data contained in the given custom block. The hash value must be compatible with the `compare` function, in the sense that two structurally equal data (that is, two custom blocks for which `compare` returns 0) must have the same hash value.

  The `hash` field can be set to `custom_hash_default`, in which case the custom block is ignored during hash computation.

- `void (*serialize)(value v, uintnat * wsize_32, uintnat * wsize_64)`
  The `serialize` field contains a pointer to a C function that is called whenever the custom block needs to be serialized (marshaled) using the OCaml functions `output_value` or `Marshal.to_...`. For a custom block, those functions first write the identifier of the block (as given by the `identifier` field) to the output stream, then call the user-provided `serialize` function. That function is responsible for writing the data contained in the custom block, using the `serialize_...` functions defined in `<caml/intext.h>` and listed below. The user-provided `serialize` function must then store in its `wsize_32` and `wsize_64` parameters the sizes in bytes of the data part of the custom block on a 32-bit architecture and on a 64-bit architecture, respectively.

  The `serialize` field can be set to `custom_serialize_default`, in which case the `Failure` exception is raised when attempting to serialize the custom block.

- `uintnat (*deserialize)(void * dst)`
  The `deserialize` field contains a pointer to a C function that is called whenever a custom

block with identifier `identifier` needs to be deserialized (un-marshaled) using the OCaml functions `input_value` or `Marshal.from_...`. This user-provided function is responsible for reading back the data written by the `serialize` operation, using the `deserialize_...` functions defined in `<caml/intext.h>` and listed below. It must then rebuild the data part of the custom block and store it at the pointer given as the `dst` argument. Finally, it returns the size in bytes of the data part of the custom block. This size must be identical to the `wsize_32` result of the `serialize` operation if the architecture is 32 bits, or `wsize_64` if the architecture is 64 bits.

The `deserialize` field can be set to `custom_deserialize_default` to indicate that deserialization is not supported. In this case, do not register the `struct custom_operations` with the deserializer using `register_custom_operations` (see below).

Note: the `finalize`, `compare`, `hash`, `serialize` and `deserialize` functions attached to custom block descriptors must never trigger a garbage collection. Within these functions, do not call any of the OCaml allocation functions, and do not perform a callback into OCaml code. Do not use `CAMLparam` to register the parameters to these functions, and do not use `CAMLreturn` to return the result.

19.9.2 Allocating custom blocks

Custom blocks must be allocated via the `caml_alloc_custom` function:

`caml_alloc_custom(`*ops*`,` *size*`,` *used*`,` *max*`)`

returns a fresh custom block, with room for *size* bytes of user data, and whose associated operations are given by *ops* (a pointer to a `struct custom_operations`, usually statically allocated as a C global variable).

The two parameters *used* and *max* are used to control the speed of garbage collection when the finalized object contains pointers to out-of-heap resources. Generally speaking, the OCaml incremental major collector adjusts its speed relative to the allocation rate of the program. The faster the program allocates, the harder the GC works in order to reclaim quickly unreachable blocks and avoid having large amount of "floating garbage" (unreferenced objects that the GC has not yet collected).

Normally, the allocation rate is measured by counting the in-heap size of allocated blocks. However, it often happens that finalized objects contain pointers to out-of-heap memory blocks and other resources (such as file descriptors, X Windows bitmaps, etc.). For those blocks, the in-heap size of blocks is not a good measure of the quantity of resources allocated by the program.

The two arguments *used* and *max* give the GC an idea of how much out-of-heap resources are consumed by the finalized block being allocated: you give the amount of resources allocated to this object as parameter *used*, and the maximum amount that you want to see in floating garbage as parameter *max*. The units are arbitrary: the GC cares only about the ratio $used/max$.

For instance, if you are allocating a finalized block holding an X Windows bitmap of w by h pixels, and you'd rather not have more than 1 mega-pixels of unreclaimed bitmaps, specify $used = w * h$ and $max = 1000000$.

Another way to describe the effect of the *used* and *max* parameters is in terms of full GC cycles. If you allocate many custom blocks with $used/max = 1/N$, the GC will then do one full cycle (examining every object in the heap and calling finalization functions on those that are unreachable) every N allocations. For instance, if $used = 1$ and $max = 1000$, the GC will do one full cycle at least every 1000 allocations of custom blocks.

If your finalized blocks contain no pointers to out-of-heap resources, or if the previous discussion made little sense to you, just take $used = 0$ and $max = 1$. But if you later find that the finalization functions are not called "often enough", consider increasing the $used/max$ ratio.

19.9.3 Accessing custom blocks

The data part of a custom block v can be accessed via the pointer `Data_custom_val(`v`)`. This pointer has type `void *` and should be cast to the actual type of the data stored in the custom block.

The contents of custom blocks are not scanned by the garbage collector, and must therefore not contain any pointer inside the OCaml heap. In other terms, never store an OCaml `value` in a custom block, and do not use `Field`, `Store_field` nor `caml_modify` to access the data part of a custom block. Conversely, any C data structure (not containing heap pointers) can be stored in a custom block.

19.9.4 Writing custom serialization and deserialization functions

The following functions, defined in `<caml/intext.h>`, are provided to write and read back the contents of custom blocks in a portable way. Those functions handle endianness conversions when e.g. data is written on a little-endian machine and read back on a big-endian machine.

Function	Action
`caml_serialize_int_1`	Write a 1-byte integer
`caml_serialize_int_2`	Write a 2-byte integer
`caml_serialize_int_4`	Write a 4-byte integer
`caml_serialize_int_8`	Write a 8-byte integer
`caml_serialize_float_4`	Write a 4-byte float
`caml_serialize_float_8`	Write a 8-byte float
`caml_serialize_block_1`	Write an array of 1-byte quantities
`caml_serialize_block_2`	Write an array of 2-byte quantities
`caml_serialize_block_4`	Write an array of 4-byte quantities
`caml_serialize_block_8`	Write an array of 8-byte quantities
`caml_deserialize_uint_1`	Read an unsigned 1-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_sint_1`	Read a signed 1-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_uint_2`	Read an unsigned 2-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_sint_2`	Read a signed 2-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_uint_4`	Read an unsigned 4-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_sint_4`	Read a signed 4-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_uint_8`	Read an unsigned 8-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_sint_8`	Read a signed 8-byte integer
`caml_deserialize_float_4`	Read a 4-byte float
`caml_deserialize_float_8`	Read an 8-byte float
`caml_deserialize_block_1`	Read an array of 1-byte quantities
`caml_deserialize_block_2`	Read an array of 2-byte quantities
`caml_deserialize_block_4`	Read an array of 4-byte quantities
`caml_deserialize_block_8`	Read an array of 8-byte quantities
`caml_deserialize_error`	Signal an error during deserialization; `input_value` or `Marshal.from_...` raise a `Failure` exception after cleaning up their internal data structures

Serialization functions are attached to the custom blocks to which they apply. Obviously, deserialization functions cannot be attached this way, since the custom block does not exist yet when deserialization begins! Thus, the `struct custom_operations` that contain deserialization functions must be registered with the deserializer in advance, using the `register_custom_operations` function declared in `<caml/custom.h>`. Deserialization proceeds by reading the identifier off the input stream, allocating a custom block of the size specified in the input stream, searching the registered `struct custom_operation` blocks for one with the same identifier, and calling its `deserialize` function to fill the data part of the custom block.

19.9.5 Choosing identifiers

Identifiers in `struct custom_operations` must be chosen carefully, since they must identify uniquely the data structure for serialization and deserialization operations. In particular, consider including a version number in the identifier; this way, the format of the data can be changed later, yet backward-compatible deserialisation functions can be provided.

Identifiers starting with `_` (an underscore character) are reserved for the OCaml runtime system; do not use them for your custom data. We recommend to use a URL (`http://mymachine.mydomain.com/mylibrary/version-number`) or a Java-style package name (`com.mydomain.mymachine.mylibrary.version-number`) as identifiers, to minimize the risk of identifier collision.

19.9.6 Finalized blocks

Custom blocks generalize the finalized blocks that were present in OCaml prior to version 3.00. For backward compatibility, the format of custom blocks is compatible with that of finalized blocks, and the `alloc_final` function is still available to allocate a custom block with a given finalization function, but default comparison, hashing and serialization functions. `caml_alloc_final(`*n*`,` *f*`,` *used*`,` *max*`)` returns a fresh custom block of size *n* words, with finalization function *f*. The first word is reserved for storing the custom operations; the other *n*-1 words are available for your data. The two parameters *used* and *max* are used to control the speed of garbage collection, as described for `caml_alloc_custom`.

19.10 Advanced topic: multithreading

Using multiple threads (shared-memory concurrency) in a mixed OCaml/C application requires special precautions, which are described in this section.

19.10.1 Registering threads created from C

Callbacks from C to OCaml are possible only if the calling thread is known to the OCaml run-time system. Threads created from OCaml (through the `Thread.create` function of the system threads library) are automatically known to the run-time system. If the application creates additional threads from C and wishes to callback into OCaml code from these threads, it must first register them with the run-time system. The following functions are declared in the include file `<caml/threads.h>`.

- `caml_c_thread_register()` registers the calling thread with the OCaml run-time system. Returns 1 on success, 0 on error. Registering an already-register thread does nothing and returns 0.
- `caml_c_thread_unregister()` must be called before the thread terminates, to unregister it from the OCaml run-time system. Returns 1 on success, 0 on error. If the calling thread was not previously registered, does nothing and returns 0.

19.10.2 Parallel execution of long-running C code

The OCaml run-time system is not reentrant: at any time, at most one thread can be executing OCaml code or C code that uses the OCaml run-time system. Technically, this is enforced by a "master lock" that any thread must hold while executing such code.

When OCaml calls the C code implementing a primitive, the master lock is held, therefore the C code has full access to the facilities of the run-time system. However, no other thread can execute OCaml code concurrently with the C code of the primitive.

If a C primitive runs for a long time or performs potentially blocking input-output operations, it can explicitly release the master lock, enabling other OCaml threads to run concurrently with its operations. The C code must re-acquire the master lock before returning to OCaml. This is achieved with the following functions, declared in the include file `<caml/threads.h>`.

- `caml_release_runtime_system()` The calling thread releases the master lock and other OCaml resources, enabling other threads to run OCaml code in parallel with the execution of the calling thread.
- `caml_acquire_runtime_system()` The calling thread re-acquires the master lock and other OCaml resources. It may block until no other thread uses the OCaml run-time system.

After `caml_release_runtime_system()` was called and until `caml_acquire_runtime_system()` is called, the C code must not access any OCaml data, nor call any function of the run-time system, nor call back into OCaml code. Consequently, arguments provided by OCaml to the C primitive must be copied into C data structures before calling `caml_release_runtime_system()`, and results to be returned to OCaml must be encoded as OCaml values after `caml_acquire_runtime_system()` returns.

Example: the following C primitive invokes `gethostbyname` to find the IP address of a host name. The `gethostbyname` function can block for a long time, so we choose to release the OCaml run-time system while it is running.

```
CAMLprim stub_gethostbyname(value vname)
{
  CAMLparam1 (vname);
  CAMLlocal1 (vres);
  struct hostent * h;

  /* Copy the string argument to a C string, allocated outside the
     OCaml heap. */
  name = stat_alloc(caml_string_length(vname) + 1);
  strcpy(name, String_val(vname));
  /* Release the OCaml run-time system */
  caml_release_runtime_system();
  /* Resolve the name */
  h = gethostbyname(name);
  /* Re-acquire the OCaml run-time system */
  caml_acquire_runtime_system();
  /* Encode the relevant fields of h as the OCaml value vres */
  ... /* Omitted */
  /* Return to OCaml */
  CAMLreturn (vres);
}
```

Callbacks from C to OCaml must be performed while holding the master lock to the OCaml run-time system. This is naturally the case if the callback is performed by a C primitive that did not release the run-time system. If the C primitive released the run-time system previously, or the callback is performed from other C code that was not invoked from OCaml (e.g. an event loop in a GUI application), the run-time system must be acquired before the callback and released after:

```
caml_acquire_runtime_system();
/* Resolve OCaml function vfun to be invoked */
/* Build OCaml argument varg to the callback */
vres = callback(vfun, varg);
/* Copy relevant parts of result vres to C data structures */
caml_release_runtime_system();
```

Note: the `acquire` and `release` functions described above were introduced in OCaml 3.12. Older code uses the following historical names, declared in `<caml/signals.h>`:

- `caml_enter_blocking_section` as an alias for `caml_release_runtime_system`
- `caml_leave_blocking_section` as an alias for `caml_acquire_runtime_system`

Intuition: a "blocking section" is a piece of C code that does not use the OCaml run-time system, typically a blocking input/output operation.

19.11 Building mixed C/OCaml libraries: `ocamlmklib`

The `ocamlmklib` command facilitates the construction of libraries containing both OCaml code and C code, and usable both in static linking and dynamic linking modes. This command is available under Windows since Objective Caml 3.11 and under other operating systems since Objective Caml 3.03.

The `ocamlmklib` command takes three kinds of arguments:

- OCaml source files and object files (`.cmo`, `.cmx`, `.ml`) comprising the OCaml part of the library;
- C object files (`.o`, `.a`, respectively, `.obj`, `.lib`) comprising the C part of the library;
- Support libraries for the C part (`-l`*lib*).

It generates the following outputs:

- An OCaml bytecode library `.cma` incorporating the `.cmo` and `.ml` OCaml files given as arguments, and automatically referencing the C library generated with the C object files.
- An OCaml native-code library `.cmxa` incorporating the `.cmx` and `.ml` OCaml files given as arguments, and automatically referencing the C library generated with the C object files.
- If dynamic linking is supported on the target platform, a `.so` (respectively, `.dll`) shared library built from the C object files given as arguments, and automatically referencing the support libraries.
- A C static library `.a`(respectively, `.lib`) built from the C object files.

In addition, the following options are recognized:

`-cclib`, `-ccopt`, `-I`, `-linkall`
: These options are passed as is to `ocamlc` or `ocamlopt`. See the documentation of these commands.

`-rpath`, `-R`, `-Wl,-rpath`, `-Wl,-R`
: These options are passed as is to the C compiler. Refer to the documentation of the C compiler.

`-custom`
: Force the construction of a statically linked library only, even if dynamic linking is supported.

`-failsafe`
: Fall back to building a statically linked library if a problem occurs while building the shared library (e.g. some of the support libraries are not available as shared libraries).

`-L`*dir*
: Add *dir* to the search path for support libraries (`-l`*lib*).

`-ocamlc` *cmd*
: Use *cmd* instead of `ocamlc` to call the bytecode compiler.

`-ocamlopt` *cmd*
: Use *cmd* instead of `ocamlopt` to call the native-code compiler.

`-o` *output*
: Set the name of the generated OCaml library. `ocamlmklib` will generate *output*`.cma` and/or *output*`.cmxa`. If not specified, defaults to `a`.

`-oc` *outputc*
: Set the name of the generated C library. `ocamlmklib` will generate `lib`*outputc*`.so` (if shared libraries are supported) and `lib`*outputc*`.a`. If not specified, defaults to the output name given with `-o`.

Example Consider an OCaml interface to the standard `libz` C library for reading and writing compressed files. Assume this library resides in `/usr/local/zlib`. This interface is composed of an OCaml part `zip.cmo/zip.cmx` and a C part `zipstubs.o` containing the stub code around the `libz` entry points. The following command builds the OCaml libraries `zip.cma` and `zip.cmxa`, as well as the companion C libraries `dllzip.so` and `libzip.a`:

```
ocamlmklib -o zip zip.cmo zip.cmx zipstubs.o -lz -L/usr/local/zlib
```

If shared libraries are supported, this performs the following commands:

```
ocamlc -a -o zip.cma zip.cmo -dllib -lzip \
        -cclib -lzip -cclib -lz -ccopt -L/usr/local/zlib
ocamlopt -a -o zip.cmxa zip.cmx -cclib -lzip \
        -cclib -lzip -cclib -lz -ccopt -L/usr/local/zlib
gcc -shared -o dllzip.so zipstubs.o -lz -L/usr/local/zlib
ar rc libzip.a zipstubs.o
```

Note: This example is on a Unix system. The exact command lines may be different on other systems.

If shared libraries are not supported, the following commands are performed instead:

```
ocamlc -a -custom -o zip.cma zip.cmo -cclib -lzip \
        -cclib -lz -ccopt -L/usr/local/zlib
ocamlopt -a -o zip.cmxa zip.cmx -lzip \
        -cclib -lz -ccopt -L/usr/local/zlib
ar rc libzip.a zipstubs.o
```

Instead of building simultaneously the bytecode library, the native-code library and the C libraries, `ocamlmklib` can be called three times to build each separately. Thus,

```
ocamlmklib -o zip zip.cmo -lz -L/usr/local/zlib
```

builds the bytecode library `zip.cma`, and

```
ocamlmklib -o zip zip.cmx -lz -L/usr/local/zlib
```

builds the native-code library `zip.cmxa`, and

```
ocamlmklib -o zip zipstubs.o -lz -L/usr/local/zlib
```

builds the C libraries `dllzip.so` and `libzip.a`. Notice that the support libraries (`-lz`) and the corresponding options (`-L/usr/local/zlib`) must be given on all three invocations of `ocamlmklib`, because they are needed at different times depending on whether shared libraries are supported.

Part IV

The OCaml library

Chapter 20

The core library

This chapter describes the OCaml core library, which is composed of declarations for built-in types and exceptions, plus the module `Pervasives` that provides basic operations on these built-in types. The `Pervasives` module is special in two ways:

- It is automatically linked with the user's object code files by the `ocamlc` command (chapter 8).
- It is automatically "opened" when a compilation starts, or when the toplevel system is launched. Hence, it is possible to use unqualified identifiers to refer to the functions provided by the `Pervasives` module, without adding a `open Pervasives` directive.

Conventions

The declarations of the built-in types and the components of module `Pervasives` are printed one by one in typewriter font, followed by a short comment. All library modules and the components they provide are indexed at the end of this report.

20.1 Built-in types and predefined exceptions

The following built-in types and predefined exceptions are always defined in the compilation environment, but are not part of any module. As a consequence, they can only be referred by their short names.

Built-in types

```
type int
```

The type of integer numbers.

```
type char
```

The type of characters.

```
type bytes
```

The type of (writable) byte sequences.

`type string`

The type of (read-only) character strings.

`type float`

The type of floating-point numbers.

`type bool = false | true`

The type of booleans (truth values).

`type unit = ()`

The type of the unit value.

`type exn`

The type of exception values.

`type 'a array`

The type of arrays whose elements have type `'a`.

`type 'a list = [] | :: of 'a * 'a list`

The type of lists whose elements have type `'a`.

`type 'a option = None | Some of 'a`

The type of optional values of type `'a`.

`type int32`

The type of signed 32-bit integers. See the `Int32`[21.14] module.

`type int64`

The type of signed 64-bit integers. See the `Int64`[21.15] module.

`type nativeint`

The type of signed, platform-native integers (32 bits on 32-bit processors, 64 bits on 64-bit processors). See the `Nativeint`[21.22] module.

`type ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6`

The type of format strings. `'a` is the type of the parameters of the format, `'f` is the result type for the `printf`-style functions, `'b` is the type of the first argument given to `%a` and `%t` printing functions (see module `Printf`[21.26]), `'c` is the result type of these functions, and also the type of the argument transmitted to the first argument of `kprintf`-style functions, `'d` is the result type for the `scanf`-style functions (see module `Scanf`[21.29]), and `'e` is the type of the receiver function for the `scanf`-style functions.

`type 'a lazy_t`

This type is used to implement the `Lazy`[21.16] module. It should not be used directly.

Predefined exceptions

`exception Match_failure of (string * int * int)`

Exception raised when none of the cases of a pattern-matching apply. The arguments are the location of the `match` keyword in the source code (file name, line number, column number).

`exception Assert_failure of (string * int * int)`

Exception raised when an assertion fails. The arguments are the location of the `assert` keyword in the source code (file name, line number, column number).

`exception Invalid_argument of string`

Exception raised by library functions to signal that the given arguments do not make sense.

`exception Failure of string`

Exception raised by library functions to signal that they are undefined on the given arguments.

`exception Not_found`

Exception raised by search functions when the desired object could not be found.

`exception Out_of_memory`

Exception raised by the garbage collector when there is insufficient memory to complete the computation.

`exception Stack_overflow`

Exception raised by the bytecode interpreter when the evaluation stack reaches its maximal size. This often indicates infinite or excessively deep recursion in the user's program. (Not fully implemented by the native-code compiler; see section 11.5.)

`exception Sys_error of string`

Exception raised by the input/output functions to report an operating system error.

`exception End_of_file`

Exception raised by input functions to signal that the end of file has been reached.

`exception Division_by_zero`

Exception raised by integer division and remainder operations when their second argument is zero.

`exception Sys_blocked_io`

A special case of `Sys_error` raised when no I/O is possible on a non-blocking I/O channel.

`exception Undefined_recursive_module of (string * int * int)`

Exception raised when an ill-founded recursive module definition is evaluated. (See section 7.8.) The arguments are the location of the definition in the source code (file name, line number, column number).

20.2 Module `Pervasives` : The initially opened module.

This module provides the basic operations over the built-in types (numbers, booleans, byte sequences, strings, exceptions, references, lists, arrays, input-output channels, ...).

This module is automatically opened at the beginning of each compilation. All components of this module can therefore be referred by their short name, without prefixing them by `Pervasives`.

Exceptions

`val raise : exn -> 'a`

Raise the given exception value

`val raise_notrace : exn -> 'a`

A faster version `raise` which does not record the backtrace.

Since: 4.02.0

`val invalid_arg : string -> 'a`

Raise exception `Invalid_argument` with the given string.

`val failwith : string -> 'a`

Raise exception `Failure` with the given string.

`exception Exit`

The `Exit` exception is not raised by any library function. It is provided for use in your programs.

Comparisons

`val (=) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

`e1 = e2` tests for structural equality of `e1` and `e2`. Mutable structures (e.g. references and arrays) are equal if and only if their current contents are structurally equal, even if the two mutable objects are not the same physical object. Equality between functional values raises `Invalid_argument`. Equality between cyclic data structures may not terminate.

`val (<>) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

Negation of `Pervasives.(=)`[20.2].

`val (<) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

See `Pervasives.(>=)`[20.2].

`val (>) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

See `Pervasives.(>=)`[20.2].

`val (<=) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

See `Pervasives.(>=)`[20.2].

`val (>=) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

Structural ordering functions. These functions coincide with the usual orderings over integers, characters, strings, byte sequences and floating-point numbers, and extend them to a total ordering over all types. The ordering is compatible with `( = )`. As in the case of `( = )`, mutable structures are compared by contents. Comparison between functional values raises `Invalid_argument`. Comparison between cyclic structures may not terminate.

`val compare : 'a -> 'a -> int`

`compare x y` returns `0` if `x` is equal to `y`, a negative integer if `x` is less than `y`, and a positive integer if `x` is greater than `y`. The ordering implemented by `compare` is compatible with the comparison predicates `=`, `<` and `>` defined above, with one difference on the treatment of the float value `Pervasives.nan`[20.2]. Namely, the comparison predicates treat `nan` as different from any other float value, including itself; while `compare` treats `nan` as equal to itself and less than any other float value. This treatment of `nan` ensures that `compare` defines a total ordering relation.

`compare` applied to functional values may raise `Invalid_argument`. `compare` applied to cyclic structures may not terminate.

The `compare` function can be used as the comparison function required by the `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19] functors, as well as the `List.sort`[21.18] and `Array.sort`[21.2] functions.

`val min : 'a -> 'a -> 'a`

Return the smaller of the two arguments. The result is unspecified if one of the arguments contains the float value `nan`.

`val max : 'a -> 'a -> 'a`

Return the greater of the two arguments. The result is unspecified if one of the arguments contains the float value `nan`.

`val (==) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

`e1 == e2` tests for physical equality of `e1` and `e2`. On mutable types such as references, arrays, byte sequences, records with mutable fields and objects with mutable instance variables, `e1 == e2` is true if and only if physical modification of `e1` also affects `e2`. On non-mutable types, the behavior of `( == )` is implementation-dependent; however, it is guaranteed that `e1 == e2` implies `compare e1 e2 = 0`.

`val (!=) : 'a -> 'a -> bool`

Negation of `Pervasives.(==)`[20.2].

Boolean operations

`val not : bool -> bool`

The boolean negation.

`val (&&) : bool -> bool -> bool`

The boolean 'and'. Evaluation is sequential, left-to-right: in `e1 && e2`, `e1` is evaluated first, and if it returns `false`, `e2` is not evaluated at all.

`val (&) : bool -> bool -> bool`

Deprecated. `Pervasives.(&&)`[20.2] should be used instead.

`val (||) : bool -> bool -> bool`

The boolean 'or'. Evaluation is sequential, left-to-right: in `e1 || e2`, `e1` is evaluated first, and if it returns `true`, `e2` is not evaluated at all.

`val (or) : bool -> bool -> bool`

Deprecated. `Pervasives.(||)`[20.2] should be used instead.

Debugging

`val __LOC__ : string`

`__LOC__` returns the location at which this expression appears in the file currently being parsed by the compiler, with the standard error format of OCaml: "File %S, line %d, characters %d-%d"

`val __FILE__ : string`

`__FILE__` returns the name of the file currently being parsed by the compiler.

`val __LINE__ : int`

`__LINE__` returns the line number at which this expression appears in the file currently being parsed by the compiler.

`val __MODULE__ : string`

`__MODULE__` returns the module name of the file being parsed by the compiler.

`val __POS__ : string * int * int * int`

`__POS__` returns a tuple `(file,lnum,cnum,enum)`, corresponding to the location at which this expression appears in the file currently being parsed by the compiler. `file` is the current filename, `lnum` the line number, `cnum` the character position in the line and `enum` the last character position in the line.

`val __LOC_OF__ : 'a -> string * 'a`

`__LOC_OF__ expr` returns a pair `(loc, expr)` where `loc` is the location of `expr` in the file currently being parsed by the compiler, with the standard error format of OCaml: "File %S, line %d, characters %d-%d"

`val __LINE_OF__ : 'a -> int * 'a`

`__LINE__ expr` returns a pair `(line, expr)`, where `line` is the line number at which the expression `expr` appears in the file currently being parsed by the compiler.

`val __POS_OF__ : 'a -> (string * int * int * int) * 'a`

`__POS_OF__ expr` returns a pair `(expr,loc)`, where `loc` is a tuple `(file,lnum,cnum,enum)` corresponding to the location at which the expression `expr` appears in the file currently being parsed by the compiler. `file` is the current filename, `lnum` the line number, `cnum` the character position in the line and `enum` the last character position in the line.

Composition operators

`val (|>) : 'a -> ('a -> 'b) -> 'b`

Reverse-application operator: `x |> f |> g` is exactly equivalent to `g (f (x))`.

Since: 4.01

`val (@@) : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b`

Application operator: `g @@ f @@ x` is exactly equivalent to `g (f (x))`.

Since: 4.01

Integer arithmetic

Integers are 31 bits wide (or 63 bits on 64-bit processors). All operations are taken modulo 2^{31} (or 2^{63}). They do not fail on overflow.

`val (~-) : int -> int`

Unary negation. You can also write `- e` instead of `~- e`.

`val (~+) : int -> int`

Unary addition. You can also write `+ e` instead of `~+ e`.

Since: 3.12.0

`val succ : int -> int`

`succ x` is `x + 1`.

`val pred : int -> int`

`pred x` is `x - 1`.

`val (+) : int -> int -> int`

Integer addition.

`val (-) : int -> int -> int`

Integer subtraction.

`val ( * ) : int -> int -> int`

Integer multiplication.

`val (/) : int -> int -> int`

Integer division. Raise `Division_by_zero` if the second argument is 0. Integer division rounds the real quotient of its arguments towards zero. More precisely, if `x >= 0` and `y > 0`, `x / y` is the greatest integer less than or equal to the real quotient of `x` by `y`. Moreover, `(- x) / y = x / (- y) = - (x / y)`.

`val (mod) : int -> int -> int`

Integer remainder. If `y` is not zero, the result of `x mod y` satisfies the following properties: `x = (x / y) * y + x mod y` and `abs(x mod y) <= abs(y) - 1`. If `y = 0`, `x mod y` raises `Division_by_zero`. Note that `x mod y` is negative only if `x < 0`. Raise `Division_by_zero` if `y` is zero.

`val abs : int -> int`

Return the absolute value of the argument. Note that this may be negative if the argument is `min_int`.

`val max_int : int`

The greatest representable integer.

`val min_int : int`

The smallest representable integer.

Bitwise operations

`val (land) : int -> int -> int`

Bitwise logical and.

`val (lor) : int -> int -> int`

Bitwise logical or.

`val (lxor) : int -> int -> int`

Bitwise logical exclusive or.

`val lnot : int -> int`

Bitwise logical negation.

`val (lsl) : int -> int -> int`

`n lsl m` shifts `n` to the left by `m` bits. The result is unspecified if `m < 0` or `m >= bitsize`, where `bitsize` is `32` on a 32-bit platform and `64` on a 64-bit platform.

`val (lsr) : int -> int -> int`

`n lsr m` shifts `n` to the right by `m` bits. This is a logical shift: zeroes are inserted regardless of the sign of `n`. The result is unspecified if `m < 0` or `m >= bitsize`.

`val (asr) : int -> int -> int`

`n asr m` shifts `n` to the right by `m` bits. This is an arithmetic shift: the sign bit of `n` is replicated. The result is unspecified if `m < 0` or `m >= bitsize`.

Floating-point arithmetic

OCaml's floating-point numbers follow the IEEE 754 standard, using double precision (64 bits) numbers. Floating-point operations never raise an exception on overflow, underflow, division by zero, etc. Instead, special IEEE numbers are returned as appropriate, such as `infinity` for `1.0 /. 0.0`, `neg_infinity` for `-1.0 /. 0.0`, and `nan` ('not a number') for `0.0 /. 0.0`. These special numbers then propagate through floating-point computations as expected: for instance, `1.0 /. infinity` is `0.0`, and any arithmetic operation with `nan` as argument returns `nan` as result.

`val (~-.) : float -> float`

Unary negation. You can also write `-. e` instead of `~-. e`.

`val (~+.) : float -> float`

Unary addition. You can also write `+. e` instead of `~+. e`.

Since: 3.12.0

`val (+.) : float -> float -> float`

Floating-point addition

`val (-.) : float -> float -> float`

Floating-point subtraction

`val ( *. ) : float -> float -> float`

Floating-point multiplication

`val (/.) : float -> float -> float`

Floating-point division.

`val ( ** ) : float -> float -> float`

Exponentiation.

`val sqrt : float -> float`

Square root.

`val exp : float -> float`

Exponential.

`val log : float -> float`

Natural logarithm.

`val log10 : float -> float`

Base 10 logarithm.

`val expm1 : float -> float`

`expm1 x` computes `exp x -. 1.0`, giving numerically-accurate results even if `x` is close to `0.0`.

Since: 3.12.0

`val log1p : float -> float`

`log1p x` computes `log(1.0 +. x)` (natural logarithm), giving numerically-accurate results even if `x` is close to `0.0`.

Since: 3.12.0

`val cos : float -> float`

Cosine. Argument is in radians.

`val sin : float -> float`

Sine. Argument is in radians.

`val tan : float -> float`

Tangent. Argument is in radians.

`val acos : float -> float`

Arc cosine. The argument must fall within the range `[-1.0, 1.0]`. Result is in radians and is between `0.0` and `pi`.

`val asin : float -> float`

Arc sine. The argument must fall within the range `[-1.0, 1.0]`. Result is in radians and is between `-pi/2` and `pi/2`.

`val atan : float -> float`

Arc tangent. Result is in radians and is between `-pi/2` and `pi/2`.

`val atan2 : float -> float -> float`

`atan2 y x` returns the arc tangent of `y /. x`. The signs of `x` and `y` are used to determine the quadrant of the result. Result is in radians and is between `-pi` and `pi`.

`val hypot : float -> float -> float`

`hypot x y` returns `sqrt(x *. x + y *. y)`, that is, the length of the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle with sides of length `x` and `y`, or, equivalently, the distance of the point `(x,y)` to origin.

Since: 4.00.0

`val cosh : float -> float`

Hyperbolic cosine. Argument is in radians.

`val sinh : float -> float`

Hyperbolic sine. Argument is in radians.

`val tanh : float -> float`

Hyperbolic tangent. Argument is in radians.

`val ceil : float -> float`

Round above to an integer value. `ceil f` returns the least integer value greater than or equal to `f`. The result is returned as a float.

`val floor : float -> float`

Round below to an integer value. `floor f` returns the greatest integer value less than or equal to `f`. The result is returned as a float.

`val abs_float : float -> float`

`abs_float f` returns the absolute value of `f`.

`val copysign : float -> float -> float`

`copysign x y` returns a float whose absolute value is that of `x` and whose sign is that of `y`. If `x` is `nan`, returns `nan`. If `y` is `nan`, returns either `x` or `-. x`, but it is not specified which.

Since: 4.00.0

`val mod_float : float -> float -> float`

`mod_float a b` returns the remainder of `a` with respect to `b`. The returned value is `a -. n *. b`, where `n` is the quotient `a /. b` rounded towards zero to an integer.

`val frexp : float -> float * int`

`frexp f` returns the pair of the significant and the exponent of `f`. When `f` is zero, the significant `x` and the exponent `n` of `f` are equal to zero. When `f` is non-zero, they are defined by `f = x *. 2 ** n` and `0.5 <= x < 1.0`.

`val ldexp : float -> int -> float`

`ldexp x n` returns `x *. 2 ** n`.

`val modf : float -> float * float`

`modf f` returns the pair of the fractional and integral part of `f`.

`val float : int -> float`

Same as `Pervasives.float_of_int`[20.2].

`val float_of_int : int -> float`

Convert an integer to floating-point.

`val truncate : float -> int`

Same as `Pervasives.int_of_float`[20.2].

`val int_of_float : float -> int`

Truncate the given floating-point number to an integer. The result is unspecified if the argument is `nan` or falls outside the range of representable integers.

`val infinity : float`

Positive infinity.

`val neg_infinity : float`

Negative infinity.

`val nan : float`

A special floating-point value denoting the result of an undefined operation such as `0.0 /. 0.0`. Stands for 'not a number'. Any floating-point operation with `nan` as argument returns `nan` as result. As for floating-point comparisons, `=`, `<`, `<=`, `>` and `>=` return `false` and `<>` returns `true` if one or both of their arguments is `nan`.

`val max_float : float`

The largest positive finite value of type `float`.

`val min_float : float`

The smallest positive, non-zero, non-denormalized value of type `float`.

`val epsilon_float : float`

The difference between `1.0` and the smallest exactly representable floating-point number greater than `1.0`.

```
type fpclass =
  | FP_normal
```

Normal number, none of the below

```
  | FP_subnormal
```

Number very close to 0.0, has reduced precision

```
  | FP_zero
```

Number is 0.0 or -0.0

`| FP_infinite`

Number is positive or negative infinity

`| FP_nan`

Not a number: result of an undefined operation

The five classes of floating-point numbers, as determined by the `Pervasives.classify_float`[20.2] function.

`val classify_float : float -> fpclass`

Return the class of the given floating-point number: normal, subnormal, zero, infinite, or not a number.

String operations

More string operations are provided in module `String`[21.35].

`val (^) : string -> string -> string`

String concatenation.

Character operations

More character operations are provided in module `Char`[21.6].

`val int_of_char : char -> int`

Return the ASCII code of the argument.

`val char_of_int : int -> char`

Return the character with the given ASCII code. Raise `Invalid_argument "char_of_int"` if the argument is outside the range 0–255.

Unit operations

`val ignore : 'a -> unit`

Discard the value of its argument and return `()`. For instance, `ignore(f x)` discards the result of the side-effecting function `f`. It is equivalent to `f x; ()`, except that the latter may generate a compiler warning; writing `ignore(f x)` instead avoids the warning.

String conversion functions

`val string_of_bool : bool -> string`

Return the string representation of a boolean. As the returned values may be shared, the user should not modify them directly.

`val bool_of_string : string -> bool`

Convert the given string to a boolean. Raise `Invalid_argument "bool_of_string"` if the string is not `"true"` or `"false"`.

`val string_of_int : int -> string`

Return the string representation of an integer, in decimal.

`val int_of_string : string -> int`

Convert the given string to an integer. The string is read in decimal (by default) or in hexadecimal (if it begins with `0x` or `0X`), octal (if it begins with `0o` or `0O`), or binary (if it begins with `0b` or `0B`). Raise `Failure "int_of_string"` if the given string is not a valid representation of an integer, or if the integer represented exceeds the range of integers representable in type `int`.

`val string_of_float : float -> string`

Return the string representation of a floating-point number.

`val float_of_string : string -> float`

Convert the given string to a float. Raise `Failure "float_of_string"` if the given string is not a valid representation of a float.

Pair operations

`val fst : 'a * 'b -> 'a`

Return the first component of a pair.

`val snd : 'a * 'b -> 'b`

Return the second component of a pair.

List operations

More list operations are provided in module `List`[21.18].

`val (@) : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list`

List concatenation.

Input/output

Note: all input/output functions can raise `Sys_error` when the system calls they invoke fail.

`type in_channel`

The type of input channel.

`type out_channel`

The type of output channel.

`val stdin : in_channel`

The standard input for the process.

`val stdout : out_channel`

The standard output for the process.

`val stderr : out_channel`

The standard error output for the process.

Output functions on standard output

`val print_char : char -> unit`

Print a character on standard output.

`val print_string : string -> unit`

Print a string on standard output.

`val print_bytes : bytes -> unit`

Print a byte sequence on standard output.

`val print_int : int -> unit`

Print an integer, in decimal, on standard output.

`val print_float : float -> unit`

Print a floating-point number, in decimal, on standard output.

`val print_endline : string -> unit`

Print a string, followed by a newline character, on standard output and flush standard output.

`val print_newline : unit -> unit`

Print a newline character on standard output, and flush standard output. This can be used to simulate line buffering of standard output.

Output functions on standard error

`val prerr_char : char -> unit`

Print a character on standard error.

`val prerr_string : string -> unit`

Print a string on standard error.

`val prerr_bytes : bytes -> unit`

Print a byte sequence on standard error.

`val prerr_int : int -> unit`

Print an integer, in decimal, on standard error.

`val prerr_float : float -> unit`

Print a floating-point number, in decimal, on standard error.

`val prerr_endline : string -> unit`

Print a string, followed by a newline character on standard error and flush standard error.

`val prerr_newline : unit -> unit`

Print a newline character on standard error, and flush standard error.

Input functions on standard input

`val read_line : unit -> string`

Flush standard output, then read characters from standard input until a newline character is encountered. Return the string of all characters read, without the newline character at the end.

`val read_int : unit -> int`

Flush standard output, then read one line from standard input and convert it to an integer. Raise `Failure "int_of_string"` if the line read is not a valid representation of an integer.

`val read_float : unit -> float`

Flush standard output, then read one line from standard input and convert it to a floating-point number. The result is unspecified if the line read is not a valid representation of a floating-point number.

General output functions

```
type open_flag =
  | Open_rdonly
```
open for reading.

```
  | Open_wronly
```
open for writing.

```
  | Open_append
```
open for appending: always write at end of file.

```
  | Open_creat
```
create the file if it does not exist.

```
  | Open_trunc
```
empty the file if it already exists.

```
  | Open_excl
```
fail if Open_creat and the file already exists.

```
  | Open_binary
```
open in binary mode (no conversion).

```
  | Open_text
```
open in text mode (may perform conversions).

```
  | Open_nonblock
```
open in non-blocking mode.

Opening modes for `Pervasives.open_out_gen`[20.2] and `Pervasives.open_in_gen`[20.2].

```
val open_out : string -> out_channel
```

Open the named file for writing, and return a new output channel on that file, positionned at the beginning of the file. The file is truncated to zero length if it already exists. It is created if it does not already exists.

```
val open_out_bin : string -> out_channel
```

Same as `Pervasives.open_out`[20.2], but the file is opened in binary mode, so that no translation takes place during writes. On operating systems that do not distinguish between text mode and binary mode, this function behaves like `Pervasives.open_out`[20.2].

```
val open_out_gen : open_flag list -> int -> string -> out_channel
```

`open_out_gen mode perm filename` opens the named file for writing, as described above. The extra argument `mode` specify the opening mode. The extra argument `perm` specifies the file permissions, in case the file must be created. `Pervasives.open_out`[20.2] and `Pervasives.open_out_bin`[20.2] are special cases of this function.

```
val flush : out_channel -> unit
```

Flush the buffer associated with the given output channel, performing all pending writes on that channel. Interactive programs must be careful about flushing standard output and standard error at the right time.

`val flush_all : unit -> unit`

Flush all open output channels; ignore errors.

`val output_char : out_channel -> char -> unit`

Write the character on the given output channel.

`val output_string : out_channel -> string -> unit`

Write the string on the given output channel.

`val output_bytes : out_channel -> bytes -> unit`

Write the byte sequence on the given output channel.

`val output : out_channel -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

`output oc buf pos len` writes `len` characters from byte sequence `buf`, starting at offset `pos`, to the given output channel `oc`. Raise `Invalid_argument "output"` if `pos` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `buf`.

`val output_substring : out_channel -> string -> int -> int -> unit`

Same as `output` but take a string as argument instead of a byte sequence.

`val output_byte : out_channel -> int -> unit`

Write one 8-bit integer (as the single character with that code) on the given output channel. The given integer is taken modulo 256.

`val output_binary_int : out_channel -> int -> unit`

Write one integer in binary format (4 bytes, big-endian) on the given output channel. The given integer is taken modulo 2^{32}. The only reliable way to read it back is through the `Pervasives.input_binary_int`[20.2] function. The format is compatible across all machines for a given version of OCaml.

`val output_value : out_channel -> 'a -> unit`

Write the representation of a structured value of any type to a channel. Circularities and sharing inside the value are detected and preserved. The object can be read back, by the function `Pervasives.input_value`[20.2]. See the description of module `Marshal`[21.20] for more information. `Pervasives.output_value`[20.2] is equivalent to `Marshal.to_channel`[21.20] with an empty list of flags.

`val seek_out : out_channel -> int -> unit`

`seek_out chan pos` sets the current writing position to `pos` for channel `chan`. This works only for regular files. On files of other kinds (such as terminals, pipes and sockets), the behavior is unspecified.

`val pos_out : out_channel -> int`

Return the current writing position for the given channel. Does not work on channels opened with the `Open_append` flag (returns unspecified results).

`val out_channel_length : out_channel -> int`

Return the size (number of characters) of the regular file on which the given channel is opened. If the channel is opened on a file that is not a regular file, the result is meaningless.

`val close_out : out_channel -> unit`

Close the given channel, flushing all buffered write operations. Output functions raise a `Sys_error` exception when they are applied to a closed output channel, except `close_out` and `flush`, which do nothing when applied to an already closed channel. Note that `close_out` may raise `Sys_error` if the operating system signals an error when flushing or closing.

`val close_out_noerr : out_channel -> unit`

Same as `close_out`, but ignore all errors.

`val set_binary_mode_out : out_channel -> bool -> unit`

`set_binary_mode_out oc true` sets the channel `oc` to binary mode: no translations take place during output. `set_binary_mode_out oc false` sets the channel `oc` to text mode: depending on the operating system, some translations may take place during output. For instance, under Windows, end-of-lines will be translated from `\n` to `\r\n`. This function has no effect under operating systems that do not distinguish between text mode and binary mode.

General input functions

`val open_in : string -> in_channel`

Open the named file for reading, and return a new input channel on that file, positionned at the beginning of the file.

`val open_in_bin : string -> in_channel`

Same as `Pervasives.open_in`[20.2], but the file is opened in binary mode, so that no translation takes place during reads. On operating systems that do not distinguish between text mode and binary mode, this function behaves like `Pervasives.open_in`[20.2].

`val open_in_gen : open_flag list -> int -> string -> in_channel`

`open_in_gen mode perm filename` opens the named file for reading, as described above. The extra arguments `mode` and `perm` specify the opening mode and file permissions. `Pervasives.open_in`[20.2] and `Pervasives.open_in_bin`[20.2] are special cases of this function.

`val input_char : in_channel -> char`

Read one character from the given input channel. Raise `End_of_file` if there are no more characters to read.

`val input_line : in_channel -> string`

Read characters from the given input channel, until a newline character is encountered. Return the string of all characters read, without the newline character at the end. Raise `End_of_file` if the end of the file is reached at the beginning of line.

`val input : in_channel -> bytes -> int -> int -> int`

`input ic buf pos len` reads up to `len` characters from the given channel `ic`, storing them in byte sequence `buf`, starting at character number `pos`. It returns the actual number of characters read, between 0 and `len` (inclusive). A return value of 0 means that the end of file was reached. A return value between 0 and `len` exclusive means that not all requested `len` characters were read, either because no more characters were available at that time, or because the implementation found it convenient to do a partial read; `input` must be called again to read the remaining characters, if desired. (See also `Pervasives.really_input`[20.2] for reading exactly `len` characters.) Exception `Invalid_argument "input"` is raised if `pos` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `buf`.

`val really_input : in_channel -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

`really_input ic buf pos len` reads `len` characters from channel `ic`, storing them in byte sequence `buf`, starting at character number `pos`. Raise `End_of_file` if the end of file is reached before `len` characters have been read. Raise `Invalid_argument "really_input"` if `pos` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `buf`.

`val really_input_string : in_channel -> int -> string`

`really_input_string ic len` reads `len` characters from channel `ic` and returns them in a new string. Raise `End_of_file` if the end of file is reached before `len` characters have been read.

`val input_byte : in_channel -> int`

Same as `Pervasives.input_char`[20.2], but return the 8-bit integer representing the character. Raise `End_of_file` if an end of file was reached.

`val input_binary_int : in_channel -> int`

Read an integer encoded in binary format (4 bytes, big-endian) from the given input channel. See `Pervasives.output_binary_int`[20.2]. Raise `End_of_file` if an end of file was reached while reading the integer.

`val input_value : in_channel -> 'a`

Read the representation of a structured value, as produced by `Pervasives.output_value`[20.2], and return the corresponding value. This function is identical to `Marshal.from_channel`[21.20]; see the description of module `Marshal`[21.20] for more information, in particular concerning the lack of type safety.

`val seek_in : in_channel -> int -> unit`

`seek_in chan pos` sets the current reading position to `pos` for channel `chan`. This works only for regular files. On files of other kinds, the behavior is unspecified.

`val pos_in : in_channel -> int`

Return the current reading position for the given channel.

`val in_channel_length : in_channel -> int`

Return the size (number of characters) of the regular file on which the given channel is opened. If the channel is opened on a file that is not a regular file, the result is meaningless. The returned size does not take into account the end-of-line translations that can be performed when reading from a channel opened in text mode.

`val close_in : in_channel -> unit`

Close the given channel. Input functions raise a `Sys_error` exception when they are applied to a closed input channel, except `close_in`, which does nothing when applied to an already closed channel.

`val close_in_noerr : in_channel -> unit`

Same as `close_in`, but ignore all errors.

`val set_binary_mode_in : in_channel -> bool -> unit`

`set_binary_mode_in ic true` sets the channel `ic` to binary mode: no translations take place during input. `set_binary_mode_out ic false` sets the channel `ic` to text mode: depending on the operating system, some translations may take place during input. For instance, under Windows, end-of-lines will be translated from `\r\n` to `\n`. This function has no effect under operating systems that do not distinguish between text mode and binary mode.

Operations on large files

```
module LargeFile :
  sig
    val seek_out : Pervasives.out_channel -> int64 -> unit
    val pos_out : Pervasives.out_channel -> int64
    val out_channel_length : Pervasives.out_channel -> int64
    val seek_in : Pervasives.in_channel -> int64 -> unit
    val pos_in : Pervasives.in_channel -> int64
    val in_channel_length : Pervasives.in_channel -> int64
  end
```

Operations on large files. This sub-module provides 64-bit variants of the channel functions that manipulate file positions and file sizes. By representing positions and sizes by 64-bit integers (type `int64`) instead of regular integers (type `int`), these alternate functions allow operating on files whose sizes are greater than `max_int`.

References

```
type 'a ref = {
  mutable contents : 'a ;
}
```

The type of references (mutable indirection cells) containing a value of type `'a`.

```
val ref : 'a -> 'a ref
```

Return a fresh reference containing the given value.

```
val (!) : 'a ref -> 'a
```

`!r` returns the current contents of reference `r`. Equivalent to `fun r -> r.contents`.

```
val (:=) : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit
```

`r := a` stores the value of `a` in reference `r`. Equivalent to `fun r v -> r.contents <- v`.

```
val incr : int ref -> unit
```

Increment the integer contained in the given reference. Equivalent to `fun r -> r := succ !r`.

```
val decr : int ref -> unit
```

Decrement the integer contained in the given reference. Equivalent to `fun r -> r := pred !r`.

Operations on format strings

Format strings are character strings with special lexical conventions that defines the functionality of formatted input/output functions. Format strings are used to read data with formatted input functions from module `Scanf`[21.29] and to print data with formatted output functions from modules `Printf`[21.26] and `Format`[21.10].

Format strings are made of three kinds of entities:

- *conversions specifications*, introduced by the special character `'%'` followed by one or more characters specifying what kind of argument to read or print,
- *formatting indications*, introduced by the special character `'@'` followed by one or more characters specifying how to read or print the argument,
- *plain characters* that are regular characters with usual lexical conventions. Plain characters specify string literals to be read in the input or printed in the output.

There is an additional lexical rule to escape the special characters `'%'` and `'@'` in format strings: if a special character follows a `'%'` character, it is treated as a plain character. In other words, `"%%"` is considered as a plain `'%'` and `"%@"` as a plain `'@'`.

For more information about conversion specifications and formatting indications available, read the documentation of modules `Scanf`[21.29], `Printf`[21.26] and `Format`[21.10].

Format strings have a general and highly polymorphic type `('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6`. The two simplified types, `format` and `format4` below are included for backward compatibility with earlier releases of OCaml.

The meaning of format string type parameters is as follows:

- `'a` is the type of the parameters of the format for formatted output functions (`printf`-style functions); `'a` is the type of the values read by the format for formatted input functions (`scanf`-style functions).
- `'b` is the type of input source for formatted input functions and the type of output target for formatted output functions. For `printf`-style functions from module `Printf`, `'b` is typically `out_channel`; for `printf`-style functions from module `Format`, `'b` is typically `Format.formatter`; for `scanf`-style functions from module `Scanf`, `'b` is typically `Scanf.Scanning.in_channel`.

Type argument `'b` is also the type of the first argument given to user's defined printing functions for `%a` and `%t` conversions, and user's defined reading functions for `%r` conversion.

- `'c` is the type of the result of the `%a` and `%t` printing functions, and also the type of the argument transmitted to the first argument of `kprintf`-style functions or to the `kscanf`-style functions.
- `'d` is the type of parameters for the `scanf`-style functions.
- `'e` is the type of the receiver function for the `scanf`-style functions.
- `'f` is the final result type of a formatted input/output function invocation: for the `printf`-style functions, it is typically `unit`; for the `scanf`-style functions, it is typically the result type of the receiver function.

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6 = ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) CamlinternalFormatBasics.forma
```

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) format4 = ('a, 'b, 'c, 'c, 'c, 'd) format6
```

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c) format = ('a, 'b, 'c, 'c) format4
```

```
val string_of_format : ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6 -> string
```

Converts a format string into a string.

```
val format_of_string :
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6 ->
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6
```

`format_of_string s` returns a format string read from the string literal `s`. Note: `format_of_string` can not convert a string argument that is not a literal. If you need this functionality, use the more general `Scanf.format_from_string`[21.29] function.

```
val (^^) :
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) format6 ->
  ('f, 'b, 'c, 'e, 'g, 'h) format6 ->
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'g, 'h) format6
```

`f1 ^^ f2` catenates format strings `f1` and `f2`. The result is a format string that behaves as the concatenation of format strings `f1` and `f2`: in case of formatted output, it accepts arguments from `f1`, then arguments from `f2`; in case of formatted input, it returns results from `f1`, then results from `f2`.

Program termination

```
val exit : int -> 'a
```

Terminate the process, returning the given status code to the operating system: usually 0 to indicate no errors, and a small positive integer to indicate failure. All open output channels are flushed with `flush_all`. An implicit `exit 0` is performed each time a program terminates normally. An implicit `exit 2` is performed if the program terminates early because of an uncaught exception.

```
val at_exit : (unit -> unit) -> unit
```

Register the given function to be called at program termination time. The functions registered with `at_exit` will be called when the program executes `Pervasives.exit`[20.2], or terminates, either normally or because of an uncaught exception. The functions are called in 'last in, first out' order: the function most recently added with `at_exit` is called first.

Chapter 21

The standard library

This chapter describes the functions provided by the OCaml standard library. The modules from the standard library are automatically linked with the user's object code files by the `ocamlc` command. Hence, these modules can be used in standalone programs without having to add any `.cmo` file on the command line for the linking phase. Similarly, in interactive use, these globals can be used in toplevel phrases without having to load any `.cmo` file in memory.

Unlike the `Pervasives` module from the core library, the modules from the standard library are not automatically "opened" when a compilation starts, or when the toplevel system is launched. Hence it is necessary to use qualified identifiers to refer to the functions provided by these modules, or to add `open` directives.

Conventions

For easy reference, the modules are listed below in alphabetical order of module names. For each module, the declarations from its signature are printed one by one in typewriter font, followed by a short comment. All modules and the identifiers they export are indexed at the end of this report.

Overview

Here is a short listing, by theme, of the standard library modules.

Data structures:

Arithmetic:

Input/output:

Parsing:

System interface:

21.1 Module `Arg` : Parsing of command line arguments.

This module provides a general mechanism for extracting options and arguments from the command line to the program.

Syntax of command lines: A keyword is a character string starting with a `-`. An option is a keyword alone or followed by an argument. The types of keywords are: `Unit`, `Bool`, `Set`, `Clear`, `String`, `Set_string`, `Int`, `Set_int`, `Float`, `Set_float`, `Tuple`, `Symbol`, and `Rest`. `Unit`, `Set` and `Clear` keywords take no argument. A `Rest` keyword takes the remaining of the command line as arguments. Every other keyword takes the following word on the command line as argument. Arguments not preceded by a keyword are called anonymous arguments.

Examples (`cmd` is assumed to be the command name):

- `cmd -flag` (a unit option)
- `cmd -int 1` (an int option with argument `1`)
- `cmd -string foobar` (a string option with argument `"foobar"`)
- `cmd -float 12.34` (a float option with argument `12.34`)
- `cmd a b c` (three anonymous arguments: `"a"`, `"b"`, and `"c"`)
- `cmd a b -- c d` (two anonymous arguments and a rest option with two arguments)

```
type spec =
  | Unit of (unit -> unit)
```

Call the function with unit argument

```
  | Bool of (bool -> unit)
```

Call the function with a bool argument

```
  | Set of bool Pervasives.ref
```

Set the reference to true

```
  | Clear of bool Pervasives.ref
```

Set the reference to false

```
  | String of (string -> unit)
```

Call the function with a string argument

`| Set_string of string Pervasives.ref`

Set the reference to the string argument

`| Int of (int -> unit)`

Call the function with an int argument

`| Set_int of int Pervasives.ref`

Set the reference to the int argument

`| Float of (float -> unit)`

Call the function with a float argument

`| Set_float of float Pervasives.ref`

Set the reference to the float argument

`| Tuple of spec list`

Take several arguments according to the spec list

`| Symbol of string list * (string -> unit)`

Take one of the symbols as argument and call the function with the symbol

`| Rest of (string -> unit)`

Stop interpreting keywords and call the function with each remaining argument

The concrete type describing the behavior associated with a keyword.

`type key = string`

`type doc = string`

`type usage_msg = string`

`type anon_fun = string -> unit`

`val parse : (key * spec * doc) list -> anon_fun -> usage_msg -> unit`

`Arg.parse speclist anon_fun usage_msg` parses the command line. `speclist` is a list of triples `(key, spec, doc)`. `key` is the option keyword, it must start with a `'-'` character. `spec` gives the option type and the function to call when this option is found on the command line. `doc` is a one-line description of this option. `anon_fun` is called on anonymous arguments. The functions in `spec` and `anon_fun` are called in the same order as their arguments appear on the command line.

If an error occurs, `Arg.parse` exits the program, after printing to standard error an error message as follows:

- The reason for the error: unknown option, invalid or missing argument, etc.
- `usage_msg`
- The list of options, each followed by the corresponding `doc` string. Beware: options that have an empty `doc` string will not be included in the list.

For the user to be able to specify anonymous arguments starting with a `-`, include for example `("-", String anon_fun, doc)` in `speclist`.

By default, `parse` recognizes two unit options, `-help` and `--help`, which will print to standard output `usage_msg` and the list of options, and exit the program. You can override this behaviour by specifying your own `-help` and `--help` options in `speclist`.

```
val parse_dynamic :
  (key * spec * doc) list Pervasives.ref ->
  anon_fun -> usage_msg -> unit
```

Same as `Arg.parse`[21.1], except that the `speclist` argument is a reference and may be updated during the parsing. A typical use for this feature is to parse command lines of the form:

- command subcommand `options` where the list of options depends on the value of the subcommand argument.

```
val parse_argv :
  ?current:int Pervasives.ref ->
  string array ->
  (key * spec * doc) list -> anon_fun -> usage_msg -> unit
```

`Arg.parse_argv ~current args speclist anon_fun usage_msg` parses the array `args` as if it were the command line. It uses and updates the value of `~current` (if given), or `Arg.current`. You must set it before calling `parse_argv`. The initial value of `current` is the index of the program name (argument 0) in the array. If an error occurs, `Arg.parse_argv` raises `Arg.Bad` with the error message as argument. If option `-help` or `--help` is given, `Arg.parse_argv` raises `Arg.Help` with the help message as argument.

```
val parse_argv_dynamic :
  ?current:int Pervasives.ref ->
  string array ->
  (key * spec * doc) list Pervasives.ref ->
  anon_fun -> string -> unit
```

Same as `Arg.parse_argv`[21.1], except that the `speclist` argument is a reference and may be updated during the parsing. See `Arg.parse_dynamic`[21.1].

```
exception Help of string
```

Raised by `Arg.parse_argv` when the user asks for help.

```
exception Bad of string
```

Functions in `spec` or `anon_fun` can raise `Arg.Bad` with an error message to reject invalid arguments. `Arg.Bad` is also raised by `Arg.parse_argv` in case of an error.

```
val usage : (key * spec * doc) list -> usage_msg -> unit
```

`Arg.usage speclist usage_msg` prints to standard error an error message that includes the list of valid options. This is the same message that `Arg.parse`[21.1] prints in case of error. `speclist` and `usage_msg` are the same as for `Arg.parse`.

`val usage_string : (key * spec * doc) list -> usage_msg -> string`

Returns the message that would have been printed by `Arg.usage`[21.1], if provided with the same parameters.

`val align : (key * spec * doc) list -> (key * spec * doc) list`

Align the documentation strings by inserting spaces at the first space, according to the length of the keyword. Use a space as the first character in a doc string if you want to align the whole string. The doc strings corresponding to `Symbol` arguments are aligned on the next line.

`val current : int Pervasives.ref`

Position (in `Sys.argv`[21.36]) of the argument being processed. You can change this value, e.g. to force `Arg.parse`[21.1] to skip some arguments. `Arg.parse`[21.1] uses the initial value of `Arg.current`[21.1] as the index of argument 0 (the program name) and starts parsing arguments at the next element.

21.2 Module `Array` : Array operations.

`val length : 'a array -> int`

Return the length (number of elements) of the given array.

`val get : 'a array -> int -> 'a`

`Array.get a n` returns the element number `n` of array `a`. The first element has number 0. The last element has number `Array.length a - 1`. You can also write `a.(n)` instead of `Array.get a n`.

Raise `Invalid_argument "index out of bounds"` if `n` is outside the range 0 to `(Array.length a - 1)`.

`val set : 'a array -> int -> 'a -> unit`

`Array.set a n x` modifies array `a` in place, replacing element number `n` with `x`. You can also write `a.(n) <- x` instead of `Array.set a n x`.

Raise `Invalid_argument "index out of bounds"` if `n` is outside the range 0 to `Array.length a - 1`.

`val make : int -> 'a -> 'a array`

`Array.make n x` returns a fresh array of length `n`, initialized with `x`. All the elements of this new array are initially physically equal to `x` (in the sense of the `==` predicate). Consequently, if `x` is mutable, it is shared among all elements of the array, and modifying `x` through one of the array entries will modify all other entries at the same time.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_array_length`. If the value of `x` is a floating-point number, then the maximum size is only `Sys.max_array_length / 2`.

`val create : int -> 'a -> 'a array`

Deprecated. `Array.create` is an alias for `Array.make`[21.2].

`val init : int -> (int -> 'a) -> 'a array`

`Array.init n f` returns a fresh array of length `n`, with element number `i` initialized to the result of `f i`. In other terms, `Array.init n f` tabulates the results of `f` applied to the integers `0` to `n-1`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_array_length`. If the return type of `f` is `float`, then the maximum size is only `Sys.max_array_length / 2`.

`val make_matrix : int -> int -> 'a -> 'a array array`

`Array.make_matrix dimx dimy e` returns a two-dimensional array (an array of arrays) with first dimension `dimx` and second dimension `dimy`. All the elements of this new matrix are initially physically equal to `e`. The element (`x,y`) of a matrix `m` is accessed with the notation `m.(x).(y)`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `dimx` or `dimy` is negative or greater than `Sys.max_array_length`. If the value of `e` is a floating-point number, then the maximum size is only `Sys.max_array_length / 2`.

`val create_matrix : int -> int -> 'a -> 'a array array`

Deprecated. `Array.create_matrix` is an alias for `Array.make_matrix`[21.2].

`val append : 'a array -> 'a array -> 'a array`

`Array.append v1 v2` returns a fresh array containing the concatenation of the arrays `v1` and `v2`.

`val concat : 'a array list -> 'a array`

Same as `Array.append`, but concatenates a list of arrays.

`val sub : 'a array -> int -> int -> 'a array`

`Array.sub a start len` returns a fresh array of length `len`, containing the elements number `start` to `start + len - 1` of array `a`.

Raise `Invalid_argument "Array.sub"` if `start` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `a`; that is, if `start < 0`, or `len < 0`, or `start + len > Array.length a`.

`val copy : 'a array -> 'a array`

`Array.copy a` returns a copy of `a`, that is, a fresh array containing the same elements as `a`.

`val fill : 'a array -> int -> int -> 'a -> unit`

`Array.fill a ofs len x` modifies the array `a` in place, storing `x` in elements number `ofs` to `ofs + len - 1`.

Raise `Invalid_argument "Array.fill"` if `ofs` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `a`.

`val blit : 'a array -> int -> 'a array -> int -> int -> unit`

`Array.blit v1 o1 v2 o2 len` copies `len` elements from array `v1`, starting at element number `o1`, to array `v2`, starting at element number `o2`. It works correctly even if `v1` and `v2` are the same array, and the source and destination chunks overlap.

Raise `Invalid_argument "Array.blit"` if `o1` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `v1`, or if `o2` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `v2`.

`val to_list : 'a array -> 'a list`

`Array.to_list a` returns the list of all the elements of `a`.

`val of_list : 'a list -> 'a array`

`Array.of_list l` returns a fresh array containing the elements of `l`.

`val iter : ('a -> unit) -> 'a array -> unit`

`Array.iter f a` applies function `f` in turn to all the elements of `a`. It is equivalent to `f a.(0); f a.(1); ...; f a.(Array.length a - 1); ()`.

`val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a array -> 'b array`

`Array.map f a` applies function `f` to all the elements of `a`, and builds an array with the results returned by `f`: `[| f a.(0); f a.(1); ...; f a.(Array.length a - 1) |]`.

`val iteri : (int -> 'a -> unit) -> 'a array -> unit`

Same as `Array.iter`[21.2], but the function is applied to the index of the element as first argument, and the element itself as second argument.

`val mapi : (int -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'a array -> 'b array`

Same as `Array.map`[21.2], but the function is applied to the index of the element as first argument, and the element itself as second argument.

`val fold_left : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b array -> 'a`

`Array.fold_left f x a` computes `f (... (f (f x a.(0)) a.(1)) ...) a.(n-1)`, where `n` is the length of the array `a`.

`val fold_right : ('b -> 'a -> 'a) -> 'b array -> 'a -> 'a`

`Array.fold_right f a x` computes `f a.(0) (f a.(1) ( ... (f a.(n-1) x) ...))`, where `n` is the length of the array `a`.

`val make_float : int -> float array`

`Array.make_float n` returns a fresh float array of length `n`, with uninitialized data.

Sorting

`val sort : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a array -> unit`

Sort an array in increasing order according to a comparison function. The comparison function must return 0 if its arguments compare as equal, a positive integer if the first is greater, and a negative integer if the first is smaller (see below for a complete specification). For example, `Pervasives.compare`[20.2] is a suitable comparison function, provided there are no floating-point NaN values in the data. After calling `Array.sort`, the array is sorted in place in increasing order. `Array.sort` is guaranteed to run in constant heap space and (at most) logarithmic stack space.

The current implementation uses Heap Sort. It runs in constant stack space.

Specification of the comparison function: Let `a` be the array and `cmp` the comparison function. The following must be true for all x, y, z in a :

- `cmp x y` >0 if and only if `cmp y x` <0
- if `cmp x y` ≥ 0 and `cmp y z` ≥ 0 then `cmp x z` ≥ 0

When `Array.sort` returns, `a` contains the same elements as before, reordered in such a way that for all i and j valid indices of `a` :

- `cmp a.(i) a.(j)` ≥ 0 if and only if i $\geq$ j

`val stable_sort : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a array -> unit`

Same as `Array.sort`[21.2], but the sorting algorithm is stable (i.e. elements that compare equal are kept in their original order) and not guaranteed to run in constant heap space.

The current implementation uses Merge Sort. It uses `n/2` words of heap space, where `n` is the length of the array. It is usually faster than the current implementation of `Array.sort`[21.2].

`val fast_sort : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a array -> unit`

Same as `Array.sort`[21.2] or `Array.stable_sort`[21.2], whichever is faster on typical input.

21.3 Module `Buffer` : Extensible buffers.

This module implements buffers that automatically expand as necessary. It provides accumulative concatenation of strings in quasi-linear time (instead of quadratic time when strings are concatenated pairwise).

`type t`

The abstract type of buffers.

`val create : int -> t`

`create n` returns a fresh buffer, initially empty. The `n` parameter is the initial size of the internal byte sequence that holds the buffer contents. That byte sequence is automatically reallocated when more than `n` characters are stored in the buffer, but shrinks back to `n` characters when `reset` is called. For best performance, `n` should be of the same order of magnitude as the number of characters that are expected to be stored in the buffer (for instance, 80 for a buffer that holds one output line). Nothing bad will happen if the buffer grows beyond that limit, however. In doubt, take `n = 16` for instance. If `n` is not between 1 and `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36], it will be clipped to that interval.

`val contents : t -> string`

Return a copy of the current contents of the buffer. The buffer itself is unchanged.

`val to_bytes : t -> bytes`

Return a copy of the current contents of the buffer. The buffer itself is unchanged.

`val sub : t -> int -> int -> string`

`Buffer.sub b off len` returns (a copy of) the bytes from the current contents of the buffer `b` starting at offset `off` of length `len` bytes. May raise `Invalid_argument` if out of bounds request. The buffer itself is unaffected.

`val blit : t -> int -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

`Buffer.blit src srcoff dst dstoff len` copies `len` characters from the current contents of the buffer `src`, starting at offset `srcoff` to `dst`, starting at character `dstoff`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `srcoff` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `src`, or if `dstoff` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `dst`.

Since: 3.11.2

`val nth : t -> int -> char`

get the n-th character of the buffer. Raise `Invalid_argument` if index out of bounds

`val length : t -> int`

Return the number of characters currently contained in the buffer.

`val clear : t -> unit`

Empty the buffer.

`val reset : t -> unit`

Empty the buffer and deallocate the internal byte sequence holding the buffer contents, replacing it with the initial internal byte sequence of length `n` that was allocated by `Buffer.create`[21.3] `n`. For long-lived buffers that may have grown a lot, `reset` allows faster reclamation of the space used by the buffer.

`val add_char : t -> char -> unit`

`add_char b c` appends the character `c` at the end of the buffer `b`.

`val add_string : t -> string -> unit`

`add_string b s` appends the string `s` at the end of the buffer `b`.

`val add_bytes : t -> bytes -> unit`

`add_string b s` appends the string `s` at the end of the buffer `b`.

`val add_substring : t -> string -> int -> int -> unit`

`add_substring b s ofs len` takes `len` characters from offset `ofs` in string `s` and appends them at the end of the buffer `b`.

`val add_subbytes : t -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

`add_substring b s ofs len` takes `len` characters from offset `ofs` in byte sequence `s` and appends them at the end of the buffer `b`.

`val add_substitute : t -> (string -> string) -> string -> unit`

`add_substitute b f s` appends the string pattern `s` at the end of the buffer `b` with substitution. The substitution process looks for variables into the pattern and substitutes each variable name by its value, as obtained by applying the mapping `f` to the variable name. Inside the string pattern, a variable name immediately follows a non-escaped `$` character and is one of the following:

- a non empty sequence of alphanumeric or `_` characters,
- an arbitrary sequence of characters enclosed by a pair of matching parentheses or curly brackets. An escaped `$` character is a `$` that immediately follows a backslash character; it then stands for a plain `$`. Raise `Not_found` if the closing character of a parenthesized variable cannot be found.

`val add_buffer : t -> t -> unit`

`add_buffer b1 b2` appends the current contents of buffer `b2` at the end of buffer `b1`. `b2` is not modified.

`val add_channel : t -> Pervasives.in_channel -> int -> unit`

`add_channel b ic n` reads exactly `n` character from the input channel `ic` and stores them at the end of buffer `b`. Raise `End_of_file` if the channel contains fewer than `n` characters.

`val output_buffer : Pervasives.out_channel -> t -> unit`

`output_buffer oc b` writes the current contents of buffer `b` on the output channel `oc`.

21.4 Module `Bytes` : Byte sequence operations.

A byte sequence is a mutable data structure that contains a fixed-length sequence of bytes. Each byte can be indexed in constant time for reading or writing.

Given a byte sequence `s` of length `l`, we can access each of the `l` bytes of `s` via its index in the sequence. Indexes start at `0`, and we will call an index valid in `s` if it falls within the range `[0...l-1]` (inclusive). A position is the point between two bytes or at the beginning or end of the sequence. We call a position valid in `s` if it falls within the range `[0...l]` (inclusive). Note that the byte at index `n` is between positions `n` and `n+1`.

Two parameters `start` and `len` are said to designate a valid range of `s` if `len >= 0` and `start` and `start+len` are valid positions in `s`.

Byte sequences can be modified in place, for instance via the `set` and `blit` functions described below. See also strings (module `String`[21.35]), which are almost the same data structure, but cannot be modified in place.

Bytes are represented by the OCaml type `char`.

Since: 4.02.0

`val length : bytes -> int`

Return the length (number of bytes) of the argument.

`val get : bytes -> int -> char`

`get s n` returns the byte at index `n` in argument `s`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n` not a valid index in `s`.

`val set : bytes -> int -> char -> unit`

`set s n c` modifies `s` in place, replacing the byte at index `n` with `c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n` is not a valid index in `s`.

`val create : int -> bytes`

`create n` returns a new byte sequence of length `n`. The sequence is uninitialized and contains arbitrary bytes.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_string_length`[21.36].

`val make : int -> char -> bytes`

`make n c` returns a new byte sequence of length `n`, filled with the byte `c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_string_length`[21.36].

`val init : int -> (int -> char) -> bytes`

`Bytes.init n f` returns a fresh byte sequence of length `n`, with character `i` initialized to the result of `f i` (in increasing index order).

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_string_length`[21.36].

`val empty : bytes`

A byte sequence of size 0.

`val copy : bytes -> bytes`

Return a new byte sequence that contains the same bytes as the argument.

`val of_string : string -> bytes`

Return a new byte sequence that contains the same bytes as the given string.

`val to_string : bytes -> string`

Return a new string that contains the same bytes as the given byte sequence.

`val sub : bytes -> int -> int -> bytes`

`sub s start len` returns a new byte sequence of length `len`, containing the subsequence of `s` that starts at position `start` and has length `len`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `start` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `s`.

`val sub_string : bytes -> int -> int -> string`

Same as `sub` but return a string instead of a byte sequence.

`val extend : bytes -> int -> int -> bytes`

`extend s left right` returns a new byte sequence that contains the bytes of `s`, with `left` uninitialized bytes prepended and `right` uninitialized bytes appended to it. If `left` or `right` is negative, then bytes are removed (instead of appended) from the corresponding side of `s`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the result length is negative or longer than `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36] bytes.

`val fill : bytes -> int -> int -> char -> unit`

`fill s start len c` modifies `s` in place, replacing `len` characters with `c`, starting at `start`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `start` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `s`.

`val blit : bytes -> int -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

`blit src srcoff dst dstoff len` copies `len` bytes from sequence `src`, starting at index `srcoff`, to sequence `dst`, starting at index `dstoff`. It works correctly even if `src` and `dst` are the same byte sequence, and the source and destination intervals overlap.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `srcoff` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `src`, or if `dstoff` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `dst`.

`val blit_string : string -> int -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

`blit src srcoff dst dstoff len` copies `len` bytes from string `src`, starting at index `srcoff`, to byte sequence `dst`, starting at index `dstoff`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `srcoff` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `src`, or if `dstoff` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `dst`.

`val concat : bytes -> bytes list -> bytes`

`concat sep sl` concatenates the list of byte sequences `sl`, inserting the separator byte sequence `sep` between each, and returns the result as a new byte sequence.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the result is longer than `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36] bytes.

`val cat : bytes -> bytes -> bytes`

`cat s1 s2` concatenates `s1` and `s2` and returns the result as new byte sequence.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the result is longer than `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36] bytes.

`val iter : (char -> unit) -> bytes -> unit`

`iter f s` applies function `f` in turn to all the bytes of `s`. It is equivalent to `f (get s 0); f (get s 1); ...; f (get s (length s - 1)); ()`.

`val iteri : (int -> char -> unit) -> bytes -> unit`

Same as `Bytes.iter`[21.4], but the function is applied to the index of the byte as first argument and the byte itself as second argument.

`val map : (char -> char) -> bytes -> bytes`

`map f s` applies function `f` in turn to all the bytes of `s` (in increasing index order) and stores the resulting bytes in a new sequence that is returned as the result.

`val mapi : (int -> char -> char) -> bytes -> bytes`

`mapi f s` calls `f` with each character of `s` and its index (in increasing index order) and stores the resulting bytes in a new sequence that is returned as the result.

`val trim : bytes -> bytes`

Return a copy of the argument, without leading and trailing whitespace. The bytes regarded as whitespace are the ASCII characters `' '`, `'\012'`, `'\n'`, `'\r'`, and `'\t'`.

`val escaped : bytes -> bytes`

Return a copy of the argument, with special characters represented by escape sequences, following the lexical conventions of OCaml.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the result is longer than `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36] bytes.

`val index : bytes -> char -> int`

`index s c` returns the index of the first occurrence of byte `c` in `s`.

Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s`.

`val rindex : bytes -> char -> int`

`rindex s c` returns the index of the last occurrence of byte `c` in `s`.

Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s`.

`val index_from : bytes -> int -> char -> int`

`index_from s i c` returns the index of the first occurrence of byte `c` in `s` after position `i`. `Bytes.index s c` is equivalent to `Bytes.index_from s 0 c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `i` is not a valid position in `s`. Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s` after position `i`.

`val rindex_from : bytes -> int -> char -> int`

`rindex_from s i c` returns the index of the last occurrence of byte `c` in `s` before position `i+1`. `rindex s c` is equivalent to `rindex_from s (Bytes.length s - 1) c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `i+1` is not a valid position in `s`. Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s` before position `i+1`.

`val contains : bytes -> char -> bool`

`contains s c` tests if byte `c` appears in `s`.

`val contains_from : bytes -> int -> char -> bool`

`contains_from s start c` tests if byte `c` appears in `s` after position `start`. `contains s c` is equivalent to `contains_from s 0 c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `start` is not a valid position in `s`.

`val rcontains_from : bytes -> int -> char -> bool`

`rcontains_from s stop c` tests if byte `c` appears in `s` before position `stop+1`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `stop < 0` or `stop+1` is not a valid position in `s`.

`val uppercase : bytes -> bytes`

Return a copy of the argument, with all lowercase letters translated to uppercase, including accented letters of the ISO Latin-1 (8859-1) character set.

`val lowercase : bytes -> bytes`

Return a copy of the argument, with all uppercase letters translated to lowercase, including accented letters of the ISO Latin-1 (8859-1) character set.

`val capitalize : bytes -> bytes`

Return a copy of the argument, with the first byte set to uppercase.

`val uncapitalize : bytes -> bytes`

Return a copy of the argument, with the first byte set to lowercase.

`type t = bytes`

An alias for the type of byte sequences.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

The comparison function for byte sequences, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `Bytes` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

Unsafe conversions (for advanced users)

This section describes unsafe, low-level conversion functions between `bytes` and `string`. They do not copy the internal data; used improperly, they can break the immutability invariant on strings provided by the `-safe-string` option. They are available for expert library authors, but for most purposes you should use the always-correct `Bytes.to_string`[21.4] and `Bytes.of_string`[21.4] instead.

`val unsafe_to_string : bytes -> string`

Unsafely convert a byte sequence into a string.

To reason about the use of `unsafe_to_string`, it is convenient to consider an "ownership" discipline. A piece of code that manipulates some data "owns" it; there are several disjoint ownership modes, including:

- Unique ownership: the data may be accessed and mutated
- Shared ownership: the data has several owners, that may only access it, not mutate it.

Unique ownership is linear: passing the data to another piece of code means giving up ownership (we cannot write the data again). A unique owner may decide to make the data shared (giving up mutation rights on it), but shared data may not become uniquely-owned again.

`unsafe_to_string s` can only be used when the caller owns the byte sequence `s` – either uniquely or as shared immutable data. The caller gives up ownership of `s`, and gains ownership of the returned string.

There are two valid use-cases that respect this ownership discipline:

1. Creating a string by initializing and mutating a byte sequence that is never changed after initialization is performed.

```
let string_init len f : string =
  let s = Bytes.create len in
  for i = 0 to len - 1 do Bytes.set s i (f i) done;
  Bytes.unsafe_to_string s
```

This function is safe because the byte sequence `s` will never be accessed or mutated after `unsafe_to_string` is called. The `string_init` code gives up ownership of `s`, and returns the ownership of the resulting string to its caller.

Note that it would be unsafe if `s` was passed as an additional parameter to the function `f` as it could escape this way and be mutated in the future – `string_init` would give up ownership of `s` to pass it to `f`, and could not call `unsafe_to_string` safely.

We have provided the `String.init`[21.35], `String.map`[21.35] and `String.mapi`[21.35] functions to cover most cases of building new strings. You should prefer those over `to_string` or `unsafe_to_string` whenever applicable.

2. Temporarily giving ownership of a byte sequence to a function that expects a uniquely owned string and returns ownership back, so that we can mutate the sequence again after the call ended.

```
let bytes_length (s : bytes) =
  String.length (Bytes.unsafe_to_string s)
```

In this use-case, we do not promise that `s` will never be mutated after the call to `bytes_length s`. The `String.length`[21.35] function temporarily borrows unique ownership of the byte sequence (and sees it as a `string`), but returns this ownership back to the caller, which may assume that `s` is still a valid byte sequence after the call. Note that this is only correct because we know that `String.length`[21.35] does not capture its argument – it could escape by a side-channel such as a memoization combinator.

The caller may not mutate `s` while the string is borrowed (it has temporarily given up ownership). This affects concurrent programs, but also higher-order functions: if `String.length` returned a closure to be called later, `s` should not be mutated until this closure is fully applied and returns ownership.

`val unsafe_of_string : string -> bytes`

Unsafely convert a shared string to a byte sequence that should not be mutated.

The same ownership discipline that makes `unsafe_to_string` correct applies to `unsafe_of_string`: you may use it if you were the owner of the `string` value, and you will own the return `bytes` in the same mode.

In practice, unique ownership of string values is extremely difficult to reason about correctly. You should always assume strings are shared, never uniquely owned.

For example, string literals are implicitly shared by the compiler, so you never uniquely own them.

```
let incorrect = Bytes.unsafe_of_string "hello"
let s = Bytes.of_string "hello"
```

The first declaration is incorrect, because the string literal `"hello"` could be shared by the compiler with other parts of the program, and mutating `incorrect` is a bug. You must always use the second version, which performs a copy and is thus correct.

Assuming unique ownership of strings that are not string literals, but are (partly) built from string literals, is also incorrect. For example, mutating `unsafe_of_string ("foo" ^ s)` could mutate the shared string `"foo"` – assuming a rope-like representation of strings. More generally, functions operating on strings will assume shared ownership, they do not preserve unique ownership. It is thus incorrect to assume unique ownership of the result of `unsafe_of_string`.

The only case we have reasonable confidence is safe is if the produced `bytes` is shared – used as an immutable byte sequence. This is possibly useful for incremental migration of low-level programs that manipulate immutable sequences of bytes (for example `Marshal.from_bytes`[21.20]) and previously used the `string` type for this purpose.

21.5 Module `Callback` : Registering OCaml values with the C runtime.

This module allows OCaml values to be registered with the C runtime under a symbolic name, so that C code can later call back registered OCaml functions, or raise registered OCaml exceptions.

`val register : string -> 'a -> unit`

`Callback.register n v` registers the value `v` under the name `n`. C code can later retrieve a handle to `v` by calling `caml_named_value(n)`.

`val register_exception : string -> exn -> unit`

`Callback.register_exception n exn` registers the exception contained in the exception value `exn` under the name `n`. C code can later retrieve a handle to the exception by calling `caml_named_value(n)`. The exception value thus obtained is suitable for passing as first argument to `raise_constant` or `raise_with_arg`.

21.6 Module `Char` : Character operations.

`val code : char -> int`

Return the ASCII code of the argument.

`val chr : int -> char`

Return the character with the given ASCII code. Raise `Invalid_argument "Char.chr"` if the argument is outside the range 0–255.

`val escaped : char -> string`

Return a string representing the given character, with special characters escaped following the lexical conventions of OCaml.

`val lowercase : char -> char`

Convert the given character to its equivalent lowercase character.

`val uppercase : char -> char`

Convert the given character to its equivalent uppercase character.

`type t = char`

An alias for the type of characters.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

The comparison function for characters, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `Char` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

21.7 Module `Complex` : Complex numbers.

This module provides arithmetic operations on complex numbers. Complex numbers are represented by their real and imaginary parts (cartesian representation). Each part is represented by a double-precision floating-point number (type `float`).

```
type t = {
  re : float ;
  im : float ;
}
```

The type of complex numbers. `re` is the real part and `im` the imaginary part.

```
val zero : t
```

The complex number `0`.

```
val one : t
```

The complex number `1`.

```
val i : t
```

The complex number `i`.

```
val neg : t -> t
```

Unary negation.

```
val conj : t -> t
```

Conjugate: given the complex `x + i.y`, returns `x - i.y`.

```
val add : t -> t -> t
```

Addition

```
val sub : t -> t -> t
```

Subtraction

```
val mul : t -> t -> t
```

Multiplication

```
val inv : t -> t
```

Multiplicative inverse (`1/z`).

```
val div : t -> t -> t
```

Division

```
val sqrt : t -> t
```

Square root. The result `x + i.y` is such that `x > 0` or `x = 0` and `y >= 0`. This function has a discontinuity along the negative real axis.

`val norm2 : t -> float`

Norm squared: given `x + i.y`, returns `x^2 + y^2`.

`val norm : t -> float`

Norm: given `x + i.y`, returns `sqrt(x^2 + y^2)`.

`val arg : t -> float`

Argument. The argument of a complex number is the angle in the complex plane between the positive real axis and a line passing through zero and the number. This angle ranges from `-pi` to `pi`. This function has a discontinuity along the negative real axis.

`val polar : float -> float -> t`

`polar norm arg` returns the complex having norm `norm` and argument `arg`.

`val exp : t -> t`

Exponentiation. `exp z` returns `e` to the `z` power.

`val log : t -> t`

Natural logarithm (in base `e`).

`val pow : t -> t -> t`

Power function. `pow z1 z2` returns `z1` to the `z2` power.

21.8 Module `Digest` : MD5 message digest.

This module provides functions to compute 128-bit 'digests' of arbitrary-length strings or files. The digests are of cryptographic quality: it is very hard, given a digest, to forge a string having that digest. The algorithm used is MD5. This module should not be used for secure and sensitive cryptographic applications. For these kind of applications more recent and stronger cryptographic primitives should be used instead.

`type t = string`

The type of digests: 16-character strings.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

The comparison function for 16-character digest, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2] and the implementation shared with `String.compare`[21.35]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `Digest` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

Since: 4.00.0

`val string : string -> t`

Return the digest of the given string.

`val bytes : bytes -> t`

Return the digest of the given byte sequence.

`val substring : string -> int -> int -> t`

`Digest.substring s ofs len` returns the digest of the substring of `s` starting at index `ofs` and containing `len` characters.

`val subbytes : bytes -> int -> int -> t`

`Digest.subbytes s ofs len` returns the digest of the subsequence of `s` starting at index `ofs` and containing `len` bytes.

`val channel : Pervasives.in_channel -> int -> t`

If `len` is nonnegative, `Digest.channel ic len` reads `len` characters from channel `ic` and returns their digest, or raises `End_of_file` if end-of-file is reached before `len` characters are read. If `len` is negative, `Digest.channel ic len` reads all characters from `ic` until end-of-file is reached and return their digest.

`val file : string -> t`

Return the digest of the file whose name is given.

`val output : Pervasives.out_channel -> t -> unit`

Write a digest on the given output channel.

`val input : Pervasives.in_channel -> t`

Read a digest from the given input channel.

`val to_hex : t -> string`

Return the printable hexadecimal representation of the given digest.

`val from_hex : string -> t`

Convert a hexadecimal representation back into the corresponding digest. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the argument is not exactly 32 hexadecimal characters.

Since: 4.00.0

21.9 Module `Filename` : Operations on file names.

`val current_dir_name : string`

The conventional name for the current directory (e.g. `.` in Unix).

`val parent_dir_name : string`

The conventional name for the parent of the current directory (e.g. `..` in Unix).

`val dir_sep : string`

The directory separator (e.g. `/` in Unix).

Since: 3.11.2

`val concat : string -> string -> string`

`concat dir file` returns a file name that designates file `file` in directory `dir`.

`val is_relative : string -> bool`

Return `true` if the file name is relative to the current directory, `false` if it is absolute (i.e. in Unix, starts with `/`).

`val is_implicit : string -> bool`

Return `true` if the file name is relative and does not start with an explicit reference to the current directory (`./` or `../` in Unix), `false` if it starts with an explicit reference to the root directory or the current directory.

`val check_suffix : string -> string -> bool`

`check_suffix name suff` returns `true` if the filename `name` ends with the suffix `suff`.

`val chop_suffix : string -> string -> string`

`chop_suffix name suff` removes the suffix `suff` from the filename `name`. The behavior is undefined if `name` does not end with the suffix `suff`.

`val chop_extension : string -> string`

Return the given file name without its extension. The extension is the shortest suffix starting with a period and not including a directory separator, `.xyz` for instance.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the given name does not contain an extension.

`val basename : string -> string`

Split a file name into directory name / base file name. If `name` is a valid file name, then `concat (dirname name) (basename name)` returns a file name which is equivalent to `name`. Moreover, after setting the current directory to `dirname name` (with `Sys.chdir`[21.36]), references to `basename name` (which is a relative file name) designate the same file as `name` before the call to `Sys.chdir`[21.36].

This function conforms to the specification of POSIX.1-2008 for the `basename` utility.

`val dirname : string -> string`

See `Filename.basename`[21.9]. This function conforms to the specification of POSIX.1-2008 for the `dirname` utility.

`val temp_file : ?temp_dir:string -> string -> string -> string` `temp_file prefix suffix` returns the name of a fresh temporary file in the temporary directory. The base name of the temporary file is formed by concatenating `prefix`, then a suitably chosen integer number, then `suffix`. The optional argument `temp_dir` indicates the temporary directory to use, defaulting to the current result of `Filename.get_temp_dir_name`[21.9]. The temporary file is created empty, with permissions `0o600` (readable and writable only by the file owner). The file is guaranteed to be different from any other file that existed when `temp_file` was called. Raise `Sys_error` if the file could not be created.

Before 3.11.2 no ?temp_dir optional argument

```
val open_temp_file :
  ?mode:Pervasives.open_flag list ->
  ?temp_dir:string -> string -> string -> string * Pervasives.out_channel
```

Same as `Filename.temp_file`[21.9], but returns both the name of a fresh temporary file, and an output channel opened (atomically) on this file. This function is more secure than `temp_file`: there is no risk that the temporary file will be modified (e.g. replaced by a symbolic link) before the program opens it. The optional argument `mode` is a list of additional flags to control the opening of the file. It can contain one or several of `Open_append`, `Open_binary`, and `Open_text`. The default is `[Open_text]` (open in text mode). Raise `Sys_error` if the file could not be opened.

Before 3.11.2 no ?temp_dir optional argument

```
val get_temp_dir_name : unit -> string
```

The name of the temporary directory: Under Unix, the value of the `TMPDIR` environment variable, or "/tmp" if the variable is not set. Under Windows, the value of the `TEMP` environment variable, or "." if the variable is not set. The temporary directory can be changed with `Filename.set_temp_dir_name`[21.9].

Since: 4.00.0

```
val set_temp_dir_name : string -> unit
```

Change the temporary directory returned by `Filename.get_temp_dir_name`[21.9] and used by `Filename.temp_file`[21.9] and `Filename.open_temp_file`[21.9].

Since: 4.00.0

```
val temp_dir_name : string
```

Deprecated. You should use `Filename.get_temp_dir_name`[21.9] instead.The name of the initial temporary directory: Under Unix, the value of the `TMPDIR` environment variable, or "/tmp" if the variable is not set. Under Windows, the value of the `TEMP` environment variable, or "." if the variable is not set.

Since: 3.09.1

```
val quote : string -> string
```

Return a quoted version of a file name, suitable for use as one argument in a command line, escaping all meta-characters. Warning: under Windows, the output is only suitable for use with programs that follow the standard Windows quoting conventions.

21.10 Module `Format` : Pretty printing.

This module implements a pretty-printing facility to format text within 'pretty-printing boxes'. The pretty-printer breaks lines at specified break hints, and indents lines according to the box structure.

For a gentle introduction to the basics of pretty-printing using `Format`, read http://caml.inria.fr/resources/doc/guides/format.en.html[`http://caml.inria.fr/resources/doc/guides/f`

You may consider this module as providing an extension to the `printf` facility to provide automatic line breaking. The addition of pretty-printing annotations to your regular `printf` formats gives you fancy indentation and line breaks. Pretty-printing annotations are described below in the documentation of the function `Format.fprintf`[21.10].

You may also use the explicit box management and printing functions provided by this module. This style is more basic but more verbose than the `fprintf` concise formats.

For instance, the sequence `open_box 0; print_string "x ="; print_space (); print_int 1; close_box (); print_newline ()` that prints `x = 1` within a pretty-printing box, can be abbreviated as `printf "@[%s@ %i@]@." "x =" 1`, or even shorter `printf "@[x =@ %i@]@." 1`.

Rule of thumb for casual users of this library:

- use simple boxes (as obtained by `open_box 0`);
- use simple break hints (as obtained by `print_cut ()` that outputs a simple break hint, or by `print_space ()` that outputs a space indicating a break hint);
- once a box is opened, display its material with basic printing functions (e. g. `print_int` and `print_string`);
- when the material for a box has been printed, call `close_box ()` to close the box;
- at the end of your routine, flush the pretty-printer to display all the remaining material, e.g. evaluate `print_newline ()`.

The behaviour of pretty-printing commands is unspecified if there is no opened pretty-printing box. Each box opened via one of the `open_` functions below must be closed using `close_box` for proper formatting. Otherwise, some of the material printed in the boxes may not be output, or may be formatted incorrectly.

In case of interactive use, the system closes all opened boxes and flushes all pending text (as with the `print_newline` function) after each phrase. Each phrase is therefore executed in the initial state of the pretty-printer.

Warning: the material output by the following functions is delayed in the pretty-printer queue in order to compute the proper line breaking. Hence, you should not mix calls to the printing functions of the basic I/O system with calls to the functions of this module: this could result in some strange output seemingly unrelated with the evaluation order of printing commands.

Boxes

`val open_box : int -> unit`

`open_box d` opens a new pretty-printing box with offset `d`. This box is the general purpose pretty-printing box. Material in this box is displayed 'horizontal or vertical': break hints inside the box may lead to a new line, if there is no more room on the line to print the remainder of the box, or if a new line may lead to a new indentation (demonstrating the indentation of the box). When a new line is printed in the box, `d` is added to the current indentation.

`val close_box : unit -> unit`

Closes the most recently opened pretty-printing box.

Formatting functions

`val print_string : string -> unit`

`print_string str` prints `str` in the current box.

`val print_as : int -> string -> unit`

`print_as len str` prints `str` in the current box. The pretty-printer formats `str` as if it were of length `len`.

`val print_int : int -> unit`

Prints an integer in the current box.

`val print_float : float -> unit`

Prints a floating point number in the current box.

`val print_char : char -> unit`

Prints a character in the current box.

`val print_bool : bool -> unit`

Prints a boolean in the current box.

Break hints

`val print_space : unit -> unit`

`print_space ()` is used to separate items (typically to print a space between two words). It indicates that the line may be split at this point. It either prints one space or splits the line. It is equivalent to `print_break 1 0`.

`val print_cut : unit -> unit`

`print_cut ()` is used to mark a good break position. It indicates that the line may be split at this point. It either prints nothing or splits the line. This allows line splitting at the current point, without printing spaces or adding indentation. It is equivalent to `print_break 0 0`.

`val print_break : int -> int -> unit`

Inserts a break hint in a pretty-printing box. `print_break nspaces offset` indicates that the line may be split (a newline character is printed) at this point, if the contents of the current box does not fit on the current line. If the line is split at that point, `offset` is added to the current indentation. If the line is not split, `nspaces` spaces are printed.

`val print_flush : unit -> unit`

Flushes the pretty printer: all opened boxes are closed, and all pending text is displayed.

`val print_newline : unit -> unit`

Equivalent to `print_flush` followed by a new line.

`val force_newline : unit -> unit`

Forces a newline in the current box. Not the normal way of pretty-printing, you should prefer break hints.

`val print_if_newline : unit -> unit`

Executes the next formatting command if the preceding line has just been split. Otherwise, ignore the next formatting command.

Margin

`val set_margin : int -> unit`

`set_margin d` sets the value of the right margin to `d` (in characters): this value is used to detect line overflows that leads to split lines. Nothing happens if `d` is smaller than 2. If `d` is too large, the right margin is set to the maximum admissible value (which is greater than `10^9`).

`val get_margin : unit -> int`

Returns the position of the right margin.

Maximum indentation limit

`val set_max_indent : int -> unit`

`set_max_indent d` sets the value of the maximum indentation limit to `d` (in characters): once this limit is reached, boxes are rejected to the left, if they do not fit on the current line. Nothing happens if `d` is smaller than 2. If `d` is too large, the limit is set to the maximum admissible value (which is greater than `10^9`).

`val get_max_indent : unit -> int`

Return the value of the maximum indentation limit (in characters).

Formatting depth: maximum number of boxes allowed before ellipsis

`val set_max_boxes : int -> unit`

`set_max_boxes max` sets the maximum number of boxes simultaneously opened. Material inside boxes nested deeper is printed as an ellipsis (more precisely as the text returned by `get_ellipsis_text ()`). Nothing happens if `max` is smaller than 2.

`val get_max_boxes : unit -> int`

Returns the maximum number of boxes allowed before ellipsis.

`val over_max_boxes : unit -> bool`

Tests if the maximum number of boxes allowed have already been opened.

Advanced formatting

`val open_hbox : unit -> unit`

`open_hbox ()` opens a new pretty-printing box. This box is 'horizontal': the line is not split in this box (new lines may still occur inside boxes nested deeper).

`val open_vbox : int -> unit`

`open_vbox d` opens a new pretty-printing box with offset `d`. This box is 'vertical': every break hint inside this box leads to a new line. When a new line is printed in the box, `d` is added to the current indentation.

`val open_hvbox : int -> unit`

`open_hvbox d` opens a new pretty-printing box with offset `d`. This box is 'horizontal-vertical': it behaves as an 'horizontal' box if it fits on a single line, otherwise it behaves as a 'vertical' box. When a new line is printed in the box, `d` is added to the current indentation.

`val open_hovbox : int -> unit`

`open_hovbox d` opens a new pretty-printing box with offset `d`. This box is 'horizontal or vertical': break hints inside this box may lead to a new line, if there is no more room on the line to print the remainder of the box. When a new line is printed in the box, `d` is added to the current indentation.

Tabulations

`val open_tbox : unit -> unit`

Opens a tabulation box.

`val close_tbox : unit -> unit`

Closes the most recently opened tabulation box.

`val print_tbreak : int -> int -> unit`

Break hint in a tabulation box. `print_tbreak spaces offset` moves the insertion point to the next tabulation (`spaces` being added to this position). Nothing occurs if insertion point is already on a tabulation mark. If there is no next tabulation on the line, then a newline is printed and the insertion point moves to the first tabulation of the box. If a new line is printed, `offset` is added to the current indentation.

`val set_tab : unit -> unit`

Sets a tabulation mark at the current insertion point.

`val print_tab : unit -> unit`

`print_tab ()` is equivalent to `print_tbreak 0 0`.

Ellipsis

`val set_ellipsis_text : string -> unit`

Set the text of the ellipsis printed when too many boxes are opened (a single dot, `.`, by default).

`val get_ellipsis_text : unit -> string`

Return the text of the ellipsis.

Semantics Tags

`type tag = string`

Semantics tags (or simply *tags*) are used to decorate printed entities for user's defined purposes, e.g. setting font and giving size indications for a display device, or marking delimitation of semantics entities (e.g. HTML or TeX elements or terminal escape sequences).

By default, those tags do not influence line breaking calculation: the tag 'markers' are not considered as part of the printing material that drives line breaking (in other words, the length of those strings is considered as zero for line breaking).

Thus, tag handling is in some sense transparent to pretty-printing and does not interfere with usual indentation. Hence, a single pretty printing routine can output both simple 'verbatim' material or richer decorated output depending on the treatment of tags. By default, tags are not active, hence the output is not decorated with tag information. Once `set_tags` is set to `true`, the pretty printer engine honours tags and decorates the output accordingly.

When a tag has been opened (or closed), it is both and successively 'printed' and 'marked'. Printing a tag means calling a formatter specific function with the name of the tag as argument: that 'tag printing' function can then print any regular material to the formatter (so that this material is enqueued as usual in the formatter queue for further line-breaking computation). Marking a tag means to output an arbitrary string (the 'tag marker'), directly into the output device of the formatter. Hence, the formatter specific 'tag marking' function must return the tag marker string associated to its tag argument. Being flushed directly into the output device of the formatter, tag marker strings are not considered as part of the printing material that drives line breaking (in other words, the length of the strings corresponding to tag markers is considered as zero for line breaking). In addition, advanced users may take advantage of the specificity of tag markers to be precisely output when the pretty printer has already decided where to break the lines, and precisely when the queue is flushed into the output device.

In the spirit of HTML tags, the default tag marking functions output tags enclosed in "<" and ">": hence, the opening marker of tag t is "<t>" and the closing marker "</t>".

Default tag printing functions just do nothing.

Tag marking and tag printing functions are user definable and can be set by calling set_formatter_tag_functions.

`val open_tag : tag -> unit`

open_tag t opens the tag named t; the print_open_tag function of the formatter is called with t as argument; the tag marker mark_open_tag t will be flushed into the output device of the formatter.

`val close_tag : unit -> unit`

close_tag () closes the most recently opened tag t. In addition, the print_close_tag function of the formatter is called with t as argument. The marker mark_close_tag t will be flushed into the output device of the formatter.

`val set_tags : bool -> unit`

set_tags b turns on or off the treatment of tags (default is off).

`val set_print_tags : bool -> unit`

`val set_mark_tags : bool -> unit`

set_print_tags b turns on or off the printing of tags, while set_mark_tags b turns on or off the output of tag markers.

`val get_print_tags : unit -> bool`

`val get_mark_tags : unit -> bool`

Return the current status of tags printing and tags marking.

Redirecting the standard formatter output

`val set_formatter_out_channel : Pervasives.out_channel -> unit`

Redirect the pretty-printer output to the given channel. (All the output functions of the standard formatter are set to the default output functions printing to the given channel.)

```
val set_formatter_output_functions :
  (string -> int -> int -> unit) -> (unit -> unit) -> unit
```

`set_formatter_output_functions out flush` redirects the pretty-printer output functions to the functions `out` and `flush`.

The `out` function performs all the pretty-printer string output. It is called with a string `s`, a start position `p`, and a number of characters `n`; it is supposed to output characters `p` to `p + n - 1` of `s`.

The `flush` function is called whenever the pretty-printer is flushed (via conversion `%!`, or pretty-printing indications `@?` or `@.`, or using low level functions `print_flush` or `print_newline`).

```
val get_formatter_output_functions :
  unit -> (string -> int -> int -> unit) * (unit -> unit)
```

Return the current output functions of the pretty-printer.

Changing the meaning of standard formatter pretty printing

The `Format` module is versatile enough to let you completely redefine the meaning of pretty printing: you may provide your own functions to define how to handle indentation, line breaking, and even printing of all the characters that have to be printed!

```
type formatter_out_functions = {
  out_string : string -> int -> int -> unit ;
  out_flush : unit -> unit ;
  out_newline : unit -> unit ;
  out_spaces : int -> unit ;
}
```

```
val set_formatter_out_functions : formatter_out_functions -> unit
```

`set_formatter_out_functions f` Redirect the pretty-printer output to the functions `f.out_string` and `f.out_flush` as described in `set_formatter_output_functions`. In addition, the pretty-printer function that outputs a newline is set to the function `f.out_newline` and the function that outputs indentation spaces is set to the function `f.out_spaces`.

This way, you can change the meaning of indentation (which can be something else than just printing space characters) and the meaning of new lines opening (which can be connected to any other action needed by the application at hand). The two functions `f.out_spaces` and `f.out_newline` are normally connected to `f.out_string` and `f.out_flush`: respective default values for `f.out_space` and `f.out_newline` are `f.out_string (String.make n ' ') 0 n` and `f.out_string "\n" 0 1`.

```
val get_formatter_out_functions : unit -> formatter_out_functions
```

Return the current output functions of the pretty-printer, including line breaking and indentation functions. Useful to record the current setting and restore it afterwards.

Changing the meaning of printing semantics tags

```
type formatter_tag_functions = {
  mark_open_tag : tag -> string ;
  mark_close_tag : tag -> string ;
  print_open_tag : tag -> unit ;
  print_close_tag : tag -> unit ;
}
```

The tag handling functions specific to a formatter: `mark` versions are the 'tag marking' functions that associate a string marker to a tag in order for the pretty-printing engine to flush those markers as 0 length tokens in the output device of the formatter. `print` versions are the 'tag printing' functions that can perform regular printing when a tag is closed or opened.

`val set_formatter_tag_functions : formatter_tag_functions -> unit`

`set_formatter_tag_functions tag_funs` changes the meaning of opening and closing tags to use the functions in `tag_funs`.

When opening a tag name `t`, the string `t` is passed to the opening tag marking function (the `mark_open_tag` field of the record `tag_funs`), that must return the opening tag marker for that name. When the next call to `close_tag ()` happens, the tag name `t` is sent back to the closing tag marking function (the `mark_close_tag` field of record `tag_funs`), that must return a closing tag marker for that name.

The `print_` field of the record contains the functions that are called at tag opening and tag closing time, to output regular material in the pretty-printer queue.

`val get_formatter_tag_functions : unit -> formatter_tag_functions`

Return the current tag functions of the pretty-printer.

Multiple formatted output

`type formatter`

Abstract data corresponding to a pretty-printer (also called a formatter) and all its machinery.

Defining new pretty-printers permits unrelated output of material in parallel on several output channels. All the parameters of a pretty-printer are local to this pretty-printer: margin, maximum indentation limit, maximum number of boxes simultaneously opened, ellipsis, and so on, are specific to each pretty-printer and may be fixed independently. Given a `Pervasives.out_channel` output channel `oc`, a new formatter writing to that channel is simply obtained by calling `formatter_of_out_channel oc`. Alternatively, the `make_formatter` function allocates a new formatter with explicit output and flushing functions (convenient to output material to strings for instance).

`val formatter_of_out_channel : Pervasives.out_channel -> formatter`

`formatter_of_out_channel oc` returns a new formatter that writes to the corresponding channel `oc`.

`val std_formatter : formatter`

The standard formatter used by the formatting functions above. It is defined as `formatter_of_out_channel stdout`.

`val err_formatter : formatter`

A formatter to use with formatting functions below for output to standard error. It is defined as `formatter_of_out_channel stderr`.

`val formatter_of_buffer : Buffer.t -> formatter`

`formatter_of_buffer b` returns a new formatter writing to buffer `b`. As usual, the formatter has to be flushed at the end of pretty printing, using `pp_print_flush` or `pp_print_newline`, to display all the pending material.

`val stdbuf : Buffer.t`

The string buffer in which `str_formatter` writes.

`val str_formatter : formatter`

A formatter to use with formatting functions below for output to the `stdbuf` string buffer. `str_formatter` is defined as `formatter_of_buffer stdbuf`.

`val flush_str_formatter : unit -> string`

Returns the material printed with `str_formatter`, flushes the formatter and resets the corresponding buffer.

```
val make_formatter :
  (string -> int -> int -> unit) -> (unit -> unit) -> formatter
```

`make_formatter out flush` returns a new formatter that writes according to the output function `out`, and the flushing function `flush`. For instance, a formatter to the `Pervasives.out_channel oc` is returned by `make_formatter (Pervasives.output oc) (fun () -> Pervasives.flush oc)`.

Basic functions to use with formatters

```
val pp_open_hbox : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_open_vbox : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_open_hvbox : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_open_hovbox : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_open_box : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_close_box : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_open_tag : formatter -> string -> unit
```

```
val pp_close_tag : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_string : formatter -> string -> unit
val pp_print_as : formatter -> int -> string -> unit
val pp_print_int : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_print_float : formatter -> float -> unit
val pp_print_char : formatter -> char -> unit
val pp_print_bool : formatter -> bool -> unit
val pp_print_break : formatter -> int -> int -> unit
val pp_print_cut : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_space : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_force_newline : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_flush : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_newline : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_if_newline : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_open_tbox : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_close_tbox : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_tbreak : formatter -> int -> int -> unit
val pp_set_tab : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_print_tab : formatter -> unit -> unit
val pp_set_tags : formatter -> bool -> unit
val pp_set_print_tags : formatter -> bool -> unit
val pp_set_mark_tags : formatter -> bool -> unit
val pp_get_print_tags : formatter -> unit -> bool
val pp_get_mark_tags : formatter -> unit -> bool
val pp_set_margin : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_get_margin : formatter -> unit -> int
val pp_set_max_indent : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_get_max_indent : formatter -> unit -> int
val pp_set_max_boxes : formatter -> int -> unit
val pp_get_max_boxes : formatter -> unit -> int
val pp_over_max_boxes : formatter -> unit -> bool
val pp_set_ellipsis_text : formatter -> string -> unit
val pp_get_ellipsis_text : formatter -> unit -> string
val pp_set_formatter_out_channel :
  formatter -> Pervasives.out_channel -> unit
val pp_set_formatter_output_functions :
  formatter -> (string -> int -> int -> unit) -> (unit -> unit) -> unit
val pp_get_formatter_output_functions :
```

```
  formatter -> unit -> (string -> int -> int -> unit) * (unit -> unit)
val pp_set_formatter_tag_functions :
  formatter -> formatter_tag_functions -> unit
val pp_get_formatter_tag_functions :
  formatter -> unit -> formatter_tag_functions
val pp_set_formatter_out_functions :
  formatter -> formatter_out_functions -> unit
val pp_get_formatter_out_functions :
  formatter -> unit -> formatter_out_functions
```

These functions are the basic ones: usual functions operating on the standard formatter are defined via partial evaluation of these primitives. For instance, `print_string` is equal to `pp_print_string std_formatter`.

Convenience formatting functions.

```
val pp_print_list :
  ?pp_sep:(formatter -> unit -> unit) ->
  (formatter -> 'a -> unit) -> formatter -> 'a list -> unit
```

`pp_print_list ?pp_sep pp_v ppf l` prints the list `l`. `pp_v` is used on the elements of `l` and each element is separated by a call to `pp_sep` (defaults to `Format.pp_print_cut`[21.10]). Does nothing on empty lists.

Since: 4.02.0

```
val pp_print_text : formatter -> string -> unit
```

`pp_print_text ppf s` prints `s` with spaces and newlines respectively printed with `Format.pp_print_space`[21.10] and `Format.pp_force_newline`[21.10].

Since: 4.02.0

`printf` like functions for pretty-printing.

```
val fprintf : formatter -> ('a, formatter, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

`fprintf ff fmt arg1 ... argN` formats the arguments `arg1` to `argN` according to the format string `fmt`, and outputs the resulting string on the formatter `ff`.

The format `fmt` is a character string which contains three types of objects: plain characters and conversion specifications as specified in the `Printf` module, and pretty-printing indications specific to the `Format` module.

The pretty-printing indication characters are introduced by a `@` character, and their meanings are:

- `@[`: open a pretty-printing box. The type and offset of the box may be optionally specified with the following syntax: the `<` character, followed by an optional box type indication, then an optional integer offset, and the closing `>` character. Box type is one of `h`, `v`, `hv`, `b`, or `hov`, which stand respectively for an horizontal box, a vertical box, an ’horizontal-vertical’ box, or an ’horizontal or vertical’ box (b standing for an ’horizontal or vertical’ box demonstrating indentation and hov standing for a regular’horizontal or vertical’ box). For instance, @[<hov 2> opens an ’horizontal or vertical’ box with indentation 2 as obtained with open_hovbox 2. For more details about boxes, see the various box opening functions open_*box.

- @]: close the most recently opened pretty-printing box.
- @,: output a good break hint, as with print_cut ().
- @ : output a good break space, as with print_space ().
- @;: output a fully specified good break as with print_break. The nspaces and offset parameters of the break may be optionally specified with the following syntax: the < character, followed by an integer nspaces value, then an integer offset, and a closing > character. If no parameters are provided, the good break defaults to a good break space.
- @.: flush the pretty printer and output a new line, as with print_newline ().
- @<n>: print the following item as if it were of length n. Hence, printf "@<0>%s" arg prints arg as a zero length string. If @<n> is not followed by a conversion specification, then the following character of the format is printed as if it were of length n.
- @{: open a tag. The name of the tag may be optionally specified with the following syntax: the < character, followed by an optional string specification, and the closing > character. The string specification is any character string that does not contain the closing character '>'. If omitted, the tag name defaults to the empty string. For more details about tags, see the functions open_tag and close_tag.
- @}: close the most recently opened tag.
- @?: flush the pretty printer as with print_flush (). This is equivalent to the conversion %!.
- @\n: force a newline, as with force_newline ().
- @@: print a single @ character.

Example: printf "@[%s@ %d@]@." "x =" 1 is equivalent to open_box (); print_string "x ="; print_space (); print_int 1; close_box (); print_newline (). It prints x = 1 within a pretty-printing box.

Note: If you need to prevent the interpretation of a @ character as a pretty-printing indication, you can also escape it with a % character.

```
val printf : ('a, formatter, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as fprintf above, but output on std_formatter.

```
val eprintf : ('a, formatter, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as fprintf above, but output on err_formatter.

```
val sprintf : ('a, unit, string) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as `printf` above, but instead of printing on a formatter, returns a string containing the result of formatting the arguments. Note that the pretty-printer queue is flushed at the end of *each call* to `sprintf`.

In case of multiple and related calls to `sprintf` to output material on a single string, you should consider using `fprintf` with the predefined formatter `str_formatter` and call `flush_str_formatter ()` to get the final result.

Alternatively, you can use `Format.fprintf` with a formatter writing to a buffer of your own: flushing the formatter and the buffer at the end of pretty-printing returns the desired string.

```
val asprintf : ('a, formatter, unit, string) Pervasives.format4 -> 'a
```

Same as `printf` above, but instead of printing on a formatter, returns a string containing the result of formatting the arguments. The type of `asprintf` is general enough to interact nicely with `%a` conversions.

Since: 4.01.0

```
val ifprintf : formatter -> ('a, formatter, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as `fprintf` above, but does not print anything. Useful to ignore some material when conditionally printing.

Since: 3.10.0

Formatted output functions with continuations.

```
val kfprintf :
  (formatter -> 'a) ->
  formatter -> ('b, formatter, unit, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `fprintf` above, but instead of returning immediately, passes the formatter to its first argument at the end of printing.

```
val ikfprintf :
  (formatter -> 'a) ->
  formatter -> ('b, formatter, unit, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `kfprintf` above, but does not print anything. Useful to ignore some material when conditionally printing.

Since: 3.12.0

```
val ksprintf :
  (string -> 'a) -> ('b, unit, string, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `sprintf` above, but instead of returning the string, passes it to the first argument.

Deprecated

```
val bprintf : Buffer.t -> ('a, formatter, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Deprecated. This function is error prone. Do not use it.

If you need to print to some buffer `b`, you must first define a formatter writing to `b`, using `let to_b = formatter_of_buffer b`; then use regular calls to `Format.fprintf` on formatter `to_b`.

```
val kprintf :
  (string -> 'a) -> ('b, unit, string, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Deprecated. An alias for `ksprintf`.

```
val set_all_formatter_output_functions :
  out:(string -> int -> int -> unit) ->
  flush:(unit -> unit) ->
  newline:(unit -> unit) -> spaces:(int -> unit) -> unit
```

Deprecated. Subsumed by `set_formatter_out_functions`.

```
val get_all_formatter_output_functions :
  unit ->
  (string -> int -> int -> unit) * (unit -> unit) * (unit -> unit) *
  (int -> unit)
```

Deprecated. Subsumed by `get_formatter_out_functions`.

```
val pp_set_all_formatter_output_functions :
  formatter ->
  out:(string -> int -> int -> unit) ->
  flush:(unit -> unit) ->
  newline:(unit -> unit) -> spaces:(int -> unit) -> unit
```

Deprecated. Subsumed by `pp_set_formatter_out_functions`.

```
val pp_get_all_formatter_output_functions :
  formatter ->
  unit ->
  (string -> int -> int -> unit) * (unit -> unit) * (unit -> unit) *
  (int -> unit)
```

Deprecated. Subsumed by `pp_get_formatter_out_functions`.

21.11 Module `Gc` : Memory management control and statistics; finalised values.

```
type stat = {
  minor_words : float ;
```

Number of words allocated in the minor heap since the program was started. This number is accurate in byte-code programs, but only an approximation in programs compiled to native code.

`promoted_words : float ;`

Number of words allocated in the minor heap that survived a minor collection and were moved to the major heap since the program was started.

`major_words : float ;`

Number of words allocated in the major heap, including the promoted words, since the program was started.

`minor_collections : int ;`

Number of minor collections since the program was started.

`major_collections : int ;`

Number of major collection cycles completed since the program was started.

`heap_words : int ;`

Total size of the major heap, in words.

`heap_chunks : int ;`

Number of contiguous pieces of memory that make up the major heap.

`live_words : int ;`

Number of words of live data in the major heap, including the header words.

`live_blocks : int ;`

Number of live blocks in the major heap.

`free_words : int ;`

Number of words in the free list.

`free_blocks : int ;`

Number of blocks in the free list.

`largest_free : int ;`

Size (in words) of the largest block in the free list.

`fragments : int ;`

Number of wasted words due to fragmentation. These are 1-words free blocks placed between two live blocks. They are not available for allocation.

`compactions : int ;`

Number of heap compactions since the program was started.

`top_heap_words : int ;`

Maximum size reached by the major heap, in words.

`stack_size : int ;`

Current size of the stack, in words.

Since: 3.12.0

`}`

The memory management counters are returned in a `stat` record.

The total amount of memory allocated by the program since it was started is (in words) `minor_words + major_words - promoted_words`. Multiply by the word size (4 on a 32-bit machine, 8 on a 64-bit machine) to get the number of bytes.

```
type control = {
  mutable minor_heap_size : int ;
```

The size (in words) of the minor heap. Changing this parameter will trigger a minor collection. Default: 32k.

```
  mutable major_heap_increment : int ;
```

How much to add to the major heap when increasing it. If this number is less than or equal to 1000, it is a percentage of the current heap size (i.e. setting it to 100 will double the heap size at each increase). If it is more than 1000, it is a fixed number of words that will be added to the heap. Default: 15.

```
  mutable space_overhead : int ;
```

The major GC speed is computed from this parameter. This is the memory that will be "wasted" because the GC does not immediatly collect unreachable blocks. It is expressed as a percentage of the memory used for live data. The GC will work more (use more CPU time and collect blocks more eagerly) if `space_overhead` is smaller. Default: 80.

```
  mutable verbose : int ;
```

This value controls the GC messages on standard error output. It is a sum of some of the following flags, to print messages on the corresponding events:

- `0x001` Start of major GC cycle.
- `0x002` Minor collection and major GC slice.
- `0x004` Growing and shrinking of the heap.
- `0x008` Resizing of stacks and memory manager tables.
- `0x010` Heap compaction.
- `0x020` Change of GC parameters.
- `0x040` Computation of major GC slice size.
- `0x080` Calling of finalisation functions.
- `0x100` Bytecode executable search at start-up.
- `0x200` Computation of compaction triggering condition. Default: 0.

```
  mutable max_overhead : int ;
```

Heap compaction is triggered when the estimated amount of "wasted" memory is more than `max_overhead` percent of the amount of live data. If `max_overhead` is set to 0, heap compaction is triggered at the end of each major GC cycle (this setting is intended for testing purposes only). If `max_overhead >= 1000000`, compaction is never triggered. If compaction is permanently disabled, it is strongly suggested to set `allocation_policy` to 1. Default: 500.

`mutable stack_limit : int ;`

The maximum size of the stack (in words). This is only relevant to the byte-code runtime, as the native code runtime uses the operating system's stack. Default: 256k.

`mutable allocation_policy : int ;`

The policy used for allocating in the heap. Possible values are 0 and 1. 0 is the next-fit policy, which is quite fast but can result in fragmentation. 1 is the first-fit policy, which can be slower in some cases but can be better for programs with fragmentation problems. Default: 0.

Since: 3.11.0

`}`

The GC parameters are given as a `control` record. Note that these parameters can also be initialised by setting the OCAMLRUNPARAM environment variable. See the documentation of `ocamlrun`.

`val stat : unit -> stat`

Return the current values of the memory management counters in a `stat` record. This function examines every heap block to get the statistics.

`val quick_stat : unit -> stat`

Same as `stat` except that `live_words`, `live_blocks`, `free_words`, `free_blocks`, `largest_free`, and `fragments` are set to 0. This function is much faster than `stat` because it does not need to go through the heap.

`val counters : unit -> float * float * float`

Return `(minor_words, promoted_words, major_words)`. This function is as fast as `quick_stat`.

`val get : unit -> control`

Return the current values of the GC parameters in a `control` record.

`val set : control -> unit`

`set r` changes the GC parameters according to the `control` record `r`. The normal usage is: `Gc.set { (Gc.get()) with Gc.verbose = 0x00d }`

`val minor : unit -> unit`

Trigger a minor collection.

`val major_slice : int -> int`

Do a minor collection and a slice of major collection. The argument is the size of the slice, 0 to use the automatically-computed slice size. In all cases, the result is the computed slice size.

`val major : unit -> unit`

Do a minor collection and finish the current major collection cycle.

`val full_major : unit -> unit`

Do a minor collection, finish the current major collection cycle, and perform a complete new cycle. This will collect all currently unreachable blocks.

`val compact : unit -> unit`

Perform a full major collection and compact the heap. Note that heap compaction is a lengthy operation.

`val print_stat : Pervasives.out_channel -> unit`

Print the current values of the memory management counters (in human-readable form) into the channel argument.

`val allocated_bytes : unit -> float`

Return the total number of bytes allocated since the program was started. It is returned as a `float` to avoid overflow problems with `int` on 32-bit machines.

`val finalise : ('a -> unit) -> 'a -> unit`

`finalise f v` registers `f` as a finalisation function for `v`. `v` must be heap-allocated. `f` will be called with `v` as argument at some point between the first time `v` becomes unreachable and the time `v` is collected by the GC. Several functions can be registered for the same value, or even several instances of the same function. Each instance will be called once (or never, if the program terminates before `v` becomes unreachable).

The GC will call the finalisation functions in the order of deallocation. When several values become unreachable at the same time (i.e. during the same GC cycle), the finalisation functions will be called in the reverse order of the corresponding calls to `finalise`. If `finalise` is called in the same order as the values are allocated, that means each value is finalised before the values it depends upon. Of course, this becomes false if additional dependencies are introduced by assignments.

In the presence of multiple OCaml threads it should be assumed that any particular finaliser may be executed in any of the threads.

Anything reachable from the closure of finalisation functions is considered reachable, so the following code will not work as expected:

- `let v = ... in Gc.finalise (fun x -> ...) v`

Instead you should write:

- `let f = fun x -> ... ;; let v = ... in Gc.finalise f v`

The `f` function can use all features of OCaml, including assignments that make the value reachable again. It can also loop forever (in this case, the other finalisation functions will not be called during the execution of f, unless it calls `finalise_release`). It can call `finalise` on `v` or other values to register other functions or even itself. It can raise an exception; in this case the exception will interrupt whatever the program was doing when the function was called.

`finalise` will raise `Invalid_argument` if `v` is not heap-allocated. Some examples of values that are not heap-allocated are integers, constant constructors, booleans, the empty array, the empty list, the unit value. The exact list of what is heap-allocated or not is implementation-dependent. Some constant values can be heap-allocated but never deallocated during the lifetime of the program, for example a list of integer constants; this is also implementation-dependent. You should also be aware that compiler optimisations may duplicate some immutable values, for example floating-point numbers when stored into arrays, so they can be finalised and collected while another copy is still in use by the program.

The results of calling `String.make`[21.35], `Bytes.make`[21.4], `Bytes.create`[21.4], `Array.make`[21.2], and `Pervasives.ref`[20.2] are guaranteed to be heap-allocated and non-constant except when the length argument is `0`.

`val finalise_release : unit -> unit`

A finalisation function may call `finalise_release` to tell the GC that it can launch the next finalisation function without waiting for the current one to return.

`type alarm`

An alarm is a piece of data that calls a user function at the end of each major GC cycle. The following functions are provided to create and delete alarms.

`val create_alarm : (unit -> unit) -> alarm`

`create_alarm f` will arrange for `f` to be called at the end of each major GC cycle, starting with the current cycle or the next one. A value of type `alarm` is returned that you can use to call `delete_alarm`.

`val delete_alarm : alarm -> unit`

`delete_alarm a` will stop the calls to the function associated to `a`. Calling `delete_alarm a` again has no effect.

21.12 Module `Genlex` : A generic lexical analyzer.

This module implements a simple 'standard' lexical analyzer, presented as a function from character streams to token streams. It implements roughly the lexical conventions of OCaml, but is parameterized by the set of keywords of your language.

Example: a lexer suitable for a desk calculator is obtained by

```
let lexer = make_lexer ["+";"-";"*";"/";"let";"="; "("; ")"]
```

The associated parser would be a function from `token stream` to, for instance, `int`, and would have rules such as:

```
let rec parse_expr = parser
```

```
      | [< n1 = parse_atom; n2 = parse_remainder n1 >] -> n2
    and parse_atom = parser
      | [< 'Int n >] -> n
      | [< 'Kwd "("; n = parse_expr; 'Kwd ")" >] -> n
    and parse_remainder n1 = parser
      | [< 'Kwd "+"; n2 = parse_expr >] -> n1+n2
      | [< >] -> n1
```

One should notice that the use of the `parser` keyword and associated notation for streams are only available through camlp4 extensions. This means that one has to preprocess its sources *e. g.* by using the `"-pp"` command-line switch of the compilers.

```
type token =
  | Kwd of string
  | Ident of string
  | Int of int
  | Float of float
  | String of string
  | Char of char
```

The type of tokens. The lexical classes are: `Int` and `Float` for integer and floating-point numbers; `String` for string literals, enclosed in double quotes; `Char` for character literals, enclosed in single quotes; `Ident` for identifiers (either sequences of letters, digits, underscores and quotes, or sequences of 'operator characters' such as `+`, `*`, etc); and `Kwd` for keywords (either identifiers or single 'special characters' such as `(`, `}`, etc).

```
val make_lexer : string list -> char Stream.t -> token Stream.t
```

Construct the lexer function. The first argument is the list of keywords. An identifier `s` is returned as `Kwd s` if `s` belongs to this list, and as `Ident s` otherwise. A special character `s` is returned as `Kwd s` if `s` belongs to this list, and cause a lexical error (exception `Stream.Error` with the offending lexeme as its parameter) otherwise. Blanks and newlines are skipped. Comments delimited by `(*` and `*)` are skipped as well, and can be nested. A `Stream.Failure` exception is raised if end of stream is unexpectedly reached.

21.13 Module `Hashtbl` : Hash tables and hash functions.

Hash tables are hashed association tables, with in-place modification.

Generic interface

```
type ('a, 'b) t
```

The type of hash tables from type `'a` to type `'b`.

```
val create : ?random:bool -> int -> ('a, 'b) t
```

`Hashtbl.create n` creates a new, empty hash table, with initial size `n`. For best results, `n` should be on the order of the expected number of elements that will be in the table. The table grows as needed, so `n` is just an initial guess.

The optional `random` parameter (a boolean) controls whether the internal organization of the hash table is randomized at each execution of `Hashtbl.create` or deterministic over all executions.

A hash table that is created with `~random:false` uses a fixed hash function (`Hashtbl.hash`[21.13]) to distribute keys among buckets. As a consequence, collisions between keys happen deterministically. In Web-facing applications or other security-sensitive applications, the deterministic collision patterns can be exploited by a malicious user to create a denial-of-service attack: the attacker sends input crafted to create many collisions in the table, slowing the application down.

A hash table that is created with `~random:true` uses the seeded hash function `Hashtbl.seeded_hash`[21.13] with a seed that is randomly chosen at hash table creation time. In effect, the hash function used is randomly selected among `2^{30}` different hash functions. All these hash functions have different collision patterns, rendering ineffective the denial-of-service attack described above. However, because of randomization, enumerating all elements of the hash table using `Hashtbl.fold`[21.13] or `Hashtbl.iter`[21.13] is no longer deterministic: elements are enumerated in different orders at different runs of the program.

If no `~random` parameter is given, hash tables are created in non-random mode by default. This default can be changed either programmatically by calling `Hashtbl.randomize`[21.13] or by setting the `R` flag in the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable.

Before 4.00.0 the `random` parameter was not present and all hash tables were created in non-randomized mode.

```
val clear : ('a, 'b) t -> unit
```

Empty a hash table. Use `reset` instead of `clear` to shrink the size of the bucket table to its initial size.

```
val reset : ('a, 'b) t -> unit
```

Empty a hash table and shrink the size of the bucket table to its initial size.

Since: 4.00.0

```
val copy : ('a, 'b) t -> ('a, 'b) t
```

Return a copy of the given hashtable.

```
val add : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b -> unit
```

`Hashtbl.add tbl x y` adds a binding of `x` to `y` in table `tbl`. Previous bindings for `x` are not removed, but simply hidden. That is, after performing `Hashtbl.remove`[21.13] `tbl x`, the previous binding for `x`, if any, is restored. (Same behavior as with association lists.)

```
val find : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b
```

`Hashtbl.find tbl x` returns the current binding of `x` in `tbl`, or raises `Not_found` if no such binding exists.

`val find_all : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b list`

`Hashtbl.find_all tbl x` returns the list of all data associated with `x` in `tbl`. The current binding is returned first, then the previous bindings, in reverse order of introduction in the table.

`val mem : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> bool`

`Hashtbl.mem tbl x` checks if `x` is bound in `tbl`.

`val remove : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> unit`

`Hashtbl.remove tbl x` removes the current binding of `x` in `tbl`, restoring the previous binding if it exists. It does nothing if `x` is not bound in `tbl`.

`val replace : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b -> unit`

`Hashtbl.replace tbl x y` replaces the current binding of `x` in `tbl` by a binding of `x` to `y`. If `x` is unbound in `tbl`, a binding of `x` to `y` is added to `tbl`. This is functionally equivalent to `Hashtbl.remove`[21.13] `tbl x` followed by `Hashtbl.add`[21.13] `tbl x y`.

`val iter : ('a -> 'b -> unit) -> ('a, 'b) t -> unit`

`Hashtbl.iter f tbl` applies `f` to all bindings in table `tbl`. `f` receives the key as first argument, and the associated value as second argument. Each binding is presented exactly once to `f`.

The order in which the bindings are passed to `f` is unspecified. However, if the table contains several bindings for the same key, they are passed to `f` in reverse order of introduction, that is, the most recent binding is passed first.

If the hash table was created in non-randomized mode, the order in which the bindings are enumerated is reproducible between successive runs of the program, and even between minor versions of OCaml. For randomized hash tables, the order of enumeration is entirely random.

`val fold : ('a -> 'b -> 'c -> 'c) -> ('a, 'b) t -> 'c -> 'c`

`Hashtbl.fold f tbl init` computes `(f kN dN ... (f k1 d1 init)...)`, where `k1 ... kN` are the keys of all bindings in `tbl`, and `d1 ... dN` are the associated values. Each binding is presented exactly once to `f`.

The order in which the bindings are passed to `f` is unspecified. However, if the table contains several bindings for the same key, they are passed to `f` in reverse order of introduction, that is, the most recent binding is passed first.

If the hash table was created in non-randomized mode, the order in which the bindings are enumerated is reproducible between successive runs of the program, and even between minor versions of OCaml. For randomized hash tables, the order of enumeration is entirely random.

```
val length : ('a, 'b) t -> int
```

`Hashtbl.length tbl` returns the number of bindings in `tbl`. It takes constant time. Multiple bindings are counted once each, so `Hashtbl.length` gives the number of times `Hashtbl.iter` calls its first argument.

```
val randomize : unit -> unit
```

After a call to `Hashtbl.randomize()`, hash tables are created in randomized mode by default: `Hashtbl.create`[21.13] returns randomized hash tables, unless the `~random:false` optional parameter is given. The same effect can be achieved by setting the `R` parameter in the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` environment variable.

It is recommended that applications or Web frameworks that need to protect themselves against the denial-of-service attack described in `Hashtbl.create`[21.13] call `Hashtbl.randomize()` at initialization time.

Note that once `Hashtbl.randomize()` was called, there is no way to revert to the non-randomized default behavior of `Hashtbl.create`[21.13]. This is intentional. Non-randomized hash tables can still be created using `Hashtbl.create ~random:false`.

Since: 4.00.0

```
type statistics = {
  num_bindings : int ;
```

Number of bindings present in the table. Same value as returned by `Hashtbl.length`[21.13].

```
  num_buckets : int ;
```

Number of buckets in the table.

```
  max_bucket_length : int ;
```

Maximal number of bindings per bucket.

```
  bucket_histogram : int array ;
```

Histogram of bucket sizes. This array `histo` has length `max_bucket_length + 1`. The value of `histo.(i)` is the number of buckets whose size is `i`.

```
}
val stats : ('a, 'b) t -> statistics
```

`Hashtbl.stats tbl` returns statistics about the table `tbl`: number of buckets, size of the biggest bucket, distribution of buckets by size.

Since: 4.00.0

Functorial interface

The functorial interface allows the use of specific comparison and hash functions, either for performance/security concerns, or because keys are not hashable/comparable with the polymorphic builtins.

For instance, one might want to specialize a table for integer keys:

```
module IntHash =
  struct
    type t = int
    let equal i j = i=j
    let hash i = i land max_int
  end

module IntHashtbl = Hashtbl.Make(IntHash)

let h = IntHashtbl.create 17 in
IntHashtbl.add h 12 "hello";;
```

This creates a new module `IntHashtbl`, with a new type `'a IntHashtbl.t` of tables from `int` to `'a`. In this example, `h` contains `string` values so its type is `string IntHashtbl.t`.

Note that the new type `'a IntHashtbl.t` is not compatible with the type `('a,'b) Hashtbl.t` of the generic interface. For example, `Hashtbl.length h` would not type-check, you must use `IntHashtbl.length`.

```
module type HashedType =
  sig
```

```
type t
```

The type of the hashtable keys.

```
val equal : t -> t -> bool
```

The equality predicate used to compare keys.

```
val hash : t -> int
```

A hashing function on keys. It must be such that if two keys are equal according to `equal`, then they have identical hash values as computed by `hash`. Examples: suitable (`equal`, `hash`) pairs for arbitrary key types include

- (`(=)`, `Hashtbl.hash`[21.13]) for comparing objects by structure (provided objects do not contain floats)
- (`(fun x y -> compare x y = 0)`, `Hashtbl.hash`[21.13]) for comparing objects by structure and handling `Pervasives.nan`[20.2] correctly
- (`(==)`, `Hashtbl.hash`[21.13]) for comparing objects by physical equality (e.g. for mutable or cyclic objects).

```
  end
```

The input signature of the functor `Hashtbl.Make`[21.13].

```
module type S =
  sig
```

```
    type key
    type 'a t
    val create : int -> 'a t
    val clear : 'a t -> unit
    val reset : 'a t -> unit
    val copy : 'a t -> 'a t
    val add : 'a t -> key -> 'a -> unit
    val remove : 'a t -> key -> unit
    val find : 'a t -> key -> 'a
    val find_all : 'a t -> key -> 'a list
    val replace : 'a t -> key -> 'a -> unit
    val mem : 'a t -> key -> bool
    val iter : (key -> 'a -> unit) -> 'a t -> unit
    val fold : (key -> 'a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b -> 'b
    val length : 'a t -> int
    val stats : 'a t -> Hashtbl.statistics
  end
```

The output signature of the functor `Hashtbl.Make`[21.13].

```
module Make :
  functor (H : HashedType) -> S  with type key = H.t
```

Functor building an implementation of the hashtable structure. The functor `Hashtbl.Make` returns a structure containing a type `key` of keys and a type `'a t` of hash tables associating data of type `'a` to keys of type `key`. The operations perform similarly to those of the generic interface, but use the hashing and equality functions specified in the functor argument `H` instead of generic equality and hashing. Since the hash function is not seeded, the `create` operation of the result structure always returns non-randomized hash tables.

```
module type SeededHashedType =
  sig
    type t
```

The type of the hashtable keys.

```
    val equal : t -> t -> bool
```

The equality predicate used to compare keys.

```
    val hash : int -> t -> int
```

A seeded hashing function on keys. The first argument is the seed. It must be the case that if `equal x y` is true, then `hash seed x = hash seed y` for any value of `seed`. A suitable choice for `hash` is the function `Hashtbl.seeded_hash`[21.13] below.

```
  end
```

The input signature of the functor `Hashtbl.MakeSeeded`[21.13].

Since: 4.00.0

```
module type SeededS =
  sig
    type key
    type 'a t
    val create : ?random:bool -> int -> 'a t
    val clear : 'a t -> unit
    val reset : 'a t -> unit
    val copy : 'a t -> 'a t
    val add : 'a t -> key -> 'a -> unit
    val remove : 'a t -> key -> unit
    val find : 'a t -> key -> 'a
    val find_all : 'a t -> key -> 'a list
    val replace : 'a t -> key -> 'a -> unit
    val mem : 'a t -> key -> bool
    val iter : (key -> 'a -> unit) -> 'a t -> unit
    val fold : (key -> 'a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b -> 'b
    val length : 'a t -> int
    val stats : 'a t -> Hashtbl.statistics
  end
```

The output signature of the functor `Hashtbl.MakeSeeded`[21.13].

Since: 4.00.0

```
module MakeSeeded :
   functor (H : SeededHashedType) -> SeededS  with type key = H.t
```

Functor building an implementation of the hashtable structure. The functor `Hashtbl.MakeSeeded` returns a structure containing a type `key` of keys and a type `'a t` of hash tables associating data of type `'a` to keys of type `key`. The operations perform similarly to those of the generic interface, but use the seeded hashing and equality functions specified in the functor argument `H` instead of generic equality and hashing. The `create` operation of the result structure supports the `~random` optional parameter and returns randomized hash tables if `~random:true` is passed or if randomization is globally on (see `Hashtbl.randomize`[21.13]).

Since: 4.00.0

The polymorphic hash functions

`val hash : 'a -> int`

`Hashtbl.hash x` associates a nonnegative integer to any value of any type. It is guaranteed that if `x = y` or `Pervasives.compare x y = 0`, then `hash x = hash y`. Moreover, `hash` always terminates, even on cyclic structures.

`val seeded_hash : int -> 'a -> int`

A variant of `Hashtbl.hash`[21.13] that is further parameterized by an integer seed.

Since: 4.00.0

`val hash_param : int -> int -> 'a -> int`

`Hashtbl.hash_param meaningful total x` computes a hash value for `x`, with the same properties as for `hash`. The two extra integer parameters `meaningful` and `total` give more precise control over hashing. Hashing performs a breadth-first, left-to-right traversal of the structure `x`, stopping after `meaningful` meaningful nodes were encountered, or `total` nodes (meaningful or not) were encountered. Meaningful nodes are: integers; floating-point numbers; strings; characters; booleans; and constant constructors. Larger values of `meaningful` and `total` means that more nodes are taken into account to compute the final hash value, and therefore collisions are less likely to happen. However, hashing takes longer. The parameters `meaningful` and `total` govern the tradeoff between accuracy and speed. As default choices, `Hashtbl.hash`[21.13] and `Hashtbl.seeded_hash`[21.13] take `meaningful = 10` and `total = 100`.

`val seeded_hash_param : int -> int -> int -> 'a -> int`

A variant of `Hashtbl.hash_param`[21.13] that is further parameterized by an integer seed. Usage: `Hashtbl.seeded_hash_param meaningful total seed x`.

Since: 4.00.0

21.14 Module `Int32` : 32-bit integers.

This module provides operations on the type `int32` of signed 32-bit integers. Unlike the built-in `int` type, the type `int32` is guaranteed to be exactly 32-bit wide on all platforms. All arithmetic operations over `int32` are taken modulo 2^{32}.

Performance notice: values of type `int32` occupy more memory space than values of type `int`, and arithmetic operations on `int32` are generally slower than those on `int`. Use `int32` only when the application requires exact 32-bit arithmetic.

`val zero : int32`

The 32-bit integer 0.

`val one : int32`

The 32-bit integer 1.

`val minus_one : int32`

The 32-bit integer -1.

`val neg : int32 -> int32`

Unary negation.

`val add : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Addition.

`val sub : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Subtraction.

`val mul : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Multiplication.

`val div : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Integer division. Raise `Division_by_zero` if the second argument is zero. This division rounds the real quotient of its arguments towards zero, as specified for `Pervasives.(/)`[20.2].

`val rem : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Integer remainder. If `y` is not zero, the result of `Int32.rem x y` satisfies the following property: `x = Int32.add (Int32.mul (Int32.div x y) y) (Int32.rem x y)`. If `y = 0`, `Int32.rem x y` raises `Division_by_zero`.

`val succ : int32 -> int32`

Successor. `Int32.succ x` is `Int32.add x Int32.one`.

`val pred : int32 -> int32`

Predecessor. `Int32.pred x` is `Int32.sub x Int32.one`.

`val abs : int32 -> int32`

Return the absolute value of its argument.

`val max_int : int32`

The greatest representable 32-bit integer, 2^{31} - 1.

`val min_int : int32`

The smallest representable 32-bit integer, -2^{31}.

`val logand : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Bitwise logical and.

`val logor : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Bitwise logical or.

`val logxor : int32 -> int32 -> int32`

Bitwise logical exclusive or.

`val lognot : int32 -> int32`

Bitwise logical negation

`val shift_left : int32 -> int -> int32`

`Int32.shift_left x y` shifts `x` to the left by `y` bits. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= 32`.

`val shift_right : int32 -> int -> int32`

`Int32.shift_right x y` shifts `x` to the right by `y` bits. This is an arithmetic shift: the sign bit of `x` is replicated and inserted in the vacated bits. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= 32`.

`val shift_right_logical : int32 -> int -> int32`

`Int32.shift_right_logical x y` shifts `x` to the right by `y` bits. This is a logical shift: zeroes are inserted in the vacated bits regardless of the sign of `x`. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= 32`.

`val of_int : int -> int32`

Convert the given integer (type `int`) to a 32-bit integer (type `int32`).

`val to_int : int32 -> int`

Convert the given 32-bit integer (type `int32`) to an integer (type `int`). On 32-bit platforms, the 32-bit integer is taken modulo 2^{31}, i.e. the high-order bit is lost during the conversion. On 64-bit platforms, the conversion is exact.

`val of_float : float -> int32`

Convert the given floating-point number to a 32-bit integer, discarding the fractional part (truncate towards 0). The result of the conversion is undefined if, after truncation, the number is outside the range [`Int32.min_int`[21.14], `Int32.max_int`[21.14]].

`val to_float : int32 -> float`

Convert the given 32-bit integer to a floating-point number.

`val of_string : string -> int32`

Convert the given string to a 32-bit integer. The string is read in decimal (by default) or in hexadecimal, octal or binary if the string begins with `0x`, `0o` or `0b` respectively. Raise `Failure "int_of_string"` if the given string is not a valid representation of an integer, or if the integer represented exceeds the range of integers representable in type `int32`.

`val to_string : int32 -> string`

Return the string representation of its argument, in signed decimal.

```
val bits_of_float : float -> int32
```

Return the internal representation of the given float according to the IEEE 754 floating-point 'single format' bit layout. Bit 31 of the result represents the sign of the float; bits 30 to 23 represent the (biased) exponent; bits 22 to 0 represent the mantissa.

```
val float_of_bits : int32 -> float
```

Return the floating-point number whose internal representation, according to the IEEE 754 floating-point 'single format' bit layout, is the given `int32`.

```
type t = int32
```

An alias for the type of 32-bit integers.

```
val compare : t -> t -> int
```

The comparison function for 32-bit integers, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `Int32` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

21.15 Module `Int64` : 64-bit integers.

This module provides operations on the type `int64` of signed 64-bit integers. Unlike the built-in `int` type, the type `int64` is guaranteed to be exactly 64-bit wide on all platforms. All arithmetic operations over `int64` are taken modulo 2^{64}

Performance notice: values of type `int64` occupy more memory space than values of type `int`, and arithmetic operations on `int64` are generally slower than those on `int`. Use `int64` only when the application requires exact 64-bit arithmetic.

```
val zero : int64
```

The 64-bit integer 0.

```
val one : int64
```

The 64-bit integer 1.

```
val minus_one : int64
```

The 64-bit integer -1.

```
val neg : int64 -> int64
```

Unary negation.

```
val add : int64 -> int64 -> int64
```

Addition.

```
val sub : int64 -> int64 -> int64
```

Subtraction.

`val mul : int64 -> int64 -> int64`

Multiplication.

`val div : int64 -> int64 -> int64`

Integer division. Raise `Division_by_zero` if the second argument is zero. This division rounds the real quotient of its arguments towards zero, as specified for `Pervasives.(/)`[20.2].

`val rem : int64 -> int64 -> int64`

Integer remainder. If `y` is not zero, the result of `Int64.rem x y` satisfies the following property: `x = Int64.add (Int64.mul (Int64.div x y) y) (Int64.rem x y)`. If `y = 0`, `Int64.rem x y` raises `Division_by_zero`.

`val succ : int64 -> int64`

Successor. `Int64.succ x` is `Int64.add x Int64.one`.

`val pred : int64 -> int64`

Predecessor. `Int64.pred x` is `Int64.sub x Int64.one`.

`val abs : int64 -> int64`

Return the absolute value of its argument.

`val max_int : int64`

The greatest representable 64-bit integer, 2^{63} - 1.

`val min_int : int64`

The smallest representable 64-bit integer, -2^{63}.

`val logand : int64 -> int64 -> int64`

Bitwise logical and.

`val logor : int64 -> int64 -> int64`

Bitwise logical or.

`val logxor : int64 -> int64 -> int64`

Bitwise logical exclusive or.

`val lognot : int64 -> int64`

Bitwise logical negation

`val shift_left : int64 -> int -> int64`

`Int64.shift_left x y` shifts `x` to the left by `y` bits. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= 64`.

`val shift_right : int64 -> int -> int64`

`Int64.shift_right x y` shifts `x` to the right by `y` bits. This is an arithmetic shift: the sign bit of `x` is replicated and inserted in the vacated bits. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= 64`.

`val shift_right_logical : int64 -> int -> int64`

`Int64.shift_right_logical x y` shifts `x` to the right by `y` bits. This is a logical shift: zeroes are inserted in the vacated bits regardless of the sign of `x`. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= 64`.

`val of_int : int -> int64`

Convert the given integer (type `int`) to a 64-bit integer (type `int64`).

`val to_int : int64 -> int`

Convert the given 64-bit integer (type `int64`) to an integer (type `int`). On 64-bit platforms, the 64-bit integer is taken modulo 2^{63}, i.e. the high-order bit is lost during the conversion. On 32-bit platforms, the 64-bit integer is taken modulo 2^{31}, i.e. the top 33 bits are lost during the conversion.

`val of_float : float -> int64`

Convert the given floating-point number to a 64-bit integer, discarding the fractional part (truncate towards 0). The result of the conversion is undefined if, after truncation, the number is outside the range [`Int64.min_int`[21.15], `Int64.max_int`[21.15]].

`val to_float : int64 -> float`

Convert the given 64-bit integer to a floating-point number.

`val of_int32 : int32 -> int64`

Convert the given 32-bit integer (type `int32`) to a 64-bit integer (type `int64`).

`val to_int32 : int64 -> int32`

Convert the given 64-bit integer (type `int64`) to a 32-bit integer (type `int32`). The 64-bit integer is taken modulo 2^{32}, i.e. the top 32 bits are lost during the conversion.

`val of_nativeint : nativeint -> int64`

Convert the given native integer (type `nativeint`) to a 64-bit integer (type `int64`).

`val to_nativeint : int64 -> nativeint`

Convert the given 64-bit integer (type `int64`) to a native integer. On 32-bit platforms, the 64-bit integer is taken modulo 2^{32}. On 64-bit platforms, the conversion is exact.

`val of_string : string -> int64`

Convert the given string to a 64-bit integer. The string is read in decimal (by default) or in hexadecimal, octal or binary if the string begins with `0x`, `0o` or `0b` respectively. Raise `Failure "int_of_string"` if the given string is not a valid representation of an integer, or if the integer represented exceeds the range of integers representable in type `int64`.

`val to_string : int64 -> string`

Return the string representation of its argument, in decimal.

`val bits_of_float : float -> int64`

Return the internal representation of the given float according to the IEEE 754 floating-point 'double format' bit layout. Bit 63 of the result represents the sign of the float; bits 62 to 52 represent the (biased) exponent; bits 51 to 0 represent the mantissa.

`val float_of_bits : int64 -> float`

Return the floating-point number whose internal representation, according to the IEEE 754 floating-point 'double format' bit layout, is the given `int64`.

`type t = int64`

An alias for the type of 64-bit integers.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

The comparison function for 64-bit integers, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `Int64` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

21.16 Module Lazy : Deferred computations.

`type 'a t = 'a lazy_t`

A value of type `'a Lazy.t` is a deferred computation, called a suspension, that has a result of type `'a`. The special expression syntax `lazy (expr)` makes a suspension of the computation of `expr`, without computing `expr` itself yet. "Forcing" the suspension will then compute `expr` and return its result.

Note: `lazy_t` is the built-in type constructor used by the compiler for the `lazy` keyword. You should not use it directly. Always use `Lazy.t` instead.

Note: `Lazy.force` is not thread-safe. If you use this module in a multi-threaded program, you will need to add some locks.

Note: if the program is compiled with the `-rectypes` option, ill-founded recursive definitions of the form `let rec x = lazy x` or `let rec x = lazy(lazy(...(lazy x)))` are accepted by the type-checker and lead, when forced, to ill-formed values that trigger infinite loops in the garbage collector and other parts of the run-time system. Without the `-rectypes` option, such ill-founded recursive definitions are rejected by the type-checker.

`exception Undefined`

`val force : 'a t -> 'a`

`force x` forces the suspension `x` and returns its result. If `x` has already been forced, `Lazy.force x` returns the same value again without recomputing it. If it raised an exception, the same exception is raised again. Raise `Undefined` if the forcing of `x` tries to force `x` itself recursively.

```
val force_val : 'a t -> 'a
```

`force_val x` forces the suspension `x` and returns its result. If `x` has already been forced, `force_val x` returns the same value again without recomputing it. Raise `Undefined` if the forcing of `x` tries to force `x` itself recursively. If the computation of `x` raises an exception, it is unspecified whether `force_val x` raises the same exception or `Undefined`.

```
val from_fun : (unit -> 'a) -> 'a t
```

`from_fun f` is the same as `lazy (f ())` but slightly more efficient.

Since: 4.00.0

```
val from_val : 'a -> 'a t
```

`from_val v` returns an already-forced suspension of `v`. This is for special purposes only and should not be confused with `lazy (v)`.

Since: 4.00.0

```
val is_val : 'a t -> bool
```

`is_val x` returns `true` if `x` has already been forced and did not raise an exception.

Since: 4.00.0

```
val lazy_from_fun : (unit -> 'a) -> 'a t
```

Deprecated. synonym for `from_fun`.

```
val lazy_from_val : 'a -> 'a t
```

Deprecated. synonym for `from_val`.

```
val lazy_is_val : 'a t -> bool
```

Deprecated. synonym for `is_val`.

21.17 Module `Lexing` : The run-time library for lexers generated by `ocamllex`.

Positions

```
type position = {
  pos_fname : string ;
  pos_lnum : int ;
  pos_bol : int ;
  pos_cnum : int ;
}
```

A value of type `position` describes a point in a source file. `pos_fname` is the file name; `pos_lnum` is the line number; `pos_bol` is the offset of the beginning of the line (number of characters between the beginning of the lexbuf and the beginning of the line); `pos_cnum` is the offset of the position (number of characters between the beginning of the lexbuf and the position). The difference between `pos_cnum` and `pos_bol` is the character offset within the line (i.e. the column number, assuming each character is one column wide).

See the documentation of type `lexbuf` for information about how the lexing engine will manage positions.

```
val dummy_pos : position
```

A value of type `position`, guaranteed to be different from any valid position.

Lexer buffers

```
type lexbuf = {
  refill_buff : lexbuf -> unit ;
  mutable lex_buffer : bytes ;
  mutable lex_buffer_len : int ;
  mutable lex_abs_pos : int ;
  mutable lex_start_pos : int ;
  mutable lex_curr_pos : int ;
  mutable lex_last_pos : int ;
  mutable lex_last_action : int ;
  mutable lex_eof_reached : bool ;
  mutable lex_mem : int array ;
  mutable lex_start_p : position ;
  mutable lex_curr_p : position ;
}
```

The type of lexer buffers. A lexer buffer is the argument passed to the scanning functions defined by the generated scanners. The lexer buffer holds the current state of the scanner, plus a function to refill the buffer from the input.

At each token, the lexing engine will copy `lex_curr_p` to `lex_start_p`, then change the `pos_cnum` field of `lex_curr_p` by updating it with the number of characters read since the start of the `lexbuf`. The other fields are left unchanged by the lexing engine. In order to keep them accurate, they must be initialised before the first use of the lexbuf, and updated by the relevant lexer actions (i.e. at each end of line – see also `new_line`).

```
val from_channel : Pervasives.in_channel -> lexbuf
```

Create a lexer buffer on the given input channel. `Lexing.from_channel inchan` returns a lexer buffer which reads from the input channel `inchan`, at the current reading position.

```
val from_string : string -> lexbuf
```

Create a lexer buffer which reads from the given string. Reading starts from the first character in the string. An end-of-input condition is generated when the end of the string is reached.

`val from_function : (bytes -> int -> int) -> lexbuf`

Create a lexer buffer with the given function as its reading method. When the scanner needs more characters, it will call the given function, giving it a byte sequence `s` and a byte count `n`. The function should put `n` bytes or fewer in `s`, starting at index 0, and return the number of bytes provided. A return value of 0 means end of input.

Functions for lexer semantic actions

The following functions can be called from the semantic actions of lexer definitions (the ML code enclosed in braces that computes the value returned by lexing functions). They give access to the character string matched by the regular expression associated with the semantic action. These functions must be applied to the argument `lexbuf`, which, in the code generated by `ocamllex`, is bound to the lexer buffer passed to the parsing function.

`val lexeme : lexbuf -> string`

`Lexing.lexeme lexbuf` returns the string matched by the regular expression.

`val lexeme_char : lexbuf -> int -> char`

`Lexing.lexeme_char lexbuf i` returns character number `i` in the matched string.

`val lexeme_start : lexbuf -> int`

`Lexing.lexeme_start lexbuf` returns the offset in the input stream of the first character of the matched string. The first character of the stream has offset 0.

`val lexeme_end : lexbuf -> int`

`Lexing.lexeme_end lexbuf` returns the offset in the input stream of the character following the last character of the matched string. The first character of the stream has offset 0.

`val lexeme_start_p : lexbuf -> position`

Like `lexeme_start`, but return a complete `position` instead of an offset.

`val lexeme_end_p : lexbuf -> position`

Like `lexeme_end`, but return a complete `position` instead of an offset.

`val new_line : lexbuf -> unit`

Update the `lex_curr_p` field of the lexbuf to reflect the start of a new line. You can call this function in the semantic action of the rule that matches the end-of-line character.

Since: 3.11.0

Miscellaneous functions

`val flush_input : lexbuf -> unit`

Discard the contents of the buffer and reset the current position to 0. The next use of the lexbuf will trigger a refill.

21.18 Module `List` : List operations.

Some functions are flagged as not tail-recursive. A tail-recursive function uses constant stack space, while a non-tail-recursive function uses stack space proportional to the length of its list argument, which can be a problem with very long lists. When the function takes several list arguments, an approximate formula giving stack usage (in some unspecified constant unit) is shown in parentheses.

The above considerations can usually be ignored if your lists are not longer than about 10000 elements.

`val length : 'a list -> int`

Return the length (number of elements) of the given list.

`val hd : 'a list -> 'a`

Return the first element of the given list. Raise `Failure "hd"` if the list is empty.

`val tl : 'a list -> 'a list`

Return the given list without its first element. Raise `Failure "tl"` if the list is empty.

`val nth : 'a list -> int -> 'a`

Return the `n`-th element of the given list. The first element (head of the list) is at position 0. Raise `Failure "nth"` if the list is too short. Raise `Invalid_argument "List.nth"` if `n` is negative.

`val rev : 'a list -> 'a list`

List reversal.

`val append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list`

Catenate two lists. Same function as the infix operator `@`. Not tail-recursive (length of the first argument). The `@` operator is not tail-recursive either.

`val rev_append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list`

`List.rev_append l1 l2` reverses `l1` and concatenates it to `l2`. This is equivalent to `List.rev`[21.18] `l1 @ l2`, but `rev_append` is tail-recursive and more efficient.

`val concat : 'a list list -> 'a list`

Concatenate a list of lists. The elements of the argument are all concatenated together (in the same order) to give the result. Not tail-recursive (length of the argument + length of the longest sub-list).

`val flatten : 'a list list -> 'a list`

Same as `concat`. Not tail-recursive (length of the argument + length of the longest sub-list).

Iterators

`val 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`.

`val iteri : (int -> 'a -> unit) -> 'a list -> unit`

Same as `List.iter`[21.18], but the function is applied to the index of the element as first argument (counting from 0), and the element itself as second argument.

Since: 4.00.0

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

`List.map f [a1; ...; an]` applies function `f` to `a1, ..., an`, and builds the list `[f a1; ...; f an]` with the results returned by `f`. Not tail-recursive.

`val mapi : (int -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list`

Same as `List.map`[21.18], but the function is applied to the index of the element as first argument (counting from 0), and the element itself as second argument. Not tail-recursive.

Since: 4.00.0

`val rev_map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list`

`List.rev_map f l` gives the same result as `List.rev`[21.18] `(List.map`[21.18] `f l)`, but is tail-recursive and more efficient.

`val fold_left : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a`

`List.fold_left f a [b1; ...; bn]` is `f (... (f (f a b1) b2) ...) bn`.

`val fold_right : ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b -> 'b`

`List.fold_right f [a1; ...; an] b` is `f a1 (f a2 (... (f an b) ...))`. Not tail-recursive.

Iterators on two lists

`val iter2 : ('a -> 'b -> unit) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> unit`

`List.iter2 f [a1; ...; an] [b1; ...; bn]` calls in turn `f a1 b1; ...; f an bn`. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the two lists have different lengths.

`val map2 : ('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> 'c list`

`List.map2 f [a1; ...; an] [b1; ...; bn]` is `[f a1 b1; ...; f an bn]`. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the two lists have different lengths. Not tail-recursive.

`val rev_map2 : ('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> 'c list`

List.rev_map2 f l1 l2 gives the same result as List.rev[21.18] (List.map2[21.18] f l1 l2), but is tail-recursive and more efficient.

`val fold_left2 : ('a -> 'b -> 'c -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'c list -> 'a`

List.fold_left2 f a [b1; ...; bn] [c1; ...; cn] is f (... (f (f a b1 c1) b2 c2) ...) bn cn. Raise Invalid_argument if the two lists have different lengths.

`val fold_right2 : ('a -> 'b -> 'c -> 'c) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> 'c -> 'c`

List.fold_right2 f [a1; ...; an] [b1; ...; bn] c is f a1 b1 (f a2 b2 (... (f an bn c) ...)). Raise Invalid_argument if the two lists have different lengths. Not tail-recursive.

List scanning

`val for_all : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool`

for_all p [a1; ...; an] checks if all elements of the list satisfy the predicate p. That is, it returns (p a1) && (p a2) && ... && (p an).

`val exists : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool`

exists p [a1; ...; an] checks if at least one element of the list satisfies the predicate p. That is, it returns (p a1) || (p a2) || ... || (p an).

`val for_all2 : ('a -> 'b -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> bool`

Same as List.for_all[21.18], but for a two-argument predicate. Raise Invalid_argument if the two lists have different lengths.

`val exists2 : ('a -> 'b -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'b list -> bool`

Same as List.exists[21.18], but for a two-argument predicate. Raise Invalid_argument if the two lists have different lengths.

`val mem : 'a -> 'a list -> bool`

mem a l is true if and only if a is equal to an element of l.

`val memq : 'a -> 'a list -> bool`

Same as List.mem[21.18], but uses physical equality instead of structural equality to compare list elements.

List searching

`val find : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a`

`find p l` returns the first element of the list `l` that satisfies the predicate `p`. Raise `Not_found` if there is no value that satisfies `p` in the list `l`.

`val filter : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list`

`filter p l` returns all the elements of the list `l` that satisfy the predicate `p`. The order of the elements in the input list is preserved.

`val find_all : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list`

`find_all` is another name for `List.filter`[21.18].

`val partition : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list * 'a list`

`partition p l` returns a pair of lists `(l1, l2)`, where `l1` is the list of all the elements of `l` that satisfy the predicate `p`, and `l2` is the list of all the elements of `l` that do not satisfy `p`. The order of the elements in the input list is preserved.

Association lists

`val assoc : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> 'b`

`assoc a l` returns the value associated with key `a` in the list of pairs `l`. That is, `assoc a [ ...; (a,b); ...] = b` if `(a,b)` is the leftmost binding of `a` in list `l`. Raise `Not_found` if there is no value associated with `a` in the list `l`.

`val assq : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> 'b`

Same as `List.assoc`[21.18], but uses physical equality instead of structural equality to compare keys.

`val mem_assoc : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> bool`

Same as `List.assoc`[21.18], but simply return true if a binding exists, and false if no bindings exist for the given key.

`val mem_assq : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> bool`

Same as `List.mem_assoc`[21.18], but uses physical equality instead of structural equality to compare keys.

`val remove_assoc : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> ('a * 'b) list`

`remove_assoc a l` returns the list of pairs `l` without the first pair with key `a`, if any. Not tail-recursive.

`val remove_assq : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> ('a * 'b) list`

Same as `List.remove_assoc`[21.18], but uses physical equality instead of structural equality to compare keys. Not tail-recursive.

Lists of pairs

`val split : ('a * 'b) list -> 'a list * 'b list`

Transform a list of pairs into a pair of lists: `split [(a1,b1); ...; (an,bn)]` is `([a1; ...; an], [b1; ...; bn])`. Not tail-recursive.

`val combine : 'a list -> 'b list -> ('a * 'b) list`

Transform a pair of lists into a list of pairs: `combine [a1; ...; an] [b1; ...; bn]` is `[(a1,b1); ...; (an,bn)]`. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the two lists have different lengths. Not tail-recursive.

Sorting

`val sort : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a list -> 'a list`

Sort a list in increasing order according to a comparison function. The comparison function must return 0 if its arguments compare as equal, a positive integer if the first is greater, and a negative integer if the first is smaller (see Array.sort for a complete specification). For example, `Pervasives.compare`[20.2] is a suitable comparison function. The resulting list is sorted in increasing order. `List.sort` is guaranteed to run in constant heap space (in addition to the size of the result list) and logarithmic stack space.

The current implementation uses Merge Sort. It runs in constant heap space and logarithmic stack space.

`val stable_sort : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a list -> 'a list`

Same as `List.sort`[21.18], but the sorting algorithm is guaranteed to be stable (i.e. elements that compare equal are kept in their original order) .

The current implementation uses Merge Sort. It runs in constant heap space and logarithmic stack space.

`val fast_sort : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a list -> 'a list`

Same as `List.sort`[21.18] or `List.stable_sort`[21.18], whichever is faster on typical input.

`val sort_uniq : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a list -> 'a list`

Same as `List.sort`[21.18], but also remove duplicates.

`val merge : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list`

Merge two lists: Assuming that `l1` and `l2` are sorted according to the comparison function `cmp`, `merge cmp l1 l2` will return a sorted list containting all the elements of `l1` and `l2`. If several elements compare equal, the elements of `l1` will be before the elements of `l2`. Not tail-recursive (sum of the lengths of the arguments).

21.19 Module `Map` : Association tables over ordered types.

This module implements applicative association tables, also known as finite maps or dictionaries, given a total ordering function over the keys. All operations over maps are purely applicative (no side-effects). The implementation uses balanced binary trees, and therefore searching and insertion take time logarithmic in the size of the map.

For instance:

```
module IntPairs =
  struct
    type t = int * int
    let compare (x0,y0) (x1,y1) =
      match Pervasives.compare x0 x1 with
          0 -> Pervasives.compare y0 y1
        | c -> c
  end

module PairsMap = Map.Make(IntPairs)

let m = PairsMap.(empty |> add (0,1) "hello" |> add (1,0) "world")
```

This creates a new module `PairsMap`, with a new type `'a PairsMap.t` of maps from `int * int` to `'a`. In this example, `m` contains `string` values so its type is `string PairsMap.t`.

```
module type OrderedType =
  sig
```

```
type t
```

The type of the map keys.

```
val compare : t -> t -> int
```

A total ordering function over the keys. This is a two-argument function `f` such that `f e1 e2` is zero if the keys `e1` and `e2` are equal, `f e1 e2` is strictly negative if `e1` is smaller than `e2`, and `f e1 e2` is strictly positive if `e1` is greater than `e2`. Example: a suitable ordering function is the generic structural comparison function `Pervasives.compare`[20.2].

```
  end
```

Input signature of the functor `Map.Make`[21.19].

```
module type S =
  sig
```

```
type key
```

The type of the map keys.

```
type +'a t
```

The type of maps from type `key` to type `'a`.

```
val empty : 'a t
```

The empty map.

```
val is_empty : 'a t -> bool
```

Test whether a map is empty or not.

```
val mem : key -> 'a t -> bool
```

`mem x m` returns `true` if `m` contains a binding for `x`, and `false` otherwise.

```
val add : key -> 'a -> 'a t -> 'a t
```

`add x y m` returns a map containing the same bindings as `m`, plus a binding of `x` to `y`. If `x` was already bound in `m`, its previous binding disappears.

```
val singleton : key -> 'a -> 'a t
```

`singleton x y` returns the one-element map that contains a binding `y` for `x`.
Since: 3.12.0

```
val remove : key -> 'a t -> 'a t
```

`remove x m` returns a map containing the same bindings as `m`, except for `x` which is unbound in the returned map.

```
val merge :
  (key -> 'a option -> 'b option -> 'c option) ->
  'a t -> 'b t -> 'c t
```

`merge f m1 m2` computes a map whose keys is a subset of keys of `m1` and of `m2`. The presence of each such binding, and the corresponding value, is determined with the function `f`.
Since: 3.12.0

```
val compare : ('a -> 'a -> int) -> 'a t -> 'a t -> int
```

Total ordering between maps. The first argument is a total ordering used to compare data associated with equal keys in the two maps.

```
val equal : ('a -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> 'a t -> bool
```

`equal cmp m1 m2` tests whether the maps `m1` and `m2` are equal, that is, contain equal keys and associate them with equal data. `cmp` is the equality predicate used to compare the data associated with the keys.

`val iter : (key -> 'a -> unit) -> 'a t -> unit`

`iter f m` applies `f` to all bindings in map `m`. `f` receives the key as first argument, and the associated value as second argument. The bindings are passed to `f` in increasing order with respect to the ordering over the type of the keys.

`val fold : (key -> 'a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b -> 'b`

`fold f m a` computes `(f kN dN ... (f k1 d1 a)...)`, where `k1 ... kN` are the keys of all bindings in `m` (in increasing order), and `d1 ... dN` are the associated data.

`val for_all : (key -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> bool`

`for_all p m` checks if all the bindings of the map satisfy the predicate `p`.
Since: 3.12.0

`val exists : (key -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> bool`

`exists p m` checks if at least one binding of the map satisfy the predicate `p`.
Since: 3.12.0

`val filter : (key -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> 'a t`

`filter p m` returns the map with all the bindings in `m` that satisfy predicate `p`.
Since: 3.12.0

`val partition : (key -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> 'a t * 'a t`

`partition p m` returns a pair of maps `(m1, m2)`, where `m1` contains all the bindings of `s` that satisfy the predicate `p`, and `m2` is the map with all the bindings of `s` that do not satisfy `p`.
Since: 3.12.0

`val cardinal : 'a t -> int`

Return the number of bindings of a map.
Since: 3.12.0

`val bindings : 'a t -> (key * 'a) list`

Return the list of all bindings of the given map. The returned list is sorted in increasing order with respect to the ordering `Ord.compare`, where `Ord` is the argument given to `Map.Make`[21.19].
Since: 3.12.0

`val min_binding : 'a t -> key * 'a`

Return the smallest binding of the given map (with respect to the `Ord.compare` ordering), or raise `Not_found` if the map is empty.
Since: 3.12.0

`val max_binding : 'a t -> key * 'a`

Same as `Map.S.min_binding`[21.19], but returns the largest binding of the given map.
Since: 3.12.0

`val choose : 'a t -> key * 'a`

Return one binding of the given map, or raise `Not_found` if the map is empty. Which binding is chosen is unspecified, but equal bindings will be chosen for equal maps.
Since: 3.12.0

`val split : key -> 'a t -> 'a t * 'a option * 'a t`

`split x m` returns a triple `(l, data, r)`, where `l` is the map with all the bindings of `m` whose key is strictly less than `x`; `r` is the map with all the bindings of `m` whose key is strictly greater than `x`; `data` is `None` if `m` contains no binding for `x`, or `Some v` if `m` binds `v` to `x`.
Since: 3.12.0

`val find : key -> 'a t -> 'a`

`find x m` returns the current binding of `x` in `m`, or raises `Not_found` if no such binding exists.

`val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b t`

`map f m` returns a map with same domain as `m`, where the associated value `a` of all bindings of `m` has been replaced by the result of the application of `f` to `a`. The bindings are passed to `f` in increasing order with respect to the ordering over the type of the keys.

`val mapi : (key -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b t`

Same as `Map.S.map`[21.19], but the function receives as arguments both the key and the associated value for each binding of the map.

`end`

Output signature of the functor `Map.Make`[21.19].

```
module Make :
  functor (Ord :  OrderedType) -> S  with type key = Ord.t
```

Functor building an implementation of the map structure given a totally ordered type.

21.20 Module `Marshal` : Marshaling of data structures.

This module provides functions to encode arbitrary data structures as sequences of bytes, which can then be written on a file or sent over a pipe or network connection. The bytes can then be read back later, possibly in another process, and decoded back into a data structure. The format for the byte sequences is compatible across all machines for a given version of OCaml.

Warning: marshaling is currently not type-safe. The type of marshaled data is not transmitted along the value of the data, making it impossible to check that the data read back possesses the type expected by the context. In particular, the result type of the `Marshal.from_*` functions is given as `'a`, but this is misleading: the returned OCaml value does not possess type `'a` for all `'a`; it has one, unique type which cannot be determined at compile-type. The programmer should explicitly give the expected type of the returned value, using the following syntax:

- `(Marshal.from_channel chan : type)`. Anything can happen at run-time if the object in the file does not belong to the given type.

Values of extensible variant types, for example exceptions (of extensible type `exn`), returned by the unmarhsaller should not be pattern-matched over through `match ... with` or `try ... with`, because unmarshalling does not preserve the information required for matching their constructors. Structural equalities with other extensible variant values does not work either. Most other uses such as Printexc.to_string, will still work as expected.

The representation of marshaled values is not human-readable, and uses bytes that are not printable characters. Therefore, input and output channels used in conjunction with `Marshal.to_channel` and `Marshal.from_channel` must be opened in binary mode, using e.g. `open_out_bin` or `open_in_bin`; channels opened in text mode will cause unmarshaling errors on platforms where text channels behave differently than binary channels, e.g. Windows.

```
type extern_flags =
  | No_sharing
```

Don't preserve sharing

```
  | Closures
```

Send function closures

```
  | Compat_32
```

Ensure 32-bit compatibility

The flags to the `Marshal.to_*` functions below.

```
val to_channel : Pervasives.out_channel -> 'a -> extern_flags list -> unit
```

`Marshal.to_channel chan v flags` writes the representation of `v` on channel `chan`. The `flags` argument is a possibly empty list of flags that governs the marshaling behavior with respect to sharing, functional values, and compatibility between 32- and 64-bit platforms.

If `flags` does not contain `Marshal.No_sharing`, circularities and sharing inside the value `v` are detected and preserved in the sequence of bytes produced. In particular, this guarantees that marshaling always terminates. Sharing between values marshaled by successive calls to `Marshal.to_channel` is neither detected nor preserved, though. If `flags` contains

Marshal.No_sharing, sharing is ignored. This results in faster marshaling if v contains no shared substructures, but may cause slower marshaling and larger byte representations if v actually contains sharing, or even non-termination if v contains cycles.

If flags does not contain Marshal.Closures, marshaling fails when it encounters a functional value inside v: only 'pure' data structures, containing neither functions nor objects, can safely be transmitted between different programs. If flags contains Marshal.Closures, functional values will be marshaled as a the position in the code of the program together with the values corresponding to the free variables captured in the closure. In this case, the output of marshaling can only be read back in processes that run exactly the same program, with exactly the same compiled code. (This is checked at un-marshaling time, using an MD5 digest of the code transmitted along with the code position.)

The exact definition of which free variables are captured in a closure is not specified and can very between bytecode and native code (and according to optimization flags). In particular, a function value accessing a global reference may or may not include the reference in its closure. If it does, unmarshaling the corresponding closure will create a new reference, different from the global one.

If flags contains Marshal.Compat_32, marshaling fails when it encounters an integer value outside the range [-2{^30}, 2{^30}-1] of integers that are representable on a 32-bit platform. This ensures that marshaled data generated on a 64-bit platform can be safely read back on a 32-bit platform. If flags does not contain Marshal.Compat_32, integer values outside the range [-2{^30}, 2{^30}-1] are marshaled, and can be read back on a 64-bit platform, but will cause an error at un-marshaling time when read back on a 32-bit platform. The Mashal.Compat_32 flag only matters when marshaling is performed on a 64-bit platform; it has no effect if marshaling is performed on a 32-bit platform.

```
val to_bytes : 'a -> extern_flags list -> bytes
```

Marshal.to_bytes v flags returns a byte sequence containing the representation of v. The flags argument has the same meaning as for Marshal.to_channel[21.20].

```
val to_string : 'a -> extern_flags list -> string
```

Same as to_bytes but return the result as a string instead of a byte sequence.

```
val to_buffer : bytes -> int -> int -> 'a -> extern_flags list -> int
```

Marshal.to_buffer buff ofs len v flags marshals the value v, storing its byte representation in the sequence buff, starting at index ofs, and writing at most len bytes. It returns the number of bytes actually written to the sequence. If the byte representation of v does not fit in len characters, the exception Failure is raised.

```
val from_channel : Pervasives.in_channel -> 'a
```

Marshal.from_channel chan reads from channel chan the byte representation of a structured value, as produced by one of the Marshal.to_* functions, and reconstructs and returns the corresponding value.

```
val from_bytes : bytes -> int -> 'a
```

`Marshal.from_bytes buff ofs` unmarshals a structured value like `Marshal.from_channel`[21.20] does, except that the byte representation is not read from a channel, but taken from the byte sequence `buff`, starting at position `ofs`. The byte sequence is not mutated.

```
val from_string : string -> int -> 'a
```

Same as `from_bytes` but take a string as argument instead of a byte sequence.

```
val header_size : int
```

The bytes representing a marshaled value are composed of a fixed-size header and a variable-sized data part, whose size can be determined from the header. `Marshal.header_size`[21.20] is the size, in bytes, of the header. `Marshal.data_size`[21.20] `buff ofs` is the size, in bytes, of the data part, assuming a valid header is stored in `buff` starting at position `ofs`. Finally, `Marshal.total_size`[21.20] `buff ofs` is the total size, in bytes, of the marshaled value. Both `Marshal.data_size`[21.20] and `Marshal.total_size`[21.20] raise `Failure` if `buff`, `ofs` does not contain a valid header.

To read the byte representation of a marshaled value into a byte sequence, the program needs to read first `Marshal.header_size`[21.20] bytes into the sequence, then determine the length of the remainder of the representation using `Marshal.data_size`[21.20], make sure the sequence is large enough to hold the remaining data, then read it, and finally call `Marshal.from_bytes`[21.20] to unmarshal the value.

```
val data_size : bytes -> int -> int
```

See `Marshal.header_size`[21.20].

```
val total_size : bytes -> int -> int
```

See `Marshal.header_size`[21.20].

21.21 Module `MoreLabels` : Extra labeled libraries.

This meta-module provides labelized version of the `Hashtbl`[21.13], `Map`[21.19] and `Set`[21.30] modules.

They only differ by their labels. They are provided to help porting from previous versions of OCaml. The contents of this module are subject to change.

```
module Hashtbl :
  sig
    type ('a, 'b) t = ('a, 'b) Hashtbl.t
    val create : ?random:bool -> int -> ('a, 'b) t
    val clear : ('a, 'b) t -> unit
    val reset : ('a, 'b) t -> unit
    val copy : ('a, 'b) t -> ('a, 'b) t
```

```
val add : ('a, 'b) t -> key:'a -> data:'b -> unit
val find : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b
val find_all : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> 'b list
val mem : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> bool
val remove : ('a, 'b) t -> 'a -> unit
val replace : ('a, 'b) t -> key:'a -> data:'b -> unit
val iter : f:(key:'a -> data:'b -> unit) -> ('a, 'b) t -> unit
val fold : f:(key:'a -> data:'b -> 'c -> 'c) ->
  ('a, 'b) t -> init:'c -> 'c
val length : ('a, 'b) t -> int
val randomize : unit -> unit
type statistics = Hashtbl.statistics
val stats : ('a, 'b) t -> statistics
module type HashedType =
Hashtbl.HashedType
module type SeededHashedType =
Hashtbl.SeededHashedType
module type S =
  sig
    type key
    type 'a t
    val create : int -> 'a t
    val clear : 'a t -> unit
    val reset : 'a t -> unit
    val copy : 'a t -> 'a t
    val add : 'a t -> key:key -> data:'a -> unit
    val remove : 'a t -> key -> unit
    val find : 'a t -> key -> 'a
    val find_all : 'a t -> key -> 'a list
    val replace : 'a t -> key:key -> data:'a -> unit
    val mem : 'a t -> key -> bool
    val iter : f:(key:key -> data:'a -> unit) ->
      'a t -> unit
    val fold : f:(key:key -> data:'a -> 'b -> 'b) ->
      'a t -> init:'b -> 'b
    val length : 'a t -> int
    val stats : 'a t -> MoreLabels.Hashtbl.statistics
```

```
    end

  module type SeededS =
    sig
      type key
      type 'a t
      val create : ?random:bool -> int -> 'a t
      val clear : 'a t -> unit
      val reset : 'a t -> unit
      val copy : 'a t -> 'a t
      val add : 'a t ->
        key:key -> data:'a -> unit
      val remove : 'a t -> key -> unit
      val find : 'a t -> key -> 'a
      val find_all : 'a t -> key -> 'a list
      val replace : 'a t ->
        key:key -> data:'a -> unit
      val mem : 'a t -> key -> bool
      val iter : f:(key:key -> data:'a -> unit) ->
        'a t -> unit
      val fold : f:(key:key -> data:'a -> 'b -> 'b) ->
        'a t -> init:'b -> 'b
      val length : 'a t -> int
      val stats : 'a t -> MoreLabels.Hashtbl.statistics
    end

  module Make :
  functor (H : HashedType) -> S  with type key = H.t
  module MakeSeeded :
  functor (H : SeededHashedType) -> SeededS  with type key = H.t
  val hash : 'a -> int
  val seeded_hash : int -> 'a -> int
  val hash_param : int -> int -> 'a -> int
  val seeded_hash_param : int -> int -> int -> 'a -> int
end

module Map :
  sig
```

```
module type OrderedType =
Map.OrderedType
module type S =
  sig
    type key
    type +'a t
    val empty : 'a t
    val is_empty : 'a t -> bool
    val mem : key -> 'a t -> bool
    val add : key:key ->
      data:'a -> 'a t -> 'a t
    val singleton : key -> 'a -> 'a t
    val remove : key -> 'a t -> 'a t
    val merge :
      f:(key -> 'a option -> 'b option -> 'c option) ->
      'a t -> 'b t -> 'c t
    val compare : cmp:('a -> 'a -> int) ->
      'a t -> 'a t -> int
    val equal : cmp:('a -> 'a -> bool) ->
      'a t -> 'a t -> bool
    val iter : f:(key:key -> data:'a -> unit) ->
      'a t -> unit
    val fold : f:(key:key -> data:'a -> 'b -> 'b) ->
      'a t -> init:'b -> 'b
    val for_all : f:(key -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> bool
    val exists : f:(key -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a t -> bool
    val filter : f:(key -> 'a -> bool) ->
      'a t -> 'a t
    val partition : f:(key -> 'a -> bool) ->
      'a t -> 'a t * 'a t
    val cardinal : 'a t -> int
    val bindings : 'a t -> (key * 'a) list
    val min_binding : 'a t -> key * 'a
    val max_binding : 'a t -> key * 'a
    val choose : 'a t -> key * 'a
    val split : key ->
      'a t ->
      'a t * 'a option * 'a t
    val find : key -> 'a t -> 'a
```

```
        val map : f:('a -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b t
        val mapi : f:(key -> 'a -> 'b) ->
          'a t -> 'b t
      end

    module Make :
    functor (Ord :  OrderedType) -> S  with type key = Ord.t
  end

module Set :
  sig
    module type OrderedType =
    Set.OrderedType
    module type S =
      sig
        type elt
        type t
        val empty : t
        val is_empty : t -> bool
        val mem : elt -> t -> bool
        val add : elt -> t -> t
        val singleton : elt -> t
        val remove : elt -> t -> t
        val union : t -> t -> t
        val inter : t -> t -> t
        val diff : t -> t -> t
        val compare : t -> t -> int
        val equal : t -> t -> bool
        val subset : t -> t -> bool
        val iter : f:(elt -> unit) -> t -> unit
        val fold : f:(elt -> 'a -> 'a) -> t -> init:'a -> 'a
        val for_all : f:(elt -> bool) -> t -> bool
        val exists : f:(elt -> bool) -> t -> bool
        val filter : f:(elt -> bool) -> t -> t
        val partition : f:(elt -> bool) ->
          t -> t * t
        val cardinal : t -> int
        val elements : t -> elt list
```

```
        val min_elt : t -> elt
        val max_elt : t -> elt
        val choose : t -> elt
        val split : elt ->
          t -> t * bool * t
        val find : elt -> t -> elt
        val of_list : elt list -> t
      end

    module Make :
    functor (Ord :  OrderedType) -> S  with type elt = Ord.t
  end
```

21.22 Module `Nativeint` : Processor-native integers.

This module provides operations on the type **`nativeint`** of signed 32-bit integers (on 32-bit platforms) or signed 64-bit integers (on 64-bit platforms). This integer type has exactly the same width as that of a pointer type in the C compiler. All arithmetic operations over **`nativeint`** are taken modulo 2^{32} or 2^{64} depending on the word size of the architecture.

Performance notice: values of type **`nativeint`** occupy more memory space than values of type **`int`**, and arithmetic operations on **`nativeint`** are generally slower than those on **`int`**. Use **`nativeint`** only when the application requires the extra bit of precision over the **`int`** type.

`val zero : nativeint`

The native integer 0.

`val one : nativeint`

The native integer 1.

`val minus_one : nativeint`

The native integer -1.

`val neg : nativeint -> nativeint`

Unary negation.

`val add : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Addition.

`val sub : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Subtraction.

`val mul : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Multiplication.

`val div : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Integer division. Raise `Division_by_zero` if the second argument is zero. This division rounds the real quotient of its arguments towards zero, as specified for `Pervasives.(/)`[20.2].

`val rem : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Integer remainder. If `y` is not zero, the result of `Nativeint.rem x y` satisfies the following properties: `Nativeint.zero <= Nativeint.rem x y < Nativeint.abs y` and `x = Nativeint.add (Nativeint.mul (Nativeint.div x y) y) (Nativeint.rem x y)`. If `y = 0`, `Nativeint.rem x y` raises `Division_by_zero`.

`val succ : nativeint -> nativeint`

Successor. `Nativeint.succ x` is `Nativeint.add x Nativeint.one`.

`val pred : nativeint -> nativeint`

Predecessor. `Nativeint.pred x` is `Nativeint.sub x Nativeint.one`.

`val abs : nativeint -> nativeint`

Return the absolute value of its argument.

`val size : int`

The size in bits of a native integer. This is equal to `32` on a 32-bit platform and to `64` on a 64-bit platform.

`val max_int : nativeint`

The greatest representable native integer, either 2^{31} - 1 on a 32-bit platform, or 2^{63} - 1 on a 64-bit platform.

`val min_int : nativeint`

The greatest representable native integer, either -2^{31} on a 32-bit platform, or -2^{63} on a 64-bit platform.

`val logand : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Bitwise logical and.

`val logor : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Bitwise logical or.

`val logxor : nativeint -> nativeint -> nativeint`

Bitwise logical exclusive or.

`val lognot : nativeint -> nativeint`

Bitwise logical negation

`val shift_left : nativeint -> int -> nativeint`

`Nativeint.shift_left x y` shifts `x` to the left by `y` bits. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= bitsize`, where `bitsize` is `32` on a 32-bit platform and `64` on a 64-bit platform.

`val shift_right : nativeint -> int -> nativeint`

`Nativeint.shift_right x y` shifts `x` to the right by `y` bits. This is an arithmetic shift: the sign bit of `x` is replicated and inserted in the vacated bits. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= bitsize`.

`val shift_right_logical : nativeint -> int -> nativeint`

`Nativeint.shift_right_logical x y` shifts `x` to the right by `y` bits. This is a logical shift: zeroes are inserted in the vacated bits regardless of the sign of `x`. The result is unspecified if `y < 0` or `y >= bitsize`.

`val of_int : int -> nativeint`

Convert the given integer (type `int`) to a native integer (type `nativeint`).

`val to_int : nativeint -> int`

Convert the given native integer (type `nativeint`) to an integer (type `int`). The high-order bit is lost during the conversion.

`val of_float : float -> nativeint`

Convert the given floating-point number to a native integer, discarding the fractional part (truncate towards 0). The result of the conversion is undefined if, after truncation, the number is outside the range [`Nativeint.min_int`[21.22], `Nativeint.max_int`[21.22]].

`val to_float : nativeint -> float`

Convert the given native integer to a floating-point number.

`val of_int32 : int32 -> nativeint`

Convert the given 32-bit integer (type `int32`) to a native integer.

`val to_int32 : nativeint -> int32`

Convert the given native integer to a 32-bit integer (type `int32`). On 64-bit platforms, the 64-bit native integer is taken modulo 2^{32}, i.e. the top 32 bits are lost. On 32-bit platforms, the conversion is exact.

`val of_string : string -> nativeint`

Convert the given string to a native integer. The string is read in decimal (by default) or in hexadecimal, octal or binary if the string begins with `0x`, `0o` or `0b` respectively. Raise `Failure "int_of_string"` if the given string is not a valid representation of an integer, or if the integer represented exceeds the range of integers representable in type `nativeint`.

`val to_string : nativeint -> string`

Return the string representation of its argument, in decimal.

`type t = nativeint`

An alias for the type of native integers.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

The comparison function for native integers, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `Nativeint` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

21.23 Module `Oo` : Operations on objects

`val copy : (< .. > as 'a) -> 'a`

`Oo.copy o` returns a copy of object `o`, that is a fresh object with the same methods and instance variables as `o`.

`val id : < .. > -> int`

Return an integer identifying this object, unique for the current execution of the program. The generic comparison and hashing functions are based on this integer. When an object is obtained by unmarshaling, the id is refreshed, and thus different from the original object. As a consequence, the internal invariants of data structures such as hash table or sets containing objects are broken after unmarshaling the data structures.

21.24 Module `Parsing` : The run-time library for parsers generated by `ocamlyacc`.

`val symbol_start : unit -> int`

`symbol_start` and `Parsing.symbol_end`[21.24] are to be called in the action part of a grammar rule only. They return the offset of the string that matches the left-hand side of the rule: `symbol_start()` returns the offset of the first character; `symbol_end()` returns the offset after the last character. The first character in a file is at offset 0.

`val symbol_end : unit -> int`

See `Parsing.symbol_start`[21.24].

`val rhs_start : int -> int`

Same as `Parsing.symbol_start`[21.24] and `Parsing.symbol_end`[21.24], but return the offset of the string matching the `n`th item on the right-hand side of the rule, where `n` is the integer parameter to `rhs_start` and `rhs_end`. `n` is 1 for the leftmost item.

`val rhs_end : int -> int`

See `Parsing.rhs_start`[21.24].

`val symbol_start_pos : unit -> Lexing.position`

Same as `symbol_start`, but return a `position` instead of an offset.

`val symbol_end_pos : unit -> Lexing.position`

Same as `symbol_end`, but return a `position` instead of an offset.

`val rhs_start_pos : int -> Lexing.position`

Same as `rhs_start`, but return a `position` instead of an offset.

`val rhs_end_pos : int -> Lexing.position`

Same as `rhs_end`, but return a `position` instead of an offset.

`val clear_parser : unit -> unit`

Empty the parser stack. Call it just after a parsing function has returned, to remove all pointers from the parser stack to structures that were built by semantic actions during parsing. This is optional, but lowers the memory requirements of the programs.

`exception Parse_error`

Raised when a parser encounters a syntax error. Can also be raised from the action part of a grammar rule, to initiate error recovery.

`val set_trace : bool -> bool`

Control debugging support for `ocamlyacc`-generated parsers. After `Parsing.set_trace true`, the pushdown automaton that executes the parsers prints a trace of its actions (reading a token, shifting a state, reducing by a rule) on standard output. `Parsing.set_trace false` turns this debugging trace off. The boolean returned is the previous state of the trace flag.

Since: 3.11.0

21.25 Module `Printexc` : Facilities for printing exceptions and inspecting current call stack.

`val to_string : exn -> string`

`Printexc.to_string e` returns a string representation of the exception `e`.

`val print : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b`

`Printexc.print fn x` applies `fn` to `x` and returns the result. If the evaluation of `fn x` raises any exception, the name of the exception is printed on standard error output, and the exception is raised again. The typical use is to catch and report exceptions that escape a function application.

`val catch : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b`

`Printexc.catch fn x` is similar to `Printexc.print`[21.25], but aborts the program with exit code 2 after printing the uncaught exception. This function is deprecated: the runtime system is now able to print uncaught exceptions as precisely as `Printexc.catch` does. Moreover, calling `Printexc.catch` makes it harder to track the location of the exception using the debugger or the stack backtrace facility. So, do not use `Printexc.catch` in new code.

`val print_backtrace : Pervasives.out_channel -> unit`

`Printexc.print_backtrace oc` prints an exception backtrace on the output channel `oc`. The backtrace lists the program locations where the most-recently raised exception was raised and where it was propagated through function calls.

Since: 3.11.0

`val get_backtrace : unit -> string`

`Printexc.get_backtrace ()` returns a string containing the same exception backtrace that `Printexc.print_backtrace` would print.

Since: 3.11.0

`val record_backtrace : bool -> unit`

`Printexc.record_backtrace b` turns recording of exception backtraces on (if `b = true`) or off (if `b = false`). Initially, backtraces are not recorded, unless the `b` flag is given to the program through the `OCAMLRUNPARAM` variable.

Since: 3.11.0

`val backtrace_status : unit -> bool`

`Printexc.backtrace_status()` returns `true` if exception backtraces are currently recorded, `false` if not.

Since: 3.11.0

`val register_printer : (exn -> string option) -> unit`

`Printexc.register_printer fn` registers `fn` as an exception printer. The printer should return `None` or raise an exception if it does not know how to convert the passed exception, and `Some s` with `s` the resulting string if it can convert the passed exception. Exceptions raised by the printer are ignored.

When converting an exception into a string, the printers will be invoked in the reverse order of their registrations, until a printer returns a `Some s` value (if no such printer exists, the runtime will use a generic printer).

When using this mechanism, one should be aware that an exception backtrace is attached to the thread that saw it raised, rather than to the exception itself. Practically, it means that the code related to `fn` should not use the backtrace if it has itself raised an exception before.

Since: 3.11.2

Raw backtraces

`type raw_backtrace`

The abstract type `raw_backtrace` stores a backtrace in a low-level format, instead of directly exposing them as string as the `get_backtrace()` function does.

This allows delaying the formatting of backtraces to when they are actually printed, which may be useful if you record more backtraces than you print.

Raw backtraces cannot be marshalled. If you need marshalling, you should use the array returned by the `backtrace_slots` function of the next section.

Since: 4.01.0

`val get_raw_backtrace : unit -> raw_backtrace`

`Printexc.get_raw_backtrace ()` returns the same exception backtrace that `Printexc.print_backtrace` would print, but in a raw format.

Since: 4.01.0

`val print_raw_backtrace : Pervasives.out_channel -> raw_backtrace -> unit`

Print a raw backtrace in the same format `Printexc.print_backtrace` uses.

Since: 4.01.0

`val raw_backtrace_to_string : raw_backtrace -> string`

Return a string from a raw backtrace, in the same format `Printexc.get_backtrace` uses.

Since: 4.01.0

Current call stack

`val get_callstack : int -> raw_backtrace`

`Printexc.get_callstack n` returns a description of the top of the call stack on the current program point (for the current thread), with at most `n` entries. (Note: this function is not related to exceptions at all, despite being part of the `Printexc` module.)

Since: 4.01.0

Uncaught exceptions

`val set_uncaught_exception_handler : (exn -> raw_backtrace -> unit) -> unit`

`Printexc.set_uncaught_exception_handler fn` registers `fn` as the handler for uncaught exceptions. The default handler prints the exception and backtrace on standard error output.

Note that when `fn` is called all the functions registered with `Pervasives.at_exit`[20.2] have already been called. Because of this you must make sure any output channel `fn` writes on is flushed.

If `fn` raises an exception, it is ignored.

Since: 4.02.0

Manipulation of backtrace information

Those function allow to traverse the slots of a raw backtrace, extract information from them in a programmer-friendly format.

```
type backtrace_slot
```

The abstract type `backtrace_slot` represents a single slot of a backtrace.

Since: 4.02

```
val backtrace_slots : raw_backtrace -> backtrace_slot array option
```

Returns the slots of a raw backtrace, or `None` if none of them contain useful information.

In the return array, the slot at index `0` corresponds to the most recent function call, raise, or primitive `get_backtrace` call in the trace.

Some possible reasons for returning `None` are as follow:

- none of the slots in the trace come from modules compiled with debug information (`-g`)
- the program is a bytecode program that has not been linked with debug information enabled (`ocamlc -g`)

```
type location = {
  filename : string ;
  line_number : int ;
  start_char : int ;
  end_char : int ;
}
```

The type of location information found in backtraces. `start_char` and `end_char` are positions relative to the beginning of the line.

Since: 4.02

```
module Slot :
  sig
```

```
type t = Printexc.backtrace_slot
```

```
val is_raise : t -> bool
```

`is_raise slot` is `true` when `slot` refers to a raising point in the code, and `false` when it comes from a simple function call.

Since: 4.02

```
val location : t -> Printexc.location option
```

`location slot` returns the location information of the slot, if available, and `None` otherwise.

Some possible reasons for failing to return a location are as follow:

- the slot corresponds to a compiler-inserted raise
- the slot corresponds to a part of the program that has not been compiled with debug information (`-g`)

Since: 4.02

```
val format : int -> t -> string option
```

`format pos slot` returns the string representation of `slot` as `raw_backtrace_to_string` would format it, assuming it is the `pos`-th element of the backtrace: the `0`-th element is pretty-printed differently than the others.

Whole-backtrace printing functions also skip some uninformative slots; in that case, `format pos slot` returns `None`.

Since: 4.02

```
end
```

Raw backtrace slots

```
type raw_backtrace_slot
```

This type allows direct access to raw backtrace slots, without any conversion in an OCaml-usable data-structure. Being process-specific, they must absolutely not be marshalled, and are unsafe to use for this reason (marshalling them may not fail, but un-marshalling and using the result will result in undefined behavior).

Elements of this type can still be compared and hashed: when two elements are equal, then they represent the same source location (the converse is not necessarily true in presence of inlining, for example).

```
val raw_backtrace_length : raw_backtrace -> int
```

`raw_backtrace_length bckt` returns the number of slots in the backtrace `bckt`.

Since: 4.02

```
val get_raw_backtrace_slot : raw_backtrace -> int -> raw_backtrace_slot
```

`get_slot bckt pos` returns the slot in position `pos` in the backtrace `bckt`.

Since: 4.02

```
val convert_raw_backtrace_slot : raw_backtrace_slot -> backtrace_slot
```

Extracts the user-friendly `backtrace_slot` from a low-level `raw_backtrace_slot`.

Since: 4.02

Exception slots

```
val exn_slot_id : exn -> int
```

`Printexc.exn_slot_id` returns an integer which uniquely identifies the constructor used to create the exception value `exn` (in the current runtime).

Since: 4.02.0

```
val exn_slot_name : exn -> string
```

`Printexc.exn_slot_id exn` returns the internal name of the constructor used to create the exception value `exn`.

Since: 4.02.0

21.26 Module `Printf` : Formatted output functions.

```
val fprintf :
  Pervasives.out_channel ->
  ('a, Pervasives.out_channel, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

`fprintf outchan format arg1 ... argN` formats the arguments `arg1` to `argN` according to the format string `format`, and outputs the resulting string on the channel `outchan`.

The format string is a character string which contains two types of objects: plain characters, which are simply copied to the output channel, and conversion specifications, each of which causes conversion and printing of arguments.

Conversion specifications have the following form:

`% [flags] [width] [.precision] type`

In short, a conversion specification consists in the `%` character, followed by optional modifiers and a type which is made of one or two characters.

The types and their meanings are:

- `d`, `i`: convert an integer argument to signed decimal.
- `u`, `n`, `l`, `L`, or `N`: convert an integer argument to unsigned decimal. Warning: `n`, `l`, `L`, and `N` are used for `scanf`, and should not be used for `printf`.
- `x`: convert an integer argument to unsigned hexadecimal, using lowercase letters.
- `X`: convert an integer argument to unsigned hexadecimal, using uppercase letters.
- `o`: convert an integer argument to unsigned octal.
- `s`: insert a string argument.
- `S`: convert a string argument to OCaml syntax (double quotes, escapes).
- `c`: insert a character argument.
- `C`: convert a character argument to OCaml syntax (single quotes, escapes).

- `f`: convert a floating-point argument to decimal notation, in the style `dddd.ddd`.
- `F`: convert a floating-point argument to OCaml syntax (`dddd.` or `dddd.ddd` or `d.ddd e+-dd`).
- `e` or `E`: convert a floating-point argument to decimal notation, in the style `d.ddd e+-dd` (mantissa and exponent).
- `g` or `G`: convert a floating-point argument to decimal notation, in style `f` or `e`, `E` (whichever is more compact).
- `B`: convert a boolean argument to the string `true` or `false`
- `b`: convert a boolean argument (deprecated; do not use in new programs).
- `ld`, `li`, `lu`, `lx`, `lX`, `lo`: convert an `int32` argument to the format specified by the second letter (decimal, hexadecimal, etc).
- `nd`, `ni`, `nu`, `nx`, `nX`, `no`: convert a `nativeint` argument to the format specified by the second letter.
- `Ld`, `Li`, `Lu`, `Lx`, `LX`, `Lo`: convert an `int64` argument to the format specified by the second letter.
- `a`: user-defined printer. Take two arguments and apply the first one to `outchan` (the current output channel) and to the second argument. The first argument must therefore have type `out_channel -> 'b -> unit` and the second `'b`. The output produced by the function is inserted in the output of `fprintf` at the current point.
- `t`: same as `%a`, but take only one argument (with type `out_channel -> unit`) and apply it to `outchan`.
- `{ fmt %}`: convert a format string argument to its type digest. The argument must have the same type as the internal format string `fmt`.
- `( fmt %)`: format string substitution. Take a format string argument and substitute it to the internal format string `fmt` to print following arguments. The argument must have the same type as the internal format string `fmt`.
- `!`: take no argument and flush the output.
- `%`: take no argument and output one `%` character.
- `@`: take no argument and output one `@` character.
- `,`: take no argument and output nothing: a no-op delimiter for conversion specifications.

The optional `flags` are:

- `-`: left-justify the output (default is right justification).
- `0`: for numerical conversions, pad with zeroes instead of spaces.
- `+`: for signed numerical conversions, prefix number with a `+` sign if positive.
- space: for signed numerical conversions, prefix number with a space if positive.
- `#`: request an alternate formatting style for numbers.

The optional `width` is an integer indicating the minimal width of the result. For instance, `%6d` prints an integer, prefixing it with spaces to fill at least 6 characters.

The optional `precision` is a dot `.` followed by an integer indicating how many digits follow the decimal point in the `%f`, `%e`, and `%E` conversions. For instance, `%.4f` prints a `float` with 4 fractional digits.

The integer in a `width` or `precision` can also be specified as `*`, in which case an extra integer argument is taken to specify the corresponding `width` or `precision`. This integer argument precedes immediately the argument to print. For instance, `%.*f` prints a `float` with as many fractional digits as the value of the argument given before the float.

```
val printf : ('a, Pervasives.out_channel, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as `Printf.fprintf`[21.26], but output on `stdout`.

```
val eprintf : ('a, Pervasives.out_channel, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as `Printf.fprintf`[21.26], but output on `stderr`.

```
val sprintf : ('a, unit, string) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as `Printf.fprintf`[21.26], but instead of printing on an output channel, return a string containing the result of formatting the arguments.

```
val bprintf : Buffer.t -> ('a, Buffer.t, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'a
```

Same as `Printf.fprintf`[21.26], but instead of printing on an output channel, append the formatted arguments to the given extensible buffer (see module `Buffer`[21.3]).

```
val ifprintf : 'a -> ('b, 'a, unit) Pervasives.format -> 'b
```

Same as `Printf.fprintf`[21.26], but does not print anything. Useful to ignore some material when conditionally printing.

Since: 3.10.0

Formatted output functions with continuations.

```
val kfprintf :
  (Pervasives.out_channel -> 'a) ->
  Pervasives.out_channel ->
  ('b, Pervasives.out_channel, unit, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `fprintf`, but instead of returning immediately, passes the out channel to its first argument at the end of printing.

Since: 3.09.0

```
val ikfprintf :
  (Pervasives.out_channel -> 'a) ->
  Pervasives.out_channel ->
  ('b, Pervasives.out_channel, unit, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `kfprintf` above, but does not print anything. Useful to ignore some material when conditionally printing.

Since: 4.0

```
val ksprintf :
  (string -> 'a) -> ('b, unit, string, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `sprintf` above, but instead of returning the string, passes it to the first argument.

Since: 3.09.0

```
val kbprintf :
  (Buffer.t -> 'a) ->
  Buffer.t -> ('b, Buffer.t, unit, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

Same as `bprintf`, but instead of returning immediately, passes the buffer to its first argument at the end of printing.

Since: 3.10.0

Deprecated

```
val kprintf :
  (string -> 'a) -> ('b, unit, string, 'a) Pervasives.format4 -> 'b
```

A deprecated synonym for `ksprintf`.

21.27 Module `Queue` : First-in first-out queues.

This module implements queues (FIFOs), with in-place modification.

Warning This module is not thread-safe: each `Queue.t`[21.27] value must be protected from concurrent access (e.g. with a `Mutex.t`). Failure to do so can lead to a crash.

```
type 'a t
```

The type of queues containing elements of type `'a`.

```
exception Empty
```

Raised when `Queue.take`[21.27] or `Queue.peek`[21.27] is applied to an empty queue.

```
val create : unit -> 'a t
```

Return a new queue, initially empty.

```
val add : 'a -> 'a t -> unit
```

`add x q` adds the element `x` at the end of the queue `q`.

```
val push : 'a -> 'a t -> unit
```

`push` is a synonym for `add`.

```
val take : 'a t -> 'a
```

`take q` removes and returns the first element in queue `q`, or raises `Empty` if the queue is empty.

`val pop : 'a t -> 'a`

`pop` is a synonym for `take`.

`val peek : 'a t -> 'a`

`peek q` returns the first element in queue `q`, without removing it from the queue, or raises `Empty` if the queue is empty.

`val top : 'a t -> 'a`

`top` is a synonym for `peek`.

`val clear : 'a t -> unit`

Discard all elements from a queue.

`val copy : 'a t -> 'a t`

Return a copy of the given queue.

`val is_empty : 'a t -> bool`

Return `true` if the given queue is empty, `false` otherwise.

`val length : 'a t -> int`

Return the number of elements in a queue.

`val iter : ('a -> unit) -> 'a t -> unit`

`iter f q` applies `f` in turn to all elements of `q`, from the least recently entered to the most recently entered. The queue itself is unchanged.

`val fold : ('b -> 'a -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'a t -> 'b`

`fold f accu q` is equivalent to `List.fold_left f accu l`, where `l` is the list of `q`'s elements. The queue remains unchanged.

`val transfer : 'a t -> 'a t -> unit`

`transfer q1 q2` adds all of `q1`'s elements at the end of the queue `q2`, then clears `q1`. It is equivalent to the sequence `iter (fun x -> add x q2) q1; clear q1`, but runs in constant time.

21.28 Module `Random` : Pseudo-random number generators (PRNG).

Basic functions

`val init : int -> unit`

Initialize the generator, using the argument as a seed. The same seed will always yield the same sequence of numbers.

`val full_init : int array -> unit`

Same as `Random.init`[21.28] but takes more data as seed.

`val self_init : unit -> unit`

Initialize the generator with a random seed chosen in a system-dependent way. If `/dev/urandom` is available on the host machine, it is used to provide a highly random initial seed. Otherwise, a less random seed is computed from system parameters (current time, process IDs).

`val bits : unit -> int`

Return 30 random bits in a nonnegative integer.

Before 3.12.0 used a different algorithm (affects all the following functions)

`val int : int -> int`

`Random.int bound` returns a random integer between 0 (inclusive) and `bound` (exclusive). `bound` must be greater than 0 and less than 2^{30}.

`val int32 : Int32.t -> Int32.t`

`Random.int32 bound` returns a random integer between 0 (inclusive) and `bound` (exclusive). `bound` must be greater than 0.

`val nativeint : Nativeint.t -> Nativeint.t`

`Random.nativeint bound` returns a random integer between 0 (inclusive) and `bound` (exclusive). `bound` must be greater than 0.

`val int64 : Int64.t -> Int64.t`

`Random.int64 bound` returns a random integer between 0 (inclusive) and `bound` (exclusive). `bound` must be greater than 0.

`val float : float -> float`

`Random.float bound` returns a random floating-point number between 0 and `bound` (inclusive). If `bound` is negative, the result is negative or zero. If `bound` is 0, the result is 0.

`val bool : unit -> bool`

`Random.bool ()` returns `true` or `false` with probability 0.5 each.

Advanced functions

The functions from module `State` manipulate the current state of the random generator explicitly. This allows using one or several deterministic PRNGs, even in a multi-threaded program, without interference from other parts of the program.

```
module State :
  sig
```

```
type t
```

The type of PRNG states.

```
val make : int array -> t
```

Create a new state and initialize it with the given seed.

```
val make_self_init : unit -> t
```

Create a new state and initialize it with a system-dependent low-entropy seed.

```
val copy : t -> t
```

Return a copy of the given state.

```
val bits : t -> int
val int : t -> int -> int
val int32 : t -> Int32.t -> Int32.t
val nativeint : t -> Nativeint.t -> Nativeint.t
val int64 : t -> Int64.t -> Int64.t
val float : t -> float -> float
val bool : t -> bool
```

These functions are the same as the basic functions, except that they use (and update) the given PRNG state instead of the default one.

```
  end
```

```
val get_state : unit -> State.t
```

Return the current state of the generator used by the basic functions.

```
val set_state : State.t -> unit
```

Set the state of the generator used by the basic functions.

21.29 Module `Scanf` : Formatted input functions.

Introduction

Functional input with format strings

The module `Scanf` provides formatted input functions or *scanners*.

The formatted input functions can read from any kind of input, including strings, files, or anything that can return characters. The more general source of characters is named a *formatted input channel* (or *scanning buffer*) and has type `Scanf.Scanning.in_channel`[21.29]. The more general formatted input function reads from any scanning buffer and is named `bscanf`.

Generally speaking, the formatted input functions have 3 arguments:

- the first argument is a source of characters for the input,
- the second argument is a format string that specifies the values to read,
- the third argument is a *receiver function* that is applied to the values read.

Hence, a typical call to the formatted input function `Scanf.bscanf`[21.29] is `bscanf ic fmt f`, where:

- `ic` is a source of characters (typically a *formatted input channel* with type `Scanf.Scanning.in_channel`[21.29]),
- `fmt` is a format string (the same format strings as those used to print material with module `Printf`[21.26] or `Format`[21.10]),
- `f` is a function that has as many arguments as the number of values to read in the input.

A simple example

As suggested above, the expression `bscanf ic "%d" f` reads a decimal integer `n` from the source of characters `ic` and returns `f n`.

For instance,

- if we use `stdin` as the source of characters (`Scanf.Scanning.stdin`[21.29] is the predefined formatted input channel that reads from standard input),
- if we define the receiver `f` as `let f x = x + 1`,

then `bscanf Scanning.stdin "%d" f` reads an integer `n` from the standard input and returns `f n` (that is `n + 1`). Thus, if we evaluate `bscanf stdin "%d" f`, and then enter `41` at the keyboard, we get `42` as the final result.

Formatted input as a functional feature

The OCaml scanning facility is reminiscent of the corresponding C feature. However, it is also largely different, simpler, and yet more powerful: the formatted input functions are higher-order functionals and the parameter passing mechanism is just the regular function application not the variable assignment based mechanism which is typical for formatted input in imperative languages; the OCaml format strings also feature useful additions to easily define complex tokens; as expected within a functional programming language, the formatted input functions also support polymorphism, in particular arbitrary interaction with polymorphic user-defined scanners. Furthermore, the OCaml formatted input facility is fully type-checked at compile time.

Formatted input channel

```
module Scanning :
  sig
```

`type in_channel`

The notion of input channel for the `Scanf` module: those channels provide all the machinery necessary to read from a given `Pervasives.in_channel` value. A `Scanf.Scanning.in_channel` value is also called a *formatted input channel* or equivalently a *scanning buffer*. The type `scanbuf` below is an alias for `in_channel`.

Since: 3.12.0

`type scanbuf = in_channel`

The type of scanning buffers. A scanning buffer is the source from which a formatted input function gets characters. The scanning buffer holds the current state of the scan, plus a function to get the next char from the input, and a token buffer to store the string matched so far.

Note: a scanning action may often require to examine one character in advance; when this 'lookahead' character does not belong to the token read, it is stored back in the scanning buffer and becomes the next character yet to be read.

`val stdin : in_channel`

The standard input notion for the `Scanf` module. `Scanning.stdin` is the formatted input channel attached to `Pervasives.stdin`.

Note: in the interactive system, when input is read from `stdin`, the newline character that triggers the evaluation is incorporated in the input; thus, the scanning specifications must properly skip this additional newline character (for instance, simply add a `'\n'` as the last character of the format string).

Since: 3.12.0

`type file_name = string`

A convenient alias to designate a file name.

Since: 4.00.0

`val open_in : file_name -> in_channel`

`Scanning.open_in fname` returns a formatted input channel for bufferized reading in text mode from file `fname`.

Note: `open_in` returns a formatted input channel that efficiently reads characters in large chunks; in contrast, `from_channel` below returns formatted input channels that must read one character at a time, leading to a much slower scanning rate.

Since: 3.12.0

`val open_in_bin : file_name -> in_channel`

`Scanning.open_in_bin fname` returns a formatted input channel for bufferized reading in binary mode from file `fname`.

Since: 3.12.0

`val close_in : in_channel -> unit`

Closes the `Pervasives.in_channel` associated with the given `Scanning.in_channel` formatted input channel.

Since: 3.12.0

`val from_file : file_name -> in_channel`

An alias for `open_in` above.

`val from_file_bin : string -> in_channel`

An alias for `open_in_bin` above.

`val from_string : string -> in_channel`

`Scanning.from_string s` returns a formatted input channel which reads from the given string. Reading starts from the first character in the string. The end-of-input condition is set when the end of the string is reached.

`val from_function : (unit -> char) -> in_channel`

`Scanning.from_function f` returns a formatted input channel with the given function as its reading method.

When scanning needs one more character, the given function is called.

When the function has no more character to provide, it *must* signal an end-of-input condition by raising the exception `End_of_file`.

`val from_channel : Pervasives.in_channel -> in_channel`

`Scanning.from_channel ic` returns a formatted input channel which reads from the regular input channel `ic` argument, starting at the current reading position.

`val end_of_input : in_channel -> bool`

`Scanning.end_of_input ic` tests the end-of-input condition of the given formatted input channel.

```
val beginning_of_input : in_channel -> bool
```

`Scanning.beginning_of_input ic` tests the beginning of input condition of the given formatted input channel.

```
val name_of_input : in_channel -> string
```

`Scanning.name_of_input ic` returns the name of the character source for the formatted input channel `ic`.

Since: 3.09.0

```
val stdib : in_channel
```

A deprecated alias for `Scanning.stdin`, the scanning buffer reading from `Pervasives.stdin`.

```
end
```

Type of formatted input functions

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner = ('a, Scanning.in_channel, 'b, 'c, 'a -> 'd, 'd) Pervasives.forr
  'c
```

The type of formatted input scanners: `('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner` is the type of a formatted input function that reads from some formatted input channel according to some format string; more precisely, if `scan` is some formatted input function, then `scan ic fmt f` applies `f` to the arguments specified by the format string `fmt`, when `scan` has read those arguments from the formatted input channel `ic`.

For instance, the `scanf` function below has type `('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner`, since it is a formatted input function that reads from `Scanning.stdin`: `scanf fmt f` applies `f` to the arguments specified by `fmt`, reading those arguments from `Pervasives.stdin` as expected.

If the format `fmt` has some `%r` indications, the corresponding input functions must be provided before the receiver `f` argument. For instance, if `read_elem` is an input function for values of type `t`, then `bscanf ic "%r;" read_elem f` reads a value `v` of type `t` followed by a `';'` character, and returns `f v`.

Since: 3.10.0

```
exception Scan_failure of string
```

The exception that formatted input functions raise when the input cannot be read according to the given format.

The general formatted input function

`val bscanf : Scanning.in_channel -> ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner`

`bscanf ic fmt r1 ... rN f` reads arguments for the function `f`, from the formatted input channel `ic`, according to the format string `fmt`, and applies `f` to these values. The result of this call to `f` is returned as the result of the entire `bscanf` call. For instance, if `f` is the function `fun s i -> i + 1`, then `Scanf.sscanf "x= 1" "%s = %i" f` returns `2`.

Arguments `r1` to `rN` are user-defined input functions that read the argument corresponding to the `%r` conversions specified in the format string.

Format string description

The format string is a character string which contains three types of objects:

- plain characters, which are simply matched with the characters of the input (with a special case for space and line feed, see [21.29]),
- conversion specifications, each of which causes reading and conversion of one argument for the function `f` (see [21.29]),
- scanning indications to specify boundaries of tokens (see scanning [21.29]).

The space character in format strings

As mentioned above, a plain character in the format string is just matched with the next character of the input; however, two characters are special exceptions to this rule: the space character (`' '` or ASCII code 32) and the line feed character (`'\n'` or ASCII code 10). A space does not match a single space character, but any amount of 'whitespace' in the input. More precisely, a space inside the format string matches *any number* of tab, space, line feed and carriage return characters. Similarly, a line feed character in the format string matches either a single line feed or a carriage return followed by a line feed.

Matching *any* amount of whitespace, a space in the format string also matches no amount of whitespace at all; hence, the call `bscanf ib "Price = %d $" (fun p -> p)` succeeds and returns `1` when reading an input with various whitespace in it, such as `Price = 1 $`, `Price = 1 $`, or even `Price=1$`.

Conversion specifications in format strings

Conversion specifications consist in the `%` character, followed by an optional flag, an optional field width, and followed by one or two conversion characters. The conversion characters and their meanings are:

- `d`: reads an optionally signed decimal integer.
- `i`: reads an optionally signed integer (usual input conventions for decimal (`0-9`+), hexadecimal (`0x[0-9a-f]+` and `0X[0-9A-F]+`), octal (`0o[0-7]+`), and binary (`0b[0-1]+`) notations are understood).

- `u`: reads an unsigned decimal integer.
- `x` or `X`: reads an unsigned hexadecimal integer (`[0-9a-fA-F]+`).
- `o`: reads an unsigned octal integer (`[0-7]+`).
- `s`: reads a string argument that spreads as much as possible, until the following bounding condition holds:
  - a whitespace has been found (see [21.29]),
  - a scanning indication (see scanning [21.29]) has been encountered,
  - the end-of-input has been reached.

  Hence, this conversion always succeeds: it returns an empty string if the bounding condition holds when the scan begins.
- `S`: reads a delimited string argument (delimiters and special escaped characters follow the lexical conventions of OCaml).
- `c`: reads a single character. To test the current input character without reading it, specify a null field width, i.e. use specification `%0c`. Raise `Invalid_argument`, if the field width specification is greater than 1.
- `C`: reads a single delimited character (delimiters and special escaped characters follow the lexical conventions of OCaml).
- `f`, `e`, `E`, `g`, `G`: reads an optionally signed floating-point number in decimal notation, in the style `dddd.ddd e/E+-dd`.
- `F`: reads a floating point number according to the lexical conventions of OCaml (hence the decimal point is mandatory if the exponent part is not mentioned).
- `B`: reads a boolean argument (`true` or `false`).
- `b`: reads a boolean argument (for backward compatibility; do not use in new programs).
- `ld`, `li`, `lu`, `lx`, `lX`, `lo`: reads an `int32` argument to the format specified by the second letter for regular integers.
- `nd`, `ni`, `nu`, `nx`, `nX`, `no`: reads a `nativeint` argument to the format specified by the second letter for regular integers.
- `Ld`, `Li`, `Lu`, `Lx`, `LX`, `Lo`: reads an `int64` argument to the format specified by the second letter for regular integers.
- `[ range ]`: reads characters that matches one of the characters mentioned in the range of characters `range` (or not mentioned in it, if the range starts with `^`). Reads a `string` that can be empty, if the next input character does not match the range. The set of characters from `c1` to `c2` (inclusively) is denoted by `c1-c2`. Hence, `%[0-9]` returns a string representing a decimal number or an empty string if no decimal digit is found; similarly, `%[0-9a-f]` returns

a string of hexadecimal digits. If a closing bracket appears in a range, it must occur as the first character of the range (or just after the `^` in case of range negation); hence `[]]` matches a `]` character and `[^]]` matches any character that is not `]`. Use `%%` and `%@` to include a `%` or a `@` in a range.

- `r`: user-defined reader. Takes the next `ri` formatted input function and applies it to the scanning buffer `ib` to read the next argument. The input function `ri` must therefore have type `Scanning.in_channel -> 'a` and the argument read has type `'a`.
- `{ fmt %}`: reads a format string argument. The format string read must have the same type as the format string specification `fmt`. For instance, `"%{ %i %}"` reads any format string that can read a value of type `int`; hence, if `s` is the string `"fmt:\"number is %u\""`, then `Scanf.sscanf s "fmt:  %{%i%}"` succeeds and returns the format string `"number is %u"`.
- `( fmt %)`: scanning sub-format substitution. Reads a format string `rf` in the input, then goes on scanning with `rf` instead of scanning with `fmt`. The format string `rf` must have the same type as the format string specification `fmt` that it replaces. For instance, `"%( %i %)"` reads any format string that can read a value of type `int`. The conversion returns the format string read `rf`, and then a value read using `rf`. Hence, if `s` is the string `"\"%4d\"1234.00"`, then `Scanf.sscanf s "%(%i%)" (fun fmt i -> fmt, i)` evaluates to `("%4d", 1234)`. This behaviour is not mere format substitution, since the conversion returns the format string read as additional argument. If you need pure format substitution, use special flag `_` to discard the extraneous argument: conversion `%_( fmt %)` reads a format string `rf` and then behaves the same as format string `rf`. Hence, if `s` is the string `"\"%4d\"1234.00"`, then `Scanf.sscanf s "%_(%i%)"` is simply equivalent to `Scanf.sscanf "1234.00" "%4d"`.
- `l`: returns the number of lines read so far.
- `n`: returns the number of characters read so far.
- `N` or `L`: returns the number of tokens read so far.
- `!`: matches the end of input condition.
- `%`: matches one `%` character in the input.
- `@`: matches one `@` character in the input.
- `,`: does nothing.

Following the `%` character that introduces a conversion, there may be the special flag `_`: the conversion that follows occurs as usual, but the resulting value is discarded. For instance, if `f` is the function `fun i -> i + 1`, and `s` is the string `"x = 1"`, then `Scanf.sscanf s "%_s = %i" f` returns 2.

The field width is composed of an optional integer literal indicating the maximal width of the token to read. For instance, `%6d` reads an integer, having at most 6 decimal digits; `%4f` reads a float with at most 4 characters; and `%8[\000-\255]` returns the next 8 characters (or all the characters still available, if fewer than 8 characters are available in the input).

Notes:

- as mentioned above, a `%s` conversion always succeeds, even if there is nothing to read in the input: in this case, it simply returns `""`.
- in addition to the relevant digits, `'_'` characters may appear inside numbers (this is reminiscent to the usual OCaml lexical conventions). If stricter scanning is desired, use the range conversion facility instead of the number conversions.
- the `scanf` facility is not intended for heavy duty lexical analysis and parsing. If it appears not expressive enough for your needs, several alternative exists: regular expressions (module `Str`), stream parsers, `ocamllex`-generated lexers, `ocamlyacc`-generated parsers.

Scanning indications in format strings

Scanning indications appear just after the string conversions `%s` and `%[ range ]` to delimit the end of the token. A scanning indication is introduced by a `@` character, followed by some plain character `c`. It means that the string token should end just before the next matching `c` (which is skipped). If no `c` character is encountered, the string token spreads as much as possible. For instance, `"%s@\t"` reads a string up to the next tab character or to the end of input. If a `@` character appears anywhere else in the format string, it is treated as a plain character.

Note:

- As usual in format strings, `%` and `@` characters must be escaped using `%%` and `%@`; this rule still holds within range specifications and scanning indications. For instance, `"%s@%%"` reads a string up to the next `%` character.
- The scanning indications introduce slight differences in the syntax of `Scanf` format strings, compared to those used for the `Printf` module. However, the scanning indications are similar to those used in the `Format` module; hence, when producing formatted text to be scanned by `!Scanf.bscanf`, it is wise to use printing functions from the `Format` module (or, if you need to use functions from `Printf`, banish or carefully double check the format strings that contain `'@'` characters).

Exceptions during scanning

Scanners may raise the following exceptions when the input cannot be read according to the format string:

- Raise `Scanf.Scan_failure` if the input does not match the format.
- Raise `Failure` if a conversion to a number is not possible.
- Raise `End_of_file` if the end of input is encountered while some more characters are needed to read the current conversion specification.
- Raise `Invalid_argument` if the format string is invalid.

Note:

- as a consequence, scanning a `%s` conversion never raises exception `End_of_file`: if the end of input is reached the conversion succeeds and simply returns the characters read so far, or `""` if none were ever read.

Specialised formatted input functions

```
val fscanf : Pervasives.in_channel -> ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner
```

Same as `Scanf.bscanf`[21.29], but reads from the given regular input channel.

Warning: since all formatted input functions operate from a *formatted input channel*, be aware that each `fscanf` invocation will operate with a formatted input channel reading from the given channel. This extra level of bufferization can lead to a strange scanning behaviour if you use low level primitives on the channel (reading characters, seeking the reading position, and so on).

As a consequence, never mix direct low level reading and high level scanning from the same regular input channel.

```
val sscanf : string -> ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner
```

Same as `Scanf.bscanf`[21.29], but reads from the given string.

```
val scanf : ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner
```

Same as `Scanf.bscanf`[21.29], but reads from the predefined formatted input channel `Scanf.Scanning.stdin`[21.29] that is connected to `Pervasives.stdin`.

```
val kscanf :
  Scanning.in_channel ->
  (Scanning.in_channel -> exn -> 'd) -> ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner
```

Same as `Scanf.bscanf`[21.29], but takes an additional function argument `ef` that is called in case of error: if the scanning process or some conversion fails, the scanning function aborts and calls the error handling function `ef` with the formatted input channel and the exception that aborted the scanning process as arguments.

```
val ksscanf :
  string ->
  (Scanning.in_channel -> exn -> 'd) -> ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner
```

Same as `Scanf.kscanf`[21.29] but reads from the given string.

```
val kfscanf :
  Pervasives.in_channel ->
  (Scanning.in_channel -> exn -> 'd) -> ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd) scanner
```

Same as `Scanf.kscanf`[21.29], but reads from the given regular input channel.

Reading format strings from input

```
val bscanf_format :
  Scanning.in_channel ->
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) Pervasives.format6 ->
  (('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) Pervasives.format6 -> 'g) -> 'g
```

`bscanf_format ic fmt f` reads a format string token from the formatted input channel `ic`, according to the given format string `fmt`, and applies `f` to the resulting format string value. Raise `Scan_failure` if the format string value read does not have the same type as `fmt`.

Since: 3.09.0

```
val sscanf_format :
  string ->
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) Pervasives.format6 ->
  (('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) Pervasives.format6 -> 'g) -> 'g
```

Same as `Scanf.bscanf_format`[21.29], but reads from the given string.

Since: 3.09.0

```
val format_from_string :
  string ->
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) Pervasives.format6 ->
  ('a, 'b, 'c, 'd, 'e, 'f) Pervasives.format6
```

`format_from_string s fmt` converts a string argument to a format string, according to the given format string `fmt`. Raise `Scan_failure` if `s`, considered as a format string, does not have the same type as `fmt`.

Since: 3.10.0

```
val unescaped : string -> string
```

Return a copy of the argument with escape sequences, following the lexical conventions of OCaml, replaced by their corresponding special characters. If there is no escape sequence in the argument, still return a copy, contrary to String.escaped.

Since: 4.00.0

21.30 Module `Set` : Sets over ordered types.

This module implements the set data structure, given a total ordering function over the set elements. All operations over sets are purely applicative (no side-effects). The implementation uses balanced binary trees, and is therefore reasonably efficient: insertion and membership take time logarithmic in the size of the set, for instance.

The `Make` functor constructs implementations for any type, given a `compare` function. For instance:

```
module IntPairs =
  struct
    type t = int * int
    let compare (x0,y0) (x1,y1) =
      match Pervasives.compare x0 x1 with
          0 -> Pervasives.compare y0 y1
```

```
          | c -> c
      end

    module PairsSet = Set.Make(IntPairs)

    let m = PairsSet.(empty |> add (2,3) |> add (5,7) |> add (11,13))
```

This creates a new module `PairsSet`, with a new type `PairsSet.t` of sets of `int * int`.

```
module type OrderedType =
  sig
```

`type t`

The type of the set elements.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

A total ordering function over the set elements. This is a two-argument function `f` such that `f e1 e2` is zero if the elements `e1` and `e2` are equal, `f e1 e2` is strictly negative if `e1` is smaller than `e2`, and `f e1 e2` is strictly positive if `e1` is greater than `e2`. Example: a suitable ordering function is the generic structural comparison function `Pervasives.compare`[20.2].

```
  end
```

Input signature of the functor `Set.Make`[21.30].

```
module type S =
  sig
```

`type elt`

The type of the set elements.

`type t`

The type of sets.

`val empty : t`

The empty set.

`val is_empty : t -> bool`

Test whether a set is empty or not.

`val mem : elt -> t -> bool`

`mem x s` tests whether `x` belongs to the set `s`.

`val add : elt -> t -> t`

`add x s` returns a set containing all elements of `s`, plus `x`. If `x` was already in `s`, `s` is returned unchanged.

`val singleton : elt -> t`

`singleton x` returns the one-element set containing only `x`.

`val remove : elt -> t -> t`

`remove x s` returns a set containing all elements of `s`, except `x`. If `x` was not in `s`, `s` is returned unchanged.

`val union : t -> t -> t`

Set union.

`val inter : t -> t -> t`

Set intersection.

`val diff : t -> t -> t`

Set difference.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

Total ordering between sets. Can be used as the ordering function for doing sets of sets.

`val equal : t -> t -> bool`

`equal s1 s2` tests whether the sets `s1` and `s2` are equal, that is, contain equal elements.

`val subset : t -> t -> bool`

`subset s1 s2` tests whether the set `s1` is a subset of the set `s2`.

`val iter : (elt -> unit) -> t -> unit`

`iter f s` applies `f` in turn to all elements of `s`. The elements of `s` are presented to `f` in increasing order with respect to the ordering over the type of the elements.

`val fold : (elt -> 'a -> 'a) -> t -> 'a -> 'a`

`fold f s a` computes `(f xN ... (f x2 (f x1 a))...)`, where `x1 ... xN` are the elements of `s`, in increasing order.

`val for_all : (elt -> bool) -> t -> bool`

`for_all p s` checks if all elements of the set satisfy the predicate `p`.

`val exists : (elt -> bool) -> t -> bool`

`exists p s` checks if at least one element of the set satisfies the predicate `p`.

`val filter : (elt -> bool) -> t -> t`

`filter p s` returns the set of all elements in `s` that satisfy predicate `p`.

`val partition : (elt -> bool) -> t -> t * t`

`partition p s` returns a pair of sets `(s1, s2)`, where `s1` is the set of all the elements of `s` that satisfy the predicate `p`, and `s2` is the set of all the elements of `s` that do not satisfy `p`.

`val cardinal : t -> int`

Return the number of elements of a set.

`val elements : t -> elt list`

Return the list of all elements of the given set. The returned list is sorted in increasing order with respect to the ordering `Ord.compare`, where `Ord` is the argument given to `Set.Make`[21.30].

`val min_elt : t -> elt`

Return the smallest element of the given set (with respect to the `Ord.compare` ordering), or raise `Not_found` if the set is empty.

`val max_elt : t -> elt`

Same as `Set.S.min_elt`[21.30], but returns the largest element of the given set.

`val choose : t -> elt`

Return one element of the given set, or raise `Not_found` if the set is empty. Which element is chosen is unspecified, but equal elements will be chosen for equal sets.

`val split : elt -> t -> t * bool * t`

`split x s` returns a triple `(l, present, r)`, where `l` is the set of elements of `s` that are strictly less than `x`; `r` is the set of elements of `s` that are strictly greater than `x`; `present` is `false` if `s` contains no element equal to `x`, or `true` if `s` contains an element equal to `x`.

`val find : elt -> t -> elt`

`find x s` returns the element of `s` equal to `x` (according to `Ord.compare`), or raise `Not_found` if no such element exists.

Since: 4.01.0

```
val of_list : elt list -> t
```

`of_list l` creates a set from a list of elements. This is usually more efficient than folding `add` over the list, except perhaps for lists with many duplicated elements.

Since: 4.02.0

```
end
```

Output signature of the functor `Set.Make`[21.30].

```
module Make :
  functor (Ord : OrderedType) -> S with type elt = Ord.t
```

Functor building an implementation of the set structure given a totally ordered type.

21.31 Module `Sort` : Sorting and merging lists.

This module is obsolete and exists only for backward compatibility. The sorting functions in `Array`[21.2] and `List`[21.18] should be used instead. The new functions are faster and use less memory.Sorting and merging lists.

```
val list : ('a -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list
```

Sort a list in increasing order according to an ordering predicate. The predicate should return `true` if its first argument is less than or equal to its second argument.

```
val array : ('a -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a array -> unit
```

Sort an array in increasing order according to an ordering predicate. The predicate should return `true` if its first argument is less than or equal to its second argument. The array is sorted in place.

```
val merge : ('a -> 'a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list
```

Merge two lists according to the given predicate. Assuming the two argument lists are sorted according to the predicate, `merge` returns a sorted list containing the elements from the two lists. The behavior is undefined if the two argument lists were not sorted.

21.32 Module `Stack` : Last-in first-out stacks.

This module implements stacks (LIFOs), with in-place modification.

```
type 'a t
```

The type of stacks containing elements of type `'a`.

```
exception Empty
```

Raised when `Stack.pop`[21.32] or `Stack.top`[21.32] is applied to an empty stack.

`val create : unit -> 'a t`

Return a new stack, initially empty.

`val push : 'a -> 'a t -> unit`

`push x s` adds the element `x` at the top of stack `s`.

`val pop : 'a t -> 'a`

`pop s` removes and returns the topmost element in stack `s`, or raises `Empty` if the stack is empty.

`val top : 'a t -> 'a`

`top s` returns the topmost element in stack `s`, or raises `Empty` if the stack is empty.

`val clear : 'a t -> unit`

Discard all elements from a stack.

`val copy : 'a t -> 'a t`

Return a copy of the given stack.

`val is_empty : 'a t -> bool`

Return `true` if the given stack is empty, `false` otherwise.

`val length : 'a t -> int`

Return the number of elements in a stack.

`val iter : ('a -> unit) -> 'a t -> unit`

`iter f s` applies `f` in turn to all elements of `s`, from the element at the top of the stack to the element at the bottom of the stack. The stack itself is unchanged.

21.33 Module `StdLabels` : Standard labeled libraries.

This meta-module provides labelized version of the `Array`[21.2], `Bytes`[21.4], `List`[21.18] and `String`[21.35] modules.

They only differ by their labels. Detailed interfaces can be found in `arrayLabels.mli`, `bytesLabels.mli`, `listLabels.mli` and `stringLabels.mli`.

```
module Array :
  ArrayLabels
module Bytes :
  BytesLabels
module List :
  ListLabels
module String :
  StringLabels
```

21.34 Module `Stream` : Streams and parsers.

`type 'a t`

The type of streams holding values of type `'a`.

`exception Failure`

Raised by parsers when none of the first components of the stream patterns is accepted.

`exception Error of string`

Raised by parsers when the first component of a stream pattern is accepted, but one of the following components is rejected.

Stream builders

`val from : (int -> 'a option) -> 'a t`

`Stream.from f` returns a stream built from the function `f`. To create a new stream element, the function `f` is called with the current stream count. The user function `f` must return either `Some <value>` for a value or `None` to specify the end of the stream.

Do note that the indices passed to `f` may not start at `0` in the general case. For example, `[< '0; '1; Stream.from f >]` would call `f` the first time with count `2`.

`val of_list : 'a list -> 'a t`

Return the stream holding the elements of the list in the same order.

`val of_string : string -> char t`

Return the stream of the characters of the string parameter.

`val of_bytes : bytes -> char t`

Return the stream of the characters of the bytes parameter.

`val of_channel : Pervasives.in_channel -> char t`

Return the stream of the characters read from the input channel.

Stream iterator

`val iter : ('a -> unit) -> 'a t -> unit`

`Stream.iter f s` scans the whole stream s, applying function `f` in turn to each stream element encountered.

Predefined parsers

`val next : 'a t -> 'a`

Return the first element of the stream and remove it from the stream. Raise Stream.Failure if the stream is empty.

`val empty : 'a t -> unit`

Return `()` if the stream is empty, else raise `Stream.Failure`.

Useful functions

`val peek : 'a t -> 'a option`

Return `Some` of "the first element" of the stream, or `None` if the stream is empty.

`val junk : 'a t -> unit`

Remove the first element of the stream, possibly unfreezing it before.

`val count : 'a t -> int`

Return the current count of the stream elements, i.e. the number of the stream elements discarded.

`val npeek : int -> 'a t -> 'a list`

`npeek n` returns the list of the `n` first elements of the stream, or all its remaining elements if less than `n` elements are available.

21.35 Module `String` : String operations.

A string is an immutable data structure that contains a fixed-length sequence of (single-byte) characters. Each character can be accessed in constant time through its index.

Given a string `s` of length `l`, we can access each of the `l` characters of `s` via its index in the sequence. Indexes start at `0`, and we will call an index valid in `s` if it falls within the range `[0...l-1]` (inclusive). A position is the point between two characters or at the beginning or end of the string. We call a position valid in `s` if it falls within the range `[0...l]` (inclusive). Note that the character at index `n` is between positions `n` and `n+1`.

Two parameters `start` and `len` are said to designate a valid substring of `s` if `len >= 0` and `start` and `start+len` are valid positions in `s`.

OCaml strings used to be modifiable in place, for instance via the `String.set`[21.35] and `String.blit`[21.35] functions described below. This usage is deprecated and only possible when the compiler is put in "unsafe-string" mode by giving the `-unsafe-string` command-line option (which is currently the default for reasons of backward compatibility). This is done by making the types `string` and `bytes` (see module `Bytes`[21.4]) interchangeable so that functions expecting byte sequences can also accept strings as arguments and modify them.

All new code should avoid this feature and be compiled with the `-safe-string` command-line option to enforce the separation between the types `string` and `bytes`.

`val length : string -> int`

Return the length (number of characters) of the given string.

`val get : string -> int -> char`

`String.get s n` returns the character at index `n` in string `s`. You can also write `s.[n]` instead of `String.get s n`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n` not a valid index in `s`.

`val set : bytes -> int -> char -> unit`

Deprecated. This is a deprecated alias of `Bytes.set`[21.4]. `String.set s n c` modifies byte sequence `s` in place, replacing the byte at index `n` with `c`. You can also write `s.[n] <- c` instead of `String.set s n c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n` is not a valid index in `s`.

`val create : int -> bytes`

Deprecated. This is a deprecated alias of `Bytes.create`[21.4]. `String.create n` returns a fresh byte sequence of length `n`. The sequence is uninitialized and contains arbitrary bytes.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_string_length`[21.36].

`val make : int -> char -> string`

`String.make n c` returns a fresh string of length `n`, filled with the character `c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_string_length`[21.36].

`val init : int -> (int -> char) -> string`

`String.init n f` returns a string of length `n`, with character `i` initialized to the result of `f i` (called in increasing index order).

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n < 0` or `n > Sys.max_string_length`[21.36].

Since: 4.02.0

`val copy : string -> string`

Deprecated. Because strings are immutable, it doesn't make much sense to make identical copies of them.Return a copy of the given string.

`val sub : string -> int -> int -> string`

`String.sub s start len` returns a fresh string of length `len`, containing the substring of `s` that starts at position `start` and has length `len`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `start` and `len` do not designate a valid substring of `s`.

`val fill : bytes -> int -> int -> char -> unit`

Deprecated. This is a deprecated alias of `Bytes.fill`[21.4]. `String.fill s start len c` modifies byte sequence `s` in place, replacing `len` bytes with `c`, starting at `start`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `start` and `len` do not designate a valid range of `s`.

`val blit : string -> int -> bytes -> int -> int -> unit`

Same as `Bytes.blit_string`[21.4].

`val concat : string -> string list -> string`

`String.concat sep sl` concatenates the list of strings `sl`, inserting the separator string `sep` between each.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the result is longer than `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36] bytes.

`val iter : (char -> unit) -> string -> unit`

`String.iter f s` applies function `f` in turn to all the characters of `s`. It is equivalent to `f s.[0]; f s.[1]; ...; f s.[String.length s - 1]; ()`.

`val iteri : (int -> char -> unit) -> string -> unit`

Same as `String.iter`[21.35], but the function is applied to the index of the element as first argument (counting from 0), and the character itself as second argument.

Since: 4.00.0

`val map : (char -> char) -> string -> string`

`String.map f s` applies function `f` in turn to all the characters of `s` (in increasing index order) and stores the results in a new string that is returned.

Since: 4.00.0

`val mapi : (int -> char -> char) -> string -> string`

`String.mapi f s` calls `f` with each character of `s` and its index (in increasing index order) and stores the results in a new string that is returned.

Since: 4.02.0

`val trim : string -> string`

Return a copy of the argument, without leading and trailing whitespace. The characters regarded as whitespace are: `' '`, `'\012'`, `'\n'`, `'\r'`, and `'\t'`. If there is neither leading nor trailing whitespace character in the argument, return the original string itself, not a copy.

Since: 4.00.0

`val escaped : string -> string`

Return a copy of the argument, with special characters represented by escape sequences, following the lexical conventions of OCaml. If there is no special character in the argument, return the original string itself, not a copy. Its inverse function is Scanf.unescaped.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if the result is longer than `Sys.max_string_length`[21.36] bytes.

`val index : string -> char -> int`

`String.index s c` returns the index of the first occurrence of character `c` in string `s`.

Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s`.

`val rindex : string -> char -> int`

`String.rindex s c` returns the index of the last occurrence of character `c` in string `s`.

Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s`.

`val index_from : string -> int -> char -> int`

`String.index_from s i c` returns the index of the first occurrence of character `c` in string `s` after position `i`. `String.index s c` is equivalent to `String.index_from s 0 c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `i` is not a valid position in `s`. Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s` after position `i`.

`val rindex_from : string -> int -> char -> int`

`String.rindex_from s i c` returns the index of the last occurrence of character `c` in string `s` before position `i+1`. `String.rindex s c` is equivalent to `String.rindex_from s (String.length s - 1) c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `i+1` is not a valid position in `s`. Raise `Not_found` if `c` does not occur in `s` before position `i+1`.

`val contains : string -> char -> bool`

`String.contains s c` tests if character `c` appears in the string `s`.

`val contains_from : string -> int -> char -> bool`

`String.contains_from s start c` tests if character `c` appears in `s` after position `start`. `String.contains s c` is equivalent to `String.contains_from s 0 c`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `start` is not a valid position in `s`.

`val rcontains_from : string -> int -> char -> bool`

`String.rcontains_from s stop c` tests if character `c` appears in `s` before position `stop+1`.

Raise `Invalid_argument` if `stop < 0` or `stop+1` is not a valid position in `s`.

`val uppercase : string -> string`

Return a copy of the argument, with all lowercase letters translated to uppercase, including accented letters of the ISO Latin-1 (8859-1) character set.

`val lowercase : string -> string`

Return a copy of the argument, with all uppercase letters translated to lowercase, including accented letters of the ISO Latin-1 (8859-1) character set.

`val capitalize : string -> string`

Return a copy of the argument, with the first character set to uppercase.

`val uncapitalize : string -> string`

Return a copy of the argument, with the first character set to lowercase.

`type t = string`

An alias for the type of strings.

`val compare : t -> t -> int`

The comparison function for strings, with the same specification as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]. Along with the type `t`, this function `compare` allows the module `String` to be passed as argument to the functors `Set.Make`[21.30] and `Map.Make`[21.19].

21.36 Module `Sys` : System interface.

Every function in this module raises `Sys_error` with an informative message when the underlying system call signal an error.

`val argv : string array`

The command line arguments given to the process. The first element is the command name used to invoke the program. The following elements are the command-line arguments given to the program.

`val executable_name : string`

The name of the file containing the executable currently running.

`val file_exists : string -> bool`

Test if a file with the given name exists.

`val is_directory : string -> bool`

Returns `true` if the given name refers to a directory, `false` if it refers to another kind of file. Raise `Sys_error` if no file exists with the given name.

Since: 3.10.0

`val remove : string -> unit`

Remove the given file name from the file system.

`val rename : string -> string -> unit`

Rename a file. The first argument is the old name and the second is the new name. If there is already another file under the new name, `rename` may replace it, or raise an exception, depending on your operating system.

`val getenv : string -> string`

Return the value associated to a variable in the process environment. Raise `Not_found` if the variable is unbound.

`val command : string -> int`

Execute the given shell command and return its exit code.

`val time : unit -> float`

Return the processor time, in seconds, used by the program since the beginning of execution.

`val chdir : string -> unit`

Change the current working directory of the process.

`val getcwd : unit -> string`

Return the current working directory of the process.

`val readdir : string -> string array`

Return the names of all files present in the given directory. Names denoting the current directory and the parent directory (`"."` and `".."` in Unix) are not returned. Each string in the result is a file name rather than a complete path. There is no guarantee that the name strings in the resulting array will appear in any specific order; they are not, in particular, guaranteed to appear in alphabetical order.

`val interactive : bool Pervasives.ref`

This reference is initially set to `false` in standalone programs and to `true` if the code is being executed under the interactive toplevel system `ocaml`.

`val os_type : string`

Operating system currently executing the OCaml program. One of

- `"Unix"` (for all Unix versions, including Linux and Mac OS X),
- `"Win32"` (for MS-Windows, OCaml compiled with MSVC++ or Mingw),
- `"Cygwin"` (for MS-Windows, OCaml compiled with Cygwin).

`val unix : bool`

True if `Sys.os_type = "Unix"`.

Since: 4.01.0

`val win32 : bool`

True if `Sys.os_type = "Win32"`.

Since: 4.01.0

`val cygwin : bool`

True if `Sys.os_type = "Cygwin"`.

Since: 4.01.0

```
val word_size : int
```

Size of one word on the machine currently executing the OCaml program, in bits: 32 or 64.

```
val big_endian : bool
```

Whether the machine currently executing the Caml program is big-endian.

Since: 4.00.0

```
val max_string_length : int
```

Maximum length of strings and byte sequences.

```
val max_array_length : int
```

Maximum length of a normal array. The maximum length of a float array is `max_array_length/2` on 32-bit machines and `max_array_length` on 64-bit machines.

Signal handling

```
type signal_behavior =
  | Signal_default
  | Signal_ignore
  | Signal_handle of (int -> unit)
```

What to do when receiving a signal:

- `Signal_default`: take the default behavior (usually: abort the program)
- `Signal_ignore`: ignore the signal
- `Signal_handle f`: call function `f`, giving it the signal number as argument.

```
val signal : int -> signal_behavior -> signal_behavior
```

Set the behavior of the system on receipt of a given signal. The first argument is the signal number. Return the behavior previously associated with the signal. If the signal number is invalid (or not available on your system), an `Invalid_argument` exception is raised.

```
val set_signal : int -> signal_behavior -> unit
```

Same as `Sys.signal`[21.36] but return value is ignored.

Signal numbers for the standard POSIX signals.

`val sigabrt : int`
Abnormal termination

`val sigalrm : int`
Timeout

`val sigfpe : int`
Arithmetic exception

`val sighup : int`
Hangup on controlling terminal

`val sigill : int`
Invalid hardware instruction

`val sigint : int`
Interactive interrupt (ctrl-C)

`val sigkill : int`
Termination (cannot be ignored)

`val sigpipe : int`
Broken pipe

`val sigquit : int`
Interactive termination

`val sigsegv : int`
Invalid memory reference

`val sigterm : int`
Termination

`val sigusr1 : int`
Application-defined signal 1

`val sigusr2 : int`
Application-defined signal 2

`val sigchld : int`
Child process terminated

`val sigcont : int`

Continue

`val sigstop : int`

Stop

`val sigtstp : int`

Interactive stop

`val sigttin : int`

Terminal read from background process

`val sigttou : int`

Terminal write from background process

`val sigvtalrm : int`

Timeout in virtual time

`val sigprof : int`

Profiling interrupt

`exception Break`

Exception raised on interactive interrupt if `Sys.catch_break`[21.36] is on.

`val catch_break : bool -> unit`

`catch_break` governs whether interactive interrupt (ctrl-C) terminates the program or raises the `Break` exception. Call `catch_break true` to enable raising `Break`, and `catch_break false` to let the system terminate the program on user interrupt.

`val ocaml_version : string`

`ocaml_version` is the version of OCaml. It is a string of the form `"major.minor[.patchlevel][+additional-info]"`, where `major`, `minor`, and `patchlevel` are integers, and `additional-info` is an arbitrary string. The `[.patchlevel]` and `[+additional-info]` parts may be absent.

21.37 Module Weak : Arrays of weak pointers and hash tables of weak pointers.

Low-level functions

`type 'a t`

The type of arrays of weak pointers (weak arrays). A weak pointer is a value that the garbage collector may erase whenever the value is not used any more (through normal pointers) by the program. Note that finalisation functions are run after the weak pointers are erased.

A weak pointer is said to be full if it points to a value, empty if the value was erased by the GC.

Notes:

- Integers are not allocated and cannot be stored in weak arrays.
- Weak arrays cannot be marshaled using `Pervasives.output_value`[20.2] nor the functions of the `Marshal`[21.20] module.

```
val create : int -> 'a t
```

`Weak.create n` returns a new weak array of length `n`. All the pointers are initially empty. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n` is negative or greater than `Sys.max_array_length`[21.36]`-1`.

```
val length : 'a t -> int
```

`Weak.length ar` returns the length (number of elements) of `ar`.

```
val set : 'a t -> int -> 'a option -> unit
```

`Weak.set ar n (Some el)` sets the `n`th cell of `ar` to be a (full) pointer to `el`; `Weak.set ar n None` sets the `n`th cell of `ar` to empty. Raise `Invalid_argument "Weak.set"` if `n` is not in the range 0 to `Weak.length`[21.37] `a - 1`.

```
val get : 'a t -> int -> 'a option
```

`Weak.get ar n` returns None if the `n`th cell of `ar` is empty, `Some x` (where `x` is the value) if it is full. Raise `Invalid_argument "Weak.get"` if `n` is not in the range 0 to `Weak.length`[21.37] `a - 1`.

```
val get_copy : 'a t -> int -> 'a option
```

`Weak.get_copy ar n` returns None if the `n`th cell of `ar` is empty, `Some x` (where `x` is a (shallow) copy of the value) if it is full. In addition to pitfalls with mutable values, the interesting difference with `get` is that `get_copy` does not prevent the incremental GC from erasing the value in its current cycle (`get` may delay the erasure to the next GC cycle). Raise `Invalid_argument "Weak.get"` if `n` is not in the range 0 to `Weak.length`[21.37] `a - 1`.

```
val check : 'a t -> int -> bool
```

`Weak.check ar n` returns `true` if the `n`th cell of `ar` is full, `false` if it is empty. Note that even if `Weak.check ar n` returns `true`, a subsequent `Weak.get`[21.37] `ar n` can return `None`.

```
val fill : 'a t -> int -> int -> 'a option -> unit
```

`Weak.fill ar ofs len el` sets to `el` all pointers of `ar` from `ofs` to `ofs + len - 1`. Raise `Invalid_argument "Weak.fill"` if `ofs` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `a`.

```
val blit : 'a t -> int -> 'a t -> int -> int -> unit
```

`Weak.blit ar1 off1 ar2 off2 len` copies `len` weak pointers from `ar1` (starting at `off1`) to `ar2` (starting at `off2`). It works correctly even if `ar1` and `ar2` are the same. Raise `Invalid_argument "Weak.blit"` if `off1` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `ar1`, or if `off2` and `len` do not designate a valid subarray of `ar2`.

Weak hash tables

A weak hash table is a hashed set of values. Each value may magically disappear from the set when it is not used by the rest of the program any more. This is normally used to share data structures without inducing memory leaks. Weak hash tables are defined on values from a `Hashtbl.HashedType`[21.13] module; the `equal` relation and `hash` function are taken from that module. We will say that `v` is an instance of `x` if `equal x v` is `true`.

The `equal` relation must be able to work on a shallow copy of the values and give the same result as with the values themselves.

```
module type S =
  sig
```

```
type data
```

The type of the elements stored in the table.

```
type t
```

The type of tables that contain elements of type `data`. Note that weak hash tables cannot be marshaled using `Pervasives.output_value`[20.2] or the functions of the `Marshal`[21.20] module.

```
val create : int -> t
```

`create n` creates a new empty weak hash table, of initial size `n`. The table will grow as needed.

```
val clear : t -> unit
```

Remove all elements from the table.

```
val merge : t -> data -> data
```

`merge t x` returns an instance of `x` found in `t` if any, or else adds `x` to `t` and return `x`.

```
val add : t -> data -> unit
```

`add t x` adds `x` to `t`. If there is already an instance of `x` in `t`, it is unspecified which one will be returned by subsequent calls to `find` and `merge`.

`val remove : t -> data -> unit`

`remove t x` removes from `t` one instance of `x`. Does nothing if there is no instance of `x` in `t`.

`val find : t -> data -> data`

`find t x` returns an instance of `x` found in `t`. Raise `Not_found` if there is no such element.

`val find_all : t -> data -> data list`

`find_all t x` returns a list of all the instances of `x` found in `t`.

`val mem : t -> data -> bool`

`mem t x` returns `true` if there is at least one instance of `x` in `t`, false otherwise.

`val iter : (data -> unit) -> t -> unit`

`iter f t` calls `f` on each element of `t`, in some unspecified order. It is not specified what happens if `f` tries to change `t` itself.

`val fold : (data -> 'a -> 'a) -> t -> 'a -> 'a`

`fold f t init` computes `(f d1 (... (f dN init)))` where `d1 ... dN` are the elements of `t` in some unspecified order. It is not specified what happens if `f` tries to change `t` itself.

`val count : t -> int`

Count the number of elements in the table. `count t` gives the same result as `fold (fun _ n -> n+1) t 0` but does not delay the deallocation of the dead elements.

`val stats : t -> int * int * int * int * int * int`

Return statistics on the table. The numbers are, in order: table length, number of entries, sum of bucket lengths, smallest bucket length, median bucket length, biggest bucket length.

`end`

The output signature of the functor `Weak.Make`[21.37].

```
module Make :
  functor (H : Hashtbl.HashedType) -> S  with type data = H.t
```

Functor building an implementation of the weak hash table structure.

Chapter 22

The unix library: Unix system calls

The `unix` library makes many Unix system calls and system-related library functions available to OCaml programs. This chapter describes briefly the functions provided. Refer to sections 2 and 3 of the Unix manual for more details on the behavior of these functions.

Not all functions are provided by all Unix variants. If some functions are not available, they will raise `Invalid_arg` when called.

Programs that use the `unix` library must be linked as follows:

> `ocamlc` *other options* `unix.cma` *other files*
> `ocamlopt` *other options* `unix.cmxa` *other files*

For interactive use of the `unix` library, do:

```
ocamlmktop -o mytop unix.cma
./mytop
```

or (if dynamic linking of C libraries is supported on your platform), start `ocaml` and type `#load "unix.cma";;`.

Windows:

A fairly complete emulation of the Unix system calls is provided in the Windows version of OCaml. The end of this chapter gives more information on the functions that are not supported under Windows.

22.1 Module `Unix` : Interface to the Unix system.

Note: all the functions of this module (except `error_message` and `handle_unix_error`) are liable to raise the `Unix_error` exception whenever the underlying system call signals an error.

Error report

```
type error =
  | E2BIG
```

Argument list too long

| `EACCES`

Permission denied

| `EAGAIN`

Resource temporarily unavailable; try again

| `EBADF`

Bad file descriptor

| `EBUSY`

Resource unavailable

| `ECHILD`

No child process

| `EDEADLK`

Resource deadlock would occur

| `EDOM`

Domain error for math functions, etc.

| `EEXIST`

File exists

| `EFAULT`

Bad address

| `EFBIG`

File too large

| `EINTR`

Function interrupted by signal

| `EINVAL`

Invalid argument

| `EIO`

Hardware I/O error

| `EISDIR`

Is a directory

| `EMFILE`

Too many open files by the process

| `EMLINK`

Too many links

| `ENAMETOOLONG`

Filename too long

| ENFILE

Too many open files in the system

| ENODEV

No such device

| ENOENT

No such file or directory

| ENOEXEC

Not an executable file

| ENOLCK

No locks available

| ENOMEM

Not enough memory

| ENOSPC

No space left on device

| ENOSYS

Function not supported

| ENOTDIR

Not a directory

| ENOTEMPTY

Directory not empty

| ENOTTY

Inappropriate I/O control operation

| ENXIO

No such device or address

| EPERM

Operation not permitted

| EPIPE

Broken pipe

| ERANGE

Result too large

| EROFS

Read-only file system

| ESPIPE

Invalid seek e.g. on a pipe

| `ESRCH`

No such process

| `EXDEV`

Invalid link

| `EWOULDBLOCK`

Operation would block

| `EINPROGRESS`

Operation now in progress

| `EALREADY`

Operation already in progress

| `ENOTSOCK`

Socket operation on non-socket

| `EDESTADDRREQ`

Destination address required

| `EMSGSIZE`

Message too long

| `EPROTOTYPE`

Protocol wrong type for socket

| `ENOPROTOOPT`

Protocol not available

| `EPROTONOSUPPORT`

Protocol not supported

| `ESOCKTNOSUPPORT`

Socket type not supported

| `EOPNOTSUPP`

Operation not supported on socket

| `EPFNOSUPPORT`

Protocol family not supported

| `EAFNOSUPPORT`

Address family not supported by protocol family

| `EADDRINUSE`

Address already in use

| `EADDRNOTAVAIL`

Can't assign requested address

`| ENETDOWN`
: Network is down

`| ENETUNREACH`
: Network is unreachable

`| ENETRESET`
: Network dropped connection on reset

`| ECONNABORTED`
: Software caused connection abort

`| ECONNRESET`
: Connection reset by peer

`| ENOBUFS`
: No buffer space available

`| EISCONN`
: Socket is already connected

`| ENOTCONN`
: Socket is not connected

`| ESHUTDOWN`
: Can't send after socket shutdown

`| ETOOMANYREFS`
: Too many references: can't splice

`| ETIMEDOUT`
: Connection timed out

`| ECONNREFUSED`
: Connection refused

`| EHOSTDOWN`
: Host is down

`| EHOSTUNREACH`
: No route to host

`| ELOOP`
: Too many levels of symbolic links

`| EOVERFLOW`
: File size or position not representable

`| EUNKNOWNERR of int`

Unknown error

The type of error codes. Errors defined in the POSIX standard and additional errors from UNIX98 and BSD. All other errors are mapped to EUNKNOWNERR.

`exception Unix_error of error * string * string`

Raised by the system calls below when an error is encountered. The first component is the error code; the second component is the function name; the third component is the string parameter to the function, if it has one, or the empty string otherwise.

`val error_message : error -> string`

Return a string describing the given error code.

`val handle_unix_error : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b`

`handle_unix_error f x` applies `f` to `x` and returns the result. If the exception `Unix_error` is raised, it prints a message describing the error and exits with code 2.

Access to the process environment

`val environment : unit -> string array`

Return the process environment, as an array of strings with the format "variable=value".

`val getenv : string -> string`

Return the value associated to a variable in the process environment. Raise `Not_found` if the variable is unbound. (This function is identical to `Sys.getenv`[21.36].)

`val putenv : string -> string -> unit`

`Unix.putenv name value` sets the value associated to a variable in the process environment. `name` is the name of the environment variable, and `value` its new associated value.

Process handling

```
type process_status =
  | WEXITED of int
```

The process terminated normally by `exit`; the argument is the return code.

```
  | WSIGNALED of int
```

The process was killed by a signal; the argument is the signal number.

```
  | WSTOPPED of int
```

The process was stopped by a signal; the argument is the signal number.

The termination status of a process. See module `Sys`[21.36] for the definitions of the standard signal numbers. Note that they are not the numbers used by the OS.

`type wait_flag =`
`| WNOHANG`

do not block if no child has died yet, but immediately return with a pid equal to 0.

`| WUNTRACED`

report also the children that receive stop signals.

Flags for `Unix.waitpid`[22.1].

`val execv : string -> string array -> 'a`

`execv prog args` execute the program in file `prog`, with the arguments `args`, and the current process environment. These `execv*` functions never return: on success, the current program is replaced by the new one; on failure, a `Unix.Unix_error`[22.1] exception is raised.

`val execve : string -> string array -> string array -> 'a`

Same as `Unix.execv`[22.1], except that the third argument provides the environment to the program executed.

`val execvp : string -> string array -> 'a`

Same as `Unix.execv`[22.1], except that the program is searched in the path.

`val execvpe : string -> string array -> string array -> 'a`

Same as `Unix.execve`[22.1], except that the program is searched in the path.

`val fork : unit -> int`

Fork a new process. The returned integer is 0 for the child process, the pid of the child process for the parent process.

`val wait : unit -> int * process_status`

Wait until one of the children processes die, and return its pid and termination status.

`val waitpid : wait_flag list -> int -> int * process_status`

Same as `Unix.wait`[22.1], but waits for the child process whose pid is given. A pid of `-1` means wait for any child. A pid of `0` means wait for any child in the same process group as the current process. Negative pid arguments represent process groups. The list of options indicates whether `waitpid` should return immediately without waiting, and whether it should report stopped children.

`val system : string -> process_status`

Execute the given command, wait until it terminates, and return its termination status. The string is interpreted by the shell `/bin/sh` and therefore can contain redirections, quotes, variables, etc. The result `WEXITED 127` indicates that the shell couldn't be executed.

`val getpid : unit -> int`

Return the pid of the process.

`val getppid : unit -> int`

Return the pid of the parent process.

`val nice : int -> int`

Change the process priority. The integer argument is added to the "nice" value. (Higher values of the "nice" value mean lower priorities.) Return the new nice value.

Basic file input/output

`type file_descr`

The abstract type of file descriptors.

`val stdin : file_descr`

File descriptor for standard input.

`val stdout : file_descr`

File descriptor for standard output.

`val stderr : file_descr`

File descriptor for standard error.

`type open_flag =`

`| O_RDONLY`

Open for reading

`| O_WRONLY`

Open for writing

`| O_RDWR`

Open for reading and writing

`| O_NONBLOCK`

Open in non-blocking mode

`| O_APPEND`

Open for append

`| O_CREAT`

Create if nonexistent

`| O_TRUNC`

Truncate to 0 length if existing

`| O_EXCL`

Fail if existing

`| O_NOCTTY`

Don't make this dev a controlling tty

`| O_DSYNC`

Writes complete as 'Synchronised I/O data integrity completion'

`| O_SYNC`

Writes complete as 'Synchronised I/O file integrity completion'

`| O_RSYNC`

Reads complete as writes (depending on O_SYNC/O_DSYNC)

`| O_SHARE_DELETE`

Windows only: allow the file to be deleted while still open

`| O_CLOEXEC`

Set the close-on-exec flag on the descriptor returned by `Unix.openfile`[22.1]

The flags to `Unix.openfile`[22.1].

`type file_perm = int`

The type of file access rights, e.g. `0o640` is read and write for user, read for group, none for others

`val openfile : string -> open_flag list -> file_perm -> file_descr`

Open the named file with the given flags. Third argument is the permissions to give to the file if it is created (see `Unix.umask`[22.1]). Return a file descriptor on the named file.

`val close : file_descr -> unit`

Close a file descriptor.

`val read : file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> int`

`read fd buff ofs len` reads `len` bytes from descriptor `fd`, storing them in byte sequence `buff`, starting at position `ofs` in `buff`. Return the number of bytes actually read.

`val write : file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> int`

`write fd buff ofs len` writes `len` bytes to descriptor `fd`, taking them from byte sequence `buff`, starting at position `ofs` in `buff`. Return the number of bytes actually written. `write` repeats the writing operation until all bytes have been written or an error occurs.

`val single_write : file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> int`

Same as `write`, but attempts to write only once. Thus, if an error occurs, `single_write` guarantees that no data has been written.

`val write_substring : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int`

Same as `write`, but take the data from a string instead of a byte sequence.

`val single_write_substring : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int`

Same as `single_write`, but take the data from a string instead of a byte sequence.

Interfacing with the standard input/output library

`val in_channel_of_descr : file_descr -> Pervasives.in_channel`

Create an input channel reading from the given descriptor. The channel is initially in binary mode; use `set_binary_mode_in ic false` if text mode is desired.

`val out_channel_of_descr : file_descr -> Pervasives.out_channel`

Create an output channel writing on the given descriptor. The channel is initially in binary mode; use `set_binary_mode_out oc false` if text mode is desired.

`val descr_of_in_channel : Pervasives.in_channel -> file_descr`

Return the descriptor corresponding to an input channel.

`val descr_of_out_channel : Pervasives.out_channel -> file_descr`

Return the descriptor corresponding to an output channel.

Seeking and truncating

```
type seek_command =
  | SEEK_SET
```

indicates positions relative to the beginning of the file

```
  | SEEK_CUR
```

indicates positions relative to the current position

```
  | SEEK_END
```

indicates positions relative to the end of the file

Positioning modes for `Unix.lseek`[22.1].

`val lseek : file_descr -> int -> seek_command -> int`

Set the current position for a file descriptor, and return the resulting offset (from the beginning of the file).

`val truncate : string -> int -> unit`

Truncates the named file to the given size.

`val ftruncate : file_descr -> int -> unit`

Truncates the file corresponding to the given descriptor to the given size.

File status

```
type file_kind =
  | S_REG
```

Regular file

```
  | S_DIR
```

Directory

```
  | S_CHR
```

Character device

```
  | S_BLK
```

Block device

```
  | S_LNK
```

Symbolic link

```
  | S_FIFO
```

Named pipe

```
  | S_SOCK
```

Socket

```
type stats = {
  st_dev : int ;
```

Device number

```
  st_ino : int ;
```

Inode number

```
  st_kind : file_kind ;
```

Kind of the file

```
  st_perm : file_perm ;
```

Access rights

```
  st_nlink : int ;
```

Number of links

```
  st_uid : int ;
```

User id of the owner

```
  st_gid : int ;
```

Group ID of the file's group

```
  st_rdev : int ;
```

Device minor number

```
  st_size : int ;
```

Size in bytes

```
  st_atime : float ;
```
Last access time

```
  st_mtime : float ;
```
Last modification time

```
  st_ctime : float ;
```
Last status change time

```
}
```

The information returned by the `Unix.stat`[22.1] calls.

```
val stat : string -> stats
```

Return the information for the named file.

```
val lstat : string -> stats
```

Same as `Unix.stat`[22.1], but in case the file is a symbolic link, return the information for the link itself.

```
val fstat : file_descr -> stats
```

Return the information for the file associated with the given descriptor.

```
val isatty : file_descr -> bool
```

Return `true` if the given file descriptor refers to a terminal or console window, `false` otherwise.

File operations on large files

```
module LargeFile :
  sig
```

```
    val lseek : Unix.file_descr -> int64 -> Unix.seek_command -> int64
    val truncate : string -> int64 -> unit
    val ftruncate : Unix.file_descr -> int64 -> unit
    type stats = {
      st_dev : int ;
```
Device number

```
      st_ino : int ;
```
Inode number

```
      st_kind : Unix.file_kind ;
```
Kind of the file

```
      st_perm : Unix.file_perm ;
```

```
            Access rights
    st_nlink : int ;
            Number of links
    st_uid : int ;
            User id of the owner
    st_gid : int ;
            Group ID of the file's group
    st_rdev : int ;
            Device minor number
    st_size : int64 ;
            Size in bytes
    st_atime : float ;
            Last access time
    st_mtime : float ;
            Last modification time
    st_ctime : float ;
            Last status change time
  }
  val stat : string -> stats
  val lstat : string -> stats
  val fstat : Unix.file_descr -> stats
end
```

File operations on large files. This sub-module provides 64-bit variants of the functions `Unix.lseek`[22.1] (for positioning a file descriptor), `Unix.truncate`[22.1] and `Unix.ftruncate`[22.1] (for changing the size of a file), and `Unix.stat`[22.1], `Unix.lstat`[22.1] and `Unix.fstat`[22.1] (for obtaining information on files). These alternate functions represent positions and sizes by 64-bit integers (type `int64`) instead of regular integers (type `int`), thus allowing operating on files whose sizes are greater than `max_int`.

Operations on file names

`val unlink : string -> unit`

Removes the named file

`val rename : string -> string -> unit`

`rename old new` changes the name of a file from `old` to `new`.

```
val link : string -> string -> unit
```

`link source dest` creates a hard link named `dest` to the file named `source`.

File permissions and ownership

```
type access_permission =
  | R_OK
```

Read permission

```
  | W_OK
```

Write permission

```
  | X_OK
```

Execution permission

```
  | F_OK
```

File exists

Flags for the `Unix.access`[22.1] call.

```
val chmod : string -> file_perm -> unit
```

Change the permissions of the named file.

```
val fchmod : file_descr -> file_perm -> unit
```

Change the permissions of an opened file.

```
val chown : string -> int -> int -> unit
```

Change the owner uid and owner gid of the named file.

```
val fchown : file_descr -> int -> int -> unit
```

Change the owner uid and owner gid of an opened file.

```
val umask : int -> int
```

Set the process's file mode creation mask, and return the previous mask.

```
val access : string -> access_permission list -> unit
```

Check that the process has the given permissions over the named file. Raise `Unix_error` otherwise.

Operations on file descriptors

`val dup : file_descr -> file_descr`

Return a new file descriptor referencing the same file as the given descriptor.

`val dup2 : file_descr -> file_descr -> unit`

`dup2 fd1 fd2` duplicates `fd1` to `fd2`, closing `fd2` if already opened.

`val set_nonblock : file_descr -> unit`

Set the "non-blocking" flag on the given descriptor. When the non-blocking flag is set, reading on a descriptor on which there is temporarily no data available raises the `EAGAIN` or `EWOULDBLOCK` error instead of blocking; writing on a descriptor on which there is temporarily no room for writing also raises `EAGAIN` or `EWOULDBLOCK`.

`val clear_nonblock : file_descr -> unit`

Clear the "non-blocking" flag on the given descriptor. See `Unix.set_nonblock`[22.1].

`val set_close_on_exec : file_descr -> unit`

Set the "close-on-exec" flag on the given descriptor. A descriptor with the close-on-exec flag is automatically closed when the current process starts another program with one of the `exec` functions.

`val clear_close_on_exec : file_descr -> unit`

Clear the "close-on-exec" flag on the given descriptor. See `Unix.set_close_on_exec`[22.1].

Directories

`val mkdir : string -> file_perm -> unit`

Create a directory with the given permissions (see `Unix.umask`[22.1]).

`val rmdir : string -> unit`

Remove an empty directory.

`val chdir : string -> unit`

Change the process working directory.

`val getcwd : unit -> string`

Return the name of the current working directory.

`val chroot : string -> unit`

Change the process root directory.

`type dir_handle`

The type of descriptors over opened directories.

`val opendir : string -> dir_handle`

Open a descriptor on a directory

`val readdir : dir_handle -> string`

Return the next entry in a directory.

Raises `End_of_file` when the end of the directory has been reached.

`val rewinddir : dir_handle -> unit`

Reposition the descriptor to the beginning of the directory

`val closedir : dir_handle -> unit`

Close a directory descriptor.

Pipes and redirections

`val pipe : unit -> file_descr * file_descr`

Create a pipe. The first component of the result is opened for reading, that's the exit to the pipe. The second component is opened for writing, that's the entrance to the pipe.

`val mkfifo : string -> file_perm -> unit`

Create a named pipe with the given permissions (see `Unix.umask`[22.1]).

High-level process and redirection management

```
val create_process :
  string ->
  string array -> file_descr -> file_descr -> file_descr -> int
```

`create_process prog args new_stdin new_stdout new_stderr` forks a new process that executes the program in file `prog`, with arguments `args`. The pid of the new process is returned immediately; the new process executes concurrently with the current process. The standard input and outputs of the new process are connected to the descriptors `new_stdin`, `new_stdout` and `new_stderr`. Passing e.g. `stdout` for `new_stdout` prevents the redirection and causes the new process to have the same standard output as the current process. The executable file `prog` is searched in the path. The new process has the same environment as the current process.

```
val create_process_env :
  string ->
  string array ->
  string array -> file_descr -> file_descr -> file_descr -> int
```

`create_process_env prog args env new_stdin new_stdout new_stderr` works as `Unix.create_process`[22.1], except that the extra argument `env` specifies the environment passed to the program.

```
val open_process_in : string -> Pervasives.in_channel
```

High-level pipe and process management. This function runs the given command in parallel with the program. The standard output of the command is redirected to a pipe, which can be read via the returned input channel. The command is interpreted by the shell `/bin/sh` (cf. `system`).

```
val open_process_out : string -> Pervasives.out_channel
```

Same as `Unix.open_process_in`[22.1], but redirect the standard input of the command to a pipe. Data written to the returned output channel is sent to the standard input of the command. Warning: writes on output channels are buffered, hence be careful to call `Pervasives.flush`[20.2] at the right times to ensure correct synchronization.

```
val open_process : string -> Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel
```

Same as `Unix.open_process_out`[22.1], but redirects both the standard input and standard output of the command to pipes connected to the two returned channels. The input channel is connected to the output of the command, and the output channel to the input of the command.

```
val open_process_full :
  string ->
  string array ->
  Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel * Pervasives.in_channel
```

Similar to `Unix.open_process`[22.1], but the second argument specifies the environment passed to the command. The result is a triple of channels connected respectively to the standard output, standard input, and standard error of the command.

```
val close_process_in : Pervasives.in_channel -> process_status
```

Close channels opened by `Unix.open_process_in`[22.1], wait for the associated command to terminate, and return its termination status.

```
val close_process_out : Pervasives.out_channel -> process_status
```

Close channels opened by `Unix.open_process_out`[22.1], wait for the associated command to terminate, and return its termination status.

```
val close_process :
  Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel -> process_status
```

Close channels opened by `Unix.open_process`[22.1], wait for the associated command to terminate, and return its termination status.

```
val close_process_full :
  Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel * Pervasives.in_channel ->
  process_status
```

Close channels opened by `Unix.open_process_full`[22.1], wait for the associated command to terminate, and return its termination status.

Symbolic links

```
val symlink : string -> string -> unit
```

`symlink source dest` creates the file `dest` as a symbolic link to the file `source`.

```
val readlink : string -> string
```

Read the contents of a link.

Polling

```
val select :
  file_descr list ->
  file_descr list ->
  file_descr list ->
  float -> file_descr list * file_descr list * file_descr list
```

Wait until some input/output operations become possible on some channels. The three list arguments are, respectively, a set of descriptors to check for reading (first argument), for writing (second argument), or for exceptional conditions (third argument). The fourth argument is the maximal timeout, in seconds; a negative fourth argument means no timeout (unbounded wait). The result is composed of three sets of descriptors: those ready for reading (first component), ready for writing (second component), and over which an exceptional condition is pending (third component).

Locking

```
type lock_command =
  | F_ULOCK
```

Unlock a region

```
  | F_LOCK
```

Lock a region for writing, and block if already locked

```
  | F_TLOCK
```

Lock a region for writing, or fail if already locked

```
  | F_TEST
```

Test a region for other process locks

```
  | F_RLOCK
```

Lock a region for reading, and block if already locked

```
  | F_TRLOCK
```

Lock a region for reading, or fail if already locked

Commands for `Unix.lockf`[22.1].

`val lockf : file_descr -> lock_command -> int -> unit`

`lockf fd cmd size` puts a lock on a region of the file opened as `fd`. The region starts at the current read/write position for `fd` (as set by `Unix.lseek`[22.1]), and extends `size` bytes forward if `size` is positive, `size` bytes backwards if `size` is negative, or to the end of the file if `size` is zero. A write lock prevents any other process from acquiring a read or write lock on the region. A read lock prevents any other process from acquiring a write lock on the region, but lets other processes acquire read locks on it.

The `F_LOCK` and `F_TLOCK` commands attempts to put a write lock on the specified region. The `F_RLOCK` and `F_TRLOCK` commands attempts to put a read lock on the specified region. If one or several locks put by another process prevent the current process from acquiring the lock, `F_LOCK` and `F_RLOCK` block until these locks are removed, while `F_TLOCK` and `F_TRLOCK` fail immediately with an exception. The `F_ULOCK` removes whatever locks the current process has on the specified region. Finally, the `F_TEST` command tests whether a write lock can be acquired on the specified region, without actually putting a lock. It returns immediately if successful, or fails otherwise.

Signals

Note: installation of signal handlers is performed via the functions `Sys.signal`[21.36] and `Sys.set_signal`[21.36].

`val kill : int -> int -> unit`

`kill pid sig` sends signal number `sig` to the process with id `pid`. Under Windows, only the `Sys.sigkill` signal is emulated.

```
type sigprocmask_command =
  | SIG_SETMASK
  | SIG_BLOCK
  | SIG_UNBLOCK
```

`val sigprocmask : sigprocmask_command -> int list -> int list`

`sigprocmask cmd sigs` changes the set of blocked signals. If `cmd` is `SIG_SETMASK`, blocked signals are set to those in the list `sigs`. If `cmd` is `SIG_BLOCK`, the signals in `sigs` are added to the set of blocked signals. If `cmd` is `SIG_UNBLOCK`, the signals in `sigs` are removed from the set of blocked signals. `sigprocmask` returns the set of previously blocked signals.

`val sigpending : unit -> int list`

Return the set of blocked signals that are currently pending.

`val sigsuspend : int list -> unit`

`sigsuspend sigs` atomically sets the blocked signals to `sigs` and waits for a non-ignored, non-blocked signal to be delivered. On return, the blocked signals are reset to their initial value.

`val pause : unit -> unit`

Wait until a non-ignored, non-blocked signal is delivered.

Time functions

```
type process_times = {
  tms_utime : float ;
```
User time for the process

```
  tms_stime : float ;
```
System time for the process

```
  tms_cutime : float ;
```
User time for the children processes

```
  tms_cstime : float ;
```
System time for the children processes

```
}
```
The execution times (CPU times) of a process.

```
type tm = {
  tm_sec : int ;
```
Seconds 0..60

```
  tm_min : int ;
```
Minutes 0..59

```
  tm_hour : int ;
```
Hours 0..23

```
  tm_mday : int ;
```
Day of month 1..31

```
  tm_mon : int ;
```
Month of year 0..11

```
  tm_year : int ;
```
Year - 1900

```
  tm_wday : int ;
```
Day of week (Sunday is 0)

```
  tm_yday : int ;
```
Day of year 0..365

```
  tm_isdst : bool ;
```
Daylight time savings in effect

```
}
```
The type representing wallclock time and calendar date.

```
val time : unit -> float
```

Return the current time since 00:00:00 GMT, Jan. 1, 1970, in seconds.

`val gettimeofday : unit -> float`

Same as `Unix.time`[22.1], but with resolution better than 1 second.

`val gmtime : float -> tm`

Convert a time in seconds, as returned by `Unix.time`[22.1], into a date and a time. Assumes UTC (Coordinated Universal Time), also known as GMT.

`val localtime : float -> tm`

Convert a time in seconds, as returned by `Unix.time`[22.1], into a date and a time. Assumes the local time zone.

`val mktime : tm -> float * tm`

Convert a date and time, specified by the `tm` argument, into a time in seconds, as returned by `Unix.time`[22.1]. The `tm_isdst`, `tm_wday` and `tm_yday` fields of `tm` are ignored. Also return a normalized copy of the given `tm` record, with the `tm_wday`, `tm_yday`, and `tm_isdst` fields recomputed from the other fields, and the other fields normalized (so that, e.g., 40 October is changed into 9 November). The `tm` argument is interpreted in the local time zone.

`val alarm : int -> int`

Schedule a `SIGALRM` signal after the given number of seconds.

`val sleep : int -> unit`

Stop execution for the given number of seconds.

`val times : unit -> process_times`

Return the execution times of the process.

`val utimes : string -> float -> float -> unit`

Set the last access time (second arg) and last modification time (third arg) for a file. Times are expressed in seconds from 00:00:00 GMT, Jan. 1, 1970. A time of `0.0` is interpreted as the current time.

```
type interval_timer =
  | ITIMER_REAL
```

decrements in real time, and sends the signal `SIGALRM` when expired.

```
  | ITIMER_VIRTUAL
```

decrements in process virtual time, and sends `SIGVTALRM` when expired.

```
  | ITIMER_PROF
```

(for profiling) decrements both when the process is running and when the system is running on behalf of the process; it sends `SIGPROF` when expired.

The three kinds of interval timers.

```
type interval_timer_status = {
  it_interval : float ;
```
Period

```
  it_value : float ;
```
Current value of the timer

```
}
```
The type describing the status of an interval timer

```
val getitimer : interval_timer -> interval_timer_status
```
Return the current status of the given interval timer.

```
val setitimer :
  interval_timer ->
  interval_timer_status -> interval_timer_status
```
`setitimer t s` sets the interval timer `t` and returns its previous status. The `s` argument is interpreted as follows: `s.it_value`, if nonzero, is the time to the next timer expiration; `s.it_interval`, if nonzero, specifies a value to be used in reloading `it_value` when the timer expires. Setting `s.it_value` to zero disables the timer. Setting `s.it_interval` to zero causes the timer to be disabled after its next expiration.

User id, group id

```
val getuid : unit -> int
```
Return the user id of the user executing the process.

```
val geteuid : unit -> int
```
Return the effective user id under which the process runs.

```
val setuid : int -> unit
```
Set the real user id and effective user id for the process.

```
val getgid : unit -> int
```
Return the group id of the user executing the process.

```
val getegid : unit -> int
```
Return the effective group id under which the process runs.

```
val setgid : int -> unit
```
Set the real group id and effective group id for the process.

```
val getgroups : unit -> int array
```
Return the list of groups to which the user executing the process belongs.

```
val setgroups : int array -> unit
```

`setgroups groups` sets the supplementary group IDs for the calling process. Appropriate privileges are required.

```
val initgroups : string -> int -> unit
```

`initgroups user group` initializes the group access list by reading the group database /etc/group and using all groups of which `user` is a member. The additional group `group` is also added to the list.

```
type passwd_entry = {
  pw_name : string ;
  pw_passwd : string ;
  pw_uid : int ;
  pw_gid : int ;
  pw_gecos : string ;
  pw_dir : string ;
  pw_shell : string ;
}
```

Structure of entries in the `passwd` database.

```
type group_entry = {
  gr_name : string ;
  gr_passwd : string ;
  gr_gid : int ;
  gr_mem : string array ;
}
```

Structure of entries in the `groups` database.

```
val getlogin : unit -> string
```

Return the login name of the user executing the process.

```
val getpwnam : string -> passwd_entry
```

Find an entry in `passwd` with the given name, or raise `Not_found`.

```
val getgrnam : string -> group_entry
```

Find an entry in `group` with the given name, or raise `Not_found`.

```
val getpwuid : int -> passwd_entry
```

Find an entry in `passwd` with the given user id, or raise `Not_found`.

```
val getgrgid : int -> group_entry
```

Find an entry in `group` with the given group id, or raise `Not_found`.

Internet addresses

`type inet_addr`

The abstract type of Internet addresses.

`val inet_addr_of_string : string -> inet_addr`

Conversion from the printable representation of an Internet address to its internal representation. The argument string consists of 4 numbers separated by periods (`XXX.YYY.ZZZ.TTT`) for IPv4 addresses, and up to 8 numbers separated by colons for IPv6 addresses. Raise `Failure` when given a string that does not match these formats.

`val string_of_inet_addr : inet_addr -> string`

Return the printable representation of the given Internet address. See `Unix.inet_addr_of_string`[22.1] for a description of the printable representation.

`val inet_addr_any : inet_addr`

A special IPv4 address, for use only with `bind`, representing all the Internet addresses that the host machine possesses.

`val inet_addr_loopback : inet_addr`

A special IPv4 address representing the host machine (`127.0.0.1`).

`val inet6_addr_any : inet_addr`

A special IPv6 address, for use only with `bind`, representing all the Internet addresses that the host machine possesses.

`val inet6_addr_loopback : inet_addr`

A special IPv6 address representing the host machine (`::1`).

Sockets

```
type socket_domain =
  | PF_UNIX
```

Unix domain

```
  | PF_INET
```

Internet domain (IPv4)

```
  | PF_INET6
```

Internet domain (IPv6)

The type of socket domains. Not all platforms support IPv6 sockets (type `PF_INET6`).

```
type socket_type =
  | SOCK_STREAM
```

Stream socket

```
| SOCK_DGRAM
```

Datagram socket

```
| SOCK_RAW
```

Raw socket

```
| SOCK_SEQPACKET
```

Sequenced packets socket

The type of socket kinds, specifying the semantics of communications.

```
type sockaddr =
  | ADDR_UNIX of string
  | ADDR_INET of inet_addr * int
```

The type of socket addresses. `ADDR_UNIX name` is a socket address in the Unix domain; `name` is a file name in the file system. `ADDR_INET(addr,port)` is a socket address in the Internet domain; `addr` is the Internet address of the machine, and `port` is the port number.

```
val socket : socket_domain -> socket_type -> int -> file_descr
```

Create a new socket in the given domain, and with the given kind. The third argument is the protocol type; 0 selects the default protocol for that kind of sockets.

```
val domain_of_sockaddr : sockaddr -> socket_domain
```

Return the socket domain adequate for the given socket address.

```
val socketpair :
  socket_domain ->
  socket_type -> int -> file_descr * file_descr
```

Create a pair of unnamed sockets, connected together.

```
val accept : file_descr -> file_descr * sockaddr
```

Accept connections on the given socket. The returned descriptor is a socket connected to the client; the returned address is the address of the connecting client.

```
val bind : file_descr -> sockaddr -> unit
```

Bind a socket to an address.

```
val connect : file_descr -> sockaddr -> unit
```

Connect a socket to an address.

```
val listen : file_descr -> int -> unit
```

Set up a socket for receiving connection requests. The integer argument is the maximal number of pending requests.

```
type shutdown_command =
  | SHUTDOWN_RECEIVE
```
Close for receiving

```
  | SHUTDOWN_SEND
```
Close for sending

```
  | SHUTDOWN_ALL
```
Close both

The type of commands for `shutdown`.

```
val shutdown : file_descr -> shutdown_command -> unit
```
Shutdown a socket connection. `SHUTDOWN_SEND` as second argument causes reads on the other end of the connection to return an end-of-file condition. `SHUTDOWN_RECEIVE` causes writes on the other end of the connection to return a closed pipe condition (`SIGPIPE` signal).

```
val getsockname : file_descr -> sockaddr
```
Return the address of the given socket.

```
val getpeername : file_descr -> sockaddr
```
Return the address of the host connected to the given socket.

```
type msg_flag =
  | MSG_OOB
  | MSG_DONTROUTE
  | MSG_PEEK
```
The flags for `Unix.recv`[22.1], `Unix.recvfrom`[22.1], `Unix.send`[22.1] and `Unix.sendto`[22.1].

```
val recv : file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int
```
Receive data from a connected socket.

```
val recvfrom :
  file_descr ->
  bytes -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int * sockaddr
```
Receive data from an unconnected socket.

```
val send : file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int
```
Send data over a connected socket.

```
val send_substring :
  file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int
```
Same as `send`, but take the data from a string instead of a byte sequence.

```
val sendto :
  file_descr ->
  bytes -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> sockaddr -> int
```

Send data over an unconnected socket.

```
val sendto_substring :
  file_descr ->
  string -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> sockaddr -> int
```

Same as `sendto`, but take the data from a string instead of a byte sequence.

Socket options

```
type socket_bool_option =
  | SO_DEBUG
```

Record debugging information

```
  | SO_BROADCAST
```

Permit sending of broadcast messages

```
  | SO_REUSEADDR
```

Allow reuse of local addresses for bind

```
  | SO_KEEPALIVE
```

Keep connection active

```
  | SO_DONTROUTE
```

Bypass the standard routing algorithms

```
  | SO_OOBINLINE
```

Leave out-of-band data in line

```
  | SO_ACCEPTCONN
```

Report whether socket listening is enabled

```
  | TCP_NODELAY
```

Control the Nagle algorithm for TCP sockets

```
  | IPV6_ONLY
```

Forbid binding an IPv6 socket to an IPv4 address

The socket options that can be consulted with `Unix.getsockopt`[22.1] and modified with `Unix.setsockopt`[22.1]. These options have a boolean (`true`/`false`) value.

```
type socket_int_option =
  | SO_SNDBUF
```

Size of send buffer

```
  | SO_RCVBUF
```

Size of received buffer

`| SO_ERROR`

Deprecated. Use `Unix.getsockopt_error`[22.1] instead.

`| SO_TYPE`

Report the socket type

`| SO_RCVLOWAT`

Minimum number of bytes to process for input operations

`| SO_SNDLOWAT`

Minimum number of bytes to process for output operations

The socket options that can be consulted with `Unix.getsockopt_int`[22.1] and modified with `Unix.setsockopt_int`[22.1]. These options have an integer value.

```
type socket_optint_option =
  | SO_LINGER
```

Whether to linger on closed connections that have data present, and for how long (in seconds)

The socket options that can be consulted with `Unix.getsockopt_optint`[22.1] and modified with `Unix.setsockopt_optint`[22.1]. These options have a value of type `int option`, with `None` meaning "disabled".

```
type socket_float_option =
  | SO_RCVTIMEO
```

Timeout for input operations

`| SO_SNDTIMEO`

Timeout for output operations

The socket options that can be consulted with `Unix.getsockopt_float`[22.1] and modified with `Unix.setsockopt_float`[22.1]. These options have a floating-point value representing a time in seconds. The value 0 means infinite timeout.

```
val getsockopt : file_descr -> socket_bool_option -> bool
```

Return the current status of a boolean-valued option in the given socket.

```
val setsockopt : file_descr -> socket_bool_option -> bool -> unit
```

Set or clear a boolean-valued option in the given socket.

```
val getsockopt_int : file_descr -> socket_int_option -> int
```

Same as `Unix.getsockopt`[22.1] for an integer-valued socket option.

```
val setsockopt_int : file_descr -> socket_int_option -> int -> unit
```

Same as `Unix.setsockopt`[22.1] for an integer-valued socket option.

```
val getsockopt_optint : file_descr -> socket_optint_option -> int option
```

Same as `Unix.getsockopt`[22.1] for a socket option whose value is an `int option`.

```
val setsockopt_optint :
  file_descr -> socket_optint_option -> int option -> unit
```

Same as `Unix.setsockopt`[22.1] for a socket option whose value is an `int option`.

```
val getsockopt_float : file_descr -> socket_float_option -> float
```

Same as `Unix.getsockopt`[22.1] for a socket option whose value is a floating-point number.

```
val setsockopt_float : file_descr -> socket_float_option -> float -> unit
```

Same as `Unix.setsockopt`[22.1] for a socket option whose value is a floating-point number.

```
val getsockopt_error : file_descr -> error option
```

Return the error condition associated with the given socket, and clear it.

High-level network connection functions

```
val open_connection :
  sockaddr -> Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel
```

Connect to a server at the given address. Return a pair of buffered channels connected to the server. Remember to call `Pervasives.flush`[20.2] on the output channel at the right times to ensure correct synchronization.

```
val shutdown_connection : Pervasives.in_channel -> unit
```

"Shut down" a connection established with `Unix.open_connection`[22.1]; that is, transmit an end-of-file condition to the server reading on the other side of the connection. This does not fully close the file descriptor associated with the channel, which you must remember to free via `Pervasives.close_in`[20.2].

```
val establish_server :
  (Pervasives.in_channel -> Pervasives.out_channel -> unit) ->
  sockaddr -> unit
```

Establish a server on the given address. The function given as first argument is called for each connection with two buffered channels connected to the client. A new process is created for each connection. The function `Unix.establish_server`[22.1] never returns normally.

Host and protocol databases

```
type host_entry = {
  h_name : string ;
  h_aliases : string array ;
  h_addrtype : socket_domain ;
  h_addr_list : inet_addr array ;
}
```

Structure of entries in the hosts database.

```
type protocol_entry = {
  p_name : string ;
  p_aliases : string array ;
  p_proto : int ;
}
```

Structure of entries in the protocols database.

```
type service_entry = {
  s_name : string ;
  s_aliases : string array ;
  s_port : int ;
  s_proto : string ;
}
```

Structure of entries in the services database.

```
val gethostname : unit -> string
```

Return the name of the local host.

```
val gethostbyname : string -> host_entry
```

Find an entry in hosts with the given name, or raise Not_found.

```
val gethostbyaddr : inet_addr -> host_entry
```

Find an entry in hosts with the given address, or raise Not_found.

```
val getprotobyname : string -> protocol_entry
```

Find an entry in protocols with the given name, or raise Not_found.

```
val getprotobynumber : int -> protocol_entry
```

Find an entry in protocols with the given protocol number, or raise Not_found.

```
val getservbyname : string -> string -> service_entry
```

Find an entry in services with the given name, or raise Not_found.

```
val getservbyport : int -> string -> service_entry
```

Find an entry in services with the given service number, or raise Not_found.

```
type addr_info = {
  ai_family : socket_domain ;
```

Socket domain

```
  ai_socktype : socket_type ;
```

Socket type

`ai_protocol : int ;`
Socket protocol number

`ai_addr : sockaddr ;`
Address

`ai_canonname : string ;`
Canonical host name

`}`

Address information returned by `Unix.getaddrinfo`[22.1].

```
type getaddrinfo_option =
  | AI_FAMILY of socket_domain
```
Impose the given socket domain

```
  | AI_SOCKTYPE of socket_type
```
Impose the given socket type

```
  | AI_PROTOCOL of int
```
Impose the given protocol

```
  | AI_NUMERICHOST
```
Do not call name resolver, expect numeric IP address

```
  | AI_CANONNAME
```
Fill the `ai_canonname` field of the result

```
  | AI_PASSIVE
```
Set address to "any" address for use with `Unix.bind`[22.1]

Options to `Unix.getaddrinfo`[22.1].

```
val getaddrinfo :
  string -> string -> getaddrinfo_option list -> addr_info list
```

`getaddrinfo host service opts` returns a list of `Unix.addr_info`[22.1] records describing socket parameters and addresses suitable for communicating with the given host and service. The empty list is returned if the host or service names are unknown, or the constraints expressed in `opts` cannot be satisfied.

`host` is either a host name or the string representation of an IP address. `host` can be given as the empty string; in this case, the "any" address or the "loopback" address are used, depending whether `opts` contains `AI_PASSIVE`. `service` is either a service name or the string representation of a port number. `service` can be given as the empty string; in this case, the port field of the returned addresses is set to 0. `opts` is a possibly empty list of options that allows the caller to force a particular socket domain (e.g. IPv6 only or IPv4 only) or a particular socket type (e.g. TCP only or UDP only).

```
type name_info = {
  ni_hostname : string ;
```

Name or IP address of host

```
  ni_service : string ;
}
```

Name of service or port number

Host and service information returned by `Unix.getnameinfo`[22.1].

```
type getnameinfo_option =
  | NI_NOFQDN
```

Do not qualify local host names

```
  | NI_NUMERICHOST
```

Always return host as IP address

```
  | NI_NAMEREQD
```

Fail if host name cannot be determined

```
  | NI_NUMERICSERV
```

Always return service as port number

```
  | NI_DGRAM
```

Consider the service as UDP-based instead of the default TCP

Options to `Unix.getnameinfo`[22.1].

```
val getnameinfo : sockaddr -> getnameinfo_option list -> name_info
```

`getnameinfo addr opts` returns the host name and service name corresponding to the socket address `addr`. `opts` is a possibly empty list of options that governs how these names are obtained. Raise `Not_found` if an error occurs.

Terminal interface

The following functions implement the POSIX standard terminal interface. They provide control over asynchronous communication ports and pseudo-terminals. Refer to the `termios` man page for a complete description.

```
type terminal_io = {
  mutable c_ignbrk : bool ;
```

Ignore the break condition.

```
  mutable c_brkint : bool ;
```

Signal interrupt on break condition.

```
  mutable c_ignpar : bool ;
```

Ignore characters with parity errors.

```
  mutable c_parmrk : bool ;
```

Mark parity errors.

`mutable c_inpck : bool ;`
Enable parity check on input.

`mutable c_istrip : bool ;`
Strip 8th bit on input characters.

`mutable c_inlcr : bool ;`
Map NL to CR on input.

`mutable c_igncr : bool ;`
Ignore CR on input.

`mutable c_icrnl : bool ;`
Map CR to NL on input.

`mutable c_ixon : bool ;`
Recognize XON/XOFF characters on input.

`mutable c_ixoff : bool ;`
Emit XON/XOFF chars to control input flow.

`mutable c_opost : bool ;`
Enable output processing.

`mutable c_obaud : int ;`
Output baud rate (0 means close connection).

`mutable c_ibaud : int ;`
Input baud rate.

`mutable c_csize : int ;`
Number of bits per character (5-8).

`mutable c_cstopb : int ;`
Number of stop bits (1-2).

`mutable c_cread : bool ;`
Reception is enabled.

`mutable c_parenb : bool ;`
Enable parity generation and detection.

`mutable c_parodd : bool ;`
Specify odd parity instead of even.

`mutable c_hupcl : bool ;`
Hang up on last close.

`mutable c_clocal : bool ;`
Ignore modem status lines.

`mutable c_isig : bool ;`
Generate signal on INTR, QUIT, SUSP.

`mutable c_icanon : bool ;`
Enable canonical processing (line buffering and editing)

`mutable c_noflsh : bool ;`
Disable flush after INTR, QUIT, SUSP.

`mutable c_echo : bool ;`
Echo input characters.

`mutable c_echoe : bool ;`
Echo ERASE (to erase previous character).

`mutable c_echok : bool ;`
Echo KILL (to erase the current line).

`mutable c_echonl : bool ;`
Echo NL even if c_echo is not set.

`mutable c_vintr : char ;`
Interrupt character (usually ctrl-C).

`mutable c_vquit : char ;`
Quit character (usually ctrl-“).

`mutable c_verase : char ;`
Erase character (usually DEL or ctrl-H).

`mutable c_vkill : char ;`
Kill line character (usually ctrl-U).

`mutable c_veof : char ;`
End-of-file character (usually ctrl-D).

`mutable c_veol : char ;`
Alternate end-of-line char. (usually none).

`mutable c_vmin : int ;`
Minimum number of characters to read before the read request is satisfied.

`mutable c_vtime : int ;`
Maximum read wait (in 0.1s units).

`mutable c_vstart : char ;`
Start character (usually ctrl-Q).

`mutable c_vstop : char ;`
Stop character (usually ctrl-S).

```
}
val tcgetattr : file_descr -> terminal_io
```

Return the status of the terminal referred to by the given file descriptor.

```
type setattr_when =
  | TCSANOW
  | TCSADRAIN
  | TCSAFLUSH
val tcsetattr : file_descr -> setattr_when -> terminal_io -> unit
```

Set the status of the terminal referred to by the given file descriptor. The second argument indicates when the status change takes place: immediately (`TCSANOW`), when all pending output has been transmitted (`TCSADRAIN`), or after flushing all input that has been received but not read (`TCSAFLUSH`). `TCSADRAIN` is recommended when changing the output parameters; `TCSAFLUSH`, when changing the input parameters.

```
val tcsendbreak : file_descr -> int -> unit
```

Send a break condition on the given file descriptor. The second argument is the duration of the break, in 0.1s units; 0 means standard duration (0.25s).

```
val tcdrain : file_descr -> unit
```

Waits until all output written on the given file descriptor has been transmitted.

```
type flush_queue =
  | TCIFLUSH
  | TCOFLUSH
  | TCIOFLUSH
val tcflush : file_descr -> flush_queue -> unit
```

Discard data written on the given file descriptor but not yet transmitted, or data received but not yet read, depending on the second argument: `TCIFLUSH` flushes data received but not read, `TCOFLUSH` flushes data written but not transmitted, and `TCIOFLUSH` flushes both.

```
type flow_action =
  | TCOOFF
  | TCOON
  | TCIOFF
  | TCION
val tcflow : file_descr -> flow_action -> unit
```

Suspend or restart reception or transmission of data on the given file descriptor, depending on the second argument: `TCOOFF` suspends output, `TCOON` restarts output, `TCIOFF` transmits a STOP character to suspend input, and `TCION` transmits a START character to restart input.

```
val setsid : unit -> int
```

Put the calling process in a new session and detach it from its controlling terminal.

22.2 Module UnixLabels: labelized version of the interface

This module is identical to Unix (22.1), and only differs by the addition of labels. You may see these labels directly by looking at unixLabels.mli, or by using the ocamlbrowser tool.

Windows:

The Cygwin port of OCaml fully implements all functions from the Unix module. The native Win32 ports implement a subset of them. Below is a list of the functions that are not implemented, or only partially implemented, by the Win32 ports. Functions not mentioned are fully implemented and behave as described previously in this chapter.

Functions	Comment
`fork`	not implemented, use `create_process` or threads
`wait`	not implemented, use `waitpid`
`waitpid`	can only wait for a given PID, not any child process
`getppid`	not implemented (meaningless under Windows)
`nice`	not implemented
`truncate`, `ftruncate`	not implemented
`link`, `symlink`, `readlink`	not implemented (no links under Windows)
`access`	execute permission `X_OK` cannot be tested, it just tests for read permission instead
`fchmod`	not implemented
`chown`, `fchown`	not implemented (make no sense on a DOS file system)
`umask`	not implemented
`mkfifo`	not implemented
`kill`, `pause`	not implemented (no inter-process signals in Windows)
`alarm`	not implemented
`times`	partially implemented, will not report timings for child processes
`getitimer`, `setitimer`	not implemented
`getuid`, `getgid`	always return 1
`getgid`, `getegid`, `getgroups`	not implemented
`setuid`, `setgid`	not implemented
`getpwnam`, `getpwuid`	always raise `Not_found`
`getgrnam`, `getgrgid`	always raise `Not_found`
type `socket_domain`	the domains `PF_UNIX` and `PF_INET6` are not supported; `PF_INET` is fully supported
`establish_server`	not implemented; use threads
terminal functions (`tc*`)	not implemented

Chapter 23

The num library: arbitrary-precision rational arithmetic

The `num` library implements integer arithmetic and rational arithmetic in arbitrary precision.

More documentation on the functions provided in this library can be found in *The CAML Numbers Reference Manual* by Valérie Ménissier-Morain, technical report 141, INRIA, july 1992 (available electronically, `http://hal.inria.fr/docs/00/07/00/27/PDF/RT-0141.pdf`).

Programs that use the `num` library must be linked as follows:

> `ocamlc` *other options* `nums.cma` *other files*
> `ocamlopt` *other options* `nums.cmxa` *other files*

For interactive use of the `nums` library, do:

```
ocamlmktop -o mytop nums.cma
./mytop
```

or (if dynamic linking of C libraries is supported on your platform), start `ocaml` and type `#load "nums.cma";;`.

23.1 Module `Num` : Operation on arbitrary-precision numbers.

Numbers (type `num`) are arbitrary-precision rational numbers, plus the special elements `1/0` (infinity) and `0/0` (undefined).

```
type num =
  | Int of int
  | Big_int of Big_int.big_int
  | Ratio of Ratio.ratio
```

The type of numbers.

Arithmetic operations

`val (+/) : num -> num -> num`

Same as `Num.add_num`[23.1].

`val add_num : num -> num -> num`

Addition

`val minus_num : num -> num`

Unary negation.

`val (-/) : num -> num -> num`

Same as `Num.sub_num`[23.1].

`val sub_num : num -> num -> num`

Subtraction

`val ( */ ) : num -> num -> num`

Same as `Num.mult_num`[23.1].

`val mult_num : num -> num -> num`

Multiplication

`val square_num : num -> num`

Squaring

`val (//) : num -> num -> num`

Same as `Num.div_num`[23.1].

`val div_num : num -> num -> num`

Division

`val quo_num : num -> num -> num`

Euclidean division: quotient.

`val mod_num : num -> num -> num`

Euclidean division: remainder.

`val ( **/ ) : num -> num -> num`

Same as `Num.power_num`[23.1].

`val power_num : num -> num -> num`

Exponentiation

`val abs_num : num -> num`

Absolute value.

```
val succ_num : num -> num
```

`succ n` is `n+1`

```
val pred_num : num -> num
```

`pred n` is `n-1`

```
val incr_num : num Pervasives.ref -> unit
```

`incr r` is `r:=!r+1`, where `r` is a reference to a number.

```
val decr_num : num Pervasives.ref -> unit
```

`decr r` is `r:=!r-1`, where `r` is a reference to a number.

```
val is_integer_num : num -> bool
```

Test if a number is an integer

The four following functions approximate a number by an integer :

```
val integer_num : num -> num
```

`integer_num n` returns the integer closest to `n`. In case of ties, rounds towards zero.

```
val floor_num : num -> num
```

`floor_num n` returns the largest integer smaller or equal to `n`.

```
val round_num : num -> num
```

`round_num n` returns the integer closest to `n`. In case of ties, rounds off zero.

```
val ceiling_num : num -> num
```

`ceiling_num n` returns the smallest integer bigger or equal to `n`.

```
val sign_num : num -> int
```

Return `-1`, `0` or `1` according to the sign of the argument.

Comparisons between numbers

```
val (=/) : num -> num -> bool
val (</) : num -> num -> bool
val (>/) : num -> num -> bool
val (<=/) : num -> num -> bool
val (>=/) : num -> num -> bool
val (<>/) : num -> num -> bool
val eq_num : num -> num -> bool
val lt_num : num -> num -> bool
```

```
val le_num : num -> num -> bool
val gt_num : num -> num -> bool
val ge_num : num -> num -> bool
val compare_num : num -> num -> int
```

Return `-1`, `0` or `1` if the first argument is less than, equal to, or greater than the second argument.

```
val max_num : num -> num -> num
```

Return the greater of the two arguments.

```
val min_num : num -> num -> num
```

Return the smaller of the two arguments.

Coercions with strings

```
val string_of_num : num -> string
```

Convert a number to a string, using fractional notation.

```
val approx_num_fix : int -> num -> string
```

See `Num.approx_num_exp`[23.1].

```
val approx_num_exp : int -> num -> string
```

Approximate a number by a decimal. The first argument is the required precision. The second argument is the number to approximate. `Num.approx_num_fix`[23.1] uses decimal notation; the first argument is the number of digits after the decimal point. `approx_num_exp` uses scientific (exponential) notation; the first argument is the number of digits in the mantissa.

```
val num_of_string : string -> num
```

Convert a string to a number. Raise `Failure "num_of_string"` if the given string is not a valid representation of an integer

Coercions between numerical types

```
val int_of_num : num -> int
val num_of_int : int -> num
val nat_of_num : num -> Nat.nat
val num_of_nat : Nat.nat -> num
val num_of_big_int : Big_int.big_int -> num
val big_int_of_num : num -> Big_int.big_int
val ratio_of_num : num -> Ratio.ratio
val num_of_ratio : Ratio.ratio -> num
val float_of_num : num -> float
```

23.2 Module `Big_int` : Operations on arbitrary-precision integers.

Big integers (type `big_int`) are signed integers of arbitrary size.

`type big_int`

The type of big integers.

`val zero_big_int : big_int`

The big integer `0`.

`val unit_big_int : big_int`

The big integer `1`.

Arithmetic operations

`val minus_big_int : big_int -> big_int`

Unary negation.

`val abs_big_int : big_int -> big_int`

Absolute value.

`val add_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Addition.

`val succ_big_int : big_int -> big_int`

Successor (add 1).

`val add_int_big_int : int -> big_int -> big_int`

Addition of a small integer to a big integer.

`val sub_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Subtraction.

`val pred_big_int : big_int -> big_int`

Predecessor (subtract 1).

`val mult_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Multiplication of two big integers.

`val mult_int_big_int : int -> big_int -> big_int`

Multiplication of a big integer by a small integer

`val square_big_int : big_int -> big_int`

Return the square of the given big integer

`val sqrt_big_int : big_int -> big_int`

`sqrt_big_int a` returns the integer square root of `a`, that is, the largest big integer `r` such that `r * r <= a`. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `a` is negative.

`val quomod_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int * big_int`

Euclidean division of two big integers. The first part of the result is the quotient, the second part is the remainder. Writing `(q,r) = quomod_big_int a b`, we have `a = q * b + r` and `0 <= r < |b|`. Raise `Division_by_zero` if the divisor is zero.

`val div_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Euclidean quotient of two big integers. This is the first result `q` of `quomod_big_int` (see above).

`val mod_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Euclidean modulus of two big integers. This is the second result `r` of `quomod_big_int` (see above).

`val gcd_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Greatest common divisor of two big integers.

`val power_int_positive_int : int -> int -> big_int`

`val power_big_int_positive_int : big_int -> int -> big_int`

`val power_int_positive_big_int : int -> big_int -> big_int`

`val power_big_int_positive_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Exponentiation functions. Return the big integer representing the first argument `a` raised to the power `b` (the second argument). Depending on the function, `a` and `b` can be either small integers or big integers. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `b` is negative.

Comparisons and tests

`val sign_big_int : big_int -> int`

Return `0` if the given big integer is zero, `1` if it is positive, and `-1` if it is negative.

`val compare_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> int`

`compare_big_int a b` returns `0` if `a` and `b` are equal, `1` if `a` is greater than `b`, and `-1` if `a` is smaller than `b`.

`val eq_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> bool`

`val le_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> bool`

`val ge_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> bool`

`val lt_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> bool`

`val gt_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> bool`

Usual boolean comparisons between two big integers.

`val max_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Return the greater of its two arguments.

`val min_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Return the smaller of its two arguments.

`val num_digits_big_int : big_int -> int`

Return the number of machine words used to store the given big integer.

Conversions to and from strings

`val string_of_big_int : big_int -> string`

Return the string representation of the given big integer, in decimal (base 10).

`val big_int_of_string : string -> big_int`

Convert a string to a big integer, in decimal. The string consists of an optional `-` or `+` sign, followed by one or several decimal digits.

Conversions to and from other numerical types

`val big_int_of_int : int -> big_int`

Convert a small integer to a big integer.

`val is_int_big_int : big_int -> bool`

Test whether the given big integer is small enough to be representable as a small integer (type `int`) without loss of precision. On a 32-bit platform, `is_int_big_int a` returns `true` if and only if `a` is between 2^{30} and 2^{30}-1. On a 64-bit platform, `is_int_big_int a` returns `true` if and only if `a` is between -2^{62} and 2^{62}-1.

`val int_of_big_int : big_int -> int`

Convert a big integer to a small integer (type `int`). Raises `Failure "int_of_big_int"` if the big integer is not representable as a small integer.

`val big_int_of_int32 : int32 -> big_int`

Convert a 32-bit integer to a big integer.

`val big_int_of_nativeint : nativeint -> big_int`

Convert a native integer to a big integer.

`val big_int_of_int64 : int64 -> big_int`

Convert a 64-bit integer to a big integer.

`val int32_of_big_int : big_int -> int32`

Convert a big integer to a 32-bit integer. Raises `Failure` if the big integer is outside the range `[-2{^31}, 2{^31}-1]`.

`val nativeint_of_big_int : big_int -> nativeint`

Convert a big integer to a native integer. Raises `Failure` if the big integer is outside the range `[Nativeint.min_int, Nativeint.max_int]`.

`val int64_of_big_int : big_int -> int64`

Convert a big integer to a 64-bit integer. Raises `Failure` if the big integer is outside the range `[-2{^63}, 2{^63}-1]`.

`val float_of_big_int : big_int -> float`

Returns a floating-point number approximating the given big integer.

Bit-oriented operations

`val and_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Bitwise logical 'and'. The arguments must be positive or zero.

`val or_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Bitwise logical 'or'. The arguments must be positive or zero.

`val xor_big_int : big_int -> big_int -> big_int`

Bitwise logical 'exclusive or'. The arguments must be positive or zero.

`val shift_left_big_int : big_int -> int -> big_int`

`shift_left_big_int b n` returns `b` shifted left by `n` bits. Equivalent to multiplication by `2^n`.

`val shift_right_big_int : big_int -> int -> big_int`

`shift_right_big_int b n` returns `b` shifted right by `n` bits. Equivalent to division by `2^n` with the result being rounded towards minus infinity.

`val shift_right_towards_zero_big_int : big_int -> int -> big_int`

`shift_right_towards_zero_big_int b n` returns `b` shifted right by `n` bits. The shift is performed on the absolute value of `b`, and the result has the same sign as `b`. Equivalent to division by `2^n` with the result being rounded towards zero.

`val extract_big_int : big_int -> int -> int -> big_int`

`extract_big_int bi ofs n` returns a nonnegative number corresponding to bits `ofs` to `ofs + n - 1` of the binary representation of `bi`. If `bi` is negative, a two's complement representation is used.

23.3 Module `Arith_status` : Flags that control rational arithmetic.

`val arith_status : unit -> unit`

Print the current status of the arithmetic flags.

`val get_error_when_null_denominator : unit -> bool`

See `Arith_status.set_error_when_null_denominator`[23.3].

`val set_error_when_null_denominator : bool -> unit`

Get or set the flag `null_denominator`. When on, attempting to create a rational with a null denominator raises an exception. When off, rationals with null denominators are accepted. Initially: on.

`val get_normalize_ratio : unit -> bool`

See `Arith_status.set_normalize_ratio`[23.3].

`val set_normalize_ratio : bool -> unit`

Get or set the flag `normalize_ratio`. When on, rational numbers are normalized after each operation. When off, rational numbers are not normalized until printed. Initially: off.

`val get_normalize_ratio_when_printing : unit -> bool`

See `Arith_status.set_normalize_ratio_when_printing`[23.3].

`val set_normalize_ratio_when_printing : bool -> unit`

Get or set the flag `normalize_ratio_when_printing`. When on, rational numbers are normalized before being printed. When off, rational numbers are printed as is, without normalization. Initially: on.

`val get_approx_printing : unit -> bool`

See `Arith_status.set_approx_printing`[23.3].

`val set_approx_printing : bool -> unit`

Get or set the flag `approx_printing`. When on, rational numbers are printed as a decimal approximation. When off, rational numbers are printed as a fraction. Initially: off.

`val get_floating_precision : unit -> int`

See `Arith_status.set_floating_precision`[23.3].

`val set_floating_precision : int -> unit`

Get or set the parameter `floating_precision`. This parameter is the number of digits displayed when `approx_printing` is on. Initially: 12.

Chapter 24

The str library: regular expressions and string processing

The `str` library provides high-level string processing functions, some based on regular expressions. It is intended to support the kind of file processing that is usually performed with scripting languages such as `awk`, `perl` or `sed`.

Programs that use the `str` library must be linked as follows:

`ocamlc` *other options* `str.cma` *other files*
`ocamlopt` *other options* `str.cmxa` *other files*

For interactive use of the `str` library, do:

```
ocamlmktop -o mytop str.cma
./mytop
```

or (if dynamic linking of C libraries is supported on your platform), start `ocaml` and type `#load "str.cma";;`.

24.1 Module Str : Regular expressions and high-level string processing

Regular expressions

`type regexp`

The type of compiled regular expressions.

`val regexp : string -> regexp`

Compile a regular expression. The following constructs are recognized:

- `.` Matches any character except newline.
- `*` (postfix) Matches the preceding expression zero, one or several times

- `+` (postfix) Matches the preceding expression one or several times
- `?` (postfix) Matches the preceding expression once or not at all
- `[..]` Character set. Ranges are denoted with `-`, as in `[a-z]`. An initial `^`, as in `[^0-9]`, complements the set. To include a `]` character in a set, make it the first character of the set. To include a `-` character in a set, make it the first or the last character of the set.
- `^` Matches at beginning of line (either at the beginning of the matched string, or just after a newline character).
- `$` Matches at end of line (either at the end of the matched string, or just before a newline character).
- `\|` (infix) Alternative between two expressions.
- `\(..\)` Grouping and naming of the enclosed expression.
- `\1` The text matched by the first `\(...\)` expression (`\2` for the second expression, and so on up to `\9`).
- `\b` Matches word boundaries.
- `\` Quotes special characters. The special characters are `$^\.*+?[]`.

  Note: the argument to `regexp` is usually a string literal. In this case, any backslash character in the regular expression must be doubled to make it past the OCaml string parser. For example, the following expression:

```
let r = Str.regexp "hello \\([A-Za-z]+\\)" in
      Str.replace_first r "\\1" "hello world"
```

returns the string `"world"`.

In particular, if you want a regular expression that matches a single backslash character, you need to quote it in the argument to `regexp` (according to the last item of the list above) by adding a second backslash. Then you need to quote both backslashes (according to the syntax of string constants in OCaml) by doubling them again, so you need to write four backslash characters: `Str.regexp "\\\\"`.

`val regexp_case_fold : string -> regexp`

Same as `regexp`, but the compiled expression will match text in a case-insensitive way: uppercase and lowercase letters will be considered equivalent.

`val quote : string -> string`

`Str.quote s` returns a regexp string that matches exactly `s` and nothing else.

`val regexp_string : string -> regexp`

`Str.regexp_string s` returns a regular expression that matches exactly `s` and nothing else.

`val regexp_string_case_fold : string -> regexp`

`Str.regexp_string_case_fold` is similar to `Str.regexp_string`[24.1], but the regexp matches in a case-insensitive way.

String matching and searching

`val string_match : regexp -> string -> int -> bool`

`string_match r s start` tests whether a substring of `s` that starts at position `start` matches the regular expression `r`. The first character of a string has position `0`, as usual.

`val search_forward : regexp -> string -> int -> int`

`search_forward r s start` searches the string `s` for a substring matching the regular expression `r`. The search starts at position `start` and proceeds towards the end of the string. Return the position of the first character of the matched substring.

Raises `Not_found` if no substring matches.

`val search_backward : regexp -> string -> int -> int`

`search_backward r s last` searches the string `s` for a substring matching the regular expression `r`. The search first considers substrings that start at position `last` and proceeds towards the beginning of string. Return the position of the first character of the matched substring.

Raises `Not_found` if no substring matches.

`val string_partial_match : regexp -> string -> int -> bool`

Similar to `Str.string_match`[24.1], but also returns true if the argument string is a prefix of a string that matches. This includes the case of a true complete match.

`val matched_string : string -> string`

`matched_string s` returns the substring of `s` that was matched by the last call to one of the following matching or searching functions:

- `Str.string_match`[24.1]
- `Str.search_forward`[24.1]
- `Str.search_backward`[24.1]
- `Str.string_partial_match`[24.1]
- `Str.global_substitute`[24.1]
- `Str.substitute_first`[24.1]

provided that none of the following functions was called inbetween:

- `Str.global_replace`[24.1]
- `Str.replace_first`[24.1]
- `Str.split`[24.1]
- `Str.bounded_split`[24.1]
- `Str.split_delim`[24.1]
- `Str.bounded_split_delim`[24.1]

- `Str.full_split`[24.1]
- `Str.bounded_full_split`[24.1]

Note: in the case of `global_substitute` and `substitute_first`, a call to `matched_string` is only valid within the `subst` argument, not after `global_substitute` or `substitute_first` returns.

The user must make sure that the parameter `s` is the same string that was passed to the matching or searching function.

`val match_beginning : unit -> int`

`match_beginning()` returns the position of the first character of the substring that was matched by the last call to a matching or searching function (see `Str.matched_string`[24.1] for details).

`val match_end : unit -> int`

`match_end()` returns the position of the character following the last character of the substring that was matched by the last call to a matching or searching function (see `Str.matched_string`[24.1] for details).

`val matched_group : int -> string -> string`

`matched_group n s` returns the substring of `s` that was matched by the `n`th group `\(...\)` of the regular expression that was matched by the last call to a matching or searching function (see `Str.matched_string`[24.1] for details). The user must make sure that the parameter `s` is the same string that was passed to the matching or searching function.

Raises `Not_found` if the `n`th group of the regular expression was not matched. This can happen with groups inside alternatives `\|`, options `?` or repetitions `*`. For instance, the empty string will match `\(a\)*`, but `matched_group 1 ""` will raise `Not_found` because the first group itself was not matched.

`val group_beginning : int -> int`

`group_beginning n` returns the position of the first character of the substring that was matched by the `n`th group of the regular expression that was matched by the last call to a matching or searching function (see `Str.matched_string`[24.1] for details).

Raises

- `Not_found` if the `n`th group of the regular expression was not matched.
- `Invalid_argument` if there are fewer than `n` groups in the regular expression.

`val group_end : int -> int`

`group_end n` returns the position of the character following the last character of substring that was matched by the `n`th group of the regular expression that was matched by the last call to a matching or searching function (see `Str.matched_string`[24.1] for details).

Raises

- `Not_found` if the `n`th group of the regular expression was not matched.
- `Invalid_argument` if there are fewer than `n` groups in the regular expression.

Replacement

`val global_replace : regexp -> string -> string -> string`

`global_replace regexp templ s` returns a string identical to `s`, except that all substrings of `s` that match `regexp` have been replaced by `templ`. The replacement template `templ` can contain `\1`, `\2`, etc; these sequences will be replaced by the text matched by the corresponding group in the regular expression. `\0` stands for the text matched by the whole regular expression.

`val replace_first : regexp -> string -> string -> string`

Same as `Str.global_replace`[24.1], except that only the first substring matching the regular expression is replaced.

`val global_substitute : regexp -> (string -> string) -> string -> string`

`global_substitute regexp subst s` returns a string identical to `s`, except that all substrings of `s` that match `regexp` have been replaced by the result of function `subst`. The function `subst` is called once for each matching substring, and receives `s` (the whole text) as argument.

`val substitute_first : regexp -> (string -> string) -> string -> string`

Same as `Str.global_substitute`[24.1], except that only the first substring matching the regular expression is replaced.

`val replace_matched : string -> string -> string`

`replace_matched repl s` returns the replacement text `repl` in which `\1`, `\2`, etc. have been replaced by the text matched by the corresponding groups in the regular expression that was matched by the last call to a matching or searching function (see `Str.matched_string`[24.1] for details). `s` must be the same string that was passed to the matching or searching function.

Splitting

`val split : regexp -> string -> string list`

`split r s` splits `s` into substrings, taking as delimiters the substrings that match `r`, and returns the list of substrings. For instance, `split (regexp "[ \t]+") s` splits `s` into blank-separated words. An occurrence of the delimiter at the beginning or at the end of the string is ignored.

`val bounded_split : regexp -> string -> int -> string list`

Same as `Str.split`[24.1], but splits into at most `n` substrings, where `n` is the extra integer parameter.

```
val split_delim : regexp -> string -> string list
```

Same as `Str.split`[24.1] but occurrences of the delimiter at the beginning and at the end of the string are recognized and returned as empty strings in the result. For instance, `split_delim (regexp " ") " abc "` returns `[""; "abc"; ""]`, while `split` with the same arguments returns `["abc"]`.

```
val bounded_split_delim : regexp -> string -> int -> string list
```

Same as `Str.bounded_split`[24.1], but occurrences of the delimiter at the beginning and at the end of the string are recognized and returned as empty strings in the result.

```
type split_result =
  | Text of string
  | Delim of string
val full_split : regexp -> string -> split_result list
```

Same as `Str.split_delim`[24.1], but returns the delimiters as well as the substrings contained between delimiters. The former are tagged `Delim` in the result list; the latter are tagged `Text`. For instance, `full_split (regexp "[{}]") "{ab}"` returns `[Delim "{"; Text "ab"; Delim "}"]`.

```
val bounded_full_split : regexp -> string -> int -> split_result list
```

Same as `Str.bounded_split_delim`[24.1], but returns the delimiters as well as the substrings contained between delimiters. The former are tagged `Delim` in the result list; the latter are tagged `Text`.

Extracting substrings

```
val string_before : string -> int -> string
```

`string_before s n` returns the substring of all characters of `s` that precede position `n` (excluding the character at position `n`).

```
val string_after : string -> int -> string
```

`string_after s n` returns the substring of all characters of `s` that follow position `n` (including the character at position `n`).

```
val first_chars : string -> int -> string
```

`first_chars s n` returns the first `n` characters of `s`. This is the same function as `Str.string_before`[24.1].

```
val last_chars : string -> int -> string
```

`last_chars s n` returns the last `n` characters of `s`.

Chapter 25

The threads library

The `threads` library allows concurrent programming in OCaml. It provides multiple threads of control (also called lightweight processes) that execute concurrently in the same memory space. Threads communicate by in-place modification of shared data structures, or by sending and receiving data on communication channels.

The `threads` library is implemented by time-sharing on a single processor. It will not take advantage of multi-processor machines. Using this library will therefore never make programs run faster. However, many programs are easier to write when structured as several communicating processes.

Two implementations of the `threads` library are available, depending on the capabilities of the operating system:

- System threads. This implementation builds on the OS-provided threads facilities: POSIX 1003.1c threads for Unix, and Win32 threads for Windows. When available, system threads support both bytecode and native-code programs.

- VM-level threads. This implementation performs time-sharing and context switching at the level of the OCaml virtual machine (bytecode interpreter). It is available on Unix systems, and supports only bytecode programs. It cannot be used with native-code programs.

Programs that use system threads must be linked as follows:

`ocamlc -thread` *other options* `unix.cma threads.cma` *other files*
`ocamlopt -thread` *other options* `unix.cmxa threads.cmxa` *other files*

Compilation units that use the `threads` library must also be compiled with the `-thread` option (see chapter 8).

Programs that use VM-level threads must be compiled with the `-vmthread` option to `ocamlc` (see chapter 8), and be linked as follows:

`ocamlc -vmthread` *other options* `threads.cma` *other files*

Compilation units that use `threads` library must also be compiled with the `-vmthread` option (see chapter 8).

25.1 Module Thread : Lightweight threads for Posix 1003.1c and Win32.

`type t`

The type of thread handles.

Thread creation and termination

`val create : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> t`

`Thread.create funct arg` creates a new thread of control, in which the function application `funct arg` is executed concurrently with the other threads of the program. The application of `Thread.create` returns the handle of the newly created thread. The new thread terminates when the application `funct arg` returns, either normally or by raising an uncaught exception. In the latter case, the exception is printed on standard error, but not propagated back to the parent thread. Similarly, the result of the application `funct arg` is discarded and not directly accessible to the parent thread.

`val self : unit -> t`

Return the thread currently executing.

`val id : t -> int`

Return the identifier of the given thread. A thread identifier is an integer that identifies uniquely the thread. It can be used to build data structures indexed by threads.

`val exit : unit -> unit`

Terminate prematurely the currently executing thread.

`val kill : t -> unit`

Terminate prematurely the thread whose handle is given.

Suspending threads

`val delay : float -> unit`

`delay d` suspends the execution of the calling thread for `d` seconds. The other program threads continue to run during this time.

`val join : t -> unit`

`join th` suspends the execution of the calling thread until the thread `th` has terminated.

`val wait_read : Unix.file_descr -> unit`

See `Thread.wait_write`[25.1].

```
val wait_write : Unix.file_descr -> unit
```

This function does nothing in this implementation.

```
val wait_timed_read : Unix.file_descr -> float -> bool
```

See `Thread.wait_timed_read`[25.1].

```
val wait_timed_write : Unix.file_descr -> float -> bool
```

Suspend the execution of the calling thread until at least one character is available for reading (`wait_read`) or one character can be written without blocking (`wait_write`) on the given Unix file descriptor. Wait for at most the amount of time given as second argument (in seconds). Return `true` if the file descriptor is ready for input/output and `false` if the timeout expired.

These functions return immediately `true` in the Win32 implementation.

```
val select :
  Unix.file_descr list ->
  Unix.file_descr list ->
  Unix.file_descr list ->
  float -> Unix.file_descr list * Unix.file_descr list * Unix.file_descr list
```

Suspend the execution of the calling thead until input/output becomes possible on the given Unix file descriptors. The arguments and results have the same meaning as for `Unix.select`. This function is not implemented yet under Win32.

```
val wait_pid : int -> int * Unix.process_status
```

`wait_pid p` suspends the execution of the calling thread until the process specified by the process identifier `p` terminates. Returns the pid of the child caught and its termination status, as per `Unix.wait`. This function is not implemented under MacOS.

```
val yield : unit -> unit
```

Re-schedule the calling thread without suspending it. This function can be used to give scheduling hints, telling the scheduler that now is a good time to switch to other threads.

Management of signals

Signal handling follows the POSIX thread model: signals generated by a thread are delivered to that thread; signals generated externally are delivered to one of the threads that does not block it. Each thread possesses a set of blocked signals, which can be modified using `Thread.sigmask`[25.1]. This set is inherited at thread creation time. Per-thread signal masks are supported only by the system thread library under Unix, but not under Win32, nor by the VM thread library.

```
val sigmask : Unix.sigprocmask_command -> int list -> int list
```

`sigmask cmd sigs` changes the set of blocked signals for the calling thread. If `cmd` is `SIG_SETMASK`, blocked signals are set to those in the list `sigs`. If `cmd` is `SIG_BLOCK`, the signals in `sigs` are added to the set of blocked signals. If `cmd` is `SIG_UNBLOCK`, the signals in `sigs` are removed from the set of blocked signals. `sigmask` returns the set of previously blocked signals for the thread.

`val wait_signal : int list -> int`

`wait_signal sigs` suspends the execution of the calling thread until the process receives one of the signals specified in the list `sigs`. It then returns the number of the signal received. Signal handlers attached to the signals in `sigs` will not be invoked. The signals `sigs` are expected to be blocked before calling `wait_signal`.

25.2 Module `Mutex` : Locks for mutual exclusion.

Mutexes (mutual-exclusion locks) are used to implement critical sections and protect shared mutable data structures against concurrent accesses. The typical use is (if `m` is the mutex associated with the data structure `D`):

```
Mutex.lock m;
(* Critical section that operates over D *);
Mutex.unlock m
```

`type t`

The type of mutexes.

`val create : unit -> t`

Return a new mutex.

`val lock : t -> unit`

Lock the given mutex. Only one thread can have the mutex locked at any time. A thread that attempts to lock a mutex already locked by another thread will suspend until the other thread unlocks the mutex.

`val try_lock : t -> bool`

Same as `Mutex.lock`[25.2], but does not suspend the calling thread if the mutex is already locked: just return `false` immediately in that case. If the mutex is unlocked, lock it and return `true`.

`val unlock : t -> unit`

Unlock the given mutex. Other threads suspended trying to lock the mutex will restart.

25.3 Module `Condition` : Condition variables to synchronize between threads.

Condition variables are used when one thread wants to wait until another thread has finished doing something: the former thread 'waits' on the condition variable, the latter thread 'signals' the condition when it is done. Condition variables should always be protected by a mutex. The typical use is (if D is a shared data structure, m its mutex, and c is a condition variable):

```
Mutex.lock m;
while (* some predicate P over D is not satisfied *) do
  Condition.wait c m
done;
(* Modify D *)
if (* the predicate P over D is now satified *) then Condition.signal c;
Mutex.unlock m
```

`type t`

The type of condition variables.

`val create : unit -> t`

Return a new condition variable.

`val wait : t -> Mutex.t -> unit`

`wait c m` atomically unlocks the mutex `m` and suspends the calling process on the condition variable `c`. The process will restart after the condition variable `c` has been signalled. The mutex `m` is locked again before `wait` returns.

`val signal : t -> unit`

`signal c` restarts one of the processes waiting on the condition variable `c`.

`val broadcast : t -> unit`

`broadcast c` restarts all processes waiting on the condition variable `c`.

25.4 Module `Event` : First-class synchronous communication.

This module implements synchronous inter-thread communications over channels. As in John Reppy's Concurrent ML system, the communication events are first-class values: they can be built and combined independently before being offered for communication.

`type 'a channel`

The type of communication channels carrying values of type `'a`.

`val new_channel : unit -> 'a channel`

Return a new channel.

`type +'a event`

The type of communication events returning a result of type `'a`.

`val send : 'a channel -> 'a -> unit event`

`send ch v` returns the event consisting in sending the value `v` over the channel `ch`. The result value of this event is `()`.

`val receive : 'a channel -> 'a event`

`receive ch` returns the event consisting in receiving a value from the channel `ch`. The result value of this event is the value received.

`val always : 'a -> 'a event`

`always v` returns an event that is always ready for synchronization. The result value of this event is `v`.

`val choose : 'a event list -> 'a event`

`choose evl` returns the event that is the alternative of all the events in the list `evl`.

`val wrap : 'a event -> ('a -> 'b) -> 'b event`

`wrap ev fn` returns the event that performs the same communications as `ev`, then applies the post-processing function `fn` on the return value.

`val wrap_abort : 'a event -> (unit -> unit) -> 'a event`

`wrap_abort ev fn` returns the event that performs the same communications as `ev`, but if it is not selected the function `fn` is called after the synchronization.

`val guard : (unit -> 'a event) -> 'a event`

`guard fn` returns the event that, when synchronized, computes `fn()` and behaves as the resulting event. This allows to compute events with side-effects at the time of the synchronization operation.

`val sync : 'a event -> 'a`

'Synchronize' on an event: offer all the communication possibilities specified in the event to the outside world, and block until one of the communications succeed. The result value of that communication is returned.

`val select : 'a event list -> 'a`

'Synchronize' on an alternative of events. `select evl` is shorthand for `sync(choose evl)`.

`val poll : 'a event -> 'a option`

Non-blocking version of `Event.sync`[25.4]: offer all the communication possibilities specified in the event to the outside world, and if one can take place immediately, perform it and return `Some r` where `r` is the result value of that communication. Otherwise, return `None` without blocking.

25.5 Module ThreadUnix : Thread-compatible system calls.

The functionality of this module has been merged back into the Unix[22.1] module. Threaded programs can now call the functions from module Unix[22.1] directly, and still get the correct behavior (block the calling thread, if required, but do not block all threads in the process).Thread-compatible system calls.

Process handling

```
val execv : string -> string array -> unit
```

```
val execve : string -> string array -> string array -> unit
```

```
val execvp : string -> string array -> unit
```

```
val wait : unit -> int * Unix.process_status
```

```
val waitpid : Unix.wait_flag list -> int -> int * Unix.process_status
```

```
val system : string -> Unix.process_status
```

Basic input/output

```
val read : Unix.file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> int
```

```
val write : Unix.file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> int
```

```
val write_substring : Unix.file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int
```

Input/output with timeout

```
val timed_read : Unix.file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> float -> int
```

See ThreadUnix.timed_write[25.5].

```
val timed_write : Unix.file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> float -> int
```

Behave as ThreadUnix.read[25.5] and ThreadUnix.write[25.5], except that Unix_error(ETIMEDOUT,_,_) is raised if no data is available for reading or ready for writing after d seconds. The delay d is given in the fifth argument, in seconds.

```
val timed_write_substring :
  Unix.file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> float -> int
```

See ThreadUnix.timed_write[25.5].

Polling

```
val select :
  Unix.file_descr list ->
  Unix.file_descr list ->
  Unix.file_descr list ->
  float -> Unix.file_descr list * Unix.file_descr list * Unix.file_descr list
```

Pipes and redirections

```
val pipe : unit -> Unix.file_descr * Unix.file_descr
val open_process_in : string -> Pervasives.in_channel
val open_process_out : string -> Pervasives.out_channel
val open_process : string -> Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel
```

Time

```
val sleep : int -> unit
```

Sockets

```
val socket : Unix.socket_domain -> Unix.socket_type -> int -> Unix.file_descr
val accept : Unix.file_descr -> Unix.file_descr * Unix.sockaddr
val connect : Unix.file_descr -> Unix.sockaddr -> unit
val recv :
  Unix.file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> Unix.msg_flag list -> int
val recvfrom :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  bytes -> int -> int -> Unix.msg_flag list -> int * Unix.sockaddr
val send :
  Unix.file_descr -> bytes -> int -> int -> Unix.msg_flag list -> int
val send_substring :
  Unix.file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> Unix.msg_flag list -> int
val sendto :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  bytes -> int -> int -> Unix.msg_flag list -> Unix.sockaddr -> int
val sendto_substring :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  string -> int -> int -> Unix.msg_flag list -> Unix.sockaddr -> int
val open_connection :
  Unix.sockaddr -> Pervasives.in_channel * Pervasives.out_channel
```

Chapter 26

The graphics library

The `graphics` library provides a set of portable drawing primitives. Drawing takes place in a separate window that is created when `Graphics.open_graph` is called.

Unix:

This library is implemented under the X11 windows system. Programs that use the `graphics` library must be linked as follows:

`ocamlc` *other options* `graphics.cma` *other files*

For interactive use of the `graphics` library, do:

```
ocamlmktop -o mytop graphics.cma
./mytop
```

or (if dynamic linking of C libraries is supported on your platform), start `ocaml` and type `#load "graphics.cma";;`.

Here are the graphics mode specifications supported by `Graphics.open_graph` on the X11 implementation of this library: the argument to `Graphics.open_graph` has the format `"`*display-name geometry*`"`, where *display-name* is the name of the X-windows display to connect to, and *geometry* is a standard X-windows geometry specification. The two components are separated by a space. Either can be omitted, or both. Examples:

`Graphics.open_graph "foo:0"`
: connects to the display `foo:0` and creates a window with the default geometry

`Graphics.open_graph "foo:0 300x100+50-0"`
: connects to the display `foo:0` and creates a window 300 pixels wide by 100 pixels tall, at location $(50, 0)$

`Graphics.open_graph " 300x100+50-0"`
: connects to the default display and creates a window 300 pixels wide by 100 pixels tall, at location $(50, 0)$

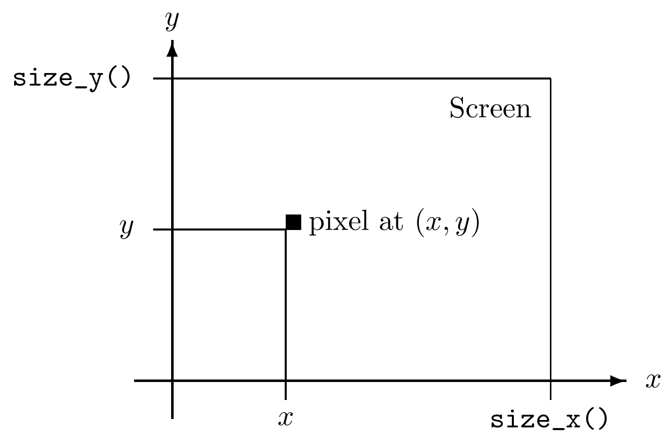
`Graphics.open_graph ""`
: connects to the default display and creates a window with the default geometry.

Windows:

This library is available both for standalone compiled programs and under the toplevel application `ocamlwin.exe`. For the latter, this library must be loaded in-core by typing

```
#load "graphics.cma";;
```

The screen coordinates are interpreted as shown in the figure below. Notice that the coordinate system used is the same as in mathematics: y increases from the bottom of the screen to the top of the screen, and angles are measured counterclockwise (in degrees). Drawing is clipped to the screen.



26.1 Module `Graphics` : Machine-independent graphics primitives.

`exception Graphic_failure of string`

Raised by the functions below when they encounter an error.

Initializations

`val open_graph : string -> unit`

Show the graphics window or switch the screen to graphic mode. The graphics window is cleared and the current point is set to (0, 0). The string argument is used to pass optional information on the desired graphics mode, the graphics window size, and so on. Its interpretation is implementation-dependent. If the empty string is given, a sensible default is selected.

`val close_graph : unit -> unit`

Delete the graphics window or switch the screen back to text mode.

`val set_window_title : string -> unit`

Set the title of the graphics window.

`val resize_window : int -> int -> unit`

Resize and erase the graphics window.

`val clear_graph : unit -> unit`

Erase the graphics window.

`val size_x : unit -> int`

See `Graphics.size_y`[26.1].

`val size_y : unit -> int`

Return the size of the graphics window. Coordinates of the screen pixels range over `0 .. size_x()-1` and `0 .. size_y()-1`. Drawings outside of this rectangle are clipped, without causing an error. The origin (0,0) is at the lower left corner.

Colors

`type color = int`

A color is specified by its R, G, B components. Each component is in the range `0..255`. The three components are packed in an `int`: `0xRRGGBB`, where `RR` are the two hexadecimal digits for the red component, `GG` for the green component, `BB` for the blue component.

`val rgb : int -> int -> int -> color`

`rgb r g b` returns the integer encoding the color with red component `r`, green component `g`, and blue component `b`. `r`, `g` and `b` are in the range `0..255`.

`val set_color : color -> unit`

Set the current drawing color.

`val background : color`

See `Graphics.foreground`[26.1].

`val foreground : color`

Default background and foreground colors (usually, either black foreground on a white background or white foreground on a black background). `Graphics.clear_graph`[26.1] fills the screen with the `background` color. The initial drawing color is `foreground`.

Some predefined colors

```
val black : color
val white : color
val red : color
val green : color
val blue : color
val yellow : color
val cyan : color
val magenta : color
```

Point and line drawing

`val plot : int -> int -> unit`

Plot the given point with the current drawing color.

`val plots : (int * int) array -> unit`

Plot the given points with the current drawing color.

`val point_color : int -> int -> color`

Return the color of the given point in the backing store (see "Double buffering" below).

`val moveto : int -> int -> unit`

Position the current point.

`val rmoveto : int -> int -> unit`

`rmoveto dx dy` translates the current point by the given vector.

`val current_x : unit -> int`

Return the abscissa of the current point.

`val current_y : unit -> int`

Return the ordinate of the current point.

`val current_point : unit -> int * int`

Return the position of the current point.

`val lineto : int -> int -> unit`

Draw a line with endpoints the current point and the given point, and move the current point to the given point.

`val rlineto : int -> int -> unit`

Draw a line with endpoints the current point and the current point translated of the given vector, and move the current point to this point.

`val curveto : int * int -> int * int -> int * int -> unit`

`curveto b c d` draws a cubic Bezier curve starting from the current point to point `d`, with control points `b` and `c`, and moves the current point to `d`.

`val draw_rect : int -> int -> int -> int -> unit`

`draw_rect x y w h` draws the rectangle with lower left corner at `x,y`, width `w` and height `h`. The current point is unchanged. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `w` or `h` is negative.

`val draw_poly_line : (int * int) array -> unit` `draw_poly_line points` draws the line that joins the points given by the array argument. The array contains the coordinates of the vertices of the polygonal line, which need not be closed. The current point is unchanged.

```
val draw_poly : (int * int) array -> unit
```

`draw_poly polygon` draws the given polygon. The array contains the coordinates of the vertices of the polygon. The current point is unchanged.

```
val draw_segments : (int * int * int * int) array -> unit
```

`draw_segments segments` draws the segments given in the array argument. Each segment is specified as a quadruple `(x0, y0, x1, y1)` where `(x0, y0)` and `(x1, y1)` are the coordinates of the end points of the segment. The current point is unchanged.

```
val draw_arc : int -> int -> int -> int -> int -> int -> unit
```

`draw_arc x y rx ry a1 a2` draws an elliptical arc with center `x,y`, horizontal radius `rx`, vertical radius `ry`, from angle `a1` to angle `a2` (in degrees). The current point is unchanged. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `rx` or `ry` is negative.

```
val draw_ellipse : int -> int -> int -> int -> unit
```

`draw_ellipse x y rx ry` draws an ellipse with center `x,y`, horizontal radius `rx` and vertical radius `ry`. The current point is unchanged. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `rx` or `ry` is negative.

```
val draw_circle : int -> int -> int -> unit
```

`draw_circle x y r` draws a circle with center `x,y` and radius `r`. The current point is unchanged. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `r` is negative.

```
val set_line_width : int -> unit
```

Set the width of points and lines drawn with the functions above. Under X Windows, `set_line_width 0` selects a width of 1 pixel and a faster, but less precise drawing algorithm than the one used when `set_line_width 1` is specified. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the argument is negative.

Text drawing

```
val draw_char : char -> unit
```

See `Graphics.draw_string`[26.1].

```
val draw_string : string -> unit
```

Draw a character or a character string with lower left corner at current position. After drawing, the current position is set to the lower right corner of the text drawn.

```
val set_font : string -> unit
```

Set the font used for drawing text. The interpretation of the argument to `set_font` is implementation-dependent.

`val set_text_size : int -> unit`

Set the character size used for drawing text. The interpretation of the argument to `set_text_size` is implementation-dependent.

`val text_size : string -> int * int`

Return the dimensions of the given text, if it were drawn with the current font and size.

Filling

`val fill_rect : int -> int -> int -> int -> unit`

`fill_rect x y w h` fills the rectangle with lower left corner at `x,y`, width `w` and height `h`, with the current color. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `w` or `h` is negative.

`val fill_poly : (int * int) array -> unit`

Fill the given polygon with the current color. The array contains the coordinates of the vertices of the polygon.

`val fill_arc : int -> int -> int -> int -> int -> int -> unit`

Fill an elliptical pie slice with the current color. The parameters are the same as for `Graphics.draw_arc`[26.1].

`val fill_ellipse : int -> int -> int -> int -> unit`

Fill an ellipse with the current color. The parameters are the same as for `Graphics.draw_ellipse`[26.1].

`val fill_circle : int -> int -> int -> unit`

Fill a circle with the current color. The parameters are the same as for `Graphics.draw_circle`[26.1].

Images

`type image`

The abstract type for images, in internal representation. Externally, images are represented as matrices of colors.

`val transp : color`

In matrices of colors, this color represent a 'transparent' point: when drawing the corresponding image, all pixels on the screen corresponding to a transparent pixel in the image will not be modified, while other points will be set to the color of the corresponding point in the image. This allows superimposing an image over an existing background.

`val make_image : color array array -> image`

Convert the given color matrix to an image. Each sub-array represents one horizontal line. All sub-arrays must have the same length; otherwise, exception `Graphic_failure` is raised.

`val dump_image : image -> color array array`

Convert an image to a color matrix.

`val draw_image : image -> int -> int -> unit`

Draw the given image with lower left corner at the given point.

`val get_image : int -> int -> int -> int -> image`

Capture the contents of a rectangle on the screen as an image. The parameters are the same as for `Graphics.fill_rect`[26.1].

`val create_image : int -> int -> image`

`create_image w h` returns a new image `w` pixels wide and `h` pixels tall, to be used in conjunction with `blit_image`. The initial image contents are random, except that no point is transparent.

`val blit_image : image -> int -> int -> unit`

`blit_image img x y` copies screen pixels into the image `img`, modifying `img` in-place. The pixels copied are those inside the rectangle with lower left corner at `x,y`, and width and height equal to those of the image. Pixels that were transparent in `img` are left unchanged.

Mouse and keyboard events

```
type status = {
  mouse_x : int ;
```
X coordinate of the mouse

```
  mouse_y : int ;
```
Y coordinate of the mouse

```
  button : bool ;
```
true if a mouse button is pressed

```
  keypressed : bool ;
```
true if a key has been pressed

```
  key : char ;
```
the character for the key pressed

```
}
```

To report events.

```
type event =
  | Button_down
```
A mouse button is pressed

```
  | Button_up
```
A mouse button is released

```
  | Key_pressed
```
A key is pressed

```
  | Mouse_motion
```
The mouse is moved

```
  | Poll
```
Don't wait; return immediately

To specify events to wait for.

```
val wait_next_event : event list -> status
```

Wait until one of the events specified in the given event list occurs, and return the status of the mouse and keyboard at that time. If `Poll` is given in the event list, return immediately with the current status. If the mouse cursor is outside of the graphics window, the `mouse_x` and `mouse_y` fields of the event are outside the range `0..size_x()-1, 0..size_y()-1`. Keypresses are queued, and dequeued one by one when the `Key_pressed` event is specified.

```
val loop_at_exit : event list -> (status -> unit) -> unit
```

Loop before exiting the program, the list given as argument is the list of handlers and the events on which these handlers are called. To exit cleanly the loop, the handler should raise Exit. Any other exception will be propagated outside of the loop.

Since: 4.01

Mouse and keyboard polling

```
val mouse_pos : unit -> int * int
```

Return the position of the mouse cursor, relative to the graphics window. If the mouse cursor is outside of the graphics window, `mouse_pos()` returns a point outside of the range `0..size_x()-1, 0..size_y()-1`.

```
val button_down : unit -> bool
```

Return `true` if the mouse button is pressed, `false` otherwise.

```
val read_key : unit -> char
```

Wait for a key to be pressed, and return the corresponding character. Keypresses are queued.

```
val key_pressed : unit -> bool
```

Return `true` if a keypress is available; that is, if `read_key` would not block.

Sound

`val sound : int -> int -> unit`

`sound freq dur` plays a sound at frequency `freq` (in hertz) for a duration `dur` (in milliseconds).

Double buffering

`val auto_synchronize : bool -> unit`

By default, drawing takes place both on the window displayed on screen, and in a memory area (the 'backing store'). The backing store image is used to re-paint the on-screen window when necessary.

To avoid flicker during animations, it is possible to turn off on-screen drawing, perform a number of drawing operations in the backing store only, then refresh the on-screen window explicitly.

`auto_synchronize false` turns on-screen drawing off. All subsequent drawing commands are performed on the backing store only.

`auto_synchronize true` refreshes the on-screen window from the backing store (as per `synchronize`), then turns on-screen drawing back on. All subsequent drawing commands are performed both on screen and in the backing store.

The default drawing mode corresponds to `auto_synchronize true`.

`val synchronize : unit -> unit`

Synchronize the backing store and the on-screen window, by copying the contents of the backing store onto the graphics window.

`val display_mode : bool -> unit`

Set display mode on or off. When turned on, drawings are done in the graphics window; when turned off, drawings do not affect the graphics window. This occurs independently of drawing into the backing store (see the function `Graphics.remember_mode`[26.1] below). Default display mode is on.

`val remember_mode : bool -> unit`

Set remember mode on or off. When turned on, drawings are done in the backing store; when turned off, the backing store is unaffected by drawings. This occurs independently of drawing onto the graphics window (see the function `Graphics.display_mode`[26.1] above). Default remember mode is on.

Chapter 27

The dynlink library: dynamic loading and linking of object files

The `dynlink` library supports type-safe dynamic loading and linking of bytecode object files (`.cmo` and `.cma` files) in a running bytecode program, or of native plugins (usually `.cmxs` files) in a running native program. Type safety is ensured by limiting the set of modules from the running program that the loaded object file can access, and checking that the running program and the loaded object file have been compiled against the same interfaces for these modules. In native code, there are also some compatibility checks on the implementations (to avoid errors with cross-module optimizations); it might be useful to hide `.cmx` files when building native plugins so that they remain independent of the implementation of modules in the main program.

Programs that use the `dynlink` library simply need to link `dynlink.cma` or `dynlink.cmxa` with their object files and other libraries.

27.1 Module `Dynlink` : Dynamic loading of object files.

```
val is_native : bool
```

`true` if the program is native, `false` if the program is bytecode.

Dynamic loading of compiled files

```
val loadfile : string -> unit
```

In bytecode: load the given bytecode object file (`.cmo` file) or bytecode library file (`.cma` file), and link it with the running program. In native code: load the given OCaml plugin file (usually `.cmxs`), and link it with the running program. All toplevel expressions in the loaded compilation units are evaluated. No facilities are provided to access value names defined by the unit. Therefore, the unit must register itself its entry points with the main program, e.g. by modifying tables of functions.

```
val loadfile_private : string -> unit
```

Same as `loadfile`, except that the compilation units just loaded are hidden (cannot be referenced) from other modules dynamically loaded afterwards.

`val adapt_filename : string -> string`

In bytecode, the identity function. In native code, replace the last extension with `.cmxs`.

Access control

`val allow_only : string list -> unit`

`allow_only units` restricts the compilation units that dynamically-linked units can reference: it forbids all references to units other than those named in the list `units`. References to any other compilation unit will cause a `Unavailable_unit` error during `loadfile` or `loadfile_private`.

Initially (or after calling `default_available_units`) all compilation units composing the program currently running are available for reference from dynamically-linked units. `allow_only` can be used to restrict access to a subset of these units, e.g. to the units that compose the API for dynamically-linked code, and prevent access to all other units, e.g. private, internal modules of the running program. If `allow_only` is called several times, access will be restricted to the intersection of the given lists (i.e. a call to `allow_only` can never increase the set of available units).

`val prohibit : string list -> unit`

`prohibit units` prohibits dynamically-linked units from referencing the units named in list `units`. This can be used to prevent access to selected units, e.g. private, internal modules of the running program.

`val default_available_units : unit -> unit`

Reset the set of units that can be referenced from dynamically-linked code to its default value, that is, all units composing the currently running program.

`val allow_unsafe_modules : bool -> unit`

Govern whether unsafe object files are allowed to be dynamically linked. A compilation unit is 'unsafe' if it contains declarations of external functions, which can break type safety. By default, dynamic linking of unsafe object files is not allowed. In native code, this function does nothing; object files with external functions are always allowed to be dynamically linked.

Deprecated, low-level API for access control

`val add_interfaces : string list -> string list -> unit`

`add_interfaces units path` grants dynamically-linked object files access to the compilation units named in list `units`. The interfaces (`.cmi` files) for these units are searched in `path` (a list of directory names).

```
val add_available_units : (string * Digest.t) list -> unit
```

Same as `Dynlink.add_interfaces`[27.1], but instead of searching `.cmi` files to find the unit interfaces, uses the interface digests given for each unit. This way, the `.cmi` interface files need not be available at run-time. The digests can be extracted from `.cmi` files using the `extract_crc` program installed in the OCaml standard library directory.

```
val clear_available_units : unit -> unit
```

Empty the list of compilation units accessible to dynamically-linked programs.

Deprecated, initialization

```
val init : unit -> unit
```

Deprecated. Initialize the `Dynlink` library. This function is called automatically when needed.

Error reporting

```
type linking_error =
  | Undefined_global of string
  | Unavailable_primitive of string
  | Uninitialized_global of string
type error =
  | Not_a_bytecode_file of string
  | Inconsistent_import of string
  | Unavailable_unit of string
  | Unsafe_file
  | Linking_error of string * linking_error
  | Corrupted_interface of string
  | File_not_found of string
  | Cannot_open_dll of string
  | Inconsistent_implementation of string
exception Error of error
```

Errors in dynamic linking are reported by raising the `Error` exception with a description of the error.

```
val error_message : error -> string
```

Convert an error description to a printable message.

Chapter 28

The bigarray library

The `bigarray` library implements large, multi-dimensional, numerical arrays. These arrays are called "big arrays" to distinguish them from the standard OCaml arrays described in section 21.2. The main differences between "big arrays" and standard OCaml arrays are as follows:

- Big arrays are not limited in size, unlike OCaml arrays (`float array` are limited to 2097151 elements on a 32-bit platform, other `array` types to 4194303 elements).

- Big arrays are multi-dimensional. Any number of dimensions between 1 and 16 is supported. In contrast, OCaml arrays are mono-dimensional and require encoding multi-dimensional arrays as arrays of arrays.

- Big arrays can only contain integers and floating-point numbers, while OCaml arrays can contain arbitrary OCaml data types. However, big arrays provide more space-efficient storage of integer and floating-point elements, in particular because they support "small" types such as single-precision floats and 8 and 16-bit integers, in addition to the standard OCaml types of double-precision floats and 32 and 64-bit integers.

- The memory layout of big arrays is entirely compatible with that of arrays in C and Fortran, allowing large arrays to be passed back and forth between OCaml code and C / Fortran code with no data copying at all.

- Big arrays support interesting high-level operations that normal arrays do not provide efficiently, such as extracting sub-arrays and "slicing" a multi-dimensional array along certain dimensions, all without any copying.

Programs that use the `bigarray` library must be linked as follows:

> `ocamlc` *other options* `bigarray.cma` *other files*
> `ocamlopt` *other options* `bigarray.cmxa` *other files*

For interactive use of the `bigarray` library, do:

```
ocamlmktop -o mytop bigarray.cma
./mytop
```

or (if dynamic linking of C libraries is supported on your platform), start `ocaml` and type `#load "bigarray.cma";;`.

28.1 Module Bigarray : Large, multi-dimensional, numerical arrays.

This module implements multi-dimensional arrays of integers and floating-point numbers, thereafter referred to as 'big arrays'. The implementation allows efficient sharing of large numerical arrays between OCaml code and C or Fortran numerical libraries.

Concerning the naming conventions, users of this module are encouraged to do `open Bigarray` in their source, then refer to array types and operations via short dot notation, e.g. `Array1.t` or `Array2.sub`.

Big arrays support all the OCaml ad-hoc polymorphic operations:

- comparisons (`=`, `<>`, `<=`, etc, as well as `Pervasives.compare`[20.2]);
- hashing (module `Hash`);
- and structured input-output (the functions from the `Marshal`[21.20] module, as well as `Pervasives.output_value`[20.2] and `Pervasives.input_value`[20.2]).

Element kinds

Big arrays can contain elements of the following kinds:

- IEEE single precision (32 bits) floating-point numbers (`Bigarray.float32_elt`[28.1]),
- IEEE double precision (64 bits) floating-point numbers (`Bigarray.float64_elt`[28.1]),
- IEEE single precision (2 * 32 bits) floating-point complex numbers (`Bigarray.complex32_elt`[28.1]),
- IEEE double precision (2 * 64 bits) floating-point complex numbers (`Bigarray.complex64_elt`[28.1]),
- 8-bit integers (signed or unsigned) (`Bigarray.int8_signed_elt`[28.1] or `Bigarray.int8_unsigned_elt`[28.1
- 16-bit integers (signed or unsigned) (`Bigarray.int16_signed_elt`[28.1] or `Bigarray.int16_unsigned_elt`[
- OCaml integers (signed, 31 bits on 32-bit architectures, 63 bits on 64-bit architectures) (`Bigarray.int_elt`[28.1]),
- 32-bit signed integer (`Bigarray.int32_elt`[28.1]),
- 64-bit signed integers (`Bigarray.int64_elt`[28.1]),
- platform-native signed integers (32 bits on 32-bit architectures, 64 bits on 64-bit architectures) (`Bigarray.nativeint_elt`[28.1]).

Each element kind is represented at the type level by one of the `*_elt` types defined below (defined with a single constructor instead of abstract types for technical injectivity reasons).

```
type float32_elt =
  | Float32_elt
```

```
type float64_elt =
  | Float64_elt
type int8_signed_elt =
  | Int8_signed_elt
type int8_unsigned_elt =
  | Int8_unsigned_elt
type int16_signed_elt =
  | Int16_signed_elt
type int16_unsigned_elt =
  | Int16_unsigned_elt
type int32_elt =
  | Int32_elt
type int64_elt =
  | Int64_elt
type int_elt =
  | Int_elt
type nativeint_elt =
  | Nativeint_elt
type complex32_elt =
  | Complex32_elt
type complex64_elt =
  | Complex64_elt
type ('a, 'b) kind =
  | Float32 : (float, float32_elt) kind
  | Float64 : (float, float64_elt) kind
  | Int8_signed : (int, int8_signed_elt) kind
  | Int8_unsigned : (int, int8_unsigned_elt) kind
  | Int16_signed : (int, int16_signed_elt) kind
  | Int16_unsigned : (int, int16_unsigned_elt) kind
  | Int32 : (int32, int32_elt) kind
  | Int64 : (int64, int64_elt) kind
  | Int : (int, int_elt) kind
  | Nativeint : (nativeint, nativeint_elt) kind
  | Complex32 : (Complex.t, complex32_elt) kind
  | Complex64 : (Complex.t, complex64_elt) kind
  | Char : (char, int8_unsigned_elt) kind
```

To each element kind is associated an OCaml type, which is the type of OCaml values that can be stored in the big array or read back from it. This type is not necessarily the same as the type of the array elements proper: for instance, a big array whose elements are of kind `float32_elt` contains 32-bit single precision floats, but reading or writing one of its elements from OCaml uses the OCaml type `float`, which is 64-bit double precision floats.

The GADT type `('a, 'b) kind` captures this association of an OCaml type `'a` for values read or written in the big array, and of an element kind `'b` which represents the actual contents of the big array. Its constructors list all possible associations of OCaml types with element kinds, and are re-exported below for backward-compatibility reasons.

Using a generalized algebraic datatype (GADT) here allows to write well-typed polymorphic functions whose return type depend on the argument type, such as:

```
let zero : type a b. (a, b) kind -> a = function
  | Float32 -> 0.0 | Complex32 -> Complex.zero
  | Float64 -> 0.0 | Complex64 -> Complex.zero
  | Int8_signed -> 0 | Int8_unsigned -> 0
  | Int16_signed -> 0 | Int16_unsigned -> 0
  | Int32 -> 0l | Int64 -> 0L
  | Int -> 0 | Nativeint -> 0n
  | Char -> '\000'
```

`val float32 : (float, float32_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val float64 : (float, float64_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val complex32 : (Complex.t, complex32_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val complex64 : (Complex.t, complex64_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int8_signed : (int, int8_signed_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int8_unsigned : (int, int8_unsigned_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int16_signed : (int, int16_signed_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int16_unsigned : (int, int16_unsigned_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int : (int, int_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int32 : (int32, int32_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val int64 : (int64, int64_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val nativeint : (nativeint, nativeint_elt) kind`

See `Bigarray.char`[28.1].

`val char : (char, int8_unsigned_elt) kind`

As shown by the types of the values above, big arrays of kind `float32_elt` and `float64_elt` are accessed using the OCaml type `float`. Big arrays of complex kinds `complex32_elt`, `complex64_elt` are accessed with the OCaml type `Complex.t`[21.7]. Big arrays of integer kinds are accessed using the smallest OCaml integer type large enough to represent the array elements: `int` for 8- and 16-bit integer bigarrays, as well as OCaml-integer bigarrays; `int32` for 32-bit integer bigarrays; `int64` for 64-bit integer bigarrays; and `nativeint` for platform-native integer bigarrays. Finally, big arrays of kind `int8_unsigned_elt` can also be accessed as arrays of characters instead of arrays of small integers, by using the kind value `char` instead of `int8_unsigned`.

Array layouts

```
type c_layout =
  | C_layout_typ
```

See `Bigarray.fortran_layout`[28.1].

```
type fortran_layout =
  | Fortran_layout_typ
```

To facilitate interoperability with existing C and Fortran code, this library supports two different memory layouts for big arrays, one compatible with the C conventions, the other compatible with the Fortran conventions.

In the C-style layout, array indices start at 0, and multi-dimensional arrays are laid out in row-major format. That is, for a two-dimensional array, all elements of row 0 are contiguous in memory, followed by all elements of row 1, etc. In other terms, the array elements at `(x,y)` and `(x, y+1)` are adjacent in memory.

In the Fortran-style layout, array indices start at 1, and multi-dimensional arrays are laid out in column-major format. That is, for a two-dimensional array, all elements of column 0 are contiguous in memory, followed by all elements of column 1, etc. In other terms, the array elements at `(x,y)` and `(x+1, y)` are adjacent in memory.

Each layout style is identified at the type level by the phantom types `Bigarray.c_layout`[28.1] and `Bigarray.fortran_layout`[28.1] respectively.

Supported layouts

The GADT type `'a layout` represents one of the two supported memory layouts: C-style or Fortran-style. Its constructors are re-exported as values below for backward-compatibility reasons.

```
type 'a layout =
  | C_layout : c_layout layout
  | Fortran_layout : fortran_layout layout
```

```
val c_layout : c_layout layout
```

```
val fortran_layout : fortran_layout layout
```

Generic arrays (of arbitrarily many dimensions)

```
module Genarray :
  sig
```

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

The type `Genarray.t` is the type of big arrays with variable numbers of dimensions. Any number of dimensions between 1 and 16 is supported.

The three type parameters to `Genarray.t` identify the array element kind and layout, as follows:

- the first parameter, `'a`, is the OCaml type for accessing array elements (`float`, `int`, `int32`, `int64`, `nativeint`);
- the second parameter, `'b`, is the actual kind of array elements (`float32_elt`, `float64_elt`, `int8_signed_elt`, `int8_unsigned_elt`, etc);
- the third parameter, `'c`, identifies the array layout (`c_layout` or `fortran_layout`).

For instance, `(float, float32_elt, fortran_layout) Genarray.t` is the type of generic big arrays containing 32-bit floats in Fortran layout; reads and writes in this array use the OCaml type `float`.

```
val create :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> int array -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

`Genarray.create kind layout dimensions` returns a new big array whose element kind is determined by the parameter `kind` (one of `float32`, `float64`, `int8_signed`, etc) and whose layout is determined by the parameter `layout` (one of `c_layout` or `fortran_layout`). The `dimensions` parameter is an array of integers that indicate the size of the big array in each dimension. The length of `dimensions` determines the number of dimensions of the bigarray.

For instance, `Genarray.create int32 c_layout [|4;6;8|]` returns a fresh big array of 32-bit integers, in C layout, having three dimensions, the three dimensions being 4, 6 and 8 respectively.

Big arrays returned by `Genarray.create` are not initialized: the initial values of array elements is unspecified.

`Genarray.create` raises `Invalid_argument` if the number of dimensions is not in the range 1 to 16 inclusive, or if one of the dimensions is negative.

```
val num_dims : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the number of dimensions of the given big array.

```
val dims : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int array
```

`Genarray.dims a` returns all dimensions of the big array `a`, as an array of integers of length `Genarray.num_dims a`.

```
val nth_dim : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int
```

`Genarray.nth_dim a n` returns the `n`-th dimension of the big array `a`. The first dimension corresponds to `n = 0`; the second dimension corresponds to `n = 1`; the last dimension, to `n = Genarray.num_dims a - 1`. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `n` is less than 0 or greater or equal than `Genarray.num_dims a`.

```
val kind : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind
```

Return the kind of the given big array.

```
val layout : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'c Bigarray.layout
```

Return the layout of the given big array.

```
val get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int array -> 'a
```

Read an element of a generic big array. `Genarray.get a [|i1; ...; iN|]` returns the element of `a` whose coordinates are `i1` in the first dimension, `i2` in the second dimension, ..., `iN` in the `N`-th dimension.

If `a` has C layout, the coordinates must be greater or equal than 0 and strictly less than the corresponding dimensions of `a`. If `a` has Fortran layout, the coordinates must be greater or equal than 1 and less or equal than the corresponding dimensions of `a`. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the array `a` does not have exactly `N` dimensions, or if the coordinates are outside the array bounds.

If `N > 3`, alternate syntax is provided: you can write `a.{i1, i2, ..., iN}` instead of `Genarray.get a [|i1; ...; iN|]`. (The syntax `a.{...}` with one, two or three coordinates is reserved for accessing one-, two- and three-dimensional arrays as described below.)

```
val set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int array -> 'a -> unit
```

Assign an element of a generic big array. `Genarray.set a [|i1; ...; iN|] v` stores the value `v` in the element of `a` whose coordinates are `i1` in the first dimension, `i2` in the second dimension, ..., `iN` in the `N`-th dimension.

The array `a` must have exactly `N` dimensions, and all coordinates must lie inside the array bounds, as described for `Genarray.get`; otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

If `N > 3`, alternate syntax is provided: you can write `a.{i1, i2, ..., iN} <- v` instead of `Genarray.set a [|i1; ...; iN|] v`. (The syntax `a.{...} <- v` with one, two or three coordinates is reserved for updating one-, two- and three-dimensional arrays as described below.)

```
val sub_left :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t
```

Extract a sub-array of the given big array by restricting the first (left-most) dimension. `Genarray.sub_left a ofs len` returns a big array with the same number of dimensions as `a`, and the same dimensions as `a`, except the first dimension, which corresponds to the interval `[ofs ... ofs + len - 1]` of the first dimension of `a`. No copying of elements is involved: the sub-array and the original array share the same storage space. In other terms, the element at coordinates `[|i1; ...; iN|]` of the sub-array is identical to the element at coordinates `[|i1+ofs; ...; iN|]` of the original array `a`.

`Genarray.sub_left` applies only to big arrays in C layout. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `ofs` and `len` do not designate a valid sub-array of `a`, that is, if `ofs < 0`, or `len < 0`, or `ofs + len > Genarray.nth_dim a 0`.

```
val sub_right :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t
```

Extract a sub-array of the given big array by restricting the last (right-most) dimension. `Genarray.sub_right a ofs len` returns a big array with the same number of dimensions as `a`, and the same dimensions as `a`, except the last dimension, which corresponds to the interval `[ofs ... ofs + len - 1]` of the last dimension of `a`. No copying of elements is involved: the sub-array and the original array share the same storage space. In other terms, the element at coordinates `[|i1; ...; iN|]` of the sub-array is identical to the element at coordinates `[|i1; ...; iN+ofs|]` of the original array `a`.

`Genarray.sub_right` applies only to big arrays in Fortran layout. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `ofs` and `len` do not designate a valid sub-array of `a`, that is, if `ofs < 1`, or `len < 0`, or `ofs + len > Genarray.nth_dim a (Genarray.num_dims a - 1)`.

```
val slice_left :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int array -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t
```

Extract a sub-array of lower dimension from the given big array by fixing one or several of the first (left-most) coordinates. `Genarray.slice_left a [|i1; ... ; iM|]` returns the 'slice' of `a` obtained by setting the first `M` coordinates to `i1`, ..., `iM`. If `a` has `N` dimensions, the slice has dimension `N - M`, and the element at coordinates `[|j1; ...; j(N-M)|]` in the slice is identical to the element at coordinates `[|i1;`

`...; iM; j1; ...; j(N-M)|]` in the original array `a`. No copying of elements is involved: the slice and the original array share the same storage space.

`Genarray.slice_left` applies only to big arrays in C layout. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `M >= N`, or if `[|i1; ... ; iM|]` is outside the bounds of `a`.

```
val slice_right :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int array -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t
```

Extract a sub-array of lower dimension from the given big array by fixing one or several of the last (right-most) coordinates. `Genarray.slice_right a [|i1; ... ; iM|]` returns the 'slice' of `a` obtained by setting the last `M` coordinates to `i1`, ..., `iM`. If `a` has `N` dimensions, the slice has dimension `N - M`, and the element at coordinates `[|j1; ...; j(N-M)|]` in the slice is identical to the element at coordinates `[|j1; ...; j(N-M); i1; ...; iM|]` in the original array `a`. No copying of elements is involved: the slice and the original array share the same storage space.

`Genarray.slice_right` applies only to big arrays in Fortran layout. Raise `Invalid_argument` if `M >= N`, or if `[|i1; ... ; iM|]` is outside the bounds of `a`.

```
val blit : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> unit
```

Copy all elements of a big array in another big array. `Genarray.blit src dst` copies all elements of `src` into `dst`. Both arrays `src` and `dst` must have the same number of dimensions and equal dimensions. Copying a sub-array of `src` to a sub-array of `dst` can be achieved by applying `Genarray.blit` to sub-array or slices of `src` and `dst`.

```
val fill : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'a -> unit
```

Set all elements of a big array to a given value. `Genarray.fill a v` stores the value `v` in all elements of the big array `a`. Setting only some elements of `a` to `v` can be achieved by applying `Genarray.fill` to a sub-array or a slice of `a`.

```
val map_file :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  ?pos:int64 ->
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> bool -> int array -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Memory mapping of a file as a big array. `Genarray.map_file fd kind layout shared dims` returns a big array of kind `kind`, layout `layout`, and dimensions as specified in `dims`. The data contained in this big array are the contents of the file referred to by the file descriptor `fd` (as opened previously with `Unix.openfile`, for example). The optional `pos` parameter is the byte offset in the file of the data being mapped; it defaults to 0 (map from the beginning of the file).

If `shared` is `true`, all modifications performed on the array are reflected in the file. This requires that `fd` be opened with write permissions. If `shared` is `false`, modifications performed on the array are done in memory only, using copy-on-write of the modified pages; the underlying file is not affected.

`Genarray.map_file` is much more efficient than reading the whole file in a big array, modifying that big array, and writing it afterwards.

To adjust automatically the dimensions of the big array to the actual size of the file, the major dimension (that is, the first dimension for an array with C layout, and the last dimension for an array with Fortran layout) can be given as `-1`. `Genarray.map_file` then determines the major dimension from the size of the file. The file must contain an integral number of sub-arrays as determined by the non-major dimensions, otherwise `Failure` is raised.

If all dimensions of the big array are given, the file size is matched against the size of the big array. If the file is larger than the big array, only the initial portion of the file is mapped to the big array. If the file is smaller than the big array, the file is automatically grown to the size of the big array. This requires write permissions on `fd`.

Array accesses are bounds-checked, but the bounds are determined by the initial call to `map_file`. Therefore, you should make sure no other process modifies the mapped file while you're accessing it, or a SIGBUS signal may be raised. This happens, for instance, if the file is shrinked.

```
end
```

One-dimensional arrays

```
module Array1 :
  sig
```

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

The type of one-dimensional big arrays whose elements have OCaml type `'a`, representation kind `'b`, and memory layout `'c`.

```
val create :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

`Array1.create kind layout dim` returns a new bigarray of one dimension, whose size is `dim`. `kind` and `layout` determine the array element kind and the array layout as described for `Genarray.create`.

```
val dim : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the size (dimension) of the given one-dimensional big array.

```
val kind : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind
```

Return the kind of the given big array.

```
val layout : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'c Bigarray.layout
```

Return the layout of the given big array.

```
val get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> 'a
```

`Array1.get a x`, or alternatively `a.{x}`, returns the element of `a` at index `x`. `x` must be greater or equal than `0` and strictly less than `Array1.dim a` if `a` has C layout. If `a` has Fortran layout, `x` must be greater or equal than `1` and less or equal than `Array1.dim a`. Otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

```
val set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> 'a -> unit
```

`Array1.set a x v`, also written `a.{x} <- v`, stores the value `v` at index `x` in `a`. `x` must be inside the bounds of `a` as described in `Bigarray.Array1.get`[28.1]; otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

```
val sub : ('a, 'b, 'c) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Extract a sub-array of the given one-dimensional big array. See `Genarray.sub_left` for more details.

```
val blit : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> unit
```

Copy the first big array to the second big array. See `Genarray.blit` for more details.

```
val fill : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'a -> unit
```

Fill the given big array with the given value. See `Genarray.fill` for more details.

```
val of_array :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> 'a array -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Build a one-dimensional big array initialized from the given array.

```
val map_file :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  ?pos:int64 ->
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> bool -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Memory mapping of a file as a one-dimensional big array. See `Bigarray.Genarray.map_file`[28.1] for more details.

```
val unsafe_get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> 'a
```

Like `Bigarray.Array1.get`[28.1], but bounds checking is not always performed. Use with caution and only when the program logic guarantees that the access is within bounds.

```
val unsafe_set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> 'a -> unit
```

Like `Bigarray.Array1.set`[28.1], but bounds checking is not always performed. Use with caution and only when the program logic guarantees that the access is within bounds.

```
end
```

One-dimensional arrays. The `Array1` structure provides operations similar to those of `Bigarray.Genarray`[28.1], but specialized to the case of one-dimensional arrays. (The `Array2` and `Array3` structures below provide operations specialized for two- and three-dimensional arrays.) Statically knowing the number of dimensions of the array allows faster operations, and more precise static type-checking.

Two-dimensional arrays

```
module Array2 :
  sig
```

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

The type of two-dimensional big arrays whose elements have OCaml type `'a`, representation kind `'b`, and memory layout `'c`.

```
val create :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

`Array2.create kind layout dim1 dim2` returns a new bigarray of two dimension, whose size is `dim1` in the first dimension and `dim2` in the second dimension. `kind` and `layout` determine the array element kind and the array layout as described for `Bigarray.Genarray.create`[28.1].

```
val dim1 : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the first dimension of the given two-dimensional big array.

```
val dim2 : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the second dimension of the given two-dimensional big array.

```
val kind : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind
```

Return the kind of the given big array.

```
val layout : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'c Bigarray.layout
```

Return the layout of the given big array.

```
val get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> 'a
```

`Array2.get a x y`, also written `a.{x,y}`, returns the element of `a` at coordinates (`x`, `y`). `x` and `y` must be within the bounds of `a`, as described for `Bigarray.Genarray.get`[28.1]; otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

```
val set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> 'a -> unit
```

`Array2.set a x y v`, or alternatively `a.{x,y} <- v`, stores the value `v` at coordinates (`x`, `y`) in `a`. `x` and `y` must be within the bounds of `a`, as described for `Bigarray.Genarray.set`[28.1]; otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

```
val sub_left :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t
```

Extract a two-dimensional sub-array of the given two-dimensional big array by restricting the first dimension. See `Bigarray.Genarray.sub_left`[28.1] for more details. `Array2.sub_left` applies only to arrays with C layout.

```
val sub_right :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t
```

Extract a two-dimensional sub-array of the given two-dimensional big array by restricting the second dimension. See `Bigarray.Genarray.sub_right`[28.1] for more details. `Array2.sub_right` applies only to arrays with Fortran layout.

```
val slice_left :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) Bigarray.Array1.t
```

Extract a row (one-dimensional slice) of the given two-dimensional big array. The integer parameter is the index of the row to extract. See `Bigarray.Genarray.slice_left`[28.1] for more details. `Array2.slice_left` applies only to arrays with C layout.

```
val slice_right :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) Bigarray.Array1.t
```

Extract a column (one-dimensional slice) of the given two-dimensional big array. The integer parameter is the index of the column to extract. See `Bigarray.Genarray.slice_right`[28.1] for more details. `Array2.slice_right` applies only to arrays with Fortran layout.

```
val blit : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> unit
```

Copy the first big array to the second big array. See `Bigarray.Genarray.blit`[28.1] for more details.

```
val fill : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'a -> unit
```

Fill the given big array with the given value. See `Bigarray.Genarray.fill`[28.1] for more details.

```
val of_array :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> 'a array array -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Build a two-dimensional big array initialized from the given array of arrays.

```
val map_file :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  ?pos:int64 ->
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> bool -> int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Memory mapping of a file as a two-dimensional big array. See `Bigarray.Genarray.map_file`[28.1] for more details.

```
val unsafe_get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> 'a
```

Like `Bigarray.Array2.get`[28.1], but bounds checking is not always performed.

```
val unsafe_set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> 'a -> unit
```

Like `Bigarray.Array2.set`[28.1], but bounds checking is not always performed.

```
end
```

Two-dimensional arrays. The `Array2` structure provides operations similar to those of `Bigarray.Genarray`[28.1], but specialized to the case of two-dimensional arrays.

Three-dimensional arrays

```
module Array3 :
  sig
```

```
type ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

The type of three-dimensional big arrays whose elements have OCaml type `'a`, representation kind `'b`, and memory layout `'c`.

```
val create :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> int -> int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

`Array3.create kind layout dim1 dim2 dim3` returns a new bigarray of three dimension, whose size is `dim1` in the first dimension, `dim2` in the second dimension, and `dim3` in the third. `kind` and `layout` determine the array element kind and the array layout as described for `Bigarray.Genarray.create`[28.1].

```
val dim1 : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the first dimension of the given three-dimensional big array.

```
val dim2 : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the second dimension of the given three-dimensional big array.

```
val dim3 : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int
```

Return the third dimension of the given three-dimensional big array.

```
val kind : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind
```

Return the kind of the given big array.

```
val layout : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'c Bigarray.layout
```

Return the layout of the given big array.

```
val get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> int -> 'a
```

`Array3.get a x y z`, also written `a.{x,y,z}`, returns the element of `a` at coordinates (x, y, z). `x`, `y` and `z` must be within the bounds of `a`, as described for `Bigarray.Genarray.get`[28.1]; otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

```
val set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> int -> 'a -> unit
```

`Array3.set a x y v`, or alternatively `a.{x,y,z} <- v`, stores the value `v` at coordinates (x, y, z) in `a`. `x`, `y` and `z` must be within the bounds of `a`, as described for `Bigarray.Genarray.set`[28.1]; otherwise, `Invalid_argument` is raised.

```
val sub_left :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t
```

Extract a three-dimensional sub-array of the given three-dimensional big array by restricting the first dimension. See `Bigarray.Genarray.sub_left`[28.1] for more details. `Array3.sub_left` applies only to arrays with C layout.

```
val sub_right :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t
```

Extract a three-dimensional sub-array of the given three-dimensional big array by restricting the second dimension. See `Bigarray.Genarray.sub_right`[28.1] for more details. `Array3.sub_right` applies only to arrays with Fortran layout.

```
val slice_left_1 :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) Bigarray.Array1.t
```

Extract a one-dimensional slice of the given three-dimensional big array by fixing the first two coordinates. The integer parameters are the coordinates of the slice to extract. See `Bigarray.Genarray.slice_left`[28.1] for more details. `Array3.slice_left_1` applies only to arrays with C layout.

```
val slice_right_1 :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) Bigarray.Array1.t
```

Extract a one-dimensional slice of the given three-dimensional big array by fixing the last two coordinates. The integer parameters are the coordinates of the slice to extract. See `Bigarray.Genarray.slice_right`[28.1] for more details. `Array3.slice_right_1` applies only to arrays with Fortran layout.

```
val slice_left_2 :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) t ->
  int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.c_layout) Bigarray.Array2.t
```

Extract a two-dimensional slice of the given three-dimensional big array by fixing the first coordinate. The integer parameter is the first coordinate of the slice to extract. See `Bigarray.Genarray.slice_left`[28.1] for more details. `Array3.slice_left_2` applies only to arrays with C layout.

```
val slice_right_2 :
  ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) t ->
  int -> ('a, 'b, Bigarray.fortran_layout) Bigarray.Array2.t
```

Extract a two-dimensional slice of the given three-dimensional big array by fixing the last coordinate. The integer parameter is the coordinate of the slice to extract. See `Bigarray.Genarray.slice_right`[28.1] for more details. `Array3.slice_right_2` applies only to arrays with Fortran layout.

```
val blit : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> unit
```

Copy the first big array to the second big array. See `Bigarray.Genarray.blit`[28.1] for more details.

```
val fill : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> 'a -> unit
```

Fill the given big array with the given value. See `Bigarray.Genarray.fill`[28.1] for more details.

```
val of_array :
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout -> 'a array array array -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Build a three-dimensional big array initialized from the given array of arrays of arrays.

```
val map_file :
  Unix.file_descr ->
  ?pos:int64 ->
  ('a, 'b) Bigarray.kind ->
  'c Bigarray.layout ->
  bool -> int -> int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) t
```

Memory mapping of a file as a three-dimensional big array. See `Bigarray.Genarray.map_file`[28.1] for more details.

```
val unsafe_get : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> int -> 'a
```

Like `Bigarray.Array3.get`[28.1], but bounds checking is not always performed.

```
val unsafe_set : ('a, 'b, 'c) t -> int -> int -> int -> 'a -> unit
```

Like `Bigarray.Array3.set`[28.1], but bounds checking is not always performed.

```
end
```

Three-dimensional arrays. The `Array3` structure provides operations similar to those of `Bigarray.Genarray`[28.1], but specialized to the case of three-dimensional arrays.

Coercions between generic big arrays and fixed-dimension big arrays

```
val genarray_of_array1 : ('a, 'b, 'c) Array1.t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t
```

Return the generic big array corresponding to the given one-dimensional big array.

```
val genarray_of_array2 : ('a, 'b, 'c) Array2.t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t
```

Return the generic big array corresponding to the given two-dimensional big array.

```
val genarray_of_array3 : ('a, 'b, 'c) Array3.t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t
```

Return the generic big array corresponding to the given three-dimensional big array.

```
val array1_of_genarray : ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Array1.t
```

Return the one-dimensional big array corresponding to the given generic big array. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the generic big array does not have exactly one dimension.

```
val array2_of_genarray : ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Array2.t
```

Return the two-dimensional big array corresponding to the given generic big array. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the generic big array does not have exactly two dimensions.

```
val array3_of_genarray : ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Array3.t
```

Return the three-dimensional big array corresponding to the given generic big array. Raise `Invalid_argument` if the generic big array does not have exactly three dimensions.

Re-shaping big arrays

```
val reshape :
  ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t ->
  int array -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t
```

reshape b [|d1;...;dN|] converts the big array b to a N-dimensional array of dimensions d1...dN. The returned array and the original array b share their data and have the same layout. For instance, assuming that b is a one-dimensional array of dimension 12, reshape b [|3;4|] returns a two-dimensional array b' of dimensions 3 and 4. If b has C layout, the element (x,y) of b' corresponds to the element x * 3 + y of b. If b has Fortran layout, the element (x,y) of b' corresponds to the element x + (y - 1) * 4 of b. The returned big array must have exactly the same number of elements as the original big array b. That is, the product of the dimensions of b must be equal to i1 * ... * iN. Otherwise, Invalid_argument is raised.

```
val reshape_1 : ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Array1.t
```

Specialized version of Bigarray.reshape[28.1] for reshaping to one-dimensional arrays.

```
val reshape_2 :
  ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t ->
  int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Array2.t
```

Specialized version of Bigarray.reshape[28.1] for reshaping to two-dimensional arrays.

```
val reshape_3 :
  ('a, 'b, 'c) Genarray.t ->
  int -> int -> int -> ('a, 'b, 'c) Array3.t
```

Specialized version of Bigarray.reshape[28.1] for reshaping to three-dimensional arrays.

28.2 Big arrays in the OCaml-C interface

C stub code that interface C or Fortran code with OCaml code, as described in chapter 19, can exploit big arrays as follows.

28.2.1 Include file

The include file <caml/bigarray.h> must be included in the C stub file. It declares the functions, constants and macros discussed below.

28.2.2 Accessing an OCaml bigarray from C or Fortran

If v is a OCaml value representing a big array, the expression Caml_ba_data_val(v) returns a pointer to the data part of the array. This pointer is of type void * and can be cast to the appropriate C type for the array (e.g. double [], char [][10], etc).

Various characteristics of the OCaml big array can be consulted from C as follows:

C expression	Returns
`Caml_ba_array_val(`*v*`)->num_dims`	number of dimensions
`Caml_ba_array_val(`*v*`)->dim[`*i*`]`	*i*-th dimension
`Caml_ba_array_val(`*v*`)->flags & BIGARRAY_KIND_MASK`	kind of array elements

The kind of array elements is one of the following constants:

Constant	Element kind
`CAML_BA_FLOAT32`	32-bit single-precision floats
`CAML_BA_FLOAT64`	64-bit double-precision floats
`CAML_BA_SINT8`	8-bit signed integers
`CAML_BA_UINT8`	8-bit unsigned integers
`CAML_BA_SINT16`	16-bit signed integers
`CAML_BA_UINT16`	16-bit unsigned integers
`CAML_BA_INT32`	32-bit signed integers
`CAML_BA_INT64`	64-bit signed integers
`CAML_BA_CAML_INT`	31- or 63-bit signed integers
`CAML_BA_NATIVE_INT`	32- or 64-bit (platform-native) integers

The following example shows the passing of a two-dimensional big array to a C function and a Fortran function.

```
extern void my_c_function(double * data, int dimx, int dimy);
extern void my_fortran_function_(double * data, int * dimx, int * dimy);

value caml_stub(value bigarray)
{
  int dimx = Caml_ba_array_val(bigarray)->dim[0];
  int dimy = Caml_ba_array_val(bigarray)->dim[1];
  /* C passes scalar parameters by value */
  my_c_function(Caml_ba_data_val(bigarray), dimx, dimy);
  /* Fortran passes all parameters by reference */
  my_fortran_function_(Caml_ba_data_val(bigarray), &dimx, &dimy);
  return Val_unit;
}
```

28.2.3 Wrapping a C or Fortran array as an OCaml big array

A pointer *p* to an already-allocated C or Fortran array can be wrapped and returned to OCaml as a big array using the `caml_ba_alloc` or `caml_ba_alloc_dims` functions.

- `caml_ba_alloc(`*kind* `|` *layout*, *numdims*, *p*, *dims*`)`

  Return an OCaml big array wrapping the data pointed to by *p*. *kind* is the kind of array elements (one of the `CAML_BA_` kind constants above). *layout* is `CAML_BA_C_LAYOUT` for an array with C layout and `CAML_BA_FORTRAN_LAYOUT` for an array with Fortran layout. *numdims* is the number of dimensions in the array. *dims* is an array of *numdims* long integers, giving the sizes of the array in each dimension.

- `caml_ba_alloc_dims(`*kind* `|` *layout*, *numdims*, *p*, `(long)` dim_1, `(long)` dim_2, ..., `(long)` $dim_{numdims}$`)`

  Same as `caml_ba_alloc`, but the sizes of the array in each dimension are listed as extra arguments in the function call, rather than being passed as an array.

The following example illustrates how statically-allocated C and Fortran arrays can be made available to OCaml.

```
extern long my_c_array[100][200];
extern float my_fortran_array_[300][400];

value caml_get_c_array(value unit)
{
  long dims[2];
  dims[0] = 100; dims[1] = 200;
  return caml_ba_alloc(CAML_BA_NATIVE_INT | CAML_BA_C_LAYOUT,
                       2, my_c_array, dims);
}

value caml_get_fortran_array(value unit)
{
  return caml_ba_alloc_dims(CAML_BA_FLOAT32 | CAML_BA_FORTRAN_LAYOUT,
                            2, my_fortran_array_, 300L, 400L);
}
```

Part V

Appendix

Index to the library

Index of keywords