


Programming Languages & Translators

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# INTRODUCTION TO OCAML

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These slides are motivated from Prof. Stephen Edwards 

### Useful Link

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- <https://ocaml.org/learn/tutorials/>
- <http://www.cs.columbia.edu/~%20sewards/classes/2017/4115-fall/ocaml.pdf>

### Basics: Running OCaml Code

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```
$ocaml
OCaml version <version>

# 1+1;
- : int = 2
```

Command Line

```
Hello.ml
let hello = "Hello World!"
let _ = print_endline hello

Run it with the interpreter:
$ocaml hello.ml
Hello World!

Compile into bytecode and run:
$ocamlc -o hello hello.ml
$./hello Hello World!

Compile an executable and run:
$ ocamlpt -o hello hello.ml
$ ./hello Hello World!
```

### Comments: (\* ... \*)

---

```
(* This is a single-line comment. *)

(* This is a
 * multi-line
 * comment.
 *)
```

```
(* a + b
```

Is a broken comment  
You have to close it \*)

### Calling Functions

---

Repeated ("hello", 3) /\* C code \*/

Repeated "hello" 3 (\* OCaml code \*)

Repeated ( print\_string "hello", 3) /\* C code \*/

Repeated (print\_string "hello") 3 (\* OCaml code \*)

### Defining a Function

---

```
#let average a b = ( a + b ) /. 2.0;
val average : float -> float -> float = <fun>
```

```
/*c code*/
double average (double a, double b) {
    return (a+b)/2;
}
```

### Defining a Function

```
#let average a b = ( a + .b) /. 2.0;
val average : float -> float -> float = <fun>
```

Auto inferring type

Strongly Statically Typed Language  
No implicit casting!

```
/*c code*/
double average (double a, double b) {
    return (a+b)/2;
}
```

### Basic Type

- int: 31-bit signed int (roughly +/- 1 billion) on 32-bit processors, or 63-bit signed int on 64-bit processors
  - nativeint
  - Big\_int
- float: IEEE double-precision floating point, equivalent to C's double
- bool: A boolean, written either true or false
- char: An 8-bit character string A string
- unit: Written as ()
  - similar to void

### Implicit vs. explicit casts

```
1 + 2.5 ;; X Error: This expression has type float but an expression was expected of type int
```

```
1 +. 2.5 ;; X Error: This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type float
```

```
(float_of_int 1) +. f
```

### Basic Types

```
let i = 42 + 17;; (* int *)
print_int i;

let f = 42.0 +. 18.3; (* float *)
print_float f;

let g = i + f;; (* ERROR *)
let g = float_of_int i +. f; (* OK *)
print_int (if b then "true" else "false");
```

```
let c = 'a'; (* char *)
print_char c;

let s = "Hello " ^ "World!"; (* string *)
print_endline s;

let u = (); (* unit, like "void" in C *)
```

### Standard Operators and Functions

+ - * / mod	Integer arithmetic
+ . - . * . / . **	Floating-point arithmetic
ceil floor sqrt exp log log10 cos sin tan acos asin atan	Floating-point functions
not &&	Boolean operators

### Recursive Function

By default the function name is not visible in its default expression

```
#let rec range a b =
  if a > b then []
  else a :: range (a+1) b;
val range : int -> int -> int list = <fun>
```

```
#let rec fac n =
  if n < 2 then 1
  else n * fac n-1;
```

```
#let rec fac n =
  if n < 2 then 1
  else n * fac1 n
and fac1 n = fac (n-1);
```

Mutual Recursion

### Types derived from Function declaration

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- `f : arg1 -> arg2 -> ... -> argn -> rettype`
- `int_to_char`
- Repeated "hello" 3 ?
- `average a b = ( a + .b ) /. 20;`
- `output_char`

### Polymorphic Functions

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```
#let give_three x = 3;
val give_there: 'a -> int = <fun>
```

'a : "any type you fancy"

### Automatic Type Inference: How?

---

```
#let average a b = ( a + .b ) /. 20;
val average : float -> float -> float = <fun>
```

1. checks where a and b are used? → (a + . b)
2. +. function always takes two floats → a and b have to be floats
3. /. function return float → return type has to be float

### Structural vs. Physical Equality

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- Structural equality (=) compares values;
- physical equality (==) compares pointers.
- Compare strings and floating-point numbers structurally.

= <>	Structural comparison (polymorphic)
== !=	Physical comparison (polymorphic)
< > <= >=	Comparisons (polymorphic)

### If then else

---

- if expr1 then expr2 else expr
- It is an expression in ocaml
- Else part is compulsory
- if 3 = 4 then 42 else 17;
- if "a" = "a" then 42 else 17;
- if true then 42 else "17";
  - This expression has type string but is here used with type int

### Local "variable"

---

```
/*c code*/
double average (double a, double b) {
    double sum = a+b;
    return sum/2;
}
```

```
#let average a b =
let sum = ( a + .b ) in
sum /. 20;
val average : float -> float -> float = <fun>
```

The standard phrase `let name = expr1 in expr2` is used to define a named local expression, and name can then be used later on in the function instead of expression, till a ; which ends the block of code.

## Global variables

```
#let avg =
let average a b =
  let sum = ( a +. b) in
  sum /. 2.0;
val average : float -> float -> float = <fun>
```

bind name to expression in everything that follows  
**let name = expression**

Any use of **let ...**, whether at the top level (globally) or within a function, is often called a **let-binding**.

## References: real variables

- Create a reference **: ref 0;**
  - A reference is created, but as we did not name it a garbage collector will immediately collect it.
- Name it: **let my\_ref = ref 0;**
  - This reference is currently storing a zero integer.
- **my\_ref := 100;** ← updating the value
- printing reference: **!my\_ref**

The **:=** operator is used to assign to references, and the **!** operator dereferences to get out the contents.

## References: real variables

```
# let my_ref = ref 0;;
val my_ref : int ref = {contents = 0}
# my_ref := 100;;
- : unit = ()
# !my_ref;;
- : int = 100
```

```
/*c code */
int a = 0;
int *my_ptr = &a;
*my_ptr = 100;
*my_ptr;
```

## Nested Function

```
# let read_whole_channel chan =
  let buf = Buffer.create 4096 in
  let rec loop () =
    let newline = input_line chan in
    Buffer.add_string buf newline;
    Buffer.add_char buf '\n';
    loop ()
  in try
    loop ()
  with
    End_of_file -> Buffer.contents buf;;
val read_whole_channel : in_channel -> string = <fun>
```

## Modules

- Ocaml has modules in `/usr/lib/ocaml/`
- For example, to use the functions in Graphics module, simply do:
  - **open Graphics;** at top and call its functions, say **open\_graph** later
  - or **Graphics.open\_graph "640x480";**
  - (*\*To compile this example: ocamlc graphics.cma grtest.ml -o grtest \*)*
- Rename module: `module Gr = Graphics;`
  - `Gr.open_graph`

## Filenames

Purpose	C	Bytecode	Native Code
Source Code	*.c	*.ml	*.ml
Header files	*.h	*.mli	*.mli
Object files	*.o	*.cmo	*.cmx <sup>2</sup>
Library files	*.a	*.cma	*.cmxa <sup>3</sup>

\*.cmi files are intermediate files which are compiled forms of the .mli (interface or "header file").

## Creating Modules

- In OCaml, every piece of code is wrapped into a module.
- A module itself can be a submodule of another module, pretty much like directories in a file system-but we don't do this very often.

```
/*amodule.ml*/
let hello() = print_endline "Hello"
```

```
/*bmodule.ml*/
Amodule.hello ()
```

## Interfaces and Signature

```
/*amodule.ml*/
let message = "Hello"
let hello() = print_endline message;
```

Interface

```
val message : string
val hello : unit -> unit
```

Interface: amodule.mli

```
val hello : unit -> unit
```

## Types

- modules often define new types
- type name = typedef

```
type date = { day : int; month : int; year : int }
```

- There are four options when it comes to writing the corr. .mli file:
  - The type is completely omitted from the signature.
  - The type definition is copy-pasted into the signature.
  - The type is made abstract: only its name is given. (eg. type date)
  - The record fields are made read-only: type date = private { ... }

## Abstract Types

- type date;
- users can manipulate objects of type date, but they can't access the record fields directly.

```
type date
val create : ?daysint -> ?monthsint -> ?yearsint -> unit -> date
val sub : date -> date -> date
val years : date -> float
```

- only create and sub can be used to create date records. It is not possible for the user of the module to create ill-formed records.

# LANGUAGE FEATURES

Data Types and Matching

## Linked Lists

- OCaml has support for lists built into the language.
- All elements of a list in OCaml must be the same type.
  - [1;2;3];
  - Empty list = []
- Head: the first element 1
- Tail: the rest of the list [2;3]
- Alternate ways to write list:
  - [1;2;3]
  - 1::2::3
  - 1::2::3
  - 1::2::3

## Type of Linked List

- The type of a linked list of integers is `int list`
- the type of a linked list of foos is `foo list`.
- 'a list?
  - Type of anything
  - Does not mean that each individual element has a different type
- **A linked list must have the same type. But the type can be polymorphic**
- `List.length : 'a list -> int`

## Structures

```
/*c code */
struct pair_of_ints {
  int a, b;
};
```

**Tuples:** Pairs or tuples of different types separated by commas.

```
(3,4)
- : int * int = (3, 4)
(3, 'hello', 'x')
- : int * string * char = (3, 'hello', 'x')
```

**Records:** allow name of the elements

```
# type pair_of_ints = { a : int; b : int };

(*Use*)
# { a = 3; b = 5 }
- : pair_of_ints = { a = 3; b = 5 }
```

Unlike list, different types of elements are allowed

## Variants (qualified unions and enums)

```
/*c code */
struct foo {
  int type;
#define TYPE_INT 1
#define TYPE_PAIR_OF_INTS 2
#define TYPE_STRING 3
  union {
    int i; // If type == TYPE_INT.
    int pair2; // If type == TYPE_PAIR_OF_INTS.
    char *str; // If type == TYPE_STRING.
  } u;
};
```

## Variants (qualified unions)

```
/*c code */
struct foo {
  int type;
#define TYPE_INT 1
#define TYPE_PAIR_OF_INTS 2
#define TYPE_STRING 3
  union {
    int i; // If type == TYPE_INT.
    int pair2; // If type == TYPE_PAIR_OF_INTS.
    char *str; // If type == TYPE_STRING.
  } u;
};
```

```
# type foo =
| Nothing
| Int of int
| Pair of int * int
| String of string;
```

Use:

```
Nothing
<: foo Nothing
Int 3
<: foo Int 3
Pair (4, 5)
<: foo Pair (4, 5)
String "hello"
<: foo String "hello"
```

## Variants (enums)

```
/*c code */
enum sign { positive, zero, negative };
```

```
/*OCaml code */
# type sign = Positive | Zero | Negative
```

## Recursive variants (used for trees)

```
/*OCaml code */
# type binary_tree =
| Leaf of int
| Tree of binary_tree * binary_tree;
type binary_tree = Leaf of int | Tree of binary_tree * binary_tree
```

```
Leaf 3
Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4)
Tree (Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4), Leaf 5)
Tree (Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4), Tree (Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4), Leaf 5))
```

### Parameterized variants

```
/*OCaml code */
# type 'a binary_tree =
  | Leaf of 'a
  | Tree of binary_tree * binary_tree;
type 'a binary_tree = Leaf of 'a | Tree of 'a binary_tree * 'a binary_tree
```

```
Leaf 3
Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4)
Tree (Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4), Leaf 5)
Tree (Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4), Tree (Tree (Leaf 3, Leaf 4), Leaf 5))
```

### Parameterized variants

```
# type 'a equiv_list =
  | Nil
  | Cons of 'a * 'a equiv_list;;
type 'a equiv_list = Nil | Cons of 'a * 'a equiv_list

# Nil;
- : 'a equiv_list = Nil
# Cons(1, Nil);
- : int equiv_list = Cons (1, Nil)
# Cons(1, Cons(2, Nil));
- : int equiv_list = Cons (1, Cons (2, Nil))
```

### List, Structure, Variant--summary

OCaml name	Example type definition	Example usage
list	int list	[1; 2; 3]
tuple	int * string	(3, "hello")
record	type pair = { a: int; b: string }	{ a = 3; b = "hello" }
variant	type foo =   Int of int   Pair of int * string	Int 3
variant	type sign =   Positive   Zero   Negative	Positive Zero
parameterized	type 'a my_list =	
variant	Empty   Cons of 'a * 'a my_list	Cons (1, Cons (2, Empty))

### Pattern Matching

- match value with
  - | pattern -> result
  - | pattern -> result ...

### Pattern Matching

```
# let xor p = match p
with (false, false) -> false
| (false, true) -> true
| (true, false) -> true
| (true, true) -> false;;
val xor : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
# xor (true, true); - : bool = false
```

A name in a pattern matches anything and is bound when the pattern matches. Each may appear only once per pattern.

```
# let xor p = match p
with (false, x) -> x
| (true, x) -> not x;;
val xor : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
# xor (true, true); - : bool = false
```

### Pattern Matching: Case Coverage

The compiler warns you when you miss a case or when one is redundant (they are tested in order).

```
# let xor p = match p
with (false, x) -> x
| (x, true) -> not x;;
Warning P: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive. Here is an example of a value that is not matched: (true, false) val xor : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
val xor : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
```

```
# let xor p = match p
with (false, x) -> x
| (true, x) -> not x
| (false, false) -> false;;
Warning U: this match case is unused.
val xor : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
```

### Pattern Matching with Wildcards

Underscore (`_`) is a wildcard that will match anything, useful as a default or when you just don't care.

```
# let xor p = match p
  with (true, false) | (false, true) => true
      | _ => false;
val xor : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>

# xor (true, true); - : bool = false
# xor (false, false); - : bool = false
# xor (true, false); - : bool = true

# let logand p = match p with
  (false, _) => false
  (_, x) => x;
val logand : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
# logand (true, false); - : bool = false
# logand (true, true); - : bool = true
```

### Pattern Matching with Lists

```
# let length = function (* let length = fun p -> match p with *)
  [] => "empty"
  | [] => "singleton"
  | [ _ ] => "pair"
  | [ _ ; _ ] => "triplet"
  | hd :: tl => "many";
val length : 'a list -> string = <fun>

# length []; - : string = "empty"
# length [1; 2]; - : string = "pair"
# length [1; 2; 3]; - : string = "triplet"
# length [1; 2; 3; 4]; - : string = "many"
```

### Pattern Matching with when and as

The "when" keyword lets you add a guard expression:

```
# let tall = function
  | (h, s) when h > 180 -> s ^ " is tall"
  | (h, s) -> s ^ " is short";
val tall : int * string -> string = <fun>

# List.map tall [(183, "Stephen"); (150, "Nina")];
- : string list = ["Stephen is tall"; "Nina is short"]
```

The "as" keyword lets you name parts of a matched structure:

```
# match (3,9), 4 with
  ( _ as xx, 4) -> xx
  | _ => (0,0);
- : int * int = (3, 9)
```

### Pattern Matching

$n * (x + y)$

```
# type expr =
  | Plus of expr * expr (* means a + b *)
  | Minus of expr * expr (* means a - b *)
  | Times of expr * expr (* means a * b *)
  | Divide of expr * expr (* means a / b *)
  | Value of string (* "x", "y", "n", etc. *);
```

# Times (Value "n", Plus (Value "x", Value "y"));  
- : expr = Times (Value "n", Plus (Value "x", Value "y"))

### Pattern Matching

```
n * (x + y)

# let rec to_string e =
  match e with
  | Plus (left, right) -> "(" ^ to_string left ^ " + " ^ to_string right ^ ")"
  | Minus (left, right) -> "(" ^ to_string left ^ " - " ^ to_string right ^ ")"
  | Times (left, right) -> "(" ^ to_string left ^ " * " ^ to_string right ^ ")"
  | Divide (left, right) -> "(" ^ to_string left ^ " / " ^ to_string right ^ ")"
  | Value v -> v;
val to_string : expr -> string = <fun>

# let print_expr e = print_endline (to_string e);
val print_expr : expr -> unit = <fun>

# print_expr (Times (Value "n", Plus (Value "x", Value "y")));
(n * (x + y))
- : unit = ()
```

### Pattern Matching

$n * (x + y) ==> (n*x + n*y)$

```
# let rec multiply_out e =
  match e with
  | Times (e1, Plus (e2, e3)) ->
    Plus (Times (multiply_out e1, multiply_out e2),
          Times (multiply_out e1, multiply_out e3))
  | Times (Plus (e1, e2), e3) ->
    Plus (Times (multiply_out e1, multiply_out e3),
          Times (multiply_out e2, multiply_out e3))
  | Plus (left, right) -> Plus (multiply_out left, multiply_out right)
  | Minus (left, right) -> Minus (multiply_out left, multiply_out right)
  | Times (left, right) -> Times (multiply_out left, multiply_out right)
  | Divide (left, right) -> Divide (multiply_out left, multiply_out right)
  | Value v -> Value v;
val multiply_out : expr -> expr = <fun>
```



## SOME DATA STRUCTURES

### Map

- Creates a "mapping".
- `module MyUsers = Map.Make(String);` (\* create a map MyUsers \*)
- `# let m = MyUsers.empty;`  
`:- val m : 'a MyUserst = <abstr>` (\*create an empty map\*)
- `# let m = MyUsers.add "fred" "sugarplums" m;`  
`:- val m : string MyUserst = <abstr>` (\* add something to it \*)
  - Once we have added the string "sugarplums" we have fixed the types of mappings that we can do

### Map

```
(*Adding elements to the map*)
# let m = MyUsers.add "fred" "sugarplums" m;
val m : string MyUserst = <abstr>
# let m = MyUsers.add "tom" "lovelacy" m;
val m : string MyUserst = <abstr>
# let m = MyUsers.add "mark" "ocamlrules" m;
val m : string MyUserst = <abstr>
# let m = MyUsers.add "pete" "linux" m;
val m : string MyUserst = <abstr>

(*Functions printing string *)
# let print_users key password = print_string key ^ " ^ " ^ password ^ "\n";
val print_users : string -> string -> unit = <fun>

(*Map iteration*)
# MyUsers.iter print_users m;

(*Find an element*)
# MyUsers.find "fred" m;
```

### List: Some useful List Function

Three great replacements for loops:

- `List.map f [a1; ... ;an] = [f a1; ... ; f an]`
  - Apply a function to each element of a list to produce another list.
- `List.fold_left f a [b1; ...;bn] = f (...(f (f a b1) b2)...) bn`
  - Apply a function to a partial result and an element of the list to produce the next partial result.
- `List.iter f [a1; ...;an] = begin f a1; ... ; f an; () end`
  - Apply a function to each element of a list; produce a unit result.
- `List.rev [a1; ... ; an] = [an; ... ; a1]`
  - Reverse the order of the elements of a list.

### List: Some useful List Function

```
# List.map (fun a -> a + 10) [42; 17; 128];
- : int list = [52; 27; 138]

# List.map string_of_int [42; 17; 128];
- : string list = ["42"; "17"; "128"]

# List.fold_left (fun s e -> s + e) 0 [42; 17; 128]; List.fold_left f a [b1; ...;bn] = f (...(f (f a b1) b2)...) bn
- : int = 187

# List.iter print_int [42; 17; 128];
42 17 128 - : unit = ()

# List.iter (fun n -> print_int n; print_newline () ) [42; 17; 128];
42 17 128 - : unit = ()

# List.iter print_endline (List.map string_of_int [42; 17; 128]);
42 17 128 - : unit = ()
```

### Arrays

```
# let a = [| 42; 17; 19 |]; (* Array literal *)
val a : int array = [|42; 17; 19|]

# let aa = Array.make 5 0; (* Fill a new array *)
val aa : int array = [|0; 0; 0; 0; 0|]

# a(0);
- : int = 42
# a(2);
- : int = 19
# a(3);
Exception: Invalid_argument "index out of bounds".

# a(2) <- 20; (* Arrays are mutable! *)
- : unit = ()
# a;
- : int array = [|42; 17; 20|]
```

### Arrays

```
# let l = [24; 32; 17];           (* Array from a list *)
val l : int list = [24; 32; 17]
# let b = Array.of_list l;
val b : int array = [|24; 32; 17|]
# let c = Array.append a b;
val c : int array = [|42; 17; 20; 24; 32; 17|]
```

### Array vs List

	Arrays	Lists
Random Access	O(1)	O(n)
Appending	O(n)	O(1)
Mutable	Yes	No

Useful pattern: first collect data of unknown length in a list then convert it to an array with `Array.of_list` for random queries.

### Hash Tables

```
# let hash = StringHash.create 17;;           (* initial size estimate *)
val hash : 'a StringHash.t = ~absstr~

# StringHash.add hash "Douglas" 42;;         (* modify the hash table *)
- : unit = ()

# StringHash.mem hash "foo";                (* is "foo" there? *)
- : bool = false

# StringHash.mem hash "Douglas";           (* is "Douglas" there? *)
- : bool = true

# StringHash.find hash "Douglas";          (* Get value *)
- : int = 42

# StringHash.add hash "Adams" 17;          (* Add another key/value *)
- : unit = ()
# StringHash.find hash "Adams";            - : int = 17
# StringHash.find hash "Douglas";         - : int = 42
# StringHash.find hash "Slani";           Exception: Not_found.
```

## FUNCTIONAL FEATURE

### Functional Language

- Functions are first class citizen

```
# let twice x = x * 2 in List.map twice [ 1; 2; 3 ];
- : int list = [2; 4; 6]
```

- The nested function `twice` takes an argument `x` and returns `x * 2`.
- Then `map` calls `twice` on each element of the given list (`[1; 2; 3]`) to produce the result: a list with each number doubled.
- `map` is known as a **higher-order function** (HOF): a function takes a function as one of its arguments.

### Functions as Argument

```
# let sqr x = x * x;;
- : val sqr : int -> int = <fun>
##sqr 5 (* calling *)

# let sqrl = fun x-> x*x
- : val sqrl : int -> int = <fun>
##sqrl 5 / (fun x->x*x) 5; (* calling*)
```

```
# let appadd = fun f -> (f 42) + 17;;
val appadd : (int -> int) -> int = <fun>
# let plus5 x = x + 5;
val plus5 : int -> int = <fun>
# appadd plus5;
- : int = 64
```

## Functional Language

---

- Functions are first class citizen

```
# let twice x = x * 2 in List.map twice [ 1; 2; 3 ];
- : int list = [2; 4; 6]
```

- The nested function twice takes an argument x and returns x \* 2.
- Then map calls twice on each element of the given list ([1; 2; 3]) to produce the result: a list with each number doubled.
- map is known as a **higher-order function** (HOF): a function takes a function as one of its arguments.

## Functional Language

---

```
##let multiply n list =
  let f x = n * x in
  List.map f list;
val multiply : int -> int list -> int list = <fun>
```

- nested function f is a closure.
  - Closures are functions which carry around some of the "environment" in which they were defined.
  - f uses the value of n which isn't passed as an argument but available in its environment
- map is defined in the List module
- we're passing f into the module defined somewhere else.
- the closure will ensure that f always has access back to its parental environment, and to n.

## Currying

---

```
# let plus a b = a + b;
val plus : int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

- plus??
- plus 2 3??
- plus 2??

```
# let plus2 plus 2;
val plus2: int -> int = <fun>
```

- plus2 5??

### Currying

Given a function  $F: (X \times Y) \rightarrow Z$ ,  
currying constructs a new function  $f: X \rightarrow (Y \rightarrow Z)$

## Currying

---

```
##let multiply n list =
  let f x = n * x in
  List.map f list;
val multiply : int -> int list -> int list = <fun>
```

- let double = multiply 2;;
- let triple = multiply 3;;

## Other features

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- Pure vs impure
- Strictness vs laziness
- Boxed vs. unboxed types

SOME EXAMPLES

## Application: Length of a list

```
let rec length l =
  if l = [] then 0 else 1 + length (List.tl l);
```

Correct but not very elegant. With pattern matching

```
let rec length = function
  [] -> 0
  | _::tl -> 1 + length tl;
```

Elegant, but inefficient because it is not tail-recursive (needs  $O(n)$  stack space).  
Common trick: use an argument as an accumulator.

```
let length l =
  let rec helper len = function
  [] -> len
  | _::tl -> helper (len + 1) tl
  in helper 0 l
```

This is the code for the List.length standard library function.

## Application: Length of a list

Ocaml Source Code

```
let length l =
  let rec helper len = function
  [] -> len
  | _::tl -> helper (len + 1) tl
  in helper 0 l
```

- Arguments in registers
- Pattern matching reduced to a conditional branch
- Tail recursion implemented with jumps

ocaml/ocaml generates this x86 assembly

```
canilLength_helper:
.L101:
  cmp $1, %ebx      # empty?
  je .L100
  movl 4(%ebx), %ebx # get tail
  addl $2, %eax     # len++
  jmp .L101
.L100:
  ret

canilLength_length:
  movl %eax, %ebx
  movl $canilLength_2, %eax
  movl $1, %eax     # len = 0
  jmp canilLength_helper
```