

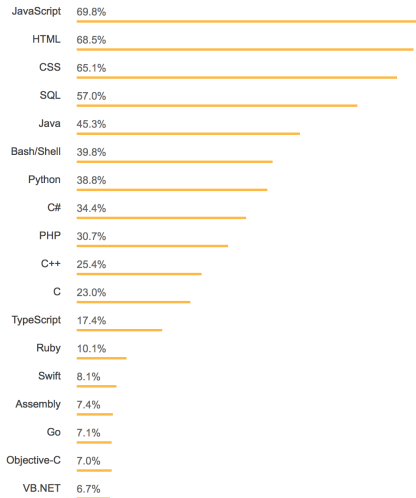
COSE212: Programming Languages

Lecture 3 — Basics of OCaml

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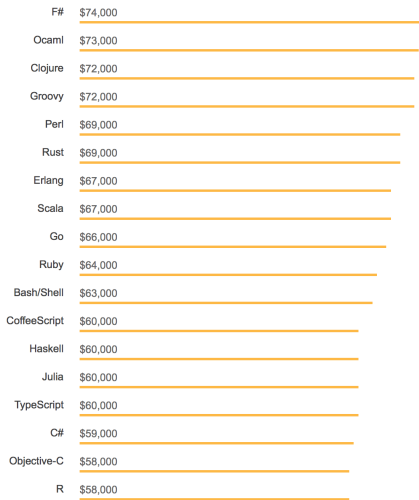
Why Functional Programming?

Most Popular Programming Languages (Stackoverflow, 2018)



Why Functional Programming?

Top Paying Programming Languages (Stackoverflow, 2018):



Why Functional Programming?

Functional languages are increasingly used in industry:



Bloomberg



Jane Street

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Why Functional Programming?

- Functional programming, as opposed to imperative programming, provides a new and important frame of thinking
- Many modern programming languages has been inspired by functional languages
- Learning functional languages helps to understand foundational ideas in programming
- Writing programs in functional languages is concise and pleasurable
- and many more

Basic knowledge that every SW majors should have

Why Functional Programming in OCaml?

OCaml is a good programming language:

- functional programming: scala, java8, haskell, python, JavaScript, etc
- static type system: scala, java, haskell, etc
- automatic type inference: scala, haskell, etc
- pattern matching: scala, etc
- algebraic data types, module system, etc

Basics of the Language

- Expressions
- Names
- Functions
- Pattern matching
- Type inference
- Tuples and lists
- Data types
- Exceptions
- Modules

Write and run all examples in the slides by yourself!

An OCaml Program is an Expression

Statement and expressions:

- A statement *does something*.
- An expression *evaluates to a value*.

Programming languages can be classified into

- statement-oriented: C, C++, Java, Python, JavaScript, etc
 - ▶ often called “imperative languages”
- expression-oriented: ML, Haskell, Scala, Lisp, etc
 - ▶ often called “functional languages”

Basic Structure of OCaml Programs

An OCaml program is a sequence of definitions:

```
let  $x_1 = e_1$   
let  $x_2 = e_2$   
   $\vdots$   
let  $x_n = e_n$ 
```

- $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$ are evaluated in order
- Variable x_i refers to the value of e_i

Example

- Hello World:

```
let hello = "Hello"
let world = "World"
let helloworld = hello ^ " " ^ world
let _ = print_endline helloworld
```

- Interpreter:

```
$ ocaml helloworld.ml
Hello World
```

- REPL (Read-Eval-Print-Loop)

```
$ ocaml
OCaml version 4.04.0

# let hello = "Hello";;
val hello : string = "Hello"
# let world = "World";;
val world : string = "World"
# let helloworld = hello ^ " " ^ world;;
val helloworld : string = "Hello World"
```

Arithmetic Expressions

- Arithmetic expressions evaluate to numbers: e.g., $1+2*3$, $1+5$, 7
- Try to evaluate expressions in the REPL:

```
# 1+2*3;;
```

```
- : int = 7
```

- Arithmetic operators on integers:

$a + b$	addition
---------	----------

$a - b$	subtraction
---------	-------------

$a * b$	multiplication
---------	----------------

a / b	divide a by b , returning the whole part
---------	--

$a \bmod b$	divide a by b , returning the remaining part
-------------	--

Boolean Expressions

- Boolean expressions evaluate to boolean values (i.e., true, false).
- Try to evaluate boolean expressions:

```
# true;;
```

```
- : bool = true
```

```
# false;;
```

```
- : bool = false
```

```
# 1 > 2;;
```

```
- : bool = false
```

- Comparison operators produces boolean values:

$a = b$ true if a and b are equal

$a \neq b$ true if a and b are not equal

$a < b$ true if a is less than b

$a \leq b$ true if a is less than or equal to b

$a > b$ true if a is greater than b

$a \geq b$ true if a is greater than or equal to b

Boolean Operators

- Boolean expressions are combined by boolean operators:

```
# true && false;;
```

```
- : bool = false
```

```
# true || false;;
```

```
- : bool = true
```

```
# (2 > 1) && (3 > 2);;
```

```
- : bool = true
```

ML is a Statically Typed Language

If you try to evaluate an expression that does not make sense, OCaml rejects and does not evaluate the program: e.g.,

```
# 1 + true;;
```

```
Error: This expression has type bool but an expression was  
expected of type int
```

Static Types and Dynamic Types

Programming languages are classified into:

- *Statically typed languages*: type checking is done at compile-time.
 - ▶ type errors are detected before program executions
 - ▶ C, C++, Java, ML, Scala, etc
- *Dynamically typed languages*: type checking is done at run-time.
 - ▶ type errors are detected during program executions
 - ▶ Python, JavaScript, Ruby, Lisp, etc

Statically typed languages are further classified into:

- *Type-safe languages* guarantee that compiled programs do not have type errors at run-time.
 - ▶ All type errors are detected at compile time.
 - ▶ Compiled programs do not stuck.
 - ▶ ML, Haskell, Scala
- *Unsafe languages* do not provide such a guarantee.
 - ▶ Some type errors remain at run-time.
 - ▶ C, C++

cf) Which one is better?

Statically typed languages:

- (+) Type errors are caught early in the development cycle.
- (+) Program execution is efficient by omitting runtime checks.
- (−) Less flexible than dynamic languages.

Dynamically typed languages:

- (−) Type errors appear at run-time, often unexpectedly.
- (+) Provide more flexible language features.
- (+) Easy and fast prototyping.

Conversion between Different Types

- In OCaml, different types of values are distinguished:

```
# 3 + 2.0;;
```

```
Error: This expression has type float but an expression  
was expected of type int
```

- Types must be explicitly converted:

```
# 3 + int_of_float 2.0;;
```

```
- : int = 5
```

- Operators for floating point numbers:

```
# 1.2 +. 2.3;;
```

```
- : float = 3.5
```

```
# 1.5 *. 2.0;;
```

```
- : float = 3.
```

```
# float_of_int 1 +. 2.2;;
```

```
- : float = 3.2
```

Other Primitive Values

- OCaml provides six primitive values: integers, booleans, floating point numbers, characters, strings, and unit.

```
# 'c';;  
- : char = 'c'  
# "cose212";;  
- : string = "cose212"  
# ();;  
- : unit = ()
```

Conditional Expressions

if be then e_1 else e_2

- If be is true, the value of the conditional expression is the value of e_1 .
- If be is false, the value of the expression is the value of e_2 .
- ```
if 2 > 1 then 0 else 1;;
- : int = 0
if 2 < 1 then 0 else 1;;
- : int = 1
```
- $be$  must be a boolean expression.
- types of  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  must be equivalent.
- ```
# if 1 then 1 else 2;;  
Error: ...  
# if true then 1 else true;;  
Error: ...  
# if true then true else false;;  
- : bool = true
```

Names and Functions

- Create a global variable with the `let` keyword:

```
# let x = 3 + 4;;  
val x : int = 7
```

We say a variable `x` is *bound* to value `7`.

```
# let y = x + x;;  
val y : int = 14
```

- Create a local variable with `let ... in ...` construct:

`let  $x$  =  $e_1$  in  $e_2$`

- ▶ x is bound to the value of e_1
- ▶ the scope of x is e_2
- ▶ the value of e_2 becomes the value of the entire expression

Examples

- ```
let a = 1 in a;;
- : int = 1
let a = 1 in a * 2;;
- : int = 2
```
- ```
# let a = 1 in  
  let b = a + a in  
  let c = b + b in  
    c + c;;  
- : int = 8
```
- ```
let d =
 let a = 1 in
 let b = a + a in
 let c = b + b in
 c + c;;
val d : int = 8
```

# Functions

- Define a function with `let`:

```
let square x = x * x;;
val square : int -> int = <fun>
```

- Apply the function:

```
square 2;;
- : int = 4
square (2 + 5);;
- : int = 49
square (square 2);;
- : int = 16
```

- The body can be any expression:

```
let neg x = if x < 0 then true else false;;
val neg : int -> bool = <fun>
neg 1;;
- : bool = false
neg (-1);;
- : bool = true
```

# Functions

- Functions with multiple arguments:

```
let sum_of_squares x y = (square x) + (square y);;
val sum_of_squares : int -> int -> int = <fun>
sum_of_squares 3 4;;
- : int = 25
```

- Recursive functions are defined with `let rec` construct:

```
let rec factorial a =
 if a = 1 then 1 else a * factorial (a - 1);;
val factorial : int -> int = <fun>
factorial 5;;
- : int = 120
```

# Nameless Functions

- Many modern programming languages provide nameless functions, e.g., ML, Scala, Java8, JavaScript, Python, etc.
- In OCaml, a function can be defined without names:

```
fun x -> x * x;;
- : int -> int = <fun>
```

Called *nameless* or *anonymous* functions.

- Apply nameless function as usual:

```
(fun x -> x * x) 2;;
- : int = 4
```

- A variable can be bound to functions:

```
let square = fun x -> x * x;;
val square : int -> int = <fun>
```

- The followings are equivalent:

```
let square = fun x -> x * x
let square x = x * x
```



# Functions are First-Class in OCaml

In programming languages, a value is *first-class*, if the value can be

- stored in a variable,
- passed as an argument of a function, and
- returned from other functions.

A language is often called *functional*, if functions are first class values, e.g., ML, Scala, Java8, JavaScript, Python, Lisp, etc.

# Functions are First-Class in OCaml

- Functions can be stored in variables:

```
let square = fun x -> x * x;;
square 2;;
- : int = 4
```

- Functions can be passed to other functions:

```
let sum_if_true test first second =
 (if test first then first else 0)
 + (if test second then second else 0);;
val sum_if_true : (int -> bool) -> int -> int -> int = <fun>

let even x = x mod 2 = 0;;
val even : int -> bool = <fun>

sum_if_true even 3 4;;
- : int = 4

sum_if_true even 2 4;;
- : int = 6
```

# Functions are First-Class in OCaml

- Functions can be also returned from a procedure:

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

let f = plus_a 3;;
val f : int -> int = <fun>

f 1;;
- : int = 4

f 2;;
- : int = 5
```

Functions that manipulate functions are called *higher-order functions*.

- i.e., functions that take as argument functions or return functions
- greatly increase the expressiveness of the language

# Pattern Matching

- An elegant way of doing case analysis.
- E.g., using pattern-matching, the factorial function

```
let rec factorial a =
 if a = 1 then 1 else a * factorial (a - 1)
```

can be written as follows:

```
let factorial a =
 match a with
 1 -> 1
 | _ -> a * factorial (a - 1)
```

# Pattern Matching

The nested if-then-else expression

```
let isabc c = if c = 'a' then true
 else if c = 'b' then true
 else if c = 'c' then true
 else false
```

can be written using pattern matching:

```
let isabc c =
 match c with
 'a' -> true
 | 'b' -> true
 | 'c' -> true
 | _ -> false
```

or simply,

```
let isabc c =
 match c with
 'a' | 'b' | 'c' -> true
 | _ -> false
```

# Type Inference

In C or Java, types must be annotated:

```
public static int f(int n)
{
 int a = 2;
 return a * n;
}
```

In OCaml, type annotations are not mandatory:

```
let f n =
 let a = 2 in
 a * n;;
val f : int -> int = <fun>
```

# Type Inference

OCaml can infer types, no matter how complex the program is:

```
let sum_if_true test first second =
 (if test first then first else 0)
 + (if test second then second else 0);;
val sum_if_true : (int -> bool) -> int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

OCaml compiler infers the type through the following reasoning steps:

- 1 the types of `first` and `second` must be `int`, because both branches of a conditional expression must have the same type,
- 2 the type of `test` is a function type  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ , because `test` is used as a function,
- 3  $\alpha$  must be of `int`, because `test` is applied to `first`, a value of `int`,
- 4  $\beta$  must be of `bool`, because conditions must be boolean expressions,
- 5 the return value of the function has type `int`, because the two conditional expressions are of `int` and their addition gives `int`.

# Type Annotation

Explicit type annotations are possible:

```
let sum_if_true (test : int -> bool) (x : int) (y : int) : int =
 (if test x then x else 0) + (if test y then y else 0);;
val sum_if_true : (int -> bool) -> int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

If the annotation is wrong, OCaml finds the error and report it:

```
let sum_if_true (test : int -> int) (x : int) (y : int) : int =
 (if test x then x else 0) + (if test y then y else 0);;
Error: The expression (test x) has type int but an expression
was expected of type bool
```



# Polymorphic Types

- What is the type of the program?

```
let id x = x
```

See how OCaml infers its type:

```
let id x = x;;
```

```
val id : 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

The function works for values of any type:

```
id 1;;
```

```
- : int = 1
```

```
id "abc";;
```

```
- : string = "abc"
```

```
id true;;
```

```
- : bool = true
```

- Such a function is called *polymorphic* and 'a is a *type variable*.

# Polymorphic Types

Quiz) What is the type of the function?

```
let first_if_true test x y =
 if test x then x else y
```

# Tuples

- An ordered collection of values, each of which can be a different types, e.g.,

```
let x = (1, "one");;
val x : int * string = (1, "one")
let y = (2, "two", true);;
val y : int * string * bool = (2, "two", true)
```

- Extract each component using pattern-matching:

```
let fst p = match p with (x,_) -> x;;
val fst : 'a * 'b -> 'a = <fun>
let snd p = match p with (_,x) -> x;;
val snd : 'a * 'b -> 'b = <fun>
```

or equivalently,

```
let fst (x,_) = x;;
val fst : 'a * 'b -> 'a = <fun>
let snd (_,x) = x;;
val snd : 'a * 'b -> 'b = <fun>
```

# Tuples

- Patterns can be used in let:

```
let p = (1, true);;
val p : int * bool = (1, true)
let (x,y) = p;;
val x : int = 1
val y : bool = true
```

# Lists

- A finite sequence of elements, each of which has the same type, e.g.,  
[1; 2; 3]

is a list of integers:

```
[1; 2; 3];;
```

```
- : int list = [1; 2; 3]
```

Note that

- ▶ all elements must have the same type, e.g., [1; true; 2] is not a list,
  - ▶ the elements are ordered, e.g., [1; 2; 3]  $\neq$  [2; 3; 1], and
  - ▶ the first element is called *head*, the rest *tail*.
- []: the empty list, i.e., nil. What are head and tail of []?
  - [5]: a list with a single element. What are head and tail of [5]?

# List Examples

- # [1;2;3;4;5];;  
- : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5]
- # ["OCaml"; "Java"; "C"];;  
- : string list = ["OCaml"; "Java"; "C"]
- # [(1,"one"); (2,"two"); (3,"three")];;  
- : (int \* string) list = [(1, "one"); (2, "two"); (3, "three")]
- # [[1;2;3];[2;3;4];[4;5;6]];;  
- : int list list = [[1; 2; 3]; [2; 3; 4]; [4; 5; 6]]
- # [1;"OCaml";3] ;;  
Error: This expression has type string but an expression was  
expected of type int

# List Operators

- `::` (cons): add a single element to the front of a list, e.g.,

```
1::[2;3];;
```

```
- : int list = [1; 2; 3]
```

```
1::2::3::[];;
```

```
- : int list = [1; 2; 3]
```

(`[1; 2; 3]` is a shorthand for `1::2::3::[]`)

- `@` (append): combine two lists, e.g.,

```
[1; 2] @ [3; 4; 5];;
```

```
- : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5]
```

# Patterns for Lists

Pattern matching is useful for manipulating lists.

- A function to check if a list is empty:

```
let isnil l =
 match l with
 [] -> true
 | _ -> false;;
val isnil : 'a list -> bool = <fun>
isnil [1];;
- : bool = false
isnil [];;
- : bool = true
```



## Patterns for Lists

- A function that computes the length of lists:

```
let rec length l =
 match l with
 [] -> 0
 |h::t -> 1 + length t;;
val length : 'a list -> int = <fun>
length [1;2;3];;
- : int = 3
```

We can replace pattern `h` by `_`:

```
let rec length l =
 match l with
 [] -> 0
 |_::t -> 1 + length t;;
```

# Data Types

- If data elements are finite, just enumerate them, e.g., “days”:

```
type days = Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun;;
type days = Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun
```

Construct values of the type:

```
Mon;;
- : days = Mon
Tue;;
- : days = Tue
```

A function that manipulates the defined data:

```
let nextday d =
 match d with
 | Mon -> Tue | Tue -> Wed | Wed -> Thu | Thu -> Fri
 | Fri -> Sa | Sat -> Sun | Sun -> Mon ;;
val nextday : days -> days = <fun>
nextday Mon;;
- : days = Tue
```

# Data Types

- Constructors can be associated with values, e.g.,

```
type shape = Rect of int * int | Circle of int;;
```

```
type shape = Rect of int * int | Circle of int
```

Construct values of the type:

```
Rect (2,3);;
```

```
- : shape = Rect (2, 3)
```

```
Circle 5;;
```

```
- : shape = Circle 5
```

A function that manipulates the data:

```
let area s =
```

```
 match s with
```

```
 Rect (w,h) -> w * h
```

```
 | Circle r -> r * r * 3;;
```

```
val area : shape -> int = <fun>
```

```
area (Rect (2,3));;
```

```
- : int = 6
```

```
area (Circle 5);;
```

```
- : int = 75
```

# Data Types

- Inductive data types, e.g.,

```
type mylist = Nil | List of int * mylist;;
```

```
type mylist = Nil | List of int * mylist
```

Construct values of the type:

```
Nil;;
```

```
- : mylist = Nil
```

```
List (1, Nil);;
```

```
- : mylist = List (1, Nil)
```

```
List (1, List (2, Nil));;
```

```
- : mylist = List (1, List (2, Nil))
```

A function that manipulates the data:

```
let rec mylength l =
```

```
 match l with
```

```
 Nil -> 0
```

```
 |List (_,l') -> 1 + mylength l';;
```

```
val mylength : mylist -> int = <fun>
```

```
mylength (List (1, List (2, Nil)));;
```

```
- : int = 2
```

# Exceptions

- An exception means a run-time error: e.g.,

```
let div a b = a / b;;
val div : int -> int -> int = <fun>
div 10 5;;
- : int = 2
div 10 0;;
Exception: Division_by_zero.
```

- The exception can be handled with `try ... with` constructs.

```
let div a b =
 try
 a / b
 with Division_by_zero -> 0;;
val div : int -> int -> int = <fun>
div 10 5;;
- : int = 2
div 10 0;;
- : int = 0
```

# Exceptions

- User-defined exceptions: e.g.,

```
exception Problem;;
exception Problem
let div a b =
 if b = 0 then raise Problem
 else a / b;;
val div : int -> int -> int = <fun>
div 10 5;;
- : int = 2
div 10 0;;
Exception: Problem.
try
 div 10 0
with Problem -> 0;;
- : int = 0
```

# Module System

ML provides an elegant module system:

- *Structure* is a collection of types, exceptions, values, and functions, i.e., implementation details.
- *Signature* is the *interface* of the structure.

## Example

The interface of a queue data structure:

- `empty`: the empty queue
- `isempty`: the boolean-valued test of whether `q` is empty
- `enq(q,x)`: the queue obtained by inserting `x` on the end of `q`
- `deq(q)`: the queue obtained by removing the front element of `q` (also returns the front element)
- `print(q)`: show the contents of `q`
- `E`: the exception raised by `deq` if the queue is empty



## Example

The signature of the queue data structure:

```
module type IntQueue =
sig
 type t
 exception E
 val empty : t
 val is_empty : t -> bool
 val enq : t -> int -> t
 val deq : t -> int * t
 val print : t -> unit
end
```

## Example

An implementation:

```
module IntQueue : IntQueue =
 struct
 type t = int list
 exception E
 let empty = []
 let enq q x = q @ [x]
 let is_empty q = q = []
 let deq q = match q with [] -> raise E | h::t -> (h, t)
 let rec print q =
 match q with
 [] -> print_string "\n"
 |h::t -> print_int h; print_string " "; print t
 end
```

## Example

The module can be used as follows:

```
let q0 = IntQueue.empty
let q1 = IntQueue.enq q0 1
let q2 = IntQueue.enq q1 2
let (_,q3) = IntQueue.deq q2
let _ = IntQueue.print q1
let _ = IntQueue.print q2
let _ = IntQueue.print q3
```

The program prints:

```
1
1 2
2
```

## Example

The OCaml module system ensures the abstraction layer of the program:

```
let q4 = q1 @ [2]
```

produces a compile error:

```
Error: This expression has type IntQueue.t
 but an expression was expected of type 'a list
```

# Summary

We've gone through the basics of OCaml programming:

- Expressions
- Names
- Functions
- Pattern matching
- Type inference
- Tuples and lists
- Data types
- Exceptions
- Modules