Atypical Types

v 1.0

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Slides online at:

http://pic.blog.plove





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Good Afternoon.

I am Mark Dominus.

Thank you for inviting me to NASHVILLE.

It is a real honor to be speaking here at OOPSLA.





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Shameful confession

Next



In the programming community, we see a lot of holy wars.

Some of these are merely matters of personal preference.

They go on forever.

For example, should one use vi or emacs?

It can be easy to forget that other arguments are eventually resolved.

Next



For example, structured programming, or goto?

This one is finished now.

The bodies of the goto supporters are buried pretty deep.



Next



Before that, there was a holy war about high-level languages vs. assembly language.

I caught the tail end of it when I began programming in the 1970's.

"High-level languages are inefficient," said the assembly language proponents.

And they were right.

They lost anyway.



Manual memory allocation vs. automatic garbage collection.

I didn't expect to see this resolved as soon as it was.

But the advent of Java ended *that* discussison.

Right or wrong, garbage collection has won.



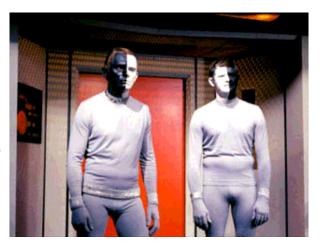


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One of these discussions that is still going on concerns strong vs. weak type systems.

C and Pascal programmers used to argue a lot about this in the 1980's.

Which is kind of funny, since C and Pascal have almost exactly the same type system.





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In 1999 ago I gave a talk on this topic.

1999 title: "Strong Typing Doesn't Have to Suck."

(It was an audience of Perl programmers.)

For Perl programmers, any kind of automatic check is a hard sell.

Perl's motto is "Enough rope".





I said the question was still open.

In 1999, there was no well-known static type system that did not suck.

(I discussed SML, an academic research language.)

At the time, Java's type system was a craptastic throwback to the 1970's.



In 2008, I think Java 5.0 is a persuasive argument in favor of static typing.

Let's look at the history a bit.

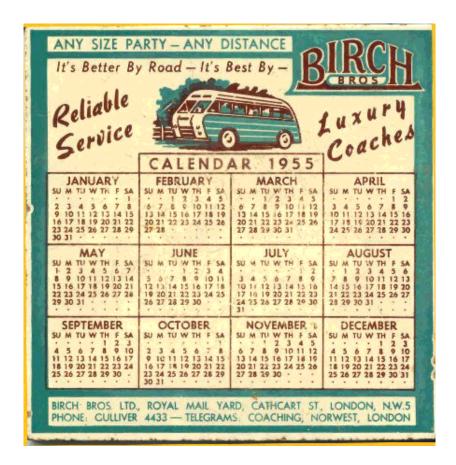
Why Types?

Sherman, set the WABAC machine for 1955!





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- I think this idea first appeared in COBOL
- It's a pretty good idea anyway



Next



Early Type Systems: FORTRAN

(This is Fortran 77, but early Fortran was similar.)

INTEGER

```
O INTEGER*2, INTEGER*4, INTEGER*8
```

• LOGICAL (Fortran jargon for 'boolean')

```
O LOGICAL*1 (synonym: BYTE), LOGICAL*2, LOGICAL*4, LOGICAL*8
```

• REAL

```
O REAL*4, REAL*8 (synonym: DOUBLE PRECISION), REAL*16
```

COMPLEX

```
O COMPLEX*8, COMPLEX*16 (synonym: DOUBLE COMPLEX), COMPLEX*32
```

Now if you write:

```
INTEGER I
REAL R,S
R = I + S
```

then the compiler can automatically generate the correct instructions

• Static type checking

Early Type Systems: FORTRAN

- Side note: Declaration is optional, defaults to:
 - O INTEGER for variables that begin with I, J, K, L, M, N
 - O REAL for other variables
- Array types also:

```
INTEGER A(10)
```

• Functions have types:

```
FUNCTION F(X)
INTEGER F, X
F = X+1
RETURN
```

N = F(37)

- Static type checking
- Expressions have types, determined at compile time

Next



Early Type Systems: Lisp

- Dynamic type checking
- Values, not expressions, are tagged with types
- Operations generate type errors at *run time*

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Static Typing in ALGOL-based languages

- ALGOL (1960), Pascal (1968), C (1971)
- These are all very similar
- Attempt to extend type system beyond scalars
- array of *type*
- pointer to *type* ('reference' in ALGOL)
- set of *type* (Pascal only)
- record of *types* (struct in C)
- function returning *type*
- And arbitrary compositions of these operations:

```
/* This is why we love C */
int *((*murgatroyd[17])(void *));
```

Next



Typing: Hard to Get Right

- Goal: Compile-time checking of program soundness
- Pitfalls
 - O False negative: Ignore real errors
 - O False positive: Report spurious errors

Pascal Examples

Wirth agrees that this was a bad move.

And almost every commercial implementation of Pascal fixed this problem.

Not all these fixes were mututally compatible.

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Typing: Hard to Get Right

Pascal is pretty much dead, so let's have a...

C Example

• The warning is spurious



C Example

- The whole program was one giant type violation
 - O But the compiler didn't care

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Typing in Pascal and C is a Failure

Many spurious errors

• So programmers ignore them

Proliferation of type-defeating features:

```
• Casts (C) (char *)(&f)
```

• Automatic conversions (C)

- Variadic functions (C)
- Union types (C and Pascal both)

• Abuse of the separate compilation facility (Pascal)

This proliferation is a sure sign of failure



Coping With Failure

- Static typing, as implemented in C and Pascal, was not very technically successful
- Solution 1: Give up
 - O Lisp
 - O APL
 - O AWK
 - O Perl (really give up: +(8/2).".".0.0.0)

Hey, that worked pretty well!

- Solution 2: Try to do better
 - O Haskell (and its precursors ISWIM, Miranda, ML, etc.)
 - O Closely related: Java 5

This has also worked pretty well.

Next



1999 vs. Today

- In 1999, the Haskell type system was a hard sell
- Haskell was worked on by a bunch of funny-looking ivory-tower types:



Philip Wadler (University of Edinburgh)

Martin Odersky (EPFL)



1999 vs. Today



Philip Wadler

Martin Odersky

- But these guys designed the Java 5 "generics" feature
- Which is directly derived from their experience with Haskell and related languages
 - O Which they also designed
- The rest of this talk is about Haskell

Static Typing that Works

We saw that typing in Pascal and C failed for several reasons:

- Too fine-grained (character[12] vs. character[13])
- Spurious warnings ⇒ ignored warnings
- Too easy to violate (unions, casts)
- Too coarse-grained (structs)
- Inconvenient to use (explicit types everywhere)

These problems are surmountable!

Next



The Haskell Programming Language

- Extremely expressive and fine-grained type system
- Many fascinating and powerful features that I will not discuss today
- Originally a research language
- Solves the type problems of C and Pascal

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Scalars

17 Integer 17.3 Float 'x' Char True Bool

Next



Tuples

Next



Lists

- String is accepted as a synonym for [Char]
- Types like [Integer] this should remind you of Java types like List<Integer> etc.
- Just as Java has List<List<Integer>>, Haskell has [[Integer]]

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Polymorphism

(Better examples coming up shortly.)

Next



Type composition

Next



Function types

```
      not
      Bool -> Bool

      words
      String -> [String]

      unwords
      [String] -> String

      length
      [a] -> Int

      reverse
      [a] -> [a]

      head
      [a] -> a

      tail
      [a] -> [a]

      :
      a -> [a] -> [a]
```

• : is the "cons" operation

```
O [1,2,3] is shorthand for 1:2:3:[]
```

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Overloading

- Type classes are something like object classes in Java
- Several different types might be instances of the same class
 - O This means they must support some basic set of operations
- For example, any type t might be an instance of the Show class
 - O If so, there must be a function show of type t -> String
 - O The Haskell standard library makes all the standard types instances of Show
 - O So for example:

```
show 137 yields "137" show True yields "True" show "Foo" yields "\"Foo\""
```

- If you define your own type, you can define a show method
 - O And you can declare your type to be an instance of Show
- Notation:

Next

```
Show Integer ("Integer is an instance of Show")
Show Bool ("Bool is an instance of Show")
Show [Char] ("[Char] is an instance of Show")
```

Overloading

• The show function itself has this type:

```
(Show a) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow String
```

- That is, it takes an argument of type a and returns a String
 - O But only if a is an instance of Show
 - O The (Show a) is called a context
- The show function for Bool has type Bool -> String

Next



Overloading

- Numeric operations are similarly overloaded
- The type of + is

```
(Num \ a) => a -> a -> a
```

- So you can add two Integer arguments and get another Integer
- Add two Float arguments and get another Float
- Define your own Vector type
 - O Declare that it's an instance of Num
 - O Define + (and *, etc.) operations on it
 - O And then add two Vector arguments and get another Vector
 - O But if you mess up and add a Vector to an Integer you'll get a compile-time error

Next



Overloaded constants

• Constants like 163 are taken to be shorthand for

```
fromInteger 163
```

• Where fromInteger has type

```
(Num a) => Integer -> a
```

- So you can use "163" as a constant of any numeric type
 - O As long as that type defines an appropriate fromInteger function

Next



Overloaded constants

• In particular, this works:

```
163 + 13.5
```

- 163 gets the same type as 13.5 here
 - O An appropriate value is manufactured by an appropriate version of fromInteger
- No nonsense like this:

• A constant like 163 actually has this type:

```
(Num\ a) => a
```

• "Any type a, as long as it's an instance of Num."

Next



Overloading

- Early versions of this type system had problems with equality
- What's the type of ==?
- Something like a -> a -> Bool
 - O Except that a must not be a function type
- Haskell solves this problem:

```
O (Eq a) \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow Bool
```

- O And function types are not instances of Eq
- Similarly, ordered types should be declared instances of Ord
 - O Values can be compared with <, >, etc.

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Big Deal?

One big deal is that you do *not* need to declare types!

Let's consider everyone's favorite example:

```
int fact(int n) {
  if (n == 0) return 1;
  else return n * fact(n-1);
}
```

In Haskell, that looks almost the same:

```
fact 0 = 1
fact n = n * fact(n-1)
```

Hey, where did the ints go?

Next



The compiler says to itself:

```
fact 0 = 1
fact n = n * fact(n-1)
```

"0 has type (Num a) => a."

Next



```
fact :: (Num a) => a -> b

"0 has type (Num a) => a."

fact 0 = 1
fact \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n} * fact(\mathbf{n}-1)
```

"So n must have that type too."

Next



```
fact :: (Num a) => a -> b
n :: (Num a) => a
```

"0 has type (Num a) => a."

"So n must have that type too."

fact
$$0 = 1$$

fact $n = n * fact(n-1)$

"n-1 checks out okay."

Next



```
fact :: (\text{Num } a) => a -> b

n :: (\text{Num } a) => a

"n has type (\text{Num } a) => a."

fact 0 = 1

fact n = n * fact(n-1)
```

"* requires two arguments of the same type, both instances of Num."

"So fact must return (Num a) => a also."

Next



```
fact :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow a

n :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow a

"fact must return (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow a \text{ also.}"

fact 0 = 1

fact n = n * \text{fact}(n-1)
```

"The return value of 1 is consistent with that."

Next



```
fact :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow a

n :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow a

fact 0 = 1

fact n = n * fact(n-1)
```

"Okay, everything checks out!"

• And if you ask it, it will *tell you* the type of fact:

```
fact :: (Num a) => a -> a
```

- If you ask for the factorial of an Integer, you get back an Integer
- If you ask for the factorial of a Float, you get back a Float
- If you ask for the factorial of a String, you get a compile-time error
 - O Because String is not an instance of \mathtt{Num}

Next



Haskell types are always correct

```
fact :: (Num \ a) => a -> a
```

- Ask the compiler to tell you the type of some function
- Is it what you expect?
 - O Yes? Okay then!
 - O If not, your program almost certainly has a bug.
 - A real bug, not a nonsense string-the-wrong-length bug

Next



Haskell types are always correct



- When there's a type error, you do not have to groan and pull out a bunch of casts
 - O Or figure out to trick the compiler into accepting it anyway
 - O Instead, you stop and ask yourself "What did I screw up this time?"
 - O And when you figure it out, you say "Whew! Good thing I caught that."

Type Inference Example 2

$$sumof[] = 0$$

 $sumof(h:t) = h + sumof t$

Next



```
sumof[] = 0

sumof(h:t) = h + sumof t
```

"The argument is []."

"That's some kind of list, say [a]."

"And let's say that the return type is b for now."

Next



```
sumof :: [a] \rightarrow b
```

"The argument has type [a]."

```
sumof [] = 0

sumof (h:t) = h + sumof t
```

"h:t is also a list, so that's okay."

"h must have type a and t must have type [a]."

```
h :: a
t :: [a]
```

Next



sumof :: $[a] \rightarrow b$ h :: at :: [a]

"h must have type a and t must have type [a]."

```
sumof[] = 0

sumof(h:t) = h + sumof t
```

"We're adding h to the return value of sumof."

"So the return value must be a also."

"And + is only defined for instances of Num, so a is such an instance

"So the return value is really of type (Num a) => a."

```
sumof :: (Num a) => [a] -> a
```

Next



```
sumof :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow [a] \Rightarrow a
h :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow a
t :: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow [a]
```

"So the return value is really (Num a) => a."

```
sumof[] = 0

sumof(h:t) = h + sumof t
```

"That fits with the other return value of 0."

"And everything else checks out okay."

• If you ask, it will say that the type is:

```
sumof :: (Num a) => [a] -> a
```

• If we had put 0.0 instead of 0, it would have deduced:

```
sumof :: (Fractional a) => [a] -> a
```

- (Fractional is a subclass of Num)
 - O Among other things, it supports division
- If we had put "Fred" we would have gotten a type error
 - O Because String is not an instance of Num

Type Inference Example 3

$$map(f, []) = []$$

 $map(f, h:t) = f(h) : map(f, t)$

Next



```
map(f, []) = []

map(f, h:t) = f(h) : map(f, t)
```

"f has some type, say p, and [] has some list type, say [a]."

Next



```
    \text{map} :: (p, [a]) \rightarrow q \\
    \text{f} :: p
```

"[] has some list type, say [a]."

"h must have type a and t must have type [a]."

Next



```
map :: (p, [a]) \rightarrow q
f :: p
h :: a
t :: [a]
```

"h must have type a."

```
map(f, []) = []

map(f, h:t) = f(h) : map(f, t)
```

"f is used as a function applied to h."

"So f must have type a -> b for some b."

"f must take an argument of type a and return a result of type b."

Next



```
map :: (a \rightarrow b, [a]) \rightarrow q
f :: a \rightarrow b
h :: a
t :: [a]
```

"f must take an argument of type a and return a result of type b."

```
map(f, []) = []
map(f, h:t) = f(h) : map(f, t)
```

"The result of f is consed to the result of map."

Next



[&]quot;So map must return [b]."

```
map :: (a \rightarrow b, [a]) \rightarrow [b]
f :: a \rightarrow b
h :: a
t :: [a]
```

"map must return [b]."

$$map(f, []) = []$$

 $map(f, h:t) = f(h) : [map(f, t)]$

"That fits with the return value in the other clause."

"Everything else checks out okay."

• If you ask the compiler, it will say that the type is:

$$map :: (a \rightarrow b, [a]) \rightarrow [b]$$

Next



Type Inference Example 3 Continued

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

Normally map is defined as a curried function

Instead of this:

```
map(f, []) = []

map(f, h:t) = f(h) : map(f, t)
```

We write this:

```
map f [] = []
map f (h:t) = f(h) : map f t
```

And the type is:

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

Then for example:

```
length :: [a] -> Integer
map length ["I", "like", "pie"]
        [1, 4, 3]

length_all = map length

length_all :: [[a]] -> [Integer]
length_all ["I", "like", "pie"]
        [1, 4, 3]
```

Next



Life with Haskell

The Haskell type system has a lot of unspectacular successes.

Programming in Haskell is pleasant

- No type declarations— everything is automatic
- You get quite a few type errors (darn!)
- But every error indicates a real, serious problem
- Not like lint or C or Pascal.

Next



A Spectacular Example

Here's a spectacular example, due to Andrew R. Koenig.

We will write a merge sort function.

Strategy:

- Split list into two lists
- Sort each list separately
- Merge sorted lists together

We expect the type of this function to be

$$(Ord \ a) => [a] -> [a]$$

Next



Splitting

```
split [] = ([], [])
split [a] = ([a], [])
split (a:b:rest) = (a:a', b:b')
    where (a', b') = split rest

split :: [t] -> ([t], [t])
```

Next



Merging

Next



Merge Sort

```
sort [] = []
sort ls = merge (sort p) (sort q)
  where (p, q) = split ls
```

• If we ask Haskell for the type of sort, it says:

```
sort :: (Ord a) => [t] -> [a]
```

Huh??

Next



Huh??

```
sort :: (Ord a) => [t] -> [a]
```

- This says that we could put in *any* kind of list [t]
 - O It does not even have to be ordered
- And what we get out has nothing to do with what we put in
 - O We could put in a list of Integer and get out a list of String
 - Which is impossible

Next



Huh??

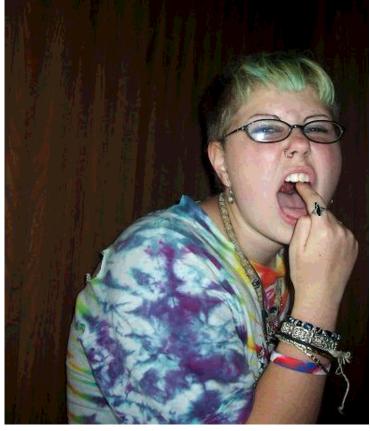
$$sort :: (Ord a) => [t] -> [a]$$

• But this is *impossible*

One way the impossible can occur is if it never can occur

Next





"Go out with you? Sure, when Arnold Schwarzenegger is elected president."

"But he isn't an American citizen."

"Right!"

Next



Huh???

$$sort :: (Ord a) => [t] -> [a]$$

" Given a list of numbers, it could return a list of strings. "

"But it can't possibly return a list of strings."

"Right!"

Next



```
sort [] = []
sort ls = merge (sort p) (sort q)
  where (p, q) = split ls
```

In fact, this function has a bug.

- It never returns
 - O (Except when the input is empty.)
 - O (In which case it *does* return a list of type [a])
- Type checking found an infinite loop bug!
- At compile time!!
- !!!!!!!!!!

Next



Where's the Bug?

```
sort [] = []
sort ls = merge (sort p) (sort q)
  where (p, q) = split ls
```



Suppose the function is trying to sort a one-element list [x]

It calls split and gets ([x], [])

Then it tries to recursively sort the two parts

Sorting [] is okay.

Sorting [x] puts it into an infinite loop



Solution: Add a clause

```
sort [] = []
sort [x] = [x]
sort ls = merge (sort p) (sort q)
  where (p, q) = split ls
```

The type is now:

```
sort :: (Ord a) => [a] -> [a]
```

as we expected it should be.

Next



Summary

Thank you!

They say to allot 3–5 minutes per slide

So I won't pretend that there will be time for questions

(sorry)

Please email me or catch me in the hallway

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