

# Generic Programming in Context

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# Introduction

# Generic Programming

- Making programming languages more flexible without compromising safety
- Means different things to different people, because they have different ideas about combining flexibility and safety
- Possible interpretations: parametric polymorphism, libraries of algorithms and data structures, reflection and meta-programming, etc.

# “Generic”

## Question

When is something generic?

- “Generic” is an over-used adjective in computer science.
- Ada has generic packages, Java has generics, Eiffel has generic classes, etc.
- Usually, the adjective “generic” is used to describe a concept that allows **abstraction** over a larger class of entities than previously possible.

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# Genericity by Value

# Genericity by Value (1)

Draw ASCII pictures:

```
* * * *  
* * *  
* *  
*
```

First attempt:

```
triangle1 = do  
  putStrLn " * * * *"  
  putStrLn " * * *"  
  putStrLn " * *"  
  putStrLn " *"
```

# Genericity by Value (2)

Better attempt:

```
triangle2 0 = return ()  
triangle2 n = do  
  line2 n  
  triangle2 (pred n)  
line2 0 = putStrLn ""  
line2 n = do  
  putStr " *"  
  line2 (pred n)
```

Genericity by value is implemented by means of a **function** (procedure, method, subroutine, etc.).



# Genericity by Type

# Example (1)

```
data ListI = NilI | ConsI Int ListI
```

```
appendI :: ListI → ListI → ListI
```

```
appendI NilI ys      = ys
```

```
appendI (ConsI x xs) ys = ConsI x (appendI xs ys)
```

## Example (2)

**data** List<sub>C</sub> = Nil<sub>C</sub> | Cons<sub>C</sub> Char List<sub>C</sub>

append<sub>C</sub> :: List<sub>C</sub> → List<sub>C</sub> → List<sub>C</sub>

append<sub>C</sub> Nil<sub>C</sub> ys = ys

append<sub>C</sub> (Cons<sub>C</sub> x xs) ys = Cons<sub>C</sub> x (append<sub>C</sub> xs ys)

# Parametric Polymorphism

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

```
append :: List a → List a → List a
```

```
append Nil ys          = ys
```

```
append (Cons x xs) ys = Cons x (append xs ys)
```

This is a **parametrically polymorphic** function. It **cannot** depend on the (parameterized) type of its parameters. Why?

# Free Theorems

The fact that a **parametric polymorphic function cannot depend on the type of its parameters** has a nice consequence: it satisfies a **free theorem**.

For example, given  $\text{map} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow \text{List } a \rightarrow \text{List } b$ , we know that

$$\text{append } (\text{map } f \text{ xs}) (\text{map } f \text{ ys}) \equiv \text{map } f (\text{append } \text{xs } \text{ys})$$

# Inclusion Polymorphism

Another form of type genericity is **inclusion polymorphism**.

```
class Shape { ... void draw(); ... }
```

```
class Circle extends Shape { ... }
```

```
class Rect extends Shape { ... }
```

```
class ... { void drawShape(Shape s){ s.draw(); } }
```

- `drawShape` takes a parameter of possibly different types.
- The parameter's type must be a **subtype** of `Shape`.
- `drawShape` only knows about the parameter's fields in `Shape` (modulo casting).
- Inclusion polymorphism is typically found with subtyping in object-oriented programming languages.

# Polymorphism in Programming Languages

- Haskell and ML: parametric
- Java and C#: inclusion
- Generics add parametric polymorphism to Java and C#
- Other languages combine these in different ways: see Ada, Scala, Timber

# Genericity by Function



# Example

Write two very similar functions using `toUpper` `toLower` from `Data.Char`

```
upper1 Nil           = Nil
upper1 (Cons x xs) = Cons (toUpper x) (upper1 xs)
lower1 Nil           = Nil
lower1 (Cons x xs) = Cons (toLower x) (lower1 xs)
```

Or use a **higher-order function**

```
map :: (a → b) → List a → List b
map f Nil           = Nil
map f (Cons x xs) = Cons (f x) (map f xs)
upper2 = map toUpper
lower2 = map toLower
```

Note that parametric polymorphism fits well with higher-order functions.

# Another Example (1)

These functions are also very similar

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sum}_1 \quad \text{Nil} &= 0 \\ \text{sum}_1 \quad (\text{Cons } x \text{ xs}) &= x + \text{sum}_1 \text{ xs} \\ \text{concat}_1 \text{ Nil} &= \text{Nil} \\ \text{concat}_1 (\text{Cons } x \text{ xs}) &= \text{append } x (\text{concat}_1 \text{ xs}) \end{aligned}$$

We can use `foldList` (a.k.a. `foldr`) to define both

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fold}_{\text{List}} &:: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow \text{List } a \rightarrow b \\ \text{fold}_{\text{List}} \text{ c n Nil} &= n \\ \text{fold}_{\text{List}} \text{ c n (Cons } x \text{ xs)} &= \text{c } x (\text{fold}_{\text{List}} \text{ c n xs}) \\ \text{sum}_2 &= \text{fold}_{\text{List}} (+) 0 \\ \text{concat}_2 &= \text{fold}_{\text{List}} \text{ append Nil} \end{aligned}$$

Instances of `foldList` replace the list constructors `Nil` and `Cons` with supplied arguments.

## Another Example (2)

In fact, the following are also instances of `foldList` :

```
append xs ys = foldList Cons ys xs  
map f        = foldList (Cons ∘ f) Nil
```

# Genericity by Structure

# C++ Templates

- Perhaps the most popular use of the term “generic programming” is with **C++ templates**.
- Class/function templates are parametrized by type/value parameters.

```
template<class T> void swap(T& a, T& b) {  
    T c(a); a = b; b = c;  
}
```

- Instantiating a template results in the C++ compiler generating specialized code for the given parameters.
  - ▶ Aside: As C++ grew from C, the community continued to require the highest performance from its code. C++ developers put a strong emphasis on templates imposing no performance penalty.

# C++ Standard Template Library

- The C++ **Standard Template Library (STL)** uses templates to provide “generic” containers and algorithms.
- The containers provided in the STL are parametrically polymorphic datatypes.
  - ▶ sequence containers: e.g. `vector`, `list`, and `deque`
  - ▶ associative containers: e.g. `set` and `map`

# STL Iterators (1)

- Containers support a common mechanism for accessing their elements: **iterators**.
- The iterator is a generalization of the pointer.

```
int a[100];  
int n = 100;  
...  
for (int* p = a; p != a+n; ++p)  
    printf("%d", *p);
```

```
vector<int> v;  
...  
for (vector<int>::iterator i = v.begin(); i != v.end(); ++i)  
    printf("%d", *i);
```

# STL Iterators (2)

## Iterator Classifications

**input** - one-way, read-only

**output** - one-way, write-only

**forward** - sequential access, one-way

**bidirectional** - sequential access, two-way

**random access** - pointer arithmetic



# STL Iterators (3)

- Iterators form the interface between container types and algorithms over data structures.
- These include many general-purpose operations such as searching, sorting, and filtering.
- Rather than operating directly on a container, an algorithm operates on iterators.
- The algorithm is generic, in the sense that it applies to any container that supports the appropriate kind of iterator.

```
template<class T, class U> void sort(T first, T last, U comp);
```

# Concepts

```
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>  
void sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,  
          Compare comp);
```

- The exact set of requirements on parameters is called a **concept**.
- A concept encapsulates the operations required of a formal type parameter and provided by an actual type parameter.
- For example, the STL's input iterator concept encompasses pointer-like types which support comparison for equality, copying, assignment, dereferencing as an r-value, and incrementing.
- The success of the STL lies in the careful choice of such concepts as an organizing principle for a large library.

**Concepts cannot be defined in C++!**

It is an informal artifact and not a formal construct.

# Concepts in Haskell

- In Haskell, we can define a concept with a **type class**.

```
sort :: (Ord a) => List a -> List a
```

- `Ord a =>` is a type class context.
- `sort` is not parametrically polymorphic: it is not applicable to all list element types, only those in the type class `Ord`.
- `Ord` includes exactly those types that support `<=`:

```
class Ord a where  
  (<=) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

# Instantiating Concepts

- Numerous types are instances of the type class:

**instance** Ord Integer **where**

$m \leq n = \text{isNonNegative } (n - m)$

- Attempting to apply `<=` to two values of some type that is not in the type class `Ord`, or `sort` to a list of such values, is a type error, and is caught statically.
- In contrast, while the equivalent error using the C++ concept is still a statically-caught type error, it is caught at template instantiation time, since there is no way of declaring the template's dependence on the concept.

# Polymorphism in Concepts

- Concepts in C++ and Haskell serve as a kind of polymorphism
- Not parametric polymorphism: demonstrated
- Not inclusion polymorphism: why?
- **Ad-hoc polymorphism**
  - ▶ “ad-hoc” - non-uniform, heterogeneous
  - ▶ There is no requirement by the type system on the implementation of a concept.
  - ▶ In Haskell, the implementation of  $(\leq) :: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow \text{Bool}$  only depends on the type. It can be implemented in different ways for different types.

# Genericity by Property

# Properties for Concepts

- Structural genericity is often not enough.
- For example, `Ord` should define a partial order (reflexivity, antisymmetry, transitivity)
- A **property** is a statement that (usually) cannot be specified directly in programs.
  - ▶ External tests can check properties (e.g. using QuickCheck), though these are usually not conclusive.
  - ▶ Some languages have (a) explicit support for properties or (b) interesting type systems that allow properties to be defined and verified.

# Example: Functors in Haskell

- The generalized type class for `map`:

```
class Functor f where  
  fmap :: (a → b) → f a → f b
```

- We expect instances like this:

```
instance Functor List where  
  fmap = map
```

- But, informally, we also expect the instances to obey the following properties (the “functor laws”):

```
fmap (f ∘ g) ≡ fmap f ∘ fmap g  
fmap id      ≡ id
```



# Example: Monads in Haskell

- **Monad** is yet another specification for a concept: computation with impure effects.

```
class (Functor m)  $\Rightarrow$  Monad m where
  return :: a  $\rightarrow$  m a
  ( $\gg=$ ) :: m a  $\rightarrow$  (a  $\rightarrow$  m b)  $\rightarrow$  m b
```

- Example: the state monad, in which a “computation affecting a state of type **s**” amounts to a function of type **s  $\rightarrow$  (a, s)** :

```
newtype State s a = St {runSt :: s  $\rightarrow$  (a, s)}
instance Functor (State s) where
  fmap f mx = St ( $\lambda$ s  $\rightarrow$  let (a, s') = runSt mx s in (f a, s'))
instance Monad (State s) where
  return a = St ( $\lambda$ s  $\rightarrow$  (a, s))
  mx  $\gg=$  k = St ( $\lambda$ s  $\rightarrow$  let (a, s') = runSt mx s in runSt (k a) s')
```

# Example: Monads Laws

- Since `Functor` is a superclass of `Monad`, we expect the properties of `Functor` to be inherited.
- Additionally, a `Monad` instance must satisfy the following laws:

<code>return a &gt;&gt;= k</code>	$\equiv k\ a$	-- left unit
<code>m &gt;&gt;= return</code>	$\equiv m$	-- right unit
<code>m &gt;&gt;= (\lambda x \rightarrow k\ x &gt;&gt;= h)</code>	$\equiv (m >>= k) >>= h$	-- associative

## Question

How do you verify the monad laws?

# Genericity by Stage

# Metaprogramming

- **metaprogramming** - constructing programs that write or manipulate other programs
- Examples
  - ▶ Program generation: generating source code
    - ★ lex, yacc
  - ▶ Reflection: observing and modifying a program's structure and behaviour
    - ★ Java, C#, JavaScript, Smalltalk
  - ▶ Multi-stage programming: partitioning computation into phases
    - ★ MetaOCaml, Template Haskell
  - ▶ A compiler could also be considered a generative metaprogram, though this is not usually the case.

# Example: C++ Templates

- The C++ template mechanism provides a metaprogramming facility.
- Template instantiation takes place at compile time, so one can think of a C++ program with templates as a two-stage computation.
- Some high-performance numerical libraries rely on these generative properties.
- The template instantiation mechanism is Turing complete: you can determine if a number is a prime at compile time!
  - ▶ <http://homepage.mac.com/sigfpe/Computing/peano.html>

# Genericity by Shape

# Fold: Again

- Consider the polymorphic datatype of binary trees:

**data** Tree a = Tip a | Bin (Tree a) (Tree a)

- A natural pattern of recursion on these trees (recall `foldList`):

$\text{fold}_{\text{Tree}} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow \text{Tree } a \rightarrow b$

$\text{fold}_{\text{Tree}} \text{ t b (Tip x)} = \text{t x}$

$\text{fold}_{\text{Tree}} \text{ t b (Bin xs ys)} = \text{b (fold}_{\text{Tree}} \text{ t b xs) (fold}_{\text{Tree}} \text{ t b ys)}$

# Fold: Instances

- As with `foldList`, instances of `foldTree` replace the datatype's constructors `Tip` and `Bin` with supplied functions:

```
reverseTree :: Tree a → Tree a
```

```
reverseTree = foldTree Tip (flip Bin)
```

```
flattenTree :: Tree a → List a
```

```
flattenTree = foldTree (flip Cons Nil) append
```

- Note: `flip :: (a → b → c) → b → a → c`



# Fold: Similarities

$$\text{fold}_{\text{List}} :: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow \text{List } a \rightarrow b$$
$$\text{fold}_{\text{Tree}} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow \text{Tree } a \rightarrow b$$

- Parametric polymorphism unifies commonality of computation, abstracting over variability in irrelevant types.
- Higher-order functions unify commonality of program construction, abstracting over variability in some of the details.
- How can we unify the higher-order, polymorphic functions `foldList` and `foldTree`?

# DGP to the Rescue

- What differs between `foldList` and `foldTree` is the **shape** of the data on which they operate.
- We have come to call this approach to generic programming **datatype-generic programming** or **DGP**.

# DGP Example (1)

One approach to abstracting over the shape of `List` and `Tree`:

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
data ListF a r = NilF | ConsF a r
```

```
data Tree a = Tip a | Bin (Tree a) (Tree a)
data TreeF a r = TipF a | BinF r      r
```

Now that we have parameterized over the repeated types, we can fill them back in.

```
data Fix f = In { out :: f (Fix f) }
```

```
type List' a = Fix (ListF a)
type Tree' a = Fix (TreeF a)
```

# DGP Example (2)

- The usefulness of `Fix` ?
- We only need to define `fold` once:

```
fold :: (Functor f) => (f c -> c) -> Fix f -> c
fold f = f ∘ fmap (fold f) ∘ out
```

- Though we do need an instance of `Functor` for each datatype.

```
instance Functor (ListF a) where ...
instance Functor (TreeF a) where ...
```

# DGP Example (3)

- The instances of `fold` are straightforward.

```
sumList xs = fold f
  where f NilF           = 0
        f (ConsF n r1) = n + r1

sumTree xs = fold f
  where f (TipF n)       = n
        f (BinF r1 r2) = r1 + r2
```

- We can do better! (And we will see how.)
- For example, with other approaches to DGP, we can define a single `sum` function instead of `sumList` and `sumTree`.

# Conclusion

- There are many interpretations of genericity.
- Each kind of genericity is useful.
- We will focus on datatype-generic programming.