

301AA - Advanced Programming

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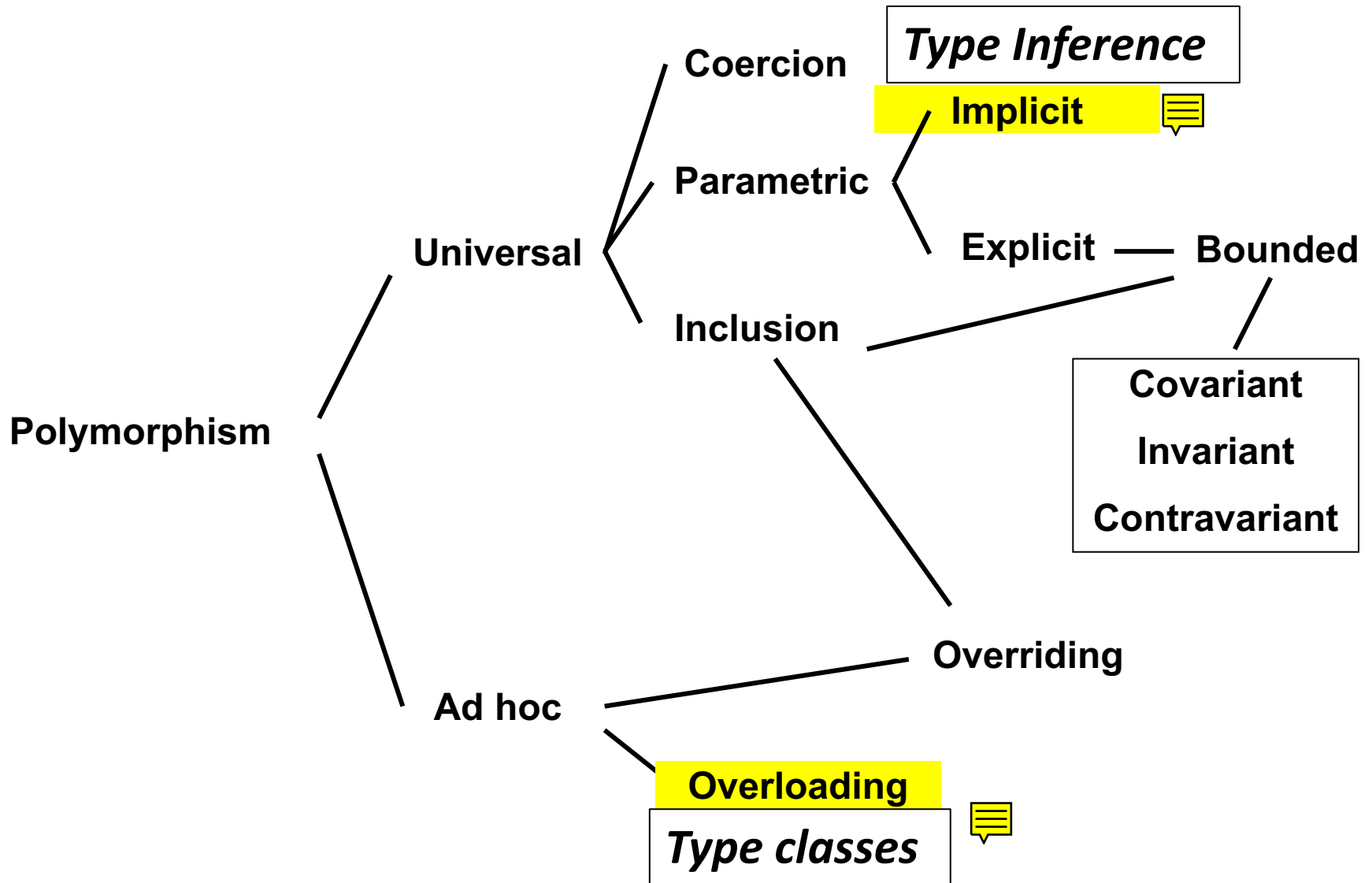
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AP-19: Type Classes in Haskell



Core Haskell

- Basic Types
 - Unit
 - Booleans
 - Integers
 - Strings
 - Reals
 - Tuples
 - Lists
 - Records
- Patterns
- Declarations
- Functions
- Polymorphism
- Type declarations
 - Type Classes
 - Monads
- Exceptions

Polymorphism in Haskell



Ad hoc polymorphism: **overloading**

- Present in all languages, at least for built-in arithmetic operators: +, *, -, ...
- Sometimes supported for user defined functions (Java, C++, ...)
- C++, Haskell allow overloading of primitive operators
- The code to execute is determined by the **type of the arguments**, thus
 - **early binding** in statically typed languages 
 - **late binding** in dynamically typed languages 

Overloading: an example

- Function for squaring a number:

```
sqr(x) { return x * x; }
```

- Typed version (like in C) :

```
int sqr(int x) { return x * x; }
```

- Multiple versions for different types: 

```
int sqrInt(int x) { return x * x; }
```

```
double sqrDouble(double x) { return x * x; }
```

- Overloading (Java, C++):

```
int sqr(int x) { return x * x; }
```

```
double sqr(double x) { return x * x; }
```

- But which type can be inferred by ML/Haskell?

```
> sqr x = x * x
```

Overloading besides arithmetic

- Some functions are "fully polymorphic"

```
length :: [w] -> Int
```

- Many useful functions are less polymorphic

```
member :: [w] -> w -> Bool
```



- Membership only works for types that support equality.

```
sort :: [w] -> [w]
```



- List sorting only works for types that support ordering.

Overloading Arithmetic, Take 1

- Allow functions containing overloaded symbols to define multiple functions:

```
square x = x * x          -- legal
-- Defines two versions:
-- Int -> Int and Float -> Float
```



- But consider:

```
squares (x,y,z) =
    (square x, square y, square z)
-- There are 8 possible versions!
```




- Approach not widely used because of exponential growth in number of versions.



Overloading Arithmetic, Take 2

- Basic operations such as + and * can be overloaded, but not functions defined from them

```
3 * 3           -- legal
3.14 * 3.14     -- legal
square x = x * x -- Int -> Int
square 3        -- legal
square 3.14     -- illegal
```

- Standard ML** uses this approach.
- Not satisfactory: Programmer cannot define functions that implementation might support 


Overloading Equality, Take 1

- Equality defined only for types that admit equality: types not containing **function** or **abstract types**. 

```
3 * 3 == 9           -- legal
'a' == 'b'           -- legal
\x->x == \y->y+1       -- illegal
```

- Overload equality like arithmetic ops + and * in SML. 
- But then we can't define functions using '==':

```
member [] y          = False
member (x:xs) y = (x==y) || member xs y

member [1,2,3] 3      -- ok if default is Int
member "Haskell" 'k'  -- illegal 
```

- Approach adopted in first version of SML.

Overloading Equality, Take 2

- Make type of equality fully polymorphic

```
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

- Type of list membership function

```
member :: [a] -> a -> Bool
```

- **Miranda** used this approach.
 - Equality applied to a **function** yields a runtime error
 - Equality applied to an **abstract type** compares the underlying representation, which violates abstraction principles

Overloading Equality, Take 3

- Make equality polymorphic **in a limited way**:

```
(==) :: a (==) -> a (==) -> Bool
```


where $a(==)$ is type variable restricted to **types with equality**

- Now we can type the member function:

```
member :: a (==) -> [a (==)] -> Bool
member 4      [2,3] :: Bool
member 'c'     ['a', 'b', 'c'] :: Bool
member (\y -> y*2) [\x -> x, \x -> x+2] -- type error
```

- Approach used in SML today, where the type $a(==)$ is called an **eqtype variable** and is written **"a** (while normal type variables are written **'a**)

Type Classes

- Type classes solve these problems 
 - Idea: Generalize ML's eqtypes to arbitrary types
 - Provide concise types to describe overloaded functions, so no exponential blow-up
 - Allow users to define functions using overloaded operations, eg, `square`, `squares`, and `member`
 - Allow users to declare `new collections of overloaded functions`: equality and arithmetic operators are not privileged built-ins
 - Fit within `type inference framework`

Intuition

- A function to sort lists can be passed a **comparison operator** as an argument:

```
qsort:: (a -> a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
qsort cmp [] = []
qsort cmp (x:xs) = qsort cmp (filter (cmp x) xs)
                  ++ [x] ++
                  qsort cmp (filter (not.cmp x) xs)
```

- This allows the function to be parametric
- We can build on this idea ...

Intuition (continued)

- Consider the “overloaded” parabola function

```
parabola x = (x * x) + x
```



- We can rewrite the function to take the operators it contains as an argument


```
parabola' (plus, times) x = plus (times x x) x
```





- The **extra parameter** is a “dictionary” that provides implementations for the overloaded ops.
- We have to rewrite all calls to pass appropriate implementations for plus and times:

```
y = parabola' (intPlus, intTimes) 10  
z = parabola' (floatPlus, floatTimes) 3.14
```

Systematic programming style

```
-- Dictionary type  
data MathDict a = MkMathDict (a->a->a) (a->a->a) 
```

```
-- Accessor functions   
get_plus :: MathDict a -> (a->a->a)  
get_plus (MkMathDict p t) = p  
  
get_times :: MathDict a -> (a->a->a)  
get_times (MkMathDict p t) = t 
```

Type class declarations
will generate Dictionary
type and selector
functions

```
-- "Dictionary-passing style"  
parabola :: MathDict a -> a -> a  
parabola dict x = let plus = get_plus dict  
                  times = get_times dict  
                  in plus (times x x) x
```

Systematic programming style

Type class **instance declarations**
produce instances of the Dictionary

```
-- Dictionary type
data MathDict a = MkMathDict (a->a->a) (a->a->a)


-- Dictionary construction
intDict    = MkMathDict intPlus    intTimes
floatDict  = MkMathDict floatPlus  floatTimes

-- Passing dictionaries
y = parabola intDict    10
z = parabola floatDict 3.14
```


Compiler will add a dictionary
parameter and rewrite the body as
necessary

Type Class Design Overview

- **Type class declarations**

- Define a set of operations, give the set a name 
- Example: `Eq a` type class
 - operations `==` and `\=` with `type a -> a -> Bool`

- **Type class instance declarations**

- Specify the implementations for a particular type 
- For `Int` instance, `==` is defined to be integer equality

- **Qualified types (or Type Constraints)**

- Concisely express the operations required on otherwise polymorphic type 

```
member :: Eq w => w -> [w] -> Bool 
```



“for all types w that support the `Eq` operations”

Qualified Types

```
Member :: Eq w => w -> [w] -> Bool
```

If a function works for every type with particular properties, the type of the function says just that:

```
sort      :: Ord a  => [a] -> [a]
serialise :: Show a => a  -> String
square    :: Num n  => n  -> n
squares   :: (Num t, Num t1, Num t2) =>
            (t, t1, t2) -> (t, t1, t2)
```

Otherwise, it must work for any type


```
reverse :: [a] -> [a]
filter  :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
```

Works for any type
'n' that supports
the Num operations

Type Classes

```
square :: Num n => n -> n  
square x = x*x
```

```
class Num a where  
  (+)      :: a -> a -> a  
  (*)      :: a -> a -> a  
  negate   :: a -> a  
  ...etc...
```



```
instance Num Int where  
  a + b      = intPlus  a b  
  a * b      = intTimes a b  
  negate a   = intNeg a  
  ...etc...
```

The class declaration
says what the Num
operations are

An instance
declaration for a
type T says how the
Num operations are
implemented on T's

```
intPlus  :: Int -> Int -> Int  
intTimes :: Int -> Int -> Int  
etc, defined as primitives
```

Compiling Overloaded Functions


When you write this...

```
square :: Num n => n -> n  
square x = x*x
```



...the compiler generates this

```
square :: Num n -> n -> n  
square d x = (*) d x x
```

A red curved arrow pointing from the 'Num n =>' part of the first code block to the 'Num n ->' part of the second code block.

The “Num n =>” turns into an extra value argument to the function. It is a value of data type Num n and it represents a dictionary of the required operations.

Compiling Type Classes

When you write this...

```
square :: Num n => n -> n
square x = x*x
```

...the compiler generates this

```
square :: Num n -> n -> n
square d x = (*) d x x
```

```
class Num n where
  (+)      :: n -> n -> n
  (*)      :: n -> n -> n
  negate  :: n -> n
  ...etc...
```

```
data Num n
  = MkNum (n -> n -> n)
          (n -> n -> n)
          (n -> n)
  ...etc...
```

```
...
(*) :: Num n -> n -> n -> n
(*) (MkNum _ m _ ...) = m
```

The class decl translates to:

A data type decl for Num
A selector function for each class operation

A value of type (Num n) is a dictionary of the Num operations for type n

Compiling Instance Declarations

When you write this...

```
square :: Num n => n -> n
square x = x*x
```

...the compiler generates this

```
square :: Num n -> n -> n
square d x = (*) d x x
```

```
instance Num Int where
  a + b      = intPlus  a b
  a * b      = intTimes a b
  negate a   = intNeg a
  ...etc...
```






```
dNumInt :: Num Int
dNumInt = MkNum intPlus
          intTimes
          intNeg
          ...
```

An instance decl for type T translates to a value declaration for the Num dictionary for T



A value of type (Num n) is a dictionary of the Num operations for type n

Implementation Summary

- Each **overloaded symbol** has to be introduced in at least one **type class**. 
- The compiler translates each function that uses an overloaded symbol into a function with an extra parameter: **the dictionary**.
- References to overloaded symbols are rewritten by the compiler to lookup the symbol in the dictionary. 
- The compiler converts each **type class declaration** into a **dictionary type declaration** and a set of **selector functions**.
- The compiler converts each **instance declaration** into a **dictionary** of the appropriate type.
- The compiler rewrites calls to overloaded functions to pass a dictionary. **It uses the static, qualified type of the function to select the dictionary.** 

Functions with Multiple Dictionaries

```
squares :: (Num a, Num b, Num c) => (a, b, c) -> (a, b, c)
squares(x,y,z) = (square x, square y, square z)
```

compile to

```
squares :: (Num a, Num b, Num c) -> (a, b, c) -> (a, b, c)
squares (da,db,dc) (x, y, z) =
    (square da x, square db y, square dc z)
```

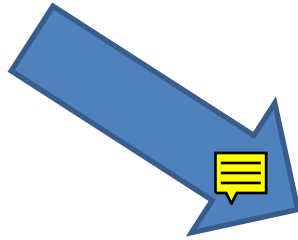
Note the concise type for the squares function! 

Pass appropriate dictionary on to each square function.

Compositionality

Overloaded functions can be defined from other overloaded functions:

```
sumSq :: Num n => n -> n -> n
sumSq x y = square x + square y
```



```
sumSq :: Num n -> n -> n -> n
sumSq d x y = (+) d (square d x)
              (square d y)
```

Extract addition
operation from d

Pass on d to square

Compositionality

Build compound instances from simpler ones:

```
class Eq a where
  (==) :: a -> a -> Bool

instance Eq Int where
  (==) = intEq      -- intEq primitive equality

instance (Eq a, Eq b) => Eq (a,b)
  (u,v) == (x,y)      = (u == x) && (v == y)

instance Eq a => Eq [a] where
  (==) [] []          = True
  (==) (x:xs) (y:ys) = x==y && xs == ys
  (==) _ _            = False
```

Compound Translation

Build compound instances from simpler ones.



```
class Eq a where
  (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

```
instance Eq a => Eq [a] where
  (==) [] [] = True
  (==) (x:xs) (y:ys) = x==y && xs == ys
  (==) _ _ = False
```

```
data Eq = MkEq (a->a->Bool)      -- Dictionary type
(==) (MkEq eq) = eq              -- Selector
```

```
dEqList :: Eq a -> Eq [a]      -- List Dictionary
dEqList d = MkEq eql
  where
    eql [] [] = True
    eql (x:xs) (y:ys) = (==) d x y && eql xs ys
    eql _ _ = False
```

Many Type Classes

- **Eq**: equality
- **Ord**: comparison
- **Num**: numerical operations
- **Show**: convert to string 
- **Read**: convert from string
- **Testable**, **Arbitrary**: testing.
- **Enum**: ops on sequentially ordered types 
- **Bounded**: upper and lower values of a type
- Generic programming, reflection, monads, ...
- And many more.

Subclasses

- We could treat the Eq and Num type classes separately

```
memsq :: (Eq a, Num a) => a -> [a] -> Bool
memsq x xs = member (square x) xs
```

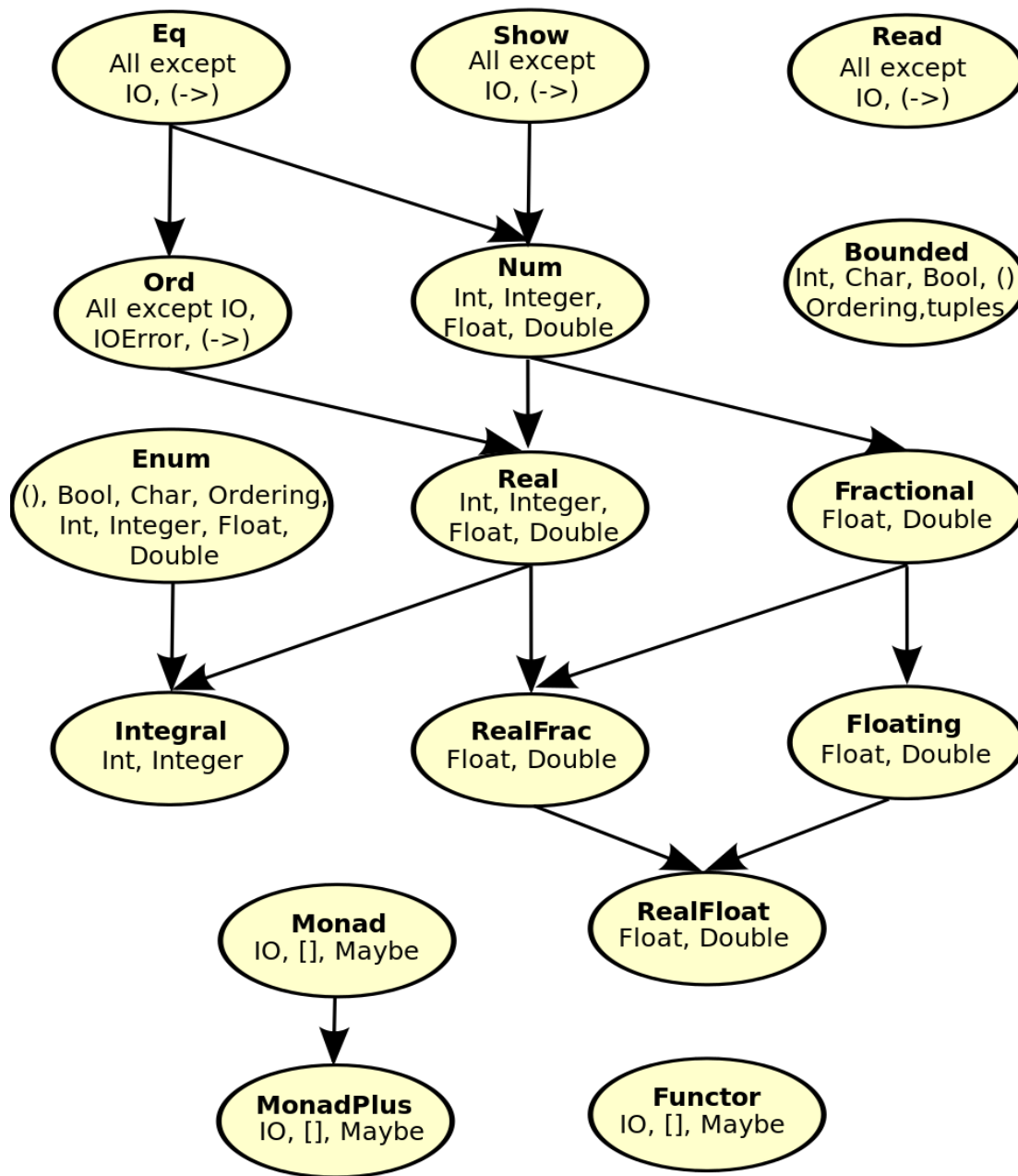
- But we expect any type supporting Num to also support Eq

- A subclass declaration expresses this relationship:

```
class Eq a => Num a where
  (+) :: a -> a -> a
  (*) :: a -> a -> a
```


- With that declaration, we can simplify the type of the function

```
memsq :: Num a => a -> [a] -> Bool
memsq x xs = member (square x) xs
```



Default Methods


- Type classes can define “default methods”



```
-- Minimal complete definition:
--      (==) or (/=)
class Eq a where
    (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
    x == y      = not (x /= y)
    (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
    x /= y      = not (x == y)
```

- Instance declarations can override default by providing a more specific definition.

Deriving

- For **Read**, **Show**, **Bounded**, **Enum**, **Eq**, and **Ord**, the compiler can generate instance declarations automatically 

```
data Color = Red | Green | Blue
    deriving (Show, Read, Eq, Ord)
```

```
Main>:t show
show :: Show a => a -> String
Main> show Red
"Red"
Main> Red < Green
True
Main>:t read
read :: Read a => String -> a
Main> let c :: Color = read "Red"
Main> c
Red
```

- Ad hoc* : derivations apply only to types where derivation code works

Numeric Literals

```
class Num a where
  (+) :: a -> a -> a
  (-) :: a -> a -> a
  fromInteger :: Integer -> a
  ...
```

```
inc :: Num a => a -> a
inc x = x + 1
```


Even literals are overloaded.
`1 :: (Num a) => a`

"1" means
"fromInteger 1"


Advantages:

- Numeric literals can be interpreted as values of any appropriate numeric type
- Example: 1 can be an Integer or a Float or a user-defined numeric type.

Type Inference with overloading



- In presence of overloading (Type Classes), type inference infers a **qualified type** $Q \Rightarrow T$ 
 - T is a Hindley Milner type, inferred as usual
 - Q is set of type class predicates, called a **constraint**
- Consider the example function:

```
example z xs =  
  case xs of  
    []      -> False  
    (y:ys) -> y > z || (y==z && ys == [z])
```

-  – Type T is $a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
- Constraint Q is $\{ \text{Ord } a, \text{Eq } a, \text{Eq } [a] \}$

Ord a because $y > z$
Eq a because $y == z$
Eq [a] because $ys == [z]$


Simplifying Type Constraints

- Constraint sets Q can be simplified:
 - Eliminate duplicates
 - $(\text{Eq } a, \text{Eq } a)$ simplifies to $\text{Eq } a$
 - Use an **instance declaration**
 - If we have `instance Eq a => Eq [a]`,
then $(\text{Eq } a, \text{Eq } [a])$ simplifies to $\text{Eq } a$ 
 - Use a **class declaration**
 - If we have `class Eq a => Ord a where ...`,
then $(\text{Ord } a, \text{Eq } a)$ simplifies to $\text{Ord } a$ 
- Applying these rules,
 - $(\text{Ord } a, \text{Eq } a, \text{Eq } [a])$ simplifies to $\text{Ord } a$

Type Inference with overloading

- Putting it all together:

```
example z xs =  
  case xs of  
    []      -> False  
    (y:ys) -> y > z || (y==z && ys ==[z])
```

- $T = a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
- $Q = (\text{Ord } a, \text{Eq } a, \text{Eq } [a])$
- Q simplifies to $\text{Ord } a$
- `example :: Ord a => a -> [a] -> Bool` 

Detecting Errors

- Errors are detected when predicates are known not to hold:

```
Prelude> 'a' + 1
<interactive>:33:1: error:
  • No instance for (Num Char) arising from a use of '+'
  • In the expression: 1 + 'a'
    In an equation for `it`: it = 1 + 'a'
```

```
Prelude> (\x -> x)
<interactive>:34:1: error:
  • No instance for (Show (p0 -> p0)) arising from a use of `print'
    (maybe you haven't applied a function to enough arguments?)
  • In a stmt of an interactive GHCi command: print it
```