### CSE 114A: Fall 2021

# Foundations of Programming Languages

### Type classes

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# Roadmap

This week: adding types

Modern language features for structuring programs

- Type classes
- Monads

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### Overloading Operators: Arithmetic

The + operator works for a bunch of different types.

For Integer:

λ> 2 + 3

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for Double precision floats:

λ> 2.9 + 3.5

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### Overloading Operators: Arithmetic

```
Similarly we can compare different types of values
```

```
λ> 2 == 3
False

λ> [2.9, 3.5] == [2.9, 3.5]
True

λ> ("cat", 10) < ("cat", 2)
False

λ> ("cat", 10) < ("cat", 20)
True</pre>
```

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### Ad-Hoc Overloading

Seems unremarkable?

Languages since the dawn of time have supported "operator overloading"

- To support this kind of ad-hoc polymorphism
- Ad-hoc: "created or done for a particular purpose as necessary."

You really **need** to *add* and *compare* values of *multiple* types!

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# Haskell has no caste system

No distinction between operators and functions

• All are first class citizens!
But then, what type do we give to *functions* like + and ==?

# Individual: Plus type

```
Which of the following would be appropriate types for (+)?

(A) (+) :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer

(B) (+) :: Double -> Double -> Double

(C) (+) :: a -> a -> a

(D) All of the above

(E) None of the above
```

https://tiny.cc/cse116-plus-type-ind

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# Individual: Plus type

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### Haskell has no caste system

Integer -> Integer -> Integer is bad because?

• Then we cannot add Doubles!

### Haskell has no caste system

Double -> Double -> Double is bad because?

• Then we cannot add Integer!

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### Haskell has no caste system

- a -> a -> a is bad because?
- That doesn't make sense, e.g. to add two Bool or two [Int] or two functions!

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### Type Classes for Ad Hoc Polymorphism

Haskell solves this problem with an *insanely* slick mechanism called typeclasses, introduced by Wadler and Blott

How to make ad-hoc polymorphism less  $ad\ hoc$ 

Philip Wadler and Stephen Blott University of Glasgow\* October 1988

### **Qualified Types**

To see the right type, lets ask:

```
λ> :type (+)
(+) :: (Num a) => a -> a -> a
```

We call the above a qualified type. Read it as +

• takes in two a values and returns an a value for any type a that

- is a Num or
- implements the Num interface or
- is an instance of a Num.

The name Num can be thought of as a *predicate* or *constraint* over types

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### Some types are Nums

- Examples include Integer, Double etc
- Any such values of those types can be passed to +.

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### Other types are not Nums

Examples include Char, String, functions etc,

```
• Values of those types cannot be passed to +.
```

```
\lambda True + False

<interactive>:15:6:
    No instance for (Num Bool) arising from a
use of '+'
    In the expression: True + False
```

In an equation for 'it': it = True + False

### Type Class is a Set of Operations

A *typeclass* is a collection of operations (functions) that must exist for the underlying type.

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### The Eq Type Class

The simplest typeclass is perhaps, Eq

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

A type a is an instance of Eq if there are two functions

• == and /=

That determine if two a values are respectively equal or unequal.

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### The Show Type Class

λ> show (1, "two", ([],[],[]))
"(1,\"two\",([],[],[]))"

```
then be printed out)

class Show a where
  show :: a -> String
Indeed, we can test this on different (built-in) types

\( \lambda \) show 2

"2"

\( \lambda \) show 3.14

"3.14"
```

The typeclass  $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Show}}$  requires that instances be convertible to  $\ensuremath{\mathsf{String}}$  (which can

### Type Class is a Set of Operations

When we type an expression into ghci, it computes the value and then calls show on the result. Thus, if we create a *new* type by

```
data Unshowable = A | B | C
and then create values of the type,

\( \lambda > \text{let } \times = A \)
\( \lambda : \text{type } \times \)
\( \text{x} :: \text{Unshowable} \)
```

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### Type Class is a Set of Operations

#### but then we cannot view them

```
\lambda x
<interactive>:1:0:
    No instance for (Show Unshowable)
    arising from a use of `print' at <interactive>:1:0
    Possible fix: add an instance declaration for (Show Unshowable)
    In a stmt of a 'do' expression: print it
```

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### Type Class is a Set of Operations

#### and we cannot compare them!

```
\lambda \times = x
<interactive>:1:0:
    No instance for (Eq Unshowable)
        arising from a use of `==' at <interactive>:1:0-5
        Possible fix: add an instance declaration for (Eq
Unshowable)
    In the expression: x == x
    In the definition of `it': it = x == x
```

Again, the previously incomprehensible type error message should make sense to you.

### **Creating Instances**

Tell Haskell how to show or compare values of type Unshowable

By creating instances of Eq and Show for that type:

EXERCISE Lets create an instance for Show Unshowable

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#### **Automatic Derivation**

This is silly: we should be able to compare and view Unshowble "automatically"!

Haskell lets us  $\it automatically derive functions for some classes in the standard library.$ 

To do so, we simply dress up the data type definition with

```
data Showable = A' | B' | C'
  deriving (Eq, Show) -- tells Haskell to automatically
generate instances
```

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#### **Automatic Derivation**

```
data Showable = A' | B' | C'
   deriving (Eq, Show) -- tells Haskell to automatically
generate instances
Now we have

\(\lambda\) let x' = A'
\(\lambda\) :type x'

x' :: Showable
\(\lambda\) x'

A'
\(\lambda\) x' == x'
True
\(\lambda\) x' == B'
False
```

### Standard Typeclass Hierarchy

Let us now peruse the definition of the Num typeclass.

```
\> :info Num
class Num a where
(+) :: a -> a -> a
(*) :: a -> a -> a
(-) :: a -> a -> a
negate :: a -> a
abs :: a -> a
signum :: a -> a
fromInteger :: Integer -> a
```

A type a is an instance of (i.e. implements) Num if there are functions for adding, multiplying, subtracting, negating etc values of that type.

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### The Ord Typeclass

Another typeclass you've used already is the one for  ${\color{red} \textbf{Ord}} \textbf{ering}$  values:

```
λ> :info (<)
class Eq a => Ord a where
...
  (<) :: a -> a -> Bool
...
For example:
λ> 2 < 3
True

λ> "cat" < "dog"
True</pre>
```

A type a is an instance of (i.e. implements) Ord if

- 1. It has an instance of Eq
- there are functions for comparing the relative order of values of that type

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### **Standard Typeclass Hierarchy**

In other words in addition to the "arithmetic" operations, we can compare two Num values and we can view them (as a String.)

Haskell comes equipped with a rich set of built-in classes.

In the picture, there is an edge from Eq to Ord because for something to be an Ord it must also be an Eq.



### QUIZ

Recall the datatype:

data Showable = A' | B' | C' deriving (Eq, Show)

What is the result of:

\(\lambda \) A' < B'

(A) True

(B) False

(C) Type error

(D) Run-time exception

http://tiny.cc/cse116-ord-ind

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### QUIZ

Recall the datatype:

data Showable = A' | B' | C' deriving (Eq, Show)

What is the result of:

λ> A' < B'

(A) True

(B) False

(C) Type error

(D) Run-time exception

http://tiny.cc/cse116-ord-grp

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### **Using Typeclasses**

Typeclasses integrate with the rest of Haskell's type system.

Lets build a small library for <code>Environments</code> mapping keys k to values  $\nu$ 

#### An API for Env

```
Lets write a small API for Env
-- >>> Let env0 = add "cat" 10.0 (add "dog" 20.0 (Def 0))
-- >>> get "cat" env0
-- 10
-- >>> get "dog" env0
-- 20
-- >>> get "horse" env0
-- 0
```

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### An API for Env

#### Ok, lets implement!

```
-- | 'add key val env' returns a new env that additionally maps `key` to `val`

add :: k -> v -> Env k v -> Env k v

add key val env = ???

-- | 'get key env' returns the value of `key` and the "default" if no value is found

get :: k -> Env k v -> v

get key env = ???
```

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### An API for Env

#### Ok, lets implement!

```
-- | 'add key val env' returns a new env that additionally maps `key` to `val`

add :: k -> v -> Env k v -> Env k v

add key val env = Bind key val env

-- | 'get key env' returns the value of `key` and the 
"default" if no value is found

get :: k -> Env k v -> v

get key (Def val) = val

get key (Bind key' val env) | key == key' = val

get key (Bind key' val env) | otherwise = get key env
```

### **Constraint Propagation**

Lets *delete* the types of add and get and see what Haskell says their types are!

```
\lambda> :type get get :: (Eq k) => k -> v -> Env k v -> Env k v Haskell tells us that we can use any k value as a key as long as the value is an instance of the Eq typeclass.
```

How, did GHC figure this out?

• If you look at the code for get you'll see that we check if two keys are equal!

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#### Exercise

Write an optimized version of

- add that ensures the keys are in increasing order,
- get that gives up and returns the "default" the moment we see a key thats larger than the one we're looking for.

(How) do you need to change the type of *Env*?

(How) do you need to change the types of get and add?

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### **Explicit Signatures**

While Haskell is pretty good about inferring types in general, there are cases when the use of type classes requires explicit annotations (which change the behavior of the code.)

For example, Read is a built-in typeclass, where any instance a of Read has a function

```
read :: (Read a) => String -> a
```

which can parse a string and turn it into an a.

That is, Read is the opposite of Show.

### QUIZ

What does the expression read "2" evaluate to?

(A) compile time error

(B) "2" :: String

(C) 2 :: Integer

(D) 2.0 :: Double

(E) run-time exception



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### QUIZ

What does the expression read "2" evaluate to?

(A) compile time error

(B) "2" :: String

(C) 2 :: Integer

(D) 2.0 :: Double

(E) run-time exception



https://tiny.cc/cse116-read-grp

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### **Explicit Signatures**

Haskell is confused!

- Doesn't know what type to convert the string to!
- Doesn't know which of the read functions to run!

Did we want an **Int** or a **Double** or maybe something else altogether?

Thus, here an **explicit type annotation** is needed to tell Haskell what to convert the string to:

```
λ> (read "2") :: Int
2
λ> (read "2") :: Float
2 0
```

Note the different results due to the different types.

### **Creating Typeclasses**

Typeclasses are useful for many different things.

We will see some of those over the next few lectures.

Lets conclude today's class with a quick example that provides a small taste.

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### **JSON**

JavaScript Object Notation or JSON is a simple format for transferring data around. Here is an example:

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#### **JSON**

In brief, each JSON object is either

- a base value like a string, a number or a boolean,
- an (ordered) array of objects, or
- a set of string-object pairs.

### A JSON Datatype

We can represent (a subset of) JSON values with the Haskell datatype

```
data JVal
    = JStr String
    | JNum Double
    | JBool Bool
    | JObj [(String, JVal)]
    | JArr [JVal]
    deriving (Eq, Ord, Show)
```

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### A JSON Datatype

Thus, the above JSON value would be represented by the JVal

### Serializing Haskell Values to JSON

Let's write a small library to serialize Haskell values as JSON.

We could write a bunch of functions like
doubleToJSON :: Double -> JVal
doubleToJSON = JNum

stringToJSON :: String -> JVal
stringToJSON = JStr

boolToJSON :: Bool -> JVal
boolToJSON = JBool

### **Serializing Collections**

```
But what about collections, namely lists of things?

doublesToJSON :: [Double] -> JVal

doublesToJSON xs = JArr (map doubleToJSON xs)

boolsToJSON :: [Bool] -> JVal

boolsToJSON xs = JArr (map boolToJSON xs)

stringsToJSON :: [String] -> JVal

stringsToJSON xs = JArr (map stringToJSON xs)

This is getting rather tedious

• We are rewriting the same code :(
```

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### Serializing Collections (with HOFs)

You could abstract by making the <code>individual-element-converter</code> a parameter xsToJSON :: (a -> JVal) -> [a] -> JVal

```
xsToJSON f xs = JArr (map f xs)

xysToJSON :: (a -> JVal) -> [(String, a)] -> JVal
xysToJSON f kvs = JObj [ (k, f v) | (k, v) <- kvs ]</pre>
```

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### Serializing Collections (with HOFs)

But this is \*still rather tedious\*\* as you have to pass in the individual data converter (yuck)

```
\lambda doubleToJSON 4
JNum 4.0

\lambda xsToJSON stringToJSON ["coffee", "hacking"]
JArr [JStr "coffee", JStr "hacking"]

\lambda xysToJSON stringToJSON [("day", "monday"), ("loc", "cafe iveta")]
JObj [("day", JStr "monday"), ("loc", JStr "cafe iveta")]
```

### Serializing Collections (with HOFs)

This gets more hideous when you have richer objects like

Is it too much to ask for a magical toJSON that just works?

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# Typeclasses To The Rescue

```
Lets define a typeclass that describes types a that can be converted to JSON.
```

```
class JSON a where
   toJSON :: a -> JVal
Now, just make all the above instances of JSON like so
instance JSON Double where
   toJSON = JNum

instance JSON Bool where
   toJSON = JBool

instance JSON String where
   toJSON = JStr
```

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### Typeclasses To The Rescue

```
This lets us uniformly write 
\( \lambda \toJSON 4 \)
JNum 4.0
\( \lambda \toJSON True \)
JBool True
\( \lambda \toJSON "hacking" \)
JStr "hacking"
```

### **Bootstrapping Instances**

The real fun begins when we get Haskell to automatically bootstrap the above functions to work for lists and key-value lists!

```
instance JSON a => JSON [a] where
  toJSON xs = JArr [toJSON x | x <- xs]
The above says, if a is an instance of JSON, that is, if you can
  convert a to JVal then here's a generic recipe to convert lists of a values!

\[ \lambda \text{ toJSON [True, False, True]} \]
JArr [JBool True, JBool False, JBool True]
\[ \lambda \text{ toJSON ["cat", "dog", "Mouse"]} \]
JArr [JStr "cat", JStr "dog", JStr "Mouse"]
or even lists-of-lists!
\[ \lambda \text{ toJSON [["cat", "dog"], ["mouse", "rabbit"]]} \]
JArr [JArr [JStr "cat", JStr "dog"], JArr [JStr "mouse", JStr "rabbit"]]
</pre>
```

### **Bootstrapping Instances**

We can pull the same trick with key-value lists

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### **Bootstrapping Instances**

It is also useful to bootstrap the serialization for tuples (up to some fixed size) so we can easily write "non-uniform" JSON objects where keys are bound to values with different shapes.

```
instance (JSON a, JSON b) => JSON ((String, a), (String, b)) where
  toJSON ((k1, v1), (k2, v2)) =
    JObj [(k1, toJSON v1), (k2, toJSON v2)]

instance (JSON a, JSON b, JSON c) => JSON ((String, a), (String, b),
(String, c)) where
  toJSON ((k1, v1), (k2, v2), (k3, v3)) =
    JObj [(k1, toJSON v1), (k2, toJSON v2), (k3, toJSON v3)]
```

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### **Bootstrapping Instances**

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### **Serializing Environments**

To wrap everything up, lets write a routine to serialize our  $\mbox{Env}$  instance JSON (Env  $\mbox{k}$  v) where