

# Atypical Types

v 1.0

**Mark Jason Dominus**

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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



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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.



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Atypical Types

For example, structured programming, or `goto`?

This one is finished now.

The bodies of the `goto` supporters are buried pretty deep.



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Atypical Types

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.



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Atypical Types

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* discussion.

Right or wrong, garbage collection has won.



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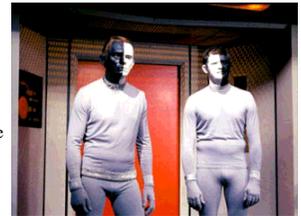
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Atypical Types

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".

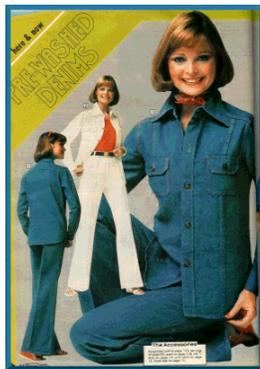


I said the question was still open.

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!





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



## Early Type Systems: FORTRAN

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

- INTEGER
  - INTEGER\*2, INTEGER\*4, INTEGER\*8
- LOGICAL (Fortran jargon for &lsquo;boolean&rsquo;)
  - LOGICAL\*1 (synonym: BYTE), LOGICAL\*2, LOGICAL\*4, LOGICAL\*8
- REAL
  - REAL\*4, REAL\*8 (synonym: DOUBLE PRECISION), REAL\*16
- COMPLEX
  - 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:
  - INTEGER for variables that begin with I, J, K, L, M, N
  - 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



## Early Type Systems: Lisp

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

```
(+ 1 2)
      3
(+ 1 2.0)
      3.0
(+ 1 "eels")
      Error in +: "eels" is not a number.
```



## 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 *));
```



## Typing: Hard to Get Right

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

### Pascal Examples

```
var   s : array [1..10] of character;
s := 'hello';           { You wish }

{----Thank you sir and may I have another! -----}

type string = array [1..40] of character;
procedure error (c: string)
begin
  write('ERROR: ');
  write(c);
  writeln('');
end;

error('File not found'); { In your dreams }
error('File not found '); { You have to d
error('Please just kill me Mr. Wirth ');
```

Wirth agrees that this was a bad move.

And almost every commercial implementation of Pascal fixed this problem.

Not all these fixes were mutually compatible.



## Typing: Hard to Get Right

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

### C Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
  unsigned char *c;
  float f = 10;

  for (c = (char *)&f;
       c < sizeof(float) + (char *)&f;
       c++) {
    printf("%u ", *c);
    putchar('\n');
  }
  return 0;
}
```

```
float.c: In function 'main':
float.c:9: warning: comparison of distinct pointer types lacks a
```

- The warning is spurious



## C Example

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



## 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)

```
int i;
i = 1.42857;           /* Silently truncated to 1 */
```

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

```
var u: case tag: integer of
  0: (intval: integer);
  1: (realval: real);
  2: (stringval: array [1..20] of character);
  3: (boolval: boolean);
end;
r : real;

u.intval = 1428457;
r = u.realval;           { Gack }
```

- 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
  - Lisp
  - APL
  - AWK
  - Perl (*really* give up: `+(8/2).". ".0.0.0`)

Hey, that worked pretty well!

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

This has *also* worked pretty well.



## 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
  - Which they also designed
- The rest of this talk is about Haskell



# 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



# 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!



# Types in Haskell

## Scalars

```
17
17.3
'x'
True
```

```
Integer
Float
Char
Bool
```



## Types in Haskell

### Tuples

```
(17, 'x')
(12.5, 13.5, 9)
(True, False, True)

(Integer, Char)
(Float, Float, Int)
(Bool, Bool, Bool)
```



## Types in Haskell

### Lists

```
[True, False, True]      [Bool]
[True, False, True, False] [Bool]
[1,2,3,4,5]              [Integer]
['O', 'O', 'P', 'S', 'L', 'A'] [Char]
"OOPSLA"                 [Char]
```

- `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]]`

```
[ [1,2,3], [4,6], [0,233] ]  [[Integer]]
[ "I", "like", "pie" ]      [[Char]]
[17, "foo"]                  Error
```



## Types in Haskell

### Polymorphism

```
[]
[ [1,2,3], [], [] ]
[ ['p', 'i', 'e'], [], [] ]

([], [])

[a]
[[Integer]]
[[Char]]

([a], [b])
```

(Better examples coming up shortly.)



## Types in Haskell

### Type composition

```
[ (True, [1, 2, 3]),
  (False, []),
  (False, [4, 5]) ]

[ (Bool, [Integer]) ]
```



## Types in Haskell

### Function types

```
not
words
unwords

length
reverse

head
tail
:
```

```
Bool -> Bool
String -> [String]
[String] -> String

[a] -> Int
[a] -> [a]

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

- `:` is the "cons" operation
  - `[1, 2, 3]` is shorthand for `1:2:3:[]`



## Overloading

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

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



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



## 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
  - As long as that type defines an appropriate `fromInteger` function



## Overloaded constants

- In particular, this works:

```
163 + 13.5
```

- 163 gets the same type as 13.5 here

- An appropriate value is manufactured by an appropriate version of `fromInteger`

- No nonsense like this:

```
double fahrenheit = 98.6;
double celsius1 = 5/9 * (fahrenheit - 32);
double celsius2 = (fahrenheit - 32) * 5/9;

printf("%.1f\n%.1f\n", celsius1, celsius2);

/* This is why we love C */

0.0
37.0
```

- A constant like 163 actually has this type:

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

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



## Overloading

- Early versions of this type system had problems with equality
- What's the type of `==`?
- Something like `a -> a -> Bool`
  - *Except* that `a` must not be a function type
- Haskell solves this problem:
  - `(Eq a) => a -> a -> Bool`
  - And function types are not instances of `Eq`
- Similarly, ordered types should be declared instances of `Ord`
  - Values can be compared with `<`, `>`, etc.



## 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?



## Type inference

The compiler says to itself:

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

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

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## Type inference

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

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

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

"So *n* must have that type too."

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## Type inference

```
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."

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## Type inference

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

"*n* has type (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."

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## Type inference

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

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

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

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

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## Type inference

```
fact :: (Num a) => a -> a
n :: (Num a) => 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
  - Because `String` is not an instance of `Num`

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## 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?
  - Yes? Okay then!
  - If not, your program almost certainly has a bug.
    - A *real* bug, not a nonsense string-the-wrong-length bug

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## Haskell types are always correct



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

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## Type Inference Example 2

```
sumof [] = 0
sumof (h:t) = h + sumof t
```



## Type Inference

```
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."



## Type Inference

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



## Type Inference

```
sumof :: [a] -> b
h :: a
t :: [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
```



## Type Inference

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

- Among other things, it supports division

- If we had put "Fred" we would have gotten a type error

- Because String is not an instance of Num



## Type Inference Example 3

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



## Type Inference

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

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



## Type Inference

```
map :: (p, [a]) -> q
f :: p
```

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

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

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



## Type Inference

```
map :: (p, [a]) -> 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."

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## Type Inference

```
map :: (a -> b, [a]) -> q
f :: a -> 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."

"So map must return [b]."

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## Type Inference

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

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## 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]
```

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## Life with Haskell

The Haskell type system has a lot of unspectacular successes.

Programming in Haskell is pleasant

- No type declarations&mdash;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.



## 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]
```



## Splitting

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

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



## Merging

```
merge [] ls = ls
merge ls [] = ls
merge (a:as) (b:bs) =
  if a <= b then a : merge as (b:bs)
  else b : merge (a:as) bs

merge :: (Ord t) => [t] -> [t] -> [t]
```



## 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??



# Huh??

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

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

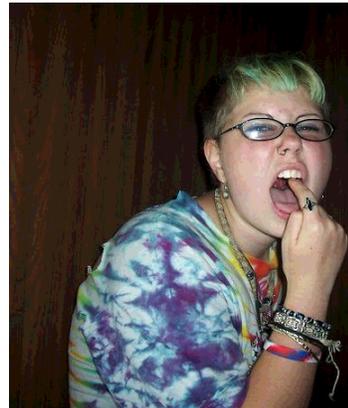


# Huh??

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

- But this is *impossible*

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



&ldquo;Go out with you? Sure, when Arnold Schwarzenegger is elected president.&rdquo;

&ldquo;But he isn't an American citizen.&rdquo;

&ldquo;Right!&rdquo;



## Huh???

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

&ldquo;Given a list of numbers, it could return a list of strings.&rdquo;

&ldquo;But it can't possibly return a list of strings.&rdquo;

&ldquo;Right!&rdquo;



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

In fact, this function has a bug.

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



## 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.



# Summary

# Thank you!

They say to allot 3&ndash;5 minutes per slide

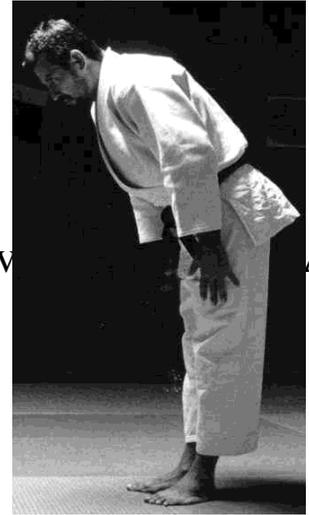
So I won't pretend that there will be time for questions

(sorry)

Please email me or catch me in the hallway

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[mjd@plover.com](mailto:mjd@plover.com)



# Thank you!

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(sorry)

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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.



## Summary

## Thank you!

They say to allot 3&ndash;5 minutes per slide

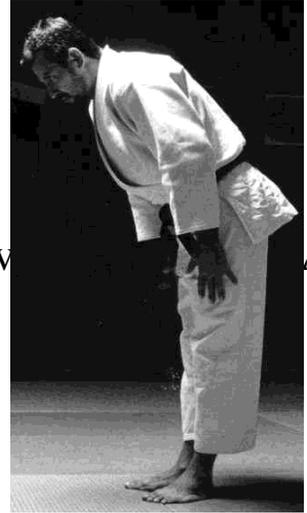
So I won't pretend that there will be time for questions

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