Programming Abstractions Lecture 36: Types

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Static vs. Dynamic types

Dynamically-checked types

- **Dynamically-typed** languages tag all of their values at runtime
- In Racket, we can ask what the type of a value is: number?, list?, pair?, boolean?, etc.
- type
- Scheme and Python are examples of dynamically-typed languages

Functions are forced to check that the types of their input match the expected

What does this code do?

(mul 0 'blah)

- A. Syntax error
- B. Contract violation
- C. Runtime error

D. Warning about 'blah

E. Returns 0

Run-time type checks No explicit error checking

(define (mul x y) (if (= x 0))0 (* x y)))

(mul 10 'blah)

This gives a contract error:

*: contract violation expected: number? given: 'blah

Note that the contract error is on *, not mul

Run-time type checks Explicit error checking

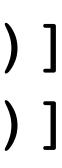
(define (mul x y)
 (cond [(not (number? x)) (
 [(not (number? y)) (
 [(= x 0) 0]
 [else (* x y)]))

(mul 0 'blah)

This gives a non-contract error: mul: not a number: blah

(cond [(not (number? x)) (error 'mul "not a number: ~s" x)]

[(not (number? y)) (error 'mul "not a number: ~s" y)]



Brief aside: Contracts

- A contract is a predicate that declares some fact about a value that must be true
- number? the value is a number
- ► list? the value is a list
- positive? the value is positive
- real? the value is a real number
- any/c every value satisfies this contract
- pair? or cons? the value is a cons cell

Contract combinators

We can make complex contracts using combinators

- (and/c c1 c2 ... cn) creates a contract that is satisfied only when all of the ci contracts are satisfied
- ► (or/c c1 c2 ... cn) creates a contract that is satisfied if any of the ci contracts are satisfied
- \land (not/c c) creates a contract that's satisfied if and only if contract c is not satisfied
- (listof c) creates a contract that the value is a list, each of whose elements satisfy c
- $(-> c1 c2 \ldots cn c-result) creates a function contract$

Contracts on functions

(-> arg1-contract ... argn-contract result-contract)

Specifies contracts for arguments

Specifies a contract for the return value

The runtime checks the contract on calls to functions to ensure arguments satisfy the contract

On returns, the runtime checks that the result value satisfies the contract

Run-time type checks Contracts

(define/contract (mul x y) (if (= x 0))0 (* x y))) (mul 0 'blah)

This gives a contract error: mul: contract violation expected: number? given: 'blah in: the 2nd argument of (-> number? number? number?)

(-> number? number? number?); x, y, and return value are numbers



Consider the function (first lst), which contract best describes the first function?

A. procedure? B. (-> list? any/c)C. (-> (not/c empty?) any/c)D. (-> (and/c list? (not/c empty?)) any/c)

Downside of dynamic-typing

- run time, even with contracts
- (define/contract (collatz n) (-> (and/c positive? integer?) (listof integer?)) (cond [(= n 1) 1])[else (cons n (collatz (/ n 2)))])
- This has a type error, but it won't be caught until runtime collatz: broke its own contract promised: list? produced: '(4 2 . 1)

Errors like passing and returning the wrong types of values are not caught until

[(odd? n) (cons n (collatz (add1 (* 3 n)))]

Statically-checked types

- **Statically-typed** languages compute a static approximation of the runtime types
- The type of an expression is computed from the types of its sub expressions
- This can be used to rule out a whole class of type errors at compile time
- C, Java, Rust, and Haskell are examples of statically-typed languages

Revisiting our buggy collatz function

#lang plai-typed

(define (collatz [n : number]) : (listof number) (cond [(= n 1) 1])[(odd? n) (cons n (collatz (add1 (* 3 n)))] [else (cons n (collatz (/ n 2)))])

At compile time, we get an error typecheck failed: number vs. (listof number) in: ...

Quick Haskell introduction

Haskell

Functional programming language

Statically-typed with a really strong type system

- distinction between a stream and a list as lists are lazily evaluated
- Lazy: Values are not computed until they're needed We won't need this today but one consequence is there isn't really a Can make reasoning about code run time a bit difficult

set!)

Indentation is important <>>

Haskell programs have a 2D layout constraint which is...unusual

Pure: functions cannot have side effects like printing output or mutation (i.e., no

Arithmetic, booleans, lists

Aarithmetic works the way you'd like it to (mostly)!

- ► 3 + 10
- ► (x + 8) * y / 5

Boolean values True and False

Numeric comparisons ==, /=, <, >, etc. return True and False

Lists are homogeneous (meaning all elements have the same type)

- \sim [1, 2, 3] -3-element list
- [] empty list
- [True, False, False, True] 4-element list
- [True, 1] type error!

Function application

Rather than (foo x y z) we just write foo x y z

We use parentheses for grouping ghci> not True False ghci> div 7 3 2 ghci> mod 7 3 1 ghci> mod 7 3 + 5 6 qhci > mod 7 (3 + 5)

Types expr :: type

Every expression has a type

We can be explicit about the type of the expression by writing down its type

ghci> (False || True && False) :: Bool
False
ghci> (5 + 3) :: Int
8

Defining a function

- add1 :: Int -> Int add1 x = x + 1
- fib :: Int -> Int fib n = if n < 2then n else fib (n - 1) + fib (n - 2)

ghci> [0..10] [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]ghci> map fib [0..10] [0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55]

Multiple argument functions

- Average of two integers (as an integer, rounding down)
- average :: Int -> Int -> Int average x y = div (x + y) 2
- The unusual type Int -> Int -> Int can be read one of two equivalent waysaverage takes two Int arguments and returns an Int
- ▶ Int -> Int is the same as Int -> (Int -> Int) which says average take an Int argument and returns a function of type Int -> Int - This is called Currying (named for mathematician Haskell Curry) and it's
 - pretty cool
 - average 5 returns a one-argument function which computes the average of its argument and 5



Algebraic Data Types (ADTs)

Algebraic data types

Algebraic data types let us create types from other types

Two ways to combine types:

- Product types: these are tuples (think Cartesian products)
- variants

We can combine product and sum types, most commonly as a sum of products

- (Int, Bool, String) is a product type where every value is a tuple containing an int, a boolean, and a string, e.g., (275, True, "Hello") Sum types (or variant types): every value must be exactly one of the possible

ADTs in Haskell

Tuples we can just use directly splitListAt :: Int -> [Int] -> ([Int], [Int]) splitListAt n xs = (take n xs, drop n xs)

ghci> splitListAt 5 [0..15] ([0,1,2,3,4],[5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15])

Named product types

We define a new named type using the data keyword

data Foo = Foo String ([Int] -> Int) Bool

This defines a new data type named Foo

Ints and produces an Int, and a Bool

- The constructor didn't need to match the name of the type; we'll see examples shortly
- Foo "hi" length False has type Foo

- This is a product type consisting of a String, a function that takes a list of
- The pink Foo is a constructor and it's how we construct values of type Foo

Aside

In order to print out our new types, we need append the line deriving (Show) to our data type definition

data Foo = Foo String ([Int] -> Int) Bool deriving (Show)

I'm going to omit this line from all the examples

Sum types

data Bool = TrueFalse

This is the standard definition of the Bool type

match the type name

When a type has multiple constructors (i.e., it's a sum type), then the

- True and False are 0-argument constructors that create values of type Bool
- When a type has one constructor, it's common for the constructor's name to

constructor names describe the variants rather than the overarching data type