CSE 341: **Programming Languages** Dan Grossman Winter 2008 Lecture 10— Higher-Order Functions Wrapup; Type inference; Parametric Polymorphism

One Last Closure Example

Closures are essential to elegant functional programming.

See our 15 ways of counting zeros in a list to see how currying and higher-order functions give us lots of flexibility.

• And some interesting reuse vs. straightforwardness vs. efficiency trade-offs

Now inference and type variables

- We have learned an interesting subset of ML expressions
- But we have been really informal about some aspects of the type system:
 - Type inference (what types do bindings implicitly have)
 - Type variables (what do 'a and 'b really mean)
 - Type constructors (why is int list a type but not list)
- Note: Type inference and parametric polymorphism are separate concepts that end up intertwined in ML. A different language could have one or the other.

Type Inference

Some languages are untyped or dynamically typed.

ML is *statically typed*; every binding has one type, determined during type-checking (compile-time).

ML is *implicitly typed*; programmers rarely need to write bindings' types (e.g., if using features like #1)

The type-inference question: Given a program without explicit types, produce types for all bindings such that the program type-checks, or reject (only) if it is impossible.

Whether type inference is easy, hard, or impossible depends on details of the type system: Making it more or less powerful (i.e., more programs typecheck) may make inference easier or harder.

ML Type Inference

- Determine types of bindings in order (earlier first) (except for mutual recursion)
- For each val or fun binding, analyze the binding to determine necessary facts about its type.
- Afterward, use *type variables* (e.g., 'a) for any unconstrained types in function arguments or results.
- (One extra restriction to be discussed at the end.)

Amazing fact: For the ML type system, "going in order" this way never causes unnecessary rejection.

[Let's walk through a few examples, doing type inference by hand.]

Comments on ML type inference

- If we had subtyping, the "equality constraints" we generated would be unnecessarily restrictive.
- If we did not have type variables, we would not be able to give a type to compose until we saw how it was used.
 - But type variables are useful regardless of inference.

Parametric Polymorphism

Fancy phrase for "forall types" or sometimes "generics." In ML since mid-80s and now in Java, C#, VB, etc.

• C++ templates used similarly, but more like macros (later).

In ML, it's like there's an implicit "for all" at the beginning of any type with 'a, 'b, etc. Example:

('a * 'b) -> ('b * 'a)

really means:

```
forall 'a. forall 'b. ('a * 'b) -> ('b * 'a)
```

(though forall is just for lecture purposes; it is not in ML)

We can *instantiate* the *type variables* to get a *less general* type. For example, with string for 'a and int->int for 'b we get:

(string * (int -> int)) -> ((int->int) * string)

All the types

In principle, we could have a very flexible way of building types:

- Base types like int, string, real, ...
- Compound types like t1 * t2, t1 -> t2, and datatypes where t1 and t2 are any type
- Polymorphic types like forall 'a. t where 'a can appear in t.

This would let you have types like (forall 'a. 'a -> ('a * 'a)) -> ((int * int) * (bool * bool)) Every language has limits; in ML there is no type like this, the forall is always implicit and always "all the way to the outside left", for example this *different type*: ('a -> ('a * 'a)) -> ((int * int) * (bool * bool)) (caller must pick *one* instantiation)

Example

This code is fine, but ML disallows it to make type inference easier.

```
(* function f does _not_ type-check *)
fun f pairmaker = (pairmaker 7, pairmaker true)
val x = f (fn y => (y,y))
```

Versus Subtyping

Compare

```
fun swap (x,y) = (y,x) (* ('a * 'b) -> ('b * 'a) *)
```

with

```
class Pair { Object x; Object y; ... }
Pair swap(Pair pr) { return new Pair(pr.y, pr.x); }
ML wins in two ways (for this example):
```

- Caller instantiates types, so doesn't need to cast result
- Callee cannot return a pair of any two objects.

That's why Java added generics...

Java Generics

```
class Pair<T1,T2> {
   T1 x;
   T2 y;
   Pair(T1 _x, T2 _y) { x=_x; y=_y; }
   static <T1,T2> Pair<T2,T1> swap(Pair<T1,T2> pr) {
      return new Pair<T2,T1>(pr.y,pr.x);
   }
}
This really is a step forward despite the clutter (explicit types and type
definitions) versus
```

```
fun swap (x,y) = (y,x)
```

<u>Containers</u>

Parametric polymorphism (forall types) are also the right thing for containers (lists, sets, hashtables, etc.) where elements have the same type.

Example: ML lists

val :: : ('a * ('a list)) -> 'a list (* infix is syntax *)
val map : (('a -> 'b) * ('a list)) -> 'b list
val sum : int list -> int
val fold : ('a * 'b -> 'b) -> ('a list) -> 'b

list is not a type; if t is a type, then t list is a type.

User-defined type constructors

Language-design: don't provide a fixed set of a useful thing.

Let programmers declare type constructors.

Examples:

You can have multiple type-parameters (not shown here).

And now, finally, everything about lists is syntactic sugar!

One last thing – not on the test

Polymorphism and mutation can be a dangerous combination.

```
val x = ref [] (* 'a list ref *)
val _ = x := ["hi"] (* instantiate 'a with string *)
val _ = (hd(!x)) + 7 (* instantiate 'a with int -- bad!! *)
To prevent this, ML has "the value restriction": bindings can only get
polymorphic types if they are initialized with values.
Alas, that means this does not work even though it should be fine:
val pr_list = List.map (fn x => (x,x))
But these all work:
val pr_list = fun lst => List.map (fn x => (x,x)) lst
fun pr_list lst = List.map (fn x => (x,x)) lst
val pr_list : int list -> (int*int) list =
   List.map (fn x => (x,x))
```