

LiU-FP2010 Part II: Lecture 5

Type Classes

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Haskell Overloading (1)

What is the type of (==)?

E.g. the following both work:

```
1 == 2
```

```
'a' == 'b'
```

I.e., (==) can be used to compare both numbers and characters.

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No!!! Cannot work uniformly for arbitrary types!

Haskell Overloading (2)

A function like the identity function

```
id :: a -> a
id x = x
```

is **polymorphic** precisely because it works uniformly for all types: there is no need to “inspect” the argument.

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is **polymorphic** precisely because it works uniformly for all types: there is no need to “inspect” the argument.

In contrast, to compare two “things” for equality, they very much have to be inspected, and an **appropriate method of comparison** needs to be used.

Haskell Overloading (3)

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Similar remarks apply to many other types. E.g.:

- We may want to be able to add numbers of any kind
- But to add properly, we must understand what we are adding
- Not every type admits addition

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Haskell Overloading (4)

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- Introduce the notion of a **type class**: a set of types that support certain related operations.
- **Constrain** those operations to **only** work for types belonging to the corresponding class.
- Allow a type to be **made an instance of** (added to) a type class by providing **type-specific implementations** of the operations of the class.

The Type Class `Eq`

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

`(==)` is not a function, but a **method** of the **type class** `Eq`. Its type signature is:

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

`Eq a` is a **class constraint**. It says that the equality method works for any type belonging to the type class `Eq`.

Instances of `Eq` (1)

Various types can be made instances of a type class like `Eq` by providing implementations of the class methods for the type in question:

```
instance Eq Int where
    x == y = primEqInt x y
```

```
instance Eq Char where
    x == y = primEqChar x y
```

Instances of Eq (2)

Suppose we have a data type:

```
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
```

We can make `Answer` an instance of `Eq` as follows:

```
instance Eq Answer where
  Yes == Yes      = True
  No  == No       = True
  Unknown == Unknown = True
  _   == _        = False
```

Instances of Eq (3)

Consider:

```
data Tree a = Leaf a
            | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)
```

Can `Tree` be made an instance of `Eq`?

Instances of Eq (4)

Yes, for any type a that is already an instance of Eq :

`instance (Eq a) => Eq (Tree a) where`

`Leaf a1 == Leaf a2 = a1 == a2`

`Node t1l t1r == Node t2l t2r = t1l == t2l`

`&& t1r == t2r`

`_ == _ = False`

Derived Instances

Instance declarations are often obvious and mechanical. Thus, for certain ***built-in*** classes (notably `Eq`, `Ord`, `Show`), Haskell provides a way to ***automatically derive*** instances, as long as

- the data type is sufficiently simple
- we are happy with the standard definitions

Thus, we can do:

```
data Tree a = Leaf a
            | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)
            deriving Eq
```

Class Hierarchy

Type classes form a hierarchy. E.g.:

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

`Eq` is a superclass of `Ord`; i.e., any type in `Ord` must also be in `Eq`.

Haskell vs. OO Overloading (1)

A method, or overloaded function, may thus be understood as a family of functions where the right one is chosen depending on the types.

A bit like OO languages like Java. But the underlying mechanism is quite different and much more general. Consider `read`:

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

Note: overloaded on the **result** type! A method that converts from a string to **any** other type in class `Read`!

Haskell vs. OO Overloading (2)

```
> let xs = [1,2,3] :: [Int]
> let ys = [1,2,3] :: [Double]
> xs
[1,2,3]
> ys
[1.0,2.0,3.0]
> (read "42" : xs)
[42,1,2,3]
> (read "42" : ys)
[42.0,1.0,2.0,3.0]
> read "'a'" :: Char
'a'
```


Implementation (1)

The class constraints represent extra implicit arguments that are filled in by the compiler. These arguments are (roughly) the functions to use.

Thus, internally `(==)` is a **higher order function** with **three** arguments:

$$(==) \text{ eqF } x \ y = \text{eqF } x \ y$$

Implementation (2)

An expression like

`1 == 2`

is essentially translated into

`(==) primEqInt 1 2`

Implementation (3)

So one way of understanding a type like

$$(==) :: Eq\ a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow Bool$$

is that $Eq\ a$ corresponds to an extra implicit argument.

The implicit argument corresponds to a so called directory, or tuple/record of functions, one for each method of the type class in question.

Some Standard Haskell Classes (1)

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

```
class (Eq a) => Ord a where
    compare :: a -> a -> Ordering
    (<), (<=), (>=), (>) :: a -> a -> Bool
    max, min :: a -> a -> a
```

```
class Show a where
    show :: a -> String
```

Some Standard Haskell Classes (2)

```
class (Eq a, Show a) => Num a where
    (+), (-), (*) :: a -> a -> a
    negate      :: a -> a
    abs, signum :: a -> a
    fromInteger :: Integer -> a
```

Quiz: What is the type of a numeric literal like 42?
42 :: Int? Why?

Application: Automatic Differentiation

- **Automatic Differentiation**: method for augmenting code so that derivative(s) computed along with main result.
- Purely algebraic method: arbitrary code can be handled
- Exact results
- But no separate, self-contained representation of the derivative.

Automatic Differentiation: Key Idea

Consider a code fragment:

$$\begin{aligned}z1 &= x + y \\z2 &= x * z1\end{aligned}$$

Suppose the derivatives of x and y w.r.t. common variable is available in the variables x' and y' .

Then code can be augmented to compute derivatives of $z1$ and $z2$:

$$\begin{aligned}z1 &= x + y \\z1' &= x' + y' \\z2 &= x * z1 \\z2' &= x' * z1 + x * z1'\end{aligned}$$

Approaches

- Source-to-source translation
- Overloading of arithmetic operators and mathematical functions

The following variation is due to Jerzy Karczmarczuk. Infinite list of derivatives allows derivatives of *arbitrary* order to be computed.

Functional Automatic Differentiation (1)

Introduce a new numeric type `C`: value of a continuously differentiable function at a point along with *all* derivatives at that point:

```
data C = C Double C
```

```
valC (C a _) = a
```

```
derC (C _ x') = x'
```

Functional Automatic Differentiation (2)

Constants and the variable of differentiation:

```
zeroC :: C
```

```
zeroC = C 0.0 zeroC
```

```
constC :: Double -> C
```

```
constC a = C a zeroC
```

```
dVarC :: Double -> C
```

```
dVarC a = C a (constC 1.0)
```

Functional Automatic Differentiation (3)

Part of numerical instance:

```
instance Num C where
```

$$(C\ a\ x') + (C\ b\ y') = \\ C\ (a + b)\ (x' + y')$$

$$(C\ a\ x') - (C\ b\ y') = \\ C\ (a - b)\ (x' - y')$$

$$x@(C\ a\ x') * y@(C\ b\ y') = \\ C\ (a * b)\ (x' * y + x * y')$$

```
fromInteger n =
```

```
constC (fromInteger n)
```

Functional Automatic Differentiation (4)

Computation of $y = 3t^2 + 7$ at $t = 2$:

```
t = dVarC 2
```

```
y = 3 * t * t + 7
```

```
valC y ⇒ 19.0
```

```
valC (derC y) ⇒ 12.0
```

```
valC (derC (derC y)) ⇒ 6.0
```

```
valC (derC (derC (derC y))) ⇒ 0.0
```

Reading

- Jerzy Karczmarczuk. Functional differentiation of computer programs. *Higher-Order and Symbolic Computation*, 14(1):35–57, March 2001.