

## Principles of programming languages

### Lecture 5

<http://few.vu.nl/~nsilvis/PPL/2007>

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## From last week

- n ML has no assignment. Explain how to access an old binding ?
- n Is & for logical and? If both operands are boolean, then & can be used as && but without short-circuiting
- n ML: Value of a in halve?

```
Standard ML of New Jersey v110.59
- val inc = 5 : int
val inc = 5 : int
- fun f x = x + inc ;
val f = fn : int -> int
- f 0 ;
val it = 5 : int
- val inc = 6 ;
val inc = 6 : int
- f 0 ;
val it = 5 : int
-
```

```
package operators;

public class operator {

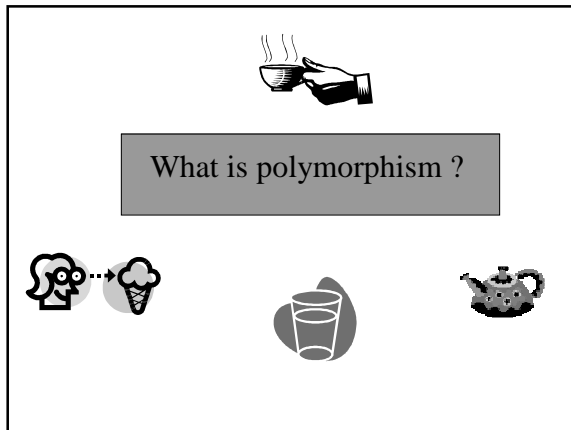
    /**
     * @param args
     */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x = 5 ;
        if ((3 < 4) || (x/0 < 4)) System.out.println("short-circuit");
        if ((3 < 4) | (x == 5)) System.out.println ("not short-circuit");
        if ((3 < 4) | (x/0 < 4)) System.out.print("not short-circuit");
    }
}

<terminated> operator [Java Application] C:\Program Files\Java\jre1.5.0_09\bin\javaw.exe (Oct 8, 2007 11:17:06 AM)
short-circuit
not short-circuit
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero
at operators.operator.main(operator.java:12)
```

```
Standard ML of New Jersey v110.59 [built: Mon Jun 05 13:
- fun halve nil = <nil,nil>
= ; halve [a] = [a], nil)
= ; halve (a::b::cs) =
= let
= val (x,y)=halve cs
= in (a::x, b::y)
= end;
val halve = fn : 'a list -> 'a list * 'a list
- x ;
stdIn:7.5 Error: unbound variable or constructor: x
- a ;
stdIn:1.1 Error: unbound variable or constructor: a
- halve [2,3,4,5];
val it = ([2,4],[3,5]) : int list * int list
- a ;
stdIn:1.17 Error: unbound variable or constructor: a
- b ;
stdIn:1.1 Error: unbound variable or constructor: b
```

## Outline

- Part I. Polymorphism
- Part II. Functional programming. Third look at ML.



## Polymorphism

- n poly+morphos (Greek) = many forms (shapes)
- n Used in many other sciences: material science, biology
- n In programming languages PMF is difficult to define:
  - ∴ Applies to a wide variety of language features
  - ∴ Most languages have at least a little
  - ∴ First we examine a few major examples, then we try to give a definition that covers them

## Polymorphism examples

- ➔ n **Overloading**
- n **Parameter coercion**
- n **Parametric polymorphism**
- n **Definitions and classifications**

## What is overloading?

**Overloading = to give more than one definition, all of different types**

You can overload:

**operators**  
or  
**function names**

## Predefined Overloaded Operators

Some operators are already overloaded by the language itself.

```
ML: val x = 1 + 2;
     val y = 1.0 + 2.0;
```

```
C++: a = 1 + 2;
      b = 1.0 + 2.0;
      c = "hello " + "there";
```

How does the languages system know which definition to use?

## User-Overloaded Operators

Situations:

You can add two integers or two floats, but what if you want to add two complex numbers ?

You can compare two integers, two strings, but how to compare 2 C structures?

## Ex: Overloading the < operator in C++

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std ;
struct Student
{
    string name ;
    int stud_nr ;
    int grade ;
};
// overloads < operator to compare 2 structs of type Student
bool operator< (const Student& student1, const Student& student2)
{
    if (student1.grade < student2.grade) return true ;
    else return false ;
}
```

## Ex: Overloading the < operator in C++ (ctnd)

```
int main()
{
    Student me, you ;
    me.name = "Sheila" ;
    me.stud_nr =14537780 ;
    me.grade = 8 ;
    you.name = "Bob" ;
    you.stud_nr =14532180 ;
    you.grade = 4 ;
    if (me < you) cout << you.name << " is more clever than " <<
me.name ;
    else cout << me.name << " is more clever than " << you.name ;
    cout << endl ;
    return 0 ;
}
```

Output: Sheila is more cleaver than Bob

## C++ Operator overloading rules

- All operators can be overloaded except:  
. (direct member), :: (scope resolution), .\* and ?:
- You cannot change the unary/binary nature of an operator.
- You cannot override precedence rules.

Take care! Overloading can become confusing. The user has to use his common sense and not overdo it.

## Overloaded Function Names

In some languages (Java, C++), the user can overload the function name = same name, **different** definition (different semantics)

```
int square(int x) {
    return x*x;
}
double square(double x) {
    return x*x;
}
```

The bodies look the same, but the implementation by hardware is very different.

## Implementing Overloading

Compilers implement overloading (solve the ambiguity) like this:

- 1 Create a set of monomorphic functions, one for each definition
- 2 Invent a **mangled** name for each, encoding the type information Ex: fred\_Fii
- 3 Have each reference use the appropriate mangled name, depending on the **parameter types**

## Main feature of overloading

The language system looks at the operators type and decides which definition to use.

## Polymorphism examples

- n **Overloading**
- ➔ n **Parameter coercion**
- n **Parametric polymorphism**
- n **Definitions and classifications**

## Coercion

A coercion is an **implicit** type conversion, supplied automatically

**Explicit** type conversion in Java: `double x;`  
`x = (double) 2;`

OR

**Implicit** conversion (Coercion) in Java: `double x;`  
`x = 2;`

This coercion is not polymorphism, x is not polymorphic

## Defining Coercions

- n Language definitions often take many pages to define exactly which coercions are performed
- n Some languages, especially some older languages like Algol 68 and PL/I, have very extensive powers of coercion
- n Some, like ML, have none
- n Most, like Java, are somewhere in the middle

## Defining coercion in Java

### 5.6.1 Unary Numeric Promotion

Some operators apply *unary numeric promotion* to a single operand, which must produce a value of a numeric type: If the operand is of compile-time type `byte`, `short`, or `char`, unary numeric promotion promotes it to a value of type `int` by a widening conversion (§5.1.2). Otherwise, a unary numeric operand remains as is and is not converted. Unary numeric promotion is performed on expressions in the following situations: the dimension expression in array creations (§15.9); the index expression in array access expressions (§15.12); operands of the unary operators plus `+` (§15.14.3) and minus `-` (§15.14.4) ...

*The Java Language Specification*  
James Gosling, Bill Joy, Guy Steele

## Parameter Coercion

if a language supports coercion of parameters on a function call (or of operands when an operator is applied), the resulting function (or operator) is **polymorphic**

## Example: Java

```
void f(double x) {  
    ...  
}
```

```
f((byte) 1);  
f((short) 2);  
f('a');  
f(3);  
f(4L);  
f(5.6F);
```

This `f` can be called with any type of parameter Java is willing to coerce to type `double`

`f` is **polymorphic**

## Coercion vs. Overloading

- n There are potentially tricky interactions between overloading and coercion
  - i Overloading uses the types to choose the definition
  - i Coercion uses the definition to choose a type conversion

Ambiguities might appear and each language system has to solve them in some way.

## Ambiguity Example

- n Suppose that, like C++, a language is willing to coerce `char` to `int` or to `double`

```
int square(int x) {  
    return x*x;  
}  
double square(double x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

- n Which `square` gets called for `square('a')` ?

## Ambiguity Example

- n Suppose that, like C++, a language is willing to coerce `char` to `int`
- n Which `f` gets called for `f('a', 'b')` ?

```
void f(int x, char y) {  
    ...  
}  
void f(char x, int y) {  
    ...  
}
```

## Outline

- n Overloading
- n Parameter coercion
- n **Parametric polymorphism**
- n Definitions and classifications

## Parametric Polymorphism

- n A function exhibits **parametric polymorphism** if it has a type that contains one or more type variables

```
- fun f(a, b) = (a = b);  
val f = fn : 'a * 'a -> bool
```

- n A type with type variables is a *polytype*
- n Found in ML, C++ and Ada, Java

## Ex: C++ Function templates

```
// returns the maximum
of 2 integers
int max (int left, int
right)
{
if (left < right)
return right ;
else
return left ;
}
```

```
//returns the maximum of
2 doubles
double max (double left,
double right)
{
if (left < right)
return right ;
else
return left ;
}
```

What is the problem here?

What do we need to solve it?

## Ex: C++ Function templates

A function template for the function max:

```
template <class T>
T max (T left, T right)
{
if (left < right)
return right ;
else
return left ;
}
```

Here "class T" means "type T". T is a **type variable**  
T can be any type for which the operator < is defined  
For other types, operator < can be overloaded.

## Ex: C++ Function templates

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

.. place here the function template

int main()
{
int integer1 = 4 ;
int integer2 = 10 ;

int max1 = max (integer1, integer2);
cout << "The maximum integer is " << max1 << endl ;

double double1 = 100.20 ;
double double2 = 5.7 ;

double max2 = max (double1, double2) ;
cout << "The maximum double is " << max2 << endl ;
return 0 ;
}
```

## Implementation

- n Many copies vs. one copy
- n An improved implementation for parametric polymorphism is an active area of programming language research

## Outline

- n Overloading
- n Parameter coercion
- n Parametric polymorphism
- ➔ n Definitions and classifications

## So what is polymorphism?

## An attempt at a definition

**A function or operator is *polymorphic* if it has at least two possible types.**

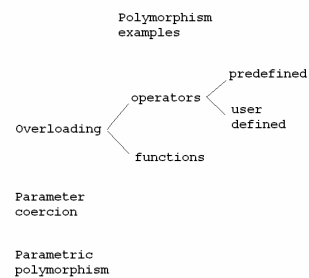
## How many types?

- *ad hoc polymorphism* if it has only finitely many possible types
- *universal polymorphism* if it has infinitely many **possible** types

## Ad hoc/universal?

- |                           |             |
|---------------------------|-------------|
| ▪ Overloading             | ▪ Ad hoc    |
| ▪ Parametric coercion     | ▪ Ad hoc    |
| ▪ Parametric polymorphism | ▪ Universal |

## Summary



## Conclusion

- There are many more phenomena that people call polymorphism. We presented only 3 examples and gave a definition that covers them.
- Languages with dynamic type checking do not need polymorphism.
- Polymorphism is a way to gain some freedom and flexibility and still benefit from the static type checking
- Polymorphism is powerful and flexible feature but it presents opportunities for abuse.

## Exercises

1. (Weber Ch.8 ex.1) try yourself at home
  2. (Weber Ch.8 ex.3) (in class)
- Consider an unknown language with integer and real types in which  $1+2$ ,  $1.0+2$ ,  $1+2.0$  and  $1.0 + 2.0$  are all legal expressions.
- a. Explain how this could be the result of coercion, using no overloading
  - b. Explain how this could be the result of overloading using no coercion
  - c. Explain how this could result from a combination of overloading and coercion

## Outline

Part II. Functional programming. A third look at ML

## Outline

- ➔ n More pattern matching
- n Function values and anonymous functions
- n Higher-order functions and currying
- n Some ML predefined higher-order functions

## More Pattern-Matching

- n Last time we saw pattern-matching in function definitions:

```
fun f 0 = "zero"
  | f _ = "non-zero";
```

## Match Syntax

- n A *rule*:

*<rule> ::= <pattern> => <expression>*

- n A *match* consists of one or more rules separated by a vertical bar, like this:

*<match> ::= <rule> | <rule> '|' <match>*

## Case Expressions

```
- case 1+1 of
=   3 => "three" |
=   2 => "two" |
=   _ => "hmm";
val it = "two" : string
```

## Example

```
case x of
_::_:c::_ => c |
_::b::_ => b |
a::_ => a |
nil => 0
```



## Generalizes `if`

```
if exp1 then exp2 else exp3
```

```
case exp1 of  
  true => exp2 |  
  false => exp3
```

- n The two expressions above are equivalent
- n So `if-then-else` is really just a special case of `case`

## Behind the Scenes

- n Expressions using `if` are actually treated as abbreviations for `case` expressions
- n This explains some odd SML/NJ error messages:

```
- if 1=1 then 1 else 1.0;  
Error: types of rules don't agree [literal]  
earlier rule(s): bool -> int  
this rule: bool -> real  
in rule:  
  false => 1.0
```

## Outline

- n More pattern matching
- n **Function values and anonymous functions**
- n Higher-order functions and currying
- n Predefined higher-order functions

## Predefined Functions

- n When an ML language system starts, there are many predefined variables
- n Some are bound to functions:

```
- ord;  
val it = fn : char -> int  
- ~;  
val it = fn : int -> int
```

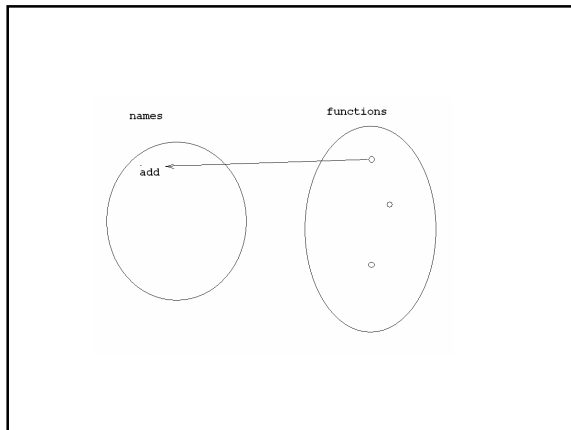
## Defining Functions

- n We have seen the `fun` notation for defining new named functions
- n You can also define new names for old functions, using `val` just as for other kinds of values:

```
- val x = ~;  
val x = fn : int -> int  
- x 3;  
val it = ~3 : int
```

## Function Values

- n **Functions in ML do not have names**
- n Just like other kinds of values, function values may be given one or more names by binding them to variables
- n The `fun` syntax does two separate things:
  - i Creates a new function value
  - i Binds that function value to a name



## Anonymous Functions

n Named function:

**fun**

```
- fun f x = x + 2;
val f = fn : int -> int
- f 1;
val it = 3 : int
```

n Anonymous function:

**fn**

```
- fn x => x + 2;
val it = fn : int -> int
- (fn x => x + 2) 1;
val it = 3 : int
```

## Using Anonymous Functions

n when you need a small function in just one place and you want to avoid cluttering

n With named function

```
- fun intBefore (a,b) = a < b;
val intBefore = fn : int * int -> bool
- quicksort ([1,4,3,2,5], intBefore);
val it = [1,2,3,4,5] : int list
```

n With anonymous function:

```
- quicksort ([1,4,3,2,5], fn (a,b) => a<b);
val it = [1,2,3,4,5] : int list
- quicksort ([1,4,3,2,5], fn (a,b) => a>b);
val it = [5,4,3,2,1] : int list
```

## The `op` keyword

```
- op *;
val it = fn : int * int -> int
- quicksort ([1,4,3,2,5], op <);
val it = [1,2,3,4,5] : int list
```

n Binary operators are special functions

n The keyword `op` before an operator extracts the function used by the operator

## Outline

n More pattern matching

n Function values and anonymous functions

➔ n **Higher-order functions and currying**

n Predefined higher-order functions

## Higher-order Functions

n Every function has an *order*:

i A function that does not take any functions as parameters, and does not return a function value, has **order 1**

i A function that takes a function as a parameter or returns a function value has **order  $n+1$** , where  $n$  is the order of its highest-order parameter or returned value

n The `quicksort` we just saw is a second-order function

## Practice

What is the order of functions with each of the following ML types?

```
int * int -> bool
```

```
int list * (int * int -> bool) -> int list
```

```
int -> int -> int
```

```
(int -> int) * (int -> int) -> (int -> int)
```

```
int -> bool -> real -> string
```

## Currying

In ML functions have only one parameter.

Q: How to pass 2 parameters to a function?

A1: By passing a 2-tuple:

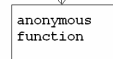
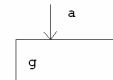
```
fun f (a,b) = a + b;
```

A2: By **currying** = write a function that takes the first argument, and returns another function that takes the second argument and returns the final result:

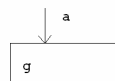
```
fun g a = fn b => a+b;
```



Haskell B. Curry, (1900-1982)  
FP mathematician



this function takes a parameter and adds a to this parameter.



this function takes a parameter and adds a to this parameter.

a+b

## Example

```
- fun f (a,b) = a+b;  
val f = fn : int * int -> int  
- fun g a = fn b => a+b;  
val g = fn : int -> int -> int  
- f(2,3);  
val it = 5 : int  
- g 2 3;  
val it = 5 : int
```

Remember that function application is left-associative

So `g 2 3` means `((g 2) 3)`

## Advantages

- n No tuples: we write `g 2 3` instead of `f(2,3)`
- n But the real advantage: we get to specialize functions for particular initial parameters

```
- val add2 = g 2;
val add2 = fn : int -> int
- add2 3;
val it = 5 : int
- add2 10;
val it = 12 : int
```

## Advantages

```
- quicksort (op <) [1,4,3,2,5];
val it = [1,2,3,4,5] : int list
- val sortBackward = quicksort (op >);
val sortBackward = fn : int list -> int list
- sortBackward [1,4,3,2,5];
val it = [5,4,3,2,1] : int list
```

## Multiple Curried Parameters

- n Currying generalizes to any number of parameters


```
- fun f (a,b,c) = a+b+c;
val f = fn : int * int * int -> int
- fun g a = fn b => fn c => a+b+c;
val g = fn : int -> int -> int -> int
- f (1,2,3);
val it = 6 : int
- g 1 2 3;
val it = 6 : int
```

## Easier Notation for Currying

- n Instead of writing:  
`fun f a = fn b => a+b;`
- n We can just write:  
`fun f a b = a+b;`
- n This generalizes for any number of curried arguments

```
- fun f a b c d = a+b+c+d;
val f = fn : int -> int -> int -> int -> int
```

## Outline

- n More pattern matching
- n Function values and anonymous functions
- n Higher-order functions and currying
- n  **Predefined higher-order functions**

## ML Predefined Higher-Order Functions

- n map
- n foldr
- n foldl

## The `map` Function

- Used to apply a function to **every** element of a list, and collect a list of results

```
- map ~ [1,2,3,4];
val it = [~1,~2,~3,~4] : int list
- map (fn x => x+1) [1,2,3,4];
val it = [2,3,4,5] : int list
- map (fn x => x mod 2 = 0) [1,2,3,4];
val it = [false,true,false,true] : bool list
- map (op +) [(1,2),(3,4),(5,6)];
val it = [3,7,11] : int list
```

What is the type of `map`?

## The `map` Function Is Curried

```
- map;
val it = fn : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
- val f = map (op +);
val f = fn : (int * int) list -> int list
- f [(1,2),(3,4)];
val it = [3,7] : int list
```

Use `map` function when the result is a list of the same length with the parameter

## The `foldr` Function

- Used to combine all the elements of a list (starts from right to left)
- For example, to add up all the elements of a list `x`, we could write `foldr (op +) 0 x`
- It takes a function `f`, a starting value `c`, and a list `x = [x1, ..., xn]` and computes:  
$$f(x_1, f(x_2, \dots f(x_{n-1}, f(x_n, c)) \dots))$$
- So `foldr (op +) 0 [1,2,3,4]` evaluates as `1+(2+(3+(4+0)))=10`

## `Foldr`: examples

Function    start\_value    list

```
- foldr (op +) 0 [1,2,3,4];
val it = 10 : int
- foldr (op * ) 1 [1,2,3,4];
val it = 24 : int
- foldr (op ^) "" ["abc","def","ghi"];
val it = "abcdefghi" : string
- foldr (op ::) [5] [1,2,3,4];
val it = [1,2,3,4,5] : int list
```

## The `foldr` Function Is Curried

```
- foldr;
val it = fn : ('a * 'b -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'a list -> 'b
- foldr (op +);
val it = fn : int -> int list -> int
- foldr (op +) 0;
val it = fn : int list -> int
- val addup = foldr (op +) 0;
val addup = fn : int list -> int
- addup [1,2,3,4,5];
val it = 15 : int
```

## The `foldl` Function

- n Used to combine all the elements of a list
- n Same results as `foldr` in some cases

```
- foldl (op +) 0 [1,2,3,4];  
val it = 10 : int  
- foldl (op *) 1 [1,2,3,4];  
val it = 24 : int
```

## The `foldl` Function

- n To add up all the elements of a list  $x$ , we could write `foldl (op +) 0 x`
- n It takes a function  $f$ , a starting value  $c$ , and a list  $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$  and computes:  
$$f(x_n, f(x_{n-1}, \dots f(x_2, f(x_1, c)) \dots))$$
- n So `foldl (op +) 0 [1,2,3,4]` evaluates as  $4+(3+(2+(1+0)))=10$
- n Remember, `foldr` did  $1+(2+(3+(4+0)))=10$

## The `foldl` Function

- n `foldl` starts at the left, `foldr` starts at the right
- n Difference does not matter when the function is associative and commutative, like `+` and `*`
- n For other operations, it does matter

```
- foldr (op ^) "" ["abc","def","ghi"];  
val it = "abcdefghi" : string  
- foldl (op ^) "" ["abc","def","ghi"];  
val it = "ghidefabc" : string  
- foldr (op -) 0 [1,2,3,4];  
val it = ~2 : int  
- foldl (op -) 0 [1,2,3,4];  
val it = 2 : int
```

## Exercises (Weber, Ch. 9)

- n **Exercise 3.** Write a function `squarelist` of type `int list -> int list` that takes a list of integers and returns the list of squares of those integers.
- n **Exercise 17.** Write a function `max` of type `int list -> int` that returns the largest element of a list. Your function does not need to behave well if the list is empty.