Monad P3: Existential Types (1D)

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Based on

Haskell in 5 steps

https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps

Three different usages for forall

Basically, there are 3 different common uses for the forall keyword (or at least so it seems), and each has its own Haskell extension:

ScopedTypeVariables

specify types for code inside where clauses

RankNTypes/Rank2Types,

The type is labeled "Rank-N" where N is the number of **foralls** which are <u>nested</u> and <u>cannot</u> be <u>merged</u> with a previous one.

ExistentialQuantification

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/3071136/what-does-the-forall-keyword-in-haskell-ghc-do

Existential Quantification

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/3071136/what-does-the-forall-keyword-in-haskell-ghc-do

Hiding a type variable (1)

Normally when creating a new type

using type, newtype, data, etc.,

every **type variable** that appears on the <u>right-hand side</u> must also <u>appear</u> on the <u>left-hand side</u>.

newtype ST s a = ST (State# s -> (# State# s, a #))

Existential types are a way of escaping

Existential types can be used for several different purposes.

But what they do is to hide a type variable on the right-hand side.

Hiding a type variable (2)

```
Normally, any type variable appearing on the right must also appear on the left:

data Worker x y = Worker {buffer :: b, input :: x, output :: y}

This is an error, since the type b of the buffer is not specified on the right

(b is a type variable rather than a type)

but also is not specified on the left (there's no b in the left part).

In Haskell98, you would have to write data Worker b x y = Worker {buffer :: b, input :: x, output :: y}
```

Hiding a type variable (3)

However, suppose that a **Worker** can use any type **b** so long as it belongs to some particular class.

Then every **function** that uses a **Worker** will have a type like

foo :: (Buffer b) => Worker b Int Int

In particular, failing to write an **explicit type signature** (Buffer b) will invoke the dreaded monomorphism restriction.

Using existential types, we can avoid this:

Hiding a type variable (4)

```
Using existential type:

data Worker x y = forall b. Buffer b => Worker {buffer :: b, input :: x, output :: y}

foo :: Worker Int Int

The type of the buffer (Buffer) now does not appear
in the Worker type at all. Worker x y

Explicit type signature :

data Worker b x y = Worker {buffer :: b, input :: x, output :: y}

foo :: (Buffer b) => Worker b Int Int
```

Hiding a type variable (5)

- it is now <u>impossible</u> for a function to demand a Worker having a <u>specific type</u> of buffer.
- the type of foo can now be <u>derived automatically</u> without needing an <u>explicit</u> type signature.
 (No monomorphism restriction.)
- since code now has no idea
 what type the buffer function returns,
 you are more limited in what you can do to it.

```
data Worker x y = forall b. Buffer b => Worker {buffer :: b, input :: x, output :: y}
foo :: Worker Int Int
```

Hiding a type variable (6)

In general, when you use a **hidden type** in this way, you will usually want that **type** to belong to a **specific class**, or you will want to **pass some functions** along that can work on that type.

Otherwise you'll have some value belonging to a **random unknown type**, and you won't be able to do anything to it!

Less specific types (1)

Note: You can use existential types

to convert a more specific type

into a **less specific one**.

constrained type variables

There is no way to perform the reverse conversion!

Less specific types (2)

```
This illustrates creating a heterogeneous list,
all of whose members implement "Show",
and progressing through that list to show these items:

data Obj = forall a. (Show a) => Obj a

xs :: [Obj]
xs = [Obj 1, Obj "foo", Obj 'c']

doShow :: [Obj] -> String
doShow [] = ""
doShow ((Obj x):xs) = show x ++ doShow xs
```

With output: doShow xs ==> "1\"foo\"'c"

Existentials in terms of forall (1)

It is also possible to <u>express existentials</u> with RankNTypes as **type expressions** <u>directly</u> (without a **data** declaration)

(the leading forall r. is optional unless the expression is part of another expression).

the equivalent type **Obj**:

data Obj = forall a. (Show a)
$$\Rightarrow$$
 Obj a

Existentials in terms of **forall** (2)

The conversions are:

```
fromObj :: Obj -> forall r. (forall a. Show a => a -> r) -> r fromObj (Obj x) k = k x
```

Existentials

Existential types, or 'existentials' for short, provide a way of 'squashing' <u>a group of types</u> into one, <u>single type</u>.

Existentials are part of GHC's type system **extensions**.

They aren't part of Haskell98, and as such you'll have

to either compile any code that contains them with an extra command-line parameter of

-XExistentialQuantification,

or put at the top of your sources that use existentials.

{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification #-}

forall type variables

Example: A polymorphic function

map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]

Example: Explicitly quantifying the type variables

map :: forall a b. (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]

instantiating the general type of map to a more specific type

a = Int and b = String
(Int -> String) -> [Int] -> [String]

Example: Two equivalent type statements

id :: a -> a

id :: forall a . a -> a

Type hider

Suppose we have a group of values.

they may not be all the <u>same</u> **type**, but they are all <u>members</u> of some **class** thus, they have a certain **property**

It might be useful to throw all these values into a list.

normally this is impossible because lists elements

must be of the same type

(homogeneous with respect to types).

existential types allow us to <u>loosen</u> this requirement by defining a **type hider** or **type box**:

data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s

heteroList :: [ShowBox]

heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]

Heterogeneous list example (1)

```
data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s
```

-- type hider

heteroList :: [ShowBox]

heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]

[SB (), SB 5, SB True] calls the constructor

on three values of different types,

to place them all into a single list

virtually the same type for each one.

Use the **forall** in the constructor

SB:: forall s. Show s => s -> ShowBox.

Heterogeneous list example (2)

data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s

heteroList :: [ShowBox]

heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]

When passing **heteroList** type parameters to a function we cannot take out the **values** inside the **SB** because their type might **Bool**. **Int**, **Char**, ...

But each of the elements can be converted to a string via show.

In fact, that's the only thing we know about them.

Heterogeneous list example (3)

```
instance Show ShowBox where
show (SB s) = show s

f :: [ShowBox] -> IO ()
f xs = mapM_ print xs

main = f heteroList
```

Heterogeneous list example (4)

```
Example: Using our heterogeneous list instance Show ShowBox where show (SB s) = show s -- (*) see the comment in the text below f :: [ShowBox] -> IO () f xs = mapM_ print xs main = f heteroList

Example: Types of the functions involved print :: Show s => s -> IO () -- print x = putStrLn (show x) mapM_ :: (a -> m b) -> [a] -> m () mapM_ print :: Show s => [s] -> IO ()
```

mapM, mapM_, and map (1)

```
The core idea is that mapM maps
an "action" (ie function of type a -> m b) over a list and
gives you all the results as m [b]

mapM_ does the same thing,
but never collects the results, returning a m ().

If you care about the results
    of your a -> m b function, use mapM.

If you only care about the effect,
    but not the resulting value,
    use mapM_, because it can be more efficient
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/27609062/what-is-the-difference-between-mapm-and-mapm-in-haskell/27609146

mapM, mapM_, and map (2)

```
Always use mapM_ with functions of the type a -> m (),
    like print or putStrLn.
    these functions return () to signify that only the effect matters.

If you used mapM, you'd get a list of () (ie [(), (), ()]),
    which would be completely useless
    but waste some memory.

If you use mapM_, you would just get a (),
    but it would still print everything.
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/27609062/what-is-the-difference-between-mapm-and-mapm-in-haskell/27609146

mapM, mapM_, and map (3)

```
Normal map is something different:
```

it takes a normal function (a -> b) instead of one using a monad (a -> m b).

This means that it <u>cannot</u> have any sort of <u>effect</u> besides returning the <u>changed list</u>.

You would use it if you want to transform a list using a normal function.

map_doesn't exist because, since you don't have any effects, you always care about the results of using map.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/27609062/what-is-the-difference-between-mapm-and-mapm-in-haskell/27609146

A set of possible values

One way to think about **forall** is to consider **types** as <u>a set of possible **values**</u>.

Bool is the set {True, False, \bot } (remember that **bottom**, \bot , is a member of every type!),

Integer is the set of integers (and bottom),

String is the set of all possible strings (and bottom), and so on.

Intersection of the specified types

forall serves as a way to assert a **commonality** or **intersection** of the <u>specified types</u> (i.e. sets of values).

forall a. a is the intersection of all types.

this **subset** turns out to be the set $\{\bot\}$, since it is an implicit value in every **type**.

that is, [the **type** whose only available **value** is **bottom**]

However, since every Haskell **type** includes bottom, $\{\bot\}$, this quantification in fact stipulates <u>all Haskell **types**</u>.

But the <u>only permissible operations</u> on it are those available to [a **type** whose <u>only available value is **bottom**]</u>

A list of bottoms type (1)

```
1. The list [forall a. a]
2. The list [forall a. Show a => a]
3. The list [forall a. Num a => a]
4. The list forall a. [a]
a list of bottoms. [上],[上,上],...
```

A list of bottoms type (2)

```
The list, [forall a. a], is the type of a list
whose elements all have the type forall a. a, i.e.
a list of bottoms. [⊥], [⊥, ⊥], ...

The list, [forall a. Show a => a], is the type of a list
whose elements all have the type forall a. Show a => a.

the Show class constraint requires the possible types
also to be a member of the class, Show.

However, ⊥ is still the only value common to all these types, {⊥},
so this too is a list of bottoms. [forall a. a]
```

A list of bottoms type (3)

The list, [forall a. Num a => a], requires each element to be a member of the class, Num.

Consequently, the possible values include **numeric literals**, which have the specific type, **forall a. Num a => a**, as well as **bottom**.

forall a. [a] is the type of the list whose elements all have the same type a.

since we <u>cannot</u> presume any <u>particular</u> <u>type</u> at all, this too is <u>a list of bottoms</u>.

Intersections over types

most intersections over types just lead to bottoms \pm \pm \pm \pm \pm \pm \text{types} generally \frac{don't}{don't} have \text{any values in common} \text{presumptions cannot} be made about a union of their values.

a heterogeneous list using a type hider

type hider' functions as a wrapper type

which guarantees certain facilities

by implying a predicate or constraint on the permissible types.

the <u>purpose</u> of **forall** is to impose **type constraint**on the <u>permissible</u> types within a **type declaration**<u>quaranteeing</u> certain <u>facilities</u> with such types.

data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s

heteroList :: [ShowBox]

heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]

Summary of heterogeneous list examples (1)

An existential datatype

data T = forall a. MkT a

This defines a polymorphic constructor,

or a family of constructors for T

MkT :: forall a. $(a \rightarrow T)$

Pattern matching on our existential constructor

foo (MkT x) = ... -- what is the type of x?

Constructing the hetereogeneous list

heteroList = [MkT 5, MkT (), MkT True, MkT map]

data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s

heteroList :: [ShowBox]

heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]

Summary of heterogeneous list examples (2)

```
A new existential data type, with a class constraint
data T' = forall a. Show a => MkT' a
data T = forall a. MkT a
Using our new heterogenous setup
heteroList' = [MkT' 5, MkT' (), MkT' True, MkT' "Sartre"]
main = \frac{\text{mapM}}{\text{main}} = \frac{\text{(}(MkT'x) -> print x)}{\text{heteroList'}}
{- prints:
 5
()
True
"Sartre"
-}
```

State and ST monads

the **ST** monad is essentially

a more powerful version of the **State** monad:

It was originally written to provide Haskell with IO.

IO is basically just a State monad

with an environment of all the information about the real world.

In fact, inside GHC at least, ST is used,

and the <u>environment</u> is a **type** called **RealWorld**.

To get out of the State / ST monad,

use runState / runST

runST – rank-2 polymorphism

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

This is actually an example of rank-2 polymorphism

a forall appearing <u>within</u> the <u>left-hand</u> side of (->) <u>cannot</u> be moved up, and therefore forms another level or **rank** therefore, there are **2 levels** of universal quantification.

runST – initial state

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

there is **no parameter** for the **initial state** ... **s**

Indeed, **ST** uses a different notion of <u>state</u> to **State**;

State allows you to get and put the current state,

ST provides an interface to references

runST – reference interfaces

To <u>create</u> **references** of the type **STRef**

newSTRef :: a -> ST s (STRef s a)

To provide an initial value

readSTRef :: STRef s a -> ST s a

To manipulate them.

writeSTRef :: STRef s a -> a -> ST s ()

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

runST – a mapping

```
the internal environment of a ST computation
is not one specific value,
but a mapping from references to values. ... (STRef s a)

newSTRef :: a -> ST s (STRef s a)

No need to provide an initial state to runST,
as the initial state is just the empty mapping ... ()
containing no references.

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a
```

runST – no specific references

It is not allowed

to create a **reference** in one **ST** computation, then to use the created **reference** in another **ST** computation. for reasons of thread-safety

because <u>no ST computation</u> should be allowed to assume that the initial internal environment contains <u>any specific</u> references.

runST

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

newSTRef :: a -> ST s (STRef s a)

readSTRef :: STRef s a -> ST s a

Example: Bad ST code

let v = runST (newSTRef True) ... one **ST** computation

in runST (readSTRef v) ... another ST computation

Example: Briefer bad ST code

... runST (newSTRef True) ...

newSTRef True :: ST s (STRef s a)

runST (newSTRef True) :: STRef s a

v:: STRefsa

readSTRef v :: ST s a

runST (readSTRef v) :: a

runST

runST

Example: Briefer bad ST code

... runST (newSTRef True) ...

Example: The compiler's typechecking stage

newSTRef True :: forall s. ST s (STRef s Bool)

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

runST (newSTRef True) ::

(forall s. ST s (STRef s Bool)) -> STRef s Bool

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

newSTRef :: a -> ST s (STRef s a)

readSTRef :: STRef s a -> ST s a

The importance of the forall in the first bracket is that we can change the name of the s.

```
runST (newSTRef True) ::
```

```
(forall s. ST s (STRef s Bool)) -> STRef s Bool
```

Example: A type mismatch!

```
(forall s'. ST s' (STRef s' Bool)) -> STRef s Bool
```

This is similar to \forall x . x > 5 is precisely the same as \forall y . y > 5 giving the variable a different label.

```
Example: A type mismatch!
```

```
(forall s'. ST s' (STRef s' Bool)) -> STRef s Bool
```

Notice that as the **forall** does <u>not</u> scope over the return type of **runST**, **STRef** s Bool we don't rename the there as well.

But suddenly, we've got a **type mismatch!**

The result type of the ST computation in the **first parameter** must match the **result type** of **runST**, but now it doesn't!

```
(forall s'. ST s' (STRef s' Bool)) -> STRef s Bool
```

The key feature of the **existential** is that it allows the compiler to **generalise** the **type** of the **state** in the **first parameter**, and so the **result type** <u>cannot depend</u> on it.

This neatly <u>sidesteps</u> our **dependence problems**,

'compartmentalises' each call to runST

into its own little heap,

with references not being able

to be <u>shared</u> between different calls.

Quantified Types as Products and Sums

A universally quantified type may be interpreted as an infinite product of types.

Example: Identity function

id:: forall a. a -> a

ida = a

a **polymorphic function** can be understood as a **product**, or a **tuple**, of **individual functions**, one per every possible **type a**.

To construct a **value** of such **type**, we have to <u>provide</u> <u>all</u> the **components** of the **tuple** <u>at once</u>.

-- one formula generating an infinity of functions

Quantified Types as Products and Sums

In case of function types, this is possible because of polymorphism -- one formula generating an infinity of functions.

Example: Polymorphic value

x :: forall a. Num a => a

x = 0

x may be conceptualized as a tuple consisting of an Int value, a Double value, etc.

Quantified Types as Products and Sums

Similarly, an existentially quantified type may be interpreted as an infinite sum. For instance,

Example: Existential type

data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s

may be conceptualized as a sum:

Example: Sum type

data ShowBox = SBUnit | SBInt Int | SBBool Bool | SBIntList [Int] | ...

to construct a value of this type,

we only have to pick one of the constructors.

A polymorphic constructor SB combines all those constructors into one.

```
{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification, RankNTypes #-}
```

newtype Pair a b = Pair (forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c)

makePair :: a -> b -> Pair a b

makePair a b = Pair \$ \f -> f a b

```
\lambda> :set -XExistentialQuantification
λ> :set -XRankNTypes
\lambda newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c}
\lambda> makePair a b = Pair $ \f -> f a b
\lambda> pair = makePair "a" 'b'
λ> :t pair
pair :: Pair [Char] Char
\lambda runPair pair (\chi y -> x)
"a"
\lambda> runPair pair (\lambda y -> y)
'b'
```

forall – quantifier (1)

quantifier in predicate calculus

type quantifier polymorphic types

to encode a type in **type isomorphism**

Isomorphism

from . to = id

forall – quantifier (2) type isomorphism

the class of **isomorphic types**, i.e. those which can be **cast** to each other without loss of information.

type isomorphism is an equivalence relation (reflexive, symmetric, transitive), but due to the limitations of the type system, only reflexivity is implemented for all types

Isomorphism

from . to = id

forall – quantifier (3)

```
foo :: (forall a. a -> a) -> (Char, Bool)

bar :: forall a. ((a -> a) -> (Char, Bool))

To call bar, any type a can be chosen,
and it is possible to pass a function from type a to type a.
```

the function (+1) or the function reverse.

the **forall** is considered to be as saying

"I get to pick the type now". (instantiating.)

forall – quantifier (4)

```
foo :: (forall a. a -> a) -> (Char, Bool)
bar :: forall a. ((a -> a) -> (Char, Bool))
```

The restrictions on calling **foo** are much more <u>stringent</u>: the argument to **foo** <u>must</u> be a **polymorphic function**.

With <u>that</u> **type**, the only functions that can be passed to **foo** are **id** or a **function** that always **diverges** or **errors**, like **undefined**.

forall – quantifier (5)

```
foo :: (forall a. a -> a) -> (Char, Bool)
bar :: forall a. ((a -> a) -> (Char, Bool))
```

The reason is that with **foo**, the **forall** is to the **left of the arrow**, so as the **caller** of **foo** I don't get to pick what **a** is —rather it's the **implementation** of **foo** that gets to pick what **a** is.

Because forall is to the left of the arrow, rather than above the arrow as in bar, the instantiation takes place in the body of the function rather than at the call site.

forall – quantifier (6) above, below, left

```
Jargon "above", "below", "to the left of".

nothing to do with the textual ways types are written everything to do with abstract-syntax trees.
```

In the abstract syntax,

- a forall takes the name of a type variable,
 and then there is a full type "below" the forall.
- an arrow takes two types (argument and result type)
 and forms a new type (the function type).
- the argument type is "to the left of" the arrow;
- it is the arrow's left child in the abstract-syntax tree.

forall – quantifier (7)

```
forall a . [a] -> [a],
the forall is above the arrow;
what's to the left of the arrow is [a].

forall n f e x . (mail e x . n e x -> f -> Fact x f)
-> Block n e x -> f -> Fact x f

(forall e x . n e x -> f -> Fact x f)
the type in parentheses would be called
"a forall to the left of an arrow".
```

foo :: a -> a (1)

foo :: a -> a

given this type signature, there is <u>only one</u> function that can satisfy this type and the identity function **id**.

foo 5 = 6

foo True = False

they both satisfy the above type signature, then why do Haskell folks claim that it is **id** <u>alone</u> which satisfies the type signature?

foo :: a -> a (2)

That is because there is an implicit forall hidden in the type signature.

id:: forall a. a -> a

Constraints liberate, liberties constrain

A constraint at the **type level**, becomes a **liberty** at the **term level**

A liberty at the type level,

becomes a constraint at the term level

foo :: $a \rightarrow a (3)$

A **constraint** at the **type** level..

So putting a constraint on our type signature

foo :: (Num a) => a -> a

becomes a **liberty** at the term level gives us the liberty or flexibility to write all of these

foo 5 = 6

foo 4 = 2

foo 7 = 9

. . .

Same can be observed by constraining a with any other typeclass etc

A constraint at the **type level**, becomes a **liberty** at the **term level**

foo :: a -> a (4)

foo :: (Num a) \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow a translates to

 $\exists a$, st $a \rightarrow a$, $\forall a \in Num$

existential quantification

which translates to there exists some instances of \mathbf{a} for which a function of $\mathbf{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}$ and those instances all belong to the set of **Numbers**.

adding a **constraint** (**a** should belong to the set of **Nnumbers**), **liberates** the **term** level to have multiple possible implementations.

A constraint at the **type level**, becomes a liberty at the **term level**

foo :: a -> a (5)

the explanation of **forall**:

So now let us **liberate** the the **function** at the **type** level:

foo :: forall a. a -> a translates to:

∀a, a -> a

the **implementation** of this type signature should be such that it is **a** -> **a** for all circumstances.

A liberty at the **type level**, becomes a **constraint** at the **term level**

foo :: a -> a (6)

So now this starts **constraining** us at the **term** level.

We can no longer write

5005 = 7

because this **implementation** would <u>not</u> satisfy when a **Bool** type value is passed to **foo**

this is because

it should return something of the similar type.

a can be a Char or a [Char] or a custom datatype.

A liberty at the **type level**, becomes a **constraint** at the **term level**

foo :: a -> a(7)

 $\forall a, a \rightarrow a$ the **liberty** at the **type** level

foo 5 = 7 a constraint at the **term** level

(impossible implementation)

this **liberty** at the **type** level is what is known as **Universal Quantification**

the only function which can satisfy foo :: forall a. a -> a

foo a = a the identity function

A liberty at the **type level**, becomes a **constraint** at the **term level**

foo :: a -> a (8)

Runar Bjarnason titled "Constraints Liberate, Liberties Constrain".

CONSTRAINTS LIBERATE, LIBERTIES CONSTRAIN

Its very important to digest and believe this statement

RunST (1)

```
runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a
```

runST has to be able to produce a value of type a, no matter what type we give as a.

runST uses an argument of type (forall s. ST s a) which certainly must somehow produce the a.

runST must be able to produce a value of type a no matter what type the implementation of runST decides to give as s.

RunST (2)

```
runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a
```

the benefit is that this puts a constraint on the caller of runST in that the **type a** cannot involve the **type s** at all.

you can't pass it a value of type **ST s [s]**, for example.

the <u>implementation</u> of **runST** is <u>free</u> to perform **mutation** with the value of **type s**.

The **type** <u>guarantees</u> that this **mutation** is <u>local</u> to the <u>implementation</u> of **runST**.

RunST: rank-2 polymorphic type

runST :: forall a. (forall s. ST s a) -> a

The **type** of **runST** is an example of a **rank-2 polymorphic type** because the **type** of its **argument** contains a **forall** quantifier.

Existential Quantifiation

```
-- test.hs
{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification #-}
data EQList = forall a. EQList [a]
eqListLen :: EQList -> Int
eqListLen (EQList x) = length x

ghci> :I test.hs
ghci> eqListLen $ EQList ["Hello", "World"]
2
```

Existential Quantifiation

```
ghci> :set -XRankNTypes
ghci> length (["Hello", "World"] :: forall a. [a])

Couldnt match expected type 'a' against inferred type '[Char]'

...

With Rank-N-Types, forall a meant that your expression
must fit all possible as. For example:

ghci> length ([] :: forall a. [a])
0
```

References

- [1] ftp://ftp.geoinfo.tuwien.ac.at/navratil/HaskellTutorial.pdf
- [2] https://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~hal/docs/daume02yaht.pdf