Monad P3 : Existential Types (1D)

1

Copyright (c) 2016 - 2021 Young W. Lim.

Permission is granted to copy, distribute and/or modify this document under the terms of the GNU Free Documentation License, Version 1.2 or any later version published by the Free Software Foundation; with no Invariant Sections, no Front-Cover Texts, and no Back-Cover Texts. A copy of the license is included in the section entitled "GNU Free Documentation License".

Please send corrections (or suggestions) to youngwlim@hotmail.com.

This document was produced by using LibreOffice.

1/30/21

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

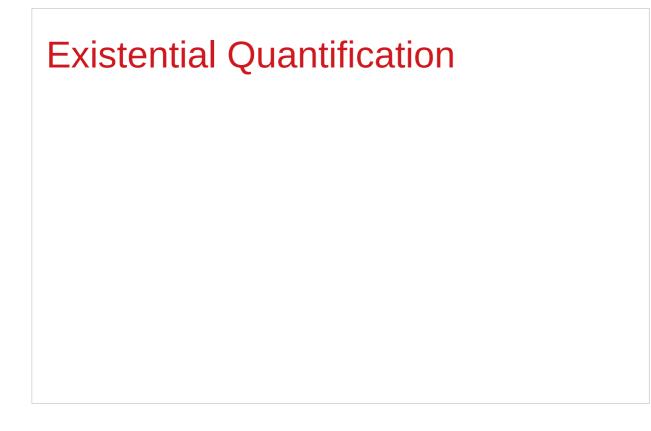
specify types for code inside where clauses

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



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 right-hand side

must also appear on the left-hand side.

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 <u>hide</u> a **type variable** on the <u>right-hand side</u>.

Hiding a type variable (2)

Normally, any type variable appearing <u>on the right</u> must also appear <u>on the left</u>:

```
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** <u>so long as</u> it belongs to some <u>particular</u> **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 <u>no idea</u>
 what **type** the buffer function <u>returns</u>,
 you are more <u>limited</u> 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 <u>more specific</u> type into a <u>less specific</u> 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)
forall r. (forall a. Show a => a -> r) -> r
(the leading forall r. is optional
unless the expression is part of another expression).
the equivalent type Obj :
data Obj = forall a. (Show a) => 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
```

```
toObj :: (forall r. (forall a. Show a => a -> r) -> r) -> Obj
toObj f = f Obj
```

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]

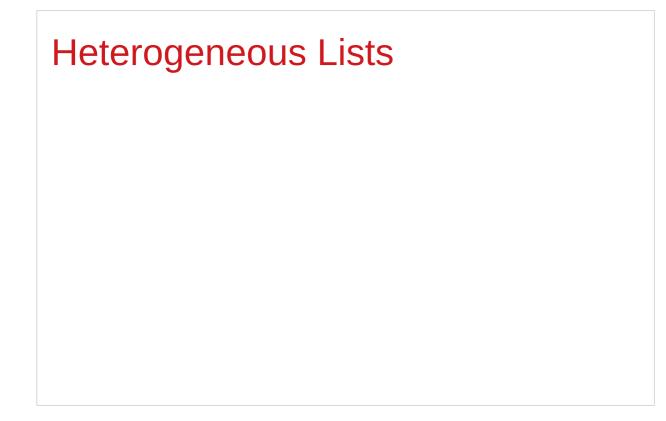
Example: Explicitly quantifying the type variables map :: forall a b. (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]

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



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

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 <u>impossible</u> because lists elements <u>must</u> 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 <u>different types</u> ,	
to place them all into <u>a single list</u>	
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:

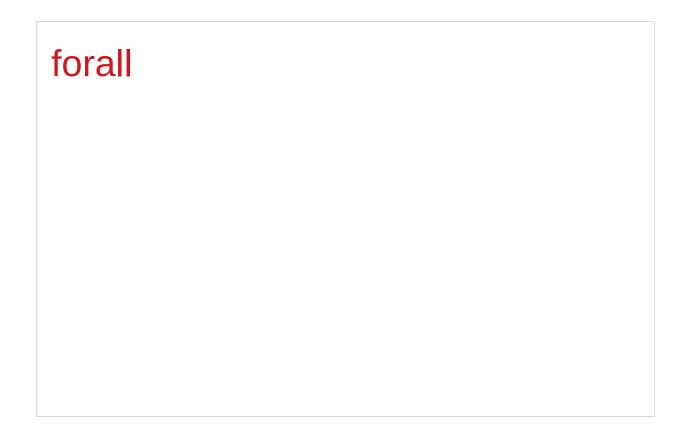
- it takes a normal function (a -> b)
- instead of one using a monad (a -> m b).

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

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

map_ <u>doesn't exist</u> because, since you <u>don't</u> have <u>any effects</u>, you always care about the <u>results</u> of using **map**.

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



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

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 <u>a member of every type</u>!),

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 <u>all types</u>. this **subset** turns out to be the set {上}, since it is an implicit value in <u>every type</u>. 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 only available value is **bottom**]

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. $[\bot], [\bot, \bot], ...$

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. <u>a list of bottoms</u>. $[\bot], [\bot, \bot], ...$

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 <u>also</u> to be **a member of the class**, **Show**.

However, \perp is still the only value common to all these types, $\{\perp\}$, so this too is <u>a list of bottoms</u>. [forall a. a]

A list of bottoms type (3)

The list, **[forall a. Num a => a]**, requires each element

to be <u>a member of the class</u>, **Num**.

Consequently, the possible values include numeric literals, which have the specific type, forall a. Num $a \Rightarrow a$, 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** $\bot \bot \bot \bot$ **types** generally <u>don't</u> have **any values in common** <u>presumptions cannot</u> be made about a **union of their values**.

a heterogeneous list using a type hider

type hider' <u>functions</u> 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>guaranteeing</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 -> T)
```

```
Pattern matching on our existential constructor
foo (MkT x) = ... -- what is the type of x?
```

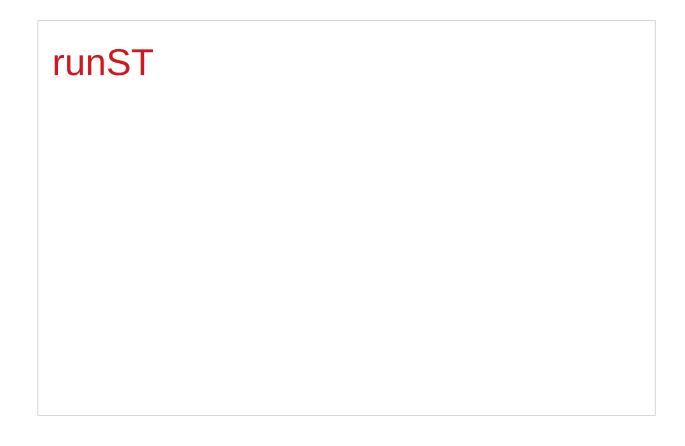
```
Constructing the hetereogeneous list
heteroList = [MkT 5, MkT (), MkT True, MkT map]
```

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 \Rightarrow MkT' a
data T = forall a. MkT a
Using our new heterogenous setup
heteroList' = [MkT' 5, MkT' (), MkT' True, MkT' "Sartre"]
main = mapM_ (\(MkT' x) -> print x) heteroList'
{- prints:
5
()
True
"Sartre"
-}
```



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

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 <u>environment</u> 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 left-hand 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 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 <u>not one specific value</u> ,	
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	0
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</u> **ST** computation 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 :: STRef s a

readSTRef v :: ST s a runST (readSTRef v) :: a

runST

Example: Bad ST code let v = runST (newSTRef True) in runST (readSTRef v)

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

the **rank-2 polymorphism** in **runST**'s type to <u>constrain</u> the scope of the **type variable s** to be <u>within the first parameter</u> (the left hand side of ->)

if the **type variable s** appears in the <u>first parameter</u> it <u>cannot</u> also appear in the <u>second</u>. (the right hand side of ->)

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

forall

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.

forall

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** Sool 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

(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</u> <u>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**.

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

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

To <u>construct</u> 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

Example: Identity function

id :: forall a. a -> a

id a = a

a polymorphic function can be understood as a product, or a tuple, of individual functions, one per every possible type a. Int -> Int, Double -> Double, ... Char -> Char, [Char] -> [Char], ...

•••

•••

To <u>construct</u> a **value** of such **type**, we have

to provide all the components of the tuple at once.

in case of **numeric types**, <u>one</u> **numeric constant** may be used to <u>initialize</u> **many types** <u>at once</u>.

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.



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

Example: Existential type data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s

may be conceptualized as a sum:

Example: Existential type

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

Example: Sum type

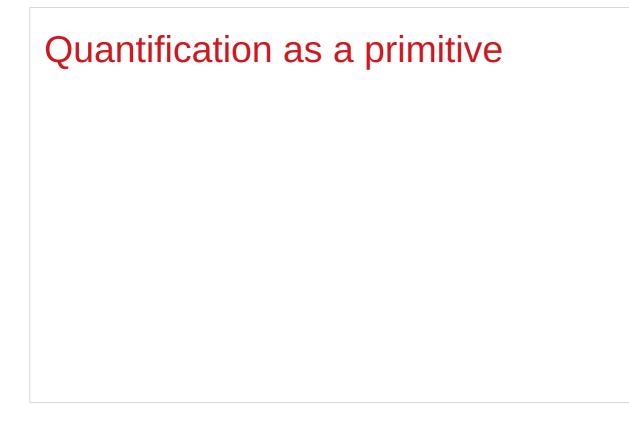
data ShowBox = SBUnit | SBInt Int | SBBool Bool | SBIntList [Int] | ...

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.



Pair type example (1)

Universal quantification is useful
for <u>defining</u> data types that aren't already defined.
Suppose there was no such thing as pairs built into haskell.
Quantification could be used to <u>define</u> them.

{-# 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
```

Pair type example (2)

In GHCI

 λ > :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'
```

Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b' \f : function itself

f "a" 'b' : function application result

f :: a -> b -> c

Pair type example (3)

 $\lambda > \text{newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c}}$ $\lambda > \text{makePair a b = Pair $ \f -> f a b}$ $\lambda > \text{pair = makePair "a" 'b'}$ $\lambda > \text{it pair}$ pair :: Pair [Char] Char $\lambda > \text{runPair pair (\x y -> x)} \qquad \text{pair}$ "a" $\lambda > \text{runPair pair (\x y -> y)}$ 'b'

pair = makePair "a" 'b' makePair "a" 'b' Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b' pair (\x y -> x) Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b' f = (\x y -> x) f "a" 'b' = "a"

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 <u>at the **call** site</u>.

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 <u>forms</u> 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 . (forall 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 -> 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

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

A constraint at the type level,

becomes a liberty at the term level

foo :: a -> a (4)

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

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

existential quantification

which translates to there exists some instances of **a** for which a function of **a** -> **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: $\forall a, a -> a$

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

foo 5 = 7

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

this is because

under all circumstances $\forall a, a \rightarrow a$

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 :: 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** <u>cannot</u> 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** <u>contains</u> 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