Monad P3 : Existential Types (1D)

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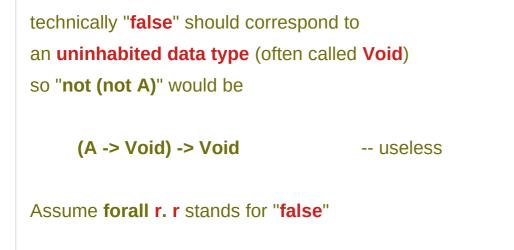
Haskell in 5 steps

https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps

Haskell quantification

- the things being <u>quantified</u> <u>over</u> are **types** (ignoring certain language extensions, at least),
- logical statements are also types
- a "true" logical statement as "can be implemented".
- technically "false" should correspond to an uninhabited data type (often called Void)

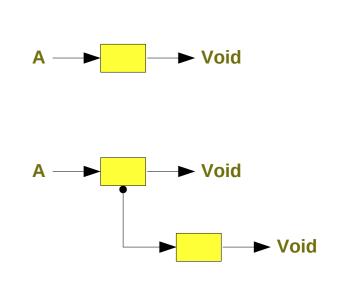
Logical negation and forall



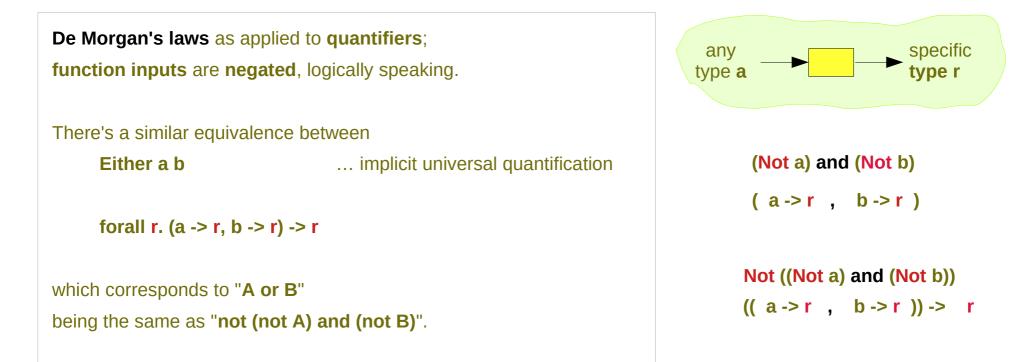
forall r. (A -> r) -> r

- -- can extract the **A** value, i.e.
- -- double-negation elimination.

using **r** instead of **Void** lets us <u>get values back out</u>.



De Morgan's law and forall



Logical double negation and continuation passing style

```
Look up the connection between logical double-negation
and continuation-passing style if you want to know more
Due to duality, exists a. a can be expressed as
```

forall r. (forall a. a -> r) -> r

Due to duality, forall a. a can be expressed as

```
exists r. (exists a. a -> r) -> r
```

```
map ($ 2) [ (2*), (4*), (8*) ]
```

```
[ (2*) $ 2, (4*) $ 2, (8*) $ 2 ]
```

[4,8,16]

map (*2) [2, 4, 8]

[(*2) 2, (*2) 4, (*2) 8]

```
map ($ 2) [ (2*), (4*), (8*) ]
[4,8,16]
```

map (*2) [2, 4, 8]

The **(\$) section** makes the code <u>appear backwards</u>, as if we are <u>applying</u> a **value** to the **functions** rather than the other way around.

such an **reversal** is at heart of continuation passing style!

From a CPS perspective, (\$ 2) is a suspended computation:

a function with general type

(a -> r) -> r

given another function as argument,

produces a final result.

the **a** -> **r** argument is the **continuation**; it specifies <u>how</u> the computation will be brought to a <u>conclusion</u>.

map (\$ 2) [(2*), (4*), (8*)]

the **functions** in the list are supplied as **continuations** via **map**, producing three distinct results.

note that suspended computations are largely <u>interchangeable</u> with plain values: **flip (\$)** converts any **value** into a suspended computation, and passing **id** as its **continuation** gives back the original value.

They make it possible to explicitly <u>manipulate</u>, and dramatically <u>alter</u>, the **control flow** of a program.

For instance, returning early from a procedure can be implemented with **continuations**. Exceptions and failure can also be handled with **continuations**

- pass in a **continuation** for success,
- another continuation for fail,
- and invoke the appropriate continuation.

Other possibilities include <u>suspending a computation</u> and returning to it at another time, and implementing simple forms of **concurrency**

(notably, one Haskell implementation, Hugs, uses continuations to implement cooperative concurrency).

In Haskell, **continuations** can be used in a similar fashion, for implementing interesting **control flow** in **monads**.

Note that there usually are alternative techniques for such use cases, especially in tandem with **laziness**.

In some circumstances, **CPS** can be used to improve performance by <u>eliminating</u> certain **construction-pattern matching sequences** (i.e. a **function** <u>returns</u> a **complex structure** which the caller will at some point <u>deconstruct</u>), though a sufficiently smart compiler should be able to do the elimination

An elementary way to take advantage of continuations is to modify our functions so that they return suspended computations rather than ordinary values.

We will illustrate how that is done with two simple examples

Example: A simple module, no continuations

-- We assume some primitives add and square for the example:

```
add :: Int -> Int -> Int
```

```
add x y = x + y
```

square :: Int -> Int

```
square x = x * x
```

```
pythagoras :: Int -> Int -> Int
pythagoras x y = add (square x) (square y)
```

Example: A simple module, using continuations

- -- We assume CPS versions of the add and square primitives,
- -- (note: the actual definitions of add_cps and square_cps are not
- -- in CPS form, they just have the correct type)

```
add_cps :: Int -> Int -> ((Int -> r) -> r)
add_cps x y = k -> k (add x y)
```

```
square_cps :: Int -> ((Int -> r) -> r)
square_cps x = k -> k (square x)
```

```
pythagoras_cps :: Int -> Int -> ((Int -> r) -> r)
```

pythagoras_cps x y = \k ->

```
square_cps x $ \x_squared ->
```

```
square_cps y $ \y_squared ->
```

```
add_cps x_squared y_squared $ k
```

fact x =

```
if x <= 1 then 1 else x * fact (x - 1)
```

fact 4

4 * fact 3

4 * (3 * fact 2)

4 * (3 * (2 * fact 1))

4 * (3 * (2 * 1))

4 * (3 * 2)

4 * 6

24

Each call of fact is made with the promise that the value returned will be multiplied by the value of the parameter at the time of the call.

Thus fact is invoked with larger and larger control contexts as the calculation proceeds.

https://www.seas.upenn.edu/~cis552/13fa/lectures/FunCont.html

fact_cps x k =

if x <= 1 then k 1 else fact_cps (x - 1) (\v -> k (x * v))

```
fact_cps 4 id
fact_cps 3 (v \rightarrow id (4 * v))
fact_cps 2 (v' \rightarrow (v \rightarrow id (4 * v)) (3 * v'))
fact_cps 1 (v'' \rightarrow (v \rightarrow id (4 * v)) (3 * v')) (2 * v''))
(v'' \rightarrow (v \rightarrow id (4 * v)) (3 * v')) (2 * v'')) 1
(v' \rightarrow (v \rightarrow id (4 * v)) (3 * v')) (2 * 1)
(v \rightarrow id (4 * v)) (3 * (2 * 1))
id (4 * (3 * (2 * 1)))
(4 * (3 * (2 * 1)))
24
```

using 'id' as the first continuation.

https://www.seas.upenn.edu/~cis552/13fa/lectures/FunCont.html

the **control context** is made explicit in the continuation argument to **fact_cps**. we <u>never</u> have a call to **fact_cps** that is the argument to some other computation.

Instead, each step remembers what to do with the result as a first-class function.

At the bottom of the recursion, these continuations are evaluated.

Existential Types (1D)



When is a function written in continuation passing style?

No function call is <u>allowed</u> to <u>return</u> to its caller, ever.

Instead, it must always <u>pass</u> its <u>result</u> directly to an <u>explicit continuation</u>.

https://www.seas.upenn.edu/~cis552/13fa/lectures/FunCont.html

Every function <u>takes</u> an **extra argument** (a **callback**) and <u>passes</u> its **return value** this callback.

When a function is <u>ready to "return"</u>, it <u>invokes</u> the "**current continuation**" **callback** (provided by its caller) on the return value.

When calling functions written in **CPS-style**, **callers** must also <u>provide</u> the "**continuation**", i.e. a **function** that says <u>what to do</u> with the <u>result</u> of the **function call**.

https://www.seas.upenn.edu/~cis552/13fa/lectures/FunCont.html

Existential types and forall

forall r. (a -> r) -> r

```
forall r. (forall a. a -> r) -> r
```

exists a. a

```
think a callback function forall a. a -> r
```

forall a. a -> Int

forall a. a -> String

forall a. a -> Double

a caller chooses **type r**

The **caller** of the <u>overall</u> function (a -> r) -> r chooses any type r

The **body** of the <u>overall</u> function (a -> r) -> r chooses any type a

the **body** of the <u>callback</u> function must handle for all type **a**

id function example

id :: forall a. a -> a id x = x

> for <u>any</u> possible type **a**, a function whose type is **a -> a** <u>can be implemented</u>

quantified over types

a true logical statement

id works for <u>all</u> **a**.

a will unify with (or will be fixed to) <u>any type</u> that <u>caller</u> of **id** may <u>choose</u>. universally quantified type variables in a <u>type signature</u> are existentially quantified in a <u>function body</u>

https://markkarpov.com/post/existential-quantification.html

A type signature and a function body

universally quantified **type variables** in a type signature will be fixed when the corresponding **function** is used (called)

in a <u>type signature</u>, **a** is <u>universally quantified</u> but in the <u>body</u> of the <u>function</u> we <u>know nothing</u> about the **argument a**, we <u>cannot inspect</u> the **argument a**

(a is fixed when the function is used)

id :: forall a. a -> a id x = x

universally quantified type variables existentially quantified in a function body

https://markkarpov.com/post/existential-quantification.html

Lack of information in a function body

universally quantified type variables in a type signature

callers can pass (choose) anything to id

but due to the <u>lack</u> of information about the **argument** in the <u>body</u> of **id**

a <u>caller</u> can only <u>pass</u> a value to **id** without doing anything <u>meaningful</u>

So, id x = x is the <u>only possible</u> function of the type $a \rightarrow a$

id :: forall a. a -> a id x = x

a **caller** <u>chooses</u> values for universally quantified variables

in the **body** of a such function, <u>must handle</u> any type values which is <u>given</u> by a caller : <u>existentially quantified variable</u>

https://markkarpov.com/post/existential-quantification.html

Fictitious syntax *exists a.*

An **existentially quantified type** <u>could</u> be better <u>explained</u> using the fictitious **exists a.** syntax

exists a. a -> a

for <u>a certain</u> **type a**, we <u>can implement</u> a **function** whose type is **a -> a**.

any function will do,

then the "not" function on Bool satisfies the type a -> a

func :: *exists a.* a -> a func True = False func False = True

Function implementations and applications

the function implementation on booleans

func :: exists a. a -> a

func True = False

func False = True

but we cannot <u>use</u> (apply) it as the "**not**" function because <u>all we know</u> about the **type a** is <u>that it exists</u>.

Any <u>information</u> about which type it might be has been discarded (i.e, is not used), this means we can't apply **func** to any values **Existentials** are always about throwing type information away.

sometimes we want to work with **types** that we <u>don't know</u> at compile time.

Existential types and forall

in *pseudo*-Haskell: (exists x. p x x) -> c \approx forall x. p x x -> c a <u>function p</u> that <u>takes</u> an existential type x is equivalent to a polymorphic function using a universal quantifier forall x because the function p must be prepared to handle <u>any one of the types x</u> that may be encoded in the existential type. exists x. Haskell does not need an existential quantifier

Existential types and forall

a function that <u>accepts</u> a **sum type** must be implemented as a **case** statement, with a **tuple of handlers**, one for every type present in the sum.

Here, the sum type is replaced by a coend, and a family of handlers becomes an end, or a polymorphic function.

No direct existential types

This fact brings us back to **universal quantifiers**, and the reason why Haskell <u>doesn't</u> have **existential types** <u>directly</u> (*exists a.* above is entirely fictitious)

since things with **existentially quantified types** can only be used with **operations** that have **universally quantified types**,

- for the callers of myPrettyPrinter
 b is existentially quantified
- in the body of myPrettyPrinter
 b is universally quantified

Parametric polymorphism (1)

universal quantification is the default

any **type variables** in a **type signature** are <u>implicitly</u> universally quantified,

id :: a -> a

id :: forall a. a -> a

also known as **parametric polymorphism** in some other languages (e.g., C#) known as **generics**.

Parametric polymorphism (2)

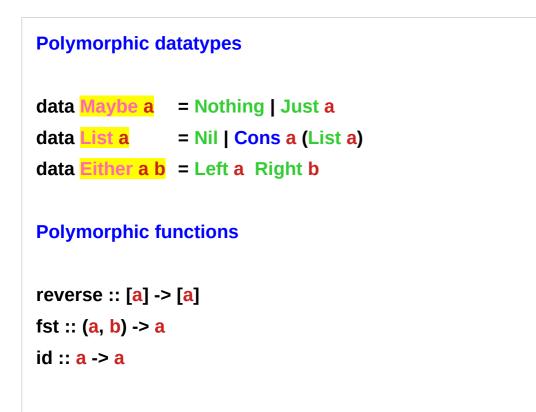
Parametric polymorphism refers to when the type of a value contains one or more (unconstrained) type variables, beginning with a lowercase letter without constraints (nothing to the left of a =>)

so that **the value** may adopt <u>any type</u> that results from <u>substituting</u> those **type variables** with **concrete types**. data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing

Just 2.0 :: Maybe Double Just 'a' :: Maybe Char Just True :: Maybe Boolean

https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism

Parametric polymorphism (3)



Just 2.0 :: Maybe Double Just 'a' :: Maybe Char Just True :: Maybe Boolean

http://sm-haskell-users-group.github.io/pdfs/Ben%20Deane%20-%20Parametric%20Polymorphism.pdf

Parametric polymorphism (4)

Since a **parametrically polymorphic value** does not <u>know</u> <u>anything</u> about the <u>unconstrained</u> **type variables**,

it must behave identically **for all type** (regardless of its **type**) (related to universally quantification)

This is a somewhat limiting but extremely useful property known as **parametricity**.

data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a

reverse :: [a] -> [a]

https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism

Parametric polymorphism (5)

the function id :: a -> a contains an unconstrained type variable a in its type, and so can be used in a context requiring Char -> Char or Integer -> Integer or (Bool -> Maybe Bool) -> (Bool -> Maybe Bool) or

any of a literally infinite list of other possibilities.

if a single **type variable** appears <u>multiple times</u>, it must take the <u>same</u> **type** everywhere it appears

 \rightarrow the result type of id must be the same as the argument type

https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism

Quantified variable choice

A **variable** is universally quantified when the <u>consumer</u> of the variable's expression can choose what it will be.

A variable is existentially quantified

when the <u>consumer</u> of the variable's expression has to deal with the fact that the choice <u>was made</u> for him.

consumers of a function

callersof athe bodyfunctionsuch a function

Universally quantified variable: the <u>consumer chooses</u> a value

Existentially quantified variable: the choice is <u>made</u> for the <u>consumer</u>

Quantified variables with forall

Both universally and existentially quantified variables are introduced with **forall**.

There is no **exists** in Haskell.

In fact, it's not necessary.

Making existentials – hiding type variables



Something :: forall a. a -> Something

one way to have existentials -

by putting values in wrappers

that "hide" type variables from signatures.

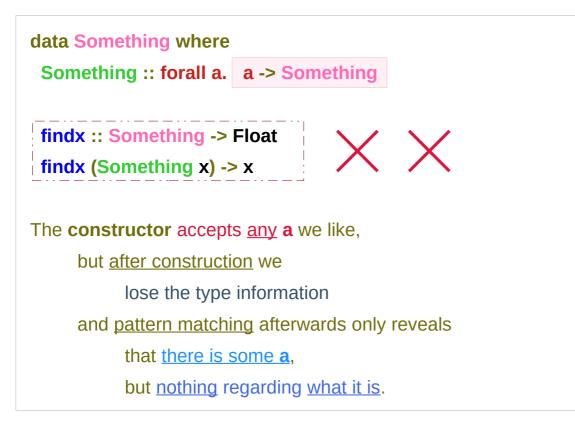
Something a :: Something

the type variable a is hidden in the type Something

Existential wrappers – data and type constructors

data Something where		type constructor data constructor	
Something :: forall a.	a -> Something	data Point a	= Pt a a
Something a ::	Something		
			polymorphic type
Something 2.0 ::	Something	Pt 2.0 3.0	:: Point Float
Something 'a' ::	Something	Pt 'a' 'b'	:: Point Char
Something True ::	Something	Pt True False	:: Point Bool
the constructor function Something return data value of type Something			type constructor + bounded type parameter : a concrete type

Existential wrappers – pattern matching

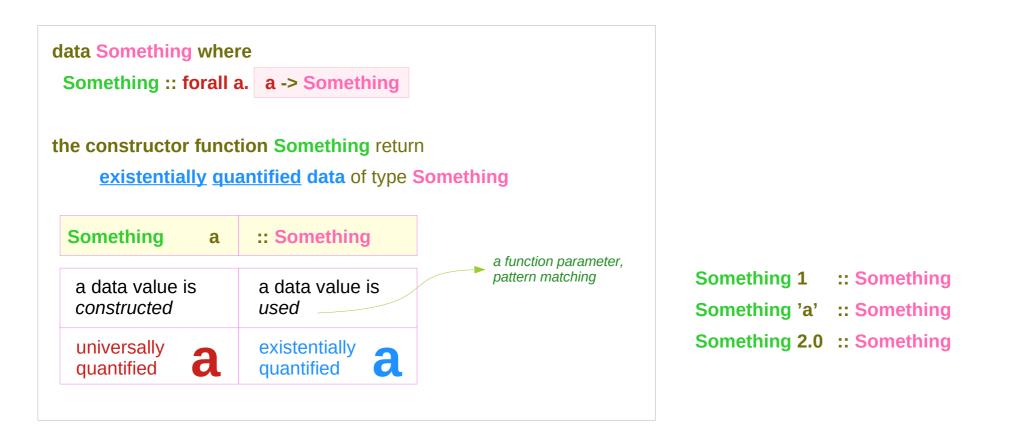


data Point a = Pt a a

pointx :: Point Float -> Float
pointx (Pt x _) = x

pointy :: Point Float -> Float
pointy (Pt _ y) = y

Existential wrappers – constructing and using a value



Returning existentially quantified data

• passing a value to id :	(universally quantified)	
we can <u>pass</u> anything to i	we can <u>pass</u> anything to id but we lack any information	
about the argument in the	e body of id.	
• passing a value to Somet	hing (existentially quantified)	
existential wrappers		
return existentially qua	antified data from a function.	
→ <u>avoid</u> <u>unification</u> of exis	stentials with outer context	
 avoid escaping of type 	variables.	

Returning existentially quantified data

- passing a value to id: (universally quantified) universally quantified variable the <u>consumer chooses</u> id :: forall a. a -> a
- passing a value to Something (existentially quantified)
 existentially quantified variable the choice is <u>made</u> for the <u>consumer</u>

data Something where

Something :: forall a. a -> Something

id Int :: Int id Char :: Char id Double :: Double

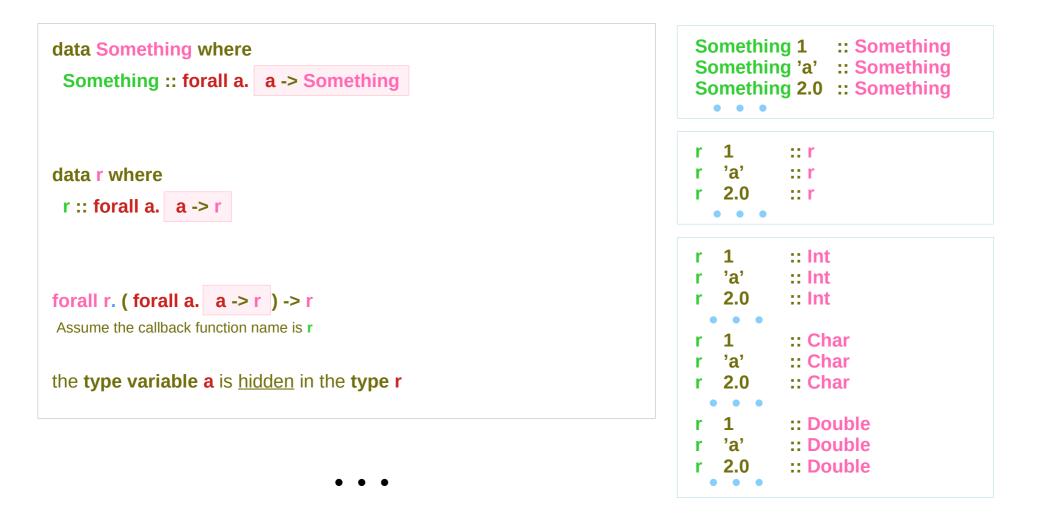
example consumer function foo :: Something -> Int foo x = ...

x :: Something

type variable **a** is already chosen could be one of these

- Something 1 :: Something
- Something 'a' :: Something
- Something 2.0 :: Something

Existential wrappers – similar forms

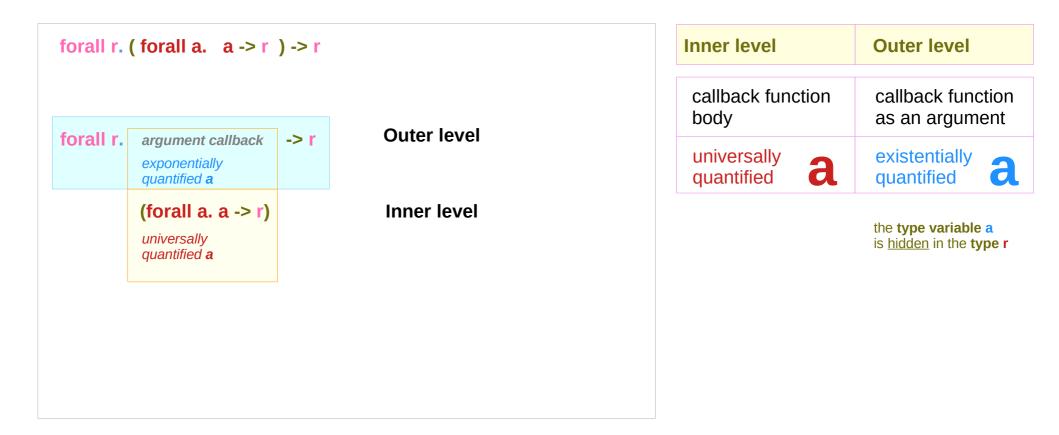


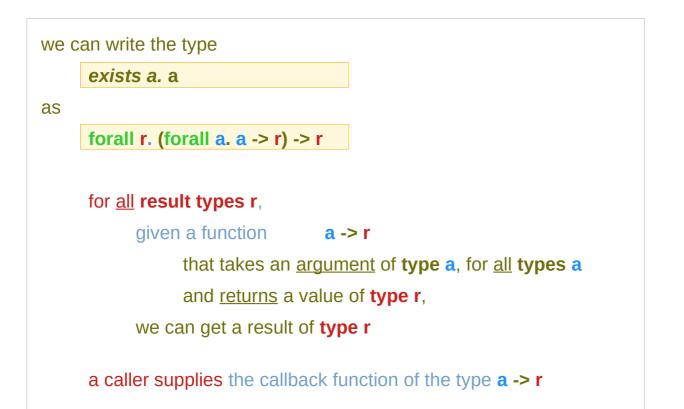
Existential wrappers – similar forms

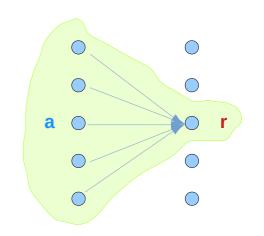


r a:: ra data value is
constructeda data value is
useduniversally
quantifiedaexistentially
quantifiedathe type variable a
is hidden in the type r

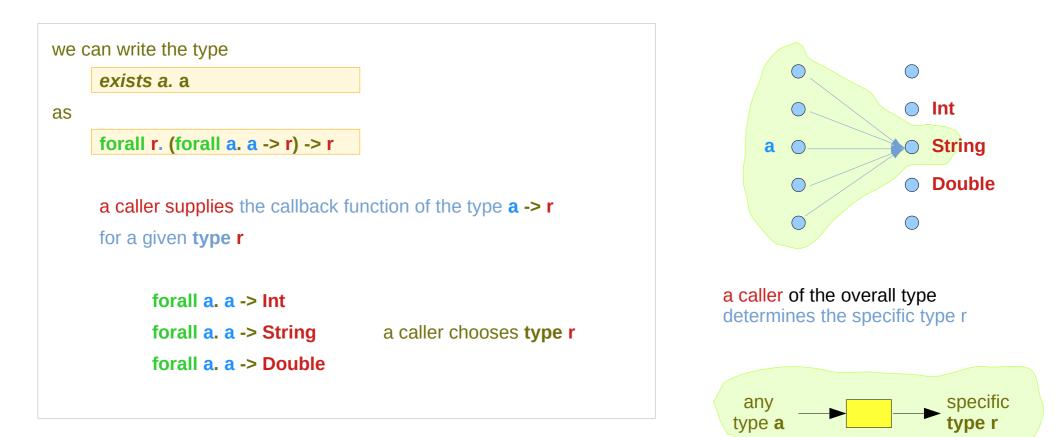
Existential wrappers - rank-2 type

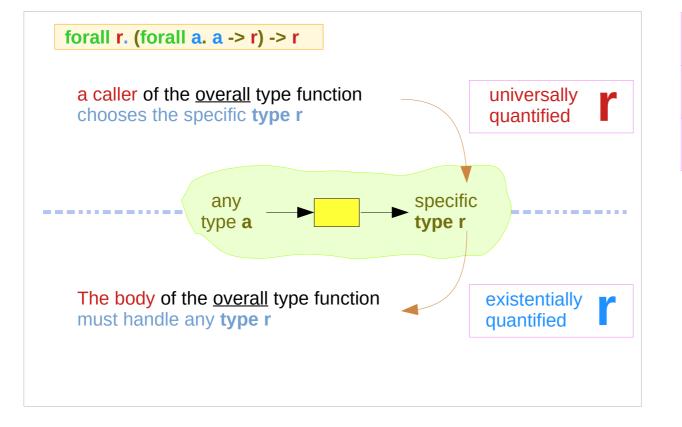




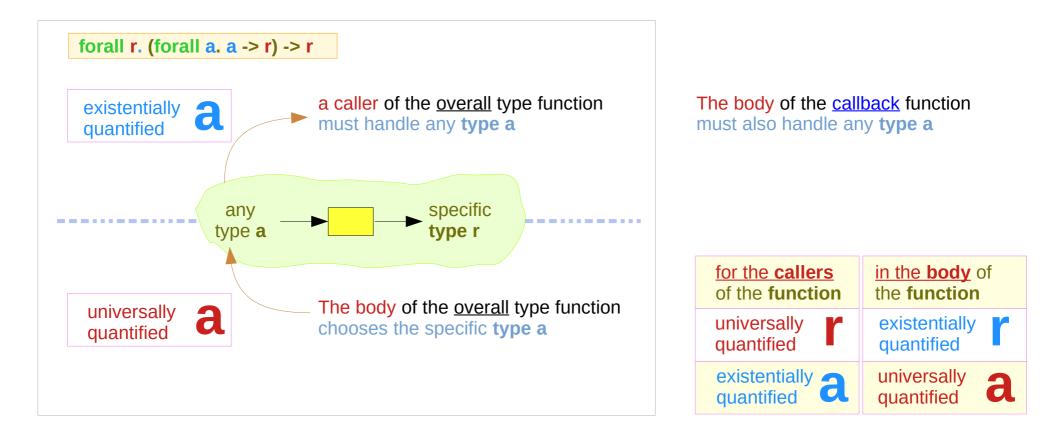


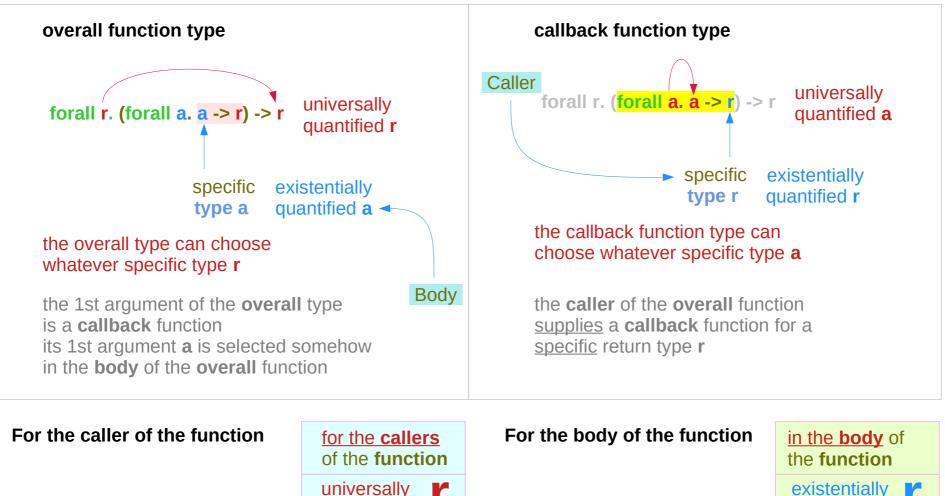
A caller supplies the callback function with the type **a** -> **r**

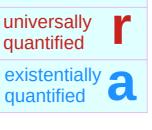




for the callers of the function	<u>in the body</u> of the function
universally quantified	existentially quantified
existentially a quantified	universally quantified







Young Won Lim 9/5/21

quantified

universally

quantified

Existential Types (1D)

we can write the type exists a, a	for the callers of the function	in the b the fun
as	universally quantified	existen quantifi
forall r. (forall a. a -> r) -> r	existentially a quantified	univers quantifi
the overall type is <u>not</u> universally quantified for a		
only its argument (forall a. a -> r) is universally quantified for a		
The overall type takes an argument (forall a. a -> r) that itself is universally quantified for a ,		
The overall type can then use		
with whatever <u>specific</u> type r it <u>chooses</u> .	The overall type can choose whatever specific type r Universally quantified	

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/14299638/existential-vs-universally-quantified-types-in-haskell

in the **body** of the **function**

existentially

quantified

universally

quantified

r

a

Existentially quantified data constructors (1)

data Foo = forall a. MkFoo a (a -> Bool) | Nil

the data type Foo has two constructors with types:

```
MkFoo :: forall a. a -> (a -> Bool) -> Foo
```

Nil :: Foo

```
Notice that the type variable a does <u>not appear</u>
in the type of MkFoo and
in the data type itself, Foo
Hidden
```

MkFoo 3 even :: Foo MkFoo 'c' isUpper :: Foo

even :: Integer -> Bool isUpper :: Char -> Bool

Existentially quantified data constructors (2)

MkFoo :: forall a. a -> (a -> Bool) -> Foo

a valid expression example

[MkFoo 3 even, MkFoo 'c' isUpper] :: [Foo]

(MkFoo 3 even) packages an integer with a function

(MkFoo 'c' isUpper) packages a character with a function

Each of these are of type **Foo** and can be put in a list.

even :: Integer -> Bool

isUpper :: Char -> Bool

Existentially quantified data constructors (3)

What can we do with a **value** of **type Foo**?. In particular, what happens when we pattern-match on MkFoo?

f (MkFoo val fn) = ???

Since all we know about **val** and **fn** is that they are compatible, the only (useful) thing we can do with them is to <u>apply</u> **fn** to **val** to get a **boolean**.

cannot extract val and fn

f :: Foo -> Bool fn :: a -> Bool f (MkFoo val fn) = fn val

Existentially quantified data constructors (4)

data Foo = forall a. MkFoo a (a -> Bool) | Nil MkFoo :: forall a. a -> (a -> Bool) -> Foo

[MkFoo 3 even, MkFoo 'c' isUpper] :: [Foo]

What this allows us to do is

to <u>package</u> <u>heterogenous</u> values together

with a bunch of **functions** that <u>manipulate</u> them,

and then treat that collection of packages in a uniform manner.

In this way, you can express **object-oriented-like** programming

fn :: a -> Bool

even :: Integer -> Bool isUpper :: Char -> Bool

Unknown types at compile time

Existentials have always to do with throwing type information away.

sometimes we want to work with **types** that we <u>don't know</u> at compile time.

the **types** typically depend on the **state** of **external world**: the **types** <u>could</u> depend on <u>user's input</u>, on <u>contents of a file</u> to be parsed, etc.

Haskell's type system is powerful enough in these cases

Preserving information about existentials

We want to <u>work</u> with **values** of **types** that we <u>don't know</u> at compile time, but at run time there are **no types** at all: they have been erased!

then we have to preserve some information about existentially quantified type to make use of it, otherwise we'll be in the same position as implementers of **id** having a **value** and only being able to pass it around never doing anything meaningful with it.

There are various degrees of how much we might want to *preserve*:

Parameterizing another type

We could have **a** in the type **[a]** existentially quantified. There are still some things we could do with a **value** of this type. we could compute <u>length of the list</u>.

So <u>knowing nothing</u> about **a** type is also an <u>option</u> sometimes when it parameterizes **another type** and we have parametrically-polymorphic functions that work on that type.

In this case the set of possible types for **a** is open i.e. it can grow.

Existentially quantified type with constraints

data Showable where

Showable :: forall a. Show a => a -> Showable

We could assume that the existentially quantified type has *certain properties* (instances):

- pattern-matching on Showable will give us the corresponding <u>dictionary</u> back.
- can do as much as the knowledge about the attached constraint
- the set of possible types for a is <u>open</u> (additional new **instances** of **Show** can be defined).

data Something where

Something :: forall a. a -> Something

simple existentially quantified type variable

The first forall at the type signature

myPrettyPrinter

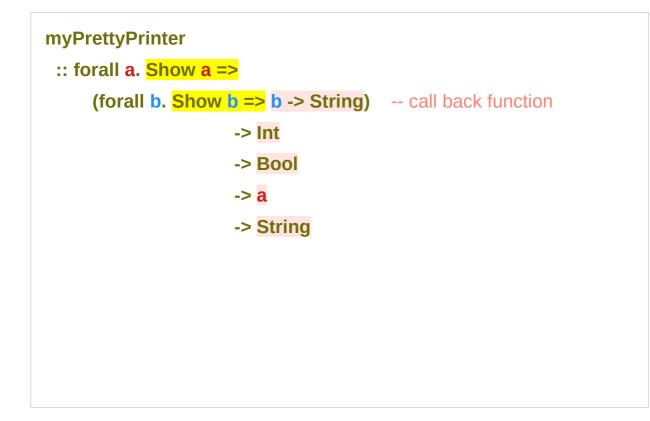
- :: forall a. Show a =>
 - (forall b. Show b => b -> String)
 - -> Int
 - -> Bool
 - -> <mark>a</mark>
 - -> String

Only **variables** with **forall**s <u>at the beginning</u> of **type signature** will be <u>fixed</u> when the corresponding **function** is <u>used</u> Other **forall**s deal with independent **type variables**: forall a. *** (forall b. ***)

when **myPrettyPrinter** is used **a** will be *fixed* but not **b**

the 1st argument is a call back function **b -> String**

Two levels of foralls



two levels of foralls (rank-2 type) forall a. *** (forall b. ***)

in general such constructions are called **rank-N types**.

For consumers of a function

Both universally and existentially quantified variables are introduced with **forall**.

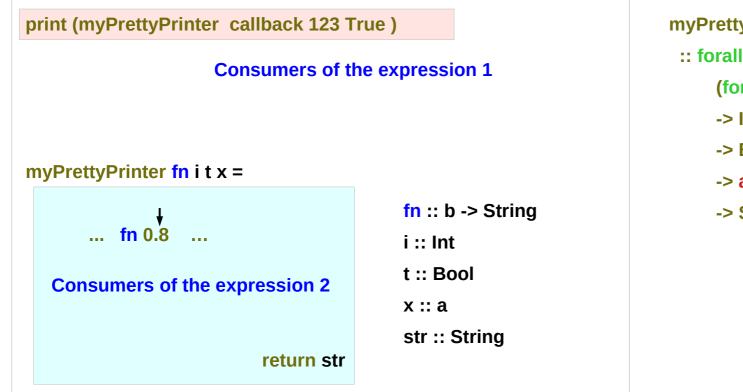
for <u>callers</u> of **myPrettyPrinter**

- **a** is universally quantified we can choose what the type will be
- b is existentially quantified the callback function has to prepare to deal with any b that will be given to the callback b -> String

myPrettyPrinter :: forall a. Show a => (forall b. Show b => b -> String) -> Int -> Bool -> a -> String

callers of myPrettyPrinter provide the call back **b** -> String which must handle any **b**

For consumers of a function



myPrettyPrinter :: forall a. Show a => (forall b. Show b => b -> String) -> Int -> Bool -> a -> String

In the body of a function

- for the **callers** of **myPrettyPrinter**, **a** is universally quantified
- in the **body** of **myPrettyPrinter**, **a** is existentially quantified
 - → the caller of myPrettyPrinter <u>already</u> has <u>chosen</u> the type
 - A specific return type of the callback function b -> String
- for the callers of myPrettyPrinter, b is existentially quantified
- in the **body** of **myPrettyPrinter**, **b** is universally quantified
 - b is the first argument of the call back function b -> String
 - when the call back function is applied with b
 the body of myPrettyPrinter <u>can choose</u> its concrete type

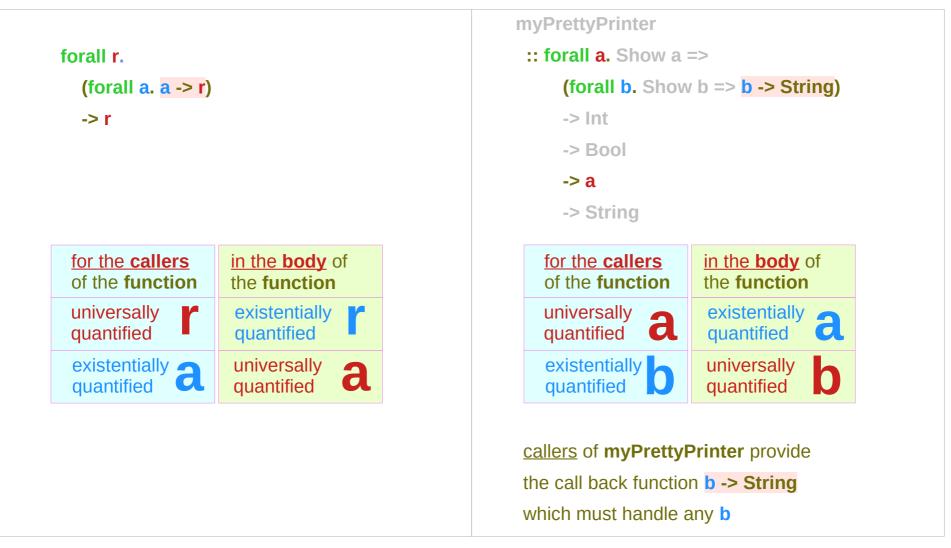
<mark>b -> String</mark>-> Int-> Bool-> a-> String

myPrettyPrinter

- :: forall a. Show a =>
 - (forall b. <mark>Show b =></mark> b -> String)
 - -> Int
 - -> Bool
 - -> a
 - -> String

Universally quantified variable the <u>consumer</u> <u>choose</u>

Existentially quantified variable the choice is <u>made</u> for the <u>consumer</u>



Subtyping

subtyping (also subtype polymorphism)
is a form of type polymorphism in which a subtype is a datatype
that is related to another datatype (the supertype)
by some notion of substitutability,
meaning that program elements,
typically subroutines or functions,
written to operate on elements of the supertype
can also operate on elements of the subtype.

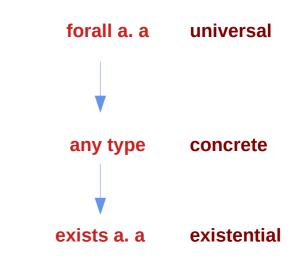
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subtyping

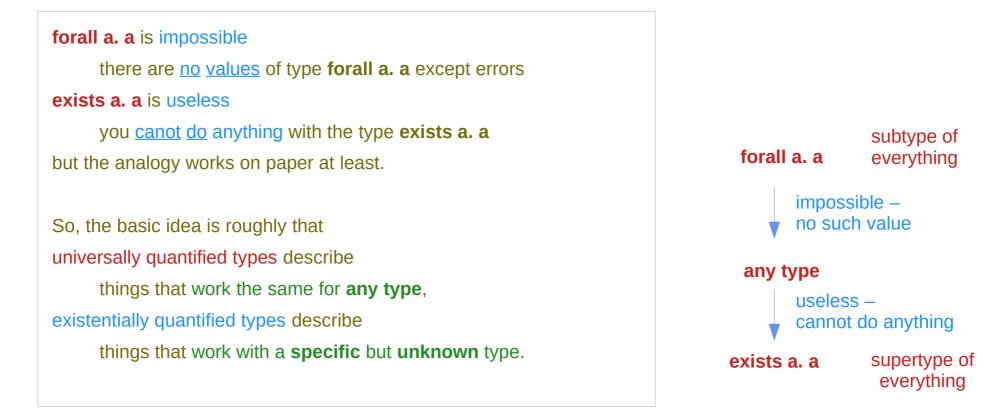
Haskell doesn't have a notion of subtyping

Quantifiers can be considered as a tool for **subtyping**, with a **hierarchy** going from **universal** to **concrete** to **existential**.

type forall a. a could be <u>converted</u> to **any other type**, so it could be seen as a **subtype** of <u>everything</u>;

any type could be <u>converted</u> to the **type exists a. a**, making that a **supertype** of everything.





Restoring exact types

data EType a where

- ETypeWord8 :: EType Word8
- ETypeInt :: EType Int
- ETypeFloat :: EType Float
- ETypeDouble :: EType Double
- ETypeString :: EType String

data Something where

Something :: EType a -> a -> Something

We could use GADTs to <u>restore exact types</u> of existentially quantified variables later:

How to make use of existentials

Matching on one of the **data constructors** of **EType** reveals **a** and after that we are free to do anything with the **value** of corresponding **type** because we know it.

With this approach the set of possible types for **a** is limited and closed.

It can be <u>expanded</u> by changing the **definition** of **EType** though.

data EType a where

ETypeWord8	:: EType Word8
ETypeInt	:: EType Int

- :: EType Int
- ETypeFloat :: EType Float
- ETypeDouble :: **EType Double**
- ETypeString
- :: EType String

data Something where

Something

:: EType a -> a -> Something

Generalized Algebraic Data Type (1)

Generalised Algebraic Data Types

<u>generalise</u> ordinary algebraic data types by allowing you to give the **type signatures** of **constructors** explicitly.

data Term a where

Lit :: Int	-> Term Int
Succ :: Term Int	-> Term Int
IsZero :: Term Int	-> Term Bool
If :: Term Bool	-> Term <mark>a</mark> -> Term <mark>a</mark> -> Term <mark>a</mark>
Pair :: Term a -> Term b	-> Term (a,b)

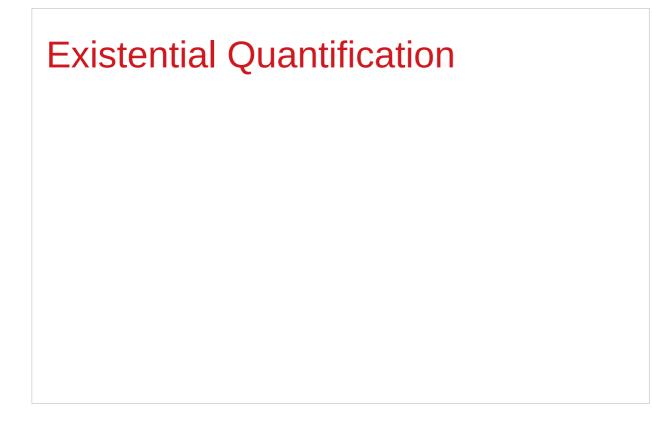
https://downloads.haskell.org/~ghc/6.6/docs/html/users_guide/gadt.html

Generalized Algebraic Data Type (2)

Notice that the **return type** of the constructors is <u>not always</u> **Term a**, as is the case with ordinary vanilla data types. Now we can write a well-typed **eval** function for these Terms:

eval :: Term a -> a	
eval (Lit i)	= i
eval (Succ t)	= 1 + eval t
<mark>eval</mark> (IsZero t)	= eval t == 0
eval (If b e1 e2)	= if eval b then eval e1 else eval e2
eval (Pair e1 e2)	= (eval e1, eval e2)

https://downloads.haskell.org/~ghc/6.6/docs/html/users_guide/gadt.html



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

Existentials

Existential types, or

Existentials for short,

provide a way of

squashing <u>a group of types</u>

into one, single type.

Existentials

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

But not part of Haskell98

have to either compile with a command-line parameter of

-XExistentialQuantification,

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

{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification #-}

forall and type variables

The forall keyword is to explicitly bring fresh type variables into scope

type variables :

those variables that begin with a **lowercase** letter the compiler allows **any type** to fill these variables

those variables that are universally quantified

Type variables in a polymorphic function

Example: A polymorphic function map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]

a lowercase type parameter

implicitly begins with a forall keyword,

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

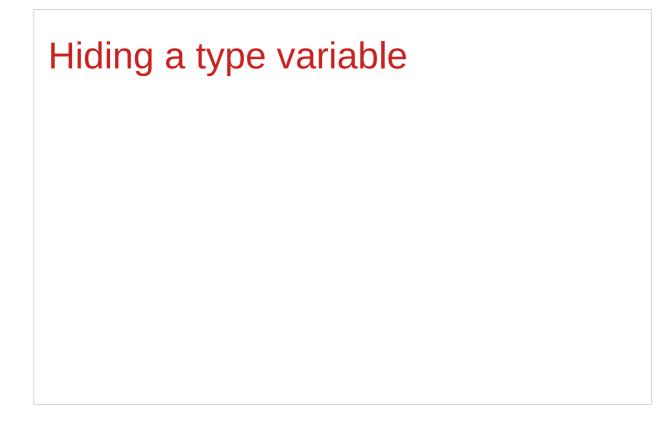
two type declarations for map are equivalent

Instantiating 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
b = String
(Int -> String) -> [Int] -> [String]
```



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

A rule for creating a new type

Normally when creating a new type

using type, newtype, data, etc.,

every **type variable** that appears on the <u>right-hand side</u> <u>must</u> 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 this rule

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>.



Not specifying a type variable

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}

Record Access Functions

buffer	:: Worker x y -> b
input	:: Worker x y -> x
output	:: Worker x y -> y

A type variable and a class

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

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:

Explicit types and Existential types

```
Explicit type signature :

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

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

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
```

Monomorphism restriction

The **monomorphism restriction** is a counter-intuitive rule in Haskell type inference.

If you *forget to provide* a **type signature**, sometimes this rule will fill the free type variables with specific types using **type defaulting** rules.

always less polymorphic than you'd expect, so often this results in **type errors** when you expected it to infer a perfectly sane type for a polymorphic expression.

Monomorphism restriction example

A simple example is **plus = (+)**.

Without an explicit signature for **plus**, the compiler will <u>not infer</u> the type for **plus** (+) :: (Num a) => a -> a -> a but will apply defaulting rules to specify **plus :: Integer -> Integer**

When applied to **plus 3.5 2.7**, GHCi will then produce

the somewhat-misleading-looking error,

No instance for (Fractional Integer) arising from the literal '3.5'.

Existential types and forall

func is a function with the <u>same</u> **type** for its **input** and **output** so we could compose it with itself, for example.

<u>the only things</u> you can do with something that has an **existential type** are the things you can do based on the **non-existential parts** of the **type**.

Similarly, given something of type **exists a. [a]** we can find its length, or concatenate it to itself, or drop some elements, or anything else we can do to **any list**. func :: exists a. a -> a func True = False func False = True

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/14299638/existential-vs-universally-quantified-types-in-haskell

Existential types and forall

an example of an **existentially quantified type**

data Sum = forall a. Constructor a

```
forall a. (Constructor_a:: a -> Sum) ≅ Constructor:: (exists a. a) -> Sum
```

```
data Sum = int | char | bool | ....
```

an example of a **universally quantified type** data Product = Constructor (forall a. a)

```
data Product = int char bool ....
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/14299638/existential-vs-universally-quantified-types-in-haskell

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)

you will usually want a hidden type to belong to a specific class , or you will want to pass some functions along that can <u>work on that type</u> .	
Otherwise you'll have some value belonging to a random unknown type , and you won't be able to do anything 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 (7)

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'"
```

Hiding a type variable (7)

In Haskell, an existential data type is one that is defined in terms not of a concrete type, but in terms of a quantified type variable, introduced on the right-hand side of the data declaration.

https://blog.sumtypeofway.com/posts/existential-haskell.html

Hiding a type variable (7)

an existential type provides a well-typed "box" around an unspecified type.

The box does "hide" the type in a sense, which allows you to make a heterogeneous list of such boxes, ignoring the types they contain.

It turns out that an unconstrained existential pretty useless, but a constrained type allows you to pattern match to peek inside the "box" and make the type class facilities available:

https://blog.sumtypeofway.com/posts/existential-haskell.html

Less specific types

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!

Existentials in terms of forall (1)

```
It is also possible to <u>express</u> <u>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 :

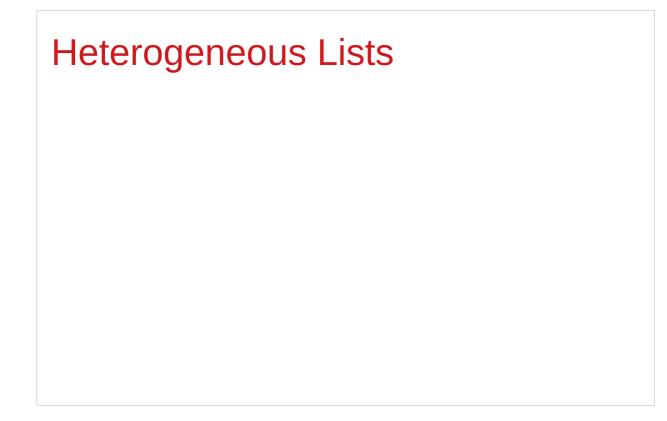
data Obj = forall a. (Show a) => Obj a

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
```



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 <u>not</u> be all the <u>same</u> type, but they are all <u>members</u> of <u>some</u> 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 heteroList :: [ShowBox] heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]	type hider
[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.

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types

-- type hider

Heterogeneous list example (3)

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

In the definition of **show** for **ShowBox** we <u>don't</u> know the **type** of **s**.

But we do <u>know</u> that the **type** is an **instance** of **Show** due to the **constraint** on the **SB constructor**.

Therefore, it's legal to use the function **show** on **s**, as seen in the right-hand side of the function definition.

ShowBox data type made into an instance of the **Show** class by this **instance declaration**:

Heterogeneous list example (4)

instance Show ShowBox where

show (SB s) = show s

f :: [ShowBox] -> IO ()

f xs = mapM_ print xs

main = f heteroList

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

Heterogeneous list example (5)

Example: Using our heterogeneous list instance Show ShowBox where show (SB s) = show s 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)

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

mapM_ does the same thing, but <u>never</u> collects <u>the results</u>, 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 <u>useless</u> 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

Quantified types as products and sums

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

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],

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types

...

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>.

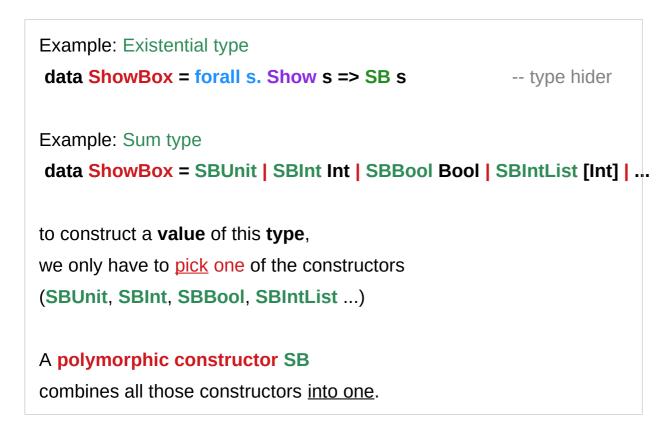
Example: Polymorphic value

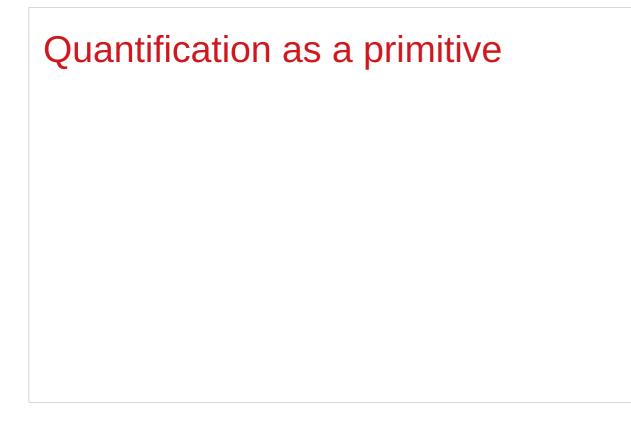
```
x :: forall a. Num a => a
```

```
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 <mark>infinite sum</mark> .		
Example: Existential type		
data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s	type hider	
may be conceptualized as a sum :		
Example: Sum type		
data <mark>ShowBox</mark> = SBUnit SBInt Int SBBool Bool SBIntList [Int]		





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

Pair type example (1)

Existential quantification is useful

for <u>defining</u> data types that aren't already defined.

Suppose there was <u>no</u> such thing as **pairs** built into haskell. **Existential quantification** could be used to <u>define</u> them.

Pair type example (2)

{-# 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
```

Defining a data type c that is not already defined

Pair \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b

f :: a -> b -> c f a b :: c

f is not yet definedc can be any type (forall c)

Pair type example (3)

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

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

Existential type hides a type variable c on the right-hand side.

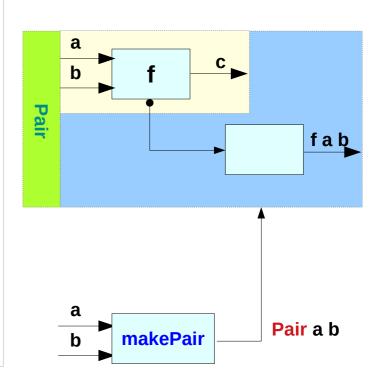
Pair type example (4)

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 \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b



Pair type example (5)

```
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
```

using a record type with a single field

```
newtype Pair a b = Pair \{runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c\}
```

```
runPair is an access function
```

takes an input of the type **Pair a b**

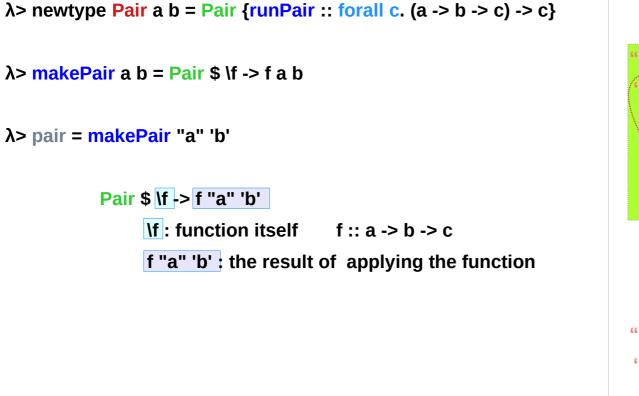
returns an output of the type forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c

Pair type example (6)

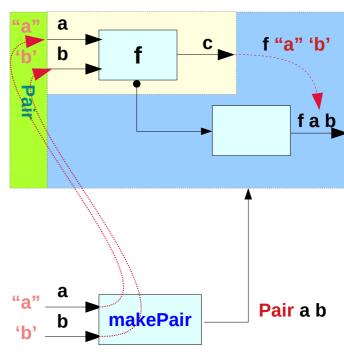
In GHCI	Pair \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b
λ > :set -XExistentialQuantification	"a" a
λ> :set -XrankNTypes	$f \rightarrow f$
λ > newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c}	
$\lambda > makePair a b = Pair $ \f -> f a b	
λ> pair = makePair "a" 'b'	fab
λ> :t pair	
pair :: Pair [Char] Char	
λ > runPair pair ($x y -> x$) unwrap (a -> b -> c) -> c then apply	
"a"	"a" Pair a h
λ> runPair pair (\x y -> y) unwrap (a -> b -> c) -> c then apply 'b'	b makePair Pair a b

makePair "a" 'b' Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b' :: Pair a b

Pair type example (7)



Pair \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b



makePair "a" 'b' Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b' :: Pair a b

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types

Existential Types (1D)

Pair type example (8)

newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. $(a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow c$ } runPair :: Pair a b \rightarrow forall c. $(a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow c$

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

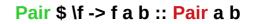
makePair "a" 'b' = Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b'

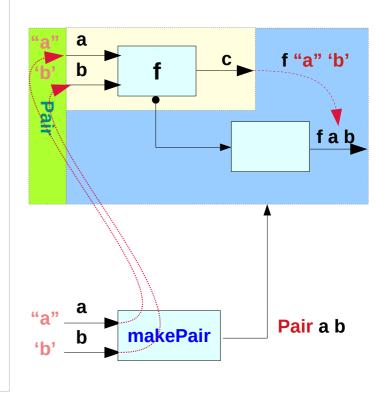
runPair makePair "a" 'b' = \f -> f "a" 'b'

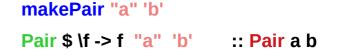
pair = makePair

:: Pair [Char] Char

runPair pair (lx y -> x) = (lx y -> x) "a" 'b'runPair pair (lx y -> y) = (lx y -> y) "a" 'b'







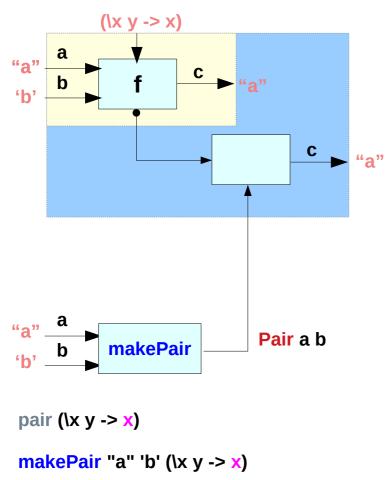
Pair type example (9)

```
runPair pair (\x y -> x) = (\x y -> x) "a" 'b'
runPair pair (\x y -> y) = (\x y -> y) "a" 'b'
runPair makePair "a" 'b' (\x y -> x)
(\x y -> x) "a" 'b'
"a"
runPair makePair "a" 'b' (\x y -> y)
(\x y -> y) "a" 'b'
'b'
```

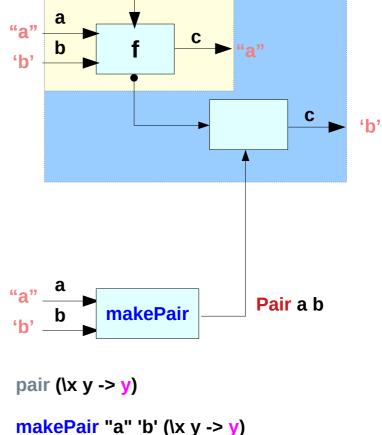
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types

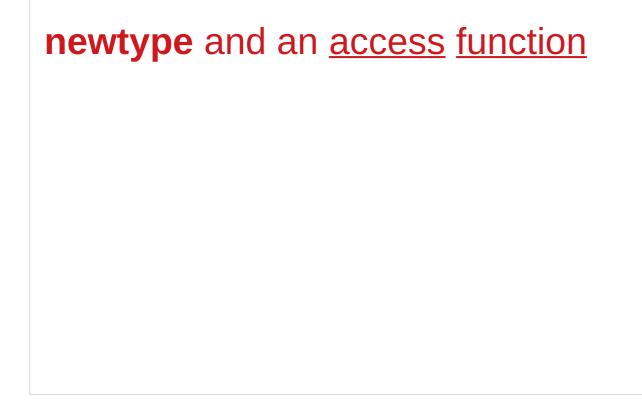
Pair type example (10)

Pair \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b



Pair \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b (\x y -> y)





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

newtype can have a named function (1)

newtype Parser a = Parser { parse :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

- 1) A type named Parser.
- A term level constructor of Parser's named Parser.The type of this (constructor) function is

Parser :: (String -> Maybe (a, String)) -> Parser a

You give it a function of the type

(String -> Maybe (a, String))

and it wraps it inside a Parser

newtype can have a named function (2)

newtype Parser a = Parser { parse :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

A function named parse to remove the Parser wrapper and get your function back. The type of this function is:
 parse :: Parser a -> String -> Maybe (a, String)

A term level constructor named Parser Parser :: (String -> Maybe (a, String)) -> Parser a

newtype – constructor and unwrap functions (1)

Prelude> newtype

Parser a = Parser { parse :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

Prelude> :t Parser

Parser :: (String -> Maybe (a, String)) -> Parser a

Prelude> :t parse

parse :: Parser a -> String -> Maybe (a, String)

newtype – constructor and unwrap functions (2)

newtype Parser a = Parser { parse :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

the term level constructor (Parser)

the **function** to remove the wrapper (parse)

Both can have arbitrary names

No need to match the type name.

It's common to write:

newtype Parser a = Parser { <u>unParser</u> :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

newtype – constructor and unwrap functions (3)

newtype Parser a = Parser { unParser :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

this name makes it clear **unParser** <u>removes</u> the **wrapper** around the parsing function.

```
unParser :: Parser a -> String -> Maybe (a, String)
```

however, it is recommended that the **type** and **constructor** have the same name when using **newtypes**.

(Parser, Parser)

newtype – instantiation

newtype Parser a = Parser { parser :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

Parser is declared as a type with a type parameter a
 can <u>instantiate</u> Parser by providing a parser function
 p = Parser (\s -> Nothing)

3) a function name parser defined and

it is capable of <u>running Parser's</u>. unwrap the function

then apply the function

newtype – unwrapping

newtype Parser a = Parser { parser :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

parser :: Parser a -> String -> Maybe (a, String)

parser (Parser (\s -> Nothing)) "my input"

(\s -> Nothing)) "my input"

Nothing

You are unwrapping the function using **parse** and then calling the unwrapped function with "myInput".

newtype – without record syntax (1)

First, let's have a look at a parser **newtype** without record syntax:

newtype Parser' a = Parser' (String -> Maybe (a,String))

```
it <u>stores</u> a function <mark>String -> Maybe (a,String).</mark>
```

To <u>run</u> this parser, we will need to make an **extra function**:

runParser' :: Parser' a -> String -> Maybe (a,String) runParser' (Parser' f) i = f i

newtype – without record syntax (2)

```
runParser' :: Parser' a -> String -> Maybe (a,String)
runParser' (Parser' f) i = f i
```

```
runParser' (Parser' $ \s -> Nothing) "my input".
```

But now note that, since Haskell functions are <u>curried</u>, we can simply <u>remove</u> the reference to the <u>input</u> **i** to get:

```
runParser'' :: Parser' -> (String -> Maybe (a,String))
runParser'' (Parser' f') = f'
```

newtype – without record syntax (3)

```
runParser'' :: Parser' -> (String -> Maybe (a,String))
runParser'' (Parser' f') = f'
```

This function is exactly equivalent to **runParser'**, but you could think about it differently:

instead of applying the parser function to the value explicitly,
it simply <u>takes</u> a parser and <u>extracts</u> the parser function from it;
(Parser' f') -> f'
however, thanks to currying, runParser''
can still be used with two arguments.

newtype – with record syntax (1)

newtype Parser a = Parser { parse :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }
newtype Parser' a = Parser' (String -> Maybe (a,String))

difference : record syntax with only one field

this record syntax automatically defines a function

parse :: Parser a -> (String -> Maybe (a,String)),

which <u>extracts</u> the **String -> Maybe (a,String)** function from the **Parser a**.

newtype – with record syntax (2)

newtype Parser a = Parser { parse :: String -> Maybe (a,String) }

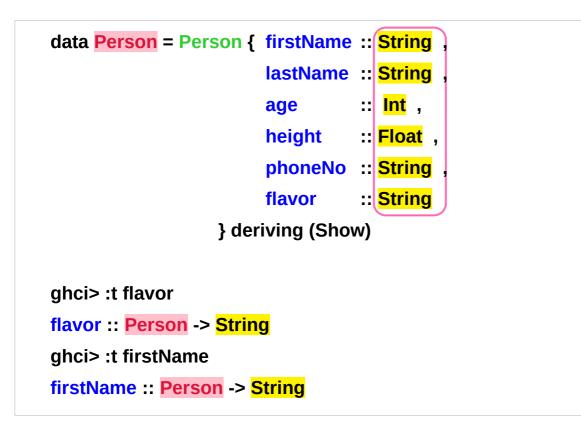
parse can be used with <u>two arguments</u> thanks to **currying**, and this simply has the effect of **running** the function stored within the **Parser a**.

equivalent definition to the following code:

newtype Parser a = Parser (String -> Maybe (a,String))

parse :: Parser a -> (String -> Maybe (a,String)) parse (Parser p) = p

Access functions in a record type (1)



return types of access functions

Person :: the input type of access functions

http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses

Access functions in a record type (2)

data Car = Car String String Int deriving (Show)

ghci> Car "Ford" "Mustang" 1967 Car "Ford" "Mustang" 1967

```
data Car = Car {company :: String,
model :: String,
year :: Int} deriving (Show)
```

```
ghci> Car {company="Ford", model="Mustang", year=1967}
Car {company = "Ford", model = "Mustang", year = 1967}
```

http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses

References

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