

# Monad P3 : Existential Types (1C)

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# Based on

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Haskell in 5 steps

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell\\_in\\_5\\_steps](https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps)

# Overloading

The **literals** **1**, **2**, etc. are often used to represent both fixed and arbitrary precision integers.

**Numeric operators** such as **+** are often defined to work on many different kinds of numbers.

the **equality operator** (**==** in Haskell) usually works on numbers and many other (but not all) types.

the **overloaded behaviors** are

different for each type

in fact sometimes **undefined**, or **error**

**type classes** provide a **structured way** to control **ad hoc polymorphism**, or **overloading**.

In the **parametric polymorphism** the type truly does **not matter**

(Eq a) =>

Type class

Ad hoc polymorphism

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/classes.html>

# Quantification

**parametric polymorphism** is useful in  
defining families of types  
by universally quantifying over all types.

Sometimes, however, it is necessary  
to quantify over some smaller set of types,  
eg. those types whose elements can be compared for equality.

**ad hoc polymorphism**

```
elem :: a -> [a] -> Bool
```

```
elem :: (Eq a) => a -> [a] -> Bool
```

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/classes.html>

# Type class and parametric polymorphism

**type classes** can be seen as providing a **structured way**  
to **quantify** over a constrained set of types

the **parametric polymorphism** can be viewed  
as a kind of **overloading** too!

## parametric polymorphism

an **overloading** occurs implicitly over all types

## ad hoc polymorphism

a **type class** for a constrained set of types

```
elem :: a -> [a] -> Bool
```

```
elem :: (Eq a) => a -> [a] -> Bool
```

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/classes.html>

# Parametric polymorphism (1) definition

**Parametric polymorphism** refers to when the **type** of a **value** contains one or more (**unconstrained**) **type variables**, so that the **value** may adopt any type that results from substituting those variables with **concrete types**.

```
elem :: a -> [a] -> Bool
```

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Parametric polymorphism (2) unconstrained type variable

In Haskell, this means any type in which a **type variable**, denoted by a name in a type beginning with a **lowercase letter**, appears **without constraints** (i.e. does not appear to the left of a  $\Rightarrow$ ).

In **Java** and some similar languages, **generics** (roughly speaking) fill this role.

```
elem :: a -> [a] -> Bool
```

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>



# Parametric polymorphism (3) examples

For example, 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.

Likewise, the empty list `[] :: [a]` belongs to every list type,

and the polymorphic function `map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]` may operate on any function type.

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Parametric polymorphism (4) multiple appearance

Note, however, that if a single **type variable** appears multiple times, it must take the same type everywhere it appears, so e.g. the result type of **id** must be the same as the argument type, and the input and output types of the function given to **map** must match up with the list types.

**id** :: **a** -> **a**

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

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Parametric polymorphism (5) parametricity

Since a parametrically polymorphic value does not "know" anything about the **unconstrained type variables**, it must behave the same regardless of its type.

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

`id :: a -> a`

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

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (1)

**Ad-hoc polymorphism** refers to when a **value** is able to adopt any one of several types because it, or a value it uses, has been given a separate definition for each of those types.

the **+** **operator** essentially does something entirely different when applied to floating-point values as compared to when applied to integers

```
elem :: (Eq a) => a -> [a] -> Bool
```

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (2)

in languages like C, **polymorphism** is restricted to only *built-in* **functions** and **types**.

Other languages like C++ allow programmers to provide their own **overloading**, supplying **multiple definitions** of a **single function**, to be disambiguated by the **types** of the **arguments**

In Haskell, this is achieved via the system of **type classes** and **class instances**.

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (3)

Despite the similarity of the name, Haskell's **type classes** are quite different from the **classes** of most object-oriented languages.

They have more in common with **interfaces**, in that they specify a series of **methods** or **values** by their **type signature**, to be implemented by an **instance declaration**.

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

```
instance Eq Integer where  
  x == y    = x `integerEq` y
```

```
instance Eq Float where  
  x == y    = x `floatEq` y
```

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (4)

So, for example, if **my type** can be compared for **equality** (most types can, but some, particularly function types, cannot) then I can give **an instance declaration** of the **Eq class**

All I have to do is specify the behaviour of the **== operator** on **my type**, and I gain the ability to use all sorts of functions defined using **== operator**, e.g. checking if a value of **my type** is present in a list, or looking up a corresponding value in a list of pairs.

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

```
instance Eq Integer where  
  x == y    = x `integerEq` y
```

```
instance Eq Float where  
  x == y    = x `floatEq` y
```

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (5)

Unlike the **overloading** in some languages,  
**overloading** in Haskell is not limited to **functions**

- **minBound** is an example of an **overloaded value**,  
as a **Char**, it will have value **'\NUL'**  
as an **Int** it might be **-2147483648**

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>



# Ad hoc polymorphism (6)

Haskell even allows **class instances** to be defined for **types** which are themselves **polymorphic** (either **ad-hoc** or **parametrically**).

So for example, an **instance** can be defined of **Eq** that says "if **a** has an **equality operation**, then **[a]** has one".

Then, of course, **[[a]]** will automatically also have an instance, and so **complex compound types** can have **instances** built for them out of the instances of their components.

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (7)

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)

instance Eq a => Eq (List a) where
  (Cons a b) == (Cons c d)    = (a == c) && (b == d)
  Nil == Nil                  = True
  _ == _                      = False
```

<https://stackoverflow.com/questions/30520219/how-to-define-eq-instance-of-list-without-gadts-or-datatype-contexts>

# Ad hoc polymorphism (8)

You can recognise the presence of **ad-hoc polymorphism** by looking for **constrained type variables**: that is, variables that appear to the left of  $\Rightarrow$ , like in **elem :: (Eq a) => a -> [a] -> Bool**.

Note that **lookup :: (Eq a) => a -> [(a,b)] -> Maybe b** exhibits both **parametric** (in **b**) and **ad-hoc** (in **a**) **polymorphism**.

<https://wiki.haskell.org/Polymorphism>

# Parametric and ad hoc polymorphism

<b>Parametric</b> polymorphism	<b>ad hoc</b> polymorphism
Type variables (a, b, etc)	Type classes (Eq, Num, etc)
Universal	Existential?
Compile time	Runtime (also)
C++ templates	Classical
Java generics	(ordinary OO)

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

# Polymorphic data types and functions

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
```

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right b
```

```
reverse :: [a] -> [a]
```

```
fst :: (a,b) -> a
```

```
id :: a -> a
```

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

# Polymorphic Types

**types** that are universally quantified in some way over all types.

**polymorphic type expressions** essentially describe families of types.

For example, **(forall a) [a]** is the family of types consisting of, for every **type a**, the **type of lists of a**.

- lists of integers (e.g. **[1,2,3]**),
- lists of characters (**['a','b','c']**),
- even lists of lists of integers, etc.,

(Note, however, that **[2,'b']** is not a valid example, since there is *no single type* that contains both 2 and 'b'.)

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Type variables – universally quantified

**Identifiers** such as **a** above are called **type variables**, and are uncapitalized to distinguish them from specific types such as **Int**.

since Haskell has only universally quantified types, there is no need to explicitly write out the symbol for **universal quantification**, and thus we simply write **[a]** in the example above.

In other words, all **type variables** are implicitly universally quantified

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# List

**Lists** are a commonly used data structure in functional languages, and are a good tool for explaining the principles of polymorphism.

The list **[1,2,3]** in Haskell is actually shorthand for

the list **1:(2:(3:[]))**,

where **[]** is the **empty list** and

**:** is the **infix operator**

that adds its first argument to the front

of its second argument (a list).

Since **:** is right associative, we can also write this list as

**1:2:3:[]**.

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>



# Polymorphic function example

```
length      :: [a] -> Integer
```

```
length []   = 0
```

```
length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

```
length [1,2,3]      => 3
```

```
length ['a','b','c'] => 3
```

```
length [[1],[2],[3]] => 3
```

an example of a **polymorphic function**.

It can be applied to a list containing elements of any type,  
for example **[Integer]**, **[Char]**, or **[[Integer]]**.

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Patterns in functions

```
length      :: [a] -> Integer
```

```
length []   = 0
```

```
length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

The left-hand sides of the equations contain

**patterns** such as `[]` and `x:xs`.

In a **function application** these **patterns** are

matched against **actual parameters** in a fairly intuitive way

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Matching patterns

**length** :: [a] -> Integer

**length []** = 0

**length (x:xs)** = 1 + length xs

`[]` only **matches** the **empty list**,

**x:xs** will successfully **match** any list with at least one element,

binding **x** to the **first** element and **xs** to the **rest** of the list

If the **match** succeeds,

the **right-hand side** is **evaluated**

and returned as the result of the application.

If it fails, the next equation is tried,

and if all equations fail, an error results.

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Not all possible cases – runtime errors

Function **head** returns the first element of a list,  
function **tail** returns all but the first.

**head** :: [a] -> a

**head** (x:xs) = x

**tail** :: [a] -> [a]

**tail** (x:xs) = xs

Unlike `length`, these functions are not defined  
for all possible values of their argument.

A **runtime error** occurs when these functions  
are applied to an empty list.

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# General types

With polymorphic types, we find that some types are in a sense strictly more general than others in the sense that the set of values they define is larger.

the type **[a]** is more general than **[Char]**.

type **[Char]** can be derived from **[a]**  
by a suitable substitution for **a**.

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Principal type

With regard to this **generalization ordering**,  
Haskell's type system possesses two important properties:

1. every **well-typed expression** is guaranteed to have a **unique principal type** (explained below),
2. the **principal type** can be inferred automatically.

In comparison to a monomorphically typed language such as C, the reader will find that polymorphism improves expressiveness, and **type inference** lessens the burden of types on the programmer.

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Unique principal types

An **expression's** or **function's** **principal type** is the **least general type** that, intuitively, "contains all instances of the expression".

For example, the principal type of **head** is  $[a] \rightarrow a$ ;  $[b] \rightarrow a$ ,  $a \rightarrow a$ , or even  $a$  are correct types, but too general, whereas something like  $[\text{Integer}] \rightarrow \text{Integer}$  is too specific.

The existence of **unique principal types** is the hallmark feature of the **Hindley-Milner type system**, which forms the basis of the type systems of Haskell

<https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/goodies.html>

# Explicitly Quantifying Type Variables

to explicitly bring fresh **type variables** into **scope**.

**Explicitly quantifying** the **type variables**

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

for any combination of types **a** and **b**

choose **a** = **Int** and **b** = **String**

then it's valid to say that map has the type

**(Int -> String) -> [Int] -> [String]**

Here we are **instantiating** the general type of **map**  
to a more specific type.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)



# Implicit forall

any introduction of a **lowercase type parameter**  
implicitly begins with a **forall** keyword,

Example: Two equivalent type statements

**id :: a -> a**

**id :: forall a . a -> a**

We can apply additional constraints  
on the quantified **type variables**

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# Hiding a type variable on the RHS

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 **hide a type variable** on the right-hand side.

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Type Variable Example – (1) error

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}
```

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Type Variable Example – (2) explicit type signature

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:

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Type Variable Example – (3) existential type

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.

Explicit type signature :

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

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Type Variable Example – (4) characteristics

- it is now impossible for a function to demand a **Worker** having a specific type of **buffer**.
- the **type** of **foo** can now be derived automatically without needing an explicit 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
```

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Hiding a type

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!

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Conversion to less a specific type

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!

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)



# A heterogeneous list example

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'"`

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Existentials in terms of forall (1)

It is also possible to express existentials with RankNTypes as **type expressions directly** (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
```

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# 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://wiki.haskell.org/Existential\\_type](https://wiki.haskell.org/Existential_type)

# Existentials

**Existential types**, or 'existentials' for short, are a way of 'squashing' a group of types into one, single type.

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 **{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification #-}**

at the top of your sources that use existentials.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

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://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

Suppose we have a **group of values**.

We don't know if they are all the same type,  
but we do know they are all **members** of some **class**  
(and, by extension, that all the values have a certain **property**).

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

We can't do this normally because **lists elements**  
must be of **the same type** (**homogeneous** with respect to **types**).

However, **existential types** allow us  
to loosen this requirement by defining a **type hider** or **type box**:

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# Heterogeneous list example

Example: Constructing a heterogeneous list

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

```
heteroList :: [ShowBox]
```

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

calling the constructor on three values of different types,  
**[SB (), SB 5, SB True]**, to place them all into a single list  
so we must somehow have **the same type** for each one.

Use the **forall** in the constructor

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

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

```
data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s
heteroList :: [ShowBox]
heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]
```

If we were now writing a function to which we intend to pass `heteroList`, we couldn't apply a function such as `not` to the values inside the `SB` because their type might not be `Bool`.

But we do know something about each of the elements: they can be converted to a string via `show`. In fact, that's pretty much the only thing we know about them.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)



# forall

```
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
```

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

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 ()
```

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

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

**Bool** is the set **{True, False,  $\perp$ }**  
(remember that bottom,  $\perp$ , 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.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall a. a

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

**forall a. a** is the **intersection** of all types.

This **subset** turns out to be the set  $\{\perp\}$ ,

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,  $\{\perp\}$** ,  
this quantification in fact stipulates all Haskell types.

But the only permissible operations on it are

those available to [a **type** whose only available value is **bottom**]

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall a. a

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 to also be **a member of the class, Show**.

However,  $\perp$  is still the only value common to all these types, so this too is **a list of bottoms**.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall a. a

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 cannot presume any particular type at all, this too is **a list of bottoms**.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

We see that most **intersections over types** just lead to **bottoms** because **types** generally don't have **any values in common** and so presumptions cannot be made about a **union of their values**.

a heterogeneous list using a '**type hider**'.

This '**type hider**' functions as a **wrapper type**

which guarantees certain facilities

by implying a **predicate** or **constraint** on the permissible types.

the purpose of **forall** is to **impose type constraint**

on the permissible types within a **type declaration**

and thereby guaranteeing certain facilities with such types.

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

Example: An existential datatype

```
data T = forall a. MkT a
```

Example: This defines a polymorphic constructor,  
or a family of constructors for T

```
MkT :: forall a. (a -> T)
```

Example: Pattern matching on our existential constructor

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

Example: Constructing the heterogeneous list

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

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)



# forall

Example: A new existential data type, with a class constraint

```
data T' = forall a. Show a => MkT' a
```

Example: 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://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

Example: The runST function

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

Example: Bad ST code

```
let v = runST (newSTRef True)  
in runST (readSTRef v)
```

Example: Briefer bad ST code

```
... runST (newSTRef True) ...
```

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

Example: The compiler's typechecking stage

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

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

**together, (forall s. ST s (STRef s Bool)) -> STRef s Bool**

Example: A type mismatch!

**together, (forall s'. ST s' (STRef s' Bool)) -> STRef s Bool**

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

Example: Identity function

```
id :: forall a. a -> a
```

```
id a = a
```

Example: Polymorphic value

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

```
x = 0
```

Example: Existential type

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

Example: Sum type

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

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

```
{-# 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
```

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall

```
λ> :set -XExistentialQuantification
λ> :set -XRankNTypes
λ> newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c}
λ> makePair a b = Pair $ \f -> f a b
λ> pair = makePair "a" 'b'

λ> :t pair
pair :: Pair [Char] Char

λ> runPair pair (\x y -> x)
"a"

λ> runPair pair (\x y -> y)
'b'
```

[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially\\_quantified\\_types](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types)

# forall - quantifier

Quantifier in predicate calculus

Type quantifier polymorphic types

To encode a type in type isomorphism

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

# forall - quantifier

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

If I call **bar**, I can simply pick any type **a** that I like,  
and I can pass it a function from type **a** to type **a**.

For example, I can pass the function (+1) or the function reverse.

You can think of the forall as saying "I get to pick the type now".

(The technical word for picking the type is **instantiating**.)

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



# forall - quantifier

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

The restrictions on calling **foo** are much more stringent:

the argument to **foo** must be a **polymorphic function**.

With that type, the only functions I can pass to **foo** are **id** or

a function that always diverges or errors, like **undefined**.

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.

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

# 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 **forall**s which are nested and cannot be merged with a previous one.

## ExistentialQuantification

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

# Scoped Type Variables

helps one specify types for code inside **where** clauses.

It makes the **b** in **val :: b** the same one as  
the **b** in **foob :: forall a b. (b -> b) -> b -> (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> b**.

A confusing point:

when you omit the **forall** from a type it is actually still implicitly there.  
(normally these languages omit the **forall** from polymorphic types).

This claim is correct, but it refers to the other uses of **forall**,  
and not to the **ScopedTypeVariables** use.

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

# Rank-N-Types (1)

Normal Haskell '98 types are considered **Rank-1 types**.

A Haskell '98 type signature such as

**a -> b -> a**

implies that the type variables are **universally quantified** like so:

**forall a b. a -> b -> a**

**forall** can be **floated** out of the **right-hand side** of ->

**forall a. a -> (forall b. b -> a)**

is also a **Rank-1 type** because it is equivalent to the previous signature.

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N\\_types](https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N_types)

# Rank-N-Types (2)

However, a **forall** appearing within the **left-hand side** of (->) cannot be moved up, and therefore forms another level or rank.

The type is labeled "**Rank-N**" where **N** is the number of **forall**s which are **nested** and **cannot** be **merged** with a previous one.

**(forall a. a -> a) -> (forall b. b -> b)**

is a **Rank-2** type because the latter forall can be moved to the start but the former one cannot.

Therefore, there are two levels of universal quantification.

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N\\_types](https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N_types)

# Rank-N-Types (3)

Rank-N type reconstruction is undecidable in general,  
and some explicit type annotations are required in their presence.

**Rank-2** or **Rank-N types** may be specifically enabled  
by the language extensions

`{-# LANGUAGE Rank2Types #-}` or  
`{-# LANGUAGE RankNTypes #-}`.

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N\\_types](https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N_types)

# Rank-N-Types (4)

In order to unpack an existential type, you need a polymorphic function that works on any type that could be stored in the existential.

This leads to a natural relation between higher-rank types and existentials; and an encoding of existentials in terms of higher rank types in continuation-passing style.

[https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N\\_types](https://wiki.haskell.org/Rank-N_types)

# Rank-N-Types

Let's start with that

**`mayb :: b -> (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> b`**

is equivalent to

**`mayb :: forall a b. b -> (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> b`**

except for when `ScopedTypeVariables` is enabled.

This means that it works for every **a** and **b**.

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



# Rank-N-Types

```
ghci> let putStrLnList x = [x]
ghci> liftTup putStrLnList (5, "Blah")
([5], ["Blah"])
```

the type of this liftTup?

```
liftTup :: (forall x. x -> f x) -> (a, b) -> (f a, f b)
```

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

# Rank-N-Types

Code 1:

```
ghci> let liftTup liftFunc (a, b) = (liftFunc a, liftFunc b)
```

```
ghci> liftTup (\x -> [x]) (5, "Hello")
```

```
  No instance for (Num [Char])
```

```
  ...
```

```
ghci> :t liftTup
```

```
liftTup :: (t -> t1) -> (t, t) -> (t1, t1)
```

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

# Rank-N-Types

Code 2:

```
-- test.hs
```

```
liftTup :: (x -> f x) -> (a, b) -> (f a, f b)
```

```
liftTup liftFunc (t, v) = (liftFunc t, liftFunc v)
```

```
ghci> :l test.hs
```

```
    Couldn't match expected type 'x' against inferred type 'b'
```

```
    ...
```

Hmm. so here GHC doesn't let us apply **liftFunc** on **v**

because **v :: b** and **liftFunc** wants an **x**.

We really want our function to get a function that accepts any possible **x**!

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

# Rank-N-Types

Code 2:

```
-- test.hs
```

```
liftTup :: (x -> f x) -> (a, b) -> (f a, f b)
```

```
liftTup liftFunc (t, v) = (liftFunc t, liftFunc v)
```

```
ghci> :l test.hs
```

```
    Couldn't match expected type 'x' against inferred type 'b'
```

```
    ...
```

Hmm. so here GHC doesn't let us apply **liftFunc** on **v**

because **v** :: **b** and **liftFunc** wants an **x**.

We really want our function to get a function that accepts any possible **x**!

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

# Rank-N-Types

Code 3:

```
{-# LANGUAGE RankNTypes #-}  
liftTup :: (forall x. x -> f x) -> (a, b) -> (f a, f b)  
liftTup liftFunc (t, v) = (liftFunc t, liftFunc v)
```

So it's not `liftTup` that works for all `x`, it's the function that it gets that does.

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

# 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**.

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

## RunST (2)

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. What that means in practice is that the implementation of `runST` is free to perform mutation with the value of type `s`. The type guarantees that this mutation is local to the implementation of `runST`.

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

# RunST (3)

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

The type of `foo` above is also of rank 2.

An ordinary polymorphic type, like that of `bar`, is rank-1, but it becomes rank-2 if the types of arguments are required to be polymorphic, with their own `forall` quantifier.

And if a function takes rank-2 arguments then its type is rank-3, and so on.

In general, a type that takes polymorphic arguments of rank  $n$  has rank  $n + 1$ .

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



# Existential Quantification

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

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

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

# RunST (4)

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

If I call bar, I can simply pick any type a that I like, and I can pass it a function from type a to type a. For example, I can pass the function (+1) or the function reverse. You can think of the forall as saying "I get to pick the type now". (The technical word for picking the type is instantiating.)

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

# RunST (4)

The restrictions on calling `foo` are much more stringent:

the argument to `foo` must be a polymorphic function.

With that type, the only functions I can pass to `foo` are `id` or a function that always diverges or errors, like `undefined`.

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.

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

# Existential Quantification

```
ghci> :set -XRankNTypes
ghci> length (["Hello", "World"] :: forall a. [a])
  Couldn't 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
```

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

---

## References

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