Monad P3 : Existential Types (1D)

1

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

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

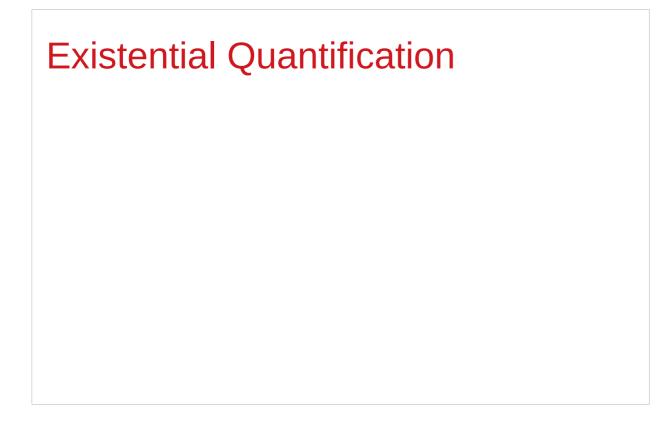
Please send corrections (or suggestions) to youngwlim@hotmail.com.

This document was produced by using LibreOffice.

2

Haskell in 5 steps

https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps



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 type variables

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

type variables

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

those variables that are universally quantified

forall type variables

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]

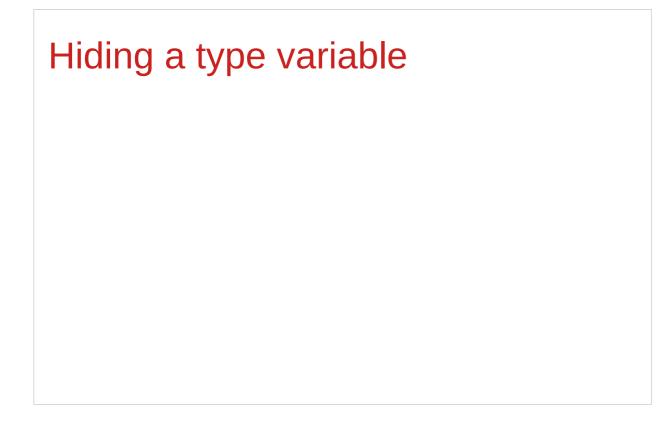
two type declarations for map are equivalent

forall type variables

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

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

```
instantiating the general type of map
to a more specific type
a = Int
b = String
(Int -> String) -> [Int] -> [String]
```



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

Hiding a type variable (1)

Normally when creating a new type

using type, newtype, data, etc.,

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

Hiding a type variable (2)

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

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

This is an **error**, since the **type b** of the **buffer**

is not specified on the right

(**b** is a **type variable** rather than a **type**)

but also is not specified on the left

(there's no **b** in the left part).

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

Hiding a type variable (3)

However, suppose that a **Worker** can use any type **b** <u>so long as</u> it belongs to some <u>particular</u> **class**. Then every **function** that uses a **Worker** will have a type like

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

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

Using existential types, we can avoid this:

Hiding a type variable (3')

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.

The resulting type signature is always less polymorphic than you'd expect, so often this results in the compiler throwing type errors when you expected it to infer a perfectly sane type for a polymorphic expression.

Hiding a type variable (3')

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

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

When applied to plus 3.5 2.7, GHCi will then producethe somewhat-misleading-looking error,No instance for (Fractional Integer) arising from the literal '3.5'.

Hiding a type variable (4)

```
Using existential type :

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

foo :: Worker Int Int

The type of the buffer (Buffer) now does not appear

in the Worker type at all. Worker x y

Explicit type signature :

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

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

Hiding a type variable (5)

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

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

Hiding a type variable (6)

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

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

Less specific types (1)

Note: You can use **existential types** to **convert** a <u>more specific</u> type into a <u>less specific</u> one.

constrained type variables

There is no way to perform the reverse conversion!

Less specific types (2)

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

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

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

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

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

Existentials in terms of forall (1)

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

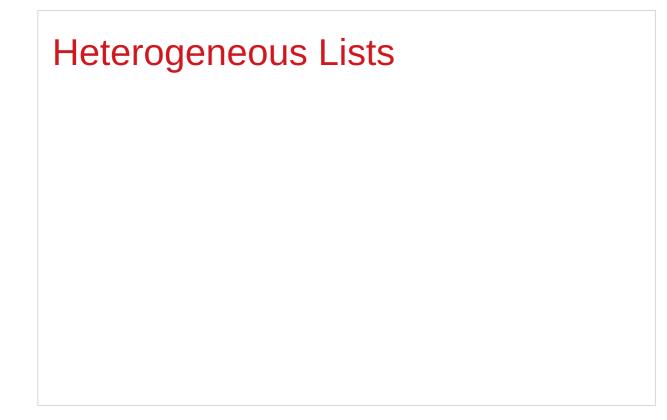
data Obj = forall a. (Show a) => Obj a

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

It might be useful to throw all these values into a list. normally this is <u>impossible</u> because lists elements <u>must</u> be of the same type (homogeneous with respect to types).

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

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

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

Heterogeneous list example (1)

data ShowBox = forall s. Show s => SB s	type hider
heteroList :: [ShowBox]	
heteroList = [SB (), SB 5, SB True]	
[SB (), SB 5, SB True] calls the constructor	
on three values of <u>different types</u> ,	
to place them all into <u>a single list</u>	
virtually the same type for each one.	
Use the forall in the constructor	
SB :: forall s. Show s => s -> ShowBox.	

Heterogeneous list example (2)

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

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

But each of the elements can be

converted to a string via show.

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

Heterogeneous list example (3)

instance Show ShowBox where

show (SB s) = show s

f :: [ShowBox] -> IO ()

f xs = mapM_ print xs

main = f heteroList

Heterogeneous list example (4)

Example: Using our heterogeneous list instance Show ShowBox where show (SB s) = show s -- (*) see the comment in the text below f :: [ShowBox] -> IO () f xs = mapM_ print xs main = f heteroList Example: Types of the functions involved print :: Show s => s -> IO () -- print x = putStrLn (show x) mapM_ :: (a -> m b) -> [a] -> m () mapM_ print :: Show s => [s] -> IO ()

mapM, mapM_, and map (1)

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

mapM_ does the same thing,

but never collects the results, returning a **m** ().

If you care about the results

of your **a** -> **m b** function, use **mapM**.

If you only care about the effect,

but not the resulting value,

use **mapM_**, because it can be more efficient

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

mapM, mapM_, and map (2)

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

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

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

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

mapM, mapM_, and map (3)

Normal **map** is something different:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

-- one formula generating an infinity of functions

Example: Identity function

id :: forall a. a -> a

id a = a

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

• • •

•••

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

to provide all the components of the tuple at once.

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

Example: Polymorphic value

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

```
x = 0
```

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



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

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

may be conceptualized as a sum:

Quantified Types as Products and Sums

Example: Existential type

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

Example: Sum type

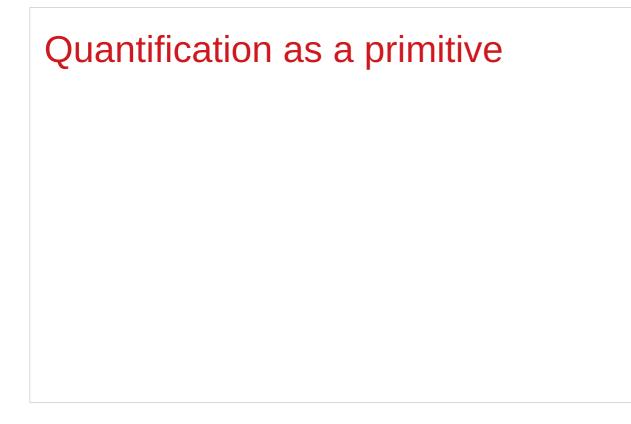
data ShowBox = SBUnit | SBInt Int | SBBool Bool | SBIntList [Int] | ...

to construct a value of this type,

we only have to pick one of the constructors.

A polymorphic constructor SB

combines all those constructors into one.



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

Newtype creates a 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 creates a 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 creates a function (3)

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 creates a function (4)

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 creates a function (5)

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 creates a function (6)

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

Parser is declared as a type with a type parameter a
 can instantiate 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 creates a function (7)

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 creates a function (8)

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 a **new function**:

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

Newtype creates a function (9)

```
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 remove the reference to the input **i** to get:

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

Newtype creates a function (10)

```
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 takes a parser and fetches the parser function from it; (Parser' f') \rightarrow f' however, thanks to currying, runParser'' can still be used with two arguments.

Newtype creates a function (11)

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 extracts the **String -> Maybe (a,String)** function from the **Parser a**.

Newtype creates a function (12)

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

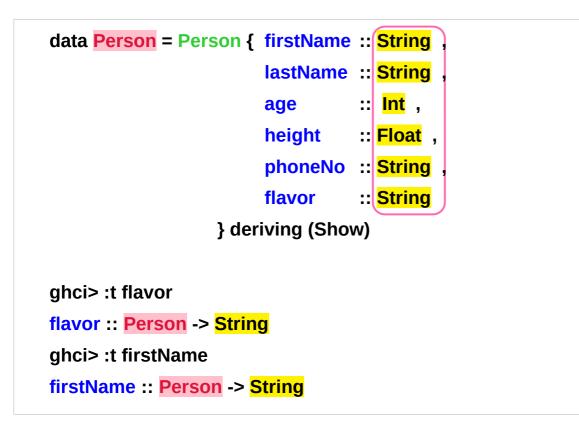
parse can be used with <u>two arguments</u> thanks to **currying**, and this simply has the effect of **running** the function stored within the **Parser a**.

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

Pair type example (1)

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

{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification, RankNTypes #-}

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

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

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

Pair \$ \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)

defining data type **c** that aren't already defined

Pair type example (2)

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

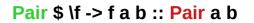
using a record type with a single field

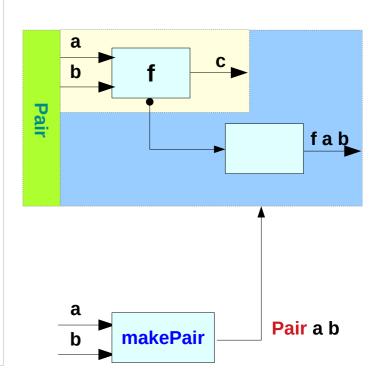
 λ > newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c}

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



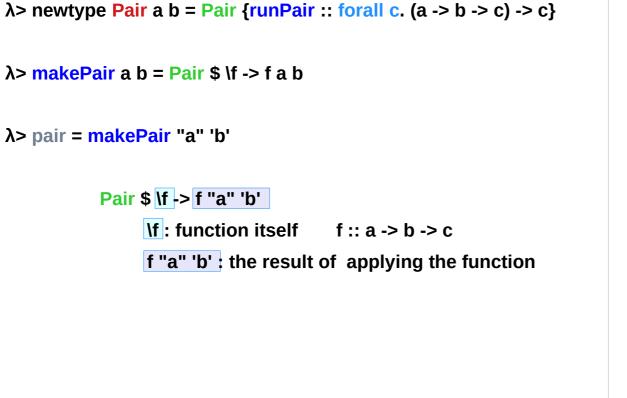


Pair type example (3)

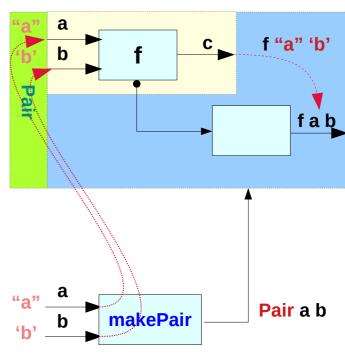
In GHCI	Pair \$ \f -> f a b :: Pair a b
$\begin{split} \lambda > :set -XExistentialQuantification \\ \lambda > :set -XrankNTypes \\ \lambda > newtype Pair a b = Pair {runPair :: forall c. (a -> b -> c) -> c} \\ \lambda > makePair a b = Pair $ \f -> f a b \\ \lambda > pair = makePair "a" 'b' \end{split}$	a f c f "a" 'b' b f f ib f f
$\begin{array}{l} \lambda > :t \mbox{ pair } \\ \mbox{ pair } :: \mbox{ Pair [Char] Char} \\ \lambda > \mbox{ runPair pair (\x y -> x) } & \mbox{ unwrap } (a -> b -> c) -> c \mbox{ then apply} \\ \mbox{ "a"} \\ \lambda > \mbox{ runPair pair (\x y -> y) } & \mbox{ unwrap } (a -> b -> c) -> c \mbox{ then apply} \\ \mbox{ 'b'} \end{array}$	"a" <u>a</u> b <u>makePair</u> Pair a b

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

Pair type example (4)



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



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

Pair type example (5)

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

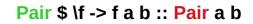
makePair "a" 'b' = Pair \$ \f -> f "a" 'b'

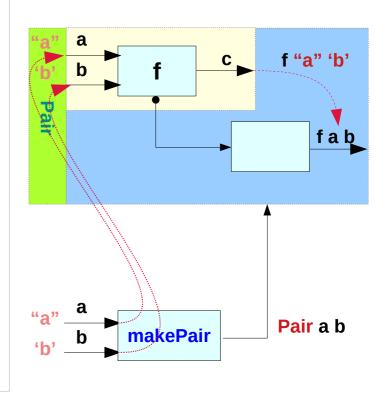
runPair makePair "a" 'b' = \f -> f "a" 'b'

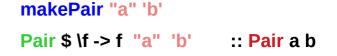
pair = makePair

:: Pair [Char] Char

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





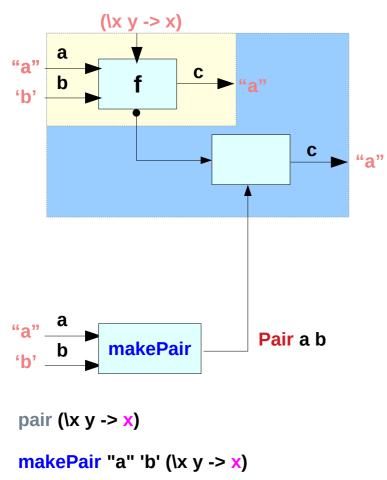


Pair type example (6)

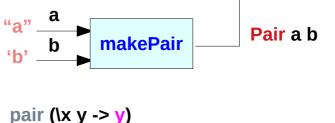
```
runPair pair (\x y -> x) = (\x y -> x) "a" 'b'
runPair pair (\x y -> y) = (\x y -> y) "a" 'b'
runPair makePair "a" 'b' (\x y -> x)
(\x y -> x) "a" 'b'
"a"
runPair makePair "a" 'b' (\x y -> y)
(\x y -> y) "a" 'b'
'b'
```

Pair type example (6)

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



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



makePair "a" 'b' (\x y -> y)

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

ʻb'

References

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

Existentials

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

Existentials are part of GHC's type system **extensions**. They aren't part of Haskell98, and as such you'll have

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

-XExistentialQuantification,

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

{-# LANGUAGE ExistentialQuantification #-}