# Monad P3 : Existential Types (1D)

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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.

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.

## Hiding a type variable (3')

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'.

## 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 :: [ <mark>ShowBox</mark> ]	
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], ...

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•••

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

to provide all the components of the tuple at once.

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

Example: Polymorphic value

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

```
x = 0
```

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



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

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

may be conceptualized as a sum:

Example: Existential type

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

Example: Sum type

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

to construct a value of this type,

we only have to pick one of the constructors.

A polymorphic constructor SB

combines all those constructors into one.



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

 $\lambda$  > 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
$\lambda$ > :set -XExistentialQuantification	
$\lambda$ > :set -XrankNTypes	f "a" 'b'
$\lambda$ > 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	
$\lambda$ > runPair pair ( $x y - x$ ) unwrap (a -> b -> c) -> c then apply	
"a"	"a" a
$\lambda$ > runPair pair (\x y -> y) unwrap (a -> b -> c) -> c then apply	b makePair Pair a b
'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

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#### References

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

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