

Generic Haskell

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24th November 2003

Overview

- Why Generic Haskell?
- Genericity and other types of polymorphism
- Writing and using generic functions in Generic Haskell
- Examples

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Haskell

- Haskell is a statically typed, pure functional language with lazy evaluation.

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- Every function has a type that usually can be inferred by the compiler.

```
factorial      :: Int → Int
```

- Functions with multiple arguments are written in curried style.

```
and           :: Bool → Bool → Bool  
and True True = True  
and _ _      = False
```

User-defined datatypes

- Own datatypes can be defined in Haskell using the **data** construct:

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```

Succ (Succ (Succ Zero)) represents the number 3

- Functions are often defined recursively over the structure of a datatype:

```
plus           :: Nat → Nat → Nat  
plus m Zero   = m  
plus m (Succ n) = Succ (plus m n)
```

Why Generic Haskell?

Among other things, there are two desirable goals for programming languages:

- Abstraction
- Static guarantees

About abstraction

- Extract common patterns.
- Examples:
 - Loops
 - Modules
 - Functions
 - Classes
 - Higher-order functions
- Advantages:
 - Consistency
 - Testing/correctness
 - Reuse
 - Conciseness

About static guarantees

- Syntactical correctness
- Scoping rules/unbound identifiers
- Static typing
- Advantages:
 - Efficiency
 - Safety
 - Higher quality of resulting product
 - Testing

Static typing prevents abstraction

- It is impossible to analyze all interesting properties of a program at compile time (halting problem).
- A safe type system is necessarily conservative. It rejects programs that work, or prevents you to write programs you want to write.
- In dynamically typed languages, this problem does not occur.
- Generic Haskell can therefore be seen as an attempt to provide a stronger type system to allow more abstraction while maintaining safety.

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- **Genericity and other types of polymorphism.**
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data Package       = P PackageDesc [Package]
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data Maybe  $\alpha$   = Nothing | Just  $\alpha$ 
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data Tree  $\alpha$      = Leaf  $\alpha$  | Node (Tree  $\alpha$ ) (Tree  $\alpha$ )
```

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data TimeInfo = *AM* | *PM* | *H24*

data PackageDesc = *PD* String Author Version Date

data Package = *P* PackageDesc [Package]

data Maybe α = *Nothing* | *Just* α

data Tree α = *Leaf* α | *Node* (Tree α) (Tree α)

data Perfect α = *ZeroP* α | *SuccP* (Perfect (α , α))

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```

```
data Perfect  $\alpha$    = ZeroP  $\alpha$  | SuccP (Perfect ( $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ ))
```

```
data Compose  $\varphi$   $\psi$   $\alpha$  = Comp ( $\varphi$  ( $\psi$   $\alpha$ ))
```

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data Tree  $\alpha$      = Leaf  $\alpha$  | Node (Tree  $\alpha$ ) (Tree  $\alpha$ )
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```

```
data Compose  $\varphi$   $\psi$   $\alpha$  = Comp ( $\varphi$  ( $\psi$   $\alpha$ ))
```

Nevertheless, datatypes have a common structure: parametrized over a number of **arguments**, several **constructors** mark multiple **alternatives**, each constructor has multiple **fields**, and there may be recursion.

Parametric polymorphism

Haskell allows to express functions that work uniformly on all datatypes.

```
id           ::  $\forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$   
id x        = x
```

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```
swap        ::  $\forall \alpha \beta. (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow (\beta, \alpha)$   
swap (x, y) = (y, x)
```

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id x        = x
```

```
swap         ::  $\forall \alpha \beta. (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow (\beta, \alpha)$   
swap (x, y) = (y, x)
```

```
head         ::  $\forall \alpha. [\alpha] \rightarrow \alpha$   
head (x : xs) = x
```

We can take the *head* of a list of Packages, or swap a tuple of two Perfect trees.

What about equality?

- We know intuitively what it means for two Packages to be equal.
- We also know what it means for two Perfect trees, normal Trees, Maybes or TimInfos to be equal.

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 $x \equiv y = ???$

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Can you give a parametrically polymorphic definition for equality?

$(\equiv) \quad :: \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
 $x \equiv y = ???$

No. It's theoretically impossible.

Defining equality for specific datatypes

data TimeInfo = *AM* | *PM* | *H24*

$(\equiv)_{\text{TimeInfo}} :: \text{TimeInfo} \rightarrow \text{TimeInfo} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

AM \equiv_{TimeInfo} *AM* = *True*

PM \equiv_{TimeInfo} *PM* = *True*

H24 \equiv_{TimeInfo} *H24* = *True*

- \equiv_{TimeInfo} - = *False*

Defining equality for specific datatypes

```
data TimeInfo      = AM | PM | H24
( $\equiv$ )TimeInfo    :: TimeInfo  $\rightarrow$  TimeInfo  $\rightarrow$  Bool
AM  $\equiv$ TimeInfo AM = True
PM  $\equiv$ TimeInfo PM = True
H24  $\equiv$ TimeInfo H24 = True
-  $\equiv$ TimeInfo - = False
```

```
data PackageDesc = PD String Author Version Date
( $\equiv$ )PackageDesc :: PackageDesc  $\rightarrow$  PackageDesc  $\rightarrow$  Bool
(PD name author version date)  $\equiv$ PackageDesc (PD name' author' version' date')
    = name  $\equiv$ String name'
       $\wedge$  author  $\equiv$ Author author'
       $\wedge$  version  $\equiv$ Version version'
       $\wedge$  date  $\equiv$ Date date'
```

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```
data PackageDesc = PD String Author Version Date
( $\equiv$ )PackageDesc :: PackageDesc  $\rightarrow$  PackageDesc  $\rightarrow$  Bool
(PD name author version date)  $\equiv$ PackageDesc (PD name' author' version' date')
    = name  $\equiv$ String name'
       $\wedge$  author  $\equiv$ Author author'
       $\wedge$  version  $\equiv$ Version version'
       $\wedge$  date  $\equiv$ Date date'
```

```
data Package      = P PackageDesc [Package]
```

Lifting equality to parametrized datatypes

data *Maybe* $\alpha = \text{Nothing} \mid \text{Just } \alpha$

$(\equiv)_{\text{Maybe}} :: \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow (\text{Maybe } \alpha \rightarrow \text{Maybe } \alpha \rightarrow \text{Bool})$

$(\equiv)_{\text{Maybe}} (\equiv)_{\alpha} \text{Nothing Nothing} = \text{True}$

$(\equiv)_{\text{Maybe}} (\equiv)_{\alpha} (\text{Just } x) (\text{Just } x') = x \equiv_{\alpha} x'$

$(\equiv)_{\text{Maybe}} (\equiv)_{\alpha} _ _ = \text{False}$

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$(\equiv)_{\text{Maybe}} (\equiv)_{\alpha} \text{ -- --} = \text{False}$

data $[\alpha] = [] \mid \alpha : [\alpha]$

$(\equiv)_{[]} :: \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow ([\alpha] \rightarrow [\alpha] \rightarrow \text{Bool})$

$(\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha} [] [] = \text{True}$

$(\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha} (x : xs) (x' : xs')$
 $= x \equiv_{\alpha} x'$
 $\quad \wedge xs \equiv_{[\alpha]} xs'$

where $(\equiv)_{[\alpha]} = (\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha}$

$(\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha} \text{ -- --} = \text{False}$

Abstraction, application and recursion

data Package = P PackageDesc [Package]

$(\equiv)_{\text{Package}} :: \text{Package} \rightarrow \text{Package} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

$(P \text{ desc } \text{deps}) \equiv_{\text{Package}} (P \text{ desc}' \text{deps}') = \quad \text{desc} \equiv_{\text{Package}} \text{desc}'$
 $\quad \quad \quad \wedge \text{deps} \equiv_{[\alpha]} \text{deps}'$
where $(\equiv)_{[\alpha]} = (\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha}$

Abstraction, application and recursion in the datatypes reappear in the definition of equality as abstraction, application and recursion on the value level!

Overloading

Haskell allows to place functions that work on different types into a type class:

```
class Eq  $\alpha$  where  
  ( $\equiv$ )      ::  $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ 
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We can make the previously defined functions **instances** of this class:

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instance Eq PackageDesc where  
  ( $\equiv$ )      = ( $\equiv$ )PackageDesc
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instance Eq Package where  
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instance Eq  $\alpha \Rightarrow$  Eq [ $\alpha$ ] where  
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instance Eq Package where  
  ( $\equiv$ )Package      = ( $\equiv$ )Package  
instance Eq  $\alpha \Rightarrow$  Eq [ $\alpha$ ] where  
  ( $\equiv$ )[]          = ( $\equiv$ )[] ( $\equiv$ ) $\alpha$ 
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Is this satisfactory?

- Although we can use an overloaded version of equality on several datatypes now, we still had to define all the instance ourselves.
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 - Both values must belong to the same alternative.
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Generic programming makes the structure of datatypes available for the definition of type-dependent/type-indexed functions!

Generic programming in context

Ad-hoc polymorphism \approx overloading

Structural polymorphism \approx genericity

Parametric polymorphism

Haskell as a builtin **deriving** construct to magically derive functions such as (\equiv), but this is only possible for a fixed amount of functions!

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Three datatypes

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```
data Unit      = Unit
data Sum  $\alpha \beta$  = Inl  $\alpha$  | Inr  $\beta$ 
data Prod  $\alpha \beta$  =  $\alpha \times \beta$ 
```

- A value of Unit type represents a constructor with no fields (such as *Nothing* or the empty list).
- A Sum represents the choice between two alternatives.
- A Prod represents the sequence of two fields.

Generic functions

A function that is defined for the Unit, Sum, and Prod types is “generic”.

- It works for all datatypes that do not contain primitive types.
- A **primitive** type is a datatype that can not be deconstructed because its implementation is hidden or because it cannot be defined by means of the Haskell **data** construct.
- Integers Int, characters Char, functions (\rightarrow), and the IO monad are examples of primitive types.
- A generic function can also handle types containing primitive types, but then additional cases are needed for these primitive types.

From logical to functional programs

class *Eq* α **where**

$(\equiv)_{\alpha} \quad :: \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

instance *Eq* PackageDesc **where**

$(\equiv)_{\text{PackageDesc}} = (\equiv)_{\text{PackageDesc}}$

instance *Eq* Package **where**

$(\equiv)_{\text{Package}} = (\equiv)_{\text{Package}}$

instance *Eq* $\alpha \Rightarrow \text{Eq} [\alpha]$ **where**

$(\equiv)_{[]} = (\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha}$

Let us change the view ...

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instance *Eq* $\alpha \Rightarrow \text{Eq} [\alpha]$ **where**

$(\equiv)_{[]} = (\equiv)_{[]} (\equiv)_{\alpha}$

Let us change the view ...

$(\equiv) \langle \text{PackageDesc} \rangle = (\equiv)_{\text{PackageDesc}}$

$(\equiv) \langle \text{Package} \rangle = (\equiv)_{\text{Package}}$

$(\equiv) \langle [\alpha] \rangle = (\equiv)_{[]} ((\equiv) \langle \alpha \rangle)$

This **type-indexed function** expresses the same as the instances above. Generic Haskell lets you define type-indexed functions.

Use of generic equality

The thus defined function can now be used on different datatypes.

```
data TimeInfo = AM | PM | H24
```

```
data Tree  $\alpha$  = Leaf  $\alpha$  | Node (Tree  $\alpha$ ) (Tree  $\alpha$ )
```

```
( $\equiv$ ) <TimeInfo> AM H24  $\rightsquigarrow$  False
```

```
( $\equiv$ ) <TimeInfo> PM PM  $\rightsquigarrow$  True
```

```
( $\equiv$ ) <Tree Int> (Node (Node (Leaf 2) (Leaf 4))  
                  (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 3)))  
              (Node (Node (Leaf 4) (Leaf 2))  
                  (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 3)))  
 $\rightsquigarrow$  False
```

What if we are only interested in the shape of the tree, not the values?

Local redefinition

Generic Haskell allows to locally redefine the generic function:

```
let ( $\equiv$ )  $\langle \tau \rangle$  x x' = True
in ( $\equiv$ )  $\langle \mathbf{Tree} \ \tau \rangle$  (Node (Node (Leaf 2) (Leaf 4))
                             (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 3)))
      (Node (Node (Leaf 4) (Leaf 2))
            (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 3)))
       $\rightsquigarrow$  True
```

Here we have given a **name** (τ) to a position in the type and have redefined the behaviour of (\equiv) for that position.

Generic abstraction

Generic Haskell allows to abstract common patterns of application for generic functions into new generic functions:

```
shapeequal  $\langle \varphi \rangle = \mathbf{let}$  ( $\equiv$ )  $\langle \tau \rangle$   $x$   $x' = \mathbf{True}$   
                   $\mathbf{in}$  ( $\equiv$ )  $\langle \varphi \tau \rangle$ 
```

Now, *shapeequal* can be used for all type constructors, for instance for lists:

```
shapeequal  $\langle [] \rangle$  [1,2,3] [4,5,6,7]  $\rightsquigarrow$  False  
shapeequal  $\langle [] \rangle$  [1,2,3] [4,5,6]  $\rightsquigarrow$  True
```

Generic functions, specific behaviour

- Sometimes, the automatically derived variant of a function for a specific datatype does not have the intended behaviour or is unnecessarily inefficient.
- A local redefinition might help here, but there is a simpler way.
- One can simply define a specific case for this datatype that overrides the generic definition.
- For instance, we could have defined the following specific case for equality on Packages if we know that a package is already uniquely defined in our application by its description:

```
data PackageDesc = PD String Author Version Date
```

```
data Package      = P PackageDesc [Package]
```

```
...
```

```
(≡) ⟨Package⟩ (P desc deps) (P desc' deps') = (≡) ⟨PackageDesc⟩ desc desc'
```

Advantages of generic functions

- A generic function is written once, and works for a large class of datatypes.
- General algorithmic ideas that work for all datatypes can be expressed.
- The generic function itself can be typechecked. If the generic function is type correct, then so is every instance. This is different from meta-programming or programming with templates: although specific instances will be typechecked, the template or meta-program itself never is.
- There are complex datatypes for which the generic function is actually shorter and easier to write than the specific instance.

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Parsing and printing

Many forms of parsing and printing functions can be written generically. A very simple example is a function to encode a value as a list of Bits:

```
data Bit = O | I
```

```
encode ⟨ $\alpha$ ⟩           ::  $\alpha \rightarrow [\text{Bit}]$ 
```

```
encode ⟨Unit⟩      Unit = []
```

```
encode ⟨Sum  $\alpha$   $\beta$ ⟩ (Inl x) = O : encode ⟨ $\alpha$ ⟩ x
```

```
encode ⟨Sum  $\alpha$   $\beta$ ⟩ (Inr y) = I : encode ⟨ $\beta$ ⟩ y
```

```
encode ⟨Prod  $\alpha$   $\beta$ ⟩ (x × y) = encode ⟨ $\alpha$ ⟩ x ++ encode ⟨ $\beta$ ⟩ y
```

```
encode ⟨Int⟩      x      = encodeInBits 32 x
```

```
encode ⟨Char⟩     x      = encodeInBits 8 (ord x)
```

```
data Tree  $\alpha$  = Leaf  $\alpha$  | Node (Tree  $\alpha$ ) (Tree  $\alpha$ )
```

```
data TimeInfo = AM | PM | H24
```

```
encode ⟨TimeInfo⟩      H24                                $\rightsquigarrow [I, I]$ 
```

```
encode ⟨Tree TimeInfo⟩ (Node (Leaf AM) (Leaf PM))  $\rightsquigarrow [I, O, O, O, I, O]$ 
```

Another generic function

```
collect  $\langle \alpha \rangle$  ::  $\forall \rho. \alpha \rightarrow [\rho]$   
collect  $\langle \text{Unit} \rangle$  Unit = []  
collect  $\langle \text{Sum } \alpha \ \beta \rangle$  (Inl x) = collect  $\langle \alpha \rangle$  x  
collect  $\langle \text{Sum } \alpha \ \beta \rangle$  (Inr y) = collect  $\langle \beta \rangle$  y  
collect  $\langle \text{Prod } \alpha \ \beta \rangle$  (x  $\times$  y) = collect  $\langle \alpha \rangle$  x ++ collect  $\langle \beta \rangle$  y  
collect  $\langle \text{Int} \rangle$  x = []  
collect  $\langle \text{Char} \rangle$  x = []
```

Another generic function

```
collect ⟨ $\alpha$ ⟩           ::  $\forall \rho. \alpha \rightarrow [\rho]$   
collect ⟨Unit⟩       Unit   = []  
collect ⟨Sum  $\alpha$   $\beta$ ⟩ (Inl x) = collect ⟨ $\alpha$ ⟩ x  
collect ⟨Sum  $\alpha$   $\beta$ ⟩ (Inr y) = collect ⟨ $\beta$ ⟩ y  
collect ⟨Prod  $\alpha$   $\beta$ ⟩ (x × y) = collect ⟨ $\alpha$ ⟩ x ++ collect ⟨ $\beta$ ⟩ y  
collect ⟨Int⟩         x      = []  
collect ⟨Char⟩        x      = []
```

- Alone, this generic function is completely useless! It **always** returns the empty list.
- The function *collect* is, however, a good basis for local redefinition or **extension**.
- Collect all elements from a tree:

```
let collect ⟨ $\tau$ ⟩ x = [x]  
in collect ⟨Tree  $\tau$ ⟩ (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 2)  
                        (Leaf 3) (Leaf 4))  $\rightsquigarrow$  [1,2,3,4]
```

Traversals

- With functions such as *collect* as a base, so-called generic **traversals** can be written.
- If the abstract syntax of a language is expressed as a system of datatypes, generic functions can be used to perform operations such as:
 - determine free variables in a part of a program
 - perform optimizations
 - perform modifications

Traversal example

```
data Compiler    = C Name [Package Maintainer]
data Package a  = P Name a [Feature] [Package a]
data Maintainer = M Name Affiliation
                    | Unmaintained
data Feature    = F String
type Name       = String
type Affiliation = String
```

Possible tasks:

- Check if something is maintained.
- Assign a new maintainer to a structure.
- Assign all unmaintained packages that implement generic programming to me.

Summary of Generic Haskell

- Type-indexed functions can be defined that generically work for all datatypes.
- With generic abstraction, local redefinition, and extension there are several possibilities to build new functions from a library of basic generic functions.
- Generic functions can interact, i.e. depend on one another. In this talk we have mainly seen functions that are recursive.
- Datatypes can also be indexed by a type argument. Generic Haskell supports those as well.
- Applications range from classic functions such as equality over all kinds of printing, parsing, conversions, mappings, over generic traversals, selectively modifying large trees, to operations on XML documents and the automatic derivation of isomorphisms between different datatypes.

Implementation of Generic Haskell

- Generic Haskell can be obtained from www.generic-haskell.org.
- It implements all the features presented in this talk, but with a slightly different syntax. (Generic Haskell is still in development and may change significantly between releases.)
- The Generic Haskell compiler translates generic functions into ordinary Haskell functions via specialisation: instances for concrete datatypes are computed and inserted at the appropriate positions.
- Type checking is left to the Haskell compiler, but if the Haskell file typechecks, all generic definitions are type correct.