Notes for 'Thinking with Types: Type-level Programming in Haskell', Chapters 1–5

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✓ A fifteen minute read
➤ Tags: haskell, notes, programming

askell — with its powerful type system — has a great support for type-level programming and it has gotten much better in the recent times with the new releases of the GHC compiler. But type-level programming remains a daunting topic even with seasoned haskellers. *Thinking with Types: Type-level Programming in Haskell* by Sandy Maguire is a book which attempts to fix that. I've taken some notes to summarize my understanding of the same.

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Introduction

- ▶ Type-level Programming (TLP) is writing programs that run at compile-time, unlike term-level programming which is writing programs that run at run-time.
- ▶ TLP should be used in moderation.

- ▶ TLP should be mostly used
 - for programs that are catastrophic to get wrong (finance, healthcare, etc).
 - when it simplifies the program API massively.
 - when power-to-weight ratio of adding TLP is high.
- ▶ Types are not a silver bullet for fixing all errors:
 - Correct programs can be not well-typed.
 - ▶ It can be hard to assign type for useful programs. e.g. printf from C.
- ▶ Types can turn possible runtime errors into compile-time errors.

Chapter 1. The Algebra Behind Types

Isomorphisms and Cardinalities

• *Cardinality* of a type is the number of values it can have ignoring bottoms. The values of a type are also called the *inhabitants* of the type.

```
1 data Void
2 -- no possible values. cardinality: 0
3 data Unit = Unit
4 -- only one possible value. cardinality: 1
5 data Bool = True | False
6 -- only two possible values. cardinality: 2
```

- ► Cardinality is written using notation: |Void| = 0
- ▶ Two types are said to be *Isomorphic* if they have same cardinality.
- An *isomorphism* between types a and b is a pair of functions to and from such that:

```
1 to :: a -> b
2 from :: b -> a
3 to . from = id
4 from . to = id
```

Sum, Product and Exponential Types

▶ Either a b is a *Sum* type. Its number of inhabitants is sum of the number of inhabitants of type a and b like so: |a| possible values with the Left constructor and |b| possible values with the Right constructor. Formally:

```
1 | Either a b | = |a| + |b|
```

• (a, b) is a *Product* type. Its number of inhabitant is the product of the number of inhabitants of types a and b. Formally:

```
|(a, b)| = |a| * |b|
```

Some more examples:

```
1 |Maybe a| = |Nothing| + |Just a| = 1 + |a|
2 |[a]| = 1 + |a| + |a|^2 + |a|^3 + ...
3 |Either a Void| = |a| + 0 = |a|
4 |Either Void a| = 0 + |a| = |a|
5 |(a, Unit)| = |a| * 1 = |a|
6 |(Unit, a)| = 1 * |a| = |a|
```

► Function types are exponentiation types.

```
|a| - |b| = |b| |a|
```

For every value in domain a there can be |b| possible values in the range b. And there are |a| possible values in domain a. So:

```
1 |a -> b|
2 = |b| * |b| * ... * |b| -- (|a| times)
3 = |b|^|a|
```

▶ Data can be represented in many possible isomorphic types. Some of them are more useful than others. Example:

```
data TicTacToe1 a = TicTacToe1
     { topLeft :: a
2
     , topCenter :: a
3
     , topRight :: a
     , middleLeft :: a
5
     , middleCenter :: a
     , middleRight :: a
     , bottomLeft :: a
8
     , bottomCenter :: a
     , bottomRight :: a
10
     }
11
13 |TicTacToe1 a|
     = |a| * |a| * ... * |a| -- 9 times
14
     = |a|^{9}
16
17 emptyBoard1 :: TicTacToe1 (Maybe Bool)
   emptyBoard1 =
18
     TicTacToe1 Nothing Nothing Nothing
19
20
                Nothing Nothing Nothing
                Nothing Nothing Nothing
21
22
  -- Alternatively
23
24
25 data Three = One | Two | Three
26 data TicTacToe2 a =
     TicTacToe2 (Three -> Three -> a)
27
28
  |TicTacToe2 a| = |a|^{(Three| * |Three|)}
29
30
                  = |a|^{(3*3)}
                  = |a|^9
31
32
33 emptyBoard2 :: TicTacToe2 (Maybe Bool)
34 emptyBoard2 =
     TicTacToe2 $ const $ const Nothing
35
```

The Curry-Howard Isomorphism

- Every logic statement can be expressed as an equivalent computer program.
- ▶ Helps us analyze mathematical theorems through programming.

Canonical Representations

• Since multiple equivalent representations of a type are possible, the representation in form of sum of products is considered the canonical representation of the type. Example:

```
1 Either a (Either b (c, d)) -- canonical
2
3 (a, Bool) -- not canonical
4 Either a a
5 -- same cardinality as above but canonical
```

Chapter 2. Terms, Types and Kinds

The Kind System

- *Terms* are things manipulated at runtime. *Types* of terms are used by compiler to prove "things" about the terms.
- Similarly, *Types* are things manipulated at compile-time. *Kinds* of types are used by the compiler to prove "things" about the types.
- ▶ Kinds are "the types of the Types".
- ▶ Kind of things that can exist at runtime (terms) is *. That is, kind of Int, String etc is *.

```
1 > :type True
2 True :: Bool
3 > :kind Bool
4 Bool :: *
```

▶ There are kinds other than *. For example:

```
1 > :kind Show Int
2 Show Int :: Constraint
```

▶ Higher-kinded types have (->) in their kind signature:

```
1 > :kind Maybe
2 Maybe :: * -> *
3 > :kind Maybe Int
4 Maybe Int :: *
5
6 > :type Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT
7 Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT
8 :: m (Maybe a) -> Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT m a
9 > :kind Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT
10 Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT :: (* -> *) -> * -> *
11 > :kind Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT IO Int
12 Control.Monad.Trans.Maybe.MaybeT IO Int :: *
```

Data Kinds

- -XDataKinds extension lets us create new kinds.
- It lifts data constructors into type constructors and types into kinds.

```
1 > :set -XDataKinds
2 > data Allow = Yes | No
3 > :type Yes
4 Yes :: Allow
5 -- Yes is data constructor
6 > :kind Allow -- Allow is a type
7 Allow :: *
8 > :kind 'Yes
9 'Yes :: Allow
10 -- 'Yes is a type too. Its kind is 'Allow.
```

• Lifted constructors and types are written with a preceding ' (called *tick*).

Promotion of Built-In Types

- -XDataKinds extension promotes built-in types too.
- Strings are promoted to the kind Symbol.
- ▶ Natural numbers are promoted to the kind Nat.

```
1 > :kind "hi"
2 "hi" :: GHC.Types.Symbol
3 -- "hi" is a type-level string
4 > :kind 123
5 123 :: GHC.Types.Nat
6 -- 123 is a type-level natural number
```

• We can do type level operations on Symbols and Nats.

```
1 > :m +GHC.TypeLits
2 GHC.TypeLits> :kind AppendSymbol
3 AppendSymbol :: Symbol -> Symbol -> Symbol
4 GHC.TypeLits> :kind! AppendSymbol "hello " "there"
5 AppendSymbol "hello " "there" :: Symbol
6 = "hello there"
7 GHC.TypeLits> :set -XTypeOperators
8 GHC.TypeLits> :kind! (1 + 2) ^ 7
9 (1 + 2) ^ 7 :: Nat
10 = 2187
```

- -XTypeOperators extension is needed for applying type-level functions with symbolic identifiers.
- ► There are type-level lists and tuples:

```
1  GHC.TypeLits> :kind '[ 'True ]
2  '[ 'True ] :: [Bool]
3  GHC.TypeLits> :kind '[1,2,3]
4  '[1,2,3] :: [Nat]
5  GHC.TypeLits> :kind '["abc"]
6  '["abc"] :: [Symbol]
7  GHC.TypeLits> :kind 'False ': 'True ': '[]
8  'False ': 'True ': '[] :: [Bool]
9  GHC.TypeLits> :kind '(6, "x", 'False)
10  '(6, "x", 'False) :: (Nat, Symbol, Bool)
```

Type-level Functions

▶ With the -XTypeFamilies extension, it's possible to write new type-level functions as closed type families:

```
1 > :set -XDataKinds
2 > :set -XTypeFamilies
3 > :{
4 | type family And (x :: Bool) (y :: Bool) :: Bool where
5 | And 'True 'True = 'True
6 | And _ = 'False
7 | :}
8 > :kind And
9 And :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
10 > :kind! And 'True 'False
11 And 'True 'False :: Bool
12 = 'False
13 > :kind! And 'True 'True
14 And 'True 'True :: Bool
15 = 'True
16 > :kind! And 'False 'True
17 And 'False 'True :: Bool
18 = 'False
```

Chapter 3. Variance

- ► There are three types of *Variance* (T here a type of kind * -> *):
 - Covariant: any function of type a -> b can be lifted into a function of type T a -> T b. Covariant types are instances of the Functor typeclass:

```
class Functor f where
fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

► Contravariant: any function of type a -> b can be lifted into a function of type T b -> T a. Contravariant functions are instances of the Contravariant typeclass:

```
class Contravariant f where
  contramap :: (a -> b) -> f b -> f a
```

▶ Invariant: no function of type a -> b can be lifted into a function of type T a. Invariant functions are instances of the Invariant typeclass:

```
class Invariant f where invmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow f a \rightarrow f b
```

- ▶ Variance of a type T is specified with respect to a particular type parameter. A type T with two parameters a and b could be covariant wrt. a and contravariant wrt. b.
- Variance of a type T wrt. a particular type parameter is determined by whether the parameter appears in positive or negative *position* s.
 - If a type parameter appears on the left-hand side of a function, it is said to be in a negative position. Else it is said to be in a positive position.
 - If a type parameter appears only in positive positions then the type is covariant wrt. that parameter.
 - If a type parameter appears only in negative positions then the type is contravariant wrt. that parameter.
 - If a type parameter appears in both positive and negative positions then the type is invariant wrt. that parameter.
 - positions follow the laws of multiplication for their *sign* s.

a	b	a * b	
+	+	+	
+	-	-	
-	+	-	
-	-	+	

• Examples:

```
newtype T1 a = T1 (Int -> a)
newtype T2 a = T2 (a -> Int)
newtype T2 a = T2 (a -> Int)
newtype T3 a = T3 (a -> a)
newtype T3 a = T3 (a -> a)
newtype T4 a = T4 ((Int -> a) -> Int)
newtype T4 a = T4 ((Int -> a) -> Int)
newtype T5 a = T5 ((a -> Int) -> Int)
newtype T5 a = T5 ((a -> Int) -> Int)
newtype T5 a = T5 ((a -> Int) -> Int)
newtype T5 a = T5 ((a -> Int) -> Int)
newtype T5 a is in -ve position but (a -> Int) is in -ve position.
newtype T5 a = T5 ((a -> Int) -> Int)
newtype T5 a is in -ve position but (a -> Int) is in -ve position.
```

- Covariant parameters are said to be *produced* or *owned* by the type.
- Contravariant parameters are said to be *consumed* by the type.
- A type that has two parameters and is covariant in both of them is an instance of BiFunctor.
- A type that has two parameters and is contravariant in first parameter and covariant in second parameter is an instance of Profunctor.

Chapter 4. Working with Types

- ▶ Standard Haskell has no notion of scopes for types.
- -XScopedTypeVariables extension lets us bind type variables to a scope. It requires an explicitly forall quantifier in type signatures.

```
-- This does not compile.
   > :{
  | comp :: (a -> b) -> (b -> c) -> a -> c
   | comp f g a = go f
   I where
5
      go :: (a -> b) -> c
      go f' = g (f' a)
7
   | :}
8
  <interactive>:11:11: error:
       • Couldn't match expected type 'c1' with actual type 'c'
11
         'c1' is a rigid type variable bound by
12
           the type signature for:
13
             go :: forall a1 b1 c1. (a1 -> b1) -> c1
14
           at <interactive>:10:3-21
         'c' is a rigid type variable bound by
16
17
           the type signature for:
             comp :: forall a b c. (a -> b) -> (b -> c) -> a -> c
18
           at <interactive>:7:1-38
19
       • In the expression: g (f' a)
20
21
   <interactive>:11:14: error:
22
       • Couldn't match expected type 'b' with actual type 'b1'
23
         'b1' is a rigid type variable bound by
24
           the type signature for:
25
             go :: forall a1 b1 c1. (a1 -> b1) -> c1
26
           at <interactive>:10:3-21
27
         'b' is a rigid type variable bound by
28
           the type signature for:
29
30
             comp :: forall a b c. (a -> b) -> (b -> c) -> a -> c
           at <interactive>:7:1-38
31
       • In the first argument of 'g', namely '(f' a)'
32
33
   <interactive>:11:17: error:
       • Couldn't match expected type 'a1' with actual type 'a'
35
         'a1' is a rigid type variable bound by
36
           the type signature for:
37
             go :: forall a1 b1 c1. (a1 -> b1) -> c1
38
           at <interactive>:10:3-21
39
         'a' is a rigid type variable bound by
40
           the type signature for:
41
             comp :: forall a b c. (a -> b) -> (b -> c) -> a -> c
42
           at <interactive>:7:1-38
43
       • In the first argument of 'f'', namely 'a'
45
46 -- But this does.
47 > :set -XScopedTypeVariables
49 | comp :: forall a b c. (a -> b) -> (b -> c) -> a -> c
50 | comp f g a = go f
```

```
51 | where

52 | go :: (a -> b) -> c

53 | go f' = g (f' a)

54 | :}
```

▶ -XTypeApplications extension lets us directly apply types to expressions:

```
1 > :set -XTypeApplications
 > :type traverse
  traverse
   :: (Traversable t, Applicative f) =>
        (a -> f b) -> t a -> f (t b)
  > :type traverse @Maybe
  traverse @Maybe
    :: Applicative f =>
        (a \rightarrow f b) \rightarrow Maybe a \rightarrow f (Maybe b)
10 > :type traverse @Maybe @[]
11 traverse @Maybe @[]
     :: (a -> [b]) -> Maybe a -> [Maybe b]
13 > :type traverse @Maybe @[] @Int
14 traverse @Maybe @[] @Int
15 :: (Int -> [b]) -> Maybe Int -> [Maybe b]
16 > :type traverse @Maybe @[] @Int @String
17 traverse @Maybe @[] @Int @String
   :: (Int -> [String]) -> Maybe Int -> [Maybe String]
```

▶ Types are applied in the order they appear in the type signature. It is possible to avoid applying types by using a type with an underscore: @_

```
1 > :type traverse @Maybe @_ @_ @String
2 traverse @Maybe @_ @_ @String
3 :: Applicative w1 =>
4 (w2 -> w1 String) -> Maybe w2 -> w1 (Maybe String)
```

▶ Sometimes the compiler cannot infer the type of an expression. -XAllowAmbiguousTypes extension allow such programs to compile.

```
1 > :set -XScopedTypeVariables
 | f :: forall a. Show a => Bool
  | f = True
  | :}
  <interactive>:7:6: error:
       • Could not deduce (Show a0)
8
        from the context: Show a
          bound by the type signature for:
10
                      f :: forall a. Show a => Bool
11
          at <interactive>:7:6-29
        The type variable 'a0' is ambiguous
13
       • In the ambiguity check for 'f'
        To defer the ambiguity check to use sites, enable AllowAmbiguousTypes
         In the type signature: f :: forall a. Show a => Bool
16
```

▶ Proxy is a type isomorphic to () except with a phantom type parameter:

```
1 data Proxy a = Proxy
```

• With all the three extensions enabled, it is possible to get a term-level representation of types using the Data. Typeable module:

```
1 > :set -XScopedTypeVariables
2 > :set -XTypeApplications
3 > :set -XAllowAmbiguousTypes
4 > :m +Data.Typeable
5 Data.Typeable> :{
6 Data.Typeable| typeName :: forall a. Typeable a => String
7 Data.Typeable| typeName = show . typeRep $ Proxy @a
8 Data.Typeable| :}
9 Data.Typeable> typeName @String
10 "[Char]"
11 Data.Typeable> typeName @(IO Int)
12 "IO Int"
```

Chapter 5. Constraints and GADTs

Constraints

- *Constraints* are a kind different than the types (*).
- Constraints are what appear on the left-hand side on the fat context arrow =>, like Show a.

GADTs

▶ symmetrical: a ~ b implies b ~ a

▶ transitive: a ~ b and b ~ c implies a ~ c

▶ *GADTs* are Generalized Algebraic DataTypes. They allow writing explicit type signatures for data constructors. Here is the code for a length-typed list using GADTs:

```
1 > :set -XGADTs
2 > :set -XKindSignatures
3 > :set -XTypeOperators
4 > :set -XDataKinds
5 > :m +GHC.TypeLits
6 GHC.TypeLits> :{
7 GHC.TypeLits| data List (a :: *) (n :: Nat) where
8 GHC.TypeLits| Nil :: List a 0
9 GHC.TypeLits| (:~) :: a -> List a n -> List a (n + 1)
10 GHC.TypeLits| infixr 5 :~
11 GHC.TypeLits| :}
12 GHC.TypeLits> :type Nil
13 Nil :: List a 0
14 GHC.TypeLits> :type 'a' :~ Nil
15 'a' :~ Nil :: List Char 1
16 GHC.TypeLits> :type 'b' :~ 'a' :~ Nil
17 'b' :~ 'a' :~ Nil :: List Char 2
18 GHC.TypeLits> :type True :~ 'a' :~ Nil
19
20 <interactive>:1:9: error:
      • Couldn't match type 'Char' with 'Bool'
21
        Expected type: List Bool 1
22
          Actual type: List Char (0 + 1)
23
       • In the second argument of '(:\sim)', namely ''a':\sim Nil'
24
         In the expression: True :~ 'a' :~ Nil
```

▶ GADTs are just syntactic sugar for ADTs with type equalities. The above definition is equivalent to:

```
1  > :set -XGADTs
2  > :set -XKindSignatures
3  > :set -XTypeOperators
4  > :set -XDataKinds
5  > :m +GHC.TypeLits
6  GHC.TypeLits> :{
7  GHC.TypeLits| data List (a :: *) (n :: Nat)
8  GHC.TypeLits| = (n ~ 0) => Nil
9  GHC.TypeLits| | a :~ List a (n - 1)
10  GHC.TypeLits| infixr 5 :~
11  GHC.TypeLits| :}
12  GHC.TypeLits> :type 'a' :~ Nil
13  'a' :~ Nil :: List Char 1
14  GHC.TypeLits> :type 'b' :~ 'a' :~ Nil
15  'b' :~ 'a' :~ Nil :: List Char 2
```

Type-safety of this list can be used to write a safe head function which does not compile for an empty list:

```
1 GHC.TypeLits> :{
2 GHC.TypeLits| safeHead :: List a (n + 1) -> a
3 GHC.TypeLits| safeHead (x :~ _) = x
4 GHC.TypeLits|:}
5 GHC.TypeLits> safeHead ('a' :~ 'b' :~ Nil)
  GHC.TypeLits> safeHead Nil
  <interactive>:21:10: error:
       • Couldn't match type '1' with '0'
10
       Expected type: List a (0 + 1)
11
12
          Actual type: List a 0
     • In the first argument of 'safeHead', namely 'Nil'
13
        In the expression: safeHead Nil
         In an equation for 'it': it = safeHead Nil
```

Heterogeneous Lists

We can use GADTs to build heterogeneous lists which can store values of different types and are typesafe to use.¹

First, the required extensions and imports:

```
1 {-# LANGUAGE KindSignatures #-}
 2 {-# LANGUAGE DataKinds #-}
 3 {-# LANGUAGE TypeOperators #-}
 4 {-# LANGUAGE GADTS #-}
 5 {-# LANGUAGE FlexibleInstances #-}
 6 {-# LANGUAGE FlexibleContexts #-}
 7 {-# LANGUAGE TypeApplications #-}
 8 {-# LANGUAGE ScopedTypeVariables #-}
 10 module HList where
 11
 12 import Data.Typeable
HList is defined as a GADT:
1 data HList (ts :: [*]) where
 2 HNil :: HList '[]
 3 (:#) :: t -> HList ts -> HList (t ': ts)
 4 infixr 5 :#
Example usage:
1 *HList> :type HNil
 2 HNil :: HList '[]
 3 *HList> :type 'a' :# HNil
 4 'a' :# HNil :: HList '[Char]
 5 *HList> :type True :# 'a' :# HNil
 6 True :# 'a' :# HNil :: HList '[Bool, Char]
We can write operations on HList:
 1 hLength :: HList ts -> Int
 2 hLength HNil = 0
 3 hLength (x : \# xs) = 1 + hLength xs
 5 hHead :: HList (t ': ts) -> t
```

Example usage:

 6 hHead (t :# _) = t

```
*HList> hLength $ True :# 'a' :# HNil
2
  *HList> hHead $ True :# 'a' :# HNil
4 True
  *HList> hHead HNil
  <interactive>:7:7: error:
       • Couldn't match type ''[]' with 't : ts0'
8
        Expected type: HList (t : ts0)
          Actual type: HList '[]
10
      • In the first argument of 'hHead', namely 'HNil'
11
        In the expression: hHead HNil
         In an equation for 'it': it = hHead HNil
13
       • Relevant bindings include it :: t (bound at <interactive>:7:1)
```

We need to define instances of typeclasses like Eq, Ord etc. for HList because GHC cannot derive them automatically yet:

```
instance Eq (HList '[]) where
     HNil == HNil = True
  instance (Eq t, Eq (HList ts))
      => Eq (HList (t ': ts)) where
     (x : \# xs) == (y : \# ys) =
       x == y && xs == ys
6
   instance Ord (HList '[]) where
     HNil `compare` HNil = EQ
instance (Ord t, Ord (HList ts))
       => Ord (HList (t ': ts)) where
11
     (x : \# xs) \cdot compare \cdot (y : \# ys) =
12
       x `compare` y <> xs `compare` ys
13
14
instance Show (HList '[]) where
     show HNil = "[]"
16
instance (Typeable t, Show t, Show (HList ts))
18
       => Show (HList (t ': ts)) where
     show (x : \# xs) =
19
      show x
20
      ++ "@" ++ show (typeRep (Proxy @t))
      ++ " :# " ++ show xs
```

The instances are defined recursively: one for the base case and one for the inductive case.

Example usage:

```
*HList> True :# 'a' :# HNil == True :# 'a' :# HNil
  *HList> True :# 'a' :# HNil == True :# 'b' :# HNil
4 False
  *HList> True :# 'a' :# HNil == True :# HNil
  <interactive>:17:24: error:
       • Couldn't match type ''[]' with ''[Char]'
8
        Expected type: HList '[Bool, Char]
          Actual type: HList '[Bool]
10
      • In the second argument of '(==)', namely 'True :# HNil'
11
         In the expression: True :# 'a' :# HNil == True :# HNil
         In an equation for 'it': it = True :# 'a' :# HNil == True :# HNil
13
14 *HList> show $ True :# 'a' :# HNil
15 "True@Bool :# 'a'@Char :# []"
```

Creating New Constraints

▶ Type families can be used to create new Constraints:

```
> :set -XKindSignatures

> :set -XDataKinds

> :set -XTypeOperators

> :set -XTypeFamilies

> :m +Data.Constraint

Data.Constraint> :{

Data.Constraint| type family AllEq (ts :: [*]) :: Constraint where

Data.Constraint| AllEq '[] = ()

Data.Constraint| AllEq (t ': ts) = (Eq t, AllEq ts)

Data.Constraint| :}

Data.Constraint> :kind! AllEq '[Bool, Char]

AllEq '[Bool, Char] :: Constraint

= (Eq Bool, (Eq Char, () :: Constraint))
```

- ▶ AllEq is a type-level function from a list of types to a constraint.
- With the -XConstraintKinds extension, AllEq can be made polymorphic over all constraints instead of just Eq:

▶ With All, instances for HList can be written non-recursively:

```
1 instance All Eq ts => Eq (HList ts) where
2 HNil == HNil = True
3 (a :# as) == (b :# bs) = a == b && as == bs
```

Conclusion

I'm still in the process of reading the book and I'll post the notes for the rest of the chapters in a later post. For now, you can discuss this post on lobsters, r/haskell or in the comments below.

Footnotes

1. The complete code for HList. ←

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