

# Generic programming

## Advanced functional programming - Lecture 10

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# Today

- ▶ Type-directed programming in action
- ▶ Generic programming: theory and practice
- ▶ Examples of type families



# Motivation

Similar functionality for different types

- ▶ equality, comparison
- ▶ mapping over the elements, traversing data structures
- ▶ serialization and deserialization
- ▶ generating (random) data
- ▶ ...

Often, there seems to be an algorithm independent of the details of the datatype at hand. Coding this pattern over and over again is boring and error-prone.



# Deriving

We can use Haskell's *deriving* mechanism to get some functionality for free:

```
data Tree = Leaf
  | Node Tree Int Tree
  deriving (Show, Eq)
```

This works for a handful of built-in classes, such as Show, Ord, Read, etc.

But what if we want to derive instances for classes that are not supported?



# Example: encoding values

```
data Tree = Leaf | Node Tree Int Tree
data Bit  = 0 | 1
```

```
encodeTree :: Tree -> [Bit]
encodeTree Leaf          = [0]
encodeTree (Node l x r) = [1] ++ encodeTree l
                           ++ encodeInt x
                           ++ encodeTree r
```

We assume a suitable encoding exists for integers:

```
encodeInt :: Int -> [Bit]
```



# Example: encoding values

```
data Lam = Var Int
         | App Lam Lam
         | Abs Lam
```

```
encodeLam :: Lam -> [Bit]
encodeLam (Var n)      = [0] ++ encodeInt n
encodeLam (App f a)    = [I,0] ++ encodeLam f
                        ++ encodeLam a
encodeLam (Abs e)      = [I,I] ++ encodeLam e
```



# Encode: Underlying ideas

In both cases we have seen, we:

- ▶ encode the choice between different constructors using sufficiently many bits,
- ▶ and append the encoded arguments of the constructor being used in sequence.
- ▶ use the encode function being defined at the recursive positions

## Goal

Express the underlying algorithm for encode in such a way that we do not have to write a new version of encode for each datatype anymore.



# The idea

## ##(Datatype-)Generic Programming

Techniques to exploit the structure of datatypes to define functions by *induction over the type structure*.





# Approach taken in this lecture

- ▶ define a uniform representation of data types;
- ▶ define a functions to and from to convert values between user-defined datatypes and their representations.
- ▶ define your generic function by induction on the structure the representation.



# Regular datatypes

Most Haskell datatypes have a common structure:

```
data Pair a b    = Pair a b
data Maybe a     = Nothing | Just a
data Tree a      = Tip | Bin (Tree a) a (Tree a)
data Ordering    = LT | EQ | GT
```

Informally:

- ▶ A datatype can be parameterized by a number of variables.
- ▶ A datatype has a number of constructors.
- ▶ Every constructor has a number of arguments.
- ▶ Every argument is a variable, a different type, or a recursive call.



# Constructing regular datatypes

## Idea

If we can describe regular datatypes in a different way, using a limited number of combinators, we can use this structure to define algorithms for all regular datatypes.

We proceed in two steps:

- ▶ abstract over recursion
- ▶ describe the “remaining” structure systematically.



# Fixpoints

We can define `fix` in Haskell using the defining property of fixed point combinators:

```
fix f = f (fix f)
```

This lets us capture recursion explicitly – enabling us to memoize computations, for example.

## Question

What is the type of `fix`?



# Fixpoints

We would like to define a similar fixpoint operation to describe recursion in *datatypes*.

For functions, we *abstract over* the recursive calls:

```
fac :: (Int -> Int) -> Int -> Int
fac = \fac x -> if x == 0 then 1 else x * fac (x-1)
```

For data types, let's do the same:

```
data Tree t = Leaf
  | Node t Int t
```

We introduce a separate *type* parameter corresponding to recursive occurrences of trees.



# Type-level fixpoints?

```
data TreeF t = Leaf  
  | Node t Int t
```

Now Tree is not recursive – how can we take compute its fixpoint?



# Type-level fixpoints

We can compute the fixpoint of a *type constructor* analogously to the `fix` function:

```
fix f = f (fix f)
```

```
data Fix f = In (f (Fix f))
```

##Question

What is the *kind* of `Fix`?



# Type-level fixpoints

We can now define trees using our `Fix` datatype:

```
data TreeF t = LeafF
  | NodeF t Int t
```

```
data Fix f = In (f (Fix f))
```

```
type Tree = Fix TreeF
```

The type `TreeF` is called the *pattern functor* of trees.

## Question

What is the pattern functor for our data type of lambda terms?





# Type-level fixpoints

This construction works equally well for lists:

```
data ListF a xs = NilF  
  | ConsF a xs
```

```
data Fix f = In (f (Fix f))
```

```
type List a = Fix (ListF a)
```

## Question

Is our type `List a` the same as `[a]`?



# Type-level fixpoints

This construction works equally well for lists:

```
data ListF a xs = NilF
  | ConsF a xs
```

```
data Fix f = In (f (Fix f))
```

```
type List a = Fix (ListF a)
```

## Question

Is our type `List a` the same as `[a]`?

What does 'the same' mean?



# Type isomorphisms

Two types  $A$  and  $B$  are *isomorphic* if we can define functions

$$f :: A \rightarrow B$$
$$g :: B \rightarrow A$$

such that

$$\text{forall } (x :: A) . g (f x) = x$$
$$\text{forall } (x :: B) . f (g x) = x$$


# Types `Fix (ListF a)` and `[a]` are isomorphic

```
from :: (Fix (ListF a)) -> [a]
from (In NilF)           = []
from (In (ConsF x xs))   = x : from xs
```

```
to :: [a] -> Fix (ListF a)
to []           = In NilF
to (x : xs)     = In (ConsF x (to xs))
```

It is relatively easy to see that these are inverses ...



# A single step of recursion

Instead of taking the fixpoint, we can also use the pattern functor to observe a single layer of recursion.

To do so, we consider the type `ListF a [a]` – the outermost layer is a `NilF` or `ConsF`; any recursive children are ‘real’ lists.

```
from :: ListF a [a] -> [a]
from NilF           = []
from (ConsF x xs)   = x : xs
```

```
to :: [a] -> ListF a [a]
to []           = NilF
to (x : xs)     = ConsF x xs
```

Once again, these are inverses.



# Pattern functors are functors

```
data ListF a r = NilF | ConsF a r

instance Functor (ListF a) where
  fmap f NilF      = NilF
  fmap f (ConsF x r) = ConsF x (f r)
```

Mapping over the pattern functor means applying the function to all recursive positions.

This is different from what `fmap` does on lists, normally!



# Pattern functors are functors – contd.

```
data TreeF t = LeafF  
  | NodeF t Int t
```

```
instance Functor TreeF where  
  fmap f (LeafF)          = LeafF  
  fmap f (NodeF l x r) = NodeF (f l) x (f r)
```



# Writing pattern functors

Where these pattern functors give us a good way to describe recursive datatypes – how should we write them?

## Idea

Haskell data types can typically be described as a combination of a small number of primitive operations.





# Building pattern functors systematically

Choice between two constructors can be represented using

```
data (f :+: g) r = L (f r) | R (g r)
```

Choice between constructors can be represented using multiple applications of  $(:+:)$ .

Two constructor arguments can be combined using

```
data (f **: g) r = f r **: g r
```

More than two constructor arguments can be described using multiple applications of  $(:**)$ .



# Building pattern functors systematically – contd.

A recursive call can be represented using

```
data I r = I r
```

Constants (such as independent datatypes or type variables) can be represented using

```
data K a r = K a
```

Constructors without argument are represented using

```
data U r = U
```



# Example

Our kit of combinators.

```
data (f :+: g) r = L (f r) | R (g r)
```

```
data (f **: g) r = f r **: g r
```

```
data I          r = I r
```

```
data K a        r = K a
```

```
data U          r = U
```

```
data ListF a r = NilF | ConsF a r
```

```
type ListS a   = U :+: (K a **: I)
```

The types `ListS a r` and `[a]` are isomorphic.

All simple data types in Haskell can be described using these five combinators.



# Excursion: algebraic data types

Haskell's data types are sometimes referred to as **algebraic** datatypes.

What does *algebraic* mean?



# Excursion: algebraic data types

Haskell's data types are sometimes referred to as **algebraic** datatypes.

What does *algebraic* mean?

Abstract algebra is a branch of mathematics that studies mathematical objects such as monoids, groups, or rings.

These structures are typically generalizations of familiar sets/operations (such as addition or multiplication on natural numbers).

If you prove a property of these structures from the axioms, this property for every structure satisfying the axioms.



# Algebraic datatypes

The  $:*:$  and  $:+:$  behave similarly to  $*$  and  $+$  on numbers; the  $I$  type is similar to 1.

For example, for any type  $t$  we can show  $1 * t$  is isomorphic to  $t$ .

Or for any types  $t$  and  $u$ , we can show  $t * u$  is isomorphic to  $u * t$ .

Similarly,  $t :+: u$  is isomorphic to  $u :+: t$ .

## Question

What is the unit of  $:+:$ ?



# Recap

So far we have seen how to represent data types using pattern functors, built from a small number of combinators.

- ▶ How can we define *generic functions* – such as the binary encoding example we saw previously?
- ▶ How can we convert between user-defined data types and their pattern functor representation?



# Defining generic functions

We would like to define a function

```
encode :: f a -> [Bit]
```

that works on all pattern functors  $f$ .

Instead, we'll define a slight variation:

```
encode :: (a -> [Bit]) -> f a -> [Bit]
```

which abstracts over the handling of recursive subtrees.





# Generic encoding

```
class Encode f where
  fencode :: (a -> [Bit]) -> f a -> [Bit]

instance Encode U where
  fencode _ U = []

instance Encode (K Int) where
  -- suitable implementation for integers

instance Encode I where
  fencode f (I r) = f r
```



# Generic encoding – contd.

```
class Encode f where  
  fencode :: (a -> [Bit]) -> f a -> [Bit]
```

```
instance (Encode f, Encode g) =>  
  Encode (f :+: g) where  
    fencode f (L x) = 0 : fencode f x  
    fencode f (R x) = 1 : fencode f x
```

```
instance (Encode f, Encode g) =>  
  Encode (f **: g) where  
    fencode f (x **: y) =  
      fencode f x ++ fencode f y
```



# Where are we now?

Using these instances, we can derive fencode for every pattern functor built up from the functor combinators.

How does that give us encode for a concrete datatype?

If we have a conversion function

```
from :: [a] -> ListS a [a]
```

we can define

```
encodeList :: [Int] -> [Bit]  
encodeList = fencode encodeList . from
```



# The Regular class

We can systematically store the isomorphism using a class:

```
class Regular a where
  from :: a          -> (PF a) a
  to   :: PF a a     -> a
```

What is PF?



# The Regular class

We can systematically store the isomorphism using a class:

```
class Regular a where
  from  :: a          -> (PF a) a
  to    :: PF a a     -> a
```

What is PF?

```
type family PF a :: * -> *
```

```
instance Regular [a] where
  from = ...
  to   = ...
```

```
type instance PF [a] = ListS a
```



# Generic encode, again

We can write a generic encoding function:

```
encode :: (Regular a, Encode (PF a)) => a -> [Bit]  
encode = fencode encode . from
```

This works for *any* regular data type that can be represented as a pattern functor.



# Who does what?

## Generic library

Provides the functor combinators and some other helper functions.

## Library

Provides generic functions by defining instances for all the functor combinators.

## User

Per datatype, provides an isomorphism with the pattern functor. Can then use all the generic functions.



# The regular library

- ▶ Available from Hackage.
- ▶ Provides generic programming functionality in the style just described.
- ▶ Several generic functions are defined, more in `regular-extras`.
- ▶ Can automatically derive the pattern functor and isomorphism for a datatype (using Template Haskell).





# Limitations of the approach

- ▶ Not all types are regular – nested types, mutually recursive types, GADTs are all not supported.
- ▶ Encoding type parameters via constants is not optimal. We cannot, for example, generically define the map function over a type parameter using `regular`.



# Beyond simple generic functions

This concept of *pattern functor* gives us the language to study the structure of data structures in greater detail.

The `Foldable` class in Haskell is defined as follows:

```
class Foldable t where  
  fold :: Monoid m => t m -> m
```

But not all folds compute monoidal results...

Can we give a more precise account of folds?



# Folding lists

We have seen the `fold` on lists many times:

```
foldr :: (a -> r -> r) -> r -> [a] -> r
foldr op e []          = e
foldr op e (x:xs)     = op x (foldr op e xs)
```

In the other lectures, we saw examples of other folds over natural numbers, trees, etc.

Can we describe this pattern more precisely?



# Ideas in foldr

- ▶ Replace constructors by user-supplied arguments.
- ▶ Recursive substructures are replaced by recursive calls.



# Folding lists – contd.

`foldr :: (a -> r -> r) -> r -> [a] -> r`

Compare the types of the constructors with the types of the arguments:

`(:)`    `::`    `a -> [a] -> [a]`

`[]`    `::`    `a -> [a]`

`cons`    `::`    `a -> r -> r`

`nil`    `::`    `a -> r`



# Folding other structures

```
data Nat = Suc Nat | Zero
```

```
foldNat :: (r -> r) -> r -> Nat -> r
```

```
foldNat s z Zero = z
```

```
foldNat s z (Suc n) = s (foldNat s z n)
```



# Folding other structures

```
data Nat = Suc Nat | Zero
```

```
foldNat :: (r -> r) -> r -> Nat -> r
```

```
foldNat s z Zero = z
```

```
foldNat s z (Suc n) = s (foldNat s z n)
```

```
data Lam = Var Int | App Lam Lam | Abs Lam
```

```
foldLam :: (Int -> r) -> (r -> r -> r) -> (r -> r)  
        -> Lam -> r
```

```
foldLam v ap ab (Var n) = v n
```

```
foldLam v ap ab (App f a) = ap (foldLam v ap ab f)  
                               (foldLam v ap ab a)
```

```
foldLam v ap ab (Abs e) = ab (foldLam v ap ab e)
```



# Catamorphism generically

If we can map over the generic positions, we can express the fold or *catamorphism* generically:

```
cata :: (Regular a, Functor (PF a)) =>  
       (PF a r -> r) -> a -> r  
cata phi = phi . fmap (cata phi) . from
```

The argument describing how to handle each constructor,  $\text{PF } a \ r \rightarrow r$ , is sometimes called an *algebra*.

## Question

What about the *cata* defined over fixpoints?





# Alternatively

Or using our fixpoint operation on types we can write:

```
newtype Fix f = In (f (Fix f))
```

```
cata :: Functor f => (f a -> a) -> Fix f -> a  
cata f (In t) = f (fmap (cata f) t)
```



# Church encodings revisited

Using this definition, we can now give a more precise account of the *Church encoding* of algebraic data structures that we saw previously.

The idea behind Church encodings is that we identify:

- ▶ a data type (described as the least fixpoint of a functor)
- ▶ the fold over this datatype



# Church encoding: lists

```
type Church a = forall r . r -> (a -> r -> r) -> r

-- reconstruct a list by applying constructors
from :: Church a -> [a]
from f = ...

-- map a list to its fold
to :: [a] -> Church a
to xs = ...
```



# Church encoding: lists

```
type Church a = forall r . r -> (a -> r -> r) -> r

-- reconstruct a list by applying constructors
from :: Church a -> [a]
from f = f [] (:)

-- map a list to its fold
to :: [a] -> Church a
to xs = \nil cons -> foldr cons nil xs
```



# Generic Church encoding

```
type Church f = forall r . (f r -> r) -> r
```

```
cata :: Functor f => (f a -> a) -> Fix f -> a  
cata f (In t) = f (fmap (cata f) t)
```

```
to :: Functor f => Fix f -> Church f  
to t = \f -> cata f t
```

```
from :: Functor f => Church f -> Fix f  
from f = f In
```



# Why pattern functors?

The pattern functors give us the right ‘language’ to describe generic constructions over datatypes – such as Church encodings!

Without having such structure at your disposal, we can study examples (such as the Church encoding of lists, lambda terms, booleans, and natural numbers) – but there’s no way to describe the general pattern.

There are many other applications of such pattern functors...

