



Existential Types and Abstraction

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Semester 2 2018

Motivation

Throughout your studies, lecturers have (hopefully) expounded on the software engineering advantages of *abstract data types*.

Last lecture we saw the advantages of ADTs¹ with the IO type:

type IO $a = (\text{IO} \rightarrow (\text{IO}, a))$

So what is an *abstract data type*?

Definition

An *abstract data type* is a type defined not by its internal representation but by the operations that can be performed on it. Typically these operations are specified using a more abstract model than the actual implementation (see COMP2111).

¹ADT always stands for abstract data type (ADT). Not algebraic data type (ADT). There is some acronym denotation tension (ADT) here.

Language Examples: C

How do we do it in C?

stack.h

```
typedef stack_impl *Stack;
```

```
Stack empty();
```

```
Stack push(Stack, int);
```

```
Stack pop(Stack, int*);
```

```
bool isEmpty(Stack);
```

```
void destroy(Stack);
```

By only importing `stack.h`,
we hide the implementation.

stack.c

```
#include "stack.h"
```

```
struct stack_impl {
```

```
    int head;
```

```
    Stack tail;
```

```
}
```

```
Stack empty() { ... }
```

```
...
```

Language Examples: Haskell

Define a module but restrict what is exported:

```
module Stack
  ( Stack -- Cons and Nil are *not* exported
  , empty
  , push
  , pop
  , isEmpty
  ) where

data Stack = Cons Int Stack | Nil

empty :: Stack
empty = Nil
...
```

Language Examples: Java

Typically Java accomplishes this with **subtype polymorphism**, something we discuss in Week 10.

```
public interface Stack {  
    public void push(int x);  
    public int pop() throws EmptyStackException;  
    public boolean isEmpty();  
}
```

```
public class ListStack implements Stack {  
    public ListStack() { ... };  
  
    ...  
}
```

Language Examples: Python

No luck here.

Quote

“Python is very simple and nice when you start to use it, but you don't get too far down the road, if you're me, before you discover it has no data abstraction at all. That's not good because big programs require modularity and encapsulation and you'd like a language that could support that.”

Barbara Liskov, *The Power of Abstraction*, 2013.

You don't need static types to enforce abstraction, but it helps.

MinHS

How can we support abstract data types in MinHS? Can we use existing features to do so?

We can use **parametric polymorphism**:

(**type** \mathcal{S} .

recfun *foo push pop isEmpty empty* =

let *s = push empty 42*

in *isEmpty (fst (pop s))*)

::

$\forall \mathcal{S}. (\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \mathcal{S})$ (push)

$\rightarrow (\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \times \text{Int})$ (pop)

$\rightarrow (\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Bool})$ (isEmpty)

$\rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ (empty)

$\rightarrow \text{Bool}$

The program *foo* is defined for any stack type \mathcal{S} . Implementations of the operations must be provided as **parameters**.

Modules

We would like a single value to pass around, that contains all the implementations of the stack interface. It's too cumbersome to pass around each function implementation individually like before. This value is called a *module*.

Our toy *foo* program from earlier needs to be rewritten as:

$$\text{STACKMODULE} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$$

For some type `STACKMODULE`. Taking in a value of type `STACKMODULE` is analogous to *importing* the module.

Via Curry-Howard

Let's translate the type of *foo* into a proposition, then do logical transformations to it: Perhaps do this on the whiteboard.

$$\forall S. ((S \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow S) \rightarrow (S \rightarrow S \times \text{Int}) \rightarrow (S \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow S \rightarrow \text{Bool})$$

(translating to logic)

$$\forall S. ((S \Rightarrow \text{Int} \Rightarrow S) \Rightarrow (S \Rightarrow S \wedge \text{Int}) \Rightarrow (S \Rightarrow \text{Bool}) \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow \text{Bool})$$

(as $P \Rightarrow Q \Rightarrow R = P \wedge Q \Rightarrow R$)

$$\forall S. ((S \Rightarrow \text{Int} \Rightarrow S) \wedge (S \Rightarrow S \wedge \text{Int}) \wedge (S \Rightarrow \text{Bool}) \wedge S \Rightarrow \text{Bool})$$

(as $\forall X. (P(X) \Rightarrow Q) = (\exists X. P(X)) \Rightarrow Q$)

$$(\exists S. (S \Rightarrow \text{Int} \Rightarrow S) \wedge (S \Rightarrow S \wedge \text{Int}) \wedge (S \Rightarrow \text{Bool}) \wedge S) \Rightarrow \text{Bool}$$

(back to types)

$$(\exists S. (S \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow S) \times (S \rightarrow S \times \text{Int}) \times (S \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \times S) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$$

Existential Types

We have our `STACKMODULE` type:

$$(\exists \mathcal{S}. (\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}) \times (\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \times \text{Int}) \times (\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \times \mathcal{S}) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$$

`STACKMODULE`

But what is this $\exists a. \tau$ thing?

Existential vs Universal Types

$\forall a. \tau$ When **producing** a value, a is an arbitrary, unknown type.
When **consuming** a value, a may be instantiated to any desired type.

$\exists a. \tau$ When **consuming** a value, a is an arbitrary, unknown type.
When **producing** a value, a may be instantiated to any desired type.

Another, Smaller Example

An ADT Bag is specified by three operations:

- ① *emptyBag*, which gives a new, empty bag.
- ② *addToBag*, which adds an integer to the bag.
- ③ *average*, which gives the arithmetic mean of all integers in the bag.

What's the type for this?

$$\text{BAGMODULE} = \exists \mathcal{B}. \underbrace{\mathcal{B}}_{\text{emptyBag}} \times \overbrace{(\mathcal{B} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \mathcal{B})}^{\text{addToBag}} \times \overbrace{(\mathcal{B} \rightarrow \text{Int})}^{\text{average}}$$

The type of a module is called its *signature*.

Making a Module

We can make a value of an existential type using the `Pack` expression.

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash \tau \text{ ok} \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \rho[a := \tau]}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash (\text{Pack } \tau \ e) : \exists a. \rho}$$

Just as the type $\forall a. \tau$ could be viewed as a **function** from a type to a value, the type $\exists a. \tau$ could be viewed as a **pair** of a type and a value.

Example (Bag as two integers)

```
Pack (Int × Int)
  ( (0, 0)
  , refun addToBag b i = (fst b + i, snd b + 1)
  , refun average b i = (fst b ÷ snd b)
  ) :: BAGMODULE
```

Importing a Module

If we are given a module as a parameter, we can access its contents using the `Open` expression:

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \exists a. \tau \quad (\Delta, a \text{ bound}); (\Gamma, x : \tau) \vdash e_2 : \rho \quad (a \text{ bound}) \notin \Delta \quad \Delta \vdash \rho \text{ ok}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash (\text{Open } e_1 (a. x. e_2)) : \rho}$$

The last two premises ensure that the type ρ does not contain the abstract type that is only in scope inside e_2 .

Example (Averaging some numbers with a bag)

```

recfun example :: (BAGMODULE → Int) bagM =
  Open bagM
    (B. (empty, addToBag, average).
      average (addToBag (addToBag empty 60) 30)
    )
  
```

In Practice

Generally, most programming languages have fairly poor support for modules.

- Dynamically typed languages typically don't support them at all².
- Haskell without extensions, Rust, C, and Go have very weak support for them.
- Java and similar accomplish modularity via OOP, which don't support existential typing in its full generality.
- Languages in the ML family, like SML and OCaml have very good support for modules.

²What they call “modules” aren't. Just like types.