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Haskell Programming with Nested Types: A Principled Approach†

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Abstract. Initial algebra semantics is one of the cornerstones of the theory of modern functional programming languages. For each inductive data type, it provides a Church encoding for that type, a build combinator which constructs data of that type, a fold combinator which encapsulates structured recursion over data of that type, and a fold/build rule which optimises modular programs by eliminating from them data constructed using the build combinator, and immediately consumed using the fold combinator, for that type. It has long been thought that initial algebra semantics is not expressive enough to provide a similar foundation for programming with nested types in Haskell. Specifically, the standard folds derived from initial algebra semantics have been considered too weak to capture commonly occurring patterns of recursion over data of nested types in Haskell, and no build combinators or fold/build rules have until now been defined for nested types. This paper shows that standard folds are, in fact, sufficiently expressive for programming with nested types in Haskell. It also defines build combinators and fold/build fusion rules for nested types. It thus shows how initial algebra semantics provides a principled, expressive, and elegant foundation for programming with nested types in Haskell.

1. Introduction

Initial algebra semantics is one of the cornerstones of the theory of modern functional programming languages. It provides support for fold combinators which encapsulate structured recursion over data structures, thereby making it possible to write, reason about, and transform programs in principled ways. Recently, [15] extended the usual initial algebra semantics for inductive types to support not only standard fold combinators, but also Church encodings and build combinators for them as well. In addition to being theoretically useful in ensuring that build is seen as a fundamental part of the basic infrastructure for programming with inductive types, this development has practical merit: the fold and build combinators can be used to define, for each inductive type, a fold/build rule which optimises modular programs by eliminating from them data of that type constructed using its build combinator and immediately consumed using its fold combinator.

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Nested data types have become increasingly popular in recent years [4, 6, 7, 8, 16, 17, 18, 20, 28]. They have been used to implement a number of advanced data types in languages, such as the widely-used functional programming language Haskell [32], which support higher-kindred types. Among these data types are those with constraints, such as perfect trees [18]; types with variable binding, such as untyped λ-terms [2, 6, 10]; cyclic data structures [13]; and certain dependent types [29]. In addition, examples of nested types supporting algorithms which are exponentially more efficient than those supported by corresponding inductive structures are given in [31].

The expressiveness of nested types lies in their generalisation of the traditional treatment of types as free-standing individual entities to entire families of types. To illustrate, consider the type of lists of elements of type a. This type can be realised in Haskell via the declaration

```haskell
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

As this declaration makes clear, the type List a can be defined independently of any type List b for b distinct from a. Moreover, since the type List a is, in isolation, an inductive type — i.e., a fixed point of a (certain kind of) data type constructor — the type constructor List is seen to define a family of inductive types. The kind of recursion captured by inductive types is known as uniform recursion [31] or simple recursion [39].

Compare the declaration for List a with the declaration

```haskell
data Lam a = Var a
          | App (Lam a) (Lam a)
          | Abs (Lam (Maybe a))
```

defining the type Lam a of untyped λ-terms over variables of type a up to α-equivalence. Here, the constructor Abs models the bound variable in an abstraction of type Lam a by the Nothing constructor of type Maybe a, and any free variable x of type a in an abstraction of type Lam a by the term Just x of type Maybe a; example representations of some particular λ-terms are given in Example 3. The key observation about the type Lam a is that, by contrast with List a, it cannot be defined in terms of only those elements of Lam a that have already been constructed. Indeed, elements of the type Lam (Maybe a) are needed to build elements of Lam a so that, in effect, the entire family of types determined by Lam has to be constructed simultaneously. Thus, rather than defining a family of inductive types as List does, the type constructor Lam defines an inductive family of types. The kind of recursion captured by nested types is a special case of non-uniform recursion [8, 31] or polymorphic recursion [30].
There are many ways to represent inductive families of types \cite{9}. The fact that inductive families can be represented as nested data types in Haskell has generated significant interest in principled techniques for programming with such types. It has also encouraged the development of Haskell libraries of pre-defined functions for manipulating nested types \cite{4,16}. These library functions can then be combined in a mix-and-match fashion to construct more sophisticated functions which manipulate data of nested types.

Associated with modularly constructed programs are inefficiencies arising from allocating, filling, deconstructing, and deallocating cells for so-called intermediate data structures, i.e., data structures which “glue” program components together but otherwise play no role in computations. Even in lazy languages like Haskell this is expensive, both slowing execution time and increasing heap requirements. When the intermediate data structures are lists or other algebraic structures, short cut fusion \cite{11,12,26} can often be used improve program performance. Short cut fusion is a local transformation based on two combinators for each algebraic type — a build combinator, which uniformly produces structures of that type, and a standard fold combinator, which uniformly consumes structures of that type — and one corresponding replacement rule for each such type, known as its fold/build rule.\footnote{The standard fold combinator for lists is known as foldr in Haskell, and the replacement rule underlying short cut fusion for lists is known as the foldr/build rule.}

The fold/build rule for an algebraic type replaces a call to the build combinator for that type which is immediately followed by a call to the fold combinator for that type with an equivalent computation that does not construct the intermediate structure of that type that is introduced by build and immediately consumed by fold.

The fold and build combinators for algebraic data types, as well as their associated fold/build rules, can be derived from initial algebra semantics. Indeed, these combinators and rules derive uniformly from standard isomorphisms between algebraic data types and their Church encodings. In \cite{14,15} this theoretical perspective was used to show that even non-algebraic inductive types have associated fold and build combinators and corresponding fold/build rules. This was achieved by extending the well-known initial algebra semantics of inductive types to include a generic Church encoding, generic build and fold combinators, and a generic fold/build rule, each of which can be specialised to any particular inductive type of interest. These specialisations can be used to eliminate intermediate structures of any inductive type that are produced by the instance of build for that type and immediately consumed by its instance of fold. Details appear in Section 2 below.
The uniform derivation of [14, 15] is far preferable to defining fold and build combinators and fold/build rules on a case-by-case basis for each inductive type.

Given the increased interest in nested types and the ensuing growth in their use, it is natural to ask whether initial algebra semantics can give a similar principled foundation for structured programming with nested types in Haskell. Until now this has not been considered possible. For example, Bird and Paterson state in the abstract of [7] that the fold combinators derived from initial algebra semantics for nested types are not expressive enough to capture certain commonly occurring patterns of structured recursion over data of nested types in Haskell. Indeed, they write:

*Although the categorical semantics of nested types turns out to be similar to the regular case, the fold functions are more limited because they can only describe natural transformations. Practical considerations therefore dictate the introduction of a generalised fold function in which this limitation can be overcome.*

This echoes similar assertions appearing in Section 6 of [5]. The supposed limitations of the standard folds has led to the development of so-called generalised folds for nested types in Haskell [4, 7, 16, 17, 18, 20]. But despite their name, these generalised folds have until now not been known to be true folds. As a result, the initial algebra-based general principles that underlie programming with, and reasoning about, standard folds in Haskell have not been available for these generalised folds. Moreover, no corresponding build combinators or fold/build fusion rules have until now been proposed or defined for nested types.

The major contribution of this paper is to confirm that

*Initial algebra semantics is enough to provide a principled foundation for structured programming with nested types in Haskell.*

We achieve this by showing that:

- For the class of nested types definable in Haskell, there is no need for the generalised folds from the literature. That is, the gfold combinators which implement generalised folds are uniformly interdefinable with the hfold combinators which implement the standard folds derived from initial algebra semantics. This means that, contrary to what had previously been thought, the hfold combinators capture *exactly the same kinds of recursion*, and so are every bit as expressive, as generalised folds.
Interdefinability also guarantees that the same principles that underlie programming with, and reasoning about, standard folds in Haskell also provide the heretofore missing theoretical foundation for programming with, and reasoning about, generalised folds in that setting.

- We can define hbuild combinators for each nested type definable in Haskell. To the best of our knowledge, such combinators have not previously been defined for nested types. Coupling each of these with the corresponding hfold combinator gives an hfold/hbuild rule for its associated nested type, and thus extends short cut fusion from inductive types to nested types in Haskell. Moreover, just as the gfold combinators can be defined in terms of the corresponding hfold combinators, so a gbuild combinator can be defined from each hbuild combinator, and a gfold/gbuild rule can be defined for each nested type in Haskell. Neither build combinators nor fold/build fusion rules developed in this paper have previously been defined for nested types.

We make several other important contributions as well. First, we actually execute the above programme in a generic style by providing a single generic hfold combinator, a single generic hbuild operator, and a single generic hfold/hbuild rule, each of which can be specialised to any particular nested type in Haskell. A similar remark applies to the generalised combinators and generalised fold/build rule. This approach emphasises that our development is highly principled, and allows us to treat the combinators and rules for all nested types in Haskell simultaneously, rather than in an ad hoc fashion which depends on the particular type under consideration.

Secondly, our results apply to all nested types definable in Haskell. In particular, this includes nested types defined using type classes, GADTs, monads, and other Haskell features. It is worth noting that interdefinability of standard and generalised folds is considered in [1] for the class of nested types expressible in a variant of \( F_\omega \). In fact, [1] goes further and establishes the interdefinability of standard and generalised folds for all higher-ranked types definable in that variant. But because the results of [1] are applicable only to those nested types definable in a particular type theory, because there are manifest differences between their type theory and a Turing complete programming language like Haskell, and because build combinators and fold/build rules for nested types are not given in [1], Haskell programmers may prefer our development.

Thirdly, as in [1], interdefinability of the gfold and hfold combinators is proved here using right Kan extensions, which can be considered
a form of “generalised continuation” [7]. Bird and Paterson also use right Kan extensions, but only as a meta-level reasoning device by which they justify writing object-level programs in terms of generalised folds. By contrast, we use right Kan extensions as an object-level programming device which can be used directly to structure Haskell programs. We similarly use left Kan extensions, which can be considered a form of computation involving hidden state, at the object level to establish interdefinability of the gbuild and hbuild combinators.

Finally, we demonstrate the practical benefit of our development with a variety of examples and a complete implementation of our ideas in Haskell, available at http://personal.cis.strath.ac.uk/~ng. The code runs in GHCi version 6.6; the -fglasmow-exts option, included in the code file, is needed to handle the nested forall-types arising in our nested data type definitions. Our implementation demonstrates the practical applicability of our ideas, makes them more accessible, and provides a partial guarantee of their correctness via the Haskell type-checker. This paper can therefore be read both as abstract mathematics, and as providing the basis for experiments and practical applications.

Our observation that initial algebra semantics is expressive enough to provide a foundation for programming with nested types in Haskell allows us to apply known principles to them, and thus, importantly, to program with them in a principled and effective manner without requiring the development of any fundamentally new theory. Moreover, this foundation is simple, clean, and accessible to anyone with an understanding of the basics of initial algebra semantics. This is important, since it guarantees that our results are immediately usable by functional programmers. Further, by closing the gap between initial algebra semantics and Haskell’s data types, this paper clearly contributes to the foundations of functional programming. It also serves as a compelling demonstration of the practical applicability of left and right Kan extensions — which, as mentioned above, are the main technical tool used to define the generalised combinators and prove them interdefinable with their counterparts derived from initial algebra semantics — and thus has the potential to render them mainstays of functional programming. More generally, it shows how categorical abstractions can be used to inspire functional programming constructs.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 recalls the initial algebra semantics of inductive types. It also discusses the relationship between the category theory used in this paper and the functional programming constructs it inspires. Section 3 recalls the derivation of standard fold combinators from initial algebra semantics for nested types in Haskell, and defines build combinators and
fold/build rules for these types. Section 4 defines the gfold combinators for nested types in Haskell and shows that they are interdefinable with their corresponding hfold combinators. It also derives our gbuilt combinators and gfold/gbuilt rules for nested types in Haskell. Section 5 discusses related work, while Section 6 mentions the coalgebraic duals of our combinators and rules, and draws some conclusions.

2. Initial Algebra Semantics for Inductive Types

In this section we review the standard initial algebra semantics for lists, for algebraic data types, and, finally, for all inductive types. We recall from [14, 15] how the standard initial algebra semantics gives, for each inductive type, a fold combinator encapsulating a commonly occurring type-independent pattern of structured recursion over data of that type. We further recall how to extend the standard initial algebra semantics to derive Church encodings, build combinators, and fold/build fusion rules for inductive types. The resulting extended initial algebra semantics provides a principled and expressive infrastructure for programming with data having inductive types. This semantics will be generalised in Section 3 to derive a similarly principled and expressive infrastructure for programming with nested types in Haskell.

2.1. Structured programming with Lists

In Haskell, structured programming with lists is accomplished using the built-in list data type constructor [], the associated data constructors (:), and [] (for Cons and Nil, respectively) and the recursion combinator foldr defined in Figure 1. The foldr combinator is widely used because it captures a commonly occurring type-independent pattern of computation for consuming lists. The development of a substantial collection of techniques for reasoning about programs which uniformly consume lists using foldr has further encouraged this form of structured programming over lists. Intuitively, foldr c n xs produces a value by replacing all occurrences of (: ) in xs by c and the single occurrence of [] in xs by n. For instance, foldr (+) 0 xs sums the (numeric) elements of the list xs. The combinator foldr is included in the Haskell prelude.

Uniform production of lists, on the other hand, is accomplished using the less well-known combinator build. This combinator takes as input a function providing a type-independent template for constructing “abstract” lists, and produces a corresponding “concrete” list. For example, build (\c n -> c 4 (c 7 (c 5 n))) produces the
foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldr c n xs = case xs of [] -> n
                      z:zs -> c z (foldr c n zs)

build :: (forall b. (a -> b -> b) -> b -> b) -> [a]
build g = g (:) []

sum :: [Int] -> Int
sum xs = foldr (+) 0 xs

map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f xs = build (\ c n -> foldr (c . f) n xs)

Figure 1. Combinators and functions for lists.

list [4,7,5]. The definitions of build and the other list-processing functions used in this paper are given in Figure 1.

The function build is not just of theoretical interest as the producer counterpart to the list consumer foldr. In fact, build is an important ingredient in short cut fusion [11, 12], a widely-used program optimisation which capitalises on the uniform production and consumption of lists to improve the performance of list-manipulating programs. Short cut fusion is based on the foldr/build rule which states that, for every function g :: forall b. (a -> b -> b) -> b -> b,

\[ \text{foldr } c \ n \ (\text{build } g) = g \ c \ n \] (1)

When this rule is considered as a replacement rule oriented from left to right and is applied to a program, it yields a new “fused” program that avoids constructing the intermediate list produced by build g and immediately consumed by foldr c n in the original. For example, if sum and map are defined as in Figure 1, if sqr x = x * x, and if sumSqs :: [Int] -> Int, then

sumSqs :: [Int] -> Int
sumSqs xs = sum (map sqr xs)
= foldr (+) 0
  (build (\ c n -> foldr (\ c . sqr) n xs))
= (\ c n -> foldr (\ c . sqr) n xs) (+) 0
= foldr ((+) . sqr) 0 xs

No intermediate lists are produced by this final version of sumSqs.
2.2. Structured programming with Algebraic Types

The above infrastructure for structured programming with lists, based on the constructors (::) and [] and the combinators foldr and build, can be generalised to other algebraic data types. An algebraic data type is, intuitively, a fixed point of a (covariant) functor which maps type variables to a type constructed using sum, product, arrow, forall, and other algebraic data types defined over those type variables — see [33] for a formal definition. Algebraic data types can be parameterised over multiple types, and can be mutually recursive, but not all types definable using Haskell’s data mechanism are algebraic. For example, neither nested types nor fixed points of mixed variance functors are algebraic.

Every algebraic data type $D$ has associated fold and build combinators. Operationally, the fold combinator for an algebraic data type $D$ takes as input appropriately typed replacement functions for each of $D$’s constructors, together with a data element $d$ of $D$. It replaces all (fully applied) occurrences of $D$’s constructors in $d$ by applications of their corresponding replacement functions. The build combinator for an algebraic data type $D$ takes as input a function $g$ providing a type-independent template for constructing “abstract” data structures from values. It instantiates all (fully applied) occurrences of abstract constructors appearing in $g$ with corresponding applications of the “concrete” constructors of $D$.

A typical example of a non-list algebraic data type is the type of arithmetic expressions over variables of type $a$. This type can be represented in Haskell as

```haskell
data Expr a = EVar a
            | Lit Int
            | Op Ops (Expr a) (Expr a)

data Ops = Add | Sub | Mul | Div
```

The buildE and foldE combinators associated with Expr appear in Figure 2. Many commonly occurring patterns of computation which consume expressions can be written using foldE — see, for example, the function accum of Figure 2, which maps an expression to the list of variables occurring in it.

Just as compositions of list-consuming and list-producing functions can be fused using the foldr/build rule, so compositions of expression-consuming and expression-producing functions defined using foldE and buildE can be fused via the fold/build rule for expressions. This rule states that, for every function $g :: \text{forall } b. (a \to b) \to (\text{Int} \to b)$
\begin{align*}
\text{foldE} :: (a \to b) \to (\text{Int} \to b) \to (\text{Ops} \to b \to b \to b) \to \text{Expr} a \to b \\
\text{foldE} v l o e = \text{case } e \text{ of} \\
EVar x \to v x \\
\text{Lit } i \to l i \\
\text{Op } \text{op } e_1 e_2 \to o \text{op } (\text{foldE } v l o e_1) (\text{foldE } v l o e_2)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{buildE} :: (\forall b. (a \to b) \to (\text{Int} \to b) \to (\text{Ops} \to b \to b \to b) \to b) \to \text{Expr} a \\
\text{buildE} g = g \text{EVar } \text{Lit } \text{Op}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{accum} :: \text{Expr } a \to [a] \\
\text{accum} = \text{foldE } (\\lambda x \to [x]) (\\lambda i \to []) (\\lambda \text{op} \to (++))
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{mapE} :: (a \to b) \to \text{Expr } a \to \text{Expr } b \\
\text{mapE } \text{env } e = \text{buildE } (\\lambda v l o \to \text{foldE } (v . \text{env}) l o e)
\end{align*}

\textbf{Figure 2.} Combinators and functions for expressions.

\begin{align*}
\rightarrow (\text{Ops} \rightarrow b \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b, \\
\text{foldE } v l o (\text{buildE } g) = g \text{ v l o}
\end{align*}

For example, if \( \text{env} :: a \rightarrow b \) is a renaming environment and \( e \) is an expression, then a function \text{renameAccum} which accumulates variables of renamings of expressions can be defined modularly as

\begin{align*}
\text{renameAccum} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow \text{Expr } a \rightarrow [b] \\
\text{renameAccum } env \ e = \text{accum } (\text{mapE } env \ e)
\end{align*}

Using rule (2) and the definitions in Figure 2 we can derive the following more efficient version of \text{renameAccum}:

\begin{align*}
\text{renameAccum } env \ e \\
= \text{foldE } (\\lambda x \to [x]) (\\lambda i \to []) (\\lambda \text{op} \to (++)) (\text{buildE } (\\lambda v l o \to \text{foldE } (v . \text{env}) l o e)) \\
= (\\lambda v l o \to \text{foldE } (v . \text{env}) l o e) (\\lambda x \to [x]) (\\lambda i \to []) (\\lambda \text{op} \to (++)) \\
= \text{foldE } ((\\lambda x \to [x]) . \text{env}) (\\lambda i \to []) (\\lambda \text{op} \to (++)) \ e
\end{align*}

Unlike the original version of \text{renameAccum}, this one does not construct the renamed expression but instead accumulates variables “on the fly” while renaming.
2.3. **STRUCTURED PROGRAMMING WITH INDUCTIVE TYPES**

As it turns out, a similar story about structured programming can be told for all inductive data types. *Inductive data types* are fixed points of functors, i.e., of type constructors which support \( \text{fmap} \) functions, and *inductive data structures* are data structures of inductive type. Functors can be implemented in Haskell as type constructors supporting \( \text{fmap} \) functions as follows:

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

The function \( \text{fmap} \) is expected to satisfy the two semantic functor laws

\[
\text{fmap id} = \text{id} \\
\text{fmap (f . g)} = \text{fmap f} \cdot \text{fmap g}
\]

stating that \( \text{fmap} \) preserves identities and composition. Satisfaction of the functor laws is, however, not enforced by the compiler. Instead, it is the programmer’s responsibility to ensure that the \( \text{fmap} \) function for each instance of Haskell’s \texttt{Functor} class behaves appropriately.

As is well-known [14, 15, 37], every inductive type has an associated \texttt{fold} and \texttt{build} combinator which can be implemented generically in Haskell as

```haskell
newtype M f = Inn {unInn :: f (M f)}

ffold :: Functor f => (f a -> a) -> M f -> a
ffold h (Inn k) = h (fmap (ffold h) k)

fbuild :: Functor f => (forall b. (f b -> b) -> b) -> M f
fbuild g = g Inn
```

The \texttt{fbuild} and \texttt{ffold} combinators for a functor \( f \) can be used to construct and eliminate inductive data structures of type \( M f \) from computations. Indeed, if \( f \) is any functor, \( h \) is any function of any type \( f a \rightarrow a \), and \( g \) is any function of type \( \forall b. (f b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \), then rules (1) and (2) above generalise to the following \texttt{fold/build} rule for \( M f \):

\[
\text{ffold h (fbuild g)} = g \, h
\]

(3)

The following example of short cut fusion is borrowed from [14]. An *interactive input/output computation* [35] is either i) a value of type \( a \), ii) an input action, which, for every input token of type \( i \), results in a new interactive input/output computation, or iii) an output configuration consisting of an output token of type \( o \) and a new interactive input/output computation. This is captured in the declaration
data IntIO i o a = Val a
  | Inp (i -> IntIO i o a)
  | Outp (o, IntIO i o a)

The data type \( \text{IntIO} \ i \ o \ a \) is \( M (K \ i \ o \ a) \) for the functor \( K \ i \ o \ a \) defined by

\[
data K \ i \ o \ a \ b = \text{Vk} \ a \mid \text{Ik} \ (i \to b) \mid \text{Ok} \ (o,b)
\]

instance Functor (K i o a) where
  fmap k (Vk x) = Vk x
  fmap k (Ik h) = Ik (k . h)
  fmap k (Ok (y,z)) = Ok (o, k z)

We can obtain \( \text{ffold} \) and \( \text{fbuild} \) combinators for this functor by first instantiating the above generic definitions of \( \text{ffold} \) and \( \text{fbuild} \) for \( f = K \ i \ o \ a \), and then using standard type isomorphisms to unbundle the type arguments to the functor (and guide the case analysis performed by \( \text{ffold} \)). Unbundling allows us to treat the single argument \( h : K \ i \ o \ a \ b \to b \) to the instantiation of \( \text{ffold} \) as a curried triple of “constructor replacement functions” \( v : a \to b \), \( p : (i \to b) \to b \), and \( q : (o,b) \to b \), and to give these three functions, rather than the isomorphic “bundled” function \( h \), as arguments to \( \text{ffold} \). Unbundling is not in any sense necessary; its sole purpose is to allow the instantiation to take a form more familiar to functional programmers. Similar remarks apply at several places below, and unbundling is performed without comment henceforth. Instantiating \( f \) to \( K \ i \ o \ a \), we have

\[
\text{IntIOfold} :: (a \to b) \to ((i \to b) \to b) \to ((o,b) \to b) \\
\to \text{IntIO} \ i \ o \ a \to b
\]

\[
\text{intIOfold} \ v \ p \ q \ k = \text{case} \ k \ \text{of}
  \quad \text{Val} \ x \quad \Rightarrow \ v \ x
  \quad \text{Inp} \ h \quad \Rightarrow \ p \ (\text{intIOfold} \ v \ p \ q . \ h)
  \quad \text{Outp} \ (y,z) \to q \ (y, \text{intIOfold} \ v \ p \ q \ z)
\]

\[
\text{intIObuild} :: (\forall b. \ (a \to b) \to ((i \to b) \to b) \to ((o,b) \to b) \to b) \\
\to \text{IntIO} \ i \ o \ a
\]

\[
\text{intIObuild} \ g = g \ \text{Val} \ \text{Inp} \ \text{Outp}
\]

\[
\text{intIOfold} \ v \ p \ q \ (\text{intIObuild} \ g) = g \ v \ p \ q
\]

As discussed in [14, 15], the \( \text{ffold} \) and \( \text{fbuild} \) combinators for inductive types, as well as the corresponding \( \text{ffold/fbuild} \) rules, generalise those for algebraic types. Moreover, the \( \text{ffold} \) and \( \text{fbuild} \)
combinators for inductive types are defined uniformly over the functors whose fixed points those types are. We will use this observation to good effect in the next subsection.

2.4. A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

Thus far we have purposely taken a determinedly computational point of view so as to make clear the relevance of this paper to programming in general, and to Haskell programming in particular. However, even from a programming perspective the above development is rather incomplete. If we are to generalise the treatment of inductive types given above to more advanced data types, we must ask:

Why is the above style of structured programming possible, i.e., why do the \texttt{ffold} and \texttt{fbuild} combinators exist for inductive types and why are the associated \texttt{ffold/fbuild} rules correct?

A principled answer to this question is clearly important if we are to program with, and reason about, the \texttt{ffold} and \texttt{fbuild} combinators, and also if we are to generalise them to more expressive types.

This section offers precisely such a principled answer. However, readers without the required background in category theory, or whose main focus is not on the categorical foundations of the combinators and fusion rules for advanced data types, can safely omit this section and other categorical discussions in the paper since all of the relevant category-theoretic constructs used in this paper are implemented in Haskell. Readers who choose to do this will miss some of the motivations for the theory of nested types, and some of the connections between the theory of inductive types and the theory of nested types, but will miss no necessary facts. In any case, we do not attempt a complete reconstruction of all of category theory here. Instead, we introduce only those concepts that form the basis of our principled approach to programming with nested types in Haskell.

The key idea underlying our approach is that of \textit{initial algebra semantics}. Within the paradigm of initial algebra semantics, every data type is the carrier $\mu F$ of the initial algebra of a suitable functor $F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C}$ for some suitable, fixed category $\mathcal{C}$. In more detail, suppose we have fixed such a category $\mathcal{C}$. An \textit{algebra} for a functor $F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C}$ (or, simply, an $F$-\textit{algebra}) is a pair $(A, h)$ where $A$ is an object of $\mathcal{C}$ and $h : FA \to A$ is a morphism of $\mathcal{C}$. Here, $A$ is called the \textit{carrier} of the algebra and $h$ is called its \textit{structure map}. As it turns out, the $F$-algebras for a given functor $F$ themselves form a category. In the category of $F$-algebras, a morphism $f : (A, h) \to (B, g)$ is a map $f : A \to B$ in $\mathcal{C}$.
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such that the following diagram commutes:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
FA & \xrightarrow{Ff} & FB \\
\downarrow h & & \downarrow g \\
A & \xrightarrow{f} & B
\end{array}
\]

We call such a morphism an \textit{\(F\)-algebra homomorphism}.

Now, if the category of \(F\)-algebras has an initial object — called an \textit{initial algebra for \(F\)}, or, more simply, an \textit{initial \(F\)-algebra} — then Lambek’s Lemma ensures that the structure map of this initial \(F\)-algebra is an isomorphism, and thus that its carrier is a fixed point of \(F\). If it exists, the initial \(F\)-algebra is unique up to isomorphism. Henceforth we write \(\langle \mu F, \text{in} \rangle\) for the initial \(F\)-algebra comprising the fixed point \(\mu F\) of \(F\) and the isomorphism \(\text{in} : F(\mu F) \to \mu F\).

2.4.1. \textit{Folds}

The standard interpretation of a type constructor is as a functor \(F\), and the standard interpretation of the data type it defines is as the least fixed point of \(F\). As noted above, this least fixed point is the carrier of the initial \(F\)-algebra. Initiality ensures that there is a unique \(F\)-algebra homomorphism from the initial \(F\)-algebra to any other \(F\)-algebra. The map underlying this \(F\)-algebra homomorphism is exactly the \textit{fold} operator for the data type \(\mu F\). Thus if \((A, h)\) is any \(F\)-algebra, then \(\text{fold } h : \mu F \to A\) makes the following diagram commute:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
F(\mu F) & \xrightarrow{F(\text{fold } h)} & FA \\
\downarrow \text{in} & & \downarrow h \\
\mu F & \xrightarrow{\text{fold } h} & A
\end{array}
\]

From this diagram, we see that the type of \textit{fold} is \((FA \to A) \to \mu F \to A\) and that \textit{fold} \(h\) satisfies \(\text{fold } h (\text{in } t) = h (F (\text{fold } h) t)\). This justifies the definition of the \textit{ffold} combinator given above. Also, the uniqueness of the mediating map ensures that, for every algebra \(h\), the map \textit{fold} \(h\) is defined uniquely. This provides the basis for the correctness of \textit{fold} fusion for inductive types, which states that if \(h\) and \(h'\) are \(F\)-algebras and \(\psi\) is an \(F\)-algebra homomorphism from \(h\) to \(h'\), then \(\psi \cdot \text{fold } h = \text{fold } h'\). But note that \textit{fold} fusion \([4, 6, 7, 8, 28]\), is completely different from, and inherently simpler than, the \textit{fold}/\textit{build} fusion which is central in this paper, and which we discuss next; see Section 5 for a full discussion.

It is reasonable to ask at this point when an initial \(F\)-algebra is guaranteed to exist for a functor \(F\) on a category \(C\). It is possible that
some functors on a given category will have initial algebras and some not, but the following result (see, e.g., [36]) gives sufficient conditions.

**THEOREM 1.** If $C$ has both an initial object and $\omega$-colimits, and if $F$ preserves $\omega$-colimits, then $C$ will have an initial $F$-algebra.

To unpack Theorem 1, we first introduce the idea of an $\omega$-chain. An $\omega$-chain $(D, f)$ is a family $D$ of objects $D_i$ together with a family $f$ of morphisms $f_i : D_i \to D_{i+1}$ for all $i \geq 0$. Diagrammatically, we have

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
D_0 & \xrightarrow{f_0} & D_1 & \xrightarrow{f_1} & D_2 & \xrightarrow{f_2} & \cdots \\
0 & \xrightarrow{!} & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\
\end{array}
$$

A cocone $\mu : D \to X$ of an $\omega$-chain $(D, f)$ is an object $X$ and a family of morphisms $\mu_i : D_i \to X$ such that $\mu_i = \mu_{i+1} \circ f_i$ for all $i \geq 0$.

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
D_0 & \xrightarrow{f_0} & D_1 & \xrightarrow{f_1} & D_2 & \xrightarrow{f_2} & \cdots \\
0 & & & & & & 0 \\
X & & & & & & X \\
\end{array}
$$

A colimit of an $\omega$-chain $(D, f)$ is a cocone $\mu : D \to X$ with the property that if $\nu : D \to Y$ is also a cocone of $(D, f)$, then there is a unique morphism $k : X \to Y$ such that $\nu_i = k \circ \mu_i$. Colimits of $\omega$-chains are also called $\omega$-colimits. A functor $F$ preserves $\omega$-colimits if, for every $\omega$-colimit $\mu : D \to X$, the cocone $F\mu : FD \to FX$ is also an $\omega$-colimit.

The proof of Theorem 1 considers the particular $\omega$-chain $(D, f)$ given by

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & \xrightarrow{!} & F0 & \xrightarrow{F^1} & F^20 & \xrightarrow{F^21} & \cdots \\
\end{array}
$$

where $0$ is the initial object in $C$, $F$ is the particular functor of interest, and $!$ is the unique morphism from $0$ to $F0$. It next observes that, under the hypotheses of the theorem, if $\mu : D \to X$ is an $\omega$-colimit of $(D, f)$ then $F\mu : FD \to FX$ is an $\omega$-colimit of the $\omega$-chain $(FD, Ff)$ given by

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
F0 & \xrightarrow{F^1} & F^20 & \xrightarrow{F^21} & F^30 & \xrightarrow{F^31} & \cdots \\
\end{array}
$$

Finally, this observation is used to show directly that if $\nu : FX \to X$ is the unique morphism such that $\mu_{i+1} = \nu \circ F\mu_i$ for all $i \geq 0$, then $(X, \nu)$ is an initial $F$-algebra.

Many categories arising in the semantics of programming languages are well known to have initial objects and $\omega$-colimits. Moreover, in any category, identity and constant functors preserve $\omega$-colimits, as do
products and coproducts of functors which preserve ω-colimits. As a result, all polynomial functors preserve ω-colimits.

Regarding the choice of a suitable category $\mathcal{C}$ in which to work, we note that, unfortunately, a semantics of Haskell does not exist independently of any specific implementation. In particular, there is no known categorical semantics for full Haskell. Nevertheless, programmers and researchers often proceed as though there were, or may someday be, and we follow in this well-established tradition. There is a sense, then, that the treatment of structured programming for nested types put forth in this paper takes place “in the abstract”, given that the existence of a suitable category $\mathcal{C}$ is simply assumed, and thus that our programming constructs may best be considered “categorically inspired”. But we prefer a slightly different take on the situation, regarding this paper as prescriptive, since it indicates properties that any eventual categorical semantics of Haskell should — even intuitively — satisfy.

2.4.2. Church encodings, builds, and fold/build fusion rules

Although the above discussion shows that fold combinators for inductive types can be derived entirely from, and understood entirely in terms of, initial algebra semantics, regrettably the standard initial algebra semantics does not provide a similar principled derivation of the build combinators or the correctness of the fold/build rules. In fact, build has been regarded as a kind of optional “add-on” which is not a fundamental part of the basic infrastructure for programming with inductive types. The practical consequence of this has been that the build combinators have been largely overlooked and treated as poor relatives of their corresponding fold combinators, and thus unworthy of fundamental study.

This situation was rectified in [15], where the standard initial algebra semantics was extended to support not only fold combinators for inductive types, but also Church encodings and build combinators for them. Indeed, [15] considers the initial $F$-algebra for a functor $F$ to be not only the initial object of the category of $F$-algebras, but also the limit of the forgetful functor from the category of $F$-algebras to the underlying category $\mathcal{C}$ as well. We summarise this result and its consequences, which we later apply to derive our build combinators for nested types.

If $F$ is a functor on $\mathcal{C}$, then the forgetful functor $U_F$ maps $F$-algebras to objects in $\mathcal{C}$ by forgetting the $F$-algebra structure. That is, $U_F$ maps an $F$-algebra $(A, h)$ to its carrier $A$, and maps an $F$-algebra homomorphism $f : (A, h) \rightarrow (B, g)$ to the underlying $f : A \rightarrow B$ in $\mathcal{C}$.

If $C$ is an object in $\mathcal{C}$, then a $U_F$-cone for $C$ comprises, for every $F$-algebra $(A, h)$, a morphism $\nu_{(A, h)} : C \rightarrow A$ in $\mathcal{C}$ such that, for any
\[ F\text{-algebra homomorphism } f : (A, h) \to (B, g) \text{, we have } \nu(B,g) = f \circ \nu(A,h). \]

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\
\downarrow \nu(A,h) & & \downarrow \nu(B,g) \\
C & & 
\end{array}
\]

We write \((C, \nu)\) for this cone, and call \(C\) its vertex and the morphism \(\nu(A,h)\) the projection from \(C\) to \((A, h)\). A \(U_F\)-cone morphism \(g : (C, \nu) \to (D, \mu)\) between \(U_F\)-cones \((C, \nu)\) and \((D, \mu)\) is a morphism \(g : C \to D\) in \(C\) such that for any \(F\)-algebra \((A, h)\), we have \(\mu(A,h) \circ g = \nu(A,h)\). We call \(g\) a mediating morphism from \(C\) to \(D\). A \(U_F\)-limit is a \(U_F\)-cone to which there is a unique \(U_F\)-cone morphism from any other \(U_F\)-cone.

When they exist, \(U_F\)-limits are unique up to isomorphism. Moreover, no extra structure is required of either \(F\) or \(C\) for the \(U_F\)-limit to exist — it is simply the carrier of the initial \(F\)-algebra.

The characterisation of initial algebras as both limits and colimits is what we call the extended initial algebra semantics. As shown in [15], an initial \(F\)-algebra has a different universal property as a limit from the one it inherits as a colimit. This alternate universal property ensures:

- For each \(F\)-algebra, the projection from the vertex of the \(U_F\)-limit (i.e., from \(\mu F\)) to the carrier of that \(F\)-algebra defines the \textit{fold} operator with type \((Fx \to x) \to \mu F \to x\).
- A \(U_F\)-cone with vertex \(C\) can be thought of as having the type \((\forall x. (Fx \to x)) \to C \to x\). The unique mediating morphism from the vertex \(C\) of a \(U_F\)-cone to the vertex \(\mu F\) of the \(U_F\)-limit defines the \textit{build} operator with type \((\forall x. (Fx \to x) \to C \to x) \to C \to \mu F\).
- The correctness of the \textit{fold}/\textit{build} fusion rule \(\text{fold } h \cdot \text{build } g = g \circ h\) then follows from the fact that \(\text{fold after } \text{build}\) is a projection after a mediating morphism from \(C\) to \(\mu F\), and is thus equal to the projection from \(C\) to the carrier of \(h\).

The extended initial algebra semantics thus shows that, given a parametric interpretation of universal quantification for types, there is an isomorphism between the type \(C \to \mu F\) and the “generalised Church encoding” \(\forall x. (Fx \to x) \to C \to x\).

Choosing \(C\) to be the unit type gives the usual isomorphism between an inductive type and its usual Church encoding. This isomorphism comprises precisely the \textit{fold} (up to order of arguments) and \textit{build} operators.
for that type. Writing \( \text{fold}' \) \( m \) \( h \) for \( \text{fold} \) \( h \) \( m \) we have

\[
\text{fold}' :: \mu F \to \forall x.(F x \to x) \to x \\
\text{build} :: (\forall x.(F x \to x) \to x) \to \mu F
\]

From this we see that correctness of the \( \text{fold}/\text{build} \) rule for inductive types is one half of the requirement that \( \text{build} \) and \( \text{fold}' \) are mutually inverse. A generic \( \text{build} \) combinator and a generic Church encoding for inductive types are essentially given in [37], but attention is restricted there to “functors whose operation on functions are continuous.” By contrast, our \( \text{build} \) combinator is entirely generic over all instances of Haskell’s functor class. Moreover, the \( \text{builds} \) in [37] do not appear to be derived from any universal property.

In the next section we will see that, in Haskell, nested types can be defined as fixed points of higher-order functors. Categorically speaking, higher-order functors are functors, and thus have associated \( \text{folds} \), \( \text{builds} \), and \( \text{fold}/\text{build} \) rules. This observation can be used to derive \( \text{build} \) combinators and \( \text{fold}/\text{build} \) rules for nested types in Haskell. Our derivation will make use of the generalised Church encodings for non-unit type parameters \( C \).

### 3. Initial Algebra Semantics for Nested Types

Although many data types of interest can be expressed as inductive types, these types are not expressive enough to capture all data structures of interest. Such data structures can, however, often be expressed in terms of nested types in Haskell.

**EXAMPLE 1.** The type of perfect trees over type \( a \) is given by

```haskell
data PTree a = PLeaf a | PNode (PTree (a,a))
```

Here, the recursive constructor \( \text{PNode} \) stores not pairs of trees, but rather trees with data of pair types. Thus, \( \text{PTree} \) \( a \) is a nested type for each \( a \). Perfect trees are easily seen to be in one-to-one correspondence with lists whose lengths are powers of two, and hence illustrate how nested types can be used to capture structural constraints on data types.

The data type of bushes [5] provides an additional example of a nested type.

**EXAMPLE 2.** The type of bushes over type \( a \) is given by

```haskell
data Bush a = BLeaf | BNode (a, Bush (Bush a))
```
Note the nested recursive call to \texttt{Bush} on the right-hand side of \texttt{Bush}'s definition.

Finally, we recall the data type of untyped \( \lambda \)-terms from the introduction.

\textbf{EXAMPLE 3.} The type of \((\alpha\text{-equivalence classes of})\) untyped \( \lambda \)-terms over variables of type \( a \) is given by

\begin{verbatim}
data Lam a = Var a  | App (Lam a) (Lam a)  | Abs (Lam (Maybe a))
\end{verbatim}

Specific elements of type \texttt{Lam a} include \texttt{Abs (Var Nothing)}, which represents \( \lambda x.x \), and \texttt{Abs (Var (Just x))}, which represents \( \lambda y.x \).

We observed in the introduction that each nested type constructor defines an inductive family of types, rather than a family of inductive types. This leads us to consider type constructors which are themselves defined inductively. Just as inductive types arise as least fixed points of functors which map types to types, so inductive type constructors arise as fixed points of functors which map functors to functors. This observation amounts to recalling that a standard way to solve a parameterised equation is to regard it as a higher-order (in our setting, fixed point) equation with its parameters abstracted.

We thus model nested types as least fixed points of functors on the category of endofunctors on the base category \( C \), i.e., as least fixed points of \textit{higher-order functors} on \( C \). In the category of endofunctors on \( C \), which we write \([C,C]\), objects are functors on \( C \) and morphisms are natural transformations between functors on \( C \). Thus higher-order functors must preserve identity natural transformations and compositions of natural transformations. From Section 2.4, we know that to ensure that a higher-order functor \( F : [C,C] \to [C,C] \) has an initial \( F \)-algebra — and hence a least fixed point — the category \([C,C]\) must have an initial object and \( \omega \)-colimits, and that \( F \) must preserve \( \omega \)-colimits. But only that \( F \) preserves \( \omega \)-colimits actually needs to be verified since the initial object of \([C,C]\) and \( \omega \)-colimits in \([C,C]\) are inherited from those in \( C \). Specifically, the initial object of \([C,C]\) is simply the functor which maps every object in \( C \) to the initial object of \( C \), and which maps every morphism in \( C \) to the identity morphism on the initial object of \( C \). The \( \omega \)-colimit of an \( \omega \)-chain \((G,f)\) in \([C,C]\) is a functor \( H \) on \( C \) together with a family of natural transformations \( \mu_i : G_i \to H \) such that (i) for any \( A \), the cocone \((HA,\mu_A)\) comprising \( HA \) and the \((\mu_i)_A \) is the \( \omega \)-colimit of the \( \omega \)-chain \((GA,f_A)\) comprising the \( G_iA \) and the \((f_i)_A \), and (ii) for any \( f : A \to B \), \( Hf : HA \to HB \) is the unique morphism such that \((\mu_i)_B \circ G_i f = Hf \circ (\mu_i)_A \). The existence and
uniqueness of this morphism follow from the facts that \((HB, \nu_B)\), where 
\((\nu_i)_B = (\mu_i)_B \circ G_i f\), is a cocone of the \(\omega\)-chain \((GA, fA)\) and \((HA, \mu_A)\) is the colimit of this \(\omega\)-chain.

Higher-order functors can be implemented by the following Haskell type class, which is a higher-order analogue of Haskell’s \texttt{Functor} class.

```haskell
class HFunctor f where
  ffmap :: Functor g => (a -> b) -> f g a -> f g b
  hfmap :: (Functor g, Functor h) => Nat g h -> Nat (f g) (f h)
```

A higher-order functor thus maps functors to functors and maps between functors to maps between functors, i.e., natural transformations to natural transformations. The first of these observations is captured by the requirement that a higher-order functor supports an \texttt{ffmap} operation. While not explicit in the \texttt{HFunctor} class definition, the programmer is expected to verify that if \(g\) is a functor, then \(fg\) satisfies the functor laws. The second observation is captured by the requirement that a higher-order functor support an \texttt{hfmap} operation. To see this, first observe that the type of natural transformations can be given in Haskell by

```haskell
type Nat g h = forall a. g a -> h a
```

Assuming a parametric interpretation of the \texttt{forall} quantifier, an element of the type \texttt{Nat g h} can be thought of as a uniform family of maps from \(g\) to \(h\). This ensures that the naturality square for \(g\) and \(h\) commutes. Although not explicitly required by the Haskell definition of \texttt{Nat g h}, both \(g\) and \(h\) are expected to be functors. Moreover, like the \texttt{fmap} functions for functors, the \texttt{hfmap} functions for higher-order functors are expected to preserve identities and composition. Here, identities are identity natural transformations, and compositions are compositions of natural transformations.

We can now implement nested types as fixed points of \texttt{HFunctors} in Haskell. These are defined by

```haskell
newtype Mu f a = In {unIn :: f (Mu f) a}
```

Note that because Haskell lacks polymorphic kinding, our implementation cannot use the constructor \texttt{M} introduced to represent fixed points of first-order functors above. This is the reason for introducing the new type constructor \texttt{Mu} to represent fixed points of higher-order functors. We write \texttt{Mu f} for the fixed point of the higher-order functor \(f\).

EXAMPLE 4. The nested types of perfect trees, bushes, and untyped \(\lambda\)-terms from Examples 1, 2, and 3 arise as fixed points of the higher-order functors.
data HPTree f a = HPLeaf a | HPNode \( f (a, a) \)

data HBush f a = HBLeaf | HBNode \( a, f (f a) \)

data HLam f a = HVar a
  | HApp \( f a \) (f a)
  | HAbs \( f (\text{Maybe} a) \)

respectively. Indeed, the types PTREE a, BUSHER a, and LAM a are isomorphic to the types Mu HPTree a, Mu HBush a and Mu HLam a, respectively.

We should check that HPTree, HBush, and HLam are instances of the HFunctor class, and that all functor laws requiring programmer verification are satisfied. Such checks are usually straightforward. For example, in the case of HPTree we have

instance HFunctor HPTree where
  ffmap f (HPLeaf a) = HPLeaf \( f a \)
  ffmap f (HPNode a) = HPNode \( fmap (\text{pair} f) a \)
  hfmap f (HPLeaf a) = HPLeaf a
  hfmap f (HPNode a) = HPNode \( f a \)

Here, \( \text{pair} f (x, y) = (f x, f y) \). Verifying that if \( g \) is a functor then HPTree \( g \) is a functor amounts to showing that \( \text{ffmap id} = \text{id} \) and \( \text{ffmap (k . l)} = \text{ffmap k . ffmap l} \) for functions \( k \) and \( l \). That HPTree maps natural transformations to natural transformations follows from the type-correctness of \( \text{hfmap} \) under the aforementioned assumption of a parametric model.

We now turn our attention to deriving fold and build combinators and fold/build rules for nested types in Haskell. In fact, initial algebra semantics makes this very easy. We simply instantiate all of the ideas from Section 2 in our category of endofunctors. We begin by recalling the standard fold combinators for nested types from the literature.

3.1. Folds for Nested Types

As we have seen, one of the strengths of the standard initial algebra semantics for inductive data types is the uniform definition of folds for consuming inductive structures. Categorically, a fold operator takes as input an algebra for a functor and returns a morphism from the fixed point of the functor to the carrier of the algebra. Since a nested type is nothing more than a fixed point, albeit of a higher-order functor, the same idea can be used to derive folds for nested types in Haskell. Of course, an algebra must now be an algebra for a higher-order functor.
whose fixed point the nested type constructor is. The structure map of such an algebra will thus be a natural transformation. Further, the result of the fold will be a natural transformation from the nested type to the carrier of the algebra. These definitions can be implemented in Haskell as

```haskell
type Alg f g = Nat (f g) g
hfold :: (HFunctor f, Functor g) => Alg f g -> Nat (Mu f) g
hfold m (In u) = m (hfmap (hfold m) u)

EXAMPLE 5. The hfold combinator for perfect trees is

```haskell
hfoldPTree :: (forall a. a -> f a) ->
            (forall a. f (a,a) -> f a) ->
            PTree a -> f a

hfoldPTree f g (PLeaf x) = f x
hfoldPTree f g (PNode xs) = g (hfoldPTree f g xs)

EXAMPLE 6. The hfold combinator for bushes is

```haskell
hfoldBush :: (forall a. f a) ->
            (forall a. (a, f (f a)) -> f a) ->
            Bush a -> f a

hfoldBush l n BLeaf = l
hfoldBush l n (BNode (x, b)) =
    n (x, hfmap (hfoldBush l n) (hfoldBush l n b))

EXAMPLE 7. The hfold combinator for λ-terms is

```haskell
hfoldLam :: (forall a. a -> f a) ->
            (forall a. f a -> f a -> f a) ->
            (forall a. f (Maybe a) -> f a) ->
            Lam a -> f a

hfoldLam v ap ab (Var x) = v x
hfoldLam v ap ab (App d e) = ap (hfoldLam v ap ab d)
                              (hfoldLam v ap ab e)
hfoldLam v ap ab (Abs l) = ab (hfoldLam v ap ab l)
```

The uniqueness of hfold, guaranteed by its derivation from initial algebra semantics, provides the basis for the correctness of fold fusion for nested types [8]. As mentioned above, fold fusion is not the same
as fold/build fusion; in particular, the latter has not previously been considered for nested types.

3.2. **Church Encodings and Builds For Nested Types**

The extended initial algebra semantics also gives us build combinators for nested types in Haskell. To see this, we begin by recalling the derivation of the generic build combinator for inductive types as explained in Section 2.4. The key observation was that, given a parametric interpretation of universal type quantification, there is an isomorphism between $C \to \mu F$ and the generalised Church encoding $\forall x.(Fx \to x) \to C \to x$. But this isomorphism holds for all functors, including higher-order ones. We should therefore be able to instantiate this isomorphism for a higher-order functor $F$ to derive a generic Church encoding and a generic build combinator for nested types. And indeed we can, provided we interpret the isomorphism in an endofunctor category.

The Church encoding of a nested type which is representable in Haskell as $\text{Mu } f$ for a higher-order functor $f$ can be written as

$$\forall x. (\text{Alg } f \ x) \to \text{Nat } c \ x$$

We therefore define the generic build combinator for such nested types to be

$$\text{hbuild} :: \text{HFunctor } f \Rightarrow
\forall x. \text{Alg } f \ x \to \text{Nat } c \ x \to \text{Nat } c \ (\text{Mu } f)$$

$$\text{hbuild } g = g \ \text{In}$$

It is worth noticing that the generic hbuild combinator follows the definitional format of the generic build combinator for inductive types: it applies its argument to the structure map $\text{In}$ of the initial algebra of the higher-order functor $f$ over which it is parameterised. Of course, the structure morphism of the initial algebra $\text{In}$ is not a function of type $f (\text{M } f) \to \text{M } f$ in this setting, but rather a natural transformation of type $\text{Nat } (f (\text{Mu } f)) (\text{Mu } f)$.

We can instantiate the generic hbuild combinator for any particular nested type of interest.

**EXAMPLE 8.** The Church encoding and hbuild combinator for perfect trees are given concretely by

$$\forall x. (\forall a. a \to x \ a) \to
(\forall a. x \ (a,a) \to x \ a) \to
(\forall a. c \ a \to x \ a)$$
EXAMPLE 9. The Church encoding and hbuild combinator for bushes are given concretely by

\[
\text{forall } x. \ (\text{forall } a. \ a \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ (a, x (x a)) \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ c a \to x a)
\]

and

\[
\text{forall } x. \ (\text{forall } a. \ x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ (a, x (x a)) \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ c a \to x a)
\]

EXAMPLE 10. The Church encoding and hbuild combinator for λ-terms are given concretely by

\[
\text{forall } x. \ (\text{forall } a. \ a \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ x a \to x a \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ x (\text{Maybe } a) \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ c a \to x a)
\]

and

\[
\text{forall } x. \ (\text{forall } a. \ a \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ x a \to x a \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ x (\text{Maybe } a) \to x a) \to \\
(\text{forall } a. \ c a \to x a)
\]

and
3.3. SHORT CUT FUSION FOR NESTED TYPES

The extended initial algebra semantics ensures that \texttt{hbuild} and (an argument-permuted version of) \texttt{hfold} are mutually inverse, and thus that the following \texttt{fold/build} rule holds for nested types in Haskell:

\begin{quote}
\textbf{FUSION RULE FOR NESTED TYPES} \quad \textit{If} \; f \; \textit{is a higher-order functor,} \; c \; \textit{and} \; x \; \textit{are functors,} \; h \; \textit{is (the structure map of) an algebra Alg f x, and} \; g \; \textit{is any function of type forall} \; x. \; \textit{Alg f x -> Nat c x, then}

\begin{equation}
\texttt{hfold h . hbuild g = g h} \quad (4)
\end{equation}
\end{quote}

Note that the application of \texttt{ffold h} to \texttt{fbuild g} in (3) has been generalised by the composition of \texttt{hfold h} and \texttt{hbuild g} in (4). This is because \( c \) remains uninstantiated in the nested setting, whereas it was specialised to the unit type in the inductive one.

EXAMPLE 11. \textit{The instantiations of (4) for perfect trees, bushes, and} \( \lambda \)-\textit{terms are}

\begin{align*}
\texttt{hfoldPTree l n . (hbuildPTree g) = g l n} \\
\texttt{hfoldBush l n . (hbuildBush g) = g l n} \\
\texttt{hfoldLam v ap ab . (hbuildLam g) = g v ap ab}
\end{align*}

To give the flavour of short cut fusion in action, we consider the non-trivial application of the bit reversal algorithm of Hinze [18]. The bit reversal algorithm describes an operation on lists of length \( 2^n \) which swaps elements whose indices have binary representations that are the reverses of one another. For example, the bit reversal algorithm transforms the list \([a0,a1,a2,...,a7]\) into \([a0,a4,a2,a6,a1,a5,a3,a7]\).

We start with the simple and modular bit reversal protocol

\begin{verbatim}
brp1 :: [a] -> [a] brp1 = shuffle . unshuffle
\end{verbatim}

where \texttt{shuffle}, \texttt{unshuffle}, and the auxiliary functions in terms of which they are defined are given in Figure 3. The function \texttt{shuffle} uniformly and recursively consumes a perfect tree in a “left-right inorder” fashion, and prepends the list of data appearing as first elements of pairs at the PNodes of subtrees onto the list of data appearing as second elements of these pairs. The function \texttt{unshuffle} uniformly produces a perfect tree by constructing, for each non-empty list of data, the PNode obtained by first splitting that list into two sublists of roughly equal

\begin{verbatim}
ho...
shuffle :: PTree a -> [a]
shuffle = hfoldPTree (\x -> [x]) (cat . unzip)

unshuffle :: [a] -> PTree a
unshuffle = hbuildPTree unsh
cat :: ([a],[a]) -> [a]
cat (xs,ys) = xs ++ ys

zip' :: ([a],[b]) -> [(a,b)]
zip' (xs,ys) = zip xs ys

unsh :: (forall a. a -> x a) -> (forall a. x (a,a) -> x a) -> (forall a. [a] -> x a)
unsh u z [e] = u e
unsh u z es = z (unsh u z (zip' (uninter es)))

uninter :: [a] -> ([a],[a])
uninter [] = ([],[])
uninter (x:xs) = (x:as,bs)
    where (bs,as) = uninter xs

Figure 3. Functions for a bit reversal protocol

size. This is done by alternating which sublist data elements are added to the front of, and then zipping these sublists together. Unshuffling a list to get a perfect tree and then shuffling the data in that tree thus reverses the bits in the input list.

The function \texttt{brp1} is typical of modularly constructed programs, in that it produces and then immediately consumes a data structure, in this case a perfect tree. We can use the instantiation of (4) to perfect trees from Example 11 to transform \texttt{brp1} into the following more efficient program \texttt{brp2} which doesn’t construct the intermediate perfect tree.

\texttt{brp2} :: [a] -> [a]
brp2 [x] = [x]
brp2 xs = (cat . unsh . brp2 . zip' . uninter) xs

This can be accomplished via the calculation

\texttt{brp1 xs} = hfoldPTree (\x -> [x]) (cat . unsh) (hbuildPTree unsh xs)
\[
\begin{align*}
= & \ \text{unsh } (\lambda x \to [x]) (\text{cat } \text{unzip}) \text{xs} \\
= & \ \text{if length xs == 1 then [head xs] else (cat } \text{unzip}) (\text{unsh } (\lambda x \to [x]) (\text{cat } \text{unzip}) (\text{zip'} (\text{uninter xs}))) \\
= & \ \text{if length xs == 1 then xs else (cat } \text{unzip} \text{. brp2 } \text{. zip'} \text{. uninter} \text{xs)}
\end{align*}
\]

4. Generalised Folds, Builds, and Short Cut Fusion

In the last section we derived generic \texttt{hfold} and \texttt{hbuild} combinators, and a generic \texttt{hfold/hbuild} fusion rule for nested types definable in Haskell. Our derivations are based on the very same initial algebra semantics that underlies the analogous development for inductive types discussed in Section 2.4. Both the theory underlying our development, and its implementation, are clean, simple, and principled.

4.1. Generalised folds

In this section we recall the generalised \texttt{fold} combinators for nested types in Haskell — here called \texttt{gfolds} — from the literature \citep{4, 7}. We also introduce a generic generalised \texttt{build} combinator \texttt{gbuild} and a generic \texttt{gfold/gbuild} fusion rule which can be instantiated to give a \texttt{gbuild} combinator and a \texttt{gfold/gbuild} rule for each nested type. We show that the \texttt{gfold} combinator is an instance of the generic \texttt{hfold} combinator, that the generic \texttt{gbuild} combinator is an instance of the generic \texttt{hbroad} combinator, and that the generic \texttt{gfold/gbuild} rule is an instance of the generic \texttt{hfold/hbuild} rule. These results are important because, until now, it has been unclear which general principles should underpin the definition of the \texttt{gfold} combinators for nested types in Haskell, and because \texttt{gbuild} combinators and \texttt{gfold/gbuild} rules for them have not heretofore existed. Our rendering of the generalised combinators and fusion rule as instances of their counterparts from Section 3 shows that

\begin{quote}
the same principles of initial algebra semantics that govern the behaviour of \texttt{hfold}, \texttt{hbuild}, and \texttt{hfold/hbuild} fusion govern the behaviour of \texttt{gfold}, \texttt{gbuild}, and \texttt{gfold/gbuild} fusion.
\end{quote}

Our reduction of \texttt{gfolds} to \texttt{hfolds} can be seen as a counterpart for nested types definable in Haskell to the results for rank-2 functors in
the type-theoretic setting of [1]. On the other hand, [1] doesn’t mention \texttt{build} combinator
ors or \texttt{fold/build} rules for nested types at all.

Generalised folds arise when we want to consume a structure of type
\texttt{Mu f a} for a \textit{single} type \texttt{a}. The canonical example from the literature
involves the function \texttt{psum :: PTree Int \to Int} which sums the (integer) data in a perfect tree [18]. At first glance it seems \texttt{psum} cannot be expressed in terms of \texttt{hfold} since \texttt{hfold} consumes data of polymorphic
type, and \texttt{PTree Int} is not such a type. At the same time, any naive
try to define \texttt{psum} will fail because the recursive call to \texttt{psum} must
consume a structure of type \texttt{PTree (Int,Int)} rather than \texttt{PTree Int}.
More generally, we often want to consume expressions involving one
specific instance of a nested type, rather than a polymorphic family of
elements of a nested type. This is precisely what generalised \texttt{folds} for
nested types are designed to do [4, 7].

Like the \texttt{hfold} combinator for a nested type in Haskell, its gen-
eralised \texttt{fold} takes as input an algebra of type \texttt{Alg f g} for a higher-
order functor \texttt{f} whose fixed point the nested type constructor is. But
while the \texttt{hfold} returns a result of type \texttt{Nat (Mu f) g}, the corre-
spanding generalised \texttt{fold} returns a result of the more general type
\texttt{Nat (Mu f ‘Comp’ g) h}, where \texttt{Comp} represents the composition of
functors:

\begin{verbatim}
newtype Comp g h a = Comp {icomp :: g (h a)}

instance (Functor g, Functor h) \Rightarrow Functor (g ‘Comp’ h) where
    fmap k (Comp t) = Comp (fmap (fmap k) t)
\end{verbatim}

Note, however, that \texttt{Mu f ‘Comp’ g} is not necessarily an inductive
type constructor. As a result, there is no clear theory upon which
the definition of \texttt{gfold}s can be based, and it is unclear what general
principles should underpin them. One practical consequence of this lack
of principled foundations for generalised \texttt{folds} is that it has not been
clear how to reason about these combinators for those higher-order
functors which have heretofore been known to support them.

A major contribution of this paper is to show that the \texttt{hfold} com-
binators defined in Section 3.1 for nested types in Haskell are expressiv
e enough to implement their generalised \texttt{folds}. Indeed, we derive the
generic \texttt{gfold} combinator from the corresponding generic \texttt{hfold} com-
biniator (and, trivially, vice-versa). In this way we extend the class of
higher-order functors for which generalised \texttt{fold} combinators can be
defined to include higher-order functors definable using all the features
of Haskell. In addition to providing structured recursion combinators
for such higher-order functors, our derivation of generalised \texttt{folds} as
particular standard \texttt{folds} for higher-order functors in Haskell makes it
possible to lift the reasoning principles supported by the \texttt{hfold} combi
nators to reasoning principles for the generalised \texttt{fold} combi
nators. It also allows us to define associated generalised \texttt{build} combi
nators and generalised \texttt{fold/build} fusion rules for all nested types in Haskell.

We use the example of \texttt{psum} to illustrate our derivation. First note that \texttt{psum} can be defined by specialising an auxiliary function whose type generalises that of \texttt{psum} as follows:

\[
psum :: \text{PTree Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \\
psum \text{ xs} = \text{psumAux } \text{xs} \text{id}
\]

\[
psumAux :: \text{PTree } a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \text{Int} \\
psumAux \text{ (PLeaf } x) \text{ } e = e \text{ } x \\
psumAux \text{ (PNode } \text{xs}) \text{ } e = \text{psumAux } \text{xs} \text{ } (\lambda (x, y) \rightarrow e \text{ } x + e \text{ } y)
\]

Here, \texttt{psumAux} generalises \texttt{psum} to take as input an environment of type \(a \rightarrow \text{Int}\) which is updated to reflect the extra structure in the recursive calls. Thus, \texttt{psumAux} is a polymorphic function which returns a continuation of type \((a \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \text{Int}\). To see that the generalised \texttt{fold} for \texttt{PTree} is an instance of its \texttt{hfold} counterpart, we will actually use a generalised form of continuation whose environment stores values parameterised by a functor \(g\) and whose results are parameterised by a functor \(h\). We have

\[
\text{newtype Ran } g \ h \ a = \text{Ran } \{ \text{iran } : \forall b. \ (a \rightarrow g \ b) \rightarrow h \ b \}
\]

This \texttt{Ran}-type was first introduced by Bird and Paterson [7], who used it for meta-level reasoning about nested types. In addition, they introduced the continuations metaphor for it. We show below that \texttt{Ran}-types can also be used as object-level devices for structuring programs.

The categorical constructs represented by \texttt{Ran}-types are just right Kan extensions, which can be defined as follows. Given endofunctors\(^2\) \(G\) and \(H\) on \(\mathcal{C}\), the \textit{right Kan extension of \(H\) along \(G\)}, written \texttt{Ran}_G\texttt{H}, is a pair \((R, \epsilon)\) comprising an endofunctor \(R\) on \(\mathcal{C}\) and a natural transformation \(\epsilon\) from \(R \circ G\) to \(H\) with the property that if \((K, \alpha)\) is another such pair, then there exists a unique natural transformation \(\sigma\) from \(K\) to \(R\) such that \(\alpha = \epsilon \circ \sigma_G\). If it exists, \texttt{Ran}_G\texttt{H} is unique up to natural isomorphism. Moreover, the assignment \(\sigma \mapsto \epsilon \circ \sigma_G\) constitutes a natural isomorphism between natural transformations from \(K\) to \(R\) and those from \(K \circ G\) to \(H\) which is natural in \(K\). This isomorphism actually determines \texttt{Ran}_G\texttt{H} from \(G\) and \(H\), and so can be seen as characterising \texttt{Ran}_G\texttt{H}.

\(^2\) Although when viewed categorically \(G\) and \(H\) need not have the same domain and codomain, they do in this research and so we take advantage of this to simplify the presentation of Kan extensions.
The classic representation of the right Kan extension $\text{Ran}_GH = (R, e)$ defines $R$ to be the functor which maps an object $C$ to the end $\int_B (C \to GB) \to HB$ (and a morphism $f : C \to C'$ to the unique morphism from $\int_B (C \to GB) \to HB$ to $\int_B (C' \to GB) \to HB$, which exists by the universal property of the end $\int_B (C' \to GB) \to HB$) justifies our implementation of $\text{Ran}_GH$ in Haskell as a parameterised family of universally quantified types (see [27] for details). We first use the fact that $(C \to GB) \to HB$ is essentially the type of a polymorphic function to implement the right Kan extension $\text{Ran}_GH$ as the a-parameterised family $\text{Ran}_G a$ of types $\forall b. (a \to g b) \to h b$. The proof that this implementation really does satisfy the isomorphism characterising $\text{Ran}_GH$ then involves constructing a natural isomorphism between $\text{Nat}_k (\text{Ran}_G a)$ and $\text{Nat} (k \text{ `Comp` } g) h$. The essence of this construction is captured in the definitions of $\text{fromRan}$ and $\text{toRan}$ below.

The $\text{psum}$ example above illustrates how right Kan extensions can be used to ensure that the $\text{hfold}$ combinators derived from initial algebra semantics are expressive enough to capture forms of recursion traditionally thought to require $\text{gfold}$s. One question worth asking is when a category $C$ has enough structure for right Kan extensions to exist. As we have already observed, right Kan extensions can be expressed as ends. Since ends can be expressed as limits, it suffices to require that $C$ have all limits. While this is not an overly strong condition, it does exclude, for example, realizability models such as PER which do not have all limits. This is a pity because PER is often thought of as one of the canonical models of universal type quantification. Fortunately the situation for PER is recoverable by observing that, as shown in [3], $\text{forall}$-types are interpreted as ends in PER, and PER is thus guaranteed to have at least those limits which are Kan extensions.

Although we have taken care to motivate our results categorically, we stress that no categorical knowledge of Kan extensions is needed to understand the remainder of this paper. Indeed, the few concepts we use which involve Kan extensions will be implemented in Haskell. However, we retain the terminology to highlight the mathematical underpinnings of generalised continuations, and to bring to a wider audience the computational usefulness of Kan extensions. We will in fact do so throughout the paper to emphasise that our results are inspired by category theory, and to illustrate how categorical ideas can be transcribed into Haskell code.

With these definitions in place, the polymorphic function $\text{psumAux}$ can be represented as a natural transformation from the functor $\text{PTree}$.
to the functor \( \text{Ran} \ (\text{Con \ Int}) \ (\text{Con \ Int}) \), where \( \text{Con} \ k \) is the constantly \( k \)-valued functor defined by

\[
\text{newtype} \ \text{Con} \ k \ a = \text{Con} \ {\icon :: k}
\]

This suggests that an alternative to inventing a generalised \text{fold} combinator to define \text{psumAux} is to endow the functor \( \text{Ran} \ (\text{Con \ Int}) \ (\text{Con \ Int}) \) with an \text{HPTree}-algebra structure and then define \text{psumAux} to be the application of \text{hfold} to that algebra. The functions

\[
\text{toRan} :: \text{Functor} \ k \Rightarrow \text{Nat} \ (k \ \text{Comp} \ g) \ h \to \text{Nat} \ k \ (\text{Ran} \ g \ h)
\]

\[
\text{toRan} \ s \ t = \text{Ran} \ (\\text{env} \to s \ (\text{Comp} \ (\text{fmap} \ \text{env} \ t)))
\]

\[
\text{fromRan} :: \text{Nat} \ k \ (\text{Ran} \ g \ h) \to \text{Nat} \ (k \ \text{Comp} \ g) \ h
\]

\[
\text{fromRan} \ s \ (\text{Comp} \ t) = \text{iran} \ (s \ t) \ \text{id}
\]

constitute a Haskell implementation of the isomorphism between \( \text{Nat} \ (k \ \text{Comp} \ g) \ h \) and \( \text{Nat} \ k \ (\text{Ran} \ g \ h) \) which characterises right Kan extensions. So if we can endow \( \text{Ran} \ g \ h \) with an \text{f}-algebra structure — i.e., if we can construct a term of type \( \text{Alg} \ f \ (\text{Ran} \ g \ h) \) for the higher-order functor \( f \) — then we can use \text{fromRan} to write the generalised \text{fold} for \( f \) with return type \( \text{Nat} \ (\text{Mu} \ f \ \text{Comp} \ g) \ h \) in terms of the instance of \text{hfold} for \( f \) with return type \( \text{Nat} \ (\text{Mu} \ f) \ (\text{Ran} \ g \ h) \). The observation that this is indeed possible is the starting point for our derivation of generalised \text{folds} as \text{hfolds} over \text{Ran}-types. It is worth observing that the definition of \text{toRan} relies on the functoriality of \( k \), whereas that of \text{fromRan} does not. This asymmetry crucially informs our choice of type for the generic \text{fold} combinator later in this section.

Giving a direct definition of an algebra structure for the generalised continuation \( \text{Ran} \ g \ h \) turns out to be rather cumbersome. Instead, we circumvent this difficulty by drawing on the intuition inherent in the continuations metaphor for \( \text{Ran} \ g \ h \). If \( y \) is a functor, then an \text{interpreter} for \( y \) is a function of type

\[
\text{type} \ \text{Interp} \ y \ g \ h = \text{Nat} \ y \ (\text{Ran} \ g \ h)
\]

Such an interpreter uses a polymorphic environment which stores values parameterised by \( g \) and whose results are parameterised by \( h \). It therefore takes as input a term of type \( y \ a \) and an environment of type \( a \to g \ b \), and returns a result of type \( h \ b \). Associated with the type synonym \text{Interp} is the function

\[\text{3}\] The use of constructors such as \text{Con} and \text{Comp} is required by Haskell. Although the price of lengthier code and constructor pollution is unfortunate, we believe it is outweighed by the benefits of having an implementation.
runInterp :: Interp y g h -> y a -> (a -> g b) -> h b
runInterp k y e = iran (k y) e

An interpreter transformer can now be defined as a function which takes
as input a higher-order functor $f$ and functors $g$ and $h$, and returns a
map which takes as input an interpreter for the functor $y$ and produces
an interpreter for the functor $f y$. We can define a type of interpreter
transformers in Haskell by

type InterpT f g h = forall y. Functor y =>
                 Interp y g h -> Interp (f y) g h

Types equivalent to $\text{Interp}$ and $\text{InterpT}$ appear in \cite{1}.

We can argue informally that interpreter transformers are relevant
to the study of nested types. Recall that the $\text{hfold}$ combinator for
a higher-order functor $f$ must compute a value for each term of type
$\text{Mu } f$ $a$, and that the functor $\text{Mu } f$ can be thought of as the colimit
of the sequence of approximations $f^n$ $0$ of $n$-fold compositions of $f$
applied to the functor $0$ whose value is constantly the empty type
(which is the initial object in this setting). Clearly, we can define an in-
terpreter for the functor $0$ since there is nothing to interpret. Moreover,
an interpreter transformer will allow us to next produce an interpreter
for $f$ $0$, then for $f^2$ $0$, and so on. Thus an interpreter transformer
contains all of the information necessary to produce an interpreter for
$\text{Mu } f$. This intuition that interpreter transformers contain all of the
information required to define generalised folds can now be formalised
by showing that interpreter transformers are algebras. In Haskell, we
have

toAlg :: InterpT f g h -> Alg f (Ran g h)
toAlg interpT = interpT idNat

fromAlg :: HFunctor f => Alg f (Ran g h) -> InterpT f g h
fromAlg h interp = h . hfmap interp

idNat :: Nat f f
idNat = id

The definition of $\text{toAlg}$ requires that $\text{Ran } g$ $h$ is a member of the
Functor class. This is established via the instance declaration

instance Functor (Ran g h) where
  fmap f (Ran c) = Ran (\d -> c (d . f))

  Parametricity and naturality guarantee that $\text{toAlg}$ and $\text{fromAlg}$ are
mutually inverse. Indeed, we have
toAlg (fromAlg k)
= toAlg (\ interp -> k . hfmap interp)
= (\ interp -> k . hfmap interp) idNat
= k . hfmap idNat
= k . idNat
= k

and

fromAlg (toAlg interpT)
= fromAlg (interpT idNat)
= \ interp -> (interpT idNat) . (hfmap interp)
= \ interp -> interpT interp
= interpT

The fourth equality in the first derivation uses the fact that hfmap preserves identity natural transformations. The third equality in the second derivation uses the naturality in y of the type

forall y. Functor y => Interp y g h -> Interp (f y) g h

of interpT, and the fourth equality there holds by extensionality. Categorically, the fact that toAlg and fromAlg are mutual inverses is just a specific instantiation of the Yoneda Lemma. Thus we see that interpreter transformers are simply more computationally intuitive presentations of algebras whose carriers are right Kan extensions. Of course, such transformers may also be interesting in their own right, with applications other than the one mentioned here.

We now use these observations to give our generic gfold combinator for nested types in Haskell. This gfold combinator will take as input an algebra for Ran g h presented as an interpreter transformer, and return a polymorphic function which consumes a nested type to produce a generalised continuation. Concretely, we define our generic gfold combinator by

\[
gfold :: \text{HFunctur} f \Rightarrow \text{InterpT} f g h \rightarrow \text{Nat (Mu f) (Ran g h)}
\]

\[
gfold \text{ interpT} = \text{hfold (toAlg interpT)}
\]

The function

\[
\text{rungfold :: HFunctur f => InterpT f g h \rightarrow Mu f a \rightarrow (a} \rightarrow g b) \rightarrow h b
\]

\[
\text{rungfold interpT = iran . gfold interpT}
\]

removes the Ran constructor from the output of gfold to expose the underlying continuation, which is more useful in practice.
An alternative definition of \texttt{gfold} would have return type $\texttt{Nat (Mu f 'Comp' g) h}$ and use \texttt{toRan} to compute functions whose natural return types are of the form $\texttt{Nat (Mu f) (Ran g h)}$. But, contrary to expectation, a \texttt{gfold} combinator given by such an alternative definition is not expressive enough to represent all uniform consumptions with return types of the form $\texttt{Nat (Mu f) (Ran g h)}$. For example, the function \texttt{fmap :: (a -> b) -> Mu f a -> Mu f b} in the \texttt{Functor} instance declaration for \texttt{Mu f} given at the end of this section is easily written in terms of the \texttt{gfold} combinator defined above. On the other hand, defining \texttt{fmap} as the composition of \texttt{toRan} and a call to a \texttt{gfold} combinator with return type of the form $\texttt{Nat (Mu f 'Comp' g) h}$ is not possible. This is because the use of \texttt{toRan} assumes the functoriality of \texttt{Mu f} — which is precisely what defining \texttt{fmap} establishes. Note that this is not a semantic issue, but is a consequence of Haskell’s typechecking.

In summary, we have made good on our promise to show that the generic \texttt{gfold} combinator for nested types in Haskell is interdefinable with the generic \texttt{hfold} combinator for such types. Our definition differs from all characterisations of generalised \texttt{folds} appearing in the functional programming literature, since none of these establishes interdefinability.

We come full circle by using the specialisation of the \texttt{gfold} combinator to the higher-order functor \texttt{HPTree} to define a function \texttt{sumPTree} which is equivalent to \texttt{psum}. For this, we first define an auxiliary function \texttt{sumAuxPTree} in terms of which \texttt{sumPTree} itself will be defined. To define \texttt{sumAuxPTree} we must define an interpreter transformer, which we do by giving its two unbundled components. We have

\begin{verbatim}
  type PLeafT g h = forall y. forall a. Nat y (Ran g h) -> a -> Ran g h a
  type PNodeT g h = forall y. forall a. Nat y (Ran g h) -> y (a,a) -> Ran g h a

  gfoldPTree :: PLeafT g h -> PNodeT g h -> PTree a -> Ran g h a
  gfoldPTree l n = hfoldPTree (l idNat) (n idNat)

  psumL :: PLeafT (Con Int) (Con Int)
psumL pinterp x = Ran (\e -> e x)

  psumN :: PNodeT (Con Int) (Con Int)
psumN pinterp x = Ran (\e -> runInterp pinterp x (update e))

  update e (x,y) = e x 'cplus' e y
                  where cplus (Con a) (Con b) = Con (a+b)
\end{verbatim}
sumAuxPTree :: PTree a -> Ran (Con Int) (Con Int) a
sumAuxPTree = gfoldPTree psumL psumN

sumPTree :: PTree Int -> Int
sumPTree = icon . fromRan sumAuxPTree . Comp . fmap Con

Thus, sumPTree is essentially fromRan sumAuxPTree — ignoring the constructor pollution introduced by Haskell, that is.

Rather than using the PTree data type declaration from Section 3, we could instead have defined PTree to be Mu HPTree. In this case, functoriality of PTree (which is required in the definition of sumPTree above) would be obtained from Example 13 rather than directly. Similar comments apply at several places below.

Because the gfold combinators are just particular instances of the hfold combinators, and because we concretely gave the hfold combinators for the nested types Bush and Lam in Section 3, we do not give concrete presentations of the corresponding gfold combinators here. Instead, we give two additional applications of generalised folds.

EXAMPLE 12. Generalised folds can be used to show that untyped \( \lambda \)-terms are an instance of the monad class. The generalised fold can be used to define the bind operation \( >>= \), which captures substitution, as follows:

subAlg :: InterpT HLam (Mu HLam) (Mu HLam)
subAlg k (HVar x) = Ran (\e -> e x)
subAlg k (HApp t u) = Ran (\e -> In (HApp (runInterp k t e) (runInterp k u e)))
subAlg k (HAbs t) = Ran (\e -> In (HAbs (runInterp k t (lift e))))

lift e (Just x) = fmap Just (e x)
lift e Nothing = In (HVar Nothing)

instance Monad (Mu HLam) where
    return = In . HVar
    t >>= f = rungfold subAlg t f

That the return and >>= operations for Mu HLam satisfy the monad laws can established by direct calculation using the uniqueness of the hfold operator.

EXAMPLE 13. Generalised folds can also be used to show that nested types in Haskell are instances of the Functor class. We have
mapAlg :: HFunctor f => InterpT f Id (Mu f)
mapAlg k t = let k1 t = runInterp k t Id
in Ran (\e -> In (hfmap k1 (ffmap (unid . e) t)))

instance HFunctor f => Functor (Mu f) where
  fmap k t = rungfold mapAlg t (Id . k)

Here, Id is the identity functor, given in Haskell by

newtype Id a = Id {unid :: a}

instance Functor Id where
  fmap f (Id x) = Id (f x)

That the fmap operation defined above for Mu f satisfies the functor laws can be established by direct calculation.

4.2. Generalised Builds

In the previous section we noted that, at first glance, the standard hfold combinators for nested types in Haskell appear to be too polymorphic to express a consumer of a structure of type Mu f a for a specific type a. The standard resolution of this problem from the functional programming literature has been to define generalised fold combinators for such types which, given appropriate inputs, return consumers with types of the form Nat (Mu f ‘Comp’ g) h. But, as we have just shown, there is in fact no need to invent wholly new generalised fold combinators. Instead, we can simply convert each generalised fold combinator with return type Nat (Mu f ‘Comp’ g) h to the corresponding hfold combinator with return type Nat (Mu f) (Ran g h) as needed.

It is natural to ask if there are generalised build combinators for nested types in Haskell that correspond to their generalised folds. Intuitively, such a generalised build should produce expressions of type Mu f (g a) for some f, g, and a, so that if a generalised build is followed by a generalised fold which consumes a structure of type Mu f (g a), then an appropriate generalised fold/build rule can be used to eliminate the intermediate structure of this type. But the fact that generalised folds are representable as certain h folds suggests that we should be able to define such generalised builds in terms of our hbuild combinators, rather then defining entirely new generalised build combinators. We show in this section that we can indeed derive generalised builds for nested types in Haskell in this way, and that we can do so in a manner generic over the data type under consideration.
In the next section we will show that a generic generalised fold/build rule can also be deduced from the generic hfold/hbuild rule for nested types in Haskell that we have already considered in Section 3.3.

Since the generic gfold combinator returns results of type $\text{Nat} \ (\text{Mu} \ f)$ ($\text{Ran} \ g \ h$), its corresponding generic generalised build should produce results with types of the form $\text{Nat} \ c \ (\text{Mu} \ f)$. Taking $c$ to be the existential type

$$\text{data Lan } g \ h \ a = \forall b. \ Lan \ (g \ b \to a, h \ b)$$

we have

$$\text{gbuild :: HFunctor } f \Rightarrow$$

$$\ (\forall x. \ \text{Alg} \ f \ x \to \text{Nat} \ (\text{Lan} \ g \ h) \ x)$$

$$\to \text{Nat} \ (\text{Lan} \ g \ h) \ (\text{Mu} \ f)$$

$$\text{gbuild = hbuild}$$

Computationally, the Lan-type $\forall b. \ Lan \ (g \ b \to a, h \ b)$ can be regarded as comprising a hidden state $b$, an observation function of type $g \ b \to a$, and an element of the type $h \ b$ obtained by applying the functor $h$ to the hidden state $b$. Categorically, Lan-types are left Kan extensions. Left Kan extensions are duals of right Kan extensions, and can be defined as follows. Given endofunctors $G$ and $H$ on $C$, the left Kan extension of $H$ along $G$, written $\text{Lan}_G H$, is a pair $(L, \epsilon)$ comprising an endofunctor $L$ on $C$ and a natural transformation $\epsilon$ from $H$ to $L \circ G$ with the property that if $(S, \alpha)$ is another such pair, then there exists a unique natural transformation $\sigma$ from $L$ to $S$ such that $\alpha = \sigma_G \circ \epsilon$.

If it exists, $\text{Lan}_G H$ is unique up to natural isomorphism. Moreover, the assignment $\sigma \mapsto \sigma_G \circ \epsilon$ constitutes a natural isomorphism between natural transformations from $L$ to $S$ such that $\alpha = \sigma_G \circ \epsilon$. If it exists, $\text{Lan}_G H$ is unique up to natural isomorphism. Moreover, the assignment $\sigma \mapsto \sigma_G \circ \epsilon$ constitutes a natural isomorphism between natural transformations from $L$ to $H$ and those from $H$ to $H \circ G$ which is natural in $K$. This isomorphism actually determines $\text{Lan}_G H$ from $G$ and $H$, and so can be seen as characterising $\text{Lan}_G H$.

The classic representation of the left Kan extension $\text{Lan}_G H = (L, \epsilon)$ as the functor which maps an object $C$ to the coend $\int^B (GB \to C) \times HB$ (and a morphism $f : C \to C'$ to the unique morphism from $\int^B (GB \to C) \times HB$ to $\int^B (GB \to C') \times HB$, which exists by the universal property of the coend $\int^B (GB \to C) \times HB$) justifies our implementation of $\text{Lan}_G H$ in Haskell as a parameterised family of existentially quantified types (see [27] for details). The proof that this implementation really does satisfy the isomorphism characterising $\text{Lan}_G H$ then involves constructing a natural isomorphism between $\text{Nat} \ (\text{Lan} \ g \ h) \ k$ and $\text{Nat} \ h \ (k \ '\text{Comp} \ ' \ g)$.

The essence of this construction is captured in the following definitions of fromLan and toLan:

\footnote{In a data type declaration in Haskell, a universal quantifier outside a constructor is read as existentially quantifying the variable it binds.}
The simplicity of the definition of \texttt{gbuild} highlights the importance of choosing an appropriate formalism — here, Kan extensions — to reflect inherent structure. While it appears that defining the generic \texttt{gbuild} combinator requires no effort at all once we have the generic \texttt{hbuild} combinator, the key insight lies in introducing the abstraction \texttt{Lan} and using the bijection between \texttt{Nat h (f \texttt{Comp} g)} and \texttt{Nat (Lan g h) f}.

We conclude this section by using the specialisation of the \texttt{gbuild} combinator to the higher-order functor \texttt{HPTree} to define a function
\begin{align*}
\texttt{mkTree} :: \texttt{Int} \rightarrow \texttt{PTree Int} & \text{ which takes an integer } n \text{ as input and returns the perfect tree of depth } n \text{ storing } n \text{ in all of its leaves. We have }
\texttt{gbuildPTree} & :: (\forall x. (\forall a. a \rightarrow x a) \rightarrow \\
& \quad (\forall a. x (a,a) \rightarrow x a) \rightarrow \\
& \quad (\forall a. \texttt{Lan} g h a \rightarrow x a)) \rightarrow \\
& \quad \texttt{Lan} g h a \rightarrow \texttt{PTree} a \\
\texttt{gbuildPTree} g & = g \texttt{PLeaf} \texttt{PNode}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\texttt{tree} & :: (\forall a. a \rightarrow x a) \rightarrow \\
& \quad (\forall a. x (a,a) \rightarrow x a) \rightarrow \\
& \quad \texttt{Nat} (\texttt{Lan} \texttt{Con Int} (\texttt{Con Int})) x \\
\texttt{tree} l n (\texttt{Lan} (z, \texttt{Con} 0)) & = l (z (\texttt{Con} 0)) \\
\texttt{tree} l n x & = n \texttt{(tree} l n (\texttt{count} x)) \\
\texttt{count} & :: \texttt{Lan} (\texttt{Con Int}) (\texttt{Con Int}) a \rightarrow \\
& \quad \texttt{Lan} (\texttt{Con Int}) (\texttt{Con Int}) (a,a) \\
\texttt{count} (\texttt{Lan} (z, \texttt{Con} n)) & = \\
& \quad \texttt{Lan} (\forall i \rightarrow (z (s i), z (s i)), \texttt{Con} (n-1)) \\
\texttt{s} & :: \texttt{Con Int} a \rightarrow \texttt{Con Int} a \\
\texttt{s} (\texttt{Con} n) & = \texttt{Con} (n+1) \\
\texttt{mkTree} & :: \texttt{Int} \rightarrow \texttt{PTree Int} \\
\texttt{mkTree} n & = \texttt{gbuildPTree} \texttt{tree} (\texttt{Lan} (\texttt{icon}, \texttt{Con} n))
4.3. **Generalised Short Cut Fusion**

As an immediate consequence of the fusion rule for nested types we have

GENERALISED FUSION RULE FOR NESTED TYPES  
*If* $f$ *is a higher-order functor, $g$, $h$ and $h'$ are functors, $k$ is an algebra presented as an interpreter transformer of type* $\text{Interp} f \rightarrow (g h')$, *and* $l$ *is a term of type for all* $x$. *Then* $\text{Alg} f x \rightarrow \text{Nat} g h x$, *then*

$$
gfold k \circ (g \text{build} l) = l \circ \text{toAlg} k
$$

We can apply the specialisation of this rule to fuse the modular function $\text{smTree} = \text{sumAuxPTree} \cdot \text{mkTree}$. This gives

$$
\text{smTree} (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n))
= (g\text{foldPTree} p\text{sumL} p\text{sumN} \cdot \text{gbuildPTree} \text{tree}) (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n))
= \text{tree} (p\text{sumL} \text{idNat}) (p\text{sumN} \text{idNat}) (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n))
= \text{if} n = 0 \text{ then } \text{Ran} (\lambda e \rightarrow e (\text{z} (\text{Con} 0)))
\text{ else } p\text{sumN} \text{idNat} (\text{tree} (p\text{sumL} \text{idNat})
\text{ (p\text{sumN} \text{idNat})
\text{ (count} (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n)))
= \text{if} n = 0 \text{ then } \text{Ran} (\lambda e \rightarrow e (\text{z} (\text{Con} 0)))
\text{ else Ran} (\lambda e \rightarrow \text{iran} (\text{tree} (p\text{sumL} \text{idNat})
\text{ (p\text{sumN} \text{idNat})
\text{ (count} (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n)))
\text{ (update e))
= \text{if} n = 0 \text{ then } \text{Ran} (\lambda e \rightarrow e (\text{z} (\text{Con} 0)))
\text{ else Ran} (\lambda e \rightarrow \text{iran} (\text{smTree} (\text{count} (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n))))
\text{ (update e))

Thus, we have

$$
\text{runInterp} \text{smTree} (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n)) e
= \text{if} n = 0 \text{ then } e (\text{z} (\text{Con} 0))
\text{ else runInterp} \text{smTree} (\text{count} (\text{Lan} (z, \text{Con} n))) \text{ (update e)}
$$

Although this fused version of the $\text{smTree}$ looks more complicated, it avoids construction of the intermediate perfect tree.
5. Related Work

The first attempt to give initial algebra semantics for nested types goes back to Bird and Meertens [5], who sought to marry the conceptual importance of nested types in functional programming with the standard initial algebra semantics for algebraic types. Their overall aim was to expand the class of data types over which polytypic programming could be performed. Although they base their semantics on higher-order functors and use these to define folds for nested types, they conclude from consideration of specific programs over nested types that initial algebra semantics is limited and loses expressive power. Specifically, they assert that standard folds can only express computations whose results are natural transformations (see Section 6); this assertion is echoed in [7]. To overcome the perceived lack of expressiveness of standard folds, Bird and Meertens introduce several alternative approaches to defining folds for specific nested types. Unfortunately, it is not clear, even to them, whether or not these approaches are generalisable to other such types.

In another attempt to overcome the perceived limitations of standard folds for nested types, Bird and Paterson [7] introduced generalised folds into the literature. They show how to construct a generalised fold combinator for each member of a syntactically restricted class of nested types, as well as how these combinators can be used to express computations whose results are not natural transformations. The importance of right Kan extensions to the study of generalised folds and standard folds first appears in this paper — but they are used only at the meta-level to prove uniqueness of generalised folds and correctness of map fusion laws and fold fusion laws for generalised folds, rather than as object-level programming structuring devices. Kan extensions thus serve as a meta-tool in [7] to support the use of generalised folds. By contrast, our work uses Kan extensions as an object-level tool to eliminate the need for generalised folds in favour of standard folds, and thus to return initial algebras to center stage as a powerful and expressive foundation for structured programming with nested types in Haskell.

We stress that the fusion laws proved for generalised folds by Bird and Paterson — and by others for other notions of folds over nested types — do not include fold/build fusion. Of course, this would be impossible given that builds have not heretofore been defined for nested types. Specifically, fold fusion is concerned with when, for any notion of a fold under consideration, a fold followed by another function can be written as a fold, i.e., when the equivalence \( f \cdot \text{fold } g = \text{fold } h \) holds. This is quite different from, and only tangentially related to, the
issue of when \texttt{fold h \ . build g = g h}. Conditions under which \texttt{fold}
fusion can be applied typically derive from the uniqueness of the map
\texttt{fold h} under consideration.

Combinators other than \texttt{fold}s have been defined for certain syntactic
classes of nested types as well. For example, [16] defines polytypic
\texttt{map}, equality, and reduction functions for a class of functors indexed
over so-called rational trees. The question of whether initial algebra
semantics of higher-order functors can serve as a viable basis for polytypism
on nested types is raised in [16] but, interestingly, no attempt
is made there to answer the question. The thesis [4] trades a functional
approach to nested types for a relational approach, and uses the latter
to give three types of generic \texttt{fold}s, as well as to define \texttt{map}, \texttt{zip},
membership, and reduction functions, and \texttt{map} and \texttt{fold} fusion rules,
for nested types in Haskell.

A different approach to polytypic programming, involving modeling
types by terms of the simply typed lambda calculus augmented with
a family of recursion operators, and defining polytypic functions by
induction on the syntax of type constructors, is presented in [19]. This
approach succeeds in handling all nested types expressible in Haskell,
but places considerable demands on the type system. In [8], \texttt{fold}s
are defined for nested types by folding over infinite structures, called algebra
families, that contain all possible values for data constructors. An
initial algebra semantics is given for algebra families, and algebra family
\texttt{fold}s and \texttt{map}s are defined. In [4] it is shown that nested types represent
constraints on regular data types, and thus that nested data types can
always be removed from programs by embedding them into regular
data types. Our work shows that we can have the expressivity of nested
types and the benefits of initial algebra semantics, all without resorting
to such embeddings. In fact, all approaches to polytypic programming
with nested types in Haskell are based on the premise that the standard
\texttt{fold}s derived from initial algebra semantics are insufficiently expressive
for solving practical problems — a premise we show in this paper to
have been erroneous from the outset.

A related line of inquiry concerns the efficiency of generalised \texttt{fold}s
for nested types. Hinze [17] gives a variation, defined by induction on
the structure of data type definitions, of the generalised \texttt{fold}s of Bird
and Paterson for a syntactically defined class of nested types. More efficient
versions of these alternative generalised \texttt{fold}s are then derived by
observing that Bird and Paterson’s generalised \texttt{fold}s require extra \texttt{map}
parameters, and that these parameters are the source of inefficiencies.
By giving more general types to some of these extra \texttt{map} parameters,
and the fusing generalised \texttt{fold}s with these \texttt{map}s to get new \texttt{fold}s,
these inefficiencies can be eliminated. Unfortunately, not all alternative
generalised folds have corresponding efficient versions, and [17] leaves open the question of whether the generalised folds of [7] are amenable to the same efficiency improvements as Hinze’s variations are.

An affirmative answer to this question is provided in [28], which uses initial algebra semantics to give unique characterisations of efficient counterparts to the generalised folds of [7]. Like the others, this paper considers only a restricted class of functors, but it gives efficient generalised folds inductively for this class, and then proves their uniqueness. Also given are map and fold fusion rules, and a “fold equivalence” result which relates the efficient generalised folds to the ordinary generalised folds for the class of nested data types for which both are defined. Similarities between the initial algebra definitions of efficient generalised folds and Mendler-style inductive types are noted in the conclusion, which suggests that it might be possible to extend the framework of [38] to include them.

Picking up on this thread, [1] provides an in-depth study of iteration for higher-ranked types definable in extensions of $F_\omega$ with recursion combinators and associated $\beta$-rewrite rules. It uses a type-theoretic presentation of right Kan extensions to provide reduction-preserving translations of these extensions into $F_\omega$, from which termination of their reduction rules follows from strong normalisation of $F_\omega$. It also establishes interdefinability of standard and generalised folds for all nested types definable in the type theory considered there. By contrast, we consider all nested types definable — using type classes, GADTs, monads, and other features — in the Turing complete programming language Haskell, and show how right Kan extensions can be used to establish interdefinability of the generalised and standard fold combinators for such types. We also show how left Kan extensions can be used at the object level to establish interdefinability of the gbuild and hbuild combinators for nested types in Haskell. Analogues of our build combinators and fold/build fusion rules are not discussed in [1], even for the nested types expressible in the type theory considered there.

Applications involving nested types abound. The use of a nested type to implement a bit reversal protocol goes back to [18], which considers in detail the problem of programming with perfect trees, but does not attempt to develop a theory of nested types. Data structure implementations based on nested types appear in [31], as well as in [20] and [21], which contain applications involving nested types and higher-order nested types which capitalise on the use of nested types to record constraints. Other applications appear in, for example, [6] and [22].
6. Conclusion and Future work

We have extended the standard initial algebra semantics for nested types in Haskell to augment the standard $\text{hfold}$ combinators for such types with $\text{hbuild}$ combinators and $\text{hfold/hbuild}$ rules for them. In fact, we have capitalised on the uniformity of the isomorphism between such types and their Church encodings to give a single generic $\text{hbuild}$ combinator and a single generic $\text{hfold/hbuild}$ rule, each of which can be specialised to any such type of interest. We have also shown that the generalised $\text{fold}$ combinators from the literature are uniformly inter-definable with appropriate instances of the generic $\text{hfold}$ combinator for nested types in Haskell, and we have defined generalised $\text{build}$ combinators and generalised $\text{fold/build}$ rules for these types. Like the definitions of the $\text{hbuild}$ combinator and the $\text{hfold/hbuild}$ rule, those for $\text{gbuild}$ and the $\text{gfold/gbuild}$ rule can also be defined generically.

The uniformity of both the standard and generalised constructs derives from a technical approach based on initial algebras of functors. Our approach applies to all nested types definable in Haskell, and thus provides a principled and elegant foundation for programming with them. We give a completely generic Haskell implementation of these combinators, and illustrate their use in several examples. We believe this paper contributes to a settled foundation for programming with nested types in Haskell.

This work reported in this paper can be seen as providing a means of incorporating nested types and accompanying combinators into systems based on initial algebra semantics of data types — such as the Haskell extension PolyP [25] — in such a way that fundamental changes to the basic framework of those systems are not required.

It is worth noting that our development also applies in the coinductive setting. In the case of coinductive types, it is now well known that a generic $\text{unfold}$ combinator can be defined:

\[
\text{unfold} :: \text{Functor } f =\to (x \to f x) \to x \to M f \\
\text{unfold } k \ x = \text{Inn (fmap (unfold ) (k x))}
\]

The uniformity of this definition entails that it can be specialised to any functor definable in Haskell. The coinductive dual of $\text{build}$ is known as $\text{destroy}$, and in [15] a generic $\text{destroy}$ combinator was given for coinductive types:

\[
\text{destroy} :: \text{Functor } f =\to \\
(\forall x . (x \to f x) \to x \to c) \to M f \to c \\
\text{destroy } g = g \ \text{outt}
\]

\[
\text{outt (Inn } t) = t
\]
This combinator can be used to define generic unfold and destroy combinators for programming with nested types in Haskell. Like the hfold and hbuild combinators, these are defined uniformly over instances of the HFunctor class. We have

\[
\text{type CoAlg } f \ g = \text{Nat } g (f \ g)
\]

\[
\text{hunfold :: HFunctor } f \Rightarrow \text{CoAlg } f \ g \to \text{Nat } g (\text{Mu } f)
\]

\[
\text{hunfold } k \ x = \text{In } (\text{hfmap } (\text{hunfold } k) (k \ x))
\]

\[
\text{hdestroy :: HFunctor } f \Rightarrow
\begin{align*}
& (\forall g. \text{Functor } g \Rightarrow \text{CoAlg } f \ g \to \text{Nat } g \ c) \to \text{Nat } (\text{Mu } f) \ c \\
& \text{hdestroy } g = g \ (\text{out})
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{out :: Nat } (\text{Mu } f) (f \ (\text{Mu } f))
\]

\[
\text{out } (\text{In } t) = t
\]

Finally, we have the following unfold/destroy rule for nested types in Haskell:

\[
\text{hdestroy } g \cdot \text{hunfold } k = g \ k
\]

It is straightforward to derive generalised versions of these combinators using the techniques of this paper.

The categorical semantics of [15] reduces correctness of fold/build rules to the problem of constructing parametric models which respect that semantics. The category-theoretic ideas underlying the results of this paper entail a similar reduction, which we see as prescribing properties that any eventual categorical semantics of the underlying functional language should satisfy. An alternative approach to correctness is taken in [26], where the operational semantics-based parametric model of [34] is used to validate the fusion rules for algebraic types introduced in that paper. Extending these techniques to tie the correctness of fold/build rules into an operational semantics of the underlying functional language is one direction for future work. Benchmarking the rules and developing a preprocessor for automatically locating instances where fold/build rules for nested types can be applied are additional topics of interest. Finally, the techniques of this paper may provide insights into theories of folds, builds, and fusion rules for more advanced data types, such as mixed variance data types, GADTs, and dependent types [24].
References

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