

# Alternative Methods for Retaining Explicit and Finding Implicit Sharing in Embedded DSLs

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**Abstract.** Detection of sharing is a known challenge for implementers of embedded domain specific languages (DSLs). There are many solutions, each with their advantages and drawbacks. Many solutions are based on observable sharing, that requires either a monadic interface or use of unsafe referencing, e.g., `Data.Reify`. Monadic interfaces are considered unsuitable for domain experts, and the use of unsafe referencing leads to fragile software.

Kiselyov’s methods for implicit and explicit sharing detection for finally tagless style DSLs is an elegant solution without having to resort to unsafe observable sharing. However these methods are not applicable to all types of DSLs (including those generating hypergraphs). We will present alternative methods which handle these cases. The main difference comes from the use of a trie to perform hash-consing. Our method for implicit sharing essentially trades worst-case exponential growth in computation for increased memory footprint. To mitigate this issue, our method for explicit sharing reduces the memory footprint.

**Keywords:** DSL · sharing · common-subexpression elimination · Haskell.

## 1 Introduction

Embedded DSL’s have proven useful for many applications, and there are multiple ways of doing the embedding. Domain experts are more comfortable with embeddings presented as a collection of pure functions. On the other hand, optimizing code generators and other downstream uses would be much easier to implement in the context of a monad. In particular code graph generation outside of a monad does not benefit from observable sharing in Haskell. Kiselyov [7] solves this problem by presenting a method for implementing eDSLs in finally tagless form that generates a directed acyclic graph (DAG) with sharing. However, as we will explain in sections 2.3 and 2.4, for DSL functions that return multiple outputs (e.g., tuples, lists, etc.), Kiselyov’s method of implicitly detecting sharing may require computation exponential in the size of the program, and his method of explicitly declaring sharing is inapplicable.

In the toy example

```
class Exp repr where
  variable :: String -> repr Int
```

```

constant :: String -> repr Int
add :: repr Int -> repr Int -> repr Int
novel :: (repr Int, repr Int) -> (repr Int, repr Int)

```

the function `novel` will exhibit this issue. Since it returns multiple outputs via a native tuple or list, it will cause duplication of computation that cannot be captured by Kiselyov’s explicit sharing method. We will illustrate this implementation issue in Section 2.4. Encountering this issue in our own work with eDSLs for code generation caused a computational explosion on large DAGs.

In this paper, we review Kiselyov’s methods, identifying the core issue, and present methods for implementing embedded DSLs with sharing that avoid unsafe referencing (i.e., `unsafePerformIO`) [5], maintain all the benefits of being embedded in the Haskell ecosystem and are computationally feasible. This means DSL functions are pure, type-safe and can return Haskell container types (i.e., tuples, lists, etc.) without breaking sharing. All code will be hosted at [https://github.com/dalvescb/AltSharingInEDSL\\_Paper](https://github.com/dalvescb/AltSharingInEDSL_Paper)

## 2 Background: Detecting Sharing

Consider the naive DSL implemented as a Haskell data type:

```

data Exp
  = Add Exp Exp
  | Variable String
  | Constant Int

```

Expressions generate Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs), but consider this example,

```

v0 = Variable "v0"
exp0 = Add v0 (Constant 0)
exp1 = Add exp0 exp0

```

in which the expression `exp0` is shared, and will therefore be stored once in memory. For large expressions with lots of sharing, this can make a substantial difference.

One of the first things the developer will do is write a pretty printer. That recursive function will traverse the data structure as a tree, and pretty print `exp0` twice. This inefficiency is a real problem for code generation, and naive traversal of the AST does the opposite of the common-subexpression elimination performed by a good optimizing compiler. To avoid this, rather than representing the code as an AST, we should use a DAG, retaining all of the sharing in the original DSL code.

One way of maintaining sharing is by observable sharing (see Section 3 in [7]). In Haskell, this requires a monadic interface. Monads are useful, but don’t match the expectations of domain experts [8].

## 2.1 Finally Tagless DSLs

It would be nice to make use of monadic state when we need it (i.e., for converting to a DAG) while hiding it behind a nice pure interface. The finally tagless approach [1] is popular for accomplishing this. In this approach, DSL expressions are built using type-class methods that wrap the DSL in a parameterized representation. For example, the previous data-type-based DSL could be written in finally tagless style as

```
class Exp repr where
  add :: repr Int -> repr Int -> repr Int
  variable :: String -> repr Int
  constant :: Int -> repr Int
```

We can then create different instances to implement different functionality. For example, we can implement a pretty printer

```
newtype Pretty a = Pretty { runPretty :: String }

instance Exp Pretty where
  add x y = Pretty $ "("++runPretty x++") + ("++runPretty y++")"
  variable x = Pretty x
  constant x = Pretty $ show x
```

Or generate an AST

```
newtype AST a = AST { genAST :: Exp }

instance Exp AST where
  add x y = AST $ Add (genAST x) (genAST y)
  variable x = AST $ Variable x
  constant x = AST $ Constant x
```

Finally tagless style provides extensible, user friendly DSLs. By providing one interface for a variety of functionality, you can choose between shallow and deep embeddings (see [6] and [9]) and can easily extend the DSL without having to alter the original class definition.

## 2.2 Implicit Sharing via Hash-Consing

The goal of detecting sharing is to generate a graph structure (like the AST in Section 2) but with sharing of common subexpressions. So we're going to generate a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) instead of an AST. For example, we can use the following DAG structure that explicitly references nodes by a unique identifier

```
type NodeID = Int
data Node = NAdd NodeID NodeID
```

```

    | NVariable String
    | NConstant Int

newtype DAG = DAG (BiMap Node) deriving Show

```

Kiselyov’s method for detecting implicit sharing in finally tagless style uses hash-consing [7]. Hash-consing is based on a bijection of nodes and a set of identifiers, e.g.,

```

data BiMap a -- abstract
lookup_key :: Ord a => a -> BiMap a -> Maybe Int
lookup_val :: Int -> BiMap a -> a
insert :: Ord a => a -> BiMap a -> (Int, BiMap a)
empty :: BiMap a

```

The method can be performed using any data structure that provides the above interface. An efficient implementation would use hashing and linear probing, as is done by Thai in his Master’s thesis [10].

In order to generate such a data structure, we will need to keep track of the current maximum identifier to keep them unique. The representation for the finally tagless instance is then a wrapper around a state monad that holds the DAG being constructed in its state and returns the current (top) **NodeID**:

```

newtype Graph a = Graph { unGraph :: State DAG NodeID }

instance Exp Graph where
  constant x = Graph (hashcons $ NConstant x)
  variable x = Graph (hashcons $ NVariable x)
  add e1 e2 = Graph (do
    h1 <- unGraph e1
    h2 <- unGraph e2
    hashcons $ NAdd h1 h2)

```

The trick to uncovering sharing is in the **hashcons** function, which inserts a new node into the current DAG, but not before checking if it is already there.

```

hashcons :: Node -> State DAG NodeID
hashcons e = do
  DAG m <- get
  case lookup_key e m of
    Nothing -> let (k,m') = insert e m
               in put (DAG m') >> return k
    Just k -> return k

```

The technique is essentially that of hash-consing, popularized by its use in LISP compilers, but discovered by Ershov in 1958 [3]. Other works have explored the use of type-safe hash-consing in embedded DSLs, see [4].

### 2.3 Limitations of Hash-Consing

When we wrap our state monad in finally tagless style, we lose some expected sharing. In the following code, the use of the `let` causes the computation  $x + y$  to only occur once

```
haskellSharing x y =
  let
    z = x + y
  in z + z
```

Implicit sharing via hash-consing prevents duplication in the resulting DAG, but unfortunately doesn't prevent redundant computation. Consider the following equivalent attempt at using Haskell's built-in sharing in the finally tagless DSL

```
dslSharing :: Exp Graph -> Exp Graph -> Exp Graph
dslSharing x y =
  let
    z = add x y
  in add z z
```

Knowing that `z` is a wrapper around a state monad, and recalling the implementation of `add` via hash-consing above, the values `h1` and `h2` are separately evaluated through the state monad, even if `e1` and `e2` are the same shared Haskell value. Hash-consing will prevent these redundancies from appearing in the resulting DAG, but in the process of discovering the sharing, the entire unshared AST will still be traversed.

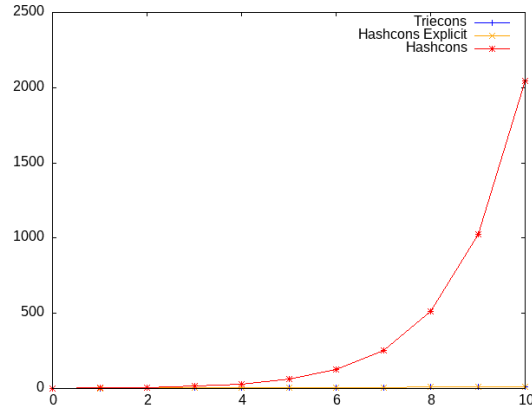
Consider a chain of `adds` with sharing, for example

```
addChains :: Exp repr => Expr Int -> Expr Int
addChains x0 =
  let
    x1 = add x0 x0
    x2 = add x1 x1
    ...
  in xn
```

As shown in Fig. 1, this code will perform approximately  $2^{n+1}$  `hashcons` operations, where  $n$  is the number of `adds`.

### 2.4 Explicit Sharing and Limitations

Kiselyov [7] recognized that the amount of computation with hash-consing “may take a long time for large programs,” and proposed an ad-hoc solution, explicit sharing via a custom `let` construct



**Fig. 1.** Number of calls to `hashcons` plotted against the number of `add` operations performed. Hash-consing is performed without explicit sharing and is clearly exponential, Triecons (without explicit sharing) and Hashcons Explicit (with explicit sharing) overlap and are both linear

```
class ExpLet repr where
  let_ :: repr a -> (repr a -> repr b) -> repr b
instance ExpLet Graph where
  let_ e f = Graph (do x <- unGraph e
                      unGraph $ f (Graph (return x)))
```

which can be used to rewrite `addChains` as

```
addChains x =
  let_ x (\x0 ->
  let_ (add x0 x0) (\x1 ->
  let_ (add x1 x1) (\x2 ->
  ...
  )))
```

This makes the code a bit clunky and adds an extra burden on the DSL writer, but it prevents unnecessary hash-consing in our example.

However the method does not work for DSL functions returning multiple outputs via tuples or container types like lists. Generating a hypergraph or bipartite graph structure that allows operation nodes like `add` to have edges to multiple outputs is one way this problem will arise. For example, in our own research we implemented a DSL for an instruction set architecture that generates a bipartite graph of instructions and the registers they act upon. Attempting to generate a graph where an instruction outputs multiple values will result in returning multiple independent state monads.

We can concisely illustrate this problem by adding the following instruction to our DSL that attempts to return two separate nodes in the DAG at once

```
novel :: (repr Int, repr Int) -> (repr Int, repr Int)
```

The issue is that DAG generation requires splitting the state monad in two:

```
instance Exp Graph where
  ...
  novel e1 e2 = let
    g1 = Graph (do h1 <- unGraph e1
                  h2 <- unGraph e2
                  hashcons $ Novel1 h1 h2)
    g2 = Graph (do h1 <- unGraph e1
                  h2 <- unGraph e2
                  hashcons $ Novel2 h1 h2)
  in (g1,g2)
```

Each output it returns will now have to be individually evaluated, so a chain of DSL functions that output 2 or more values will suffer from the same exponential explosion of hash-consing operations, and trying to adapt the `let` construct above, just creates another function with the same problem (multiple outputs).

One solution to this issue is to integrate container types such as tuples and lists into the DSL language. However doing this eliminates the advantage of having an embedded language. Manipulating tuple values will be cumbersome, constantly requiring calls to custom implementations of `fst`, `snd` etc. And for lists you'll lose access to built-in Haskell list functionality. To get the full advantage of embedding a DSL it should not only inherit the host language's syntactic and semantic structure, but also it's programming environment, as is argued in [2].

### 3 Implicit Sharing Via Byte String ASTs

The heart of our problem is that whenever we need to sequence the state of the inputs for one of our DSL functions we want to first check if it's already been evaluated. But how do we do that without first evaluating it to gain access to its unique identifier? We need some way to uniquely identify it outside the monad.

Our proposed solution is to build a serialized AST using byte strings for each node along with our DAG. The byte string stays outside the monad, while the DAG remains inside. We can do this efficiently by replacing the `BiMap` with a trie. In our toy example, we use the package `bytestring-trie`.

```
data Graph a = Graph { unGraph :: State DAG NodeID
                      , stringAST :: ByteString }

data DAG = DAG { unTrie :: Trie (Node,NodeID)
                , maxID  :: NodeID
                } deriving Show
```

This looks a bit different because the `BiMap` was a bijective relation between nodes and node ids, whereas the trie maps byte strings to pairs (node,node id). The DAG is expressed as a relation, by projecting out the values of the trie.

To prevent confusion, we name the hash-consing function in our method `triecons`:

```
triecons :: ByteString -> Node -> State DAG NodeID
triecons sAST node = do
  DAG trie maxID <- get
  case Trie.lookup sAST trie of
    Nothing -> let maxID' = maxID+1
                trie' = Trie.insert sAST (node,maxID') trie
                in do put $ DAG trie' maxID'
                return maxID'
    Just (_,nodeID) -> return nodeID
```

We use it to implement the DAG-building instance of the DSL, which looks a lot like the previous instance. The substantial differences are the `buildStringAST` calls which you can think of as pretty printing, but optimized for the trie, and the use of `seqArgs` (explained below):

```
instance Exp Graph where
  constant x = let
    node = NConstant x
    sAST = buildStringAST node []
    in Graph (triecons sAST $ NConstant x) sAST
  variable x = let
    node = NVariable x
    sAST = buildStringAST node []
    in Graph (triecons sAST $ NVariable x) sAST
  add e1 e2 = let
    sAST = buildStringAST "nadd" [e1,e2]
    sT = do ns <- seqArgs [e1,e2]
          case ns of
            [n1,n2] -> triecons sAST $ NAdd n1 n2
            _ -> error "black magic"
    in Graph sT sAST
```

The magic is in `seqArgs`. We only evaluate the inner state `sT` of each argument if we fail to find its corresponding serialized AST in the Trie.

```
seqArgs :: [Graph a] -> State DAG [NodeID]
seqArgs inps =
  let
    seqArg (Graph sT sAST) =
      do DAG trie _ <- get
      case Trie.lookup sAST trie of
        Nothing -> sT
```



```

    Just (_,nodeID) -> return nodeID
in sequence $ map seqArg inps

```

This will prevent redundant hash-consing without the need for explicit sharing, but at the expense of storing redundant byte strings.

### 3.1 Memory Limitations

The byte string AST being built will itself suffer from lack of sharing. We’re essentially trading extra computation for extra memory. In our `addChains` example from Section 2.3, our method now has exponential scaling in memory instead of computation. This can be a good tradeoff, since memory is so plentiful in modern hardware, but still presents an issue.

## 4 Explicit Sharing Of ByteString ASTs

We propose another solution to this issue, taking inspiration again from Kiselyov [7], by introducing an explicit construct for specifying sharing. This time, the construct will substitute the current byte string for a more compact label.

```

class Substitute repr where
  subT :: ByteString -> repr a -> repr a
instance Substitute Graph where
  subT s' (Graph g s _) = Graph g s' (Just s)

exampleSubT x y = let
  z = subT "z" (add x y)
in add z z

```

For safety purposes, we need to keep track of a table of these labels and their corresponding ASTs, to make sure we don’t use the same label for different serialized ASTs.

```

data DAG = DAG { dagTrie :: Trie (Node,NodeID)
                , dagSubMap :: Map ByteString ByteString
                , dagMaxID :: Int
                } deriving Show

data Graph a = Graph { unGraph :: State DAG NodeID
                      , unStringAST :: ByteString
                      , unSubT :: Maybe ByteString }

```

When a substitution is made via `subT`, the `unStringAST` field is replaced with the new label, and the previous serialized AST is placed in `unSubT`. When a `Graph` value is processed, the `unSubT` field is checked to see if it contains a label

```

seqArgs :: [Graph a] -> State DAG [NodeID]
seqArgs inps =
  let
    seqArg (Graph sT sAST mSubt) =
      do DAG trie _ _ <- get
      let sAST' = case mSubt of
        Just s -> s
        Nothing -> sAST
      case Trie.lookup sAST' trie of
        Nothing -> sT -- error "missing ast"
        Just (node,nodeID) ->
          do subTInsert mSubt sAST (node,nodeID)
          return nodeID
  in sequence $ map seqArg inps

```

If the `unSubT` field contains a label, that means the current `unStringAST` field is a substitution that needs to be inserted into `dagSubMap`. The function `subTInsert` handles this

```

subTInsert :: Maybe ByteString -> ByteString
            -> (Node, NodeID) -> State DAG ()
subTInsert Nothing _ _ = return ()
subTInsert (Just s) sAST nodeID =
  do DAG trie subTMap _ <- get
  case Map.lookup sAST subTMap of
    Just sAST' -> if sAST == sAST'
      then return ()
      else error "tried to resubT"
    Nothing -> let cMap' = Map.insert sAST s subTMap
      trie' = Trie.insert sAST nodeID trie
      in modify (\dag -> dag { dagTrie = trie'
        , dagSubMap = cMap' })

```

We need to make sure we don’t attempt to insert the same substitution for two different ASTs. Unfortunately, if there is a collision there’s no way to escape the state monad to prevent or modify the substitution. In the toy example, compilation crashes, but we could catch an exception instead if we used the `ExceptT` transformer instead of a simple state monad. Either way it’s up to the DSL user to ensure they don’t reuse the same label as a substitution.

## 5 BenchMarking

Even with explicit sharing via substitutions, our method contains a reasonable amount of overhead in order to overcome the limitations of Kiselyov’s method. The `addChains` example altered for explicit sharing with both methods presents a worst case scenario in terms of overhead comparison. Kiselyov’s method is able

to fully utilize its explicit sharing and our method requires many substitution lookups.

Size	150	200	10000	50000
Hash-Cons time	0.0 secs	0.0 secs	0.01 secs	0.03 secs
Hash-Cons alloc	619,296 bytes	739,304 bytes	28,662,592 bytes	155,993,544 bytes
Trie-Cons time	0.0 secs	0.0 secs	0.03 secs	0.16 secs
Trie-Cons alloc	1,773,416 bytes	2,333,680 bytes	129,146,808 bytes	723,437,504 bytes

Table 1. Benchmarks of `addChains` example with full explicit sharing.

Table 1 gives a set of benchmarks comparing our method with Kiselyov’s, both taking full advantage of explicit sharing. It’s clear Kiselyov’s method performs better in this situation, however it should be noted our method is still viable for solving very large DAG’s in reasonable amounts of time / memory.

For more interesting benchmarks, we need to consider a more sophisticated DSL. We defined a DSL for an instruction set architecture as mentioned in section 2.4. It will has the following interface

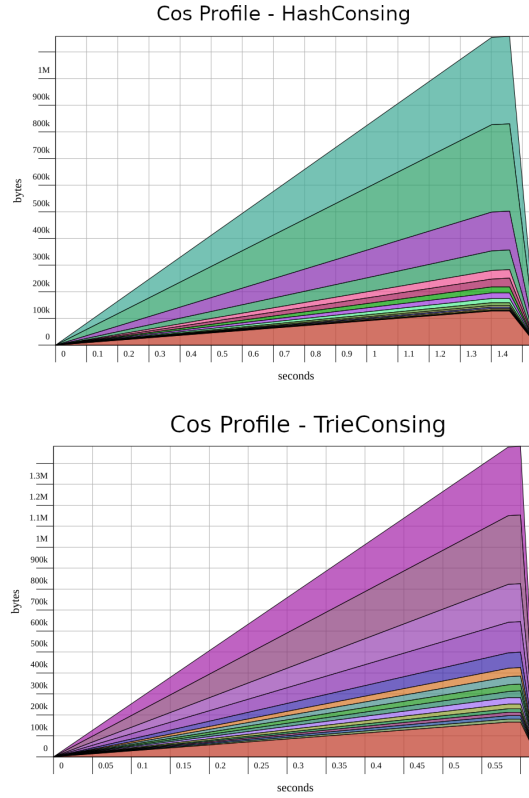
```
class ISA repr where
  -- / Load from memory into a GPR
  ldMR :: repr MR -> Int -> (repr GPR, repr MR)
  -- / Store a GPR into memory
  stdMR :: repr MR -> Int -> repr GPR -> repr MR
  -- / Bitwise NAND of two 64-bit general-purpose registers (NNGRK)
  nandG :: repr GPR -> repr GPR -> repr GPR
  -- / Bitwise NOR of two 64-bit general-purpose registers (NOGRK)
  norG :: repr GPR -> repr GPR -> repr GPR
  -- / Bitwise NXOR of two 64-bit general-purpose registers (NXGRK)
  eqvG :: repr GPR -> repr GPR -> repr GPR
  -- / Addition of two 64-bit general-purpose registers (AGRK)
  addG :: repr GPR -> repr GPR -> repr GPR
  ...
```

This language can be used to encode basic blocks of assembly code. These basic blocks may return multiple outputs, preventing us from using explicit sharing via `let` constructs. For example,

```
add2 :: ISA repr => (repr GPR, repr GPR) -> (repr GPR, repr GPR)
add2 (a, b) =
  let
    a' = addG a b
    b' = addG a' b
  in (a', b')
```

We used this language to implement approximations of vector `cos` and `tan` (i.e., a loop body that `cos` or `tan` over an input array). The loop body was unrolled by a factor of four resulting in a large DAG.

We profiled `cos` using both Kiselyov’s method (i.e., hash-consing) and our own (i.e., trie-consing with some explicit sharing). It wasn’t possible to use Kiselyov’s explicit sharing method in this case so our code was able to achieve greater performance, 154% speedup, with only a small increase in memory consumption (see Fig. 2).

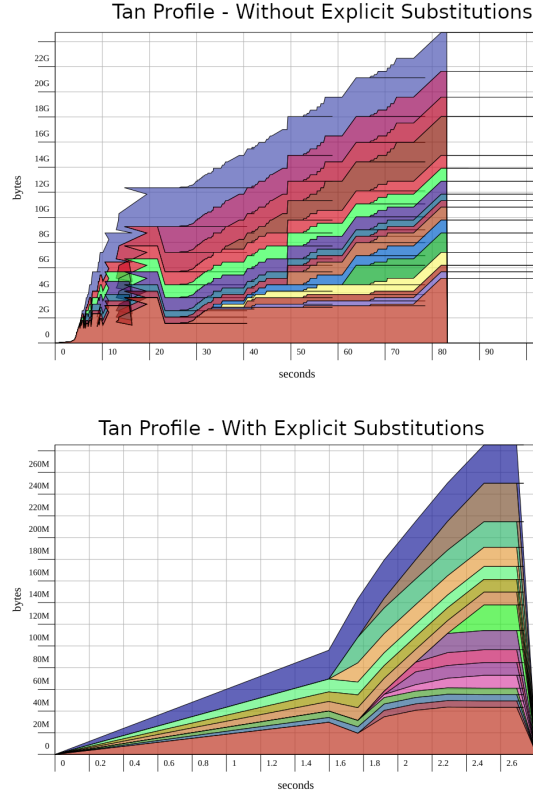


**Fig. 2.** Comparison of `cos` using hash-cons vs trie-cons

For `tan`, we were unable to generate a resulting code graph using Kiselyov’s method. Using explicit sharing via `let` constructs wasn’t possible due to the multiple outputs issue and without it the amount of computation due to redundant hash-consing was simply too large, and would not terminate.

We were able to generate `tan` using our method both without and with our explicit sharing, however without explicit sharing we consumed an unreasonable

amount of memory (see Fig. 3). It should be noted, the main source of redundant computation in `tan` is the reuse of computed values of `cos` and `sin`. By simply explicitly sharing just those values we achieved the significant speedup shown in Fig. 3.



**Fig. 3.** Comparison of tan profiling using no explicit sharing vs explicit

## 6 Conclusion and Future Work

We have presented a method for constructing finally tagless style DSLs with sharing detection, that allows for DSLs specifying hypergraphs (e.g., functions with multiple outputs). It also avoids the use of unsafe referencing as performed when doing observable sharing, c.f. [5].

The method has its drawbacks in terms of memory usage, but these can be mitigated by explicitly specifying sharing. This does present an extra burden on the DSL writer to implement explicit sharing when necessary and ensure labels are not reused. Future work may investigate the use of a preprocessor or plugin

to automate explicit sharing. Unlike an explicit `let` construct, it would be fairly straightforward to automatically bind `subT` operations to any DSL function call.

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