

Computing Science MSc Thesis

# Incremental Computation for Algebraic Datatypes in Haskell

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Write abstract

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# Introduction

#### 1.1 Motivation

Write a motivation

#### 1.2 Contributions

Write the contributions

# 1.3 Research Questions

Write the research questions

# Specific Implementation

Computing a value of a data structure can easily be defined in Haskell, but every time there is a small change in the Tree, the entire Tree needs to be recomputed. This is inefficient, because most of the computations have already been performed in the previous computation.

To prevent recomputation of already computed values, the technique memoization is introduced. Memoization is a technique where the results of computational intensive tasks are stored and when the same input occurs, the result is reused.

#### Write about the bad side of using hashes

The comparison of two values in Haskell is done with the Eq typeclass, which implements the equality operator (==) :: a -> a -> Bool. So, an example implementation of the Eq typeclass for the Tree datatype would be:

```
instance Eq a => Eq (Tree a) where

Leaf x1 == Leaf x2 = x1 == x2

Node l1 x1 r1 == Node l2 x2 r2 = x1 == x2 && l1 == l2 && r1 == r2

== = = False
```

The problem with using this implementation of the Eq typeclass for Memoization is that for every comparison of the Tree datatype the equality is computed. This is inefficient because the equality implementation has to traverse the complete Tree data structure to know if the Tree's are equal.

To efficiently compare the Tree datatypes, we need to represent the structure in a manner which does not lead to traversing to the complete Tree data structure. This can be accomplished using a hash function. A hash function is a process of transforming a data structure into an

arbitrary fixed-size value, where the same input always generates the same output. One of the disadvantages of using hashes is *hash collisions*. Hash collisions happen when two different pieces of data have the same hash. This is because a hash function has a limited amount of bits to represent every possible combination of data. However, common hash functions have such a low chance of getting a hash collision it is negligible.

```
class Hashable a where
   hash :: a -> Hash

instance Hashable a => Hashable (Tree a) where
   hash (Leaf x) = concatHash [hash "Leaf", hash x]
   hash (Node l x r) = concatHash [hash "Node", hash x, hash l, hash r]
```

The hashes can then be used to efficiently compare two Tree data structures, without having to traverse the entire Tree data structure. To keep track of the intermediate results of the computation, we store the results in a Map. A Map, also known as a dictionary, is an implementation of mapping a key to a value. In our next example the Hash is the key and the value is the intermediate result.

Write about the reuse of the Map

Maybe add the more efficient implementation of merging maps?

```
sumTreeIncMap :: Map Hash Int -> Tree Int -> (Int, Map Hash Int)
sumTreeIncMap m l@(Leaf x) = case lookup (hash l) m of
   Just x -> (x, m)
   Nothing -> (x, insert (hash l) x empty)
sumTreeIncMap m n@(Node l x r) = case lookup (hash n) m of
   Just x -> (x, m)
   Nothing -> (y, insert (hash n) y (ml <> mr))
   where
        y = x + xl + xr
        (xl, ml) = sumTreeIncMap m l
        (xr, mr) = sumTreeIncMap m r
```

Generating a hash for every subset of the data structure for every execution is time-consuming

and is unnecessary because most of the data structure stays the same. So, the Merkle Tree concept is used, which is inspired by the work of Miraldo and Swierstra[2]. The Merkle Tree integrates the hashes with the data structure.

#### 2.1 Merkle Tree (TreeH)

First we introduce a new datatype TreeH, which contains a Hash for every constructor in Tree. Then to convert the Tree datatype into the TreeH datatype, the structure of the Tree is hashed and stored into the datatype using the merkle function.

The precomputed hashes can then be used to easily create a Map, without computing the hashes every time the sumTreeIncH function is called.

```
sumTreeIncH :: TreeH Int -> (Int, Map Hash Int)
sumTreeIncH (LeafH h x) = (x, insert h x empty)
sumTreeIncH (NodeH h l x r) = (y, insert h y (ml <> mr))
    where
        y = x + xl + xr
        (xl, ml) = sumTreeInc l
        (xr, mr) = sumTreeInc r
```

The problem with this implementation is, that when the Tree datatype is updated, the entire Tree needs to be converted into a TreeH, which is linear in time. This can be done more efficiently, by only updating the hashes which are impacted by the changes. Which means that only the hashes of the change and the parents need to be updated.

The first intuition to fixing this would be using a pointer to the value that needs to be changed. But because Haskell is a functional programming language, there are no pointers. Luckily, there is a data structure which can be used to efficiently update the data structure, namely the Zipper[1] data structure.

#### 2.2 Zipper

#### Add a visual example

The Zipper data structure works by keeping track of how the data structure is being traversed through. The Zipper keeps track by using a *context*. The context is the inverse of the direction which the data structure is traversed through. Meaning that when we traverse to the left side of the Tree the right side of the Tree gets stored in the context.

Then combining the Tree and the Cxt, we can traverse through the Tree and keeping the *context* of how we got to the current point.

```
type Loc a = (Tree a, Cxt a)
```

To use the Loc, first we need to create a Cxt.

```
enter :: Tree a -> Loc a
enter t = (t, Top)
```

Using the Loc, we can define multiple function on how to traverse through the Tree.

```
left :: Loc a -> Loc a
left (Node 1 x r, c) = (1, L c r x)

right :: Loc a -> Loc a
right (Node 1 x r, c) = (r, R c 1 x)

up :: Loc a -> Loc a
up (t, L c r x) = (Node t x r, c)
up (t, R c 1 x) = (Node 1 x t, c)
```

When we get to the desired point in the Tree which needs to be updated, we call the modify function.

```
modify :: (Tree a \rightarrow Tree a) \rightarrow Loc a \rightarrow Loc a modify f (t, c) = (f t, c)
```

Then to get the entire updated tree back, we only need to call the up function indefinitely until the Loc is at the top.

```
leave :: Loc a -> Loc a
leave l@(t, Top) = 1
leave l = top (up 1)
```

#### 2.2.1 Zipper TreeH

To implement the Zipper for TreeH, the same setup can be used as in the previous section, but when modifying the TreeH we also need to update all the parent nodes. First the Cxt needs to be updated to additionally store the hashes. Then the direction functions need to be updated to also store the Hash in the Cxt.

When modifying the value in the TreeH, the parents nodes hashes also needs to be updated.

# Prototype Implementation

#### 3.1 Generic programming in Haskell

Introduce generic programming and how it works

#### 3.1.1 Pattern Functors vs Sums of products

Describe the differences between defining generic data types

#### 3.1.2 Mutually recursive datatypes

Describe what mutually recursive datatypes are and why do we need to know about it

#### 3.1.3 Comparison Generic Libraries

#### 3.2 Prototype language

The definition of the pattern functor only leads to shallow recursion. Meaning that pattern functor can only be used to observe a single layer of recursion. To apply a function over the complete data structure, deep recursion is used. To implement deep recursion, the fix point is introduced.

```
data Fix f = In { unFix :: f (Fix f) }
```

The fix point is then used to describe the recursion of the datatype on a type-level basis. Using pattern functors and fix point most of the Haskell datatypes can be represented. For example:

Because the generic representation of the Haskell datatypes can be represented using pattern functors, we can use Functors. Using the Functor class a cata function can be defined, which is a generic fold function.

To store the intermediate results of cata, we want the structure of the data to be hashed. This way we can easily compare if the data structure has changed over time, without completely recomputing the resulting digests. To do this, first a fix point is introduced which additionally stores the digest.

```
type Merkle f = Fix (f :*: K Digest)
```

Then to convert the fix point to a fix point containing the structural digest, the Merkelize class is introduced.

Using the new fix point with its structural digest, a new cata function can be defined which can store its intermediate values in a Map Digest a.

#### Zipper

Describe the use of the Zipper and how the hashes are updated

#### 3.3 HashMap vs Trie

Write a piece about the comparison of storing it in a HashMap or a Trie datastructure

Write about Hdiff and the use of Trie datastructure

# Generic Implementation

#### 4.0.1 Regular

Write about why Regular is chosen

Write about the implementation of Regular and what had to change compared to the prototype language

```
newtype K a r = K { unK :: a} -- Constant value
                = I { unI :: r }
newtype I r
                                     -- Recursive value
               = U
data <mark>U</mark> r
                                    -- Empty Constructor
data (f :+: g) r = L (f r) | R (g r) -- Alternatives
data (f : *: g) r = f r : *: g r
                                    -- Combine
data C c f r = C { unC :: f r } -- Name of a constructor
               = S \{ unS :: fr \} -- Name of a record selector
merkle :: (Regular a, Hashable (PF a), Functor (PF a))
       => a -> Merkle (PF a)
merkle = In . merkleG . fmap merkle . from
cataSum :: Merkle (PF (Tree Int)) -> (Int, M.Map Digest Int)
cataSum = cataMerkle
  (\case
    L (C (K x))
    R (C (I 1 :*: K x :*: I r)) \rightarrow 1 + x + r
  )
```

#### 4.1 Complexity

Describe for every function used the complexity and what leads to the complete complexity

#### 4.2 Memory Strategies

Describe multiple memory strategies for keeping memory usage and execution time low

Write about paper selective memoization

#### 4.3 Pattern Synonyms

Explain Pattern Synonyms

```
{-# COMPLETE Leaf_, Node_ #-}

pattern Leaf_ :: a -> PF (Tree a) r

pattern Leaf_ x <- L (C (K x)) where
  Leaf_ x = L (C (K x))

pattern Node_ :: r -> a -> r -> PF (Tree a) r

pattern Node_ l x r <- R (C (I l :*: K x :*: I r)) where
  Node_ l x r = R (C (I l :*: K x :*: I r))

cataSum :: MerklePF (Tree Int) -> (Int, M.Map Digest Int)

cataSum = cataMerkle
  (\case
  Leaf_ x -> x
  Node_ l x r -> l + x + r
)
```

# 5 Experiments

### 5.1 Execution Time

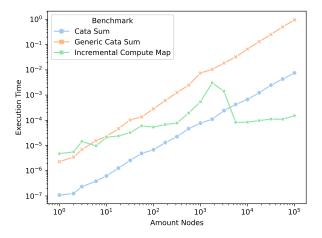


Figure 5.1: Overview execution time

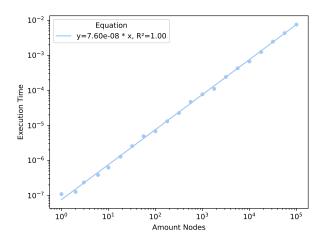


Figure 5.2: Execution time for Cata Sum

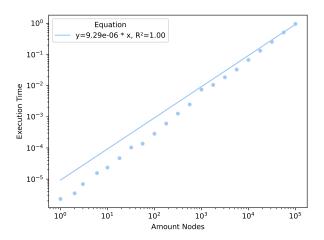


Figure 5.3: Execution time for Generic Cata Sum

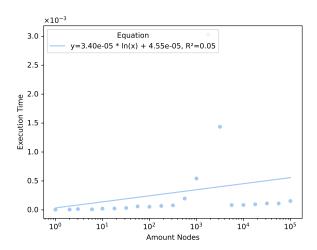


Figure 5.4: Execution time for Incremental Cata Sum

# 5.2 Memory Usage

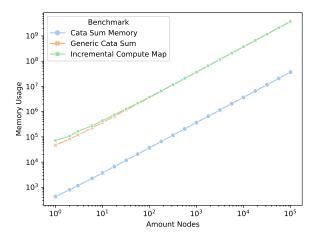


Figure 5.5: Overview memory usage

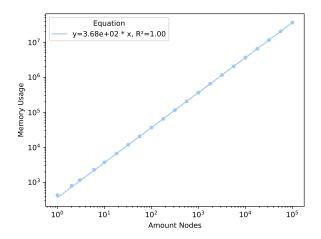


Figure 5.6: Memory usage for Cata Sum

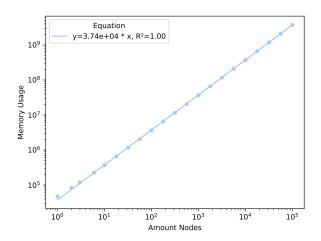


Figure 5.7: Memory usage for Generic Cata Sum

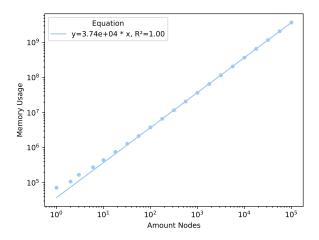


Figure 5.8: Memory usage for Incremental Cata Sum

# 5.3 Comparison Memory Strategies

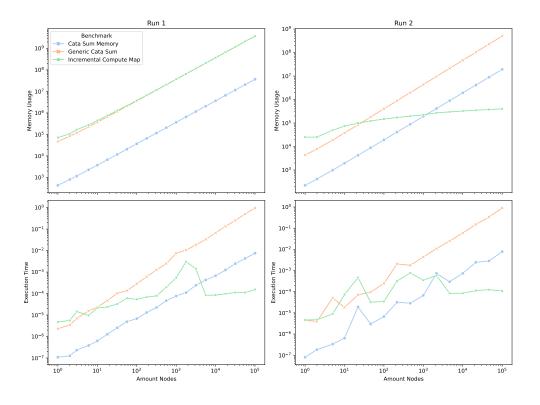


Figure 5.9: Comparison Memory Strategy

# 6

# Conclusion and Future Work

### 6.1 Conclusion



# Implementation Memo Cata

### A.1 Definition Generic Datatypes

#### A.2 Implementation Hashable

```
class Hashable f where
  hash :: f (Fix (g :*: K Digest)) -> Digest

instance Hashable U where
  hash _ = digest "U"

instance (Show a) => Hashable (K a) where
  hash (K x) = digestConcat [digest "K", digest x]

instance Hashable I where
  hash (I x) = digestConcat [digest "I", getDigest x]
  where
    getDigest :: Fix (f :*: K Digest) -> Digest
    getDigest (In (_ :*: K h)) = h

instance (Hashable f, Hashable g) => Hashable (f :+: g) where
```

```
hash (L x) = digestConcat [digest "L", hash x]
hash (R x) = digestConcat [digest "R", hash x]

instance (Hashable f, Hashable g) => Hashable (f :*: g) where
hash (x :*: y) = digestConcat [digest "P", hash x, hash y]

instance (Hashable f) => Hashable (C c f) where
hash (C x) = digestConcat [digest "C", hash x]
```

#### A.3 Implementation Merkle

#### A.4 Implementation Cata Merkle

#### A.5 Implementation Zipper Merkle

```
data Loc :: * -> * where
  Loc :: (Zipper a) => Merkle a
                     -> [Ctx (a :*: K Digest) (Merkle a)]
                     -> Loc (Merkle a)
modify :: (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow Loc a \rightarrow Loc a
modify f(Loc x cs) = Loc (f x) cs
updateDigest :: Hashable a => Merkle a -> Merkle a
updateDigest (In (x :*: _)) = In (merkleG x)
updateParents :: Hashable a => Loc (Merkle a) -> Loc (Merkle a)
updateParents (Loc x []) = Loc (updateDigest x) []
updateParents (Loc x cs) = updateParents
                           $ expectJust "Exception: Cannot go up"
                           $ up (Loc (updateDigest x) cs)
updateLoc :: Hashable a => (Merkle a -> Merkle a)
                        -> Loc (Merkle a) -> Loc (Merkle a)
updateLoc f loc = if
                       top loc'
                   then loc'
                   else updateParents
                        $ expectJust "Exception: Cannot go up" (up loc')
  where
    loc' = modify f loc
```

# B Regular

# B.1 Zipper

```
data instance Ctx (K a) r
data instance Ctx U r
data instance Ctx (f :+: g) r = CL (Ctx f r) | CR (Ctx g r)
data instance Ctx (f :*: g) r = C1 (Ctx f r) (g r) | C2 (f r) (Ctx g r)
data instance Ctx I r = CId
data instance Ctx (C c f) r = CC (Ctx f r)
data instance Ctx (S s f) r = CS (Ctx f r)
```

# Bibliography

- [1] Gérard Huet. "The zipper". In: Journal of functional programming 7.5 (1997), pp. 549–554.
- [2] Victor Cacciari Miraldo and Wouter Swierstra. "An efficient algorithm for type-safe structural diffing". In: *Proceedings of the ACM on Programming Languages* 3.ICFP (2019), pp. 1–29.