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Researchers in the field of bidirectional transformations have studied data synchronisation for a long time and proposed various properties, of which *well-behavedness* is the most fundamental. However, well-behavedness is not enough to characterise the result of an update (performed by *put*), regarding what information should be retained in the updated source. The root cause is that the property, Hippocraticness, for guaranteeing the retention of source information is too "global", only requiring that the whole source should be unchanged if the whole view is.

In this paper we propose a new property *retentiveness*, which enables us to directly reason about the retention of source information locally. Central to our formulation of retentiveness is the notion of *links*, which are used to relate fragments of sources and views. These links are passed as additional input to the extended *put* function, which produces a new source in a way that preserves all the source fragments attached to the links. We validate the feasibility of retentiveness by designing a domain-specific language (DSL) supporting mutually recursive algebraic data types. We prove that any program written in our DSL gives rise to a pair of retentive *get* and *put*. We show the usefulness of retentiveness by presenting examples in two different research areas: resugaring and code refactoring.

CCS Concepts: • Software and its engineering  $\rightarrow$  Domain specific languages;

Additional Key Words and Phrases: bidirectional transformations, asymmetric lenses

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Every now and then, we need to write a pair of programs to synchronise data. Typical examples include: view querying and view updating in relational databases [Bancilhon and Spyratos 1981; Dayal and Bernstein 1982; Gottlob et al. 1988] for keeping a database and its view in sync; parsers and printers as front ends of compilers [Matsuda et al. 2007; Rendel and Ostermann 2010; Zhu et al. 2016] for keeping program text and its internal representation in sync; text file format conversion [MacFarlane 2013] (e.g., between Markdown and HTML). All these pairs of programs should satisfy some properties in order to make synchronisation work in harmony.

Bidirectional transformations [Czarnecki et al. 2009] (BXs for short) provide a sound framework for writing these pairs of transformations, where the property of well-behavedness [Foster et al. 2007; Stevens 2008] plays a fundamental role. Various bidirectional programming languages and systems have been developed in different settings, to support users to write well-behaved bidirectional transformations easily [Barbosa et al. 2010; Bohannon et al. 2008; Foster et al. 2007; Hidaka et al. 2010; Hofmann et al. 2012; Ko et al. 2016; Pacheco et al. 2014].

In this paper, we will argue that the well-behavedness of BX is too "global" to solve many interesting synchronisation problems, and a more refinement property, which will be called retentativeness, should be developed. To see this clearly, let us recall (asymmetric) lenses [Foster et al. 2007; Stevens 2008], the most popular bidirectional transformation model, which is to maintain a functional consistency relation R between types S and V, where S contains more information and is called the source type, and V contains less information and is called the view type. It uses two functions to restore the consistency between the source and the view. For the forward direction, if the change of the source breaks the consistency relation, it uses a function  $get: S \to V$ . For the backward direction,

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consistency restoration is nontrivial, and is performed by another function  $put: S \to V \to S$ , which is to produce an updated source that is consistent with the changed view and to retain some information of the original source. A bidirectional transformation, get and put, is well-behaved, if it satisfies the following two properties:

$$get (put \ s \ v) = v$$
 (Correctness)  
 $put \ s (get \ s) = s$  (Hippocraticness)

Anon.

Correctness states that necessary changes must be made so that inconsistent data become consistent again, while hippocraticness says that if two pieces of data are already consistent, the restorer (*put*) must not make any change.

Despite being concise and natural, these two properties are not sufficient for precisely characterising the results of the update performed by put, and well-behaved lenses would exhibit unintended behaviour, regarding what information should be retained in the updated source. To illustrate, let us consider synchronisation between concrete and abstract syntax trees (CSTs and ASTs), which is often used in applications such as code refactoring<sup>1</sup>. To be concrete, assume that CSTs and ASTs are represented by the algebraic data types defined in Figure 1. The CSTs can be either expressions (Expr, containing additions and subtractions) or terms (Term, including numbers, negated terms and expressions in parentheses), and all constructors have an annotation field (Annot); in comparison, the ASTs do not include explicit parentheses, negations, and annotations. Consistency between CSTs and ASTs is given directly in terms of the get functions in Figure 1.

Let us see what problem would happen in this case. Suppose that we have a consistent pair of cst and ast shown in Figure 2, where cst represents "0-1+-2" and its sub-term "-2" is desugared as "0-2" in ast. If ast is modified into ast' (also in Figure 2), where the two non-zero numbers are exchanged. There is no much restriction on what a well-behaved put should do, and we could have a wide range of put behaviour, producing, as listed on the right-hand side of Figure 2,

- $cst_1$ , where the literals 1 and 2 are swapped, along with their annotations; or
- $cst_2$ , which represents the same expression as  $cst_1$  except that all annotations are removed; or
- $cst_3$ , which represents "-2 + (0 1)" and retains all annotations, in effect swapping the two subtrees under *Plus* and adding two constructors, *Term* and *Paren*, to satisfy the type constraints: or
- $cst_4$ , where the negation syntactic sugar "-2" gets lost after the update.

Among them,  $cst_3$  might be the most expected result because the user (or the tool) indeed swapped the two subtrees of Plus in ast. However, in practice, a well-behaved put generated from existing bidirectional languages (tools) has a very high possibility to return  $cst_1$  or  $cst_2$ . The root cause of the above wild range of put behaviour is that while lenses are designed to enable retention of source information (annotations and the negation syntactic sugar in the above example), the only property guaranteeing is hippocraticness, which only requires that the whole source should be unchanged if the whole view is. In other words, if we have a very small change on the view, we are free to create any source we like. This is too "global" in most cases, where we want a more "local" hippocraticness property saying that if parts of the view are unchanged then the corresponding parts of the source should be retained as well.

In this paper we propose a new *retentiveness* property to capture the local hippocraticness. Central to our formulation of retentiveness is to decompose sources and views into data fragments, and use *links* to relate those fragments. A retentive *put* function accepts links as its additional input, and can produce a new source in a way that it preserves all the source fragments attached to the links. For the examples in Figure 2, a retentive *put* is able to produce all of the CSTs listed there, by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>We will explain the synchronisations occurred in code refactoring in detail in Section 4.

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data Expr = Plus \quad Annot Expr Term
                                          getE :: Expr \rightarrow Arith
            | Minus Annot Expr Term
                                          getE(Plus = e t) = Add(getE e)(getT t)
            | Term Annot Term
                                          getE(Minus \_ e t) = Sub(getE e)(getT t)
                                          getE(Term _t) = getTt
data Term = Lit
                    Annot Int
            | Neg
                                          getT :: Term \rightarrow Arith
                    Annot Term
                                          getT(Lit _i) = Num i
            | Paren Annot Expr
                                          getT (Neg _t) = Sub (Num 0) (getT t)
type Annot = String
                                          getT (Paren = e) = getE e
data Arith = Add Arith Arith
            | Sub Arith Arith
            | Num Int
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Fig. 1. Data types for concrete and abstract syntax trees and the consistency relation between them as two get functions in Haskell.

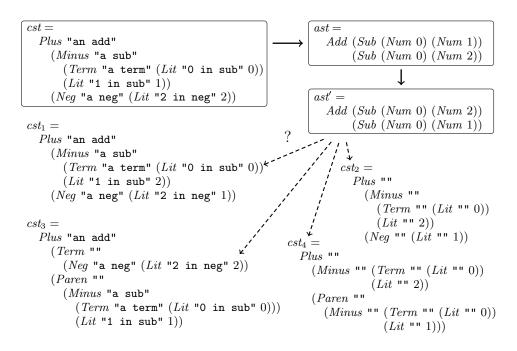


Fig. 2. *CST* is updated in many ways in response to a change on AST.

passing it different links indicating which parts of the original source should be retained. The main contributions of this paper can be summarised as follows.

- We propose a semantic framework of retentive lenses, in particular for algebraic data types. In our framework, Hippocraticness is subsumed by Retentiveness, and any (state-based) well-behaved lens can be lifted to a retentive lens (Section 2).
- To show that retentive lenses are feasible, we design a tiny but non-trivial domain-specific language, which is able to describe many interesting tree transformations. We first show a flavour of the language, by giving a solution to the problem in Figure 2. Then the syntax and

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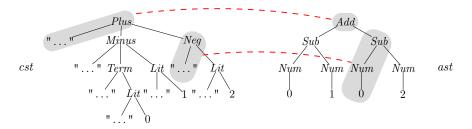


Fig. 3. Regions and consistency links.

semantics of the DSL are presented in order. We also prove that any program written in our DSL gives rise to a pair of retentive *get* and *put* (Section 3).

• To further show the usefulness of retentiveness, we present case studies in two different areas: resugaring [Pombrio and Krishnamurthi 2014, 2015] and code refactoring [Fowler and Beck 1999], showing that retentiveness simplifies the design of tools and provides additional guarantees (Section 4).

After these contributions, we present detailed related work regarding various alignment strategies, provenance between two pieces of data, the technology of origin tracking, and operational-based BXs (Section 5). Conclusions and future work regarding composability and generalisation of the retentive lens framework come later (Section 6).

## 2 A SEMANTIC FRAMEWORK OF RETENTIVE LENSES

In this section we will develop a definition of retentive lenses, where we enrich the pair of functions in lenses and formalise the statement "if parts of the view are unchanged then the corresponding parts of the source should be retained" in a more abstract framework, and show that Hippocraticness becomes a consequence (Section 2.2). Before that, we will start from an intuitive description of a "region model" for tree transformations, and how a retentive lens operates on this model.

# 2.1 The Region Model

 As mentioned in Section 1, the core idea of retentiveness is to use links to relate parts of the source and view. For trees, an intuitive notion of a "part" is a region, by which we mean a top portion of a subtree that can be described by a region pattern that consists of variables, constructors, and constants. For example, in Figure 3, the grey areas are some of the possible regions. The topmost region in cst, for example, is described by the region pattern 'Plus"..." a b', which says that the region includes the Plus node and the annotation "...", i.e., the first subtree under Plus; the other two subtrees (with roots Minus and Neg) under Plus are not part of the region, but we give them names a and b (which will be used in Section 2.3). This is one particular way of decomposing trees, and we call this the region model.

Within the region model, the *get* function in a retentive lens not only computes a view but also decomposes both the source and the view into regions and produces a set of links relating source and view regions. We call this set of links produced by *get* the *consistency links*, because they are a finer-grained representation of how the whole source is consistent with the whole view. In Figure 3, for example, the red dashed lines are two of the consistent links between the source *cst* and the view  $ast = getE \ cst$ . With this particular  $getE \ function$ , the topmost region of pattern 'Plus "..." a b' in cst corresponds to the topmost region of pattern 'Add a b' in ast, and the region of pattern 'Neg "..." a in the right subtree of cst corresponds to the region of pattern 'Sub (Num 0) a' in ast.

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Fig. 4. The triangular guarantee.

Note that, for clarity, Figure 3 does not show all consistency links — the complete set of consistency links should fully describe how all the source and view regions correspond.

As the view is modified, the links between the source and view can also be modified to reflect the latest correspondences between regions. For example, if we change *ast* in Figure 3 to *ast'* in Figure 4 by swapping the two subtrees under *Add*, then the link relating the '*Neg* "..." *a*' region and the '*Sub* (*Num* 0) *a*' region is also maintained to record that the two regions are still "locally consistent" despite that the source and view as a whole are no longer consistent.

When it is time to put the modified view back into the source, the links that remain between the source and the view can provide valuable information regarding what should be brought from the old source to the new source. The put function of a retentive lens thus takes a set of links as additional input, and retains regions in a way that respects the links. More precisely, put should provide what we might call the  $triangular\ guarantee$ : Using Figure 4 to illustrate, if a link is provided as input to put, say the one relating the ' $Neg\ "\dots"$  a' region in cst and the ' $Sub\ (Num\ 0)$  a' region in ast', then after updating cst to a new source  $cst_3$  (which is guaranteed to be consistent with ast'), the consistency links between  $cst_3$  and ast' should include a link that relates the ' $Sub\ (Num\ 0)$  a' region to some region in the new source  $cst_3$ , and that region should have the same pattern as the one specified by the input link, namely ' $Neg\ "\dots"$  a', preserving the negation (as opposed to changing it to a Minus, for example) and the associated annotation/comment.

## 2.2 Formalisation of Retentive Lenses

Recall that a classic lens [Foster et al. 2007] is a pair of functions  $get: S \to V$  and  $put: S \to V \to S$  satisfying two well-behavedness laws, Correctness get (put s v) = v and Hippocraticness put s (get s) = s. The aim of this section is to make the following revisions to the definition:

- extending *get* and *put* to incorporate links specifically, we will make *get* return a set of consistency links and *put* take a set of input links as an additional argument and
- replacing Hippocraticness with a finer-grained law that captures the "triangular guarantee" described in Section 2.1 and subsumes Hippocraticness.

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We will start by introducing some mathematical notations we use in this paper.

 2.2.1 Preliminaries. In this section and the next we use sets, total functions, and relations as our mathematical foundation. We will write  $r:A\sim B$  to denote that r is a relation between sets A and B, i.e.,  $r\subseteq A\times B$ . Given a relation  $r:A\sim B$ , its "left domain" LDOM r is the set  $\{x\in A\mid\exists y\in B.\ (x,y)\in r\}$ , and its converse  $r^\circ:B\sim A$  relates  $b\in B$  and  $a\in A$  exactly when r relates a and b. The composition  $l\cdot r:A\sim C$  of two relations  $l:A\sim B$  and  $r:B\sim C$  is defined as usual:  $(x,z)\in l\cdot r$  exactly when there exists y such that  $(x,y)\in l$  and  $(y,z)\in r$ . We will allow functions to be implicitly lifted to relations: a function  $f:A\to B$  also denotes a relation  $f:B\sim A$  such that  $(fx,x)\in f$  for all  $x\in A$ . This flipping of domain and codomain (from  $A\to B$  to  $B\sim A$ ) makes functional composition compatible with relational composition: a function composition  $f\circ g$  lifted to a relation is the same as  $f\cdot g$ , i.e., the composition of f and g as relations.

To allow more precision, we will use some notations from dependent type theory. Let P be a family of sets indexed by A, and P(x) the set at index  $x \in A$  in the family. We write  $(x \in A) \to P(x)$  to denote the set of dependent functions f that maps every  $x \in A$  to  $f \in P(x)$ . Also we write  $(x \in A) \times P(x)$  to denote the set of dependent pairs (x, y) where  $x \in A$  and  $y \in P(x)$ .

2.2.2 Abstracting Links. We will develop a series of definitions abstracting region patterns, regions, links, and sets of links, so as to arrive at a framework that does not specifically talk about the region model but still captures the essence of retentiveness. We will then be able to enrich *get* and *put* to make them handle links.

From region patterns to properties. A rough reading of the triangular guarantee described in Section 2.1 is that a fragment in the old source linked to the view should also appear in the new source. An alternative and more abstract way of understanding this is that we are preserving a kind of property that says "a tree includes a specific region pattern": if an old source has a fragment matching a region pattern, then the new source should also have a fragment matching the same region pattern. More generally, there may be other kinds of property that we want to preserve. (We will see another kind of property in Section 2.3.)

Intuitively, a property is a description that can be satisfied. Below is a more proof-relevant formulation that we will need:

*Definition 2.1 (properties).* A *property p* on a set *X* is a value equipped with a family of sets  $x \models p$  where *x* ranges over *X*.

Inhabitants of  $x \models p$  are considered proofs that x satisfies p. For example, given a tree t, a region pattern pat (Section 2.1) can be regarded as a property by equipping it with a family of sets:

$$t \models pat = (path \in Path) \times LeadToRegion(t, path, pat)$$

where LeadToRegion(t, path, pat) is the set of proofs that path is a valid path from the root of t to a sub-tree which matches pat.

Regions as properties with proofs. We have seen that region patterns can be cast as properties: given a region pattern, a proof of the corresponding property is a path pointing to a region described by the region pattern. Now consider regions, which are fragments matching a region pattern at a specific location. This suggests that regions correspond to pairs of property and proof that the property is satisfied. For brevity, we give a definition of the sets of such pairs of property and proof:

*Definition 2.2.* Let *P* be a set of properties on *X* and  $x \in X$ . Define:

$$P_x = (p \in P) \times (x \models p)$$

That is, an inhabitant of  $P_x$  is a property and a proof that x satisfies the property. We will sometimes refer to  $P_x$  as the set of properties provably satisfied by x.

Sets of links as relations between properties with proofs. In Section 2.1, a link connects a region in the source and another in the view; that is, it is a pair of source and view regions. We have seen how regions are abstractly represented: given a source s, the set of regions in s is abstractly represented by  $P_s$  where P is the set of all possible region patterns (regarded as properties) for sources; similarly, the set of regions in a view v is abstractly represented by  $Q_v$  where Q is the set of all possible region patterns for views. It follows that, abstractly, a link should be a pair in the set  $P_s \times Q_v$ , and a set of links is a relation between  $P_s$  and  $Q_v$ .

Enriching get and put with links. Now we can enrich the type of get to:

get : 
$$(s \in S) \rightarrow (v \in V) \times (P_s \sim Q_v)$$

That is, upon receiving a source  $s \in S$ , *get* will produce a view  $v \in V$  and a relation between the regions in s and v.

It is tempting to do exactly the same for put, assigning it the type:

$$(s \in S) \times (v \in V) \times (P_s \sim Q_v) \rightarrow S$$

This is not enough, however, because not all triples in the above domain are valid inputs. In particular, for our syntax tree example (Section 2.1), an arbitrary input link might relate inconsistent regions, e.g., a source region of pattern 'Neg "..." a' and a view region of pattern 'Add a b'; in this case there is no hope to deliver the triangular guarantee since such invalid links cannot appear among the consistency links produced by get. In general, we usually do not want to consider all triples in the above domain, and only want to operate on a subset consisting of those sources and views that are "not too inconsistent" and those links that are valid for the sources and views, such that consistency restoration is possible. Inspired by Diskin et al. [2011b], we call this subset of triples a triple space.

Definition 2.3 (triple spaces). A triple space T between a source set S with properties P and a view set V with properties Q is a set such that:

$$T \subseteq (s \in S) \times (v \in V) \times (P_s \sim Q_v)$$

The definition of a retentive lens will start from specifying a triple space *T*, which determines the range of triples of source, view, and links that the lens operates on; the domain of *put* will be set to *T*, and *get* will be required to produce triples (the input sources included) only in *T*.

2.2.3 Uniquely Identifying Property Sets. One important aim of retentive lenses is to make Hippocraticness an extreme case of the triangular guarantee (Section 2.1). Having developed an abstract framework in Section 2.2.2, we can now give a quick sketch of how we can derive Hippocraticness. Recall that the triangular guarantee roughly says that a set of input properties satisfied by the old source will also be satisfied by the new source. The more input properties there are, the more restrictions we put on the new source. In the extreme case, if the set of input properties can only be satisfied by at most one source, then the new source has to be the same as the old source since it is required to satisfy the same properties. We will call such set of properties uniquely identifying, and require that the set of source properties mentioned by the links produced by get should be uniquely identifying.

*Definition 2.4 (satisfaction of property sets).* Let *P* be a set of properties on *X*.

$$x \models^* P = (p \in P) \rightarrow (x \models p)$$

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That is,  $x \models^* P$  is the set of proofs that x satisfies all properties in P, since an inhabitant of  $x \models^* P$  is a function that maps every  $p \in P$  to an inhabitant of  $x \models p$ .

Definition 2.5 (uniquely identifying property sets). A set *P* of properties on *X* is uniquely identifying exactly when

$$x \models^* P$$
 is inhabited  $\land x' \models^* P$  is inhabited  $\Rightarrow x = x'$ 

That is, there is at most one element of *X* satisfying all properties in *P*.

2.2.4 Retentive Lenses. We now have all the ingredients for the formal definition of retentive lenses, as well as the proof that retentive lenses satisfy Hippocraticness.

Definition 2.6 (retentive lenses). Let T be a triple space between a source set S with properties P and a view set V with properties Q. A retentive lens on T is a pair of functions get and put of type:

$$get: (s \in S) \rightarrow (v \in V) \times (P_s \sim Q_v)$$
  
 $put: T \rightarrow S$ 

such that

$$get \subseteq T$$
 (1)

$$get \ s = (v, l) \implies \text{LDOM}(fst \cdot l) \text{ is uniquely identifying}$$
 (2)

$$get (put (s, v, l)) = (v', l') \implies v = v' \land fst \cdot l \subseteq fst \cdot l'$$
(3)

where  $fst: (a \in A) \times B(a) \to A$  (for any set A and family of sets B indexed by A) is the first projection function.

What is new here is (3): on the right of the implication, the left conjunct is Correctness (PutGet), and the right conjunct, which we may call *Retentiveness*, formalises the triangular guarantee in a compact way. We can expand Retentiveness pointwise to see that it indeed specialises to the triangular guarantee.

Proposition 2.7 (triangular guarantee). Given a retentive lens, let  $(s, v, l) \in T$ , s' = put (s, v, l), and  $((p, m), (q, n)) \in l$ . Then get s' = (v, l') for some  $l' : P_{s'} \sim Q_v$ , and there exists  $m' \in (s' \models p)$  such that  $((p, m'), (q, n)) \in l'$ .

Interpreting this in the region model: Suppose that there is an input link relating two regions (p, m) in the old source and (q, n) in the view, where p and q are region patterns and m and n contain the positions of the regions. Then get must produce a link relating a region (p, m') in the new source and the view region (q, n), meaning that, in the new source, the region pattern p appears at some location (i.e., m') that is consistent with (q, n).

We then prove Hippocraticness with the help of two simple lemmas.

LEMMA 2.8. For a retentive lens,

get 
$$s = (v, l) \implies s \models^* \text{LDOM}(fst \cdot l)$$
 is inhabited

PROOF. Suppose that  $get\ s=(v,l)$ , where  $l:P_s\sim Q_v$ . For every  $p\in \text{LDOM}(fst\cdot l)$ , by the definitions of left domain and relational composition, there exists  $(p',m)\in P_s$  and  $(q,n)\in Q_v$  such that p'=p and  $((p',m),(q,n))\in l$  — note that this implies  $m\in (s\models p)$ . This maps every  $p\in \text{LDOM}(fst\cdot l)$  to an inhabitant of  $s\models p$ , and therefore constitutes an inhabitant of  $s\models p$ .

LEMMA 2.9. Let P and P' be sets of properties on X and  $x \in X$ . If  $x \models^* P$  is inhabited and  $P' \subseteq P$ , then  $x \models^* P'$  is also inhabited.

PROOF. An inhabitant of  $x \models^* P'$  is a function of type  $(p \in P') \to (x \models p)$ , and can be obtained by restricting the domain of an inhabitant of  $x \models^* P$ , which is a function of type  $(p \in P) \to (x \models p)$ .  $\square$ 

THEOREM 2.10 (HIPPOCRATICNESS). For a retentive lens,

get 
$$s = (v, l) \implies put(s, v, l) = s$$

PROOF. Supposing that  $get\ s=(v,l)$  and  $put\ (s,v,l)=s'$  for some s', our goal is to prove s=s'. By (3),  $get\ s'=(v,l')$  for some l' such that  $fst\cdot l\subseteq fst\cdot l'$ . Applying LDOM to both sides of the inclusion yields

$$LDOM(fst \cdot l) \subseteq LDOM(fst \cdot l') \tag{4}$$

since LDOM is monotonic. By Lemma 2.8, both  $s \models^* \text{LDOM}(fst \cdot l)$  and  $s' \models^* \text{LDOM}(fst \cdot l')$  are inhabited. Moreover, by Lemma 2.9,  $s' \models^* \text{LDOM}(fst \cdot l)$  is also inhabited. Finally, since LDOM $(fst \cdot l)$  is uniquely identifying by (2), we obtain s = s' as required.

Classic lenses as retentive lenses. As a simple example, we show that every well-behaved lens can be turned into a retentive lens. The idea is that a classic lens corresponds to a retentive lens that guarantees to retain the whole source or nothing at all. The retentive lens will be set up such that the only way to form links between a source and a view is to link the whole source with the whole view if they are consistent. If the view is unchanged, the link can remain intact, and the whole source is retained; otherwise, if the view is changed in any way, the link is broken, and the retentive *put* does not have to guarantee that anything in the old source is retained.

Formally: Let  $g: S \to V$  and  $p: S \to V \to S$  be a well-behaved lens. The property sets associated with S and V are S and V themselves respectively; given  $s \in S$  (resp.  $v \in V$ ), the set  $x \models s$  (resp.  $x \models v$ ) is inhabited by a single element '\*' if x = s (resp. x = v) or uninhabited otherwise. The triple space T consists of triples (s, v, l) such that  $fst \cdot l \cdot fst^{\circ} \subseteq g^{\circ}$  — that is, a link can only exist between s and g s. Now we define:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} get \ s & = & (g \ s, \{((s,*), (g \ s, *))\}) \\ put \ (s, v, l) & = & p \ s \ v \end{array}$$

It is easy to verify (1), (2), and the first part of (3) (which is just PutGet). For the second part of (3): If l is empty, the conclusion holds trivially. Otherwise, l can only be  $\{((s,*),(g\ s,*))\}$ , implying that v=g s. We then have  $put\ (s,v,l)=p\ s\ (g\ s)=s$  by GetPut, and  $(v',l')=get\ (put\ (s,v,l))=get\ s=(g\ s,\{((s,*),(g\ s,*))\})$ . Therefore  $l'=\{((s,*),(g\ s,*))\}=l$ , which implies  $fst\cdot l\subseteq fst\cdot l'$ .

# 2.3 Retentive Lenses for the Region Model

Driven by the region model, we have arrived at a definition of retentive lenses (Definition 2.6) and seen that it entails Hippocraticness (Theorem 2.10). This definition does not immediately work for the region model, however. This is because region patterns by themselves cannot form uniquely identifying property sets (Definition 2.5) — requiring that a source must contain a set of region patterns does not uniquely determine it, however complete the set of region patterns is. This can be intuitively understood by analogy with jigsaw puzzles: a picture cannot be determined by only specifying what jigsaw pieces are used to form the picture (if the jigsaw pieces can be freely assembled); to fully solve the puzzle and determine the picture, we also need to specify how the jigsaw pieces are assembled — that is, the relative positions of all the jigsaw pieces.

Below we will introduce *second-order property sets* into the theory so that it is possible to form uniquely identifying property sets in the region model. We will also show that Definition 2.6 and Theorem 2.10 only loosely depend on the specific structure of property sets, and can be adapted for second-order property sets with almost no structural change. The general idea is that while

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second-order property sets have more internal constraints, they are still sets of properties, so the ideas behind the formal definitions for retentive lenses remain more or less the same.

2.3.1 Uniquely Identifying Property Sets for the Region Model. For brevity, we will use the Arith data type in the examples below (even though Arith is used elsewhere as a view type, on which we do not need property sets to be uniquely identifying). We have been using property sets as conjunctive predicates. For example, the property set  $\{Add\ a\ b, Sub\ a\ b\}$  is used as a predicate  $(t \models Add\ a\ b) \land (t \models Sub\ a\ b)$  on t, saying that t should contain two regions, one of pattern  $Add\ a\ b$  and the other of pattern  $Sub\ a\ b$ . If we want to additionally specify the relative position of these two regions — or more abstractly, how the proofs of the two properties relate — we need to switch to a dependent conjunction like  $(r \in (t \models Add\ a\ b)) \land (r' \in (t \models Sub\ a\ b)) \land Child(Add\ a\ b, a, r, r')$ , where  $Child(Add\ a\ b, a, r, r')$  says that the path in r' is the one in r extended with one step that navigates from the root of the region of pattern  $Add\ a\ b$  to the subtree named a — that is, the region of pattern  $Sub\ a\ b$  is directly below the region of pattern  $Add\ a\ b$  at the position named a. (This form of Child is in fact slightly simplified; in our formalisation below, Child will need to take more arguments.) If a tree t satisfies this predicate, it means that t contains the two specified regions and, furthermore, the Sub region is the left child of the Add region. We call properties like 'Child' second-order properties, which can refer to proofs of other properties.

With second-order properties capable of expressing relative position, it is now possible for a set of properties to be uniquely identifying. For example, consider the following set of properties (expressed as a conjunctive predicate):

$$(r_{0} \in (t \models Num \ 0)) \land (r_{1} \in (t \models Num \ 1)) \land (r_{2} \in (t \models Num \ 2)) \land$$

$$(r_{3} \in (t \models Add \ a \ b)) \land (r_{4} \in (t \models Add \ a \ b)) \land$$

$$Top(r_{3}) \land Child(Add \ a \ b, a, r_{3}, r_{4}) \land Child(Add \ a \ b, a, r_{4}, r_{0}) \land$$

$$Child(Add \ a \ b, b, r_{4}, r_{1}) \land Child(Add \ a \ b, b, r_{3}, r_{2})$$

$$(5)$$

where *Top* says that a region is the topmost one in a tree (that is, there is no other region above the named region). This property set is satisfied by exactly one tree, namely:

```
Add (Add (Num 0) (Num 1)) (Num 2)
```

It is also possible to specify a subset of these properties to be retained when the above tree is updated (as long as we are careful not to refer to regions that are left out of the subset), like:

$$(r_0 \in (t \models Num\ 0)) \land (r_3 \in (t \models Add\ a\ b)) \land (r_4 \in (t \models Add\ a\ b)) \land$$
  
 $Child(Add\ a\ b, a, r_3, r_4) \land Child(Add\ a\ b, b, r_3, r_2)$ 

An updated tree satisfying this property will still have a region of pattern Add (Add (Num 0) a) b, but new regions can be added above it (because we no longer require  $Top(r_3)$ ) or as its subtrees (because we no longer specify the right child of  $r_3$  and  $r_4$ ). Note that although it may be tempting to express the property set (5) equivalently and more simply as the predicate  $t \models Add$  (Add (Num 0) (Num 1)) (Num 2), this simpler predicate is monolithic and cannot be partially retained.

2.3.2 Formalisation of Second-Order Properties. The theory becomes more complicated when second-order properties are involved. We have to deal with references to proofs of other properties, and be careful about validity of references. Satisfaction of a second-order property set is no longer just satisfaction of individual properties, because whether a second-order property is satisfied depends on which proofs are supplied to show that other properties are satisfied. To avoid unnecessary complication, we will formulate our definitions just for the structure we need: a set of

(named) region patterns, whose proofs (locations of matching regions) are referred to by either a unary predicate (*Top*) or a binary one (*FirstChildOf*, *SecondChildOf*, etc). The theory below is still somewhat obscure though, and can be safely skipped on first reading.

Definition 2.11 (second-order property sets). A second-order property set on a set X is the union of three disjoint sets:

• a set  $P_0$  of properties on X,

- a set  $P_1$  equipped with a function  $(-)^*: P_1 \to P_0$  such that every  $p_1: P_1$  is a property on  $(x:X) \times (x \models p_1^*)$ , and
- a set  $P_2$  equipped with two functions  $(-)^*: P_2 \to P_0$  and  $(-)^{**}: P_2 \to P_0$  such that every  $p_2: P_2$  is a property on  $(x:X) \times (x \models p_2^*) \times (x \models p_2^{**})$ .

To express the property set (5) in our example, we can take the set  $P_0$  to be the cartesian product of a name set (consisting of names like  $r_0$ ,  $r_1$ , etc) and the set of region patterns, and the set  $P_1$  to be properties of the form Top(r, pat) where  $(r, pat) \in P_0$ . (We omit discussion of  $P_2$ , which consists of binary predicates (like *Child* in our example) and is analogous to  $P_1$ .) The function  $(-)^*$  maps a  $P_1$ -property to the  $P_0$ -property it refers to - for example,  $(Top(r, pat))^* = (r, pat)$ . With this function, we can then say that any  $p_1 \in P_1$  is a property on the proof of the property it refers to, namely  $p_1^*$ . We need to name the properties in  $P_0$  because the same region pattern may appear multiple times, and we want to refer to the different regions matching the same pattern - in the property set (5), we give two different names  $r_3$  and  $r_4$  to two regions of the same pattern  $Add\ a\ b$ , so that the two regions can be properly referred to by the second-order properties.

The usual way to proceed from this point is to define when a subset of a second-order property set (representing a dependent conjunction like (5)) is well-formed, making sure that a  $P_1$ - or  $P_2$ -property does not refer to a  $P_0$ -property not included in the subset, and then define its proofs. We will take a slightly quicker route, directly defining a well-formed proof that a subset of a second-order property set on X is satisfied by some  $x \in X$ . Such a proof is a subset of the properties provably satisfied by x such that references are made correctly within the subset.

Definition 2.12. Let x: X and  $P = P_0 \uplus P_1 \uplus P_2$  be a second-order property set on X. The set  $P_x$  (properties provably satisfied by x) is defined by

```
P_{x} = (p_{0} : P_{0}) \times (x \models p_{0})
\uplus (p_{1} : P_{1}) \times (m : x \models p_{1}^{*}) \times ((x, m) \models p_{1})
\uplus (p_{2} : P_{2}) \times (m : x \models p_{2}^{*}) \times (m' : x \models p_{2}^{**}) \times ((x, m, m') \models p_{2})
```

Definition 2.13. Let x: X and  $P = P_0 \uplus P_1 \uplus P_2$  be a second-order property set on X. A subset A of  $P_x$  is well-formed exactly when:

- for every  $p_0: P_0$ , if  $(p_0, m) \in A$  and  $(p_0, m') \in A$ , then m = m';
- for every  $p_1 : P_1$ , if  $(p_1, m, n) \in A$ , then  $(p_1^*, m) \in A$ ;
- for every  $p_2 : P_2$ , if  $(p_2, m, m', n) \in A$ , then  $(p_2^*, m) \in A$  and  $(p_2^{**}, m') \in A$ .

Definition 2.14. Let P' be a subset of a second-order property set P on X and  $x \in X$ . The inhabitants of the set  $x \models^* P'$  are exactly the well-formed subsets A of  $P_x$  such that fst[A] = P', i.e., the image of A under fst is P'.

Adapting Retentive Lenses for Second-Order Properties. We have redefined the set of provably satisfied properties (Definition 2.12), and for a subset P' of a second-order property set, redefined the set  $x \models^* P'$  of proofs that x satisfies all properties in P' (Definition 2.14). To make retentive lenses work with second-order properties, and also make the proof of Theorem 2.10 to go through, we need one final revision to the definition of triple spaces.

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Definition 2.15 (second-order triple spaces). A second-order triple space T between a source set S with second-order properties P and a view set V with second-order properties Q is a set such that:

$$T \subseteq (s \in S) \times (v \in V) \times (P_s \sim Q_v)$$

and for every  $(s, v, l) \in T$ , both LDOM l and LDOM $(l^{\circ})$  are well-formed (Definition 2.13).

We can now substitute these new definitions about property sets for the old ones used in the definition of retentive lenses (Definition 2.6). As for the proof of Theorem 2.10, which relies on Lemmas 2.8 and 2.9: the statement of Lemma 2.8 is valid for the new definitions about second-order property sets, and Lemma 2.9 needs an additional assumption that  $y \models P'$  should be inhabited for some y (to ensure that P' is "syntactically well-formed"). Theorem 2.10 still holds despite the addition of the assumption, because the assumption is met ( $s \models \text{LDOM}(fst \cdot l)$ ) is inhabited) when using Lemma 2.9 in the proof.

# 3 A DSL FOR RETENTIVE BIDIRECTIONAL TREE TRANSFORMATION

With theoretical foundations of retentive lenses in hand, we shall propose a domain specific language for easily describing them. Our DSL is designed to be simple, and yet sufficiently to handle many interesting synchronisation problems, such as resugaring and bidirectional refactoring. (See Section 4 for details.) In our DSL, users basically write a *get* function in the form of inductively-defined consistency relations between sources and views, and a *put* function will be generated to pair with the *get* forming a retentive lens.

#### 3.1 A Flavour of the DSL

 Let us use a simple example to give a flavour of the language. Suppose that we want to synchronise the concrete and abstract expressions defined in Figure 1. For that, we can write a program in our DSL as shown in Figure 5, in which we describe two consistency relations: one between Expr and Arith, and the other between Term and Term and Term are consistency relation is further defined by a set of induction rules, stating that if the subtrees matched by the same variable name in the left-hand side and right-hand side are consistent, then the pair of trees constructed from these subtrees are also consistent. Take Term and Term

$$\frac{x_s \sim x_v, \quad y_s \sim y_v}{\forall s. \ Plus \ s \ x_s \ y_s \sim Add \ x_v \ y_v}$$

Now we briefly explain the semantics of this induction rule. In the forward direction, *get* produces a view and a list of links recording the region correspondences between the source and the view. If we temporarily ignore the links, the *get* will look like:

$$e2a :: Expr \rightarrow Arith$$
  
 $e2a (Plus \_ x \ y) = Add (e2a \ x) (t2a \ y)$ 

That is, each consistency relation (here  $Expr \longleftrightarrow Arith$ ) is assigned a get function, and each induction rule of the consistency relation contributes one case to the get function. In this way, the generated get functions for the two consistency relations look exactly the same as the ones in Figure 1. In the backward direction, while put needs to propagate changes in the view back to the source, it is a bit tricky for keeping retentiveness compared with traditional approaches, and we will show how to carefully use links to gain retentiveness later.

In the rest of this section, after explaining the syntax together with some examples, we give a bidirectional semantics of the languages, and prove its retentiveness.

Fig. 5. A program in our DSL for synchronising ADTs in Figure 1.

```
Program prog ::= tDef_1 \dots tDef_m cDef_1 \dots cDef_n

Type Definition tDef ::= \text{ data } type = C_1 \ type_{11} \cdots type_{1m_1} \\ | \cdots \\ | C_k \ type_{11} \cdots type_{1m_k}

Consistency Relation Definition cDef ::= type \longleftrightarrow type \quad \{ \text{ relation type} \} \\ | r_1; \dots r_n; \quad \{ \text{ induction rules} \} \}

Induction Rule r ::= pat_1 \sim pat_2

Pattern pat ::= v \qquad \{ \text{ variable pattern} \} \\ | C \ pat_1 \cdots pat_n \quad \{ \text{ constructor pattern} \}
```

Fig. 6. Syntax of the DSL.

# 3.2 Syntax

 Figure 6 gives the syntax of the language. A program consists of two main parts. The first part is definitions of simple *algebraic data types*, where an algebraic data type is defined through a set of data constructors  $C_1 \dots C_k$ , similar to those in functional languages such as Haskell. The second part is definitions of *consistency relations* between these data types, in which each consistency relation consists of a relation type declaration and a set of inductively-defined rules. The relation type declaration is in the form of  $srcType \longleftrightarrow viewType$ , representing the source and view types for the synchronisation. Each induction rule is defined as a relation between source and view patterns  $pat_s \sim pat_v$ , where a pattern consists of variables, constructors, and wildcards, as we have already seen some examples in Section 3.1.

One might be wondering why we do not give a name to a consistency relation. This is because we assume, without loss of generality, that there is only one consistency relation between any two types. In fact, if we want to define multiple consistency relations between two types, we can indirectly achieve this by giving different names to the view types (like type synonyms), one name for writing one consistency relation.

 3.2.1 Syntactic Restrictions. We shall impose several syntactic restrictions to the DSL for guaranteeing that a consistency relation  $T_s \longleftrightarrow T_v$  indeed implies a view generation function  $T_s \to T_v$ .

- On *variables*, we assume *linear variable usage*. The variable usage must be linear in the sense that a variable must appear exactly once in each side of an induction rule.
- On *patterns*, we assume two restrictions: *pattern coverage* and *source pattern disjointness*. Pattern coverage guarantees totality: for a consistency relation, all the patterns on the left-hand sides should cover all the possible cases of the source type  $T_s$ , and all the patterns on the right-hand side should cover all the cases of the view type  $T_v$ . Source pattern disjointness requires that all of the source patterns in a consistency relation should be disjoint, so that at most one pattern can be matched when running *get*. This implies that the program converting a source to its view is indeed a function (regardless of the order of the induction rules).
- On algebraic data types, we assume interconvertible data types, for allowing put to switch between sources of different types while retaining the core information. If we want to define two consistency relations sharing the same view type, say  $T_{s1} \longleftrightarrow T_v$  and  $T_{s2} \longleftrightarrow T_v$ , we require that the two source types,  $T_{s1}$  and  $T_{s2}$ , should be interconvertible. For instance, since the two consistency relations  $Expr \longleftrightarrow Arith$  and  $Term \longleftrightarrow Arith$  in Figure 5 share the same view type Arith, we should be able to convert Expr to Term and vice versa. Syntactically speaking, a type  $T_1$  can be converted into  $T_2$ , if the type definition of  $T_2$  contains a case  $C_i$   $type_1 \ldots T_1 \ldots type_n$ , and the consistency relation of  $T_2 \longleftrightarrow T_v$  contains a projection rule  $C_i \subseteq \dots \times \dots \times T_v$  for wrapping a piece of data of type  $T_1$  into that of type  $T_2$ .
- 3.2.2 *Programming Examples.* Although being tiny, the DSL is able to describe many interesting bidirectional tree transformations. Here are some examples:
  - The mirror transformation, which swaps all the subtrees of a given tree in both get and put directions:

```
 \begin{array}{lll} \textit{IntBinT} & & \textbf{data} \; \textit{IntBinT} = \\ & \textit{Tip} & \sim \textit{Tip} & & \textit{Tip} \\ & \textit{Node} \; i \; x \; y \sim \textit{Node} \; i \; y \; x & | \; \textit{Node} \; \textit{IntBinT} \; \textit{IntBinT} \\ \end{array}
```

• The *spine* transformation, which collects the information carried by the left-most child of a rose tree in a list:

```
RTree \longleftrightarrow [Int] data RTree =
RNode \ i \ [] \sim [i] RNode \ Int \ [RTree]
RNode \ i \ (x : \_) \sim i : x
```

• The *map* transformation, which applies a function to all the nodes in a tree:

```
Tree_1 \longleftrightarrow Tree_2 data Tree_1 = Nil_1

Nil_1 \sim Nil_2 | Cons_1 \ TyA \ Tree_1

Cons_1 \ a \ as \sim Cons_2 \ a \ as data Tree_2 = Nil_2

TyA \longleftrightarrow TyB | Cons_2 \ TyB \ Tree_2
```

We leave more interesting and practical case studies on bidirectional refactoring and resugaring to Section 4.

### 3.3 Semantics

In this subsection, we give a denotational semantics of our DSL by specifying the corresponding *get* and *put* as mathematical functions. Our language is also implemented as a compiler tansforming

programs in our DSL to *get* and *put* functions in Haskell. Our Haskell implementation directly follows the semantics given here.

Because our *put* function and its implementation will respect relative positions of regions by default—no matter whether they are required by the user or not—a design choice we made is to simplify *get* and *put* to only produce and accept links between regions, so that the user does not need to be bothered with specifying links between second-order properties. In Section 3.4, we will prove that the *get* and *put* functions given below, when lifted to a version also producing and accepting second-order properties, actually form a retentive lens.

3.3.1 Types and Patterns. To define the semantics of get and put, we first need a semantics of type declarations and patterns in our DSL. For type declarations, their semantics is the same as in Haskell, thus we will not elaborate here. For each defined algebraic data type T, we will also use T to refer to the set of values of type T. For patterns in our DSL, we will use SPat to refer to the set of all patterns on S for every type S. For a pattern  $p \in SPat$ ,  $Vars\ p$  will be the set of variables in P and  $TypeOf\ p\ v$  will be the set corresponding to the type of V in pattern V0. We will also use V1 denote the tagged union of patterns for all types, that is, V1 and V2 is a type, V3 is a type, V3 is a type, V4 in V5 is a type, V5 is a type, V5 is a type, V5 is a type, V6 in the type of V8 in a type, V6 is a type, V6 in the type of V8 in the type of V8 is a type, V6 in the type of V8 in the type of V8 is a type, V8 in the type of V9 in the type of

To manipulate patterns, we will use the following functions:

```
isMatch_S : (p \in SPat) \to S \to Bool

decompose_S : (p \in SPat) \to S \to ((v \in Vars p) \to TypeOf p v)

reconstruct_S : (p \in SPat) \to ((v \in Vars p) \to TypeOf p v) \to S
```

isMatch p s tests if the value s matches the pattern p. If they match, decompose p s will result in a function from every variable v in p to the corresponding subtree of s. Conversely, reconstruct p f produces a value s matching the pattern p by replacing every  $v \in Vars p$  in p with f v, provided that p does not contain any wildcards. Since the semantics of patterns in our DSL is rather standard, we will also omit formal definitions of these functions.

3.3.2 *Get Semantics.* For a consistency relation  $S \leftrightarrow V$  defined in our DSL with a set of inductive rules  $R = \{ spat_i \sim vpat_i \mid i \in \mathcal{I} \}$ , its corresponding  $get_{SV}$  function has the following signature:

```
get_{SV}: S \rightarrow V \times (Region \sim Region)
```

where *Region* is  $Pat \times Path$ , and Path is the set of lists of integers, which encode paths in trees. The body of  $get_{SV}$  is:

```
get_{SV} \ s = \mathbf{let} \ spat_k = selectPat \ s \ R
f = decompose_S \ spat_k \ s
vs = get \circ f
links = \bigcup \ \left\{ \ updatePaths_t \ (snd \ (vs \ t)) \mid t \in Vars \ spat_k \ \right\}
newLink = \left\{ \left( \ \left( \ (S, \ fillWildcards \ s \ spat_k), [\ ] \ \right), \left( \ (V, \ vpat_k), [\ ] \ \right) \ \right\}
\mathbf{in} \ \left( \ reconstruct_S \ vpat_k \ (fst \circ vs), \ newLink \ \cup \ links \ \right)
```

where *selectPat s R* returns the unique source pattern in *R* matching *s*. Such pattern exists because our DSL syntactically requires all source patterns of *R* to be disjoint and total.

By matching the source with  $spat_k$ , we bind every variable in  $spat_k$  to a subtree of s as  $f: (v \in Vars\ spat_k) \to TypeOf\ spat_k\ v$ . Then we recursively call get for all subtrees, expressed as  $get \circ f$  in the definition above, while to be precise, we need to call  $get_{TypeOf\ spat_k\ v,\ TypeOf\ vpat_k\ v}$  for every  $t \in Vars\ spat_k$ .

With the subtrees and links produced by recursive calls, we can construct the result of  $get_{SV}$ : (1) the returned view is created simply by reconstructing the view pattern  $vpat_k$  with subtrees

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783 784 generated recursively; and (2) the returned links should be the union of: (2.1) a new link between two regions at the root of s and v respectively (newLink). Note that subtrees of s matching wildcards of  $spat_k$  are also treated as parts of the region, so we use fillWildcards s  $spat_k$  to replace all wildcards of spat<sub>k</sub> with the corresponding subtrees of s. (2.2) And also links produced by recursive calls, for which we need to be careful to update all paths in them. For a link  $((\cdots, spath), (\cdots, vpath))$ generated by the recursive call for pattern variable v, we need to prepend the path of v in  $spat_k$  to spath and the path of v in  $vpat_k$  to vpath, which is expressed as updatePaths in the above definition.

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Put Semantics. To define a corresponding put function, we need to define its domain T. Since we will use *T* to restrict the input of *put* to a domain that our *put* functions can handle and guarantee retentiveness, we will first show the body of put and then the definition of T will come out naturally.

For a consistency relation  $S \leftrightarrow V$  in our DSL defined with  $R = \{spat_i \sim vpat_i \mid i \in I\}$ , the corresponding  $put_{SV}$  function has signature:

$$put_{SV}: T \rightarrow S$$

where *T* is a subset of  $S \times V \times (Region \sim Region)$ . The body of  $put_{SV}$  is defined as:

```
put_{SV}(s, v, ls) =
  let linksToVRoot = \{ ((S', spat), spath), ((V, vpat), []) \in ls \}
   in if linksToVRoot \neq \emptyset then
         let l@(((S', spat), spath), ((V, vpat), [])) = shortestSPathLink linksToVRoot
             vs = decompose_V vpat v
             ss = \lambda(t \in Vars \ spat) \rightarrow
                       put s (vs t) (divideLinks_t (ls \ {l}))
         in inj_{S'S} (reconstruct spat ss)
      else let l = \{ (spat_k \sim vpat_k) \in R \mid isMatch \ vpat_k \ v \}
               (spat_k \sim vpat_k) = anyElement l
               vs = decompose_V vpat_k v
               ss = \lambda(t \in Vars spat) \rightarrow
                         put s (vs t) (divideLinks_t ls)
           in reconstruct (fillWildcardsWithDefaults spat_k) ss
```

The process of  $put_{SV}$  is divided into two cases:

(1) The root of the view is an endpoint of some input links. In this case, we pick one link among them (shortestSPathLink), and use the source region of the link as the root of the new source, whose subtrees are created by recursive calls to subtrees of v. The function divideLinkst lset divides the set of links to appropriate recursive calls and maintains paths of all view regions. For each link of *lset*, if the path of view region has a prefix equal to the path of t in  $vpat_k$ , divideLinks<sub>t</sub> will remove that prefix; if it does not have such a prefix, divideLinks<sub>t</sub> will remove that link from the set *lset*. Note that our created new source might have type S' that is possibly different from the return type S, we need to wrap it into S with  $inj_{S'S}$ . Such wrapper always exists because it is syntactically guaranteed by our DSL (Section 3.2.1).

The choice of *shortestSPathLink* at the beginning is also important. By choosing the source region at the shallowest position at first, those regions in our new source will have the same relative positioning as in the original source. Thus our *put* functions will respect all possible second-order properties asserting their relative positioning in the old source.

(2) The root of the view is not attached to any input links. In this case, we only need to perform a "traditional" put. We choose an arbitrary rule with a matched view pattern in set  $R = \{ spat_i \sim vpat_i \mid i \in I \}$  defining the consistency relation. The corresponding source pattern is used to create the new source. If the source pattern contains wildcards, we also need to replace those wildcards with some default values.

From the definition of  $put_{SV}$ , we can define T to be the following domain in which our put function can be total and guarantee retentiveness:

- All input links are valid, in the sense that (1) the path proving a region pattern indeed leads to a subtree matching the region pattern, and (2) the source region and the view region of a link match with a rule defining the consistency relation.
- For every subtree of the view, if its root is not in the view region of any links, it always matches a view pattern in the set of rules *R* defining the consistency relation. This requirement guarantees in the second case of *put*, we can always create a consistent source.
- All regions of links are non-overlapping. Additionally, for every subtree of the view whose root is not in any regions, if it matches a view pattern in *R*, the matched fragment is non-overlapping with any regions of the input links either. This requirement guarantees our *put* functions will eventually process all input links in the recursive procedural.

#### 3.4 To Retentive Lenses

 In this subsection, we will show that  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  functions specified above satisfy the following properties:

$$get_{SV} (put_{SV} (s, v, l)) = (v', l') \implies v = v'$$
 (Correctness) 
$$get_{SV} (put_{SV} (s, v, l)) = (v', l') \implies fst \cdot l \subseteq fst \cdot l'$$
 (Retentiveness) 
$$get_{SV} s = (v, l) \implies put_{SV} (s, v, l) = s$$
 (Hippocraticness)

But even so, they do not form a retentive lens immediately. Because they do not generate and process second-order properties, they do not satisfy the uniquely identifying requirement ((2) in Definition 2.6) of retentive lenses. In fact, our  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  functions respect *all possible* second-order properties by default no matter they are required by the user or not, which is exactly the reason why we leave out second-order properties from the interface of  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$ .

In the rest of this subsection, we will first show that  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  in our semantics can be lifted to a version producing and accepting second-order properties, and that version of  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  will form a retentive lens. Following this,  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  can be showed to satisfy properties listed above.

3.4.1 Second-Order Properties. Before defining the lifted version of get and put, we need to formalise second-order properties in our DSL. As explained in Section 2.3, they will be properties on the proofs of first order properties (region patterns). In particular, we will use them to specify either (1) the region proving some pattern is the root of the tree, or (2) the region proving some pattern is the n-th child of the region proving another pattern. Thus we define second-order properties as a set  $Prop^2$ :

where  $\uplus$  is disjoint union, NamedPat is the set of patterns paired with a number so that second-order properties can refer to a region pattern with its number. We also define  $NamedRegion = NamedPat \times Path$ .

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3.4.2 Lifted Get and Put. Given a pair of  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  functions denoted by our semantics with signatures:

$$get_{SV}: S \to V \times (Region \sim Region)$$
  $put_{SV}: T \to S$ 

where T is a subset of  $S \times V \times (Region \sim Region)$ , based on them, we will construct a get' and a put' function with the following signatures:

$$get': S \to V \times (SatProp \sim SatProp)$$
  $put': T' \to S$ 

where  $SatProp = NamedRegion \uplus Prop^2$  and T' is a subset of  $S \times V \times (SatProp \sim SatProp)$ .

The construction of *put'* is trivial. *put'* s v ls simply filters out all links of second-order properties in ls and turns links of *NamedRegion* into links of *Region* by removing all names, and then uses the result of *put* as its result.

To construct get', its returned view is the same as the returned view of  $get_{SV}$ . For the returned links, besides all links of regions produced by  $get_{SV}$ , get' will also generate a set of second-order properties completely characterising the relative positions of all regions produced by  $get_{SV}$ . More precisely, (1) first, get' transforms all links of Region produced by  $get_{SV}$  into links of NamedRegion by giving unique names to region patterns of every link. (2) Then, for the link connecting the regions at the root of the source and the view, get' creates two  $Prop^2$  asserting those two regions are roots, and the pair of those two  $Prop^2$  will be a link. (3) And also, for every pair of source regions  $sr_1$  and  $sr_2$ , if  $sr_1$  is the x-th child of  $sr_2$ , then get' create a  $p_s \in Prop^2$  asserting the named region pattern in  $sr_1$  should be the x-th child of the named region pattern in  $sr_2$ . Similarly, for the view region  $vr_1$  and  $vr_2$  corresponding to  $sr_1$  and  $sr_2$  respectively, get' also create  $p_v \in Prop^2$  to assert the relative position of  $vr_1$  and  $vr_2$ , then  $(p_s, p_v)$  will also be a link of second-order properties returned by get'.

The last piece to construct get' and put' is defining T', the domain of put. In Section 3.3, we defined T to restrict the input source, view, and links of regions so that  $put_{SV}$  can handle. We shall let T' be a subset of T with further restrictions on links of second-order properties. For every link of two second-order properties  $p_s$  and  $p_v$ , we require:

- The assertion of  $p_s$  and  $p_v$  should be satisfied by regions in the set of input links. For example, if  $p_s = inj_1$  (i, pat) asserting that the region proving the named region pattern (i, pat) must be the root of the source, then we require that the set of input links contains a link of regions whose region pattern of source is (i, pat), and its source region indeed locates at the root.
- $p_s$  and  $p_v$  should be correctly paired. If  $p_s$  is an assertion that source region  $sr_1$  is the root, then  $p_v$  must be the assertion that the corresponding view region  $vr_1$  of  $sr_1$  is the root the view. Similarly, if  $p_s$  is an assertion that source region  $sr_1$  is the n-th child of  $sr_2$ , then  $p_v$  must be the corresponding assertion on  $vr_1$  and  $vr_2$ .

# 3.4.3 Retentiveness.

 THEOREM 3.1. get' and put' defined above form a retentive lens.

PROOF. For the sake of brevity, we only describe the overall idea here. A more complete proof can be found in the appendix. The proof is based on our Haskell implementation, which is basically a more precise version of the semantics given above.

The uniquely identifying requirement ((2) in Definition 2.6) is relatively easy to prove because our construction of *get'* uses links of second-order properties to completely specify how regions are assembled into a tree.

The retentiveness requirement ((3) in Definition 2.6) can be proved by induction on the size of  $\nu$  plus the size of  $\ell$ . Under the inductive hypothesis, we do equational reasoning on the definition

of get' ( $put' \ s \ v \ l$ ), expanding it to a form with sub-terms of get' ( $put' \ s \ v' \ l'$ ) for smaller s' and l'. With the inductive hypothesis, we should be able to verify the retentiveness requirement is satisfied.

Now we have the following corolarry characterising the  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$  donoted by our semantics.

COROLLARY 3.2. For a pair  $get_{SV}$  of  $put_{SV}$  denoted by our semantics, they satisfy:

$$\begin{split} get_{SV} \left( put_{SV} \left( s, v, l \right) \right) &= \left( v', l' \right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad v = v' \\ get_{SV} \left( put_{SV} \left( s, v, l \right) \right) &= \left( v', l' \right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad fst \cdot l \subseteq fst \cdot l' \\ get_{SV} \left( s, v, l \right) &\Rightarrow \quad put_{SV} \left( s, v, l \right) = s \end{split}$$

PROOF. By Theorem 3.1 and Theorem 2.10, get' and put' satisfy all these properties above. From the construction of get' and put' from  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$ , we know these properties are also satisfied by  $get_{SV}$  and  $put_{SV}$ .

# 4 CASE STUDIES

In this section, we demonstrate the usefulness of retentiveness in practice by presenting two case studies on *resugaring* [Pombrio and Krishnamurthi 2014, 2015] and *code refactoring* [Fowler and Beck 1999]. In both cases, we need to constantly make modifications to the ASTs<sup>2</sup> and synchronise the CSTs accordingly. Retentiveness helps the user to know which information in the original CSTs is guaranteed to be retained after the synchronisation.

Before proceeding with these case studies, let us shortly introduce a new kind of links, dubbed *vertical link*, as they are between the old view and the modified view. The motivation for introducing vertical links is that, instead of letting third-party tools directly producing horizontal links between a source and its modified view, it is easier for them to output connections (i.e. vertical links) recording what parts in the consistent view are retained in the modified view. (For instance, recording the operation sequences.) These vertical links can be used, together with consistency links (between a source and its view), to finally obtain the connections between the source and the modified view. We assume that the third-party tools in the following case studies output vertical links.

# 4.1 Resugaring

For a programming language, usually the constructs of its surface syntax are richer than those of its abstract syntax (core language). The idea of *resugaring* [Pombrio and Krishnamurthi 2014, 2015] is to print evaluation sequences in a core language using the constructs of its surface syntax. We will show that our DSL is capable of reflecting AST changes resulting from evaluation back to CSTs, by writing a straightforward consistency declaration between the surface syntax and the abstract syntax and passing the generated *put* proper links.

Take the language Tiger [Appel 1998] (a general-purpose imperative language designed for educational purposes) for example: Its surface syntax offers logical conjunction ( $\land$ ) and disjunction ( $\lor$ ), which, in the core language, are desugared in terms of the conditional construct *if-then-else* during parsing. Boolean values are also eliminated: *False* is represented by integer 0 and *True* is represented by a non-zero integer. For instance, the program text  $a \land b$  is parsed to an AST *If*  $a \ b \ 0$ , and  $a \lor b$  is parsed to *If*  $a \ 1 \ b$ . Suppose that evaluation is defined on the core language only. If we want to observe the evaluation sequence of  $0 \land 10 \lor c$ , then we will face a problem, as the

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ Many code refactoring tools make modifications to the CSTs instead. However, the design of the tools can be simplified if they migrate to modify the ASTs, as the paper will show.

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```
\begin{array}{llll} \textit{Or Op} & \longleftrightarrow \textit{Arith} & \textit{CompOp} & \longleftrightarrow \textit{Arith} \\ \textit{Or l r} & \sim \textit{If l (Num 1) r} & \dots \\ \textit{FromAnd } t \sim t & \textit{FromAdd } t \sim t \\ \textit{AndOp} & \longleftrightarrow \textit{Arith} & \textit{AddOp} & \longleftrightarrow \textit{Arith} \\ \textit{And l r} & \sim \textit{If l r (Num 0)} & \dots \\ \textit{FromCmp } t \sim t & \textit{FromMul } t \sim t \end{array}
```

Fig. 7. Consistency declaration between logical and conditional expressions.

evaluation is actually performed on If (If 0 10 0) 1 c and the printer will yield an evaluation sequence in terms of if-then-else.

To solve the problem in our DSL, let us first consider a familiar situation where we write a parser in Yacc (or similar tools such as HAPPY) to desugar logical expressions into conditional expressions<sup>3</sup>:

in which the concrete syntax is defined by production rules. Parsing can conceptually be thought of as first recovering a CST (of which the data types are automatically generated by Yacc) representing the structure of the program being parsed, and then converting the CST to an AST by the semantic actions in curly brackets. Similarly, these intentions can be expressed in our DSL as shown in Figure 7, in which the left-hand sides of the consistency declarations are the concrete syntax, and the right-hand sides are the abstract syntax. For instance, in the code snippet, we see that  $Or\ l\ r$  is consistent with  $If\ l\ (Num\ 1)\ r$ , if the subtrees marked by the same variables are consistent (respectively). (Currently, our DSL does not handle the part of parsing where strings are converted to trees, and instead assumes that the CST has already been found. In other words, it handles the synchronisation between CSTs and ASTs, which is the more interesting part of the task of parsing. Curious readers may refer to papers [Matsuda and Wang 2013; Zhu et al. 2016] for a discussion about how string parser generators and CST-AST synchronisation can be integrated.)

From the consistency declarations, a pair of get and put functions are generated. As Figure 8 shows, by providing put proper links, we are able to achieve the same effect described by Pombrio and Krishnamurthi [Pombrio and Krishnamurthi 2014]: When, internally, If (If 0 10 0) 1 x evaluates to If 0 1 x, we can observe that (the program text represented by) the CST goes from Or (And 0 10) x to Or 0 x without losing the syntactic sugar<sup>4</sup>. Compared to Pombrio and Krishnamurthi's method, we do not need to enrich the data types of the ASTs to incorporate fields for holding tags that mark from which syntactic object an AST construct comes. There is no need to insert tags into the ASTs during parsing or patch the compiler to be aware of the tags, either.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This example does not strictly follow Yacc's syntax and functionality.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Here we intentionally omit many unimportant constructors such as *Num*, *Lit*, and *FromAnd* to simplify the expressions.

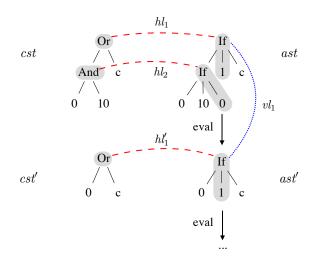


Fig. 8. Resugaring by retentiveness. (The horizontal links and vertical links are represented by dashed lines and dotted lines respectively.  $hl_1$  and  $hl_2$  are produced by  $get_l$  cst, and  $vl_1$  is from a third-party tool. Let cst' = put cst ast' hls, where hls is the composition result of  $[hl_1, hl_2]$  and  $[vl_1]$ . The constructor Or is retained by the composed link.)

```
The original program:
```

 The desired program after refactoring:

```
foo x y =foo x y = e_blet v_1 = a \wedge b -- conjunctionwherev_2 = c \vee d -- disjunctionv_1 = a \wedge b -- conjunctionin e_bv_2 = c \vee d -- disjunction
```

Fig. 9. The program for code refactoring and the desired result.

#### 4.2 Code refactoring

Code refactoring is the restructuring of programs without changing its semantics [Fowler and Beck 1999]. Typical code refactoring includes, for example, renaming all the occurrences of a certain variable or moving a method to its super class. Since it is hard to perform analyses directly on unstructured program text, refactoring usually involves (i) parsing the program text to a tree representation, (ii) modifying the tree representation (in a semantics-preserving way), and (iii) producing a new piece of program text incorporating all the modifications. Among them (i) and (iii) are often performed by a transformation system, and (ii) is done by some external tools compatible with the transformation system. Ideally, we want to choose the ASTs of a programming language to be the tree representation, as its compiler already comes with a pair of parser and printer which convert between program text and its abstract syntax representation, thereby saving the cost of defining data types and implementing the transformation system. Despite the benefit, there are inevitable difficulties with performing code refactoring on ASTs. As ASTs usually do not include information regarding comments, layouts, and syntactic sugar (as we have seen in Section 4.1) of their corresponding programs, how to elegantly retain this information when producing a new piece of program text after code refactoring on ASTs has become a research problem [de Jonge and Visser 2012].

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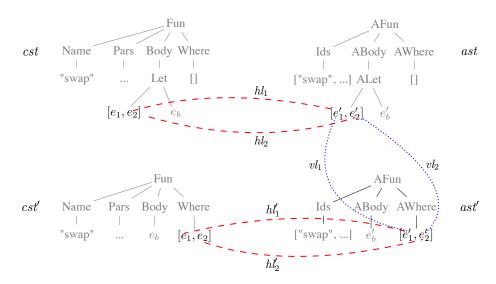


Fig. 10. Retain comments and layouts for code refactoring. (For simplicity, we use nodes  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  to represent the entire definitions for  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  respectively. In *ast* and *ast'*, we use  $e'_i$  instead of  $e_i$  to mean that  $e'_i$  does not include comments and syntactic sugars.)

Here we show that retentiveness makes it possible to perform code refactoring on ASTs and flexibly retain desired comments, layouts, and syntactic sugar on demand. Suppose that there is a function *foo* shown in Figure 9, of which the function body is a *let* expression binding two variables  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  and returning  $e_b$ . The user wants to make  $e_b$  directly the body of the function definition and move the variable definitions  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  to a *where* block, with the comments for  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  retained. This can be achieved as follows:

- (1) Write consistency declarations between the language's CSTs and ASTs. This will give the user a pair of *get* and *put* functions as the transformation system between CSTs and ASTs.
- (2) Use a third-party tool to perform code refactoring on the AST, by moving the variable definitions  $v'_1$  and  $v'_2$  from the *let* expression to the *where* block and making  $e'_b$  the direct child of the function body. Besides ast', the tool should in addition output vertical links  $[vl_1, vl_2]$  between ast and ast' indicating that (the contents of)  $v'_1$  and  $v'_2$  are not changed through the refactoring.
- (3) Pass the *put* function generated from step 1 the arguments original *cst*, modified *ast'*, and the composition result of  $[hl_1, hl_2]$  and  $[vl_1, vl_2]$ . We get *cst'*. The whole process is illustrated in Figure 10.

According to retentiveness, the comments, layouts, and syntactic sugar in the variable definitions for  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are all retained in cst'. We omit the consistency declarations here, since they can be defined very similarly to those in Figure 5 and Figure 7.

# 5 RELATED WORK AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 5.1 Alignment

 Our work on retentive lenses with links is closely related to the research on alignment in bidirectional programming.

The earliest lenses [Foster et al. 2007] only allow source and view elements to be matched positionally — the n-th source element is simply updated using the n-th element in the modified

view. Later, lenses with more powerful matching strategies are proposed, such as dictionary lenses [Bohannon et al. 2008] and their successor matching lenses [Barbosa et al. 2010]. In mathing lenses, the *put* transformations separate the processes of source–view element matching and element-wise updating. At the beginning, the source is divided into a "resource" and a "rigid complement": a resource consists of "chunks" of information that can be reordered, and a rigid complement stores information outside the chunk structure. This reorderable chunk structure is preserved in the view. If the view is updated, *put* first finds a correspondence between chunks of the old and new views based on some predefined strategies. Based on the correspondence, the resources are "pre-aligned" to match the new view chunks positionally, and then element-wise updates are performed. There are laws (PutChunk and PutNoChunk) dictating that correct pairs of resource and view chunks should be used during the element-wise updates, but these laws look more like an operational semantics for *put* (as remarked by the authors), and do not declaratively state what source information is retained.

To generalise list alignment, a more general notion of data structures called *containers* [Abbott et al. 2005] is used [Hofmann et al. 2012]. In the container framework, a data structure is decomposed into a shape and its content; the shape encodes a set of positions, and the content is a mapping from those positions to the elements in the data structure. The existing approaches to container alignment take advantage of this decomposition and treat shapes and contents separately. For example, if the shape of a view container changes, Hofmann et al.'s approach will update the source shape by a fixed strategy that make insertions or deletions at the rear positions of the (source) containers. By contrast, Pacheco et al.'s method permits more flexible shape changes and they call it *shape alignment*. In our setting, both the consistency on data and the consistency on shapes are specified by the same set of consistency declarations. In the *put* direction, both the data and shape of a new source is determined by (computed from) the data and shape of a view, so there is no need to have separated data and shape alignments.

It is worth noting that separation of data alignment and shape alignment would hinder the handling of some algebraic data types. First, in practice it is usually difficult for the user to define container data types and represent their data in terms of containers. We use the data types defined in Figure 1 to illustrate, where two mutually recursive data types *Expr* and *Term* are defined. If the user wants to define *Expr* and *Term* using containers, one way might be to parametrise the types of terminals (leaves in a tree, here *Integer* only):

Here the terminals are of the same type *Integer*. However, imagine the situation where there are more than ten types of leaves, it is rather a misery to parameterise all of them as type variables.

Moreover, the container-based approaches face another serious problem: they always translate a change on data in the view to another change on data in the source, without affecting the shape of a container. This would be wrong in some cases, especially when the decomposition into shape and data is inadequate. For example, let the source be Neg (Lit 100) and the view be Sub (Num 0) (Num 100). If we modify the view by changing the integer 0 to 1 (so the view becomes Sub (Num 1) (Num 100)), the container-based approach would not produce a correct source Minus..., as this data change in the view must not result in a shape change in the source. In

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general, the essence of container-based approaches is the decomposition into shape and data such that they can be processed independently (at least to some extent), but when it comes to scenarios where such decomposition is unnatural (like the example above), container-based approaches can hardly help.

In contrast, retentiveness and "put with links as global alignment" advances the above approaches in the sense that retentiveness enables the user to know what is retained after *put*, while other approaches merely tell the user which basic lens will be applied after the alignment. As a results, the more complex the lenses is, the more difficult to reason the information retained in the new source for those approaches.

# 5.2 Provenance and Origin

Our work was inpired by researches on provenance [Cheney et al. 2009] in the DB community and the origin [van Deursen et al. 1993] in the rewriting community.

As discussed in [Cheney et al. 2009], provenance can be classified into three kinds: why, how, and where. Why-provenance is the first formalised provenance and was called lineage at the time [Cui et al. 2000]; it is the information about which data in the view is from which rows in the source. However, knowing only the rows a piece of data in the view is from is not informative enough for many applications. Consequently, researchers propose two refinements of why-provenance: how-provenance, which additionally counts the times of the usage of a row (in the source), and where-provenance, which additionally records the column where a piece of data is from. By combining the row and column information of a piece of data, we know exactly where it is copied. In our setting, we require two pieces of data linked by vertical links to be equal (under a certain pattern). Hence the vertical links resemble the where-provenance.

If we leap from relational database communities to programming language communities, we will find that these kinds of provenance are not powerful enough, as they are mostly restricted to relational data, namely rows of tuples. In functional programming, we often use algebraic data types, which in general are sums of products including function types, and produce views by more general (recursive) functions rather than selection, projection, join, etc. For this need, *dependency provenance* [Cheney et al. 2011] and *expression provenance* [Acar et al. 2012] are proposed: the former tells the user on which parts of a source the computation of a part of a view depends, and the latter can even record a tree tracking how a part of a view is computed from some (predefined) primitive operations [Acar et al. 2012]. In this sense, our horizontal links are closer to dependency provenance.

The idea of inferring consistency links (horizontal links generated by *get*) can be found in the work on origin tracking for term rewriting systems [van Deursen et al. 1993], in which the origin relations between the rewritten terms can be calculated by analysing the rewrite rules statically. However, it is designed for tracing back, and nothing is mentioned about updating backwards, as we do in this paper. Using these consistency links, in the area of BX, Wang et al. propose a method to incrementalise state-based lenses by tracking links between data in the view and their origin in the source. When the view is edited locally in a sub-term, they use links to identify a sub-term in the source that contains the edited sub-term in the view. Then to update the old source, it is sufficient to only perform state-based *put* on those sub-terms. Since lenses generated by our DSL also create links, (although for a different purpose,) our lenses can be naturally incrementalised by their method.

# 5.3 Operational-based BX

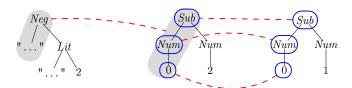
Our work is relevant to the operation-based approaches to BX, in particular, the delta-based BX model [Diskin et al. 2011a] and the *edit lenses* [Hofmann et al. 2012]. The delta-based BX

model regards the differences between the view state v and v' as deltas and the differences are abstractly represented by arrows (from the old view to the new view). The main law (property) in the framework is: Given a source state s and a view delta  $det_v$  between v and v',  $det_v$  should be translated to a source delta  $det_s$  between s and s' satisfying get s' = v'. As the law only guarantees the existence of a source delta  $det_s$  that updates the old source to a correct state, it is not sufficient for deriving retentiveness in their model because, given a translated delta  $det_s$ , there are still an infinite number of interpretations for generating a correct source s', with only few of them being "retentive". To illustrate, Diskin et al. tend to represent deltas as edit operations such as create, delete, and change, aiming to transform edits on the view to edits on the source. However, representing deltas in this way can only tell the user in the new source what must be changed, while there is additional work to do for reasoning what must be retained. As discussed in this paper, by carefully designing and imposing proper properties on the representations of deltas, it is possible for deltabased BXs to exhibit retentiveness. Note that compared to Diskin et al.'s work, Hofmann et al. give concrete definitions and implementations for propagating edit sequences.

#### 6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

 In this paper we have introduced a semantic framework of (asymmetric) retentive lenses, and designed a DSL for writing retentive transformations between simple algebraic data types. Retentive lenses enjoy a fine-grained local Hippocraticness, which subsumes the traditional global Hippocraticness. The potential usage of retentiveness has been illustrated in case studies on resugaring and code refactoring. In the last part of the paper, we slightly discuss the potential future work on retentive lenses, regarding composability, generalisation, and parametricity.

Composability. Traditional state-based lenses are composable. For retentive lenses, we can also define a comp function, whose behaviour is similar to that in traditional state-based lenses, apart from producing proper intermediate links for the put functions. However, there are further requirements for composing retentive lenses. For the moment, we can only say that two retentive lenses  $lens_1 :: RetLens\ A\ B$  and  $lens_2 :: RetLens\ B\ C$  are composable, if  $lens_1$  and  $lens_2$  have the same property set on B. In other words, for any piece of data  $b :: B, lens_1$  and  $lens_2$  should decompose b in the same way. Here is an example showing non-composable retentive lenses:



where the first lens connects the region pattern  $Neg\ a\ \_$  with  $Sub\ (Num\ 0)\ \_$  (the grey part), while the second lens has a different decomposition strategy and further decomposes  $Sub\ (Num\ 0)\ \_$  into three small region patterns and establishes links for them respectively. It is hard to determine the result of this kind of link compositions, and we leave this to our future work.

As for our DSL, we argue that it is not necessary to provide the user with the composition functionality: it is just a different philosophy of design. Take the scenario of writing a parser for example: we can choose either to use parser combinators (such as Parsec), or to use parser generators (such as Happy). While parser combinators provide the user with many small components that are composable. parser generators usually provide the user with a high-level syntax for describing the grammar of a language using production rules (associated with semantic actions). The generated parsers are usually used as a "black box", and no one expects to compose them.

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Thus, since our DSL is designed to be a "lens generator", the user will have no difficulty in writing bidirectional transformations even without composability.

*Generalisation.* While our theoretical framework and DSL are designed for asymmetric lenses, we believe they can be extended properly to handle symmetric settings. Many definitions in our framework are general and not limited to symmetric lenses: for example, the notion of regions, links and uniquely identifying. The signature for the *get* and *put* might be

$$get: (s \in S, \nu \in V, P_s \sim Q_v) \rightarrow (\nu': V, P_s \sim Q'_v)$$
$$put: (s \in S, \nu \in V, P_s \sim Q_v) \rightarrow (s': S, P_{s'} \sim Q_v)$$

In addition, the region model in this paper is tailored for algebraic data types (trees), with which many functional programming languages are equipped. For bidirectional transformations in other languages, such as object-oriented languages, we may come up with other models that are more effective.

Parametricity. Unlike combinator-based approaches in which many combinators are generic and parameterised, our tiny DSL does not support parametric data types, with generic bidirectional transformations. To imitate functional dependent types, our DSL collects all the possible source and view types and assign each a tag, so that *get* and *put* functions (indexed by source and view types) can pattern match against these type tags and choose a correct branch. This approach suddenly fails when facing parameterised types, for instance, *List a*, to which it is hard to assign a tag. We believe that the DSL might be drastically changed, to handle parameterised types and produce generic lenses.

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## A DEFINING RETENTIVE BIDIRECTIONAL SEMANTICS VIA CODE GENERATION

In this section we explain in detail how retentive lenses are generated from a set of consistency relations defined in our DSL. We will give a source-to-source translation from the program in our DSL to Haskell code. As we go through the translation, we will sketch out why the generated lenses satisfies Equation 3 by construction, hinting at Corollary 3.2.

# A.1 Overview of the Generation

The (top-level) code generation for an input program D is sketched below, in which both the generation for get and put functions, and the generating process for each induction rule are independent. The generation for put is further divided into many cases depending on whether we need to handle input links. It is worth noting that, as we will see later, the put function (generated

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from putDef) is irrelevant to the input program D, because it will delegate all the work to putNoLink and putWithLinks, depending on whether there are links connected to the top of the input view. In addition, the function putWithLinksDef also delegates its work to other auxiliary functions when it need to pattern match against input data, and hence independent of D. Important auxiliary functions will be introduced later when they appear in the generated code.

```
GenLenses [[dataTypes dGroups]] = dataTypes + GenGets [[dGroups]] + GenPuts [[dGroups]] GenGets [[dGroups]] = concatMap GenGetG [[·]] dGroups GenPuts [[dGroups]] = putDef : putWithLinksDef : concatMap GenPutNoLinkG [[·]] dGroups GenGetG [[st '<--->' vt ds ';']] = map (GenGet (st, vt) [[·]]) ds GenPutNoLinkG [[st '<--->' vt ds ';']] = map (GenPutNoLink2 (st, vt) [[·]]) ds
```

The generated get and put functions have the following signatures, in which we use some dependent function types that we can emulate to some extent in our actual Haskell code. Compared to Definition 2.6, the generated get and put functions take as additional arguments the types of the input source (s::STypes) and view (v::VTypes), on which the output types of get and put functions depend. For put,  $s_0$  is the type of the original source, which in general can be different from the type of the generated source<sup>5</sup>.

```
get :: (s :: STypes) \rightarrow (v :: VTypes) \rightarrow s \rightarrow (v, [HLink])

put :: (s :: STypes) \rightarrow (v :: VTypes) \rightarrow s_0 \rightarrow v \rightarrow [HLink] \rightarrow s
```

For the real Haskell implementation, we emulate dependent types by assigning each source type and view type tag. All of the source type tags and view type tags form the union types tag and t

# A.2 Generation of get

Generation of the get function is basically converting induction rules to function definition clauses: if, for example, Plus is consistent with Add, then get can simply map Plus to Add and continue with the subtrees recursively. The consistency links between the source and view are thus established by construction.

The translation is more formally described by the transformation below. For every induction rule in a group,  $GenGet(st, vt)[\cdot]$  is invoked to generate a definition clause of get. Every induction rule has the form  $P \sim Q$  for some source pattern P and view pattern Q; we often write  $P(\vec{x}) \sim Q(\vec{y})$  to name variables in P and Q as  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  respectively. (These variables should in fact be suitably renamed to avoid name clashing.) Individual variables in  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  are denoted by  $x_i$  and  $y_i$ , and the lines of code containing  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  should be repeated for every corresponding pair of source

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Many source types are interconvertible and have the same view, for instance, 0-3:: *Expr* and -3:: *Term*. Given a view, in many situations we may want to generate a new source whose type is different from the old one.

and view variables. Functions that is expanded at compile time all start with a capital character and in sans-serif. (They can be treated as macros.)

```
GenGet(st, vt)[P(\overrightarrow{x}) \sim Q(\overrightarrow{y})] =

get \ MkTag[st] \ MkTag[vt] \ P = (Q, l_0 : concat [ls'_0 ... ls'_n])

where

(y_i, ls_i) = get \ TypeOf[x_i; P] \ TypeOf[y_i; Q] \ x_i

prefX_i = Pref[x_i; P]

prefY_i = Pref[y_i; Q]

ls'_i = map \ (addPrefH \ (prefX_i, prefY_i)) \ ls_i

l_0 = MkLink[P; O]
```

The generated *get* clause does the following:

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- (1) Recursively apply *get* to the subtrees  $x_i$  of the input data to get their corresponding views  $y_i$  and consistency links  $ls_i$ .
- (2) Since  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are subtrees of the source and view, we need to update the paths in their links  $ls_i$  (which previously start from the roots of the subtrees) by adding the corresponding prefixes. The prefixes are computed by Pref, and added by addPrefH.
- (3) Finally we make a new link  $l_0$  between the top of the current source and view using MkLink, and put  $l_0$  into the front of the updated link list.

*Example A.1.* GenGet(Expr, Arith)[[ $Plus \ \_ x \ y \sim Add \ x \ y$ ]] will produce the following Haskell code:

```
get ExprTy ArithTy (Plus r_0 xS yS) = (Add xV yV, l_0: concat [xls', yls'])
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            where
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              (xV, xls) = get ExprTy ArithTy xS
1399
                        = [1]
              prexS
1400
                        = [0]
              prexV
1401
                        = map (addPrefH (prexS, prexV)) xls
1402
              (yV, yls) = get TermTy ArithTy yS
1403
              preyS
                        = [2]
1404
              preyV
                        = [1]
1405
              vls'
                        = map (addPrefH (preyS, preyV)) yls
1406
1407
                        = ((S \ ExprArithCase0, []), (V \ ExprArithCase0, []))
```

We see that the first two arguments of *get* come from the encoded types of the group where this clause belongs. There are two variables (x and y) in the induction rule, so they are handled by lines 1–4 and lines 5–8 in the where-block respectively. Finally the link  $l_0$  between encoded region  $S\_ExprArithCase0$  (representing  $Plus\ x\ \_$ ) and  $V\_ExprArithCase0$  (representing  $Add\ \_$ ) is added.

## A.3 Generation of put

Generation of the *put* function is little complex. Below we describe an algorithm that can be best understood as creating a new source following the structure of the view while satisfying retentiveness by construction. To satisfy retentiveness, we should inspect whether the top of the view is linked to some part of the original source.

• If there is no link at the top of the view, it means that retentiveness does not require that anything be retained at the top. In this case, we only need to find a induction rule  $P \sim Q$ 

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such that the view matches *Q*, create a consistent source *P*, and call *put* on the subtrees of the view recursively.

• If there are links at the top of the view, for each link we can copy the source fragment it indicates in the original source, to the top of the new source, such that a horizontal link between the updated source and the view can be later created by *get* to satisfy retentiveness.

The put function thus starts with a case analysis on whether there are top-level links:

```
put :: (s :: STypes) \rightarrow (v :: VTypes) \rightarrow s_0 \rightarrow v \rightarrow [HLink] \rightarrow s

put st vt os v hls \mid \neg (hasTopLink hls) = ...

put st vt os v hls \mid hasTopLink hls = ...
```

Next we explain the two cases of *put* in detail.

 prefyV = [1]

A.3.1 No Link at the Top. In this case we need to choose a induction rule such that the view matches the right-hand side pattern of the clause. This is done by an auxiliary function *selSPat* that tries to find such a clause and returns (the encoding of) its source pattern. This source pattern is then passed into another auxiliary function *putNoLink*:

```
put st vt os v hls | \neg (hasTopLink hls) = putNoLink st vt (selSPat st vt v) os v hls putNoLink :: (s :: STypes) \rightarrow (v :: VTypes) \rightarrow SPat \rightarrow s<sub>0</sub> \rightarrow v \rightarrow [HLink] \rightarrow s selSPat :: STypes \rightarrow (v :: VTypes) \rightarrow v \rightarrow SPat
```

The *putNoLink* function is defined mutually recursively with *put*. It handles the recursive calls on the subtrees, and eventually creates a new source that has the specified source pattern. For each induction rule  $P(\vec{x}) \sim Q(\vec{y})$  for synchronising data between source type st and view type vt, we generate the following putNoLink for it:

```
GenPutNoLink(st, vt)[P(\overrightarrow{x}) \sim Q(\overrightarrow{y})] = putNoLink MkTag[st] MkTag[vt] MkPat[P] os <math>Q hls = P[\overrightarrow{z}/\overrightarrow{x}] where prefX_i = Pref[x_i; P] prefY_i = Pref[y_i; Q] hls_i = map (delPrefH([], prefY_i)) (filterLink prefY_i hls) z_i = put TypeOf[x_i; P] TypeOf[v_i; Q] os v_i hls_i
```

- (1) We recursively invoke put on each subtree  $y_i$  of the view with a new environment  $env_i$ , to produce a consistent new source  $z_i$ .  $env_i$  is obtained by first dividing env into disjoint parts distinguished by the prefix path of  $y_i$  ( $prefY_i$ ) and then deleting the prefix path.
- (2) As specified, we create a new source using the pattern P, and use  $\vec{z}$  as its subtrees.

*Example A.2.* Given induction rule  $Plus \ x \ y \sim Add \ x \ y$ , the following Haskell code is generated for putNoLink:

```
putNoLink ExprTag ArithTag S_ExprArithCase0 os (Add xV yV) hls = Plus "X" xSRes ySRes

where

prefxS = [1]

prefxV = [0]

hlsxV = map (delPrefH ([], prefxV)) (filterLink prefxV hls)

xSRes = put ExprTag ArithTag os xV hlsxV

prefyS = [2]
```

```
hlsyV = map (delPrefH ([], prefyV)) (filterLink prefyV hls)
ySRes = put TermTag ArithTag os yV envyV
```

 Similar to the generated code for *get* in Example A.1, there are two code blocks for handling variables *x* and *y* in the induction rule respectively. Since Haskell does not support dependent types, in fact we need to constantly convert the view and the new source from and to *Dynamic* values. However, to improve readability, here we intentionally removed the code for handling *Dynamics*.

A.3.2 Links at the Top. In addition to creating a consistent source, for each link  $hl_0$  at top of the view, we need to copy the source fragment in the original source to which  $hl_0$  connects, so that later get can establish a horizontal link hl between the newly created source and the view, as required by retentiveness.

What makes the situation complex is that, there can be more than one links connected to the top of the view, and we need to handle all of them to avoid <code>putWithLinks</code> invoking itself. These links consist of at most one real link, and possibly many imaginary links. We sort the links according to their paths in the source, and handle them one by one in a bottom-up way. The real link is handled by the case analysis block and the imaginary links are handled by the <code>foldr</code>. Finally <code>mkInj</code> is called because the desired output source type might be different from the type of the source fragment connected by a link.

```
put st vt os v env | hasTopLink env = putWithLinks st vt os v env putWithLinks :: (s :: STypes) \rightarrow (v :: VTypes) \rightarrow s_0 \rightarrow v \rightarrow Env \rightarrow s putWithLinks st vt os v env = s_4 where  (ml, imags, env') = getTopLinks env  s_2 = case \ ml \ of   fust \ l \rightarrow let \ ((sPat, sPath), (vPat, [])) = l   s_0 = fetch \ l \ os   s_1 = putNoLink \ (typeOf \ s_0) \ vt \ sPat \ os \ v \ env'  in repSubtree sPat s_0 \ s_1 Nothing \rightarrow putNoLink \ st \ vt \ (selSPat \ st \ vt \ v) \ os \ v \ env'  s_3 = foldr \ (splice \ os) \ s_2 \ imags  s_4 = mkInj \ st \ (typeOf \ s_3) \ s_3
```

Handling the Possible Real Link ml.

• If the real link ml exists, we need to fetch the source fragment  $s_0$  indicated by ml from the original source and recursively invoke put on the subtrees (holes) of  $s_0$ . However, invoking put on subtrees requires us to do much redundant work very similar to what putNoLink does, so that we decide to reuse putNoLink to avoid this: We invoke putNoLink again on the current view without top-level links to produce a source  $s_1$ , which has complete subtrees (there are no holes in  $s_1$ ) but is not retentive at the top-level node. Thus by replacing holes in  $s_0$  with complete subtrees in  $s_1$ , we get the final result that is both retentive at the top-level node and at subtrees. This is illustrated in Figure 11 and the code generation for repSubtree is:

```
repSubtree :: SPat \rightarrow (s_0 :: STypes) \rightarrow (s_0 :: STypes) \rightarrow s_0

GenRepSubtree [P \overrightarrow{x} \sim Q \overrightarrow{y}] =

repSubtree MkPat [P] MkRegPat [P] (P \overrightarrow{x}) = MkRegPat [P] \overrightarrow{x}
```

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where MkRegPat $[\cdot]$  differs MkPat $[\cdot]$  in the sense that it convert the variable patterns into wildcard patterns and convert wildcard patterns into (fresh) variable patterns. For instance, MkRegPat $[Plus \ x \ y]$  gives  $Plus \ fromWild0 \ x$ . We have seen this function when we define regions previously.

• If there is no real link meaning nothing to be retained (at the top), we just need to invoke *putNoLink* with the new environment *env'*.

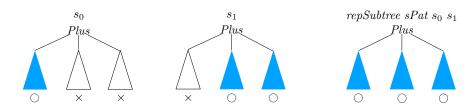


Fig. 11. Illustration of repSubtree. (Suppose that sPat is the source pattern of the induction rule  $Plus \, \_\, x \, y \sim Add \, x \, y$ . Then the tree  $s_0$  is correct (i.e., retentive) at the annotation field (marked by the wildcard in the source pattern) while has holes at subtrees marked by x and y.  $s_1$  is like a "complement" of  $s_0$ . We can get a completely correct tree by replacing holes in  $s_0$  with corresponding subtrees from  $s_1$ .)

Handling Imaginary Links imags. Remember that get in general is not an injection, and some parts of a source are discarded when producing its view. These parts can also be retained, by passing imaginary links to the put function. Each imaginary link is handled in a way very similar to a real link, as the splice function below shows. Thus the process of handling all the imaginary links can be expressed by a foldr, in which the (imaginary) link with longest path in the original source is dealt with first.

```
splice os imag s_0 = insSubtree \, sPat \, (fetch \, imag \, os) \, s_0

insSubtree :: SPat \rightarrow (s_1 :: STypes) \rightarrow s_0 :: STypes \rightarrow s_1

GenInsSubtree \llbracket P \, x \sim Q \, y \rrbracket =

insSubtree \, MkPat \llbracket P \, x \rrbracket \, s_1 \, s_0 = P \, s_2

where \, s_2 = mkInj \, TypeOf \llbracket x; P \, x \rrbracket \, (typeOf \, s_0) \, s_0
```

 Every time a source fragment is fetched, we need to insert the accumulated source  $s_0$  into it as its subtree (by insSubtree). Since insSubtree is invoked by splice and splice only handles imaginary links, we just need to generate the code of insSubtree for those particular induction rules, whose left-hand sides are possible to be source patterns of imaginary links. Those particular induction rules, for example  $Term \ t \sim t$  and  $Paren \ e \sim e$ , have the characteristics that there is only one hole in their left-hand sides and we precisely know where the hole is. Thus inserting a subtree  $s_2$  into a tree P (with only one hole) is represented by P  $s_2$  in the above code. Before the insertion, we need to convert the subtree to be inserted to the same type of the hole and meanwhile update the accumulated links. This is performed by mkInj. (explained below) The whole process is illustrated in Figure 12.

Making Type Correct. Importantly, the source after handling imaginary links might not be of the correct type st though. So functions such as <code>insSubtree</code>, <code>putWithLinks</code> need to invoke <code>mkInj</code> lastly to make the output type correct. This <code>mkInj</code> function is supposed to make changes that are discarded by <code>get</code> (for establishing Correctness) and do not disrupt retentiveness already established for the subtrees (for establishing the overall Retentiveness):

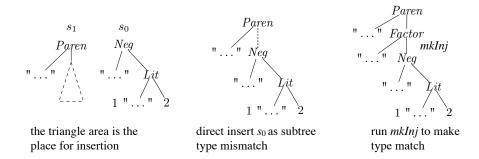


Fig. 12. Illustration of  $insSubtree\ (Paren\ _e)\ s_1\ s_0$ . We insert  $s_0$  to the hole in  $s_1$  according to the pattern  $Paren\ _x$  of  $s_1$ . The hole for insertion is the subtree indicated by the (only) variable e in the pattern. However, since the type of  $s_0$  might not match the type of the hole, we need to run mkInj first.

```
mkInj :: (sup :: STypes) \rightarrow (sub :: STypes) \rightarrow sub \rightarrow sup

get_{v} s = get_{v} (mkInj_{s--} s)

fst \cdot get_{l} s fsubseteq fst \cdot get_{l} (mkInj_{--} s)
```

#### **B** PROOFS

 In this section, we prove Theorem 3.1 and Corollary 3.2 based on the compiler given in Appendix A. The core of the proof is showing that the generated *get* and *put* (without second order properties as input) retain all links of regions and satisfy *PutGet*, i.e. the first two properties of Corollary 3.2. This part is showed in detail in the rest of this section.

The key idea of our proofs is to make inductions on the height of the view: Given a source s of type st and a view v of type vt, and correspondence links hls between source s and view v, we assume that Correctness and Retentiveness already hold for all the views v' of height less than h, then we prove that the two properties also hold for the view v of height h using induction hypotheses. The structure of the proofs follow the structure of put functions, and are thus divided into two main parts, depending on whether there are input links connected to the top of the view.

# Case 1: When There Is No Top-Level Link

We first presents some prerequisite and lemmas, which are used in the proof later.

Prerequisites 1. As mentioned in Making Type Correct, the function *mkInj* is supposed to make changes that are discarded by get (for establishing Correctness) and do not disrupt retentiveness already established for the subtrees.

$$get_{v} s = get_{v} (mkInj \_\_ s)$$
  
 $fst \cdot get_{l} s \subseteq fst \cdot get_{l} (mkInj \_\_ s)$ 

*Explanation.* The first equation is exactly "make changes that are discarded by *get*". For the second inequation, since mkInj = s contains a subtree which is exactly s,  $get_l$  on it should produce more links than on s. In addition, since mkInj = s contains a subtree which is exactly s, the links of  $get_l$  (mkInj = s) cover the links of  $get_l$  s, if we do not consider the proofs (paths) on the source side of the links.

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Prerequisites 2. *mkInj* is an identity function if the types lifted from and converted to are the same.

 $mkInj \ toTy \ fromTy \ t \mid toTy == fromTy = t$ 

LEMMA B.1.  $fstR \cdot hls$  does not care about the proofs (paths) on the source side:

$$fstR \cdot map (addPrefH (pref, [])) hls = fstR \cdot hls$$

*Proof sketch.* As for " $fstR \cdot hls$  does not care about on the source side", it means that:

$$\forall x, \exists y, \exists a, \exists b.x \ fstR(x,y) \land (x,y) \ hls(a,b)$$

So that the equation trivially hold.

## **Proofs of Case 1**

Now we start to prove Case 1. Since there is no link at the top of the view, *put* will invoke *putNoLink*. Suppose the case of *putNoLink* generated from the consistency declaration  $P xs \sim Q ys$  is matched, then the goal is to show (we rewrite the two properties in a one line style)

$$get_v(put \ st \ vt \ s \ (Q \ ys) \ hls) = v$$
 (Correctness)  
 $fstR \cdot hls \subseteq fstR \cdot (get_l(put \ st \ vt \ s \ (Q \ ys) \ hls))$  (Retentiveness)

As for Correctness:

Proof.

```
get_v (P zs)

= {Substitution of variables zs (in putNoLink)}

get_v (P [...put TypeOf [[x_i]] TypeOf [[y_i]] os hls_i y_i...])

= {According to the source disjointness, the get generated from the P xs \sim Q ys must be chosen}

Q [...get_v (put TypeOf [[x_i]] TypeOf [[y_i]] os hls_i y_i)...]

= {The height of y_i is less than h and thus Correctness for it holds}

Q [...y_i...]

= {All y_i contribute to ys}
Q ys
```

For Retentiveness:

```
Proof.
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                                      put st vt os (Q ys) hls
1669
                                             {expand the body of put}
1670
                                      putNoLink st vt (selSPat st vt (Q ys)) os (Q ys) hls
1671
                                             {expand the body of putNoLink}
                                      P zs
                   fstR \cdot get_1 (P zs)
                          {Variable substitution of zs (in putNoLink). Assume that zs = ...z_i...}
                   fstR \cdot get_1(P \dots put \text{ TypeOf}[x_i; P]] \text{ TypeOf}[y_i; Q]] \text{ os } y_i \text{ } hls_i...)
1680
                          {Expand the body of get_1}
1681
                   fstR \cdot (MkLink[P; Q] : concat[..ls'_{i}..])
1682
1683
                          {Distribute fstR into concatenation}
                   fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Q]] + fstR \cdot concat[...ls'_{i}...]
                          {Just drop MkLink[P; Q]}
1686
                   fstR \cdot concat [...ls'_{i}...]
1688
                          {Variable substitutions of ls' (in get) }
1689
                   fstR \cdot concat [...map (addPrefH (prefX_i, prefY_i)) ls_i...])
1690
1691
                          {Variable substitutions of ls_i (in get)}
1692
                   fstR \cdot concat \left[ ...map \left( addPrefH \left( prefX_i, prefY_i \right) \right) \right]
1693
                                             (get_1 \text{ TypeOf}[x_i; P] \text{ TypeOf}[y_i; Q] x_i)...])
1694
1695
                          {Replace x_i with the real input put TypeOf[x_i; P] TypeOf[y_i; Q] os y_i hls_i}
1696
                   fstR \cdot concat [...map (addPrefH (prefX_i, prefY_i))]
1697
                                        (get_1 \text{ TypeOf}[x_i; P] \text{ TypeOf}[y_i; Q]
1698
                                             (put TypeOf [x_i; P] TypeOf [y_i; Q] os y_i hls<sub>i</sub>))...]
1699
                          {The height of y_i is less than h, we can use induction hypotheses}
1700
                   fstR \cdot concat [...map (addPrefH (prefX_i, prefY_i)) hls_i...]
1701
1702
                          {Variable substitution of hls<sub>i</sub> (in putNoLink)}
1703
                   fstR \cdot concat \left[ ...map \left( addPrefH \left( prefX_i, prefY_i \right) \right) \right]
1704
                                             (map (delPrefH ([], prefY<sub>i</sub>)) (filterLinks prefY<sub>i</sub> hls))...]
1705
1706
                          {By map fusion, and addPrefH (PrefX_i, []) =
                  =
1707
                            addPrefH (prefX_i, prefY_i)) \circ delPrefH ([], prefY_i)
1708
                   fstR \cdot concat [...map (addPrefH (prefX_i, [])) (filterLinks prefY_i, hls)...]
1709
                          {Dividing a set into disjoint parts and merge them results in the same set}
1710
1711
                   fstR \cdot (map (addPrefH (prefX_i, [])) hls)
1712
                          {By Lemma B.1}
1713
                   fstR \cdot hls
1714
```

1715

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 In addition, if we do not drop MkLink [P; Q] at the fourth step, we have the following conclusion:  $fstR \cdot (MkLink [P; Q] : hls) \subseteq fstR \cdot (get_1 (putNoLink st vt (selSPat st vt (Q ys)) os (Q ys) hls)$ 

# Case 2: When There Are Links at Top of the View

Since there are links at the top of the view, *putWithLinks* will be executed. We divide the whole proofs into small parts by first introducing several lemmas, and then we proceed with the proofs.

Lemma B.2. Perform get on the source fetched by a link l will yield the same link except for their source paths.

 $fstR \cdot [head (get_l (fetch \ l \ os)) = fstR \cdot [l]$ 

Proof.

```
fstR \cdot [head (get_l (fetch \ l \ os))]
= \{Suppose \ l = ((P, sPath), (Q, [])) \}
fstR \cdot [head (get_l (P \ xs))]
= \{Expand \ the \ definition \ of \ get \}
fstR \cdot [head (l_0 : concat [...ls'_i...])]
= \{Extract \ the \ head \ of \ a \ list \}
fstR \cdot [l_0]
= \{Variable \ substitution \ of \ l_0 \ (in \ get) \}
fstR \cdot [MkPat[P; Q]]
= \{By \ the \ definition \ of \ MkPat[\cdot]] \}
fstR \cdot [((P, []), (Q, []))]
= \{fstR \ does \ not \ care \ about \ the \ source \ path \}
fstR \cdot [l]
```

Lemma B.3.  $get_{\nu}$  applied to the result of repSubtree produces the same result as  $get_{\nu}$  applied to the last argument of repSubtree.  $get_{l}$  applied to the result of the repSubtree is equal to  $get_{l}$   $t_{2}$  with a slight modification, which is to replace the top-level link of it with the first link from  $get_{l}$   $t_{1}$ .

```
get_v (repSubtree sPat t_1 t_2) = get_v t_2

get_l (repSubtree sPat t_1 t_2) = head (get_l t_1): tail (get_l t_2)
```

PROOF. For the first equation, as Figure 11 shows, repSubtree takes a pattern and two trees matching the pattern, in which the second tree may only differ from the result of the repSubtree at some parts described by the pattern. In addition, the different parts will all be discarded by  $get_s$ , so the equation trivially hold.

For the second equation, we can consider an inductive rule P  $xs \sim Q$  ys. Suppose MkPat[[P]] = A and MkRegPat[[P]] = B, according to the generated code for a inductive rule, we have

```
get_l \ (repSubtree \ \mathsf{MkPat} \llbracket P \rrbracket \ \mathsf{MkRegPat} \llbracket P \rrbracket \ (P \ xs))
```

```
\{MkPat[P] = A \text{ and } MkRegPat[P] = B\}
1765
1766
                             get_1 (repSubtree A B (P xs))
1767
                                   {Expand the body of repSubtree}
1768
                             get_1(B xs)
                                   {Expand the body of get_1}
                             l_0: concat [...ls'_i...]
                                   {Variable substitution of l_0 and ls'_i (in get)}
                             MkLink[B; Q] : concat[...map(addPrefH(prefX_i, prefY_i)) ls_i...]
                         and
                             get_1(P xs)
1778
                                   {Expand the body of get_1}
1780
                             l_0: concat [...ls'_i...]
                                   {Variable substitution of l_0 and ls'_i (in get)}
1782
                             MkLink[P; Q] : concat[...map(addPrefH(prefX_i, prefY_i)) ls_i...]
1784
1786
                         and
                             get_1 (MkRegPat\llbracket P \rrbracket)
1788
1789
                                   \{MkRegPat[P] = B\}
1790
                             get_1 B
1791
1792
                                   {Expand the body of get_1}
1793
                             l_0 : \_
1794
                                   {Variable substitution of l_0 (in get)}
1795
                             MkLink[B; Q] : \_
1796
1797
          It is obvious that get_1 (repSubtree sPat t_1 t_2) = head (get_1 t_1): tail (get_1 t_2).
1798
                                                                                                                          1799
          Lemma B.4. Let P s_2 = insSubtree \ sPat \ s_1 \ s_0, we have the following (in)equations, where variables
1800
       should refer to their bindings in the definition of insSbutree.
1801
1802
                                                              get_{y_1}(P s_2) = get_{y_2} s_0
1803
                               fstR \cdot (get_1 \ s_0 + [MkLink[P; Void]]) \subseteq fstR \cdot (get_1 \ (P \ s_2))
1804
1805
          PROOF. For the first equation, since sPat is of pattern P \times x \times x (there is only one variable), let us
1806
       assume insSubtree (P x) s_1 s_0 = P s_2.
1807
                            get_{v_1}(P s_2)
1808
1809
                                  {There is no constructor in the right-hand side of P \times x \sim x}
1810
                            get_v, s_2
```

{Variable substitution}

1811

1812 1813 1:38 Anon.

```
get_v(mkInj \_ \_ s_0)
1814
1815
                                  {By Prerequisite 1}
1816
                            get_v, s_0
1817
          For the second inequation,
1818
                    fstR \cdot get_1 (P s_2)
                           {By the definition of get<sub>1</sub>, and there is no constructor in the view.}
1821
                    fstR \cdot (MkLink[P; Void] : concat [...ls'_i...])
                           {The pattern P s_2 has only one subtree s_2}
                    fstR \cdot (MkLink[P; Void] : concat[ls'_n])
1825
                           \{concat [ls'_0] = ls'_0\}
1827
                    fstR \cdot (MkLink[P; Void] + ls'_0)
                           {Variable substitution of ls'_0 (in get)}
1829
                    fstR \cdot (MkLink[P; Void] + map (addPrefH (PrefX_0, PrefY_0)) ls_0)
1831
                           {Distribute fstR into concatenation}
                    fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]] + fstR \cdot (map (addPrefH (PrefX_0, PrefY_0)) ls_0)
1833
                           {Variable substitution of PrefX_0, PrefY_0, and ls_0 (in get)}
1835
                    fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]] +
                    fstR \cdot (map (addPrefH (Pref[x; P x], Pref[y; Q y])) (get_1 s_2))
1837
                           \{\text{Pref}[y; Q \ y] \text{ is empty because the inductive rule is } P \ x \sim x\}
1838
1839
                    fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]] + fstR \cdot (map (addPrefH (Pref[x; P x], [])) (get_1 s_2))
1840
                           {By Lemma B.1}
1841
                    fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]] + fstR \cdot (get_1 s_2)
1842
1843
                           {Variable substitution of s_2 (in insSbutree)}
1844
                    fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]] + fstR \cdot (get_1(mkInj = s_0))
1845
                           {By Prerequisite 1}
1846
1847
                    fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]] + fstR \cdot (get_1 s_0)
1848
                   \supseteq
                           {Drop fstR \cdot [MkLink[P; Void]]}
1849
                    fstR \cdot (get_1 s_0)
1850
1851
1852
```

Lemma B.5. Let  $s_2 = splice$  os imag  $s_0$ , we have the following (in)equations, where variables should refer to their bindings in the definition of *splice*.

$$get_{v} \ s_{2} = get_{v} \ s_{0}$$
 
$$fstR \cdot (get_{l} \ s_{0} + [imag]) \subseteq fstR \cdot get_{l} \ s_{2}$$

PROOF. For the first equation:

1853

1854 1855

1856

1857 1858

1859

1860

1861 1862

$$get_v s_2$$
 {Expand the body of *splice* }

```
get, (insSubtree sPat (fetch imag on) s_0)
1864
                                              {by Lemma B.4 }
1865
                                        get_v, s_0
1866
```

For the second inequation:

$$fstR \cdot get_l \ s_2$$
= {Expand the body of splice}
$$fstR \cdot get_l \ (insSubtree \ sPat \ (fetch \ imag \ os) \ s_0)$$
\(\simeq \{By Lemma B.4\}\)
$$fstR \cdot (get_l \ s_0 + [MkLink[P; Void]])$$
= { The variable imag in splice is ((sPat, sPath), (Void, [])) }
$$fstR \cdot (get_l \ s_0 + [imag])$$

LEMMA B.6. The following (in)equations hold for the code block handling imaginary links. Suppose

s' = foldr (splice os) s imags

Then

$$get_{v} \ s' = get_{v} \ s$$
 
$$fstR \cdot (get_{l} \ s + imags) \subseteq fstR \cdot get_{l} \ s'$$

PROOF. The two (in)equations can be proved by making inductions on the length *imags*. Suppose the (in)equations hold for foldr (splice os) s ims, now we consider the input list which has one more imaginary link:

so we need to prove:

$$get_{v} \ s'' = get_{v} \ s$$
$$fstR \cdot (get_{1} \ s + (im : ims)) \subseteq fstR \cdot get_{1} \ s''$$

which can be easily derived from the properties of *splice* and induction hypotheses:

For the first equation:

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```
1912
                                          get, s
1913
          For the second inequation:
1914
                                  fstR \cdot get_1 s''
1915
1916
                                        {By Lemma B.5, the property of splice}
1917
                                  fstR \cdot (get_1 s' + [im])
1919
                                        {Distribute fstR into concatenation}
                                  fstR \cdot (get_1 \ s') + fstR \cdot [im]
1921
                                        {By induction hypotheses}
                                \supseteq
1922
                                  fstR \cdot (get_1 s + ims) + fstR \cdot [im]
1923
                                        {Distribute fstR into concatenation}
1925
                                  fstR \cdot (get_1 s) + fstR \cdot ims + fstR \cdot [im]
                                        { get<sub>1</sub> s, ims, and im are "disjoint" in putWithLinks.}
1927
1928
                                  fstR \cdot (get_1 s + (im : ims))
1929
1930
```

Lemma B.7. The code block for handling the real link produces a source  $s_2$  consistent with the input view v, and the source  $s_2$  is created in a way that takes input link l into account, if there is. The variables in the following (in)equations should refer to their bindings in putWithLinks.

```
get_{v} s_{2} = v
fstR \cdot (l:hls') \subseteq fstR \cdot get_{l} s_{2}, \quad \text{if there is an input real link}
fstR \cdot hls' \subseteq fstR \cdot get_{l} s_{2}, \quad \text{if there is no such input real link}
```

PROOF. For the first equation  $get_v$ ,  $s_2 = v$ .

If there is a real link,

```
get<sub>v</sub> s<sub>2</sub>

= {Variable substitution of s<sub>2</sub> (in putWithLinks)}
get<sub>v</sub> (repSubtree sPat s<sub>0</sub> s<sub>1</sub>)

= {By Lemma B.3}
get<sub>v</sub> s<sub>1</sub>

= {Variable substitution of s<sub>1</sub> (in putWithLinks)}
get<sub>v</sub> (putNoLink (typeOf s<sub>0</sub>) vt sPat os hls' v)

= {No link at the top of the view. Use the result of Case 1}
```

• If there is no real link,

```
get_v s_2

{Variable substitution of s_2 (in putWithLinks)}

get_v (putNoLink st vt (selSPat st vt v) os hls' v)

{No link at the top of the view. Use the result of Case 1}
```

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```
1961
1962
          For the inequations fstR \cdot (l:hls') \subseteq fstR \cdot get_1 s_2 and fstR \cdot hls' \subseteq fstR \cdot get_1 s_2:
1963
            • If there is a real link,
1964
1965
                  fstR \cdot get_1 s_2
                         {Variable substitution of s_2 (in putWithLinks)}
                  fstR \cdot get_1 (repSubtree sPat s_0 s_1)
                        {By Lemma B.3 }
                  fstR \cdot (head (get_1 s_0) : tail (get_1 s_1))
                        {Variable substitution of s_0 and s_1 (in putWithLinks)}
1972
                  fstR \cdot (head (get_1 (fetch \ l \ os)) : tail (get_1 (putNoLink (typeOf \ s_0) \ vt \ sPat \ os \ v \ hls')))
1974
                         {Distribute fstR over concatenation}
                  fstR \cdot [head (get_l (fetch \ l \ os))] +
1976
                  fstR \cdot (tail (get_1 (putNoLink (typeOf s_0) vt sPat os v hls')))
1978
                        {By Lemma B.2}
                  fstR \cdot [l] + fstR \cdot (tail (get_1 (putNoLink (typeOf s_0) vt sPat os v hls')))
1980
                         \{fstR \cdot (tail\ R) = tail\ (fstR \cdot R) \text{ since } R \text{ is an ordered list.} \}
1982
                  fstR \cdot [l] + tail (fstR \cdot (get_1 (putNoLink (typeOf s_0) vt sPat os v hls')))
1983
                         {No link at the top of the view. Use the result (last inequation) of Case 1}
1984
                  fstR \cdot [l] + (tail (fstR \cdot (MkLink[\_; \_] : hls')))
1985
1986
                        { tail drops the first link in the list}
1987
                  fstR \cdot [l] + fstR \cdot hls'
1988
                         {By the property of list concatenation}
1989
1990
                  fstR \cdot (l:hls')
1991

    If there is no real link.

1992
                              fstR \cdot get_1 s_2
1993
1994
                                     {Variable substitution of s_2 (in putWithLink) }
1995
                              fstR \cdot get_1 (putNoLink st vt (selSPat st vt v) os v hls'))
1996
1997
                                     {No link at the top of the view. Use the result of Case 1}
1998
                              fstR \cdot hls'
1999
                                                                                                                             2000
2001
       Proofs of Case 2
2002
       Now we start to prove Case 2. Since there are links at the top of the view, put will invoke
2003
       putWithLinks. The goal is to show
2004
2005
                          get_{v} (putWithLinks st vt os v hls) = v
                                                                                                              (Correctness)
2006
                         fstR \cdot hls \subseteq fstR \cdot get_1 (putWithLinks st vt os v hls)
                                                                                                            (Retentiveness)
2007
```

As for Correctness:

2008

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```
Proof.
2010
2011
                                   get, (putWithLinks st vt os v hls)
2012
                                          {Expand the body of putWithLinks}
2013
                                   get, s4
2015
                                          {Variable substitution of s<sub>4</sub> (in putWithLinks)}
2016
                                    get_v(mkInj \_ \_ s_3)
2017
2018
                                          {By Prerequisite 1 }
2019
                                   get_v s_3
2020
                                          {Variable substitution of s_3 (in putWithLinks)}
2021
                                    get<sub>v</sub> (foldr (splice os) s<sub>2</sub> imags)
2022
2023
                                          {By Lemma B.6}
2024
                                   get_v s_2
2025
2026
                                          {Variable substitution of s_2 (in putWithLinks)}
2027
                                    get_{y} (repSubtree sPat s_0 s_1)
2028
                                          {By Lemma B.3}
2029
                                   get_v s_1
2030
2031
                                          {Variable substitution of s_1 (in putWithLinks)}
2032
                                    get, (putNoLink (typeOf s_0) vt sPat os v hls')
2033
                                          {No link at the top. Use the result of Case 1}
2034
2035
                                    ν
2036
                                                                                                                          2037
2038
          As for Retentiveness:
2039
          Proof.
2040
2041
                                   fstR \cdot get_1 (putWithLinks st vt os v hls)
2042
                                         {Expand the body of putWithLinks }
2043
                                   fstR \cdot get_1 s_4
2044
2045
                                         {Variable substitutions of s_4 (in putWithLinks)}
2046
                                   fstR \cdot get_1 (mkInj st (typeOf s_3) s_3
2047
2048
                                         {By Prerequisite 1}
2049
                                   fstR \cdot get_1 s_3
2050
                                         {Variable substitutions of s_3 (in putWithLinks)}
2051
                                   fstR \cdot get_1 (foldr (splice os) s_2 imags)
2052
2053
                                         {By Lemma B.6}
2054
                                   fstR \cdot (get_1 s_2 + imags)
2055
                                         {Distribute fstR into concatenation}
2056
                                   fstR \cdot (get_1 \ s_2) + fstR \cdot imags
2057
2058
```

```
2059 \supseteq {By Lemma B.7, suppose the real link l exists. }
2060 fstR \cdot (l:hls') + fstR \cdot imags
2061
2062 \supseteq {By the property of list concatenation}
2063 fstR \cdot ([l] + hls' + imags)
2064
2065 hls
2066
```

If the real link *l* does not exists, the last three steps are:

#### As A Retentive Lens

Theorems proved above will be the core part of proving Theorem 3.1, but we still need to show two more things:

- Links produced by *get'* is uniquely identifying.
- Our put retains all links of second-order properties.

For the uniquely identifying property, we should verify that our construction of get' generates a set of second-order properties completely specifying how regions are assembled into a tree. Given a concrete implementation of constructing get', in particular, a concrete implementation of generating second-order properties described in Section 3.4, the verification should be straightforward, thus omitted here.

For the retentiveness of links of second-order properties, the proof will be quite similar to the proof above showing retentiveness of regions, thus we also omit it here.

Now we can conclude Theorem 3.1, that is, our *get* and *put* functions can be lifted into a retentive lens. Following this, our *get* and *put* functions satisfy Corollary 3.2, that is, they satisfy:

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textit{get}\;(\textit{put}\;(s,\textit{v},\textit{l})) = (\textit{v}',\textit{l}') & \Rightarrow & \textit{v} = \textit{v}' & \text{(Correctness)} \\ \textit{get}\;(\textit{put}\;(s,\textit{v},\textit{l})) = (\textit{v}',\textit{l}') & \Rightarrow & \textit{fst}\cdot\textit{l} \subseteq \textit{fst}\cdot\textit{l}' & \text{(Retentiveness)} \\ \textit{get}\;s = (\textit{v},\textit{l}) & \Rightarrow & \textit{put}_{SV}\;(s,\textit{v},\textit{l}) = s & \text{(Hippocraticness)} \end{array}
```