

12 Some efficiency concerns

Recall that we first defined the *reverse* function by recursion:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{reverse } [] &= [] \\ \text{reverse } (x : xs) &= \text{reverse } xs ++ [x] \\ &= \text{snoc } (\text{reverse } xs) x \\ &= \text{flip snoc } x (\text{reverse } xs) \end{aligned}$$

Deduce from this that

$$\text{reverse} = \text{fold } (\text{flip snoc}) [] \text{ where } \text{snoc } xs\ x = xs ++ [x]$$

However, this algorithm is quadratic: it takes about $\frac{1}{2}n^2$ steps to reverse a list of length n . Why is this? Each catenation

$$\begin{aligned} [] ++ ys &= ys \\ (x : xs) ++ ys &= x : (xs ++ ys) \end{aligned}$$

(or $(++ys) = \text{fold } (:) ys$) takes a number of steps linear in the length of its left argument. It follows that *snoc* takes a number of steps linear in its list argument, and *reverse* applies *snoc* to (the reverse of) each tail of its argument.

The insight is that we could accumulate the answer: invent

$$\text{revcat } ys\ xs = \text{reverse } xs ++ ys$$

Notice that this is intended as a specification, not the definition for execution: evaluating this would be at least as bad as the existing *reverse*. We could however use *revcat* to calculate

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{reverse } xs \\ = &\{ \text{unit of } (++) \text{ (proof?)} \} \\ &\text{reverse } xs ++ [] \\ = &\{ \text{specification of } \text{revcat} \} \\ &\text{revcat } []\ xs \end{aligned}$$

and then make the $(++)$ vanish, by synthesizing a $(++)$ -less recursive definition of *revcat*

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{revcat } ys\ [] \\ = &\{ \text{specification of } \text{revcat} \} \\ &\text{reverse } [] ++ ys \\ = &\{ \text{definition of } \text{reverse} \} \\ &[] ++ ys \\ = &\{ \text{definition of } (++) \} \\ &ys \end{aligned}$$

and for non-empty lists

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{revcat } ys \ (x : xs) \\
 = & \ \{ \text{specification of } \text{revcat} \} \\
 & \text{reverse } (x : xs) \ ++ \ ys \\
 = & \ \{ \text{definition of } \text{reverse} \} \\
 & (\text{reverse } xs \ ++ \ [x]) \ ++ \ ys \\
 = & \ \{ \text{associativity of } (++) \} \\
 & \text{reverse } xs \ ++ \ ([x] \ ++ \ ys) \\
 = & \ \{ \text{definition of } (++) \} \\
 & \text{reverse } xs \ ++ \ (x : ys) \\
 = & \ \{ \text{specification of } \text{revcat} \} \\
 & \text{revcat } (x : ys) \ xs
 \end{aligned}$$

This gives us a definition

```

> reverse = revcat []
>           where revcat ys [] = ys
>           revcat ys (x:xs) = revcat (x:ys) xs

```

This one is linear in the length of the list being reversed: each call of *revcat* corresponds to one of the conses in the list, and each call does a constant amount of work before the recursive call.

The correspondence between conses and calls of *revcat* suggests that we think of a fold, but it is not a *fold* on cons-lists. Compare it with

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{loop } s \ n \ [] &= n \\
 \text{loop } s \ n \ (x : xs) &= \text{loop } s \ (s \ n \ x) \ xs
 \end{aligned}$$

(which is *foldl*, the fold on snoc-lists) and by inspection $\text{revcat} = \text{loop } (\text{flip } (:))$ so

$$\text{reverse} = \text{loop } (\text{flip } (:)) \ []$$

12.1 Flattening trees

The flatten function for

```

> data BTree a = Leaf a | Fork (BTree a) (BTree a)

```

is $\text{flatten} :: BTree \alpha \rightarrow [\alpha]$ for which

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{flatten } (\text{Leaf } x) &= [x] \\
 \text{flatten } (\text{Fork } ls \ rs) &= \text{flatten } ls \ ++ \ \text{flatten } rs
 \end{aligned}$$

The length of the result is the number of leaves in the tree, the size of the tree

$$size = foldBTree (const 1) (+)$$

however in general it takes more steps than that to produce it.

To flatten a balanced tree of size n there will be a $(++)$ at the root that takes about $\frac{1}{2}n$ steps, below that two that take $\frac{1}{4}n$ steps each, and so on, which amounts to about $\frac{1}{2}n \log n$ steps. If the tree has a long left spine, the algorithm can be as bad as quadratic.

As before the insight is that to eliminate the $(++)$ we should specify

$$flatcat\ t\ ys = flatten\ t ++ ys$$

and synthesise

$$\begin{aligned} & flatcat\ (Leaf\ x)\ ys \\ = & \{ \text{specification of } flatcat \} \\ & flatten\ (Leaf\ x) ++ ys \\ = & \{ \text{definition of } flatten \} \\ & [x] ++ ys \\ = & \{ \text{definition of } (++) \} \\ & x : ys \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & flatcat\ (Fork\ ls\ rs)\ ys \\ = & \{ \text{specification of } flatcat \} \\ & flatten\ (Fork\ ls\ rs) ++ ys \\ = & \{ \text{definition of } flatten \} \\ & (flatten\ ls ++ flatten\ rs) ++ ys \\ = & \{ \text{associativity of } (++) \} \\ & flatten\ ls ++ (flatten\ rs ++ ys) \\ = & \{ \text{specification of } flatcat \} \\ & flatcat\ ls\ (flatcat\ rs\ ys) \end{aligned}$$

so $flatcat = foldBTree\ (:)\ (\cdot)$ and $flatten\ t = foldBTree\ (:)\ (\cdot)\ t\ []$. Relying on the associativity of $(++)$, synthesis has produced a linear algorithm from a less efficient one.

12.2 Associativity and folds

When is $fold\ (\oplus)\ e = loop\ (\otimes)\ f$?

Suppose we try to prove this by induction. It is chain complete, and both sides are strict. Applying both sides to $[]$ shows that it is necessary that $e = f$. The substantial part of the proof is

$$\begin{aligned}
 & fold (\oplus) e (x : xs) \\
 = & \{ \text{definition of } fold \} \\
 & x \oplus fold (\oplus) e xs \\
 = & \{ \text{lemma to be proved} \} \\
 & loop (\otimes) (e \otimes x) xs \\
 = & \{ \text{definition of } loop \} \\
 & loop (\otimes) e (x : xs)
 \end{aligned}$$

The essence of the result is the missing lemma, again to be proved by induction.

The assertion to be proved is chain complete. If $xs = \perp$ conclude that $x \oplus \perp = \perp$ for all x , so (\oplus) must be strict in its second argument. If $xs = []$ conclude that $e \otimes x = x \oplus e$. The substantial part of the proof of the lemma is

$$\begin{aligned}
 & loop (\otimes) (e \otimes x) (y : ys) \\
 = & \{ \text{definition of } loop \} \\
 & loop (\otimes) ((e \otimes x) \otimes y) ys \\
 = & \{ \text{suppose } (a \otimes b) \otimes c = a \otimes (b \otimes c) \} \\
 & loop (\otimes) (e \otimes (x \otimes y)) ys \\
 = & \{ \text{induction hypothesis} \} \\
 & (x \otimes y) \oplus fold (\oplus) e ys \\
 = & \{ \text{suppose } (a \otimes b) \oplus c = a \otimes (b \oplus c) \} \\
 & x \oplus (y \oplus fold (\oplus) e ys) \\
 = & \{ \text{definition of } fold \} \\
 & x \oplus fold (\oplus) e (y : ys)
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that this is a proof for all values of x , and the induction hypothesis is that it holds for a particular ys and all values in the x position, in particular $(x \otimes y)$.

Collecting the requirements:

$$fold (\oplus) e = loop (\otimes) e$$

is proved for right-strict (\oplus) , provided $e \otimes x = x \oplus e$ and provided there is a (\otimes) for which $a \otimes (b \otimes c) = (a \otimes b) \otimes c$ and $(a \otimes b) \oplus c = a \otimes (b \oplus c)$. The obvious case is when all three of (\oplus) , (\otimes) and (\odot) are equal, are right-strict, are associative,

and have e as a left and right unit.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sum} &= \text{fold } (+) \ 0 = \text{loop } (+) \ 0 \\ \text{product} &= \text{fold } (\times) \ 1 = \text{loop } (\times) \ 1 \\ \text{concat} &= \text{fold } (++) \ [] \neq \text{loop } (++) \ [] \end{aligned}$$

This last inequality is possible because $xs ++ \perp \neq \perp$. The *fold* form produces output when applied to an infinite list of lists provided at least one of them is non-empty, but the *loop* form cannot produce any output for an infinite (or partial) input.

12.3 Bounding space

One reason for preferring *loop* $(+) \ 0$ to *fold* $(+) \ 0$ is that the *fold* is generally obliged to build up the whole expression before any evaluation:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{fold } (+) \ 0 \ [1, 2, 3, 4] \\ &= 1 + \text{fold } (+) \ 0 \ [2, 3, 4] \\ &= 1 + (2 + \text{fold } (+) \ 0 \ [3, 4]) \\ &= 1 + (2 + (3 + \text{fold } (+) \ 0 \ [4])) \\ &= 1 + (2 + (3 + (4 + \text{fold } (+) \ 0 \ []))) \\ &= 1 + (2 + (3 + (4 + 0))) \\ &= 1 + (2 + (3 + 4)) \\ &= 1 + (2 + 7) \\ &= 1 + 9 \\ &= 10 \end{aligned}$$

whereas the *loop* can safely evaluate the expression as it goes. In practice, because of lazy evaluation

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{loop } (+) \ 0 \ [1, 2, 3, 4] \\ &= \text{loop } (+) \ (0 + 1) \ [2, 3, 4] \\ &= \text{loop } (+) \ ((0 + 1) + 2) \ [3, 4] \\ &= \text{loop } (+) \ (((0 + 1) + 2) + 3) \ [4] \\ &= \text{loop } (+) \ ((((0 + 1) + 2) + 3) + 4) \ [] \\ &= (((0 + 1) + 2) + 3) + 4 \\ &= ((1 + 2) + 3) + 4 \\ &= (3 + 3) + 4 \\ &= 6 + 4 \\ &= 10 \end{aligned}$$

the same space build-up can happen. To prevent it, *loop* would have to be made strict in this argument.

```
> loop' s n [] = n
> loop' s (!n) (x:xs) = loop' s (s n x) xs
```

The `!` decoration ensures that the argument is evaluated before the recursive call. (This decoration is now a language extension in Haskell and requires a flag, or the pragma `{-# LANGUAGE BangPatterns #-}` at the top of a script.)

12.4 Fast exponentiation

On the face of it, calculating x^n appears to require about n multiplications. But multiplication is associative, so $x^{2n} = (x^2)^n$ and x^{2n} can be calculated in only one more multiplication than x^n . So we could specify $\text{pow } x \ n = x^n$ and synthesize

```
pow x 0 = 1
pow x n | even n = pow (x*x) (n `div` 2)
        | odd  n = pow x (n-1) * x
```

This function will be called no more than $2 \log n$ times in x^n .

However, just like the *fold* version of *product*, this function must unnecessarily build up a big expression before any evaluation. Specify $\text{power } y \ x \ n = \text{pow } x \ n \times y$ and synthesize

```
power y x 0 = pow x 0 * y
            = 1 * y
            = y
power y x n | even n = pow x n * y
            = pow (x * x) (n `div` 2) * y
            = power y (x * x) (n `div` 2)
power y x n | odd  n = pow x n * y
            = (pow x (n-1) * x) * y
            = pow x (n-1) * (x * y)
            = power (x * y) x (n-1)
```

We could also abstract on the multiplication:

```
> power (*) y x n -- x^n*y
>      | n == 0 = y
>      | even n = power (*) y (x*x) (n `div` 2)
>      | odd  n = power (*) (x*y) x (n-1)
```

Notice that the development of this code used only the associativity of (\times) , so it will calculate other repeated operations such as repeated matrix multiplication.

Exercises

12.1 A *queue* is a data type with (at least) four operations

```
> empty    :: Queue a
> isEmpty  :: Queue a -> Bool
> add      :: a -> Queue a -> Queue a
> get      :: Queue a -> (a, Queue a)
```

The value of *empty* is a queue with nothing in it; a queue satisfies *isEmpty* if all of the values that have been added to it have already been removed; *add* puts a value into a queue; and *get* returns the oldest value still waiting in the queue, along with a queue from which just that value has been removed.

Implement a queue type using a list of the elements in the queue in the order in which they joined. That is, give a declaration of the *Queue* type, and implement each of these four functions.

Estimate roughly how expensive your operations are. Would your answer be any different if the queue were represented by a list of its remaining elements in the reverse of the order in which they join the queue?

Reimplement the *Queue* using two lists of elements, *front* and *back* so that the elements in the queue are those in the list *front* ++ reverse *back*. What effect does this have on the cost of the operations?

12.2 The Fibonacci sequence

```
> fib 0 = 0
> fib 1 = 1
> fib n = fib (n-1) + fib (n-2)
```

grows very quickly (each value is about 1.6 times bigger than its predecessor).

Use this definition in a GHCi script and try evaluating *fib* 10, *fib* 20 and *fib* 30. Give a brief explanation of why the later calls are so slow.

Let $two\ n = (fib\ n, fib\ (n+1))$, and synthesize a definition of *two* by direct recursion. Use this to give a more efficient definition of *fib*. How does the time it takes to calculate *fib* *n* in this way depend on *n*?

Roughly how big is the 10 000th Fibonacci number? You might want to use

```
> roughly :: Integer -> String
> roughly n = x : 'e' : show (length xs) where x:xs = show n
```

to produce a readable estimate.

Let F be the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and F^n be its *n*th power, the product of *n* copies of it.

Explain why $F^n = \begin{pmatrix} fib\ (n-1) & fib\ n \\ fib\ n & fib\ (n+1) \end{pmatrix}$ for $n \geq 1$. Use the function *power* from the lecture notes to calculate F^n in no more than about $2 \log n$

matrix multiplications, and use this to give another more efficient definition of *fib*.

Roughly how big is the 1 000 000th Fibonacci number?

12.3 Recall that the Haskell function

```
error :: String -> a
```

never terminates successfully, but prints out a message including its argument. Using the definitions of *loop* and *loop'* from the lectures, and a function

```
> test f = f (const error) () ["strict","lazy"]
```

try to predict what happens when you evaluate each of *test loop* and *test loop'*.

Use GHCi to check your prediction, and explain the difference between the two.

What about *test fold!*?