Advanced Functional Programming: Strongly Typed Vector Implementation

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1 Why

Probably essentially a reimplementation of the functionality in vector-sized and numpy, reverse engineering some things of type-combinators, using constraints. All while avoiding the built-in GHC. TypeNats and their coerced axioms.

The project desires to encode the size of vectors in their type, so that we avoid out of bounds errors or operating on incompatible size vectors.

2 Tricks I used and am now forced to explain

2.1 Singletons

Rather than [should probably use lhs2TeX or so] data Vec a = \dots we would like our vector type to mention the size n like:

data Vec n a = ...

Because n is a type parameter, n should obviously be a type. Unfortunately n:: Int is not a type (nor should we expect negative lengths). [Let us ignore Nat because that makes it impossible for us to reason about Nats (unless we force our axioms into existence)] As a result we will construct n ourselves, for this we use the datatype

data N = Z | S N

Here Z encodes 0, while S n encodes n+1.

Using the DataKinds, we promote data constructors to type constructors. Simply put, Z and S are promoted to the types 'Z and 'S. Particularly, the only

value of 'Z is Z, while 'S takes n :: 'n to S n :: 'S 'n. This is why we refer to these as **singleton** types.

2.2 GADTs

Not all that tricky or confusing, but the generalization turns out to be necessary.

Our vector type becomes

```
data Vec n a where
    VN :: Vec 'Z a
    VC :: a -> Vec n a -> Vec ('S n) a
```

Similar to [] :: [a], VN represents the empty vector, while VC prepends an element to the vector.

Note that Vec is strictly GADT, since the type depends on the constructor. With this we can already define most size-safe binary operators on Vec.

To safely index a vector, we need a type for allowed indices. For this we use Fin n, the type representing a set of n elements. If we use shorthand $n = \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$, then the FZ :: Fin ('S n) constructor asserts that $0 \in n$ for any $n \ge 1$, while FS :: Fin ('S n) \rightarrow Fin ('S n') asserts that if $n \in m$, then $n+1 \in m+1$.

2.3 Dependent types

Suppose we wanted an analogue for np.full, and we tried to write down the type:

```
full :: a \rightarrow N \rightarrow Vec a n
```

This is not going to work, because n would be unbound, while it should be specified by the N argument. Unfortunately, Haskell is not Agda, so we cannot write something like $a \rightarrow (n :: N) \rightarrow Vec \ a \ n$. We will need something to carry n on the type level, so we define

```
data Nat n where
   NZ :: Nat 'Z
   NS :: Nat n -> Nat ('S n)
```

mirroring N. With this we can define full :: $a \rightarrow Nat n \rightarrow Vec a n$, so that the Nat n argument both binds and represents the value n.

2.4 Known/representable

Clearly we cannot define a (meaningful) function $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ at \mathbb{n} , otherwise we would not have had to introduce \mathbb{N} at in the first place.

However, this also obstructs defining size :: Fin $n \to Nat$ n, as pattern matching FZ :: Fin 'n does not provide a value n :: 'n.

The common solution, expounded on the master branch, uses class

```
class Known n where
  nat :: Nat n
```

and defines the obvious instances for 'Z and 'S n. This lets us write size = nat, provided we add the constraint size :: Known n => Fin n \rightarrow Nat n.

However, an alternate approach, as on the unknown branch, is to rewrite Fin n so that each constructor *does* provide sufficient information to recover n. To me, it is unclear whether we will find a situation that actually forces us to rely on Known.

2.5 Constraints

The current implementation of the determinant det :: (Known n, Num a) => Vec (Vec a n) n -> a relies on Known n to provide indices to compute the signs in the sum of the minors (which is somewhat contrived, because it can also be rewritten to not).

Here, det calls minor on smaller matrices, which also requires Known n. However, Known n cannot be deduced from Known ('S n), nor can we add an instance Known ('S n) => Known n, as that would be incoherent with respect to the necessary instance Known n => Known ('S n).

We remedy this with the tools provided by the constraints package, which lets us handle instances as values via Dict :: $a \Rightarrow Dict a$. For example, we could convert instances $a \Rightarrow b$ into entailments as a :- b or equivalently Dict $a \Rightarrow Dict b$.

The key to using Dict p, is that when such a value is pattern matched, the instance p is brought into scope. If used correctly, one can bring Known n into scope precisely when it is not deducible from the context, avoiding overlap and incoherence.

To deduce Known n from Known ('S n), we use the lemma

```
know :: Nat n -> Dict (Known n)
know NZ = Dict -- 'Z is Known by definition.
know (NS n) = case know n of -- if n is Known,
    Dict -> Dict -- then 'S n is Known.
```

stating that if we can construct Nat n, then n is also Known. With this, we can prove the intuitive Known ('S n) => Known n

Now we can apply ${\tt x}$

(down Dict :: Dict (Known n)), which evaluates x in the context of Known n, while we were only given Known ('S n).

2.6 Type families and operators

Consider vector concatenation vConc :: Vec n a -> Vec m a -> Vec k a. Clearly k=n+m, however, there is no + on the type level. We see that + should send two types n,m to a type representing their sum.

That is, + is a family of types indexed by n, m:

```
type family (n :: N) + (m :: N) :: N

type instance 'Z + m = m

type instance ('S n) + m = 'S (n + m)
```

The instances represent the usual addition rules in Peano arithmetic. We can now define $vConc :: Vec a n \rightarrow Vec a m \rightarrow Vec a (n + m)$ in the usual way, while the rules ensure that types like Vec (n + m) a behave nicely with respect to VC and such.