Plugging a Space Leak with an Arrow

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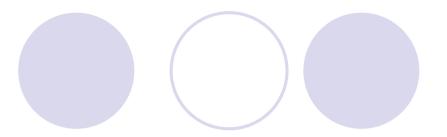
Background: FRP and Yampa

- Functional Reactive Programming (FRP) is based on two simple ideas:
 - Continuous time-varying values, and
 - Discrete streams of events.
- Yampa is an "arrowized" version of FRP.
- Besides foundational issues, we (and others) have applied FRP and Yampa to:
 - Animation and video games.
 - Robotics and other control applications.
 - O Graphical user interfaces.
 - Models of biological cell development.
 - Music and signal processing.
 - Scripting parallel processes.

Behaviors in FRP

- Continuous behaviors capture any time-varying quantity, whether:
 - ○input (sonar, temperature, video, etc.),
 - Output (actuator voltage, velocity vector, etc.), or
 - Ointermediate values internal to a program.
- Operations on behaviors include:
 - Generic operations such as arithmetic, integration, differentiation, and time-transformation.
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Events in FRP

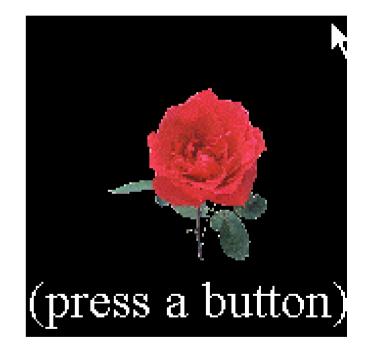


- Discrete event streams include user input as well as domain-specific sensors, asynchronous messages, interrupts, etc.
- They also include tests for dynamic constraints on behaviors (temperature too high, level too low, etc.)
- Operations on event streams include:
 - OMapping, filtering, reduction, etc.
 - Reactive behavior modification (next slide).

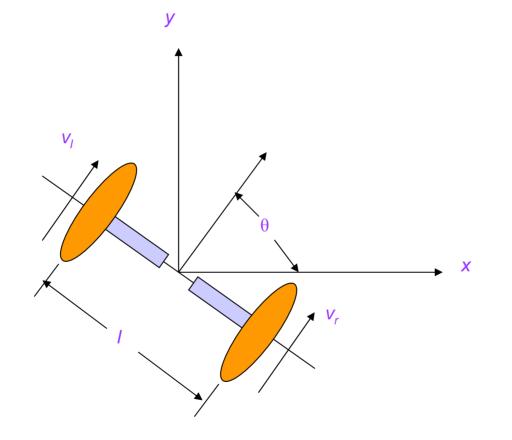
An Example from Graphics (Fran)

A single animation example that demonstrates key aspects of FRP:

```
growFlower = stretch size flower
where size = 1 + integral bSign
bSign =
0 `until`
(lbp ==> -1 `until` lbr ==> bSign) .|.
(rbp ==> 1 `until` rbr ==> bSign)
```



Differential Drive Mobile Robot



An Example from Robotics

The equations governing the x position of a differential drive robot are:

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t (v_r(t) + v_l(t)) \cos(\theta(t)) dt$$

$$\theta(t) = \frac{1}{l} \int_0^t (v_r(t) - v_l(t)) dt$$

The corresponding FRP code is:

```
x = (1/2) * (integral ((vr + vl) * cos theta) theta = (1/1) * (integral (vr - vl))
```

(Note the lack of explicit time.)

Time and Space Leaks

Behaviors in FRP are what we now call signals, whose (abstract) type is:

```
Signal a = Time \rightarrow a
```

- Unfortunately, unrestricted access to signals makes it far too easy to generate both *time* and *space* leaks.
- (Time leaks occur in real-time systems when a computation does not "keep up" with the current time, thus requiring "catching up" at a later time.)
- Fran, Frob, and FRP all suffered from this problem to some degree.

Solution: no signals!

- To minimize time and space leaks, do not provide signals as first-class values.
- Instead, provide signal transformers, or what we prefer to call signal functions:

SF a b = Signal a -> Signal b

- SF is an abstract type. Operations on it provide a disciplined way to compose signals.
- This also provides a more modular design.
- SF is an arrow so we use arrow combinators to structure the composition of signal functions, and domain-specific operations for standard FRP concepts.

A Larger Example

```
Recall this FRP definition:

x = (1/2) (integral ((vr + vl) * cos theta))
Assume that:

vrSF, vlSF :: SF SimbotInput Speed

theta :: SF SimbotInput Angle

then we can rewrite x in Yampa like this:

xSF :: SF SimbotInput Distance

xSF = let v = (vrSF&&&vlSF) >>> arr2 (+)

t = thetaSF >>> arr cos

in (v&&&t) >>> arr2 (*) >>> integral >>> arr (/2)
```

Yikes!!! Is this as clear as the original code??

Arrow Syntax

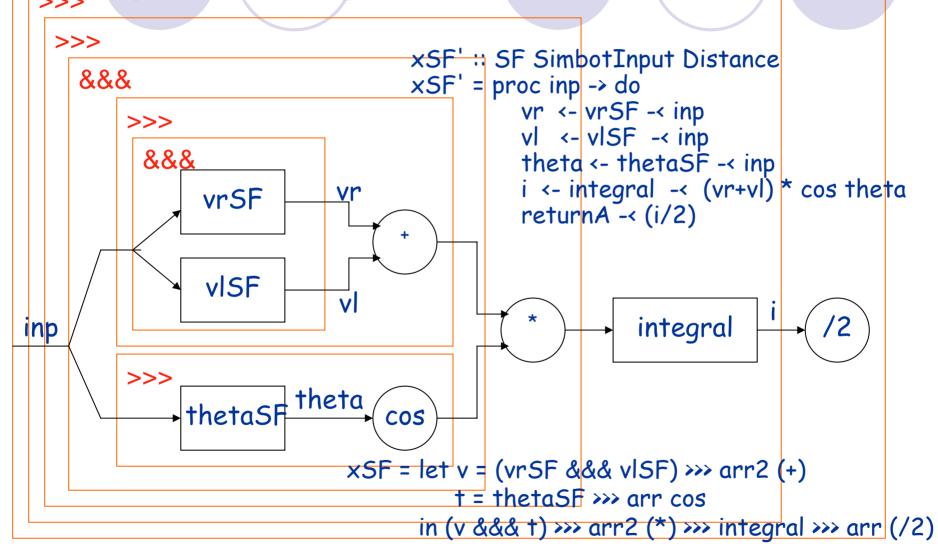
Using Paterson's arrow syntax, we can instead write:

xSF' :: SF SimbotInput Distance xSF' = proc inp -> do vr <- vrSF -< inp vl <- vlSF -< inp theta <- thetaSF -< inp i <- integral -< (vr+vl) * cos theta returnA -< (i/2)</pre>

Feel better? 🙂

- Note that vr, v1, theta, and i are signal samples, and not the signals themselves. Similarly, expressions to the right of "-<" denote signal samples.</p>
- Read "proc inp -> ..." as "\ inp -> ..." in Haskell. Read "vr <- vrsf -< inp" as "vr = vrsf inp" in Haskell.</p>

Graphical Depiction



A Recursive Mystery

- Our use of arrows was motivated by *performance* and *modularity*.
- But the improvement in performance seemed better than expected, and happened for FRP programs that looked Ok to us.
- Many of the problems seemed to occur with recursive signals, and had nothing to do with signals not being abstract enough.
- Further investigation of recursive signals is what the rest of this talk is about.
- We will see that arrows do indeed improve performance, but not just for the reasons that we first imagined!

Representing Signals

Conceptually, signals are represented by: signal a ≈ Time -> a

- Pragmatically, this will not do: stateful signals could require re-computation at every time-step.
- Two possible alternatives:

○ *Stream-based* implementation:

newtype S a = S ([DTime] -> [a])

(similar to that used in SOE and original FRP)

○ *Continuation-based* implementation:

newtype C a = C (a, DTime \rightarrow C a)

(similar to that used in later FRP and Yampa)

(DTime is the domain of time intervals, or "delta times".)

Integration: A Stateful Computation

- For convenience, we include an initialization argument: integral :: a -> Signal a -> Signal a
- Concrete definitions:

```
integralS :: Double -> S Double -> S Double
integralS i (S f) =
   S (\dts -> scanl (+) i (zipWith (*) dts (f dts))
```

```
integralC :: Double -> C Double -> C Double
integralC i (C p) =
        C (i, \dt -> integralC (i + fst p * dt) (snd p dt))
```

"Running" a Signal

Need a function to produce results:

```
run :: Signal a -> [a]
```

- For simplicity, we fix the delta time dt -- but this is not true in practice!
- Concretely:

```
runS :: S a ->[a]
runS (S f) = f (repeat dt)
runC :: C a -> [a]
runC (C p) = first p : runC (snd p dt)
dt = 0.001
```

So far so good…

Example: The Exponential Function

Consider this definition:

$$e(t) = 1 + \int_0^t e(t)dt$$

Or, in our Haskell framework:

eS :: S Double eS = integralS 1 eS eC :: C Double eC = integralC 1 eC

Looks good... but is it really?

Space/ Time Leak!

Let int = integralc, run = runc, and recall:

int i (C p) = C (i, $dt \rightarrow int (i+fst p*dt) (snd p dt)$ run (C p) = first p : run (snd p dt)

```
Then we can unwind ec:
 eC = int 1 eC
    = C (1, dt \rightarrow int (1+fst p*dt) (snd p dt))
    = C (1, dt \rightarrow int (1+1*dt) (dt))
 run eC
 = run (C (1,q))
 = 1 : run (q dt)
 = 1 : run (int (1+dt) (q dt))
 = 1 : run (C (1+dt, \dt-> int (1+dt*(1+dt)*dt) (· dt)))
  . . .
This leads to O(n) space and O(n^2) time to compute n
 elements! (Instead of O(1) and O(n).)
```

Streams are no better

- Recall: int i (s f) = s (\dts -> scanl (+) i (zipWith (*) dts (f dts))
- This leads to the same $O(n^2)$ behavior as before.

Signal Functions

Instead of signals, suppose we focus on signal functions. Conceptually:

```
SigFun a b = Signal a -> Signal b
```

Concretely using continuations:

newtype CF a b = CF (a \rightarrow (b, DTime \rightarrow CF a b))

Integration over CF:

integralCF :: Double -> CF Double Double integralCF i = CF (\x-> (i,\dt-> integralCF (i+dt*x)))

Composition over CF:

Running a CF:

Look Ma, No Leaks!

 This program still leaks: eCF = integralCF 1 ^. eCF
 But suppose we define:

Then this program:

```
eCF = fixCF (integralCF 1)
```

does not leak!! It runs in constant space and linear time.

To see why...

Recall: int i = CF ($\langle x \rangle$ -> (i, $\langle dt \rangle$ -> int (i+dt*x))) fix (CF f) = CF (\() -> let (y, c) = f y in $(y, dt \rightarrow fix (c dt))$ run (CF f) = let (i,g) = f() in i : run (g dt)Unwinding ecr: fix (int 1) = fix (CF (\x-> (1, \dt-> int (1+dt*x)))) = CF (\()-> let (y,c) = (1, \dt-> int (1+dt*y)) in (y, $dt \rightarrow fix (c dt)$) = CF (\()-> (1, \dt-> fix (int (1+dt)))) run () = let (i,g) = $(1, \dt -> fix (int (1+dt)))$ in i : run (g dt) = 1 : run (fix (int (1+dt*y))) In short, fixcr creates a "tighter" loop than Haskell's fix.

Mystery Solved

 Casting all this into the arrow framework reveals why Yampa is better behaved than FRP. In particular:

```
Compare loop to:
```

Alternative Solution

- Recall this unwinding: eC = int 1 eC $= C (1, \dt-> int (1+1*dt) (\cdot dt))$ q
- The problem is that (q dt) is not recognized as being the same as q. What we'd really like is:
 - = C (1, $dt \rightarrow int (1+1*dt)$ ·)

= C (1, dt-> let loop = int (1+dt) loop in loop

- But this needs to happen on each step in the computation, and thus needs to be part of the evaluation strategy.
- Indeed, both optimal reduction [Levy,Lamping] and (interestingly) completely lazy evaluation [Sinot] do this, and the space / time leak goes away!

Final Thoughts

- Being able to redefine recursion (via fix) is a Good Thing!
- What is the "correct" evaluation strategy for a compiler?
- John Hughes' original motivation for arrows arose out of the desire to plug a space leak in monadic parsers – is this just a coincidence?
- There are many other performance issues involving arrows (e.g. excessive tupling) and we are exploring optimization methods (e.g. using arrows laws, zip/unzip fusion, etc).
- An ambitous goal: real-time sound generation for Haskore / HasSound on stock hardware.



The End

Monadic Parsers



Need failure and choice: class Monad m => MonadZero m where zero :: m a class MonadZero m => MonadPlus m where (++) :: m a -> m a -> m a

- p1 ++ p2 means "try parse p1 if it fails, then try p2."
- A monadic parser based on:

data Parser s $a = P([s] \rightarrow Maybe(a,[s]))$

leads to a space leak:

processing p1 ++ p2 requires holding on to the stream being parsed by p1.

Plugging the Leak

This problem can be fixed through some cleverness that leads to this representation of parsers:

data Parser s a = P (StaticP s) (DynamicP s a)

The cleverness requires that (++) see the static part of both of its arguments – but there's no way to achieve this with bind:

(>>=) :: Parser s a -> (a -> Parser s b) -> Parser s b)

What to do? Make "(a -> Parser s b)" abstract - i.e. define an arrow Parser a b.

Arrows

- A b c is the arrow type of computations that take inputs of type b and produce outputs of type c.
- The arrow combinators impose a point-free programming style:

arr ::
$$(b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow A b c$$
 arr f:
(>>>) :: A b c $\rightarrow A c d \rightarrow A b d$ f >>> g:
first :: A b c $\rightarrow A (b,d) (c,d)$ first f:
(***) :: A b d $\rightarrow A c e \rightarrow A (b,c)_{b} (d,e) - f *** g:$
Every pure function may be
treated as a computation
composed sequentially
Two computations can be
composed in parallel
d $f = \frac{c}{g} d$

Arrow and ArrowLoop classes

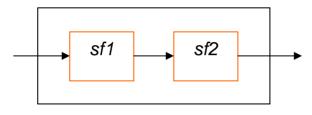
 As with monads, we use type classes to capture the arrow combinators.

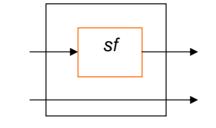
> class Arrow a where arr :: (b -> c) -> a b c (>>>) :: a b c -> a c d -> a b d first :: a b c -> a (b,d) (c,d)

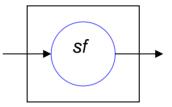
class Arrow a => ArrowLoop a where loop :: a (b,d) (c,d) -> a b c

(100P can be thought of as a *fixpoint operator* for arrows.)

Graphical Depiction of Arrow Combinators



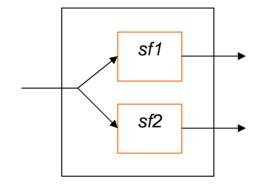


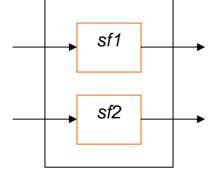


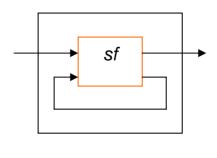
sf1 >>> sf2











sf1 &&& sf2



loop sf

Signal Functions in Yampa

- Conceptually: sF a b = signal a -> signal b
- But it is more efficient to design from scratch:

```
data SF a b = SF (a -> (b, DTime -> SF a b))

instance Arrow SF where

arr f x = (f x, \dt -> arr f)

first f (x, z) = ((y, z), first . f')

where (y, f') = f x

(f >>> g) x = (z, \dt -> f' dt >>> g' dt)

where (y, f') = f x

(z, g') = g y
```

```
instance ArrowLoop SF where
loop f x = (y, loop . f')
where ((y, z), f') = f (x, z)
```

(Note "tight" recursion.)