

# Types and Recursion

COMP2600 / COMP6260

Dirk Pattinson  
Australian National University

Semester 2, 2015

# Induction and Recursion

The main theme:

- Inductive types
- Recursively defined functions
- Proofs by structural induction

The above are closely linked!

# Enumerated Types

Examples:

```
data Temp      = Cold      | Hot
data Season    = Spring    | Summer    | Autumn    | Winter
```

A function from one enumerated type to another:

```
weather :: Season -> Temp
weather Summer = Hot
weather _      = Cold
```

- Note the keyword `data`
- Enumerated type: finite number of nullary data constructors
- `_` is a *wildcard*: matches everything but binds nothing
- What happens if we swap the last two lines of `weather`?

# Datatypes and Constructors

A voter is distinguished by full name and address

```
data Voter = MkVoter String String
```

`MkVoter` is a data constructor. It takes 2 arguments and constructs a `Voter`

```
MkVoter :: String -> String -> Voter
```

```
MkVoter "Alan Turing" "Milton Keynes, UK"
```

`Voter` is a type constructor. It has no arguments.

```
Voter :: *
```

Values have types, and types have *kinds*.

A type which takes no arguments has kind `*`.

# Datatypes with Alternatives

```
data Box = Square      Float
         | Rectangle   Float Float

Square :: Float -> Box
Rectangle :: Float -> Float -> Box

boxArea :: Box -> Float
boxArea (Square a)      = a * a
boxArea (Rectangle a b) = a * b
```

- Which are the *type constructors* and which are the *data constructors*?
- When we write functions over types with alternatives, we must remember to handle each case.
- What would happen if we left off the last line of `boxArea`?

# Recursive and Polymorphic Types

Lists are a recursive data type. We could define them as follows:

```
data List      = Nil
               | Cons Int List

someList = Cons 2 (Cons 3 (Cons 5 Nil))
```

However, we'd prefer to have lists of any type, not just integers.

```
data List a = Nil
            | Cons a (List a)
```

Now `List` is a type constructor which takes another type as its argument.

```
Nil  :: List a
Cons :: a -> List a -> List a
```

# Kinds

An example value of type `String` is:

```
"I am a String!"
```

An example value of type `List Char` is:

```
Cons 'b' (Cons 'r' (Cons 'a' (Cons 'p' Nil)))
```

What is an example value of type `List` ? ... (There isn't one).

A list has to be a list of things of *some type*

The `List` type constructor takes a type and returns a new type. It has *kind*:

```
List :: * -> *
```

It is like a *function* in the world of *types*

# Haskell List Syntax

Haskell has a special syntax for lists.

The structure is the same, but the names are different.

```
data [a] = []  
        | a : [a]
```

`[]` as a data constructor, is similar to `Nil`.

`(:)` is similar to `Cons`, but we use it *infix*.

`[ ]` as a type constructor is similar to `List`, but we use it *outfix*.

This special syntax is an example of *syntactic sugar*.

For example, try the following at a HUGS/GHCI console:

```
:type (:)
```

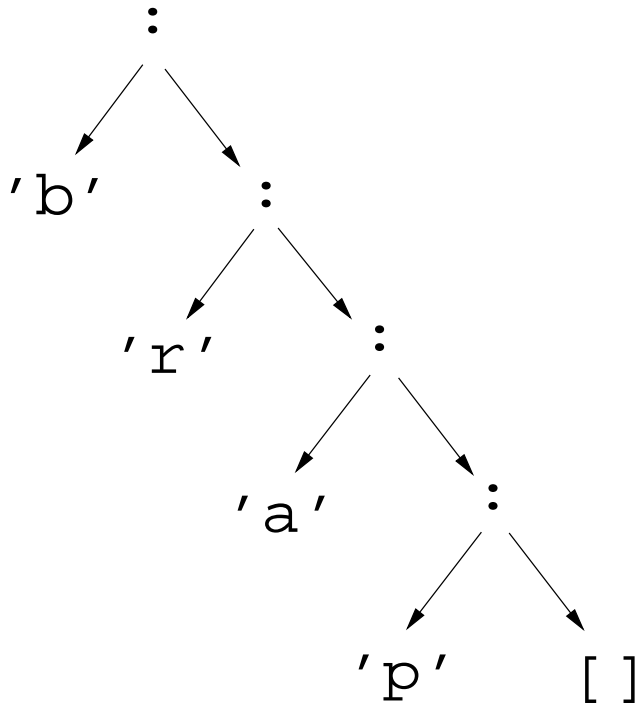


# Lists and Strings

In Haskell:

```
type String = [Char]
```

To the left of a cons is an element, and to the right is *another list*.

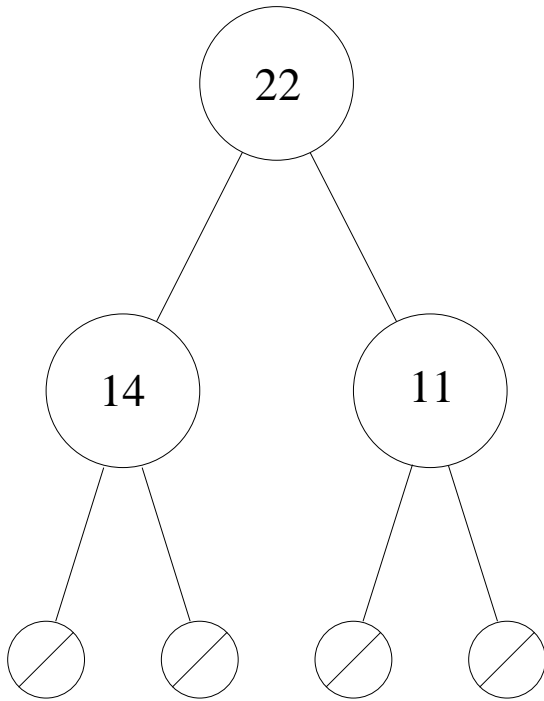


```
list = "brap"  
     = ['b', 'r', 'a', 'p']  
     = 'b' : ('r' : ('a' : ('p' : [])))
```

# Binary Trees

Binary trees are *multiply recursive*:

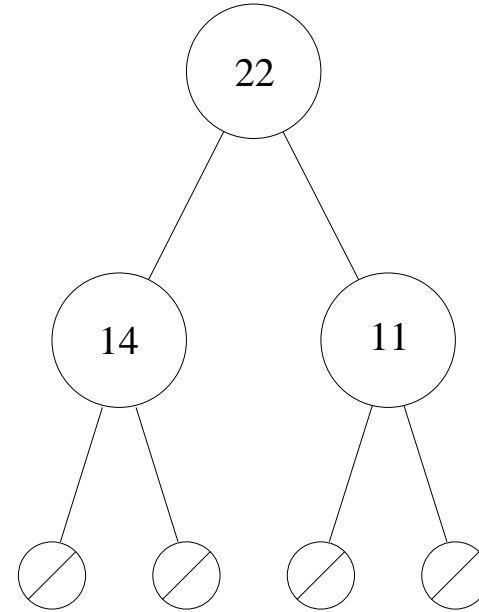
```
data Tree a
    = Nul | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)
```



```
Node 22 (Node 14 Nul Nul) (Node 11 Nul Nul)
```

# Summing the elements of a tree

```
sum :: Tree Int -> Int
sum Nul          = 0
sum (Node n t1 t2)
    = n + sum t1 + sum t2
```



Using our example tree:

```
sum (Node 22 (Node 14 Nul Nul) (Node 11 Nul Nul))
    ⇒ 22 + sum (Node 14 Nul Nul) + sum (Node 11 Nul Nul)
    ⇒ 22 + (14 + sum Nul + sum Nul) + (11 + sum Nul + sum Nul)
    ⇒ 22 + (14 + 0 + 0) + (11 + 0 + 0)
```

# Flattening a tree

```
flatten :: Tree a -> [a]
flatten Nul = []
flatten (Node a t1 t2)
    = flatten t1 ++ [a] ++ flatten t2
```

Or a nicer version, using an accumulator: this avoids multiple uses of `(++)` which take time proportional to the length of the first list.

`flatten' t acc` flattens tree `t` and appends it to list `acc`

```
flatten :: Tree a -> [a]
flatten tree = flatten' tree []

flatten' :: Tree a -> [a] -> [a]
flatten' Nul acc = acc
flatten' (Node a t1 t2) acc
    = flatten' t1 (a : flatten' t2 acc)
```

# Flattening a tree: example

Example of `flatten'`, using `⊥` for `Null` for brevity:

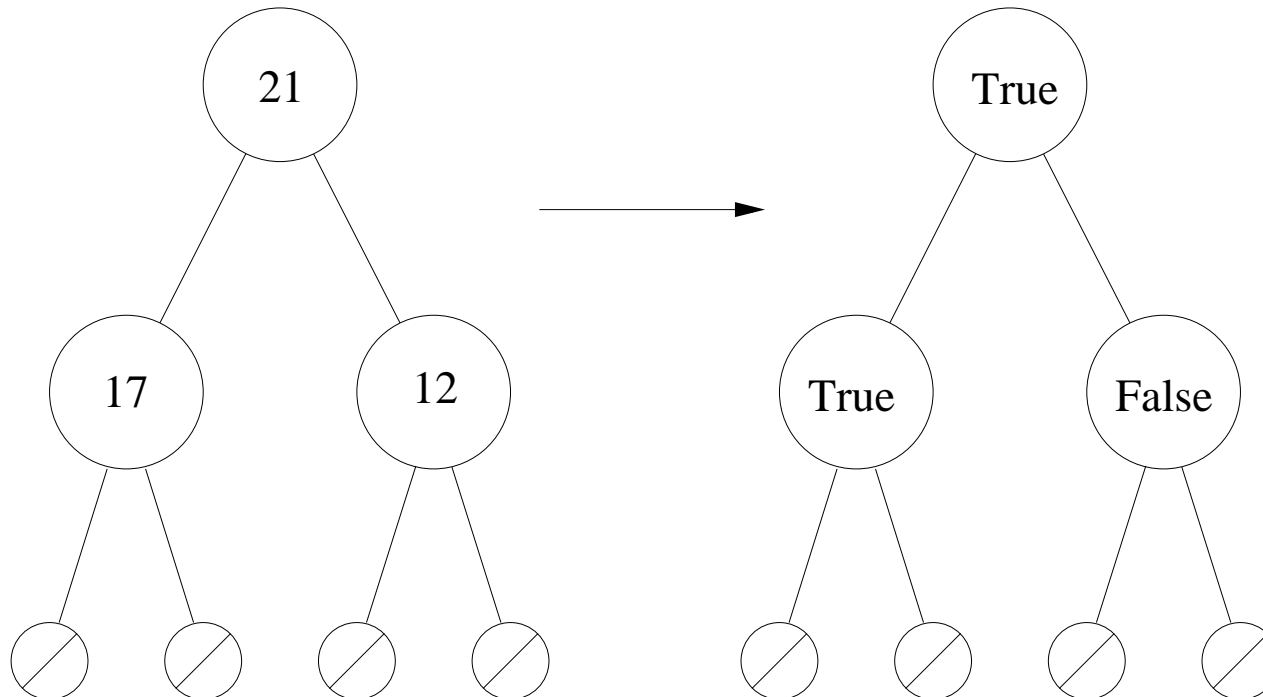
```
flatten' (Node 22 (Node 14 ⊥ ⊥) (Node 11 ⊥ ⊥)) []  
⇒ flatten' (Node 14 ⊥ ⊥) (22 : flatten' (Node 11 ⊥ ⊥) [])  
⇒ flatten' (Node 14 ⊥ ⊥) (22 : flatten' ⊥ (11 : flatten' ⊥ []))  
⇒ flatten' (Node 14 ⊥ ⊥) (22 : (11 : []))  
⇒ flatten' ⊥ (14 : flatten' ⊥ (22 : (11 : [])))  
⇒ (14 : flatten' ⊥ (22 : (11 : [])))  
⇒ (14 : (22 : (11 : [])))
```

# Mapping over Trees

The `map` function for trees is similar to the list version.

```
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
mapTree f Nul = Nul
mapTree f (Node x t1 t2)
    = Node (f x) (mapTree f t1) (mapTree f t2)
```

For example, we could map the oddness predicate over a tree of integers to give a tree of Boolean values (with the same structure).



# Expression Trees

Expressions in most languages (and compilers) are defined inductively.

The Glasgow Haskell Compiler uses an expression tree in the same spirit as:

```
data Op      = OAdd  | OSub  | OMul
              | OAnd  | ONot  | OEq  | OGt
```

```
data Lit     = LBool Bool | LInt Int
```

```
data Exp     = XLit Lit
              | XPrim Op Exp Exp
              | XIf   Exp Exp Exp
              ...
```

# Example

An example expression:

```
if (5 * 3) > 14 then (7 - 3) else (2 + 5)
```

Represented as a tree:

```
exp1
```

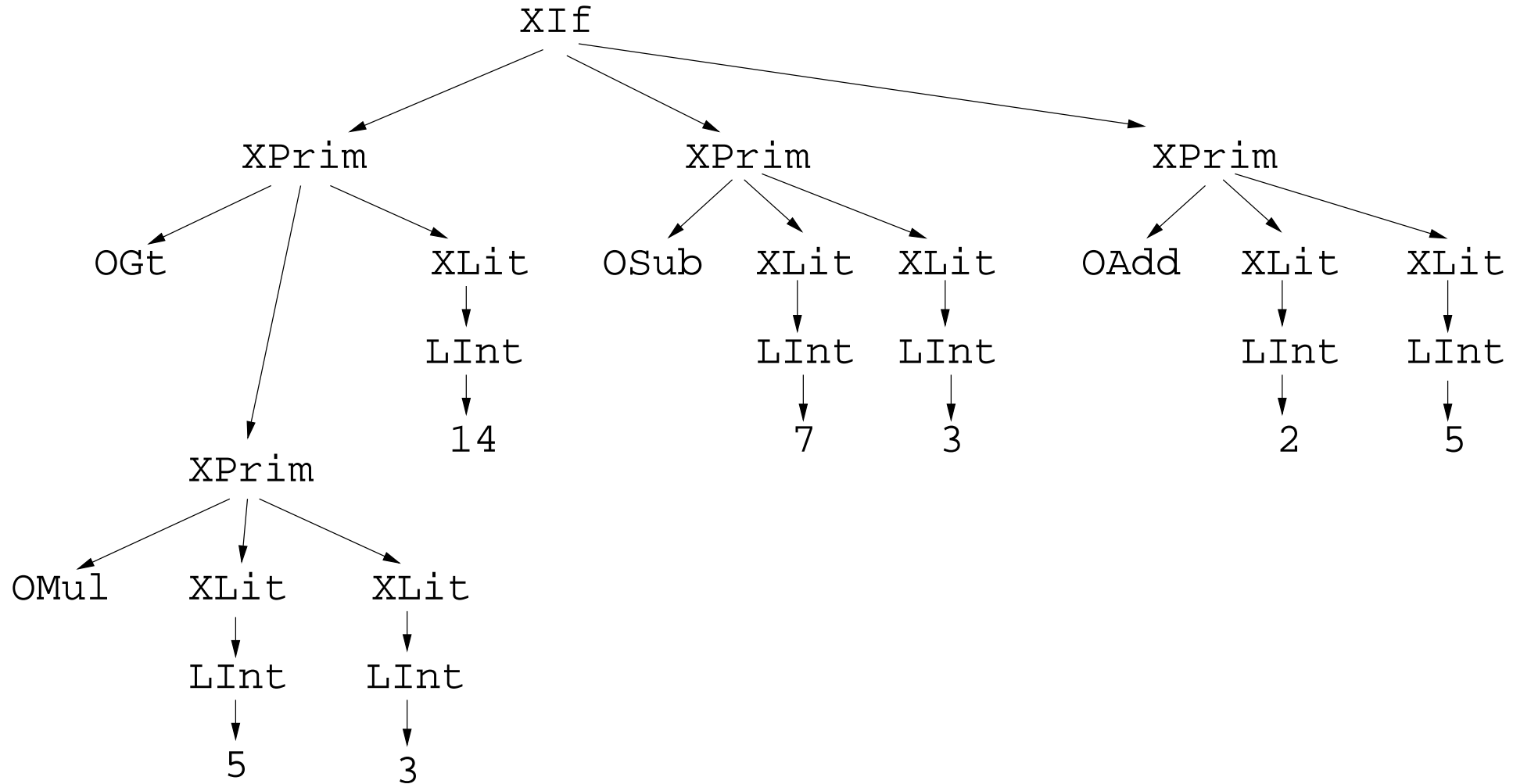
```
= XIf (XPrim OGt
      (XPrim OMul (XLit (LInt 5)) (XLit (LInt 3)))
      (XLit (LInt 14)))
  (XPrim OSub
    (XLit (LInt 7))
    (XLit (LInt 3)))
  (XPrim OAdd
    (XLit (LInt 2))
    (XLit (LInt 5)))
```



# Example

The same expression:

```
if (5 * 3) > 14 then (7 - 3) else (2 + 5)
```



# Evaluation

---

```
evalX :: Exp -> Lit
evalX (XLit 1)           = 1
evalX (XPrim OAdd x1 x2)
    = LInt (takeI (evalX x1) + takeI (evalX x2))
...
evalX (XIf x1 x2 x3)
    | takeB (evalX x1) = evalX x2
    | otherwise       = evalX x3
```

---

```
takeI :: Lit -> Int
takeI (LInt i) = i
takeI _       = error "takeI: not an int!"
```

---

# Expression Trees – Rewrites

Many useful compiler optimisations can be represented as local rewrites on the expression tree representing the program.

Here is a rewrite which evaluates a literal addition:

```
shortX :: Exp -> Exp
shortX (XPrim OAdd (XLit (LInt i1)) (XLit (LInt i2)))
= XLit (LInt (i1 + i2))
```

For example, we would like

```
if (5 * 3) > 14 then (7 - 3) else (2 + 5)
```

to rewrite to:

```
if (5 * 3) > 14 then (7 - 3) else 7
```

# Applying rewrites in a more general manner

We would prefer not to write code to walk over the tree every time we define a new rewrite.

Solution: use a map function to apply a simple rewrite to all sub-expressions:

```
mapX :: (Exp -> Exp) -> Exp -> Exp
```

```
mapX f (XLit l)  
    = f (XLit l)
```

```
mapX f (XPrim op x1 x2)  
    = f (XPrim op (mapX f x1) (mapX f x2))
```

```
mapX f (XIf x1 x2 x3)  
    = f (XIf (mapX f x1) (mapX f x2) (mapX f x3))
```

**Example:** see Expression.hs, compare `pprX exp1` and `pprX exp1r`.