Tutorial 7A: Ordered trees

In the previous Haskell tutorial, we looked at the following binary trees of integers:

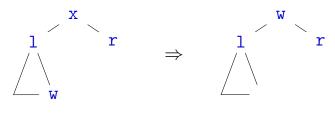
Note that the tree t is **ordered**: for every node, the values in the left subtree are all smaller than the value of the node, and those in the right subtree are all larger. Ordered trees are extremely useful, since (for instance) to find or insert an item you only need to traverse a single path from the root to a leaf. The longest such path is the **height** of the tree, and if the tree is **balanced**, i.e. all paths have similar length, the height is only a **logarithmic** factor of the size. For an ordered tree, the **flatten** function from the lecture returns an ordered list.

From here on, we will assume our IntTree type is **ordered**. But there is nothing we can do with the Haskell type system to enforce that. Here, we've found a limit to what safety guarantees the type system can give. (However, there are languages with stronger type systems which can enforce such constraints.)

Exercise 1: Complete the following functions.

- a) member: returns whether a given integer i occurs in a tree. Make sure to avoid searching any subtree unnecessarily. (Compare this against the member function for unordered trees from the previous tutorial.)
- b) largest: find the largest element in a tree. **Hint:** the corresponding smallest function is in the lecture slides.
- c) ordered: returns whether a tree is ordered. **Hint:** An easy way to do this is to use flatten from the lecture and (an adaptation of) sorted from Tutorial 2. Another way is to use largest above, add a similar smallest function, and then use Boolean operators to test for every node with value x that: if the left subtree 1 is nonempty, its largest value is smaller than x, and 1 is itself ordered; if the right subtree r is non-empty, its smallest value is larger than x, and r is itself ordered.
- d) deleteLargest: delete the largest element from a tree. **Hint:** this is similar to largest, except when you find the element you delete it. The relevant case should have a simple way of returning a tree not containing the element.

e) delete: delete an element x from a tree (or return the original tree if it doesn't contain x). This is a bit of a puzzler, so take some time to think it through. There are four cases, given by the guards in the tutorial file. First, if x is in the left or right subtree, delete it there recursively. Otherwise, x is the element to delete. First, if it happens to be the smallest element, it can be deleted easily (similar to deleteLargest). Otherwise, to maintain the ordering, you can replace x by the element w that is immediately smaller. This is the largest element in the left subtree 1; use your largest and deleteLargest to replace x with it. The following schematic illustrates the idea.



```
*Main> member 3 t
True
*Main> largest t
*Main> deleteLargest t
    +-1
  +-2
  | +-3
+-4
  +-5
*Main> delete 1 t
  +-2
  1 + -3
+-4
  +-5
    +-6
*Main> delete 4 t
    +-1
  +-2
+-3
  +-5
    +-6
```

(Optional challenge) The suggested implementations of ordered are inefficient (the first because flatten is inefficient, the second because largest and smallest traverse the tree more often than necessary). Can you find an efficient (linear-time) implementation?

Exercise 2: Change your IntTree data type so that it can carry any type a instead of Int. It should start like this:

```
data Tree a = ...
```

Your file will no longer type-check at this point, so comment out the type signatures of any function on IntTree, and replace the Show IntTree instance with the given

```
instance Show a => Show (Tree a) ...
```

The tree t should get the type Int — this is now what the IntTree type used to be. Your file should type-check again. Give your functions new type signatures to work with the type Interior Interi

Hints: your new Node constructor stores a value of type a and two children of type Tree a. An occurrence of Tree in a type declaration should become Tree a. A type Int should sometimes change to a, but not always! Use any error messages you may be getting to find the right constraint. The type class Num a is for any type representing numbers, such as Int and Integer, but also Float.

(Optional challenge) the sort function from the lecture has good average complexity $(n \cdot \log n)$, but quadratic worst-case complexity (when the list is already sorted). For good worst-case performance you can use **self-balancing** trees, like **AVL**-trees or **red-black**-trees. You can find these on Wikipedia. Implement a data type and **member** and **insert** functions for one or both of them.

Lambda-calculus: capture-avoiding substitution

We will continue implementing the λ -calculus. Your Haskell file contains the solutions to the previous Haskell tutorial, which includes the data type Term for λ -terms, various example terms, and the functions used and free to find the used variables and free variables in a term. First, we add a lot more examples.

Exercise 3: Complete the function numeral which given a number i, returns the corresponding Church numeral N_i as a Term. Recall that the Church numerals are:

$$N_0 = \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot x$$
 $N_1 = \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot f x$ $N_2 = \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot f (f x)$...

You may find the following recursive definition of the numeral N_i helpful.

$$N_i = \lambda f. \lambda x. N_i'$$

$$N_0' = x$$

$$N_i' = f(N_{i-1}') \quad (\text{if } i \neq 0)$$

In the next part of the tutorial we will add variable renaming and capture-avoiding substitution. Recall the renaming operation M[y/x] (M with x renamed to y) from the lectures, slightly paraphrased:

$$z[y/x] = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } z = x \\ z & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(\lambda z.M)[y/x] = \begin{cases} \lambda z.M & \text{if } z = x \\ \lambda z.(M[y/x]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(MN)[y/x] = (M[y/x])(N[y/x])$$

The definition of capture-avoiding substitution, similarly paraphrased, is:

$$y[N/x] = \begin{cases} N & \text{if } y = x \\ y & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(\lambda y.M)[N/x] = \begin{cases} \lambda y.M & \text{if } y = x \\ \lambda z.(M[z/y][N/x]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 where z is **fresh**: not used in M or N , and $z \neq x, y$
$$(M_1M_2)[N/x] = (M_1[N/x])(M_2[N/x])$$

Note that both definitions now give a direct template for the corresponding Haskell function.

Exercise 4:

- a) Complete variables as an infinite list of variables, first "a" through "z", then repeating these suffixed with 1, "a1", ..., "z1", then 2, "a2", ..., "z2", etc.
- b) Complete the function fresh which given a list of used variables, generates a fresh variable not occurring in the list. Hint: use the removeAll function from previous tutorials to remove all the used variables from your list variables, and then take the first remaining variable.
- c) Complete the function rename x y m that renames x to y in the term m, i.e. M[y/x].
- d) Complete the function substitute that implements capture-avoiding substitution, i.e. substitute x n m corresponds to M[N/x]. Use fresh to generate the fresh variable z as above; it must not be used in n and m, and not be x.

```
*Main> take 10 variables
["a","b","c","d","e","f","g","h","i","j"]
*Main> [variables !! i | i <- [0,1,25,26,27,100,3039]]
["a", "b", "z", "a1", "b1", "w3", "x116"]
*Main> fresh ["a","b","x"]
" כ "
*Main> fresh (used example)
"d"
*Main> rename "b" "z" example
\a. \x. (\y. a c) x z
*Main> substitute "z" (Variable "HERE") n2
\a. (\b. a) HERE
*Main> substitute "z" (Apply (Variable "a") (Variable "b")) n2
\c. (\d. c) (a b)
*Main> substitute "c" (Variable "HERE") example
\d. \a. (\a. d HERE) a b
*Main> substitute "c" (numeral 2) example
\d. \a. (\a. d (\f. \x. f (f x)) a b
```