

Data Provided: Type-Inference Rules (page 7); Complexity Calculations (pages 7–8).

DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE

Spring Semester 2016-2017

ADVANCED PROGRAMMING TOPICS

2 Hours

Answer THREE questions only.

All questions carry equal weight. Figures in square brackets indicate the percentage of available marks allocated to each part of a question.

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1. This question concerns the use of abstract data types (ADTs) to specify and reason about data structures. Some of the questions are based on the following scenario.

A software developer is designing a new abstract data type $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}$ (short for "Boolean array"), and chooses to give it the following syntax:

- $newBA : \mathbf{Int} \to (\mathbf{BA} \cup \mathbf{Err})$ $newBA \ n$ creates a new array capable of holding up to n values, each of which is initialised to false. If $n \leq 0$, it returns an error value, error.
- $set: \mathbf{BA} \to \mathbf{Int} \to \mathbf{Bool} \to \mathbf{BA}$ set~a~n~b sets the n^{th} element of a equal to b, and returns the resulting array. You should assume that array indexing begins at 1. If n is out of range (ie. if $n \leq 0$ or if there are fewer than n entries in the array), the function returns the original array unchanged.
- $get : \mathbf{BA} \to \mathbf{Int} \to (\mathbf{Bool} \cup \mathbf{Err})$ $get \ a \ n$ returns the n^{th} element of a. If n is out of range, the function returns an error value, error.
- $all : \mathbf{BA} \to \mathbf{Bool}$ $all \ a \ returns \ true$ if every entry in a is true, and returns false otherwise.
- $some : \mathbf{BA} \to \mathbf{Bool}$ $some \ a \ returns \ true$ if at least one entry in a is true, and returns false otherwise.
- a) Explain what are meant by the

of an abstract data type.

b) In the scenario at the start of Question 1, which of the functions newBA, set, get, all and some are

- c) Write down the semantics for the abstract data type BA. [25%]
- d) Write down a Haskell implementation of the abstract data type BA. [30%]
- e) Say that two arrays are equal if they have the same capacity and their entries at each index are equal. Prove formally that, if n is not out of range, then $set\ a\ n\ (get\ a\ n) = a$ for all finite defined arrays a of type BA. [15%]

- 2. This question asks you to perform complexity calculations for functions defined in Haskell, and to evaluate their types.
 - a) Given the rules provided in "Appendix A: Type-Inference Rules" on page 7, together with the type declarations

```
fmap :: Functor f \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f a \rightarrow f b even :: Num a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow Bool
```

and the information that Maybe is an instance of the class Functor, show in detail how to calculate the type of the expression

$$\rightarrow \text{fmap even (Just n)}$$
 [50%]

b) For the purposes of this question you should assume that: Haskell is an eager (ie., not a lazy) language; that (:) is a primitive function; and that the function (++) is defined by

```
[] ++ ys = ys -- [++.0]
(x:xs) ++ ys = x : (xs ++ ys) -- [++.1]
```

Consider the following code:

```
data Stream a = Void | AddAtEnd (Stream a) a
```

Using the rules provided in "Appendix B: Complexity Calculations" on pages 7–8, show in detail how to

- (i) find the step-counting function T_{merge} associated with the function merge; [20%]
- (ii) calculate the worst-case time complexity of the function store. [30%]

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3. This question concerns the use of Haskell's class and type systems. Some of the questions are based on the following scenario.

The type class Num includes the following declarations

and a programmer writes the following implementation of the integers

```
data MyInt = Null | After Value | Before Value
```

where Null represents the value 0, After n represents (n+1), and Before n represents (n-1). We'll say that a value of type MyInt is normalised provided it is defined using Null and at most <u>one</u> of the constructors Before and After. For example, the value After (Before Null) contains both Before and After, so it isn't normalised. The normalised version of After (Before Null) — ie., the integer value ((0-1)+1) — is just Null.

- a) Write down three significant differences between classes in Haskell and classes in Java. [10%]
- b) What Haskell syntax is used to declare an algebraic data type to be an instance of a type class? Give an example. [10%]
- c) For the scenario at the start of Question 3, write down a Haskell implementation of a function normalise :: MyInt -> MyInt which returns the normalised version of its input. [20%]
- d) Suppose the programmer has declared MyInt to be an instance of the type class Num. Write down suitable Haskell implementations for the type MyInt of the functions

```
(i) negate [20%]
```

e) The programmer adds the code

```
instance Eq MyInt where
  m == n = (normalise m) 'equals' (normalise n)
  where equals Null Null = True
      equals (After m) (After n) = equals m n
      equals (Before m) (Before n) = equals m n
      equals _ _ = False
```

to the scenario at the start of the question.

Do the implementations of negate and (+) you gave for Question 3(d) satisfy the equality (x + negate x == Null), for all finite defined values x of type MyInt? Justify your answer in detail. [20%]

4. This question concerns the use of structural induction to reason over algebraic data types. Consider the following Haskell implementation of the natural numbers:

```
data Nat = Zero | One | Sum Nat Nat
next :: Nat -> Nat
next n = Sum n One
                                                -- [next]
two :: Nat
                                                -- [two]
two = next One
asInt :: Nat -> Int
asInt n = case n of
  Zero -> 0
                                                -- [asInt.0]
                                                -- [asInt.1]
  One -> 1
                                                -- [asInt.+]
  Sum m n -> asInt m + asInt n
instance Eq Nat where
  m == n = (asInt m == asInt n)
                                                -- [==]
mult :: Nat -> Nat -> Nat
mult Zero _ = Zero
                                                -- [mult.0]
mult One n = n
                                                -- [mult.1]
mult (Sum x y) n = Sum (mult x n) (mult y n)
                                                -- [mult.+]
```

- a) Show, in detail, that (Sum One two == Sum two One) evaluates to True. [10%]
- b) Write down the principle of structural induction for the algebraic data type Nat. [10%]
- c) Prove in detail that (Sum m n == Sum n m) evaluates to True for all finite defined m and n of type Nat. [10%]
- d) Prove in detail that (mult m n == mult n m) evaluates to True for all finite defined m and n of type Nat. [40%]
- e) (i) Write down the Haskell definition of a value inf of type Nat which is *not* a "finite defined value". [10%]
 - (ii) Given your definition of inf, are the values (next inf) and (Sum inf inf) equal to one another or different? Justify your answer. [20%]

END OF QUESTION PAPER

Appendix A: Type-Inference Rules

Rule 1. Function Application

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{If} & f::Cons_f \Rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \tau \\ \text{and} & e::Cons_e \Rightarrow \sigma \\ \\ \text{Deduce} & f:e:(Cons_f,Cons_e) \Rightarrow \tau \end{array}$$

Rule 2. Type Instantiation

If $f::Cons_f\Rightarrow \tau$, where τ involves the polymorphic type-variable a and σ is any type Deduce $f::Cons_f\{\sigma/a\}\Rightarrow \tau\{\sigma/a\}$

Rule 3. Abstraction

If
$$(x::\sigma)$$
 implies $e::Cons_e \Rightarrow \tau$
Deduce $(\x \rightarrow e)::Cons_e \Rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \tau$

Appendix B: Complexity Calculations

The step-counting function T_f and the cost-function T. For any f defined in a Haskell program, its step-counting function is called T_f . In order to compute T_f we need to know how much it costs to evaluate the various types of expression we encounter during execution of the program. We write T(e) for the cost of evaluating the expression e. The rules for evaluating T and T_f are as follows:

cost:case if f a_1 a_2 ... a_n is defined directly by an expression of the form f a_1 a_2 ... $a_n = e$ then evaluating f requires us first to perform pattern matching to identify the relevant expression as e (assume this takes one step), and then to evaluate it (which takes T(e) steps). So define

$$T_f \ a_1 \ a_2 \dots a_n = 1 + T(e)$$

cost:const if c is a constant, it costs nothing to evaluate c, i.e.

$$T(c) = 0$$

cost:var if v is a variable, it costs nothing to look up the value of v, i.e.

$$T(v) = 0$$

cost:if if e is an expression of the form if a then b else c, then the cost depends on the value of a. In either case we have to evaluate a first (this requires T(a) steps); if a is True, we need to evaluate b (using T(b) steps) and otherwise c (using T(c) steps). So we define

$$T(\text{if } a \text{ then } b \text{ else } c) = T(a) + (\text{if } a \text{ then } T(b) \text{ else } T(c))$$

cost:prim If p is a primitive operation (like addition) which is implemented as part of the language, we can assume that the implementation is efficient enough that the cost of calling p can be ignored. Consequently, the cost of evaluating p $a_1 \dots a_n$ is just the cost of evaluating the n different arguments. So

$$pa_1 \dots a_n = T(a_1) + \dots + T(a_n)$$

cost:func If f isn't a primitive function, and the particular evaluation f a_1 a_2 ... a_n isn't one of the cases used to define f, the cost of evaluating f a_1 ... a_n is the cost of evaluating the various arguments, together with the cost of applying f to those results, i.e.

$$T(f \ a_1 \dots a_n) = T(a_1) + \dots + T(a_n) + (T_f \ a_1 \dots a_n)$$

Recursion starting at 0: If f is defined by

$$f 0 = d$$

 $f n = f(n-1) + b.n + c$

then

$$f(n) = \frac{b}{2}n^2 + \left(c + \frac{b}{2}\right)n + d$$

Recursion starting at 1: If f is defined by

$$f 1 = d$$

 $f n = f(n-1) + b.n + c$

then

$$f(n) = \frac{b}{2}n^2 + \left(c + \frac{b}{2}\right)n + (d - c - b)$$

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