

# Trees as fixed point types

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# Some Haskell syntax in 2 minutes

Some syntax reminder:

<code>-- this is a comment</code>	
<code>add :: Int → Int → Int</code>	-- type annotation
<code>add x y = x + y</code>	-- function definition
<code>add<sub>1</sub> :: Num a ⇒ a → a → a</code>	-- type class constraint
<code>add<sub>1</sub> = \x y ↦ x + y</code>	-- anonymous function
<code>addThree = add 3</code>	-- partial application
<code>(f ∘ g) x = f (g x)</code>	-- function composition
<code>f \$ g \$ x = f (g x)</code>	-- unix-style "pipes"
<code>const :: a → b → a</code>	
<code>const x _ = x</code>	-- wildcard

A binary tree with numbers at the leaves:

```
data Tree = Leaf    Int
          | Branch Tree Tree
```

A binary tree with parametrized by the data type at the leaves:

```
data Tree a = Leaf a
           | Branch (Tree a) (Tree a)
```

As an example, here is a “flattening” function:

```
flatten :: Tree a → [a]
flatten (Leaf x)           = [x]
flatten (Branch left right) = flatten left ++ flatten right
```

# Expression trees

Expressions can be conveniently encoded by trees:

```
data Expr = Kst Int           -- constant
          | Var String        -- variable
          | Add Expr Expr     -- sum
          | Mul Expr Expr     -- product
          | Fun String [Expr] -- function call
```

The following example encodes  $x + 5 \sin(y)$ :

```
ex = Add (Var "x") (Mul (Kst 5) (Fun "sin" [Var "y"]))
```

We often want to manipulate such trees. For example we may want to simplify `Add (Kst 0) e` to `e`, and so on. Very similar tasks appear in compilers, and many other contexts.

Another frequent task is to compute some value for each node (or subtree), and remember them. Examples are the size of a subtree, the hash of a subtree, the type of a subexpression. We could change our type to incorporate these extra data:

```
data HashedExpr = Kst Hash Int
                | Var Hash String
                | Add Hash Expr Expr
                | Mul Hash Expr Expr
                | Fun Hash String [Expr]
```

But that looks very inconvenient: We have to rewrite all the code, convert between very similar-looking types, etc. It involves a lot of boring “boilerplate” code.

# Trees as fixed-point types

We can describe the shape of a tree by a non-recursive data type:

```
data Expr1 e = Kst Int           -- constant
              | Var String         -- variable
              | Add e e            -- sum
              | Mul e e            -- product
              | Fun String [e]    -- function call
```

What happens is that we replace all occurrences of **Expr** on the RHS by the type parameter  $e$ . Then we can get back our tree type using a fixed-point operator:

```
newtype Mu f = Fix (f (Mu f))
```

Now,  $\text{Mu Expr}_1$  is isomorphic to our original tree type **Expr**.

# Functors

$\text{Expr}_1$  takes a type parameter, and produces a new type. It also does this in a pretty regular way; for example, it is a **functor**. A functor is something which implements the following interface (and satisfies some law):

```
class Functor t where fmap :: (a → b) → t a → t b
```

In our case, there is only one natural implementation of this:

```
instance Functor Expr1 where  
  fmap f (Kst i    ) = Kst i  
  fmap f (Var v    ) = Var v  
  fmap f (Add x y ) = Add (f x) (f y)  
  fmap f (Mul x y ) = Mul (f x) (f y)  
  fmap f (Fun n xs) = Fun n (map f xs)
```

We can see that this is very mechanical; indeed, the compiler can do this for us.

# Annotations with fixed points

With fixed-point types, we can simply “slice in” annotations:

**data**  $\text{Ann } f \ a \ b = \text{Ann } a \ (f \ b)$

Here  $f$  is the functor,  $a$  is the type of the annotations, and  $b$  is the type of children, which will be the annotated tree itself.

Now we can define an annotated tree simply as

**type**  $\text{Attr } a = \text{Mu } (\text{Ann Expr}_1 \ a)$

Note that if  $f$  implements `Functor`, then  $\text{Ann } f \ a$  also does:

**instance**  $\text{Functor } t \Rightarrow \text{Functor } (\text{Ann } t \ a)$  **where**  
     $fmap \ f \ (\text{Ann } x \ y) = \text{Ann } x \ (fmap \ f \ y)$



# Bottom-up transformations I.

While all this is rather simple, it is already quite powerful: For example we can define a generic recursive bottom-up transformation with it. The idea is that since this type of transformation occurs very often, thus we should abstract it away:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{transform} &:: \text{Functor } t \Rightarrow (\text{Mu } t \rightarrow \text{Mu } t) \rightarrow (\text{Mu } t \rightarrow \text{Mu } t) \\ \text{transform } f &= f \circ \text{Fix} \circ \text{fmap } (\text{transform } f) \circ \text{unFix} \end{aligned}$$

where we used a small utility function

$$\begin{aligned} \text{unFix} &:: \text{Mu } t \rightarrow t \text{ (Mu } t) \\ \text{unFix } (\text{Fix } x) &= x \end{aligned}$$

# Bottom-up transformations II.

We use the bottom-up transformation to eliminate additions of zero, and multiplications by zero or one:

$$\begin{aligned}elim &:: \text{Mu Expr}_1 \rightarrow \text{Mu Expr}_1 \\elim \text{ (Fix (Add (Fix (Kst 0)) } x))} &= x \\elim \text{ (Fix (Mul (Fix (Kst 0)) } x))} &= \text{Fix (Kst 0)} \\... \\elim \text{ anythingElse} &= \text{anythingElse}\end{aligned}$$

This is unfortunately a bit ugly because of the annoying `Fix` noise (but there are solutions for that). Then we can use it:

$$\begin{aligned}simplify &:: \text{Mu Expr}_1 \rightarrow \text{Mu Expr}_1 \\simplify &= \text{transform } elim\end{aligned}$$

# Syntax sugar with view patterns

**type**  $E = \text{Mu Expr}_1$

$zero :: E \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

$zero (\text{Fix } (\text{Kst } 0)) = \text{True}$

$zero \_ = \text{False}$

$plus :: E \rightarrow \text{Maybe } (E, E)$

$plus (\text{Fix } (\text{Add } x \ y)) = \text{Just } (x, y)$

$plus \_ = \text{Nothing}$

$kst :: \text{Int} \rightarrow E$

$kst = \text{Fix} \circ \text{Kst}$

$elim :: E \rightarrow E$

$elim (plus \rightarrow \text{Just } (x, y)) \mid zero \ x = y$

$elim (plus \rightarrow \text{Just } (x, y)) \mid \quad \quad \quad zero \ y = x$

$elim (times \rightarrow \text{Just } (x, y)) \mid zero \ x \vee zero \ y = kst \ 0$

$elim \ any = any$

`Expr1` also implements some other interfaces, for example we can **fold** over it:

```
class Foldable f where
  foldl :: (a → b → a) → a → f b → a
  foldr :: (b → a → a) → a → f b → a
```

Fold is simply a generalization of sum and product for lists:

```
sum xs = foldl (+) 0 xs
prod xs = foldl (*) 1 xs
```

One use of Foldable is to flatten a structure to a list:

```
toList :: Functor t ⇒ t a → [a]
toList xs = foldr (:) [] xs
```

# Substructures

Using fold, we can implement the function returning the direct descendants subtrees of the root node:

$$\begin{aligned} children &:: \text{Foldable } t \Rightarrow \text{Mu } t \rightarrow [\text{Mu } t] \\ children &= toList \circ unFix \end{aligned}$$

and also the function returning **all** subtrees:

$$\begin{aligned} universe &:: \text{Foldable } t \Rightarrow \text{Mu } t \rightarrow [\text{Mu } t] \\ universe \ x &= x : concatMap\ universe\ (children\ x) \end{aligned}$$

This is very useful. Suppose for example we want a list of all variables names occuring in an expression. We can do that using *universe* and the list comprehension syntax:

$$\begin{aligned} variables &:: \text{Mu Expr}_1 \rightarrow [\text{String}] \\ variables\ expr &= [s \mid \text{Fix } (\text{Var } s) \leftarrow universe\ expr] \end{aligned}$$

# Rewriting to normal form / Traversable

Often we want to repeat transformations until a normal form is achieved. This can be also abstracted away:

```
rewrite :: Functor t  
          => (Mu t → Maybe (Mu t)) → (Mu t → Mu t)  
rewrite f = transform (\x ↦ maybe x (rewrite f) (f x))
```

There are also versions of *transform* and *rewrite* which maintain a state, or print something to the screen, or do something else which needs a linear order. This needs a third abstraction on the top of *Functor* and *Foldable*, called *Traversable*.

The Traversable class is the following interface:

```
class Traversable t where  
  mapM :: Monad m  $\Rightarrow$  (a  $\rightarrow$  m b)  $\rightarrow$  t a  $\rightarrow$  m (t b)
```

This basically means that we can go through the structure, have some side effects, and collect the results in a structure of the same shape. In particular, we can thread a state through the traversal:

```
mapAccumL  
  :: Traversable t  
   $\Rightarrow$  (a  $\rightarrow$  b  $\rightarrow$  (a, c))  $\rightarrow$  a  $\rightarrow$  t b  $\rightarrow$  (a, t c)
```

# Bottom-up computing

Suppose we want to compute the size of a tree. This falls into the category of computations when we use already computed values of the subtrees to compute the value for the root. Computer scientist gave the scary name “catamorphism” to this very simple concept :)

$$\begin{aligned}cata &:: \text{Functor } t \Rightarrow (t \ a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow \text{Mu } t \rightarrow a \\cata \ f &= f \circ fmap \ (cata \ f) \circ unFix\end{aligned}$$

We can then use this generic version to compute the size of a tree:

$$\begin{aligned}size &:: (\text{Functor } t, \text{Foldable } t) \Rightarrow \text{Mu } t \rightarrow \text{Int} \\size &= cata \ (\backslash x \mapsto 1 + sum \ (toList \ x))\end{aligned}$$

Actually *toList* is redundant here; the generalized *sum* works for any type implementing *Foldable*.



# Synthesizing attributes

Most probably we also want the sizes of all subtrees, not only the big tree: We want to **annotate** the nodes with the sizes of the given subtree.

```
synthesize :: Functor t => (t a -> a) -> Mu t -> Attr t a
synthesize f x = Fix (Ann (f as) y) where
  y  = fmap (synthesize f) (unFix x)
  as = fmap (\(Fix (Ann a _)) -> a) y
```

We can also do top-down computations (for example to compute the **depths** of nodes), which is even simpler:

```
inherit :: Functor t => (a -> a) -> a -> Mu t -> Attr t a
inherit f a (Fix x) = Fix (Ann b y) where
  b = f a
  y = fmap (inherit f b) x
```

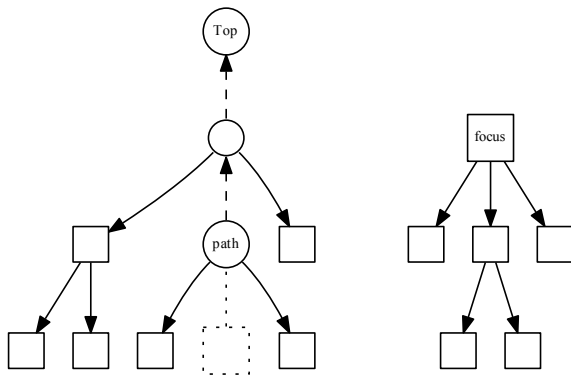
# Zipper I.

The zipper is an immutable data structure which encodes a tree together with a position (called focus) in a tree, and allows moving the position and making local changes. We can implement a version of it generically, so it will work for any tree!

```
data Path t = Top
           | Path (t (Either (Mu t) (Path t)))
data Loc t  = Loc {focus :: Mu t, path :: Path t}
```

This is best explained by pictures.

# Zipper II.



The Loc  $t$  data type. Boxes are of type Mu  $t$ , while circles are Path  $t$ . The dashed arrows are the Right children. The dotted box denotes the place where the subtree at the focus (shown separately on the right) would fit in.

# Mathematically satisfying constructions

We can annotate the nodes of a tree by zippers focused at that particular node.

$$locations :: \text{Traversable } t \Rightarrow \text{Mu } t \rightarrow \text{Attr } t (\text{Loc } t)$$

Since we can modify the subtree at the focus, as a consequence (actually this has a simpler implementation, too), we can also annotate the nodes by functions replacing (or changing) that subtree:

$$contexts :: \text{Traversable } t \Rightarrow \text{Mu } t \rightarrow \text{Attr } t (\text{Mu } t \rightarrow \text{Mu } t)$$

This can be useful for mutation testing; say we want to perturb all the constants in our expression, one at a time: This can be easily done using *contexts*.

# Mutually recursive types

The above works for a single tree. Sometimes we want to interleave more types of trees; for example an imperative language can contain statements and expression, which are mixed together:

```
data Stmt = Block [Stmt]
        | Assign String Expr
data Expr = Kst Int
        | Var String
        | Add Expr Expr
        | Fun String [Expr]
        | Do [Stmt] Expr
```

The above framework does not work in this setting. However, it should be possible to generalize.

We fully “open up” both tree types:

```
data Stmt1 s e = Block [s]
                | Assign String e
data Expr1 s e = Kst Int
                | Var String
                | Add e e
                | Fun String [e]
                | Do [s] e
```

These become **bifunctors**: They have two arguments and are functors in both.

# Bifunctors and fixed point types

We have two fixed point types now, corresponding to the two types `Stmt` and `Expr`. We call them left and right (in this example, `Stmt` is the left one):

```
newtype MuL f g = FixL {unFixL :: f (MuL f g) (MuR f g)}  
newtype MuR f g = FixR {unFixR :: g (MuL f g) (MuR f g)}
```

Now we can recover the interleaved trees:

```
type S = MuL Stmt1 Expr1  
type E = MuR Stmt1 Expr1
```

# Bifunctor class and *transformBi*

We can define a BiFunctor class:

```
class BiFunctor f where  
  fmapLeft  :: (a → b) → f a c → f b c  
  fmapRight :: (b → c) → f a b → f a c  
  fmapBoth  :: (a → c) → (b → d) → f a b → f c d
```

And use to the define generic bottom-up transformations:

```
transformBiL :: (BiFunctor f, BiFunctor g)  
              ⇒ (MuL f g → MuL f g) → (MuR f g → MuR f g)  
              → MuL f g → MuL f g  
transformBiL u v = goL where  
  goL = u ∘ FixL ∘ fmapBoth goL goR ∘ unFixL  
  goR = v ∘ FixR ∘ fmapBoth goL goR ∘ unFixR
```

In our case, the type specializes to  $(S \rightarrow S) \rightarrow (E \rightarrow E) \rightarrow S \rightarrow S$ .

There is another one for expressions, with the type

$(S \rightarrow S) \rightarrow (E \rightarrow E) \rightarrow E \rightarrow E$ .