Trees

1. Consider the following data type Tree and consider an example inhabitant tree:

```
data Tree a = Bin \ (Tree \ a) \ a \ (Tree \ a) \ | \ Leaf \ deriving \ Show
tree :: Tree \ Int
tree = Bin \ (Bin \ (Bin \ Leaf \ 1 \ Leaf) \ 2 \ (Bin \ Leaf \ 3 \ Leaf)) \ 4 \ (Bin \ Leaf \ 5 \ Leaf)
```



- (a) (3 points) Define a higher-order function *foldTree* that corresponds to the fold or catamorphism over our trees using recursion directly. Write down the type of *foldTree*.
- (b) (4 points) Use foldTree to define the following two functions:

```
height :: Tree a \to Int

mapTree :: (a \to b) \to Tree \ a \to Tree \ b
```

The function *height* should produce the height of a tree, whereas *mapTree* applies a given function to all the elements of a tree. For example, *height tree* gives 3, and *mapTree even tree* returns *Bin* (*Bin* (*Bin* Leaf False Leaf)) True (*Bin* Leaf False Leaf).

- (c) (3 points) Define a type *TreeF* that corresponds to the *pattern functor* representing the *Tree* data type. You may do so by defining a data type directly, or using the pattern functor combinators we have seen in class. Show that this type is indeed a functor by defining its *Functor* instance.
- (d) (4 points) Use *foldTree* to write a function for collecting the elements of a tree in a depth-first order.

```
depthfirst :: Tree \ a \rightarrow [a]
```

For instance, depthfirst tree gives [1,3,2,5,4]. Take into account that concatenation of two lists (+) requires a traversal over the left operand – for full points you should prevent quadratic behavior for depthfirst.

(e) (2 points) A colleague defines the following Arbitrary instance for trees:

```
instance Arbitrary\ a \Rightarrow Arbitrary\ (Tree\ a) where arbitrary = one of\ [arbitraryBin, return\ Leaf] where arbitraryBin :: Arbitrary\ a \Rightarrow Gen\ (Tree\ a) arbitraryBin = \mathbf{do} t1 \leftarrow arbitrary x \leftarrow arbitrary t2 \leftarrow arbitrary t2 \leftarrow arbitrary t2 \leftarrow arbitrary t2 \leftarrow arbitrary t3 \leftarrow arbitrary t4 \leftarrow arbitrary t5 \leftarrow arbitrary t5 \leftarrow arbitrary t5 \leftarrow arbitrary t5 \leftarrow arbitrary t7 \leftarrow arbitrary t8 \leftarrow arbitrary t8 \leftarrow arbitrary t8 \leftarrow arbitrary t9 \leftarrow arbitrary t1 \leftarrow arbitrary t2 \leftarrow arbitrary t3 \leftarrow arbitrary t4 \leftarrow arbitr
```

What problems might you encounter when running tests on random trees generated in this fashion? How can these be fixed?

- (f) (6 points) Give the definition and type signature of a function *unfoldTree* corresponding to the unfold or anamorphism for our tree data type. Use *unfoldTree* to write a function *buildTree* (partial) inverse of *depthfirst* using it. Formulate the QuickCheck property relating *depthfirst* and *buildTree* that you expect to hold.
- (g) (2 points) Using *unfoldTree* it becomes possible to computations returning *infinite* data structures. Use *unfoldTree* to define an infinitely deep tree *natTree*, where every node is labelled with its depth: the root is labelled 0; its children are labelled 1; the root's grandchildren are labelled 2; etc.

(h) (4 points) A colleague claims that the definition of *natTree* relies on Haskell's lazy evaluation. Explain how – inspired by work on data fusion – infinite data structures can even be represented in *strict* programming languages.

Success

2. With the data type *Step* we can encode certain search problems. At every point in the search space, we can return success, failure, or choice of steps that may themselves fail or succeed:

```
\mathbf{data} \ Step \ a = Success \ a \mid Fail \mid Steps \ [Step \ a]
```

(a) (4 points) Make Step an instance of the Functor and Foldable type classes. These are declared as follows:

```
class Functor f where fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f \ a \rightarrow f \ b class Foldable f where foldMap :: Monoid \ m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m) \rightarrow f \ a \rightarrow m
```

- (b) (3 points) Show how to use the *foldMap* function to define a function *collect*, that computes a list with all the *Success* values in a *Step* data structure.
- (c) (4 points) Write the monadic *join* function for the *Step* data type:

```
join :: Step (Step a) \rightarrow Step a
```

- (d) (4 points) Give an instance definition fo the *Step* data type for the *Monad* type class. Your instance declaration should respect the three monad laws (but you don't have to prove this).
- (e) (4 points) With Step being a Monad, we can now use Haskell's **do** notation:

```
m :: Step (Int, Int)

m = \mathbf{do} \ a \leftarrow Success \ 1

b \leftarrow Steps [Fail, Success \ 2]

return (a, b)
```

Give the value of m in terms of the three constructors of Step.

(f) (6 points) The following law should hold for the Step monad:

```
fmap \ f \circ fmap \ g \equiv fmap \ (f \circ g)
```

Prove that the instance declaration you provided for (a) respects this law. (If the law does not hold, your instance definition is probably wrong). If you rely on any auxiliary lemmas, these should be stated explicitly.

Printf

3. In this question, you will show how to use GADTs to define a well-typed printf function. The printf function is typically used for debugging. The first argument is a string. This string is printed to stdout. If the string contains special formatting directives, the call to printf requires additional arguments. For the purpose of this exercise, we will assume two formatting directives %d and %s. Here are some example invocations of printf:

```
printf("Hello world\n");
\\ Prints: Hello world\n
printf("Hello there %s", "Wouter");
\\ Prints: Hello there Wouter
printf("%s = %d", "x", 5);
\\ Prints: x = 5
```

Instead of taking a string as its first argument, however, we will use (a variation of) the following data type to represent our formatting directives:

data Format where

 $Lit: String \rightarrow Format \rightarrow Format$ -- Print a literal string fragment and continue

D:: Format o Format -- Require an integer input S:: Format o Format -- Require a string input -- No further directives

- (a) (3 points) Show how the formatting strings from the three examples above can all be represented as values of type *Format*.
- (b) (4 points) The *Format* data type is a simple algebraic data type. Define a GADT *Format'* a that takes a single type argument. The three examples above should have the following types:
 - Format' String
 - Format' ($String \rightarrow String$)
 - Format' ($String \rightarrow Int \rightarrow String$)

A formatting directive of type Format' a requires additional arguments specified by the type a. Ensure that your answers from part (a) give rise to a Format' data type of the correct type.

(c) (6 points) Define a function $format::Format' \ a \to a$ that behaves like the printf function described above. You may find it useful to define this function using an auxiliary function:

```
format' :: Format' \ a \rightarrow String \rightarrow a
```

which is defined using an accumulating parameter.

(d) (4 points) To provide exactly the same interface as *printf*, a fellow student proposes to define an auxiliary function:

```
toFormat' :: String \rightarrow Format' \ a
```

that parses the *String* argument and recognizes any formatting directives. What will go wrong when trying to define the *toFormat* function? How might you be able to fix this?

SKI – Take home

4. Please submit your solution no later than midnight on Friday April 14th via submit.

Ulf Norell's Agda tutorial defines a data type for the well-typed, well-scoped lambda terms:

```
data Term \ (\Gamma : Ctx) : Type \rightarrow Set \ \mathbf{where}
var : \tau \in \Gamma \rightarrow Term \ \Gamma \ \tau
app : Term \ \Gamma \ (\sigma \Rightarrow \tau) \rightarrow Term \ \Gamma \ \sigma \rightarrow Term \ \Gamma \ \tau
lam : Term \ (\sigma :: \Gamma) \ \tau \rightarrow Term \ \Gamma \ \tau
```

In the lectures, we saw how to define a simple evaluator for such lambda terms.

```
Val: Type \rightarrow Set

Val \ i = Unit

Val \ (\sigma \Rightarrow \tau) = Val \ \sigma \rightarrow Val \ \tau

eval: Term \ \Gamma \ \sigma \rightarrow Env \ \Gamma \rightarrow Val \ \sigma
```

In this exercise you will define a translation from these lambda terms to SKI combinators and try to prove it correct. You may find it useful to consult background material on combinatory logic to help understand the translation from lambda terms to SKI combinators.

To define this translation, you will need to define several intermediate steps:

- (a) (4 points) Define a data type for well-typed combinator terms. This data type should be able to represent:
 - the atomic combinators S, K, and I;
 - the application of one combinator term to another;
 - variables drawn from some context.

Crucially, this term language should *not* include a constructor for lambdas. Be careful to choose your datatype so that it can *only* represent *well-typed* SKI terms. You may want to use ghci to check the types of the three atomic combinators for you.

- (b) (4 points) Define an interpretation function, evalSKI, that given an SKI term of type σ and a suitable environment, produces a value of type $Val\ \sigma$.
- (c) (6 points) Define a translation from lambda terms, $Term \Gamma \sigma$, to your SKI data type. Hint: define an auxiliary function lambda to handle the case for abstractions lam. What is the type of lambda?
- (d) (6 points) Formulate the property that your translation is correct and prove that this is the case for applications and variables. What goes wrong when you try to prove the branch for lambda abstractions? What property can you formulate and prove that relates *evalSKI* and the auxiliary *lambda* that you defined above?