



Data-directed Design

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Review: Parametric Data Definitions

Parametric Type Definition (akin to Java Generics)


A `(list-of alpha)` is either:

- `empty`, or
- `(cons a lon)`
- where *alpha* is any type, `lon` is a `(list-of alpha)`, and `a` is an element of *alpha*.

As we stated before, the domain of `list` values is built-in to Racket, as well as many supporting functions like `cons`, `cons?`, `empty?`, `list?`, `first`, and `rest`. In addition, Racket includes an extensive library of functions that manipulate lists including `length`, `reverse`, and `append`. Racket only supports `struct` definitions which do not include any type restrictions on operands when building new values. Recall that our type definitions are simply comments providing documentation. They are not processed by the compiler.



Template for (list-of alpha)



```
;; (define (f ... a-list ...))  
;; (cond  
;;   [(empty? a-list) ...]  
;;   [(cons? a-list) ... (first a-list) ...  
;;   ... (f ... (rest a-list) ...) ...]))
```

Note that the template does not depend on the element type *alpha*. It applies `t(list-of alpha)` where *alpha* is any type.



Plan for Today

- List abbreviations
- More discussion of the list template
- Data-directed design with numbers
- Strong structural recursion
- Another ubiquitous self-referential data type: trees



More List Abbreviations

- Review: Let M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n be arbitrary Racket expressions. Then
`(list M1 M2 ... Mn)` abbreviates
`(cons M1 (cons M2 ... (cons Mn empty)))`
- Let s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n be unquoted symbols. Then
`'(s1 ... sn)` abbreviates `(list 's1 ... 'sn)`
- The preceding notation also works for constants and lists containing constants that are not symbols, but the abbreviation does not insert ' marks in front of these constants. Identifiers without preceding ' marks are converted to the corresponding symbols.
- Example:
`'((1) (empty four))` abbreviates
`(list (list 1) (list 'empty 'four))` abbreviates
`(cons (cons 1 empty) (cons (cons 'empty (cons 'four empty)) empty))`
- Warning: do not use `true`, `false`, `empty` inside ' quotation; there are symbols `'true`, `'false`, `'empty` that are distinct from `true`, `false`, `empty`.



A simple list function that takes 2 list arguments

- The `append` function that concatenates lists is built-in to Racket. We will define this function

```
; app: (list-of alpha) (list-of-alpha -> list-of-alpha)
; contract: (app a b) concatenates the lists a and b.

; Examples
(check-expect (app '(a b) '(c d)) '(a b c d))
(check-expect (app empty '(c d)) '(c d))
(check-expect (app '(a b) empty) = '(a b))

; Template Instantiation (on which argument do we recur?)
|#
  (define (app x y)
    (cond [(empty? x) ...]
          [(cons? x) ... (first x) ...
                    (app (rest x) y) ... ]))
#|
```



app cont.

- ; Code:

```
(define (app x y)
  (cond [(empty? x) y]
        [(cons? x) (cons (first x) (app (rest x) y))]))
```
- ; Test? Already done!
- Would recurring on the second argument work?



Using `append` as an auxiliary function

- `append` is included in the Racket library
- akin to concatenation, which is the common string (a form of list of char) “construction” operation
- *Problem:* cost of operation is not constant; it is proportional to size of first argument (length of the list)
- Example of function that when simply coded uses `append` to construct its result: `flatten`



Defining Deep Lists and `flatten`

```
;; A deep-list is either:
;; * empty, or
;; * (cons s adl) where a is a symbol or a deep-list and adl is a deep-list
;; Examples
(define dl1 '((()))
(define dl2 '((a) ((b))))
(define dl3 '((a b c d (e)) ((f) ((g)))))
;;
;; Template for deep-list
#|
(define (f ... dl ...)
  (cond [(empty? dl) ... ]
        [(cons? dl)
         (cond [(symbol? (first dl)) ... (first dl) ... (flatten (rest dl)) ...]
               [(empty? (first dl)) ... (flatten (rest dl)) ... ]
               [(cons? (first dl)) ... (flatten (first dl)) ... (flatten (rest dl)) ... ]))])
|#
;; flatten: deep-list -> (list-of symbol)
;; Contract: (flatten dl) consumes a deep-list dl and concatenates all of
;; the symbols embedded in dl into a symbol-list where the symbols appear
;; in the same order as when dl is printed as string.
;; input to form a list of elements
```



Defining Deep Lists and `flatten` (cont.)

;; Examples:

```
(check-expect (flatten dl1) empty)
(check-expect (flatten dl2) '(a b))
(check-expect (flatten dl3) '(a b c d e f g))
```

;; Template Instantiation for `flatten`:

```
#|
(define (flatten dl)
  (cond [(empty? dl) ... ]
        [(cons? dl)
         (cond [(symbol? (first dl)) ... (first dl) ... (flatten (rest dl))]]
               [(empty? (first dl)) ... (flatten (rest dl)) ... ]
               [(cons? (first dl)) ... (flatten (first dl)) ... (flatten (rest dl)) ... ]))])
|#
```

;; Code:

```
(define (flatten dl)
  (cond [(empty? dl) empty ]
        [(cons? dl)
         (cond [(symbol? (first dl)) (cons (first dl) (flatten (rest dl)))]
               [(empty? (first dl)) (flatten (rest dl))]
               [(cons? (first dl)) (append (flatten (first dl)) (flatten (rest dl)))]))])
```



Defining `flatten`

```
;; Tests Done!
```

Improving `flatten`?

Need a help function with an accumulator;
next lecture. We can avoid using `append`.



Algebraic Data I

Given a set of constructor symbols \mathbf{C} (with associated arities > 0) and a set of primitive data values \mathbf{P} , the domain of *values generated by \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{P}* is inductively defined as follows:

1. Every primitive value $p \in \mathbf{P}$ is a *value*; and
2. For every constructor $c \in \mathbf{C}$ of arity n , and values v_1, \dots, v_n , $c(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ is a *value*.

If \mathbf{P} is the set of primitive values of basic Racket (which excludes strings, functions, vectors [arrays], and other more complex built-in forms of data) and \mathbf{C} is the set of primitive constructors (only cons) plus the constructors defined in a Racket program P , the domain of value available in P is simply the set of values generated by \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{P} . In this domain, every data value has the form $p \in \mathbf{P}$ or $c(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$ where $c \in \mathbf{C}$ with arity n and e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n are data values.

Observation From this perspective, every value in a Racket program is a tree. Recall that we are not yet including functions as data values.



Algebraic Data I (cont)

Freely generated algebras are part of a branch of mathematics called *universal algebra*. A data value is any expression of the form $c_j(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$ where $c_j \in \mathbf{C}$ and e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n are expressions denoting elements of the algebra. Given a set of type symbols \mathbf{T} , an *algebraic type definition* δ consists of a finite set \mathbf{T} of type symbols $T_1, \dots, T_k \in \mathbf{T}$ defined by type equations:

$$T_1 = \rho_1, \quad \dots, \quad T_k = \rho_k$$

where each phrase ρ_i is a union of constructions [data values] $c_j(T_{j,1}, T_{j,2}, \dots, T_{j,n_j})$ where each symbol $T_{j,l} \in \mathbf{T}$ and the constructors c_j in ρ_i are *distinct* within δ . The last restriction is pragmatic: it ensures that each type expression of the form $c_j(T_{j,1}, T_{j,2}, \dots, T_{j,n_j})$ in a type definition δ denotes a disjoint subset of the set \mathbf{V} of all possible *value* constructions and that each element of type T_i belongs to a unique component $c_j(T_{j,1}, T_{j,2}, \dots, T_{j,n_j})$ of ρ_i , facilitating the efficient matching of any element of T_i against the components of ρ_i . Languages in the ML family enforce these restrictions to ensure the type of every program expression can be inferred



Algebraic Data II

- Note that we have explicitly excluded functions from P . Why?
- In a typical functional program, the value domain V includes an enormous amount of “junk” because no restrictions are placed on the value arguments v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in a construction $c(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$.
- The ML family of languages, including Haskell, follows a different conceptual path (as described in the preceding slide), imposing type restrictions on the operands of constructions and functions
 - Every (mono)type is disjoint from every other (mono)type.
 - Every value belongs to a unique monotype.

Haskell has added some interesting workarounds to support a form of subtyping.



Algebraic Data Types I

In the documentation framework that we use for Racket, we introduce type definitions for the purpose of precise program documentation. Note that our types are subsets of the program domain of values V that can overlap (as in Java). The framework is not designed to support static type checking.

A type definition in a program P has the form

$$T := S_1 \mid S_2 \mid \dots \mid S_n$$

where

- T is a new name (identifier);
- each S_i is either
 - a recursive subset of P ,
 - a type T defined elsewhere in the program
 - an expression $c(T_1, \dots, T_k)$ denoting the set $\{ c(v_1, \dots, v_k) \mid v_i \in T_i \}$ where c is a defined constructor (possibly primitive) and T_i is defined elsewhere in the program.

The sets S_i must be disjoint.

We often write these definitions out in prose rather than using the $:=$ notation.

There is an obvious structural induction scheme for reasoning about an algebraic type.



Algebraic Data Types II

Our data definition framework is very expressive. Essentially any data domain consisting of freely constructed finite trees can be formulated as algebraic data. Some examples include:

- Files on your computer (at least in Linux)
 - Simple File (an array of characters), or
 - Folder, which contains a list of pairs (string, file)
- XML
 - Baroque format for representing algebraic data as ASCII text
- Internet domain names
- Structurally well-formed programs (abstract syntax)

In some cases, the domain of interest must be embedded in a larger “freely constructed domain”. For example, the domain of ascending integer-lists must be embedded in a larger domain such as all integer-lists. The former is not an algebraic type but the latter is.

On the other hand, some forms of data are best characterized as quotients of algebraic types. I am not aware of a mainstream functional language that directly supports data definitions that construct quotients of algebraic types. In contrast, this form of data definition is easily done in many class-based OO languages.



Inductive Structure of \mathbf{N}

- Standard definition from mathematics
 - ;; A natural (natural number) is either
 - ;; 0 , or
 - ;; $(\text{add1 } n)$
 - ;; where n is a natural-number (natural)
- We often use the symbol \mathbf{N} to denote this domain.
- In mathematics, **add1** is usually called *succ*, *suc*, or *S*, for *successor*. The deduction rule for mathematical induction on the natural numbers embodies the preceding definition:

$$P(0), \forall x [P(x) \rightarrow P(\text{add1}(x))]$$

$$\forall x P(x)$$

- Is there an analogous induction principle for other forms of inductively defined data? Yes! For all inductively defined domains, there are analogous natural deduction proof rules



Basic Operations on Naturals

- Examples (using constructors)
 - Zero: `0`
 - One: `(add1 0)`
 - Four: `(add1 (add1 (add1 (add1 0))))`
- Accessors:
 - `sub1` : `N -> N`
Note: `sub1` is typically called *pred* or *P* in mathematical logic; in Racket (`sub1 0`) is not an error (for reasons explained later).
- Recognizers:
 - `zero?` : `Any -> bool`
 - `positive?` : `Any -> bool` ; ; why not `add1?`



Basic Laws (Reductions) for Natural Numbers

- The rules for primitive or auto-generated (for `define-struct`) operation for a (typically infinite) table
- Recall the ones for lists:
 - For all values v , and list values l , we have
 - `(empty? empty) = true` ;; recognizer
 - `(empty? (cons v l)) = false`
 - `(rest (cons v l)) = l` ;; accessor
 - `(first (cons v l)) = v`
- Basic laws:
 - For all natural numbers n , we have
 - `(zero? 0) = true` ;; recognizer
 - `(zero? (add1 n)) = false`
 - `(positive? (add1 n)) = true`
 - `(positive? 0) = false`
 - `(sub1 (add1 n)) = n` ;; accessor
- Similar rules exist for **all** inductively-defined data types
- What about laws for `(equal? ...)`



Natural Numbers: Template

- Template for the `natural` data type is very similar to lists:

```
;; f : natural -> ...  
;; (define (f ... n ...)  
;;   (cond [(zero? n) ...]  
;;         [(positive? n)  
;;          ... (f ... (sub1 n)) ...]))
```



Example

- Write a function that repeats a symbol `s` several (`n`) times
- Examples:
 - `(repeat 'Rabbit 0) = empty`
 - `(repeat 'Rabbit (add1 (add1 0))) = '(Rabbit Rabbit)`
- Code: (omitting [behavioral] contract function template for **repeat**)

```
;; repeat : symbol natural -> symbol-list
(define (repeat s n)
  (cond [(zero? n) empty]
        [else (cons s (repeat s (sub1 n)))]))
```



Generalization: Full Structural Recursion

- Corresponds to “strong induction” on natural numbers
 $P(0), \forall n [\forall n' < n P(n')] \rightarrow P(S(n))$

$$\forall n P(n)$$

- Template instantiation includes recursive calls on deeper “predecessors” than the immediate ones; the instantiation must anticipate what predecessors are required.



Example of Full Structural Recursion

```
;; fib: natural -> natural
;; Template instantiation for fib
;;(define (fib n)
;;  (cond [(< n 2) ...]
;;        [(positive? n) ... (fib (- n 1))
;;          ... (fib (- n 2)) ... ]]))
;;)
;; Code:
;; Some definitions of the Fibonacci sequence start 0, 1, ...
(define (fib n)
  (cond [(< n 2) 1]
        [(positive? N) (+ (fib (- n 1)) (fib (- n 2)))]))
```



Defining Add

```
(define (add m n)
  (cond
    [(zero? m) n]
    [(positive? m) (add1 (add (sub1 m) n))]))
```

```
(define (right-add m n)
  (cond
    [(zero? n) m]
    [(positive? n) (add1 (right-add m (sub1 n)))]))
```

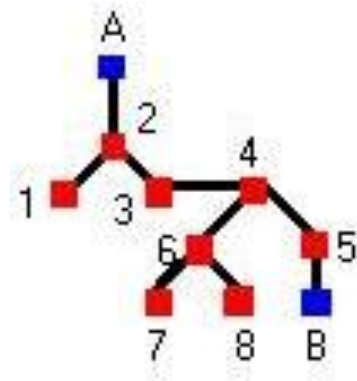
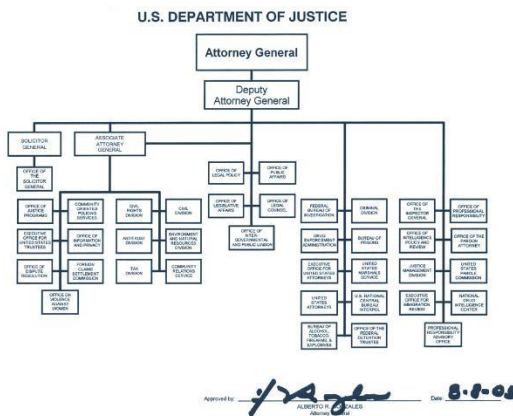
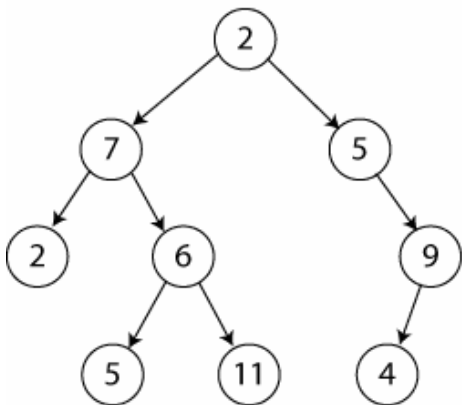



Defining Integers

- An integer is either:
 - `0`; or
 - `(add1 n)` where `n` has the form `0` or `(add1 ...)` [... non-negative]; or
 - `(sub1 n)` where `n` has the form `0` or `(sub1 ...)` [... non-positive].
- Recognizers:
 - `zero?: any -> bool`
 - `positive?: any -> bool`
 - `negative?: any -> bool`
- In Racket, `add1` and `sub1` have been extended to all integers by defining for all integers `n` :
 - `(add1 (sub1 n)) = n`
 - `(sub1 (add1 n)) = n`
- Hence, `(add1 -1)` and `(sub1 0)` are not errors.

Another Inductive Type: Trees

- (Natural number) Labeled trees
- Organizational charts
- Decision trees
- Search trees
- and many more!





From Lists to Trees

Example of a List Data Definition (very familiar)

```
;; Given the built-in two argument constructor cons
with
;; fields first and rest:
;; An (list-of alpha) is
;; * empty, or
;; * (cons s los)
;; where s is an alpha and los is a alpha-list
```

Example of a Tree Data Definition

```
;; Given the struct definition
(define-struct person (name mother father))
; An ancestryTree is
; * empty (representing “unknown origin” or “none”)
; * (make-person n m f) (with two self-references)
; where n is a symbol, m is a person and f is a person
; A person is:
; * (make-person n m f)
; where n is a symbol, m is a person and f is a person
```



Examples of ancestryTree

```
(make-person 'Bob
  (make-person 'Jane empty
    (make-person 'Tom
      (make-person 'Cat empty empty) empty))
  (make-person 'Rob empty
    (make-person 'Sue empty
      (make-person 'Ray empty
        (make-person 'Johny empty empty))))))
```



Template for ancestryTree

- In non-empty trees, we anticipate accessing each child of the tree:

```
; f : ancestryTree -> ...
; (define (f ... at ...)
;   (cond
;     [(empty? at) ...]
;     [else ... (person-name at) ...
;       ... (person-mother c) ...
;       ... (person-father c) ...]))
```



Template for ancestryTree

Recursion in type \rightarrow recursion in template

```
; f : person -> ...
; (define (f ... c ...)
;   (cond
;     [(empty? c) ...]
;     [else ... (person-name c) ...
;       ... (f (person-mother c)) ...
;       ... (f (person-father c)) ...]))
```



Example: Tree Depth

- Consider the following problem
 - Given an ancestry tree, compute the maximum number of generations for which we know something about this person.
- Type (contract): `person -> natural`
- **(Behavioral) Contract: ...**
- Examples (next slide)
- Template?



Tree Depth Examples

```
(define cat (make-person 'Cat empty empty))
(define tom (make-person 'Tom cat empty))
(define jane (make-person empty tom))
(define johnny (make-person 'Johnny empty empty))
(define ray (make-person 'Ray empty johnny))
(define sue (make-person 'Sue empty ray))
(define rob (make-person 'Rob empty sue))
(define bob (make-person 'Bob jane rob))
```

```
(check-expect (max-depth cat) 1)
(check-expect (max-depth tom) 2)
(check-expect (max-depth jane) 3)
(check-expect (max-depth johnny) 1)
(check-expect (max-depth ray) 2)
(check-expect (max-depth sue) 3)
(check-expect (max-depth rob) 4)
(check-expect (max-depth bob) 5)
```




Tree Depth Template Instantiation

```
;; max-depth : ancestryTree -> natural
;; (define (max-depth c)
;;   (cond
;;     [(empty? c) ...]
;;     [else ...
;;       ... (max-depth (person-mother c)) ...
;;       ... (max-depth (person-father c)) ...]))
```



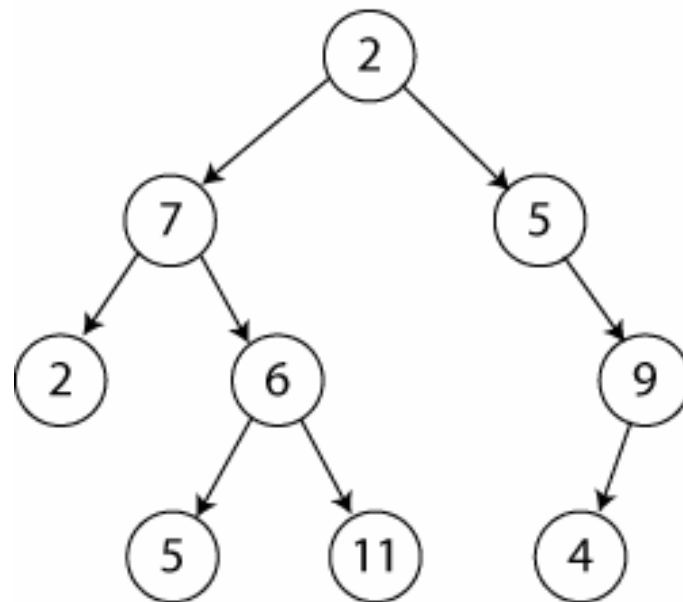
Tree Depth

```
;;max-depth : ancestryTree -> natural
(define (max-depth c)
  (cond
    [(empty? c) 0]
    [else (add1
            (max (max-depth (person-mother c))
                  (max-depth (person-father c))))]))
;; Tests Done!
```

Examples (tests) can help in writing code.



Binary Search Trees





Binary Search Trees

```
(define-struct BTreeNode (num left right))  
;; A binary-tree (BT) is either  
;; * false, or  
;; * (make-BTreeNode n l r)  
;; where n is a number, l and r are BTs.  
  
;; A binary-tree bt is ordered iff either  
;; * bt is empty, or  
;; * bt has the form (make-BTreeNode n l r) where  
;; Invariants:  
;; 1. Numbers in l are less than or equal to n  
;; 2. Numbers in r are greater than n  
  
;; A binary-search-tree (BST) is a binary-tree abt that is ordered.  
;; Hence BST is equivalent to (ordered) binary-tree
```