### Week 5 : More on Lists

### **Reduction of Lists**

Another common operation on lists is to combine the elements of a list using a given operator.

For example:

 $egin{array}{rll} sum(List(x_1,\,...,\,x_n))&=&0+x_1+...+x_n\ product(List(x_1,\,...,\,x_n))&=&1*x_1*...*x_n \end{array}$ 

We can implement this by using the usual recursive scheme:

```
def sum(xs: List[Int]): Int = xs match {
    case Nil ⇒ 0
    case y :: ys ⇒ y + sum(ys)
}
def product(xs: List[Int]): Int = xs match {
    case Nil ⇒ 1
    case y :: ys ⇒ y * product(ys)
}
```

The generic method *reduceLeft* inserts a given binary operator between two adjacent elements.

For example.

```
List(x_1, ..., x_n).reduceLeft(op) = (...(x_1 op x_2) op ...) op x_n
```

It's now possible to write more simply:

# **Implementation of reduceLeft**

How can we implement reduceLeft?

```
abstract class List[a] { ...
def reduceLeft(op: (a, a) ⇒ a): a = this match {
    case Nil ⇒ error("Nil.reduceLeft")
    case x :: xs ⇒ (xs foldLeft x)(op)
  }
def foldLeft[b](z: b)(op: (b, a) ⇒ b): b = this match {
    case Nil ⇒ z
    case x :: xs ⇒ (xs foldLeft op(z, x))(op)
  }
}
```

The function *reduceLeft* is defined in terms of another function which is often useful, *foldLeft*.

foldLeft takes an *accumulator*, z, as an additional parameter, which is returned when foldLeft is called on an empty list.

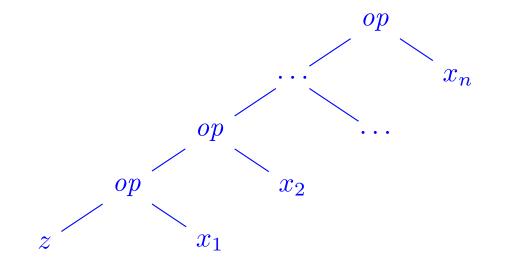
In other words,

 $(List(x_1, ..., x_n) \text{ foldLeft } z)(op) = (...(z \text{ op } x_1) \text{ op } ...) \text{ op } x_n$ 

So, sum and product can also be defined as follows:

# FoldRight and ReduceRight

Applications of *foldLeft* and *reduceLeft* unfold on trees that lean to the left:



They have two dual functions, *foldRight* and *reduceRight*, which produce trees which lean to the right, i.e.,

 $List(x_1, ..., x_n).reduceRight(op) = x_1 op ( ... (x_{n-1} op x_n)...)$  $(List(x_1, ..., x_n) foldRight acc)(op) = x_1 op ( ... (x_n op acc)...)$ 

They are defined as follows

```
def reduceRight(op: (a, a) ⇒ a): a = this match {
    case Nil ⇒ error("Nil.reduceRight")
    case x :: Nil ⇒ x
    case x :: xs ⇒ op(x, xs.reduceRight(op))
}
def foldRight[b](z: b)(op: (a, b) ⇒ b): b = this match {
    case Nil ⇒ z
    case x :: xs ⇒ op(x, (xs foldRight z)(op))
}
```

For operators that are both associative and commutative, *foldLeft* and *foldRight* are equivalent (even though there may be a difference in efficiency).

But sometimes, only one of the two operators is appropriate.

**Example:** Here is another formulation of *concat*:

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{def } concat[a](xs \colon List[a], \ ys \colon List[a]) \colon List[a] = \\ (xs \ foldRight \ ys) \ \{(x, \ xs) \Rightarrow x :: \ xs\} \end{array}$ 

Here, it isn't possible to replace foldRight by foldLeft. Why?

# **Back to Reversing Lists**

Here is a function for reversing lists which has a linear cost.

The idea is to use the operation *foldLeft*:

def reverse[a](xs: List[a]): List[a] = (xs foldLeft z?)(op?)

All that remains is to replace the parts z? and op?.

Let's try to deduce them from examples.

To start,

#### **Base Case:** *List()*

$$reverse(List())$$
  
= (List() foldLeft z)(op)  
= z

(by specification of reverse)(by definition of reverse)(by definition of foldLeft)

```
Consequently, z = List().
```

Then,

#### **Induction Step:** *List*(*x*)

 $\begin{array}{ll} reverse(List(x)) & (by \ specification \ reverse) \\ = (List(x) \ foldLeft \ List())(op) & (by \ def. \ of \ reverse \ with \ z = List()) \\ = op(List(), \ x) & (by \ definition \ of \ foldLeft) \end{array}$ 

Consequently, op(List(), x) = List(x) = x :: List(). This suggests to take for op the operator :: and swapping its operands.

We thus arrive at the following implementation of reverse.

 $def reverse[a](xs: List[a]): List[a] = \\ (xs foldLeft List[a]()) \{(xs, x) \Rightarrow x :: xs\}$ 

**Remark**: the type parameter in List[a]() is necessary for type inference.

**Q**: What's the complexity of this implementation of reverse ?

### More on Fold and Reduce

**Exercise:** Complete the following definitions, based on the usage of *foldRight*, which introduce base operations for manipulating lists.

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{def } mapFun[a, \ b](xs \colon List[a], \ f \colon a \Rightarrow b) \colon List[b] = \\ (xs \ foldRight \ List[b]()) \{ \ ?? \ \} \end{array}
```

```
def lengthFun[a](xs: List[a]): Int = 
(xs foldRight 0) { ?? }
```

#### Handling Nested Lists

We can extend the usage of higher order functions on lists to many calculations which are usually expressed using nested loops.

**Example:** Given a positive integer n, find all pairs of positive integers i and j, with  $1 \le j < i < n$  such that i + j is prime.

For example, if n = 7, the sought pairs are

A natural way to do this is to:

- Generate the sequence of all pairs of integers (i, j) such that  $1 \le j < i < n$ .
- Filter the pairs for which i + j is prime.

One natural way to generate the sequence of pairs is to:

• Generate all the integers i between 1 and n (excluded). This can be realized by the function

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{def } range(from: Int, \ end: \ Int): \ List[Int] = \\ \textbf{if} \ (from \geq end) \ List() \\ \textbf{else} \ from :: \ range(from + 1, \ end) \end{array}$ 

which is predefined in List.

For each integer i, generate the list of pairs (i, 1), ..., (i, i−1). This can be achieved by combining range and map:

List.range(1, i) map  $(x \Rightarrow (i, x))$ 

• Finally, combine all the sub-lists using foldRight with :::.

By reassembling the pieces, we obtain the following expression:

```
\begin{split} & \text{List.range}(1, \text{ n}) \\ & \text{.map}(i \Rightarrow \text{List.range}(1, i).\text{map}(x \Rightarrow (i, x))) \\ & \text{.foldRight}(\text{List}[(\text{Int, Int})]()) \ \{(xs, ys) \Rightarrow xs ::: ys\} \\ & \text{.filter}(\text{pair} \Rightarrow isPrime(\text{pair.}\_1 + \text{pair.}\_2)) \end{split}
```

#### **The** *flatMap* **Function**

The combination of applying a function to the elements of a list and then concatenating the results is so common, that we have introduced a special method for this in *List.scala*:

```
abstract class List[a] { ...

def flatMap[b](f: a \Rightarrow List[b]): List[b] = this match {

case Nil \Rightarrow Nil

case x :: xs \Rightarrow f(x) ::: (xs flatMap f)

}
```

With *flatMap*, we could have written an expression more concisely:

```
\begin{aligned} \text{List.range}(1, n) \\ \text{.flat}Map(i \Rightarrow \text{List.range}(1, i).map(x \Rightarrow (i, x))) \\ \text{.filter}(pair \Rightarrow isPrime(pair. 1 + pair. 2)) \end{aligned}
```

Q: Find a concise way to define *isPrime*. (Hint: Use forall defined in List).

#### The zip Function

The zip method in the List class combines two lists into one list of pairs.

abstract class List[a] { ... def zip[b](that: List[b]): List[(a,b)] = if (this.isEmpty || that.isEmpty) Nil else (this.head, that.head) :: (this.tail zip that.tail)

**Example:** By using *zip* and *foldLeft*, we can define the scalar product of two lists in the following way.

def scalarProduct(xs: List[Double], ys: List[Double]): Double =(xs zip ys) $.map(xy \Rightarrow xy._1 * xy._2)$  $.foldLeft(0.0){(x, y) \Rightarrow x + y}$ 

# Summary

- We have seen that lists are a fundamental data structure in functional programming.
- Lists are defined by parametric classes and are manipulated by polymorphic methods.
- Lists are in functional languages what arrays are in imperative languages.
- But contrary to arrays, we normally don't access elements of a list using their index.
- We prefer to traverse lists recursively or via higher-order combinators such as map, filter, foldLeft or foldRight.

# **Reasoning About Lists**

Recall the concatenation operation on lists (seen during week 4)

```
class List[a] {
    ...
    def ::: (that: List[a]): List[a] = that match {
        case Nil \Rightarrow this
        case x :: xs \Rightarrow x :: (xs ::: this)
    }
}
```

We would like to verify that the concatenation is associative, and that it admits the empty list List() as neutral element to the left and to the right:

$$(xs \dots ys) \dots zs = xs \dots (ys \dots zs)$$
  
 $xs \dots List() = xs = List() \dots xs$ 

**Q**: How can we prove properties like these?

A: By structural induction on lists.

# **Reminder:** Natural Induction (or Recurrence)

Recall the principle of proof by natural induction:

To show a property P(n) for all the integers  $n \ge b$ ,

- 1. Show that we have P(b) (base case),
- 2. for all integers  $n \ge b$  show that:

if one has P(n), then one also has P(n+1)(induction step).

Example: Given

```
def factorial(n: Int): Int = 
if (n == 0) 1 /* 1st clause */
else n * factorial(n-1) /* 2nd clause */
```

Show that, for all  $n \ge 4$ ,

 $factorial(n) \ge 2^n$ 

#### **Base Case:** 4

This case is established by simple calculations of factorial(4) = 24 and  $2^4 = 16$ .

**Induction Step:** n+1 We have for  $n \ge 4$ :

 $\begin{array}{ll} factorial(n + 1) \\ = & (n + 1) * factorial(n) \\ \geq & 2 * factorial(n) \\ \geq & 2 * 2^{n}. \end{array} \begin{array}{ll} (by \ the \ 2nd \ clause \ of \ factorial \ (*)) \\ (by \ calculating) \\ (by \ induction \ hypothesis) \end{array}$ 

Note that a proof can freely apply reduction steps like (\*) to the interior of a term.

That works because pure functional programs don't have side effects; so that a term is equivalent to the term to which it reduces.

This principle is called *referential transparency*.

#### **Structural Induction**

The principle of structural induction is analogous to natural induction:

In the case of lists, it has the following form:

To prove a property P(xs) for all lists xs,

- 1. show that P(List()) holds (base case),
- 2. for a list xs and some element x, show that:
  if P(xs) holds, then P(x :: xs) also holds
  (induction step).

# Example

We will show that (xs ::: ys) ::: zs = xs ::: (ys ::: zs), by structural induction on xs.

Base Case: List()

For the left-hand side we have:

(List() ::: ys) ::: zs= ys ::: zs (by the first clause of :::)

For the right-hand side, we have:

List() ::: (ys ::: zs)= ys ::: zs (by the first clause of :::)

This case is therefore established.

**Induction Step:** *x* :: *xs* 

For the left-hand side, we have:

For the right hand side we have:

(x :: xs) ::: (ys ::: zs)= x :: (xs ::: (ys ::: zs)) (by the second clause of :::)

So this case (and with it, the property) is established.

**Exercise:** Show by induction on xs that xs ::: List() = xs.

# Example (2)

For a more difficult example, let's consider the function

```
abstract class List[a] { ...
   def reverse: List[a] = this match \{
      case List() \Rightarrow List() /* 1st clause */
      case x :: xs \Rightarrow xs.reverse ::: List(x) /* 2nd clause */
}
```

We'd like to prove the following proposition

xs.reverse.reverse = xs

We proceed by induction on xs. The base case is easy to establish:

List().reverse.reverse

= List()

= List().reverse (by the 1st clause of reverse) (by the 1st clause of reverse) For the induction step, we try:

(x :: xs).reverse.reverse

= (xs.reverse ::: List(x)).reverse (by the 2nd clause of reverse)

We can't do anything more with this expression, therefore we turn to the member on the right-hand side:

x :: xs

= x :: xs.reverse.reverse (by induction)

Both sides are simplified in different expressions.

We must still show that

(xs.reverse ::: List(x)).reverse = x :: xs.reverse.reverse

Trying to prove it directly by induction doesn't work.

We must instead try to generalize the equation:

(ys ::: List(x)).reverse = x :: ys.reverse

This equation can be proved by a second induction argument on ys.

**Exercise:** Is it true that (xs drop m) apply n = xs apply (m + n) for all integers  $m \ge 0$ ,  $n \ge 0$  and all lists xs ?

## **Structural Induction on Trees**

Structural induction is not limited to lists; it applies to any tree structure.

The general induction principle is the following:

To show the property P(t) for all trees of a certain type,

- show P(l) for all the leaves l of the tree,
- for each internal node t with sub-trees  $s_1, ..., s_n$ , show that  $P(s_1) \wedge ... \wedge P(s_n) \Rightarrow P(t).$

**Example:** Recall our definition of *IntSet* with the operations contains and incl:

```
abstract class IntSet {
    def incl(x: Int): IntSet
    def contains(x: Int): Boolean
}
```

```
case class Empty extends IntSet {
       def contains(x: Int): Boolean = false
       def incl(x: Int): IntSet = NonEmpty(x, Empty, Empty)
    }
    case class NonEmpty(elem: Int, left: IntSet, right: IntSet) extends IntSet {
       def contains(x: Int): Boolean =
          if (x < elem) left contains x
          else if (x > elem) right contains x
          else true
       def incl(x: Int): IntSet =
          if (x < elem) NonEmpty(elem, left incl x, right)
          else if (x > elem) NonEmpty(elem, left, right incl x)
          else this
    }
(With case modifiers to enable the use of factory methods in place of
new).
```

What does it mean to prove the correctness of this implementation?

#### The Laws of IntSet

One way to define and show the correctness of an implementation consists of proving the laws that it respects.

In the case of *IntSet*, we have the following three laws:

For any set s, and elements x and y:

$Empty \ contains \ x$	= false	
(s incl x) contains x	= true	
(s incl x) contains y	$= s \ contains \ y$	if $x \neq y$

(In fact, we can show that these laws completely characterize the desired data type).

How can we prove these laws?

**Proposition 1**: Empty contains x = false.

**Proof:** According to the definition of contains in Empty.

Proposition 2: (s incl x) contains x = true

Proof:

Base Case: Empty

- (Empty incl x) contains x
- = (by the definition of incl in Empty) NonEmpty(x, Empty, Empty) contains x
- = (by the definition of contains in NonEmpty) true

**Induction Step:** NonEmpty(x, l, r)

(NonEmpty(x, l, r) incl x) contains x

- = (by the definition of incl in NonEmpty)NonEmpty(x, l, r) contains x
- = (by the definition of contains in NonEmpty) true

**Induction Step:** NonEmpty(y, l, r) with y < x

- (NonEmpty(y, l, r) incl x) contains x
- = (by the definition of incl in NonEmpty) NonEmpty(y, l, r incl x) contains x
- = (by the definition of contains in NonEmpty) (r incl x) contains x
- = (by the induction hypothesis) true

**Induction Step:** NonEmpty(y, l, r) with y > x is analogous.

Proposition 3: If  $x \neq y$  then xs incl y contains x = xs contains x. Proof: See blackboard.

### Exercise

```
Suppose we add a function union to IntSet:
```

```
abstract class IntSet { ...
    def union(other: IntSet): IntSet
  }
  class Expty extends IntSet { ...
    def union(other: IntSet) = other
  }
  class NonEmpty(x: Int, 1: IntSet, r: IntSet) extends IntSet { ...
    def union(other: IntSet): IntSet = 1 union (r union (other incl x))
  }
}
The correctness of union can be translated into the following law:
```

```
Proposition 4: (xs union ys) contains x = xs contains x || ys contains x.
Is this true? Which hypothesis is missing? Find a counter-example.
```

Show proposition 4 by using structural induction on xs.