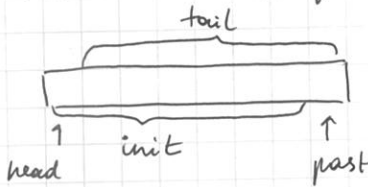


More functions on Listsmethods

- `xs.length`
- `xs.last`
- `xs.init` - all elements but last
- `xs take n` - first n elements of `xs`
(or `xs` if it has less than n els)
- `xs drop n` - the rest of list after taking first n els.
- `xs(n)` or `xs apply n` - the element at index n .



- `xs ++ ys` - append (all from `xs` followed by all from `ys`)
- `xs.reverse`
- `xs.updated (n, x)` - changes n -th element on `x` - on a new list (old untouched)
- `xs index of x`
- `xs.contains x` - same as index of x , 0.

Implementation of last

```
def last[T](xs: List[T]): T = xs match {  
  case Nil => throw ...  
  case List(x) => x  
  case y::ys => last(ys)  
}
```

$O(n)$!

Concat

```
def concat(xs: List[T], ys: List[T]): List[T] = xs match {  
  case Nil => ys  
  case z::zs => z::concat(zs, ys)  
}
```

$O(|xs|)$

Reverse

```
def reverse[T](xs: List[T]): List[T] = xs match {  
  case Nil => xs  
  case y::ys => reverse(ys) ++ List(y)  
}
```

Can we do better? than $O(n^2)$

Pairs and Tuples

Merge Sort

- Separate the list into 2 sub-lists, each containing approx a half of the elements
- Sort the sublists
- merge them into one sorted list

```
def msort(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = {  
  val n = xs.length / 2  
  if (n == 0) xs  
  else {  
    def  
    val (fst, snd) = xs.splitAt n  
    merge(msort(fst), msort(snd))  
  }  
}
```

```
def merge(xs: List[Int], ys: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match {  
  case Nil => ys  
  case x :: xs1 =>  
    ys match {  
      case Nil => xs  
      case y :: ys1 =>  
        if (x < y) x :: merge(xs1, ys)  
        else y :: merge(xs, ys1)  
    }  
}
```

The `splitAt` function

returns two sublists - in a pair

Pairs

(x, y) in Scala

```
val pair = ("answer", 42)
           | type (String, Int) |
```

Pairs can be used as patterns:

```
val (label, value) = pair
    ↓           ↓
"answer"       42
```

Works analogously for tuples

Type

A tuple type (T_1, \dots, T_n) - is an abbr for

`scala. Tuple n [T1, ..., Tn]`

```
case class Tuple2[T1, T2](_ 1: T1, _ 2: T2) {
```

override def toString ...

}

so we can use names $-1, -2$:

$\text{pair}_{-1}, \text{pair}_{-2},$

but the pattern matching form is generally preferred

Exercise:

p.m. on pair

```
def merge(xs: List[Int], ys: List[Int]):  
  List[Int] = (xs, ys) match {
```

```
  case (Nil, _) => ys
```

```
  case (_, Nil) => xs
```

```
  case (x::xs1, y::ys1) =>
```

```
    if (x < y)
```

```
      x::merge(xs1, ys)
```

```
    else
```

```
      y::merge(xs, ys1)
```

```
}
```

Implicit Parameters

how to parametrize `msort`?

idea: to have a comparison function

```
def msort [T] (xs: List[T]) (lt: (T, T) => Boolean) = {  
  ~  
  merge (msort (fst) (lt), msort (snd) (lt))  
}
```

```
def merge (xs: List[T], ys: List[T]) = (xs, ys) match {  
  ...  
  case (x::xs1, y::ys1) =>  
    if (lt(x, y)) ...  
    else ...  
}
```

parameters can be inferred

```
merge (xs) ((x, y) => x < y)  
merge (xs) ((x, y) => x.compareTo(y) < 0)
```

Parametrization with ordering

`scala.math.Ordering[T]`

provides ways to compare elements of type `T`.

=> `ord: Ordering ...`
`if (ord.lt(x, y)) ...`

import math.Ordering

msort (nums) (Ordering.Int)

msort (fruits) (Ordering.String)

Problem: Passing around lt or ord values is cumbersome.

We can avoid this by making ord as an implicit parameter

```
def msort[T](xs: List)(implicit ord: Ordering) =
```

```
...
```

```
def merge(xs: ..., ys: ...) = {
```

```
... if (ord.lt(x, y))...
```

```
...
```

```
merge(msort(fst), msort(snd))
```

And then we can avoid the ordering param:

```
msort(nums)
```

```
msort(fruits)
```

^ the compiler will figure out the right implicit param based on the needed type

Rules:

The compiler will search an implicit definition that

- is marked "implicit"
- has a type compatible with T
- is visible

otherwise - error.

High-order List functions

Recurring patterns:

- transforming each element in a list
- filtering a list
- combining the elements

map: transforming each elem.

```
class List[T]:  
  def map(f: T => U): List[U] = this match {  
    case Nil => this  
    case x :: xs => f(x) :: xs.map(f)  
  }  
}
```

```
xs.map(x => x * factor)  
xs.map(x => x * x)
```

filter

```
class List[T]:  
  def filter(p: T => Boolean): List[T] =  
    this match {  
      case Nil => this  
      case x :: xs =>  
        if (p(x))  
          x :: xs.filter(p)  
        else  
          xs.filter(p)  
    }  
}
```


Variation of filter:

- `xs filterNot p` -
same as `xs filter (x => !p(x))`
- `xs partition p` -
same as
(`xs filter p`, `xs filterNot p`),
but computed in a single traversal
- `xs takeWhile p` -
the longest prefix of `xs` with elements
that all satisfy `p`
- `xs dropWhile p` -
the remainder of the list after
removing leading elements that
satisfy `p`
- `xs span p` -
same as
(`xs takeWhile p`, `xs dropWhile p`) -
but in a single traversal.

Exercise:

pack function

"a", "a", "a", "b", "c", "c", "a" =>

List("a", "a", "a"), List("b"), List("c", "c"), List("a").

```
def pack[T] (xs: List[T]): List[List[T]] = xs match {  
  case Nil => Nil  
  case x :: xs1 => {  
    (l, r) = xs.span (el => x == el)  
    List(l) :: pack(r)  
  }  
}
```

heck.
?

encode func.

using pack, produces:

aaa bcc a

↓

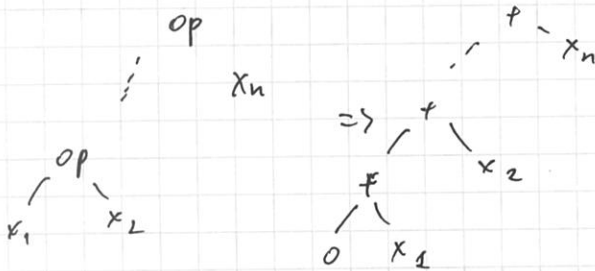
List(("a", 3), ("b", 1), ("c", 2), ("a", 1))

reduce: Reduction of a list

eg. sum = $0 + x_1 + \dots + x_n$
product = $1 * x_1 * \dots * x_n$

reduceLeft

inserts a given binary operator
between adjacent elements of a list:



```
def sum(xs: List[Int]) =  
  (0 :: xs) reduceLeft ((x, y) => x + y)
```

```
def product(xs: List[Int]) =  
  (1 :: xs) reduceLeft ((x, y) => x * y)
```

A Shorter way to write functions

instead of $((x, y) \Rightarrow x + y)$
 $((x, y) \Rightarrow x + y)$ we can write

$(- + -)$

Every $-$ represents a new parameter,
going from left to right

So,

```
def sum(xs: List[Int]) =  
  (0 :: xs) reduceLeft (- + -)
```

```
def product(xs: List[Int]) =  
  (1 :: xs) reduceLeft (- * -)
```

foldLeft

The `reduceLeft` is defined in terms of
a more general function, `foldLeft`

it's like `reduceLeft`, but takes an accumulator,
`z`, as an additional parameter -
which is returned when it's called on
an empty list.

$\dots \xrightarrow{op} x_n$

So, `sum` and `product`
can be defined as

$z \xrightarrow{op} x_1$

```
def sum(...) =  
  (xs foldLeft 0) (- + -)
```

Implementation

foldLeft and reduceLeft:

```
def reduceLeft (op: (T, T) => T): T => this match {
```

```
  case Nil => throw...
```

```
  case x :: xs => (xs foldLeft x) (op)
```

```
}
```

```
def foldLeft [U] (z: U) (op: (U, T) => U): U =  
  this match {
```

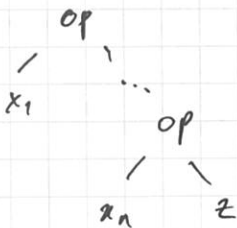
```
  case Nil => z
```

```
  case x :: xs => (xs foldLeft op(z, x)) (op)
```

```
}
```

Fold Right and Reduce Right -

same, but folds/reduces from right to left



implementation

```
def reduceRight (op: (T, T) => T): T = this match {  
  case Nil => throw..  
  case x :: Nil => x  
  case x :: xs => op(x, xs.reduceRight(op))  
}
```

```
def foldRight[U](z: U)(op: (T, U) => U): U =  
  this match {
```

```
    case Nil => z  
    case x :: xs => op(x, (xs foldRight z)(op))
```

For operators that are associative and commutative, foldLeft and foldRight are equivalent, (though there might be a diff. in efficiency)

Some Reasoning on Lists

How we can prove that ++ (concat) is associative and Nil is a neutral el.?

$$\begin{aligned}(xs ++ ys) ++ zs &= xs ++ (ys ++ zs) \\ xs ++ Nil &= xs \\ Nil ++ xs &= xs\end{aligned}$$

We can prove that by structural induction on lists.

The natural induction

the principle of proof by natural induction:

to show a property $P(n)$ for all integers $n \geq b$

- show that we have $P(b)$ (base case)
- for all integers $n \geq b$ show the induction step
 - if one has $P(n)$, it also has $P(n+1)$

Eg.

Factorial

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1)!$$

Show that for all $n \geq 4$ $n! \geq 2^n$

base $n=4$, $4! = 24 \geq 16 = 2^4$

induction step $n! \geq 2^n$

$$\begin{aligned} \cancel{n!} (n+1)! &\geq (n+1) n! \geq 2 \cdot n! \geq \\ &\geq 2 \cdot 2^n = 2^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$n! \geq 2^n$$

by our hypothesis

Referential Transparency

A proof can freely apply reduction steps as equalities to some parts of a term

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

Structural Induction

analogous to natural induction

to have a property $P(xs)$ for all lists xs

- show that $P(nil)$ holds (base case)
- for a list xs and some element x , show the induction step

if $P(xs)$ holds, then $P(x::xs)$ also holds

Eg
• let's show that for lists xs, ys, zs :

$$(xs ++ ys) ++ zs = xs ++ (ys ++ zs)$$

```
def concat [T] (xs: List[T], ys: List[T]) = xs match {  
  case Nil => Nil  
  case x::xs1 => x::concat(xs1, ys)  
}
```

$$Nil ++ ys = ys \quad // \text{ first clause}$$

$$(x::xs1) ++ ys = x::(xs1 ++ ys) \quad // \text{ second clause}$$

base case

Nil

$$\begin{aligned} \text{left: } (Nil ++ ys) ++ zs &= ys ++ zs && (1^{\text{st}} \text{ clause}) \\ \text{right: } Nil ++ (ys ++ zs) &= ys ++ zs && (1^{\text{st}} \text{ clause}) \end{aligned}$$

case established.