



KSFUPRO1K1U – Functional Programming

Lecture 4: Collections: Lists, maps and sets

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These slides are based on original slides by Michael R. Hansen, DTU. Thanks!!!



The original slides has been used at a course in functional programming at DTU.



Higher-order functions are

- everywhere

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i), \frac{df}{dx}, \{x \in A \mid P(x)\}, \dots$$

- powerful

Parameterized modules succinct code ...

The collections, List, Maps and Sets share these properties

- expose natural abstract concepts; and may be viewed as *design patterns in the small*.
- efficient code reuse because functions can be used and combined in many ways
- the data structures are *immutable*.
- the same design patterns are used across the libraries

HIGHER-ORDER FUNCTIONS ARE USEFUL



now down to earth

- Many recursive declarations follows the same schema.

For example:

```
let rec f = function
| []      ->    ...
| x::xs ->    ... f (xs) ...
```

Succinct declarations achievable using higher-order functions

Contents

- Higher-order list functions (in the library)
 - map
 - exists, forall, filter, tryFind
 - foldBack, fold

Avoid (almost) identical code fragments by
parameterizing functions with functions



A typical declaration following the structure of lists:

```
let rec posList = function
  | []      -> []
  | x::xs -> (x > 0)::posList xs;;
val posList : int list -> bool list

posList [4; -5; 6];;
val it : bool list = [true; false; true]
```

Applies the function `fun x -> x > 0` to each element in a list



```
let rec addElems = function
  | []          -> []
  | (x,y)::zs  -> (x+y)::addElems zs;;
val addElems : (int * int) list -> int list

addElems [(1,2) ; (3,4)];;
val it : int list = [3; 7]
```

Applies the addition function + to each pair of integers in a list

The function: `map`



Applies a function to each element in a list

$$\text{map } f [v_1; v_2; \dots; v_n] = [f(v_1); f(v_2); \dots; f(v_n)]$$

Declaration

Library function

```
let rec map f = function
  | []      -> []
  | x::xs -> f x :: map f xs;;
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
```

Succinct declarations can be achieved using `map`, e.g.

```
let posList = map (fun x -> x > 0);;
val posList : int list -> bool list

let addElems = map (fun (x,y) -> x+y);;
val addElems : (int * int) list -> int list
```

Does `map` always run through the entire list, assuming `f` returns a value?



Declare a function

$$g [x_1, \dots, x_n] = [x_1^2 + 1, \dots, x_n^2 + 1]$$

Remember

$$\text{map } f [v_1; v_2; \dots; v_n] = [f(v_1); f(v_2); \dots; f(v_n)]$$



Predicate: For some x in xs : $p(x)$.

$$\text{exists } p \text{ } xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true} \text{ for some } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Declaration

Library function

```
let rec exists p = function
  | []      -> false
  | x::xs -> p x || exists p xs;;
val exists : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool
```

Example

```
exists (fun x -> x>=2) [1; 3; 1; 4];;
val it : bool = true
```

Does `exists` always run through the entire list, assuming p returns a value?



Declare `isMember` function using `exists`.

```
let isMember x ys = exists ????? ;;  
val isMember : 'a -> 'a list -> bool when 'a : equality
```

Remember

$$\text{exists } p \text{ } xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true} \text{ for some } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Higher-order list functions: `forall`



Predicate: For every x in xs : $p(x)$.

$$\text{forall } p \text{ } xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true, for all elements } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Declaration

Library function

```
let rec forall p = function
  | []      -> true
  | x::xs -> p x && forall p xs;;
val forall : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool
```

Example

```
forall (fun x -> x>=2) [1; 3; 1; 4];;
val it : bool = false
```

Does `forall` always run through the entire list, assuming p returns a value?



Declare a function

`disjoint xs ys`

which is true when there are no common elements in the lists `xs` and `ys`, and false otherwise.

Declare a function

`subset xs ys`

which is true when every element in the lists `xs` is in `ys`, and false otherwise.

Remember

`forall p xs =` $\begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true, for all elements } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



Set comprehension: $\{x \in xs : p(x)\}$

`filter p xs` is the list of those elements x of xs where $p(x) = \text{true}$.

Declaration

Library function

```
let rec filter p = function
  | []      -> []
  | x::xs -> if p x then x :: filter p xs
              else filter p xs;;
val filter : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list
```

Example

```
filter System.Char.IsLetter ['l'; 'p'; 'F'; '-'];;
val it : char list = ['p'; 'F']
```

where `System.Char.IsLetter c` is true iff
 $c \in \{'A', \dots, 'Z'\} \cup \{'a', \dots, 'z'\}$

Does `filter` always run through the entire list, assuming p returns a value?



Declare a function

```
inter xs ys
```

which contains the common elements of the lists *xs* and *ys* — i.e. their intersection.

Remember:

`filter p xs` is the list of those elements *x* of *xs* where $p(x) = \text{true}$.



$\text{tryFind } p \text{ } xs = \begin{cases} \text{Some } x & \text{for an element } x \text{ of } xs \text{ with } p(x) = \text{true} \\ \text{None} & \text{if no such element exists} \end{cases}$

```
let rec tryFind p = function
  | x::xs when p x -> Some x
  | _::xs          -> tryFind p xs
  | _              -> None ;;
val tryFind : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a option
```

```
tryFind (fun x -> x>3) [1;5;-2;8];;
val it : int option = Some 5
```

Does `tryFind` always run through the entire list, assuming `p` returns a value?



Example: sum of norms of geometric vectors:

```
let norm(x1:float,y1:float) = sqrt(x1*x1+y1*y1);;  
val norm : float * float -> float
```

```
let rec sumOfNorms = function  
  | []      -> 0.0  
  | v::vs -> norm v + sumOfNorms vs;;  
val sumOfNorms : (float * float) list -> float
```

```
let vs = [(1.0,2.0); (2.0,1.0); (2.0, 5.5)];;  
val vs : (float * float) list  
        = [(1.0, 2.0); (2.0, 1.0); (2.0, 5.5)]
```

```
sumOfNorms vs;;  
val it : float = 10.32448591
```



```
let rec sumOfNorms = function
  | []      -> 0.0
  | v::vs   -> norm v + sumOfNorms vs;;
```

Let $f\ v\ s$ abbreviate $\text{norm } v + s$ in the evaluation:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{sumOfNorms } [v_0; v_1; \dots; v_{n-1}] \\ \rightsquigarrow & \text{norm } v_0 + (\text{sumOfNorms } [v_1; \dots; v_{n-1}]) \\ = & f\ v_0 (\text{sumOfNorms } [v_1; \dots; v_{n-1}]) \\ \rightsquigarrow & f\ v_0 (f\ v_1 (\text{sumOfNorms } [v_2; \dots; v_{n-1}])) \\ & \vdots \\ \rightsquigarrow & f\ v_0 (f\ v_1 (\dots (f\ v_{n-1} 0.0) \dots)) \end{aligned}$$

This repeated application of f is also called a **folding** of f .

Many functions follow such recursion and evaluation schemes

Higher-order list functions: `foldBack` (1)



Suppose that \otimes is an infix function. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{foldBack } (\otimes) \ [a_0; a_1; \dots; a_{n-2}; a_{n-1}] \ e_b \\ = \ a_0 \otimes (a_1 \otimes (\dots (a_{n-2} \otimes (a_{n-1} \otimes e_b)) \dots))\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{List.foldBack } (+) \ [1; 2; 3] \ 0 &= 1 + (2 + (3 + 0)) = 6 \\ \text{List.foldBack } (-) \ [1; 2; 3] \ 0 &= 1 - (2 - (3 - 0)) = 2\end{aligned}$$

Using the cons operator gives the append function `@` on lists:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{foldBack } (\text{fun } x \text{ rst} \rightarrow x::\text{rst}) \ [x_0; x_1; \dots; x_{n-1}] \ ys \\ = x_0::(x_1:: \dots ::(x_{n-1}::ys) \dots) \\ = [x_0; x_1; \dots; x_{n-1}] \ @ \ ys\end{aligned}$$

so we get:

```
let (@) xs ys = List.foldBack (fun x rst -> x::rst) xs ys;;
val ( @ ) : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list

[1;2] @ [3;4] ;;
val it : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4]
```



```
let rec foldBack f xlst e =  
  match xlst with  
  | x::xs -> f x (foldBack f xs e)  
  | []      -> e ;;  
val foldBack : ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b -> 'b
```

```
let sumOfNorms vs = foldBack (fun v s -> norm v + s) vs 0.0;;
```

```
let length xs = foldBack (fun _ n -> n+1) xs 0;;
```

```
let map f xs = foldBack (fun x rs -> f x :: rs) xs [];;
```

Does `foldBack` always run through the entire list, assuming `f` returns a value?



Let an insertion function be declared by

```
let insert x ys = if isMember x ys then ys else x::ys;;
```

Declare a union function on sets, where a set is represented by a list without duplicated elements.

Remember:

$$\text{foldBack } (\oplus) [x_1; x_2; \dots; x_n] b \rightsquigarrow x_1 \oplus (x_2 \oplus \dots \oplus (x_n \oplus b) \dots)$$

Higher-order list functions: `fold` (1)



Suppose that \oplus is an infix function.

Then the `fold` function has the definitions:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fold } (\oplus) \ e_a \ [b_0; b_1; \dots; b_{n-2}; b_{n-1}] \\ = \ ((\dots((e_a \oplus b_0) \oplus b_1) \dots) \oplus b_{n-2}) \oplus b_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

i.e. it applies \oplus from left to right.

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{List.fold } (-) \ 0 \ [1; 2; 3] &= ((0 - 1) - 2) - 3 = -6 \\ \text{List.foldBack } (-) \ [1; 2; 3] \ 0 &= 1 - (2 - (3 - 0)) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

Higher-order list functions: `fold` (2)



```
let rec fold f e = function
  | x::xs -> fold f (f e x) xs
  | []     -> e ;;
val fold : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a
```

Using `cons` in connection with `fold` gives the reverse function:

```
let rev xs = fold (fun rs x -> x::rs) [] xs;;
```

This function has a linear execution time:

```
rev [1;2;3]
~> fold (fun ...) [] [1;2;3]
~> fold (fun ...) (1::[]) [2;3]
~> fold (fun ...) [1] [2;3]
~> fold (fun ...) (2::[1]) [3]
~> fold (fun ...) [2;1] [3]
~> fold (fun ...) (3::[2;1]) []
~> fold (fun ...) [3;2;1] []
~> [3;2;1]
```



- Many recursive declarations follows the same schema.

For example:

```
let rec f = function
| []      -> ...
| x::xs -> ... f(xs) ...
```

Succinct declarations achievable using higher-order functions

Contents

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Avoid (almost) identical code fragments by
parameterizing functions with functions



Sets and Maps as abstract data types

- Useful in the modelling and solution of many problems
- Many similarities with the list library

Recommendation: Use these libraries whenever it is appropriate.



A *set* (in mathematics) is a collection of element like

$\{\text{Bob, Bill, Ben}\}, \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}, \mathbb{N}, \text{ and } \mathbb{R}$

- the sequence in which elements are enumerated is of no concern, and
- repetitions among members of a set is of no concern either

It is possible to decide whether a given value is in the set.

$\text{Alice} \notin \{\text{Bob, Bill, Ben}\} \quad \text{and} \quad 7 \in \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$

The empty set containing no element is written $\{\}$ or \emptyset .

The sets concept (2)



A set A is a *subset* of a set B , written $A \subseteq B$, if all the elements of A are also elements of B , for example

$$\{\text{Ben, Bob}\} \subseteq \{\text{Bob, Bill, Ben}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$

Two sets A and B are equal, if they are both subsets of each other:

$$A = B \quad \text{if and only if} \quad A \subseteq B \text{ and } B \subseteq A$$

i.e. two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements.

The subset of a set A which consists of those elements satisfying a predicate p can be expressed using a *set-comprehension*:

$$\{x \in A \mid p(x)\}$$

For example:

$$\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{odd}(x) \text{ and } x < 11\}$$

The set concept (3)



Some standard operations on sets:

$$\begin{aligned} A \cup B &= \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\} && \text{union} \\ A \cap B &= \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\} && \text{intersection} \\ A \setminus B &= \{x \in A \mid x \notin B\} && \text{difference} \end{aligned}$$

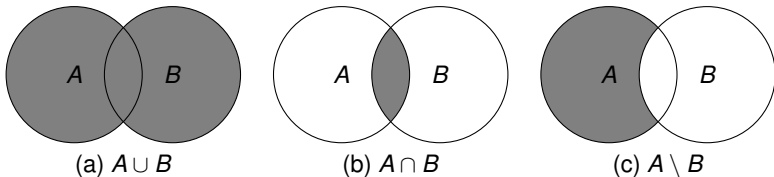


Figure: Venn diagrams for (a) union, (b) intersection and (c) difference

For example

$$\begin{aligned} \{\text{Bob, Bill, Ben}\} \cup \{\text{Alice, Bill, Ann}\} &= \{\text{Alice, Ann, Bob, Bill, Ben}\} \\ \{\text{Bob, Bill, Ben}\} \cap \{\text{Alice, Bill, Ann}\} &= \{\text{Bill}\} \\ \{\text{Bob, Bill, Ben}\} \setminus \{\text{Alice, Bill, Ann}\} &= \{\text{Bob, Ben}\} \end{aligned}$$



An abstract Data Type: A type together with a collection of operations, where

- the representation of values is hidden.

An abstract data type for sets must have:

- Operations to generate sets from the elements. Why?
- Operations to extract the elements of a set. Why?
- Standard operations on sets.



The `Set` library of F# supports finite sets. An efficient implementation is based on a balanced binary tree.

Examples:

```
set ["Bob"; "Bill"; "Ben"];;  
val it : Set<string> = set ["Ben"; "Bill"; "Bob"]
```

```
set [3; 1; 9; 5; 7; 9; 1];;  
val it : Set<int> = set [1; 3; 5; 7; 9]
```

Equality of two sets is tested in the usual manner:

```
set["Bob";"Bill";"Ben"] = set["Bill";"Ben";"Bill";"Bob"];;  
val it : bool = true
```

Sets are ordered on the basis of a lexicographical ordering:

```
compare (set ["Ann";"Jane"]) (set ["Bill";"Ben";"Bob"]);;  
val it : int = -1
```



- `ofList: 'a list -> Set<'a>`,
where `ofList [a0;...;an-1] = {a0;...;an-1}`
- `toList: Set<'a> -> 'a list`,
where `toList {a0,...,an-1} = [a0;...;an-1]`
- `add: 'a -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>`,
where `add a A = {a} ∪ A`
- `remove: 'a -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>`,
where `remove a A = A \ {a}`
- `contains: 'a -> Set<'a> -> bool`,
where `contains a A = a ∈ A`
- `minElement: Set<'a> -> 'a`)
where `minElement {a0, a1, ..., an-2, an-1} = a0 when $n > 0$`

Notice that `minElement` is well-defined due to the ordering:

```
Set.minElement (Set.ofList ["Bob"; "Bill"; "Ben"]);;  
val it : string = "Ben"
```

Selected operations (2)



- `union`: `Set<'a> -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>`,
where `union` $A\ B = A \cup B$
- `intersect`: `Set<'a> -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>`,
where `intersect` $A\ B = A \cap B$
- `difference`: `Set<'a> -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>`,
where `difference` $A\ B = A \setminus B$
- `exists`: `('a -> bool) -> Set<'a> -> bool`,
where `exists` $p\ A = \exists x \in A. p(x)$
- `forall`: `('a -> bool) -> Set<'a> -> bool`,
where `forall` $p\ A = \forall x \in A. p(x)$
- `fold`: `('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> Set<'b> -> 'a`,
where

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{fold } f\ a\ \{b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-2}, b_{n-1}\} \\ &= f(f(f(\dots f(f(a, b_0), b_1), \dots), b_{n-2}), b_{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

These work similar to their List siblings, e.g.

```
Set.fold (-) 0 (set [1; 2; 3]) = ((0 - 1) - 2) - 3 = -6
```

where the ordering is exploited.

Example: Map Coloring (1)



Maps and colors are modelled in a more natural way using sets:

```
type country = string;;  
type map     = Set<country*country>;;  
type color   = Set<country>;;  
type coloring = Set<color>;;
```

WHY?

Two countries c_1, c_2 are neighbors in a map m ,
if either $(c_1, c_2) \in m$ or $(c_2, c_1) \in m$:

```
let areNb c1 c2 m =  
    Set.contains (c1,c2) m || Set.contains (c2,c1) m;;
```

Color col can be extended by a country c given map m ,
if for every country c' in col : c and c' are not neighbours in m

```
let canBeExtBy m col c =  
    Set.forall (fun c' -> not (areNb c' c m)) col;;
```



The function

```
extColoring: map -> coloring -> country -> coloring
```

is declared as a recursive function over the coloring:

```
let rec extColoring m cols c =  
  if Set.isEmpty cols  
  then Set.singleton (Set.singleton c)  
  else let col = Set.minElement cols  
       let cols' = Set.remove col cols  
       if canBeExtBy m col c  
       then Set.add (Set.add c col) cols'  
       else Set.add col (extColoring m cols' c);;
```

Notice similarity to a list recursion:

- base case [] corresponds to the empty set
- for a recursive case $x::xs$, the head x corresponds to the minimal element col and the tail xs corresponds to the "rests" set $cols'$

Example: Map Coloring (3)



The list-based version, from last lecture:

```
let rec extColoring m cols c =  
  match cols with  
  | []          -> [[c]]  
  | col::cols' -> if canBeExtBy m col c  
                  then (c::col)::cols'  
                  else col::extColoring m cols' c
```

The set-based version:

```
let rec extColoring m cols c =  
  if Set.isEmpty cols  
  then Set.singleton (Set.singleton c)  
  else let col = Set.minElement cols  
       let cols' = Set.remove col cols  
       if canBeExtBy m col c  
       then Set.add (Set.add c col) cols'  
       else Set.add col (extColoring m cols' c)
```

The list-based version is more efficient (why?) and more readable.

Example: Map Coloring (4)



A set of countries is obtained from a map by the function:

```
countries: map -> Set<country>
```

that is based on repeated insertion of the countries into a set:

```
let countries m =  
  Set.fold  
    (fun set (c1,c2) -> Set.add c1 (Set.add c2 set))  
    Set.empty  
    m
```

The function

```
colCntrs: map -> Set<country> -> coloring
```

is based on repeated insertion of countries in colorings using the `extColoring` function:

```
let colCntrs m cs = Set.fold (extColoring m) Set.empty cs
```

Type of `Set.fold`:

```
(( 'a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> Set<'b> -> 'a)
```



The function that creates a coloring from a map is declared using functional composition:

```
let colMap m = colCntrs m (countries m);;  
  
let exMap = Set.ofList [("a","b"); ("c","d"); ("d","a")];;  
  
colMap exMap;;  
val it : Set<Set<string>>  
      = set [set ["a"; "c"]; set ["b"; "d"]]
```



A *map* from a set A to a set B is a *finite* subset A' of A together with a *function* m defined on A' : $m : A' \rightarrow B$.

The set A' is called the *domain* of m : $\text{dom } m = A'$.

A map m can be described in a tabular form:

a_0	b_0
a_1	b_1
\vdots	
a_{n-1}	b_{n-1}

- An element a_i in the set A' is called a *key*
- A pair (a_i, b_i) is called an *entry*, and
- b_i is called the *value* for the key a_i .

We denote the sets of entries of a map as follows:

$$\text{entriesOf}(m) = \{(a_0, b_0), \dots, (a_{n-1}, b_{n-1})\}$$



- `ofList: ('a*'b) list -> Map<'a,'b>`
`ofList [(a0,b0);...;(an-1,bn-1)] = m`
- `add: 'a -> 'b -> Map<'a,'b> -> Map<'a,'b>`
`add a b m = m'`, where `m'` is obtained `m` by overriding `m` with the entry `(a,b)`
- `find: 'a -> Map<'a,'b> -> 'b`
`find a m = m(a)`, if `a ∈ dom m`;
otherwise an exception is raised
- `tryFind: 'a -> Map<'a,'b> -> 'b option`
`tryFind a m = Some (m(a))`, if `a ∈ dom m`; `None` otherwise
- `foldBack: ('a->'b->'c->'c) -> Map<'a,'b> -> 'c -> 'c`
`foldBack f m c = f a0 b0 (f a1 b1 (f ... (f an-1 bn-1 c) ...))`



```
let reg1 = Map.ofList [("a1", ("cheese", 25));  
                      ("a2", ("herring", 4));  
                      ("a3", ("soft drink", 5))];;  
val reg1 : Map<string, (string * int)> =  
  map [("a1", ("cheese", 25)); ("a2", ("herring", 4));  
      ("a3", ("soft drink", 5))]
```

An entry can be added to a map using `add` and the value for a key in a map is retrieved using either `find` or `tryFind`:

```
let reg2 = Map.add "a4" ("bread", 6) reg1;;  
val reg2 : Map<string, (string * int)> =  
  map [("a1", ("cheese", 25)); ("a2", ("herring", 4));  
      ("a3", ("soft drink", 5)); ("a4", ("bread", 6))]
```

```
Map.find "a2" reg1;;  
val it : string * int = ("herring", 4)
```

```
Map.tryFind "a2" reg1;;  
val it : (string * int) option = Some ("herring", 4)
```



We can extract the list of article codes and prices for a given register using the fold functions for maps:

```
let reg1 = Map.ofList [("a1", ("cheese", 25));  
                      ("a2", ("herring", 4));  
                      ("a3", ("soft drink", 5))];;  
  
Map.foldBack (fun ac (_,p) cps -> (ac,p)::cps) reg1 [];  
val it : (string * int) list =  
    [("a1", 25); ("a2", 4); ("a3", 5)]
```

This and other higher-order functions are similar to their List and Set siblings.

Example: Cash register (1)



```
type articleCode = string;;
type articleName = string;;
type noPieces    = int;;
type price       = int;;

type info        = noPieces * articleName * price;;
type infoseq     = info list;;
type bill        = infoseq * price;;
```

The natural model of a register is using a map:

```
type register    = Map<articleCode, articleName*price>;;
```

since an article code is *a unique identification* of an article.

First version:

```
type item        = noPieces * articleCode;;
type purchase    = item list;;
```


Example: Cash register (1) - a recursive program



```
exception FindArticle;;

(* makebill: register -> purchase -> bill *)
let rec makeBill reg = function
  | []          -> ([],0)
  | (np,ac)::pur ->
      match Map.tryFind ac reg with
      | None          -> raise FindArticle
      | Some(aname,aprice) ->
          let tprice      = np*aprice
          let (infos,sumbill) = makeBill reg pur
          ((np,aname,tprice)::infos, tprice+sumbill));;

let pur = [(3,"a2"); (1,"a1")];;
makeBill reg1 pur;;
val it : (int * string * int) list * int =
  ([ (3, "herring", 12); (1, "cheese", 25) ], 37)
```

- the lookup in the register is managed by a `Map.tryFind`



```
let makeBill' reg pur =  
  let f (np,ac) (infos,billprice)  
    = let (aname, aprice) = Map.find ac reg  
      let tprice          = np*aprice  
      ((np,aname,tprice)::infos, tprice+billprice)  
  List.foldBack f pur ([],0);;  
  
makeBill' reg1 pur;;  
val it : (int * string * int) list * int =  
  ([ (3, "herring", 12); (1, "cheese", 25) ], 37)
```

- the recursion is handled by List.foldBack
- the exception is handled by Map.find

Example: Cash register (2) - using maps for purchases



The purchase: 3 herrings, one piece of cheese, and 2 herrings, is the same as a purchase of one piece of cheese and 5 herrings.

A purchase associated number of pieces with article codes:

```
type purchase    = Map<articleCode,noPieces>;;
```

A bill is produced by folding a function over a map-purchase:

```
let makeBill'' reg pur =  
  let f ac np (infos,billprice)  
    = let (aname, aprice) = Map.find ac reg  
      let tprice          = np*aprice  
      ((np,aname,tprice)::infos, tprice+billprice)  
  Map.foldBack f pur ([],0);;  
  
let purMap = Map.ofList [("a2",3); ("a1",1)];;  
val purMap : Map<string,int> = map [("a1", 1); ("a2", 3)]  
  
makeBill'' reg1 purMap;;  
val it = ([ (1, "cheese", 25); (3, "herring", 12) ], 37)
```



- The concepts of sets and maps.
- Fundamental operations on sets and maps.
- Applications of sets and maps.