Functions on Lists

We have already seen the List data type construction, and the two programs (operations) of append and reverse.

```
open List;;
(0);;
rev;;
```

We now look at a few important functions on lists.

Filter

Informal specification: Given a *predicate* p: 'a -> bool, and a list s: 'a list, return a list consisting of those elements x of s (in the same order as in s) for which $(p \ x)$ is true. A (unary) predicate on the type 'a is a function of type 'a -> bool.

The type of filter is filter: ('a -> bool) -> ('a list -> 'a list)

A slightly more elegant and readable, though *not* more efficient, implementation avoids repeating the subexpression (filter p xs)

This version uses the $let x = e_1$ in e_2 construct of OCaml to give a name x to an expression e_1 (an act of *definition*), and use this defined name x in the expression e_2 .

```
Testing filter:
```

```
filter (fun x -> ((x mod 2) = 0)) [];;
filter (fun x -> ((x mod 2) = 0)) [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7];;
```

Here we have not give a name to the predicate which checks if an integer is even (or not), and instead have used an anonymous function form ($fun \times -> ((x \mod 2) = 0))$). We can omit some parentheses and write it as: ($fun \times -> x \mod 2 = 0$)
This is the (unnamed) function on argument x that returns true if x is even and false otherwise.

Question: What is its time and space complexity of filter?

```
Exercise: Show that for any predicate p: 'a -> bool, and any list s: 'a list,
      length (filter p s) \leq length s
Exercise: Show that for the predicate (fun x \rightarrow true), and any list s: 'a list,
            filter (fun x \rightarrow true) s) = s
      and for the predicate (fun x \rightarrow false), and any list s: 'a list,
            filter (fun x \rightarrow false) s) = [ ]
Exercise: Show that for any predicate p: 'a -> bool, and any lists s1: 'a list
and s2: 'a list,
      filter p(s1 @ s2) = (filter p s1) @ (filter p s2)
Exercise: Show that for any predicate p: 'a -> bool, and any list s: 'a list,
      rev (filter p s) = filter p (rev s)
Exercise: (Idempotence of filter p) Show that for any predicate p: 'a -> bool,
and any list s: 'a list,
      filter p (filter p s) = filter p s
Exercise: (Commutation of predicates in filter) Show that for any predicates p: 'a
-> bool, and q: 'a -> bool, and any list s: 'a list,
      filter p (filter q s) = filter q (filter p s)
```

Map

Informal specification: Given a *function* $f: 'a \rightarrow 'b$, and a list s: 'a list, return a list consisting of elements (f x) (in the same order as the elements x appear in s), i.e., where the function is applied to each element of s.

The type of this function map is given by:

```
map:( 'a -> 'b) -> (('a list) -> ('b list) )

let rec map f s = match s with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs -> (f x) :: (map f xs)
;;
```

What is the time and space complexity of map?

Testing map with a function that squares the input:

```
map (fun x -> x*x) [ ] ;;
map (fun x -> x*x) [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6 ] ;;
```

Exercise: Show that for any function f: 'a -> 'b, and any list s: 'a list,
 length (map f s) = length s

Function composition as a higher-order function.

Let us now make a small digression into functions and their composition. First we define a very useful (and useless!) function:

```
let id x = x;
```

Testing id with different arguments

```
id 5;;
id true;;
id (fun x -> x*x);;
id id;;
```

Now let us define another *useful* function, that given a function $f: 'a \rightarrow 'b$, and another function $g: 'b \rightarrow 'c$, returns their function composition, which is a *function* of type 'a \rightarrow 'c.

```
let comp f q x = q(f x);;
```

The type of comp is: ('a -> 'b) -> (('b -> 'c) -> ('a -> 'c))

Exercise: (Identities of comp) Show that for any function f: 'a -> 'b,

```
comp id f = f
and
comp f id = f
```

Returning to our discussion on map, we can show the following facts.

```
Exercise: Show that for any list s: 'a list,
    map id s = s
```

Exercise: Show that for any function f: 'a -> 'b, and any lists s1: 'a list
and s2: 'a list,
 map f (s1 @ s2) = (map f s1) @ (map f s2)

Exercise: Show that for any function f: 'a -> 'b, and any list s: 'a list,
 rev (map f s) = map f (rev s)

Exercise: Show that for any functions f: 'a -> 'b, g: 'b -> 'c, and any list s:
'a list,
 map (comp f g) s = map g (map f s)

Since equality of two functions means that both return the same value on all inputs, this last equation can be presented as the following (by abstracting on the argument list):

```
For any functions f: 'a -> 'b, g: 'b -> 'c,

map (comp f q) = comp (map f) (map q)
```

Note that while map has been defined here as a recursive function, which sequentially traverses its input list, it lends itself to perfect parallelisation: $(f \times)$ can be evaluated

for each list element \times *in parallel*. Thus this map is indeed the eponymous operation of the "*map-reduce*" paradigm.

Summing a list of integers

Given list of integers, add them. What is the time and space complexity? Write a recurrence relation.

```
let rec sum s = match s with
        [ ] -> 0
        | x::xs-> x+(sum xs) ;;

The type of this program is: sum: int list -> int
Testing sum:
        sum [ ];;
        sum [ ];;
        sum [ 1; 2; 3; 4; 5];;

Exercise: Show that for any lists s1: int list and s2: int list,
        sum (s1 @ s2) = (sum s1) + (sum s2)
```

Question: Does this fact suggest a different recurrence relation for adding the elements of a list?

```
Exercise: Show that for any list s: int list,
    sum (rev s) = sum s
```

Multiplying a list of integers

Given list of integers, multiply them. What is the time and space complexity? Write a recurrence relation.

```
let rec prod s = match s with
    [ ] -> 1
    | x::xs-> x * (prod xs) ;;

The type of this program is: prod: int list -> int
Testing prod:
    prod [ ];;
    prod [ ]; 2; 3; 4; 5];;

Exercise: Show that for any lists s1: int list and s2: int list,
    prod (s1 @ s2) = (prod s1) * (prod s2)
```

Question: Does this fact suggest a different recurrence relation for multiplying the elements of a list?

```
Exercise: Show that for any list s: int list, prod (rev s) = prod s
```

Finding the least element in a list of integers

Given list of integers, find its least element. What is the time and space complexity? Write a recurrence relation.

```
let rec listmin s = match s with
    [ ] -> max_int
    | x::xs-> min x (listmin xs) ;;

The type of this program is: listmin: int list -> int
Testing listmin:
    listmin [ ];;
    listmin [ 1; 2; 3; 4; 5];;
```

Does this program look similar to the earlier ones? Can you think of some facts to prove about listmin?

Finding the conjunction of a list of booleans

Given list of booleans, find their *conjunction*. What is the time and space complexity? Write a recurrence relation.

```
let rec forall s = match s with
    [] -> true
    | x::xs -> x && (forall xs) ;;

The type of this program is: forall: bool list -> bool
Testing forall:
    forall [];;
    forall [true; true; true];;
    forall [true; false; true];;
```

Does this program look similar to the earlier ones? Can you think of some facts to prove about forall?

Exercise: Write a program to find the *disjunction* of a list of booleans. What facts can you prove about your program?

A generalised "FOLD" operation

It is possible to generalise from these different programs: in all of them, we have a binary associative operator (addition, multiplication, minimum, conjunction). Note that these examples also happen to be commutative, but that may be a distraction. To dispel that misconception, we can try to write a program that given a list of $n \times n$ matrices (over a field), multiplies them to return an $n \times n$ matrix.

We further note that in the base case (i.e., an empty list), we return the *identity* element of the binary operation. And in the inductive case, we perform the binary operation on the first element with the result of a recursive call on the remaining elements.

Thus the programs above provide a generalisation of an associative binary operator to a corresponding n-ary operator. Let us codify this in a program which we shall call foldr.

foldr takes a function f: 'a -> 'a -> 'a, its identity element e: 'a, and a list s: 'a list, and returns the result of applying f repeatedly, "folding" in one element of the list at a time using the binary operation f. In the base case (empty list) the identity element of f, namely e, is returned. The intended type is:

Question: What is the time and space complexity of foldr?

We claim we can code all the earlier programs using this generalised higher-order function. Test for example the following:

```
foldr (fun x-> fun y -> x+y) 0 [1;2;3;4;5];;
foldr (fun x -> fun y -> x*y) 1 [ 1; 2; 3; 4; 5];;
foldr min max_int [ 1; 2; 3; 4; 5];;
foldr (fun x -> fun y -> x && y) true [true; false; true];;
```

Exercise: Prove the following equalities of functions, using structural induction on an argument list.

```
sum = foldr (fun x -> fun y -> x+y) 0

prod = foldr (fun x -> fun y -> x*y) 1

listmin = foldr min max_int

forall = foldr (fun x -> fun y -> x && y) true
```

But wait! Did you notice the type of foldr? It is *not* the intended type. Instead we have got the following type

```
foldr: ('a -> 'b -> 'b ) -> 'b ->('a list) -> 'b
```

This is because the type inference method (quite correctly) did *not* make the assumption that the result type must be the same type as that of the elements of the list.

A more efficient tail-recursive fold

The "problem" with foldr is that it makes recursive calls until it reaches an empty list, and starts computing the result by applying the function f on *returning* from the recursive call. Thus it is "folding" the answer from the *right*:

$$f(x_1, f(x_2, ...f(x_n, e)...))$$

A more efficient approach would be to perform the computation on the way *forward*, as we traverse the list. The trick is to carry an *accumulated* partial result, and apply the operation f to the accumulated result and the next element in the list, to generate a new accumulated result and so on. Thus we are computing the "reduce" operation by folding from the left. (It is correct to do so if the operation f is associative, and the left and right identity elements coincide.)

```
let rec foldl f e s = match s with
     [ ] -> e
     | x::xs-> foldl f (f e x) xs ;;
```

Note that the recursive call to fold1 is a tail recursive call — it is not embedded under any other operation, unlike in foldr, where the recursive call is under $f \times (__)$. And instead of retaining the identity element e in the (tail) recursive call (as was the case in foldr), we have replaced it by the new accumulated result $(f e \times)$.

Let us test the program foldl:

```
foldl (fun x -> fun y -> x+y) 0 [1;2;3;4;5];;
foldl (fun x -> fun y -> x*y) 1 [ 1; 2; 3; 4; 5];;
foldl min max_int [ 1; 2; 3; 4; 5];;
foldl (fun x -> fun y -> x && y) true [true; false; true];;
```

But again, we have a slight surprise when seeing what type the OCaml interpreter inferred for foldl

```
foldl: ('a -> 'b -> 'a ) -> 'a ->('b list) -> 'a
```

If we swap the type variables 'a and 'b around, we would get

```
foldl: ('b -> 'a -> 'b ) -> 'b ->('a list) -> 'b
```

which is not identical to, but not too different from

```
foldr: ('a -> 'b -> 'b ) -> 'b ->('a list) -> 'b
```

Note that the OCaml List module contains functions called

```
fold_left;;
fold_right;;
```

Look at their types, which indicate a reordering of the arguments compared with the definitions we gave above.

Applications using lists

Linear search for an element x in a list s.

What is the time complexity (worst-case) of member?

Insertion sort. Here we assume that we have a list of integers. This can be generalised to any type for which there is a total ordering relation (i.e., a partially ordered set that satisfies the dichotomy condition for any two elements).

We first define a function insert that inserts an element elt into its appropriate position in a given sorted list srtdlst:

```
let rec insert elt srtdlst = match srtdlst with
      [ ] -> [elt] (* inserting into an empty list *)
      | head :: tail -> if elt <= head</pre>
```

The important mathematical fact about insert is that if it is given a sorted list (in non-decreasing order) as the second argument, it returns a sorted list. Without this assumption on the input list, we will not be able to guarantee anything about sortedness. What is the time complexity (worst-case) of insert?

We now develop an insertion sort program which uses insert. If you want to hide the program insert from being visible and available, define it locally using the let rec in construct introduced above in the sorting program in sort:

The correctness of this program arises from a mathematical invariant which is maintained: that it always returns a *sorted list*, assuming the correctness of <code>insert</code>.

```
Testing in_sort:
    in_sort [ ];;
    in_sort [ 65 ];;
    in sort [ 4; 3; -2; 5; 7; 4; 8; 2; 43; 2; 32; 1; 99];;
```