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Introduction to Computer Science

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March 19, 2007

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2. Computing tools
3. Ruler and Compass
4. Computing and Computers
5. Primitives
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7. Problem: Doubling a Square
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Next: Our Computing Tool



Introduction

- This course is about computing
- Computing as a process is nearly as fundamental as arithmetic
- Computing as a mental process
- Computing may be done with a variety of tools which may or may not assist the mind

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Computing tools

- Sticks and stones (**counting**)
- Paper and pencil (**an aid to mental computing**)
- Abacus (**still used in Japan!**)
- Slide rules (**ask a retired engineer!**)
- Ruler and compass



Ruler and Compass

Actually it is a **computing** tool!

- Construct a length that is **half** of a given length
- **Bisect** an angle
- Construct a square that is **twice** the area of a given square
- Construct $\sqrt{10}$

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Computing and Computers

- Computing is much more fundamental
- Computing may be done without a computer too!
- But a Computer cannot do much besides computing.

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Primitives

- Each tool has a set of capabilities called **primitive operations** or **primitives**

Ruler: Can specify **lengths**, lines

Compass: Can define **arcs** and **circles**

- The primitives may be combined in various ways to perform a **computation**.
- **Example** Constructing a right bisector of a given line segment.

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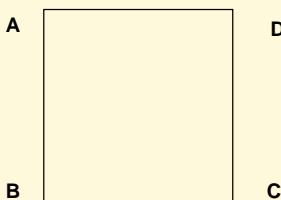
Algorithm

Given a **problem** to be solved with a given **tool**, the attempt is to evolve a combination of **primitives** of the tool **in a certain order** to solve the problem.

An explicit statement of this combination along with the order is an **algorithm**

Problem: Doubling a Square

Given a square, construct another square of twice the area of the original square.

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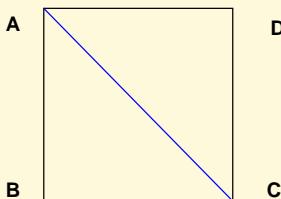
Solution: Doubling a Square

Assume given a square $\square ABCD$ of side $a > 0$.

1. Draw the diagonal \overline{AC} .
2. Complete the square $\square ACEF$ on side \overline{AC} .

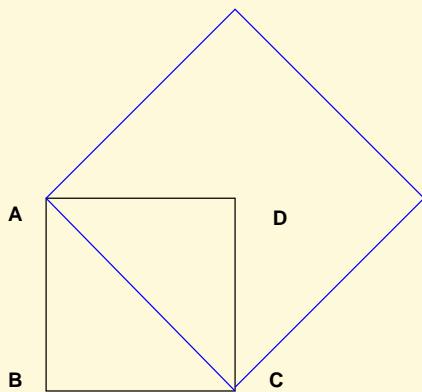
Execution: Step 1

Draw the diagonal \overline{AC} .



Execution: Step 2

Complete the square $\square ACEF$ on side \overline{AC} .





Doubling a Square: Justified

Assume given a square $\square ABCD$ of side $a > 0$.

1. Draw the diagonal \overline{AC} . $AC = \sqrt{2}a$
2. Complete the square $\square ACEF$ on side \overline{AC} . Area of $\square ACEF = 2a^2$.

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Refinement: Square

Given a line segment of length $b > 0$ construct a square of side b .

Assume given a line segment \overline{PQ} of length b .

1. Construct two lines l_1 and l_2 perpendicular to \overline{PQ} passing through P and Q respectively
2. On the same side of \overline{PQ} mark points R on l_1 and S on l_2 such that $PR = PQ = QS$.
3. Draw \overline{RS} . $\square PQSR$ is a square of side b

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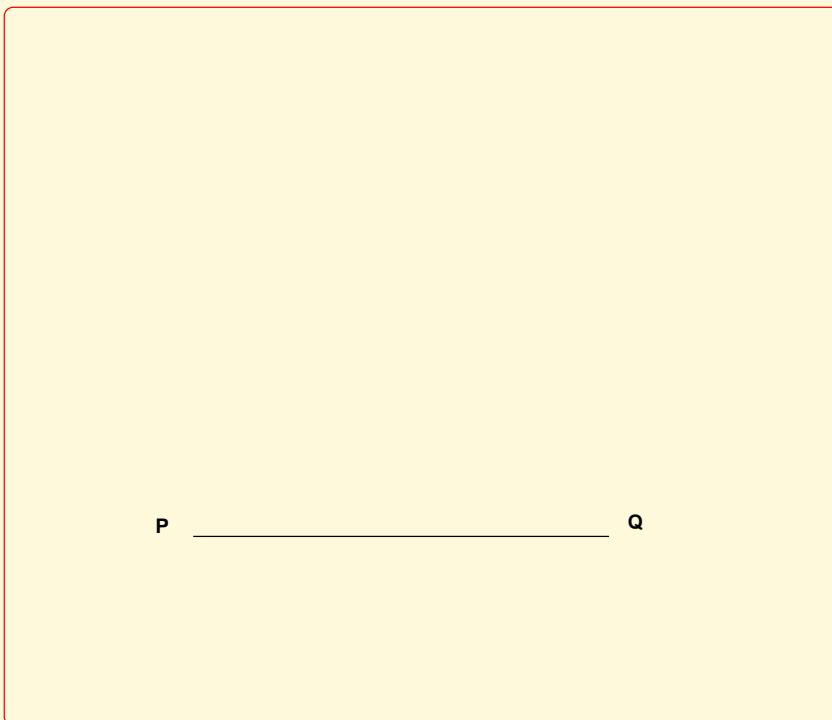
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Square on Segment: 0

Assume given a line segment \overline{PQ} of length b .



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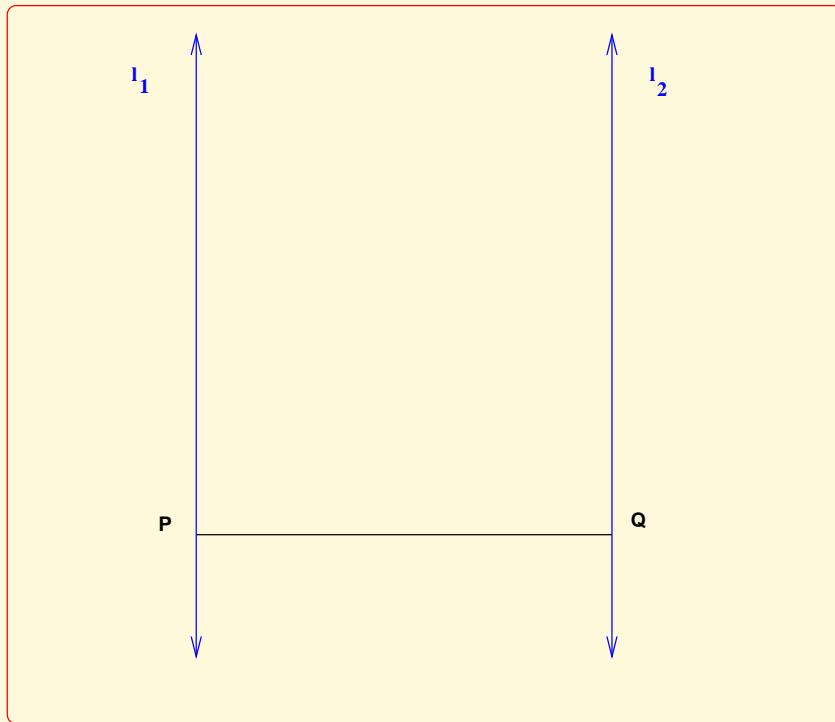
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Square on Segment: 1

Construct two lines l_1 and l_2 perpendicular to \overline{PQ} passing through P and Q respectively



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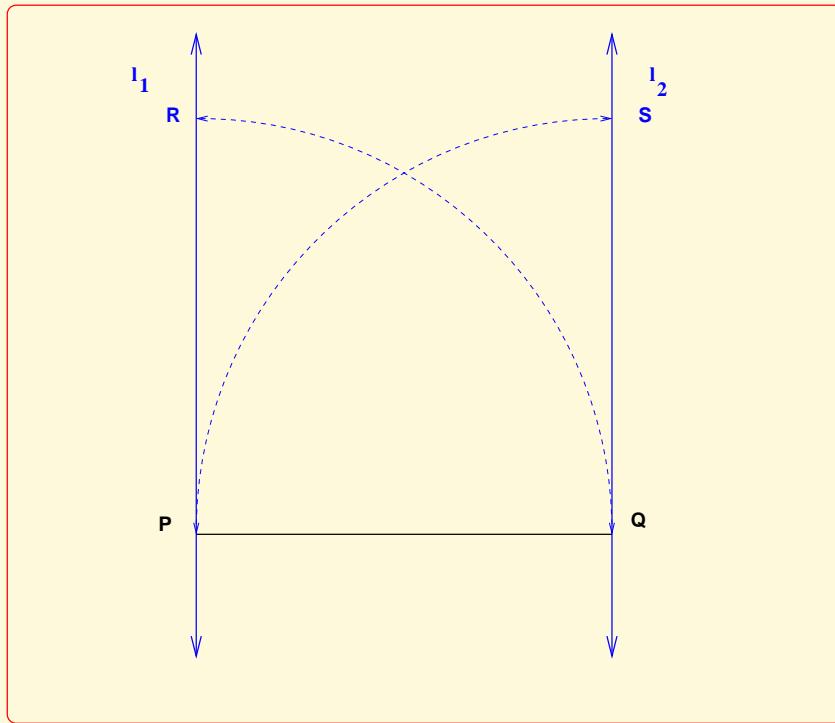
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Square on Segment: 2

On the same side of \overline{PQ} mark points R on l_1 and S on l_2 such that $PR = PQ = QS$.



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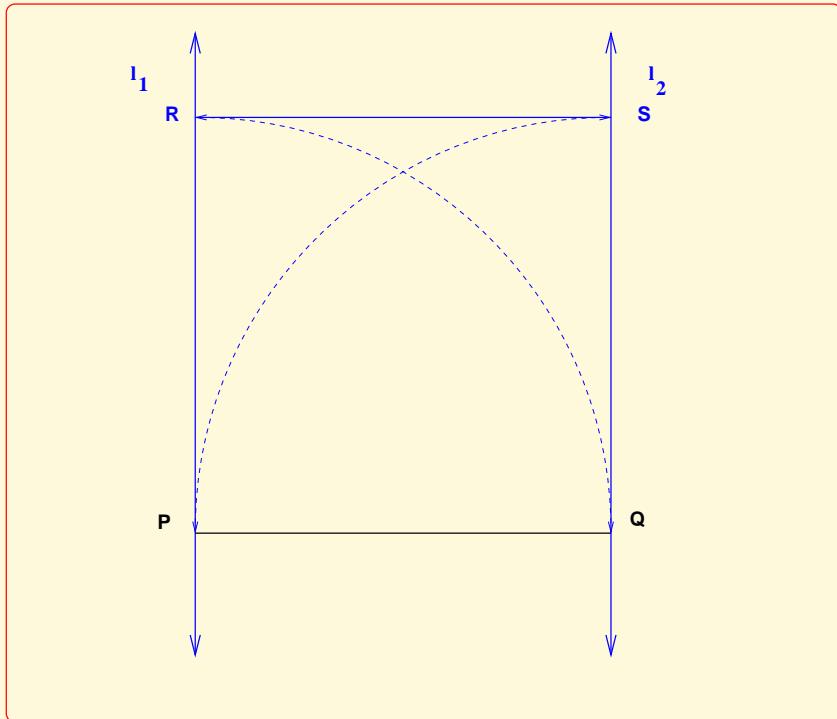
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Square on Segment: 3

Draw \overline{RS} . $\square PQSR$ is a square of side b



Square Construction algorithm



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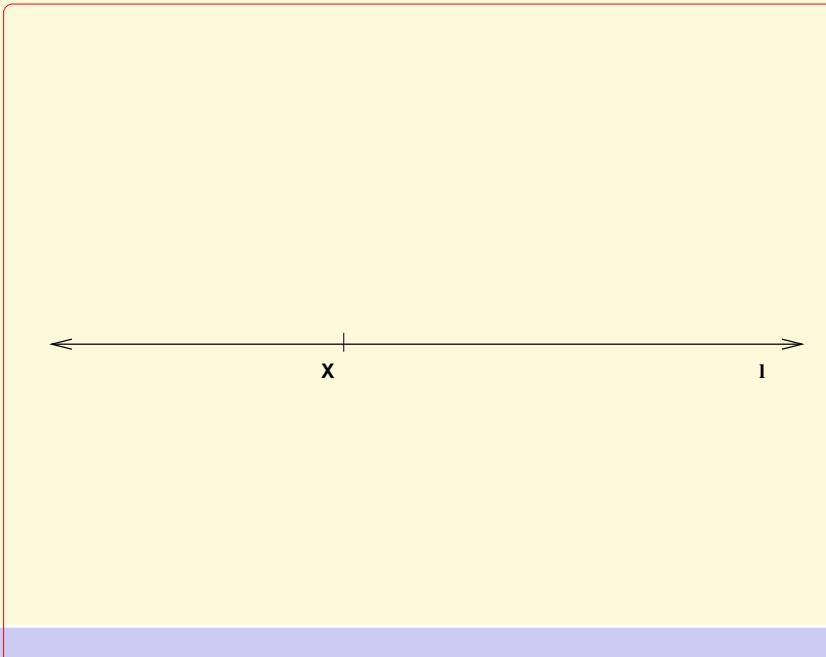
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Perpendicular at a point

Given a line, draw a perpendicular to it passing through a given point on it.

Assume given a line l containing a point X .



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Solution: Perpendicular at a point

1. Choose a length $c > 0$. With X as centre mark off points Y and Z on l on either side of X , such that $YX = c = XZ$. $YZ = 2c$.
2. Draw Circles $C_1(Y, 2c)$ and $C_2(Z, 2c)$ respectively.
3. Join the points of intersection of the two circles.

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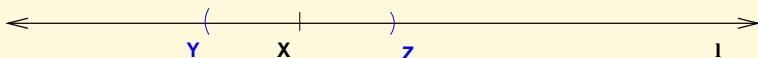
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Perpendicular at a Point: 1

Choose a length $c > 0$. With X as centre mark off points Y and Z on l on either side of X , such that $YX = c = XZ$. $YZ = 2c$.



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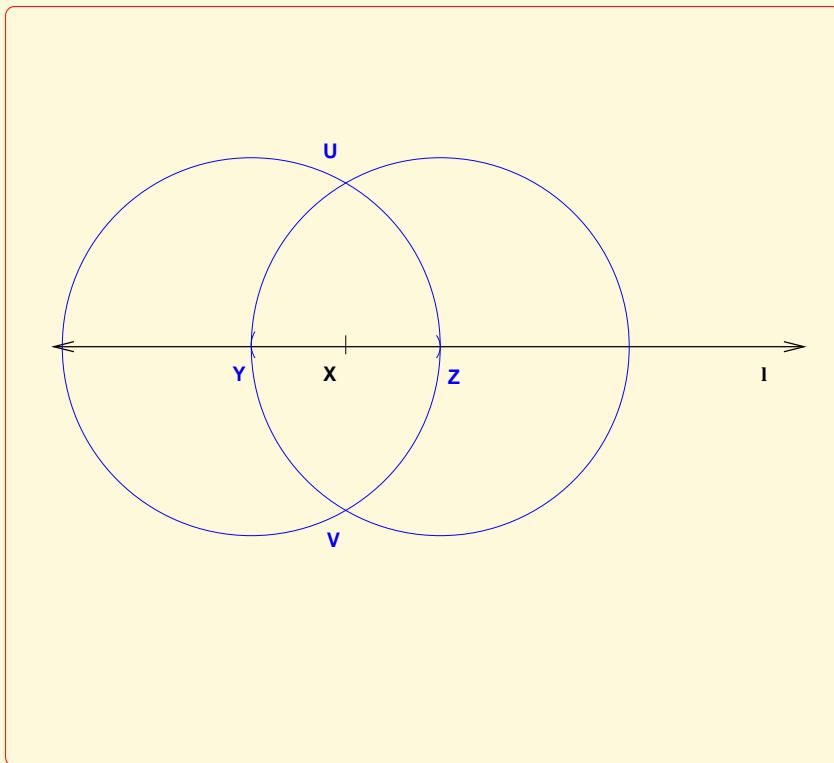
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Perpendicular at a Point: 2

Draw Circles $C_1(Y, 2c)$ and $C_2(Z, 2c)$ respectively.



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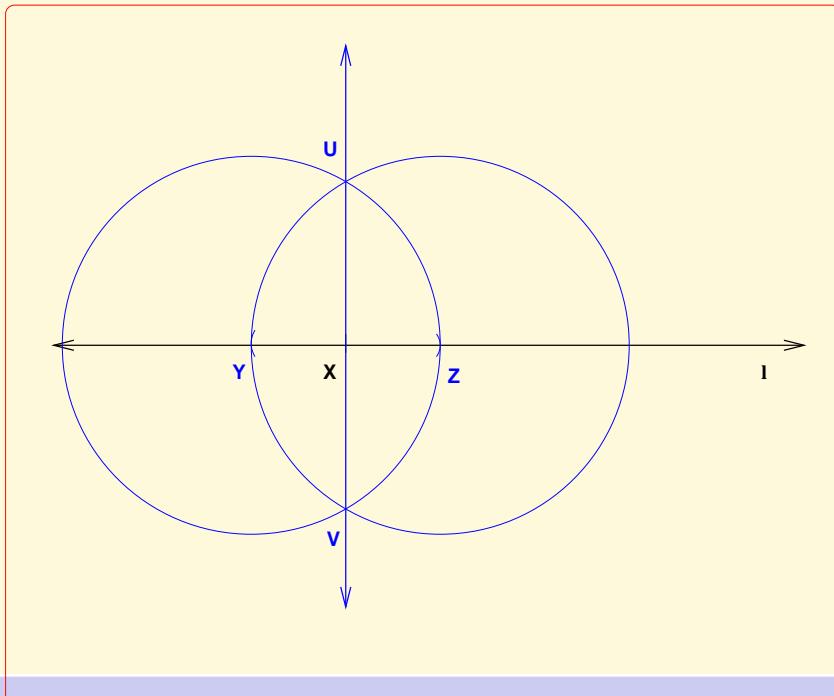
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Perpendicular at a Point: 3

Choose a length $c > 0$. With X as centre mark off points Y and Z on l on either side of X , such that $YX = c = XZ$. $YZ = 2c$.



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Perpendicular at a point: Justification

1. The two circles intersect at points U and V on either side of line l .
↔
2. UV is a perpendicular bisector of \overline{YZ} .
3. Since $YX = c = XZ$ and $YZ = 2c$,
↔
 UV is perpendicular to l and passes through X .

Back to square 1



1.2. Our Computing Tool

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1. The Digital Computer: Our Computing Tool
2. Algorithms
3. Programming Language
4. Programs and Languages
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6. Programming
7. Computing Models
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The Digital Computer: Our Computing Tool

Algorithm: A **finite** specification of the solution to a given problem using the primitives of the computing tool.

- It specifies a definite input and output
- It is unambiguous
- It specifies a solution as a **finite** process i.e. the number of steps in the computation is **finite**



Algorithms

An **algorithm** will be written in a mixture of English and standard mathematical notation. Usually,

- algorithms written in a natural language are often ambiguous
- mathematical notation is not ambiguous, but still cannot be understood by machine
- algorithms written by us use various mathematical properties. We know them, but the machine doesn't.

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Programming Language

- Require a way to communicate with a machine which has essentially no intelligence or understanding.
- Translate the algorithm into a form that may be “understood” by a machine
- This “form” is usually a **program**

Program: An **algorithm** written in a programming language.

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Programs and Languages

- Every programming language has a well defined **vocabulary** and a well defined **grammar**
- Each **program** has to be written following rigid **grammatical** rules
- A programming language and the computer together form our single **computing tool**
- Each program uses *only* the primitives of the computing tool

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Programs

Program: An **algorithm** written in the **grammar** of a **programming language**.

A **grammar** is a set of rules for forming sentences in a language.

Each programming language also has its own **vocabulary** and grammar just as in the case of natural languages.

We will learn the grammar of the language as we go along.

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Programming

The act of writing programs and testing them is **programming**

Even though most programming languages use essentially the same computing primitives, each programming language needs to be learned.

Programming languages differ from each other in terms of the convenience and facilities they offer even though they are all equally powerful.



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Computing Models

We consider mainly two models.

- **Functional**: A program is specified simply as a **mathematical expression**
- **Imperative**: A program is specified by a sequence of **commands** to be executed.

Programming languages also come mainly in these two flavours. We will often identify the computing model with the programming language.



Primitives

Every programming language offers the following capabilities to define and use:

- Primitive expressions and data
- Methods of combination of expressions and data
- Methods of abstraction of both expressions and data

The functional model

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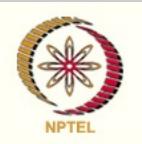
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Primitive expressions

The simplest objects and operations in the computing model. These include

- **basic data elements**: numbers, characters, truth values etc.
- **basic operations on the data elements**: addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, boolean operations, string operations etc.
- a **naming mechanism** for various quantities and expressions to be used without repeating definitions

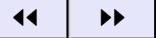


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Methods of combination

Means of combining simple expressions and objects to obtain more complex expressions and objects.

*Examples: composition of functions,
inductive definitions*



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Methods of abstraction

Means of naming and using groups of objects and expressions as a single unit

Examples: functions, data structures, modules, classes etc.



The Functional Model

The **functional** model is very convenient and easy to use:

- Programs are written (more or less) in mathematical notation
- It is like using a hand-held calculator
- Very interactive and so answers are immediately available
- Very convenient for developing, testing and proving algorithms

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Mathematical Notation

1: Factorial

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n < 1 \\ n \times (n - 1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Mathematical Notation 2: Factorial

Or more informally,

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n < 1 \\ 1 \times 2 \times \dots \times n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Mathematical Notation

3: Factorial

How about this?

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n < 1 \\ (n + 1)!/(n + 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Mathematically correct but computationally incorrect!

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A Functional Program: Factorial

```
fun fact n = if n < 1 then 1  
            else n * fact (n-1)
```



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A Computation: Factorial

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

—



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A Computation: Factorial

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- fun fact n =

=



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A Computation: Factorial

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- fun fact n =  
= if n < 1 then 1  
=
```



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A Computation: Factorial

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- fun fact n =  
= if n < 1 then 1  
= else n * fact (n-1);  
val fact = fn : int -> int
```

-



A Computation: Factorial

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- fun fact n =

= if n < 1 then 1

= else n * fact (n-1);

val fact = fn : int -> int

- fact 8;

val it = 40320 : int

-

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A Computation: Factorial

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- fun fact n =
= if n < 1 then 1
= else n * fact (n-1);
val fact = fn : int -> int
- fact 8;
val it = 40320 : int
- fact 9;
val it = 362880 : int
```

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A Computation: Factorial

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Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- fun fact n =
= if n < 1 then 1
= else n * fact (n-1);
val fact = fn : int -> int
- fact 8;
val it = 40320 : int
- fact 9;
val it = 362880 : int
-
```



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Standard ML

- Originated as part of a theorem-proving development project
- Runs on both Windows and UNIX environments
- Is **free!**
- <http://www.smlnj.org>



SML: Important Features

- Has a small vocabulary of just a few short words
- Far more “intelligent” than currently available languages:
 - automatically finds out what various names mean and
 - their correct usage
- Haskell, Miranda and Caml are a few other such languages.

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- 25. SML: Precision
- 26. Fibonacci Numbers
- 27. Euclidean Algorithm

Next: Technical Completeness & Algorithms



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Algorithms & Programs

- Algorithm
- Need for a formal notation
- Programs
- Programming languages
- Programming
- Functional Programming
- Standard ML

Factorial



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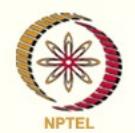
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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

—



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val x = 5;

val x = 5 : int

-



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val x = 5;

val x = 5 : int

- val y = 6;

val y = 6 : int

-



SML: Primitive Integer Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val x = 5;

val x = 5 : int

- val y = 6;

val y = 6 : int

- x+y;

val it = 11 : int

-

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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val x = 5;

val x = 5 : int

- val y = 6;

val y = 6 : int

- x+y;

val it = 11 : int

- x-y;

val it = ~1 : int

-



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 1

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- val x = 5;
```

```
val x = 5 : int
```

```
- val y = 6;
```

```
val y = 6 : int
```

```
- x+y;
```

```
val it = 11 : int
```

```
- x-y;
```

```
val it = ~1 : int
```

```
- it + 5;
```

```
val it = 4 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 2

```
val x = 5 : int
- val y = 6;
val y = 6 : int
- x+y;
val it = 11 : int
- x-y;
val it = ~1 : int
- it + 5;
val it = 4 : int
- x * y;
val it = 30 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 2

```
val y = 6 : int
- x+y;
val it = 11 : int
- x-y;
val it = ~1 : int
- it + 5;
val it = 4 : int
- x * y;
val it = 30 : int
- val a = 25;
val a = 25 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 2

```
val it = 11 : int
- x-y;
val it = ~1 : int
- it + 5;
val it = 4 : int
- x * y;
val it = 30 : int
- val a = 25;
val a = 25 : int
- val b = 7;
val b = 7 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 2

```
val it = ~1 : int  
- it + 5;  
val it = 4 : int  
- x * y;  
val it = 30 : int  
- val a = 25;  
val a = 25 : int  
- val b = 7;  
val b = 7 : int  
- val q = a div b;  
val q = 3 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 2

```
- x * y;  
val it = 30 : int  
- val a = 25;  
val a = 25 : int  
- val b = 7;  
val b = 7 : int  
- val q = a div b;  
val q = 3 : int  
- val r = a mod b;  
GC #0.0.0.0.2.45:      (0 ms)  
val r = 4 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 3

```
- val a = 25;  
val a = 25 : int  
- val b = 7;  
val b = 7 : int  
- val q = a div b;  
val q = 3 : int  
- val r = a mod b;  
GC #0.0.0.0.2.45:      (0 ms)  
val r = 4 : int  
- a = b*q + r;  
val it = true : bool
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 3

```
- val b = 7;  
val b = 7 : int  
- val q = a div b;  
val q = 3 : int  
- val r = a mod b;  
GC #0.0.0.0.2.45: (0 ms)  
val r = 4 : int  
- a = b*q + r;  
val it = true : bool  
- val c = ~7;  
val c = ~7 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 3

```
- val q = a div b;  
val q = 3 : int  
- val r = a mod b;  
GC #0.0.0.0.2.45: (0 ms)  
val r = 4 : int  
- a = b*q + r;  
val it = true : bool  
- val c = ~7;  
val c = ~7 : int  
- val q1 = a div c;  
val q1 = ~4 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 3

```
- val r = a mod b;  
GC #0.0.0.0.2.45: (0 ms)  
val r = 4 : int  
- a = b*q + r;  
val it = true : bool  
- val c = ~7;  
val c = ~7 : int  
- val q1 = a div c;  
val q1 = ~4 : int  
- val r1 = a mod c;  
val r1 = ~3 : int
```



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SML: Primitive Integer Operations 3

```
val r = 4 : int
- a = b*q + r;
val it = true : bool
- val c = ~7;
val c = ~7 : int
- val q1 = a div c;
val q1 = ~4 : int
- val r1 = a mod c;
val r1 = ~3 : int
- a = c*q1 + r1;
val it = true : bool
```



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Quotient & Remainder

For any two integers a and b , the quotient q and remainder r are uniquely determined to satisfy

-

$$a = b \times q + r$$

-

$$\begin{cases} 0 \leq r < b & \text{when } b > 0 \\ b < r \leq 0 & \text{when } b < 0 \end{cases}$$

So $0 \leq |r| < |b|$ always.

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Quit

SML: Primitive Real Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val real_a = real a;

val real_a = 25.0 : real

-

SML: Primitive Real Operations 1

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val real_a = real a;

val real_a = 25.0 : real

- real_a + b;

stdIn:40.1-40.11 Error: operator and

operator domain: real * real

operand: real * int

in expression:

real_a + b



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SML: Primitive Real Operations 1



```
stdIn:40.1-40.11 Error: operator and
operator domain: real * real
operand:           real * int
in expression:
    real_a + b
- b + real_a;
stdIn:1.1-2.6 Error: operator and
operator domain: int * int
operand:           int * real
in expression:
    b + real_a
```

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SML: Primitive Real Operations 2

```
- val a = 25.0;
val a = 25.0 : real
- val b = 7.0;
val b = 7.0 : real
- a/b;
val it = 3.57142857143 : real
- a div b;
stdIn:49.3-49.6 Error: overloaded val
          symbol: div
          type: real
GC #0.0.0.0.3.98:      (0 ms)
```

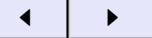
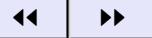


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SML: Primitive Real Operations 3

```
- val c = a/b;  
val c = 3.57142857143 : real  
- trunc(c);  
val it = 3 : int  
- trunc (c + 0.5);  
val it = 4 : int  
-
```

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SML: Primitive Real Operations 4

```
- val d = 3.0E10;  
val d = 30000000000.0 : real  
- val pi = 0.314159265E1;  
val pi = 3.14159265 : real  
-- d+pi;  
val it = 30000000003.1 : real  
- d-pi;  
val it = 29999999996.9 : real  
- pi + d;  
val it = 30000000003.1 : real  
-
```



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SML: Precision

```
- pi + d*10.0;  
val it = 300000000003.0 : real  
- pi + d*100.0;  
val it = 3E12 : real  
- d*100.0 + pi;  
val it = 3E12 : real  
- d*100.0 -pi;  
val it = 3E12 : real  
- d*10.0 - pi;  
val it = 299999999997.0 : real  
-
```

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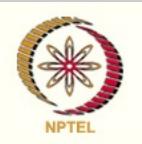
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1.4. Example: Fibonacci

1. Fibonacci Numbers: 1
2. Fibonacci Numbers: 2
3. Fibonacci Numbers: 3
4. Fibonacci Numbers: 4
5. Fibonacci Numbers: 5
6. Is $F_a(n, 1, 1) = F(n)$?
7. Trial & Error
8. Generalization
9. Proof
10. Another Generalization
11. Try Proving it!
12. Another Generalization
13. Try Proving it!
14. Complexity
15. Complexity
16. Time Complexity: \mathcal{R}
17. Time Complexity
18. Time Complexity: \mathcal{R}

19. Bound on \mathcal{R}
20. Other Bounds: \mathcal{C}_F
21. Other Bounds: \mathcal{A}_F



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Fibonacci Numbers: 1

$$\begin{cases} F(0) = 1 \\ F(1) = 1 \\ F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2) \text{ if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

```
fun fib (n) =
  if (n = 0) orelse (n = 1)
  then 1
  else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2);
```



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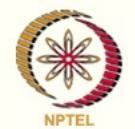
Quit

Fibonacci Numbers: 2

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{F}(0) = 1 \\ \mathbf{F}(1) = 1 \\ \mathbf{F}(n) = \mathbf{F}(n - 1) + \mathbf{F}(n - 2) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Alternatively,

$$\mathbf{F}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \mathbf{F}(n - 1) + \mathbf{F}(n - 2) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$



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Fibonacci Numbers: 3

```
fun fib (n) =  
    if (n = 0) orelse (n = 1)  
    then 1  
    else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2);
```

Alternatively,

```
fun fib (n) =  
    if (n = 0) then 1  
    else if (n = 1) then 1  
    else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2);
```



Fibonacci Numbers: 4

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{F}(0) = 1 \\ \mathbf{F}(1) = 1 \\ \mathbf{F}(n) = \mathbf{F}(n - 1) + \mathbf{F}(n - 2) \text{ if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Alternatively,

$$\mathbf{F}(n) = \mathbf{Fa}(n, 1, 1)$$

where

$$\mathbf{Fa}(n, a, b) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } n = 0 \\ b & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \mathbf{Fa}(n - 1, b, a + b) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

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Fibonacci Numbers: 5

```
fun fib_a (n, a, b) =  
    if (n = 0) then a  
    else if (n = 1) then b  
    else fib_a (n, b, a+b);
```

```
fun fib (n) = fib_a (n, 1, 1);
```



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IS $\text{Fa}(n, 1, 1) = \text{F}(n)$?

Intuition Fa is a generalization of F .

Question 1 What does it actually generalize to?

Question 2 Does the generalization have a **non-recursive** form?

Trial & Error Can we use trial and error to get a **non-recursive** form?

Trial & Error

$$\mathbf{Fa}(2, a, b) = a + b$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Fa}(3, a, b) &= \mathbf{Fa}(2, b, a + b) \\ &= a + 2b\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Fa}(4, a, b) &= \mathbf{Fa}(3, b, a + b) \\ &= \mathbf{Fa}(2, a + b, a + 2b) \\ &= 2a + 3b\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Fa}(5, a, b) &= \mathbf{Fa}(2, a + 2b, 2a + 3b) \\ &= 3a + 5b\end{aligned}$$

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Generalization

- $\text{Fa}(0, a, b) = a$
- $\text{Fa}(1, a, b) = b$
- $\text{Fa}(n, a, b) = a\text{F}(n - 2) + b\text{F}(n - 1)$
- When $a = 1$ and $b = 1$, for all $n \geq 0$,
 $\text{Fa}(n, a, b) = \text{F}(n)$

Theorem 1 For all integers a, b and $n > 1$,

$$\boxed{\text{Fa}(n, a, b) = a\text{F}(n - 2) + b\text{F}(n - 1)}$$

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Proof:

Basis For $n = 2$, $\text{Fa}(2, a, b) = a + b = a\mathbf{F}(0) + b\mathbf{F}(1)$

Induction hypothesis (IH) Assume

$\text{Fa}(k, a, b) = a\mathbf{F}(k - 2) + b\mathbf{F}(k - 1)$,
for some $k > 1$ and all integers a, b

Induction Step

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Fa}(k + 1, a, b) \\ &= \text{Fa}(k, b, a + b) \quad \text{Definition of Fa} \\ &= b\mathbf{F}(k - 2) + (a + b)\mathbf{F}(k - 1) \quad IH \\ &= a\mathbf{F}(k - 1) + b(\mathbf{F}(k - 2) + \mathbf{F}(k - 1)) \\ &= a\mathbf{F}(k - 1) + b\mathbf{F}(k) \quad \text{Definition of F} \end{aligned}$$



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Another Generalization

Try to prove a different and more direct theorem.

Theorem 2 For all integers $n > 1$,

$$\text{Fa}(n, 1, 1) = \mathbf{F}(n)$$



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Try Proving it!

Proof: By induction on $n > 1$.

Basis For $n = 0$ and $n = 1$, $\text{Fa}(0, 1, 1) = 1 = \text{Fa}(1)$

Induction hypothesis (IH) Assume

$\text{Fa}(k, 1, 1) = F(k)$, for some $k > 1$

Induction Step

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Fa}(k + 1, 1, 1) \\ = & \text{Fa}(k, 1, 2) \quad \text{Definition of Fa} \\ = & ? ? ? \quad IH \end{aligned}$$

STUCK!





Another Generalization

Try to prove a different and more direct theorem.

Theorem 3 *For all integers $n \geq 1$ and $j \geq 1$,*

$$\text{Fa}(n, \mathbf{F}(j-1), \mathbf{F}(j)) = \mathbf{F}(n+j-1)$$

Proof: By induction on $n \geq 1$, for all values of $j \geq 1$. □

Corollary 4 *For all integers $n \geq 1$,*

$$\text{Fa}(n, \mathbf{F}(0), \mathbf{F}(1)) = \mathbf{F}(n)$$

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Try Proving it!

Basis For $n = 1$, $\text{Fa}(1, \mathbf{F}(j-1), \mathbf{F}(j)) = \mathbf{F}(j)$

Induction hypothesis (IH) For some

$k > 1$ and all $j \geq 1$,

$$\text{Fa}(k, \mathbf{F}(j-1), \mathbf{F}(j)) = \mathbf{F}(k+j-1)$$

Induction Step We need to prove

$$\text{Fa}(k+1, \mathbf{F}(j-1), \mathbf{F}(j)) = \mathbf{F}(k+j).$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Fa}(k+1, \mathbf{F}(j-1), \mathbf{F}(j)) \\ &= \text{Fa}(k, \mathbf{F}(j), \mathbf{F}(j-1) + \mathbf{F}(j)) \\ &= \text{Fa}(k, \mathbf{F}(j), \mathbf{F}(j+1)) \\ &= \text{Fa}(k + (j+1) - 1) \quad \text{IH} \\ &= \text{Fa}(k+j) \end{aligned}$$



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Complexity

- Time complexity:

- No of additions: $\mathcal{A}_F(n)$
- No of comparisons: $\mathcal{C}_F(n)$
- No of recursive calls to F: $\mathcal{R}_F(n)$

- Space complexity:



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Complexity

- Time complexity:
- Space complexity:
 - left-to-right evaluation: $\mathcal{LR}_F(n)$
 - arbitrary evaluation: $\mathcal{U}_F(n)$



Time Complexity: \mathcal{R}

- Hardware operations like addition and comparisons are usually very fast compared to software operations like recursion unfolding
- The number of recursion unfoldings also includes comparisons and additions.

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Time Complexity

- It is enough to put **bounds** on the **number of recursion unfoldings** and not worry about individual hardware operations.
- Similar theorems may be proved for **any operation** by counting and induction.

So we concentrate on \mathcal{R} .

Time Complexity: \mathcal{R}

- $\mathcal{R}_F(0) = \mathcal{R}_F(1) = 0$
- $\mathcal{R}_F(n) = 2 + \mathcal{R}_F(n - 1) + \mathcal{R}_F(n - 2)$
for $n > 1$

To solve the equation as initial value problem and obtain an upper bound we guess the following theorem.

Theorem 5 $\mathcal{R}_F(n) \leq 2^{n-1}$ for all $n > 2$

Proof: By induction on $n > 2$. □



Bound on \mathcal{R}

Basis $n = 3$. $\mathcal{R}_F(3) = 2 + 2 + 0 \leq 2^{3-1}$

Induction hypothesis (IH) For some $k > 2$, $\mathcal{R}_F(k) \leq 2^{k-1}$

Induction Step If $n = k + 1$ then $n > 3$

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{R}_F(n) \\ &= 2 + \mathcal{R}_F(n-2) + \mathcal{R}_F(n-1) \\ &\leq 2 + 2^{n-3} + 2^{n-2} \quad (\text{IH}) \\ &\leq 2 \cdot 2^{n-3} + 2^{n-2} \quad \text{for } n > 3, 2^{n-3} \geq 2 \\ &= 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-2} \\ &= 2^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

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Other Bounds: \mathcal{C}_F

One comparison for each call.

- $\mathcal{C}_F(0) = \mathcal{C}_F(1) = 1$
- $\mathcal{C}_F(n) = 1 + \mathcal{C}_F(n - 1) + \mathcal{C}_F(n - 2)$ for $n > 1$

Theorem 6 $\mathcal{C}_F(n) \leq 2^n$ for all $n \geq 0$.



Other Bounds: \mathcal{A}_F

No additions for the basis and one addition in each call.

- $\mathcal{A}_F(0) = \mathcal{A}_F(1) = 0$
- $\mathcal{A}_F(n) = 1 + \mathcal{A}_F(n - 1) + \mathcal{A}_F(n - 2)$
for $n > 1$

Theorem 7 $\mathcal{A}_F(n) \leq 2^{n-1}$ for all $n > 0$.

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1.5. Primitives: Booleans

1. Boolean Conditions
2. Booleans in SML
3. Booleans in SML
4. \wedge vs. andalso
5. \vee vs. orelse
6. SML: orelse
7. SML: andalso
8. and, andalso, \perp
9. or, orelse, \perp
10. Complex Boolean Conditions



Boolean Conditions

- Two (truth) value set : {true, false}

- Boolean conditions are those statements or names which can take only truth values.

Examples: `n < 0`, true,

- Negation operator: not

Examples: `not (n < 0)`, not true, not false

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Booleans in SML

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val tt = true;

val tt = true : bool

- not(tt);

val it = false : bool

- val n = 10;

val n = 10 : int

- n < 10;

val it = false : bool

- not (n<10);

val it = true : bool

-



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Booleans in SML

Examples:

- (n >= 10) andalso (n=10);

val it = true : bool

- n < 0 orelse n >= 10;

val it = true : bool
- not ((n >= 10)

= andalso (n=10))

= orelse n < 0 orelse n >= 10;

val it = true : bool

-

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\wedge VS. andalso

p	q	$p \wedge q$	p andalso q
true	true	true	true
true	false	false	false
false	true	false	false
false	false	false	false



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\vee VS. or else

p	q	$p \vee q$	p or else q
true	true	true	true
true	false	true	true
false	true	true	true
false	false	false	false



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SML: orelse

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- val tt = true;

val tt = true : bool

- val ff = false;

val ff = false : bool

- fun gtz n = if n=1 then true

= else gtz (n-1);

val gtz = fn : int -> bool

- tt orelse (gtz 0);

val it = true : bool

-



SML: andalso

- (gtz 0) orelse tt;

Interrupt

- ff andalso (gtz 0);
val it = false : bool
- (gtz 0) andalso ff;

Interrupt

-

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and, andalso, \perp

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$p \text{ andalso } q$
true	\perp	\perp	\perp
\perp	true	\perp	\perp
false	\perp	false	false
\perp	false	false	\perp

\wedge is commutative whereas andalso is not.

or, orelse, \perp

p	q	$p \vee q$	$p \text{ orelse } q$
true	\perp	true	true
\perp	true	true	\perp
false	\perp	\perp	\perp
\perp	false	\perp	\perp

\vee is commutative whereas orelse is not.



Complex Boolean Conditions

Assume p and q are boolean conditions

$$p \text{ orelse } q \equiv \text{if } p \text{ then true else } q$$
$$p \text{ andalso } q \equiv \text{if } p \text{ then } q \text{ else false}$$

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2. Recap: Integer Operations
3. Recapitulation: Real Operations
4. Recapitulation: Simple Algorithms
5. More Algorithms
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7. Powering: SML
8. Technical completeness
9. What SML says
10. Technical completeness
11. What SML says ... *contd*
12. Powering: Math 1
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Recapitulation: Integers & Real

- Primitive Integer Operations
- Primitive Real Operations
- Some algorithms

Forward



Recap: Integer Operations

- Primitive Integer Operations
 - Naming, $+$, $-$, \sim
 - Multiplication, division
 - Quotient & remainder
- Primitive Real Operations
- Some algorithms

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- Primitive Real Operations
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 - Real to Integer
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- Some algorithms

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Recapitulation: Simple Algorithms

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 - Factorial
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More Algorithms

- Powering
- Integer square root
- Combinations nC_k



Powering: Math

For any integer or real number $x \neq 0$ and non-negative integer n

$$x^n = \underbrace{x \times x \times \cdots \times x}_{n \text{ times}}$$

Noting that $x^0 = 1$ we give an inductive definition:

$$x^n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x^{n-1} \times x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Powering: SML

```
fun power (x:real, n) =  
  if n = 0  
  then 1.0  
  else power (x, n-1) * x
```

Is it technically complete?



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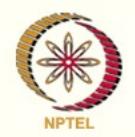
Quit

Technical completeness

Can it be always guaranteed that

- x will be **real**?
- n will be **integer**?
- n will be **non-negative**?
- $x \neq 0$?

If $x = 0$ what is 0.0^0 ?



What SML says

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey

- use "/tmp/power.sml";

[opening /tmp/power.sml]

```
val power = fn : real * int ->
                  real
```

```
val it = () : unit
```

Can it be always guaranteed that

- x will be real? YES
- n will be integer? YES

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Technical completeness

Can it be always guaranteed that

- n will be non-negative? **NO**
- $x \neq 0$? **NO**

If $x = 0$ what is 0.0^0 ?

```
- power(0.0, 0);  
val it = 1.0 : real
```

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What SML says ...

contd

sml

Standard ML of New Jersey

```
val power = fn : real * int ->
```

```
val it = () : unit
```

```
- power(~2.5, 0);
```

```
val it = 1.0 : real
```

```
- power (0.0, 3);
```

```
val it = 0.0 : real
```

```
- power (2.5, ~3)
```

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real

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Goes on forever!



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Powering: Math 1

For any real number x and integer n

$$x^n = \begin{cases} 1.0/x^{-n} & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x^{n-1} \times x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Powering: SML 1

```
fun power (x, n) =  
  if n < 0  
  then 1.0/power(x, ~n)  
  else if n = 0  
  then 1.0  
  else power (x, n-1) * x
```

Is this definition technically complete?



Technical Completeness

- $0.0^0 = 1.0$ whereas $0.0^n = 0$ for positive n
- What if $x = 0.0$ and $n = -m < 0$?
Then

$$\begin{aligned}0.0^n \\= 1.0/(0.0^m) \\= 1.0/0.0\end{aligned}$$

Division by zero!

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What SML says

```
- power (2.5, ~2);  
val it = 0.16 : real  
- power (~2.5, ~2);  
val it = 0.16 : real  
- power (0.0, 2);  
val it = 0.0 : real  
- power (0.0, ~2);  
val it = inf : real  
-
```

SML is somewhat more understanding than most languages



Powering: Integer Version

$$x^n = \begin{cases} \text{undefined} & \text{if } n < 0 \\ \text{undefined} & \text{if } x = 0 \& n = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \& n = 0 \\ x^{n-1} \times x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Technical completeness requires us to consider the case $n < 0$. Otherwise, the computation can go on **forever**.

Notation: \perp denotes the *undefined*

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Exceptions: A new primitive

```
exception negExponent;  
exception zeroPowerZero;  
fun intpower (x, n) =  
  if n < 0  
  then raise negExponent  
  else if n = 0  
  then if x=0  
       then raise zeroPowerZero  
       else 1  
  else intpower (x, n-1) * x
```

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Integer Power: SML

```
- intpower(3, 4);  
val it = 81 : int  
- intpower(~3, 5);  
val it = ~243 : int  
- intpower(3, ~4);
```

```
uncaught exception negExponent  
  raised at: intpower.sml:4.16-4.32  
- intpower (0, 0);
```

```
uncaught exception zeroPowerZero  
  raised at: stdIn:24.26-24.39
```



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Back to More Algos

Integer Square Root 1



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```
isqrt(n) = ⌊√n⌋  
- fun isqrt n =  
    trunc (Real.Math.sqrt  
           (real (n)));  
val isqrt = fn : int -> int  
- isqrt (38);  
val it = 6 : int  
- isqrt (~38);  
uncaught exception domain error  
  raised at: boot/real64.sml:89.32-89.33
```

-

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Integer Square Root 2

Suppose `Real.Math.sqrt` were not available to us!

$\text{isqrt}(n)$ of a non-negative integer n is the integer $k \geq 0$ such that $k^2 \leq n < (k + 1)^2$

That is,

$$\text{isqrt}(n) = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } n < 0 \\ k & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $0 \leq k^2 \leq n < (k + 1)^2$.
This value of k is **unique**!

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An analysis

$$\begin{aligned}0 &\leq k^2 \leq n < (k + 1)^2 \\ \Rightarrow 0 &\leq k \leq \sqrt{n} < k + 1 \\ \Rightarrow 0 &\leq k \leq n\end{aligned}$$

Strategy. Use this fact to close in on the value of k . Start with the interval $[l, u] = [0, n]$ and try to **shrink** it till it collapses to the interval $[k, k]$ which contains a single value.



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Algorithmic idea

If $n = 0$ then $\text{isqrt}(n) = 0$.

Otherwise with $[l, u] = [0, n]$ and

$$l^2 \leq n < u^2$$

use one or both of the following to shrink the interval $[l, u]$.

- if $(l + 1)^2 \leq n$ then try $[l + 1, u]$
otherwise $l^2 \leq n < (l + 1)^2$ and $k = l$
- if $u^2 > n$ then try $[l, u - 1]$
otherwise $(u - 1)^2 \leq n < u^2$ and
 $k = u - 1$



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Algorithm: isqrt

$$isqrt(n) = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ shrink(n, 0, n) & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

where



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Algorithm: shrink

$\text{shrink}(n, l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} l & \text{if } l = u \\ \text{shrink}(n, l + 1, u) & \text{if } l < u \\ & \text{and } (l + 1)^2 \leq n \\ l & \text{if } (l + 1)^2 > n \\ \text{shrink}(n, l, u - 1) & \text{if } l < u \\ & \text{and } u^2 > n \\ u - 1 & \text{if } l < u \\ & \text{and } (u - 1)^2 \leq n \\ \perp & \text{if } l > u \end{cases}$$



SML: shrink

```
exception intervalError;  
fun shrink (n, l, u) =  
  if l>u orelse  
    l*l > n orelse  
    u*u < n  
  then raise intervalError  
  else if (l+1)*(l+1) <= n  
  then shrink (n, l+1, u)  
  else l;
```

intsqrt

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SML: intsqrt

```
exception negError;  
fun intsqrt n =  
  if n<0  
  then raise negError  
  else if n=0  
  then 0  
  else shrink (n, 0, n)
```

shrink

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Run it!

```
exception intervalError
val shrink =
  fn : int * int * int -> int
exception negError
val intsqrt = fn : int -> int
val it = () : unit
- intsqrt 8;
val it = 2 : int
- intsqrt 16;
val it = 4 : int
- intsqrt 99;
val it = 9 : int
```



SML: Reorganizing Code

- `shrink` was used to develop `intsqrt`
- Is `shrink` general-purpose enough to be kept separate?
- Shouldn't `shrink` be placed within `intsqrt`?

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Intsqrt: Reorganized

```
exception negError;  
fun intsqrt n =  
  let fun shrink (n, l, u) =  
    in if n<0  
      then raise negError  
    else if n=0  
      then 0  
    else shrink (n, 0, n)  
  end
```

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shrink: Another algorithm

Shrink

shrink2(n, l, u) =

$$\begin{cases} l & \text{if } l = u \text{ or } u = l + 1 \\ \textit{shrink2}(n, m, u) & \text{if } l < u \\ & \text{and } m^2 \leq n \\ \textit{shrink2}(n, l, m) & \text{if } l < u \\ & \text{and } m^2 > n \\ \perp & \text{if } l > u \end{cases}$$

where $m = (l + u) \text{ div } 2$

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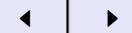


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Shrink2: SML

```
fun shrink2 (n, l, u) =  
  if l>u orelse  
    l*l > n orelse  
    u*u < n  
  then raise intervalError  
  else if l = u  
  then l
```



Shrink2: SML ... *contd*

```
else
let val m = (l+u) div 2;
      val msqr = m*m
in  if msqr <= n
      then shrink (n, m, u)
      else shrink (n, l, m)
end;
```

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Back to More Algos



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Recap: More Algorithms

- x^n for real and integer x
- Integer square root

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Recap: Power

- x^n for real and integer x
 - Technical Completeness
 - * Undefinedness
 - * Termination
 - More complete definition for real x
 - Power of an integer
 - \perp and exceptions
- Integer square root

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Recap: Technical completeness

Can it be always guaranteed that

- x will be real? YES
- n will be integer? YES
- n will be non-negative? NO
- $x \neq 0$? NO

If $x = 0$ what is 0.0^0 ?

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Recap: More Algorithms

- x^n for real and integer x
- Integer square root
 - Analysis
 - Algorithmic idea
 - Algorithm
 - where
 - and let ... in ... end

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Intsqrt: Reorganized

```
exception negError;  
exception intervalError;  
fun intsqrt n =  
  let fun shrink (n, l, u) =  
      if l>u orelse  
          l*l > n orelse  
          u*u < n  
      then raise intervalError  
      else if (l+1)*(l+1) <= n  
      then shrink (n, l+1, u)  
      else l;
```



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Intsqrt: Reorganized

```
in if n<0
    then raise negError
else if n=0
    then 0
else shrink (n, 0, n)
end
```

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Some More Algorithms

- Combinations
- Perfect Numbers

Combinations: Math



$${}^n C_k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(k+1)}{(n-k)!}$$

$$= {}^{n-1} C_{k-1} + {}^{n-1} C_k$$

Since we already have the function `fact`, we may program ${}^n C_k$ using any of the above identities. Let's program it using the last one.

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Combinations: Details

Given a set of $n \geq 0$ elements, find the number of subsets of k elements, where $0 \leq k \leq n$

$${}^nC_k = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } n < 0 \text{ or } \\ & k < 0 \text{ or } \\ & k > n \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ or } \\ & k = 0 \text{ or } \\ & k = n \\ {}^{n-1}C_{k-1} + {}^{n-1}C_k & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Combinations: SML

```
exception invalid_arg;  
fun comb (n, k) =  
  if n < 0 orelse  
    k < 0 orelse  
    k > n  
  then raise invalid_arg  
  else if n = 0 orelse  
    k = 0 orelse  
    n = k  
  then 1  
  else comb (n-1, k-1) +  
    comb (n-1, k);
```



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Perfect Numbers

An integer $n > 0$ is perfect if it equals the sum of all its **proper divisors**.

A divisor $k|n$ is **proper** if $0 < k < n$

$$k|n \iff n \bmod k = 0$$

perfect(n)

$$\iff n = \sum \{k : 0 < k < n, k|n\}$$

$$\iff n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \text{if divisor}(k)$$

where

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Refinement

1. *ifdivisor*(k) needs to be defined
2. $\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \text{ifdivisor}(k)$ needs to be defined **algorithmically**.



Perfect Numbers: SML

```
exception nonpositive;  
fun perfect (n) =  
  if n <= 0  
  then raise nonpositive  
  else  
    n = sum_divisors (1, n-1)
```

where `sum_divisors` needs to be defined

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$$\sum_l^u ifdivisor(k)$$

$$\sum_{k=l}^u ifdivisor(k) =$$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l > u \\ ifdivisor(l) + \sum_{k=l+1}^{n-1} ifdivisor(k) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $ifdivisor(k)$ needs to be defined



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SML: sum_divisors

From the algorithmic definition of

$$\sum_{k=1}^u \text{ifdivisor}(k)$$

```
fun sum_divisors (l, u) =  
  if l > u  
  then 0  
  else ifdivisor (l) +  
        sum_divisors (l+1, u)
```

where *ifdivisor(k)* still needs to be defined

ifdivisor and *ifdivisor*

$$\text{i}f\text{divisor}(k) = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } k|n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

```
fun ifdivisor (k) =  
  if n mod k = 0  
  then k  
  else 0
```

Not technically complete!
However . . .



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SML: Assembly 1

```
fun sum_divisors (l, u) =  
  if l > u then 0  
  else  
    let fun ifdivisor (k) =  
      if n mod k = 0  
      then k  
      else 0  
    in ifdivisor (l) +  
      sum_divisors (l+1, u)  
  end
```

Clearly $k \in [l, u]$

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SML: Assembly 2

```
exception nonpositive;  
fun perfect (n) =  
if n <= 0  
then raise nonpositive  
else  
let fun sum_divisors (l, u) =  
    ...  
in n = sum_divisors (1, n-1)  
end
```

Clearly $k \in [l, u] = [1, n - 1]$ whenever $n > 0$.
Technically complete!

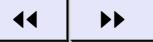


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Perfect Numbers

... *contd.*

Clearly for all k , $n/2 < k < n$,
if divisor(k) = 0.

$$\lfloor n/2 \rfloor = n \text{ div } 2 < n/2$$

Hence

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \text{if divisor}(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{n \text{ div } 2} \text{if divisor}(k)$$

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Perfect Numbers

... *contd.*

Hence

$$\text{perfect}(n)$$

$$\iff n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \text{ifdivisor}(k)$$

$$\iff n = \sum_{k=1}^n \text{div}^2 \text{ ifdivisor}(k)$$

where

$$\text{ifdivisor}(k) = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } k|n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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SML: Assembly 3

```
exception nonpositive;  
fun perfect (n) =  
  
if n <= 0  
then raise nonpositive  
else  
let fun sum_divisors (l, u) =  
    ...  
in n = sum_divisors (1, n div 2)  
end
```

Clearly $k \in [l, u] = [1, n \text{ div} 2]$ whenever $n > 0$.
Technically complete!

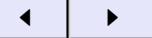
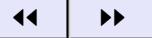


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Perfect Numbers: Run

```
exception nonpositive
```

```
val perfect = fn : int -> bool
```

```
val it = () : unit
```

```
- perfect ~8;
```

```
uncaught exception nonpositive
```

```
  raised at: perfect.sml:4.16-4.27
```

```
- perfect 5;
```

```
val it = false : bool
```



Perfect Numbers: Run

- perfect 6;

val it = true : bool

- perfect 23;

val it = false : bool

- perfect 28;

GC #0.0.0.1.3.88: (1 ms)

val it = true : bool

- perfect 30;

val it = false : bool

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SML: Code variations

```
exception nonpositive;  
fun perfect (n) =  
  if n <= 0  
  then raise nonpositive  
  else  
    let  
      fun ifdivisor (k) = ...;  
      fun sum_divisors (l, u)  
      in  
        n = sum_divisors (1, n div 2)  
    end
```

Technically complete though
ifdivisor, by itself is not!



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SML: Code variations

What about this?

```
exception nonpositive;  
fun perfect (n) =  
  let  
    fun ifdivisor (k) = ...;  
    fun sum_divisors (l, u) =  
      in if n <= 0  
        then raise nonpositive  
        else  
          n = sum_divisors (1, n div 2)  
      end
```



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SML: Code variations

What about this?

```
exception nonpositive;  
fun ifdivisor (k) = ...;  
fun sum_divisors (l, u) = ...;  
fun perfect (n) =  
  if n <= 0  
  then raise nonpositive  
  else  
    n=sum_divisors (1, n div
```

Technically incomplete!

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Summation: Generalizations

Need a method to compute summations in **general**.

For any function $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and integers l and u ,

$$\sum_{i=l}^u f(i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l > u \\ f(l) + \sum_{i=l+1}^u f(i) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Algorithmic Improvements:

1. *perfect2*
2. *shrink2*



Algorithmic Variations

1. For any $k|n$, $m = n \text{ div } k$ is also a divisor of n
2. 1 is a divisor of every positive number
3. For $n > 2$, $\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor < n \text{ div } 2$
4. Hence $\sum_{k=1}^n \text{div}^2 ifdivisor(k) =$

$$1 + \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor} ifdivisor2(k)$$

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Algorithmic Variations

perfect(n)

$$\iff n = 1 + \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor} \text{ifdivisor2}(k)$$

where

$$\text{ifdivisor2}(k) = \begin{cases} k+ & \\ (n \text{ div } k) & \text{if } k|n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Are there any glitches? Is it technically correct and complete?

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2.3. Variations: Algorithms & Code

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Recap

- Combinations
- Perfect Numbers
- Code Variations
- Algorithmic Variations

forward



Recap: Combinations

$${}^n C_k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{k!}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\dots(k+1)}{(n-k)!}$$

$$= {}^{n-1} C_{k-1} + {}^{n-1} C_k$$

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Combinations 1

```
use "fact.sml";
exception invalid_arg;
fun comb_wf (n, k) =
  if n < 0 orelse
    k < 0 orelse
    k > n
  then raise invalid_arg
  else fact (n) div
       (fact (n-k) * fact (k));
```

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Combinations 2

```
exception invalid_arg;  
fun comb (n, k) =  
  if n < 0 orelse  
    k < 0 orelse  
    k > n  
  then raise invalid_arg  
  else if n = 0 orelse  
    k = 0 orelse  
    n = k  
  then 1  
  else (* 0<k<n *)  
    prod (n, n-k+1) div  
    fact (k)
```



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Combinations 3

```
exception invalid_arg;  
fun comb (n, k) =  
  if n < 0 orelse  
    k < 0 orelse  
    k > n  
  then raise invalid_arg  
  else if n = 0 orelse  
    k = 0 orelse  
    n = k  
  then 1  
  else (* 0<k<n *)  
    prod (n, k+1) div  
    fact (n-k)
```



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Perfect 2

perfect(n)

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where

ifdivisor2(k) =

$$\begin{cases} k + m & \text{if } k|n \text{ and } k \neq m \\ k & \text{if } k|n \text{ and } k = m \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $m = (n \text{ div } k)$



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Power 2

power

The previous inductive definition used

$$x^n = \underbrace{(x \times x \times \cdots \times x)}_{n-1 \text{ times}} \times x$$

We could associate the product differently



A Faster Power

$$x^n = \underbrace{(x \times x \times \cdots \times x)}_{n/2 \text{ times}} \\ \times \underbrace{(x \times x \times \cdots \times x)}_{n/2 \text{ times}}$$

when n is even and

$$x^n = \underbrace{(x \times x \times \cdots \times x)}_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor \text{ times}} \\ \times \underbrace{(x \times x \times \cdots \times x)}_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor \text{ times}} \\ \times x$$

when n is odd

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Power2: Complete

power2(x, n) =

$$\begin{cases} 1.0 / \text{power2}(x, n) & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 1.0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ (\text{power2}(x, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor))^2 & \text{if } \text{even}(n) \\ (\text{power2}(x, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor))^2 \times x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\text{even}(n) \iff n \bmod 2 = 0$.



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Power2: SML

```
fun power2 (x, n) =  
  if n < 0  
  then 1.0/power2 (x, ~n)  
  else if n = 0  
  then 1.0  
  else
```



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Power2: SML

```
let fun even m =
    (m mod 2 = 0);
fun square y = y * y;
val pwr_n_by_2 =
    power2 (x, n div 2);
val sq_pwr_n_by_2 =
    square (pwr_n_by_2)
in if even (n)
    then sq_pwr_n_by_2
    else x * sq_pwr_n_by_2
end
```

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Computation: Issues

1. Correctness

- (a) General correctness
- (b) Technical Completeness
- (c) Termination



General Correctness

1. Mathematical correctness should be established for all algorithmic variations.
2. Program Correctness: Mathematically developed code should not be moved around arbitrarily.
 - Code variations should also be mathematically proven

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Code: Justification

- How does one justify the correctness of
 - this version and
 - this version?
- Can one correct this version?
- But first of all, what is incorrect about this version?

incorrectness



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Recall

- A program is an
 - explicit,
 - unambiguous and
 - technically completetranslation of an algorithm written in mathematical notation.
- Moreover, mathematical notation is more concise than a program.
- Hence mathematical notation is easier to analyse and diagnose.



Features: Definition before Use

incorrect version

Definition of a name before use:

- *ifdivisor(k)* is defined first.
- *idivisor(k)* uses the name n without defining it.
- k has been defined (as an argument of *ifdivisor(k)*) before being used.

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Run ifdivisor

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- fun ifdivisor(k) =  
= if n mod k = 0  
= then k  
= else 0  
;
```

```
stdIn:18.8 Error:  
unbound variable  
or constructor: n
```

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Diagnosis: Features of programs

incorrect version

- So both $sum_divisors(l, u)$ and $perfect(n)$ may use $ifdivisor(k)$.
- $sum_divisors(l, u)$ is **defined** before $perfect(n)$.
- So $perfect(n)$ may **use** both $ifdivisor(k)$ and $sum_divisors(l, u)$

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Back to Math

incorrect version

Let

$$ifdivisor(k) = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } k|n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $sum_divisors(l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l > u \\ ifdivisor(l) + \\ sum_divisors(l + 1, u) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $perfect(n) \iff$

$$n = sum_divisors(1, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$$



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Incorrectness

incorrect version

- *ifdivisor(k)* has a single argument k
- But it actually depends upon n too!
- But that is not made **explicit** in its definition.

Let's make it **explicit**!



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ifdivisor3

Let

$$ifdivisor3(n, k) = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } k|n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $sum_divisors(l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l > u \\ ifdivisor3(n, l) + & \text{otherwise} \\ sum_divisors(l + 1, u) \end{cases}$$

and $perfect(n) \iff$

$$n = sum_divisors(1, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$$



Run it!

Standard ML of New Jersey

```
- fun ifdivisor3 (n, k)
= = if (n mod k = 0)
= then k
= else 0;
val ifdivisor3 =
fn : int * int -> int
```

—

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Try it!

```
- fun sum_divisors (l, u) =  
= if l > u  
= then 0  
= else ifdivisor3 (n, l) +  
= sum_divisors (l+1, u);  
stdIn:40.18 Error: unbound  
variable or constructor: n  
-
```

Now *sum_divisors* also depends on *n*!

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Hey! Wait a minute!

But n was defined in ifdivisor3 (n, k)!

So then where is the problem?

Let's ignore it for the moment and come back to it later



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The n 's

Let

$$\text{ifdivisor3}(\underline{n}, k) = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } k|n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $\text{sum_divisors2}(\underline{n}, l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l > u \\ \text{ifdivisor3}(n, l) + \\ \text{sum_divisors}(l + 1, u) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $\text{perfect}(\underline{n}) \iff$

$$n = \text{sum_divisors2}(n, 1, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$$



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Scope

- The scope of a name begins from its definition and ends where the corresponding scope ends
- Scopes end with definitions of functions
- Scopes end with the keyword `end` in any `let ... in ... end`



Scope Rules

- Scopes may be disjoint
- Scopes may be nested one completely within another
- A scope cannot span two disjoint scopes
- Two scopes cannot (partly) overlap

forward

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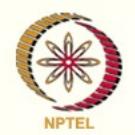
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2.4. Names, Scopes & Recursion

1. Disjoint Scopes
2. Nested Scopes
3. Overlapping Scopes
4. Spannning
5. Scope & Names
6. Names & References
7. Names & References
8. Names & References
9. Names & References
10. Names & References
11. Names & References
12. Names & References
13. Names & References
14. Names & References
15. Names & References
16. Definition of Names
17. Use of Names

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18. local...in...end
19. local...in...end
20. local...in...end
21. local...in...end
22. Scope & local
23. Computations: Simple
24. Simple computations
25. Computations: Composition
26. Composition: Alternative
27. Compositions: Compare
28. Compositions: Compare
29. Computations: Composition
30. Recursion
31. Recursion: Left
32. Recursion: Right

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Disjoint Scopes

```
let
  val x = 10;
  fun fun1 y =
    let
      ...
      in
      ...
    end
  fun fun2 z =
    let
      ...
      in
      ...
    end
  fun1 (fun2 x)
in
end
```

Nested Scopes

```
let
  val x = 10;
  fun fun1    y =
    let
      val x = 15
      in
        x + y
    end
  in
    fun1 x
end
```



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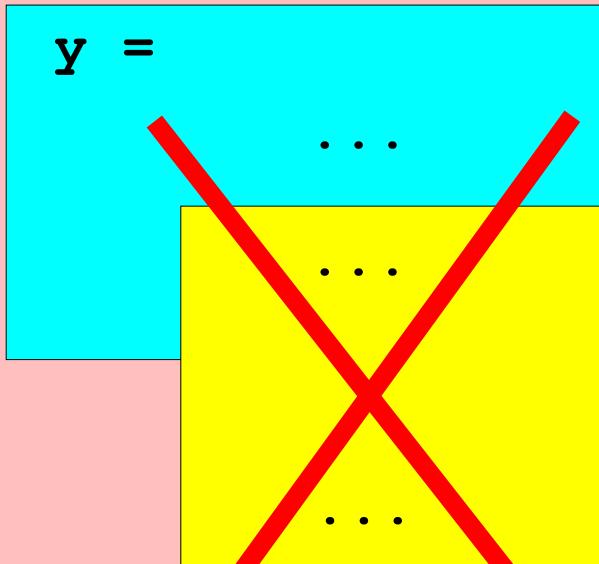
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Overlapping Scopes

```
let
  val x = 10;
  fun fun1 y =
    ...
in
  fun1 (fun2 x)
end
```



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Spanning

```
let
  val x = 10;
  fun fun1  y =
    ...
  fun fun2  z =
    ...
in
  fun1 (fun2 x)
end
```



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Scope & Names

- A **name** may occur either as being **defined** or as a **use** of a previously defined name
- The same name may be used to refer to different objects.
- The **use** of a name refers to the textually most recent definition in the innermost enclosing scope

diagram



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Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val z = 5;
  fun fun1 y =
    let
      val x = 15
      in
        x + y * z
    end
  in
    fun1 x
end
```



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val z = 5;
  fun fun1 y =
    let
      val x = 15
    in
      x + y * z
    end
  in
    fun1 x
end
```



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val z = 5;
  fun fun1 y =
    let
      val x = 15
    in
      x + y * z
    end
  in
    fun1 x
end
```



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val z = 5;
  fun fun1
    y =
      let
        val x = 15
      in
        x + y * z
      end
    in
      fun1 x
  end
end
```



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val z = 5;
  fun fun1
    y =
      let
        in
          val x = 15
          x + y * z
      end
    end
in
  fun1 x
end
```

The diagram illustrates variable scopes and references. It shows three nested scopes:

- An outermost scope (pink background) containing `val x = 10`, `val z = 5`, and a `fun fun1` block.
- A middle scope (blue background) containing `y =` and a `let` block.
- An innermost scope (yellow background) containing `val x = 15` and the expression `x + y * z`.

Blue arrows indicate the flow of references:

- From the outer `x` and `z` to their respective inner usages in the `fun1` block.
- From the inner `x` to its value binding `val x = 15`.



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val z = 5;
  fun fun1
    let
      y =
        in
          val x = 15
          x + y * z
        end
      fun1
    in
      x
    end
end
```



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let val x = 10; val z = 5;
```

```
fun fun1
```

```
in
```

```
fun1
```

```
x
```

```
end
```

```
y =
```

```
let
```

```
in
```

```
end
```

```
val x = 15
```

```
x
```

```
y
```

```
*
```

```
z
```



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Back to scope names

Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val x = x - 5;
  fun fun1    y =
    let
      ...
    in
      ...
    end
  fun fun2    z =
    let
      ...
    in
      ...
    end
  in fun1 (fun2 x)
end
```



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Names & References

```
let val x = 10; val x = x - 5;
  fun fun1 y =
    let
      ...
    in
      ...
    end
  fun fun2 z =
    let
      ...
    in
      ...
    end
in fun1 (fun2 x)
end
```

A diagram illustrating variable scoping. The variable 'x' is highlighted in red in the first 'val' declaration. A blue arrow points from this 'x' to the second 'x' in the same declaration, which is highlighted in blue. This indicates that the inner 'x' is a reference to the outer 'x'. The code is color-coded by scope: the first 'val' and 'in' block are pink, the 'fun1' and 'y' block are cyan, the 'fun2' and 'z' block are green, and the final 'fun1' and 'x' block are magenta.



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Names & References

```
let
  val x = 10; val x = x - 5;
  fun fun1 y =
    let
      ...
    in
      ...
    end
  fun fun2 z =
    let
      ...
    in
      ...
    end
in fun1 (fun2 x)
end
```

The diagram illustrates the scope of variables in a let-expression. The outermost binding of `x` is highlighted in red, while the inner binding is highlighted in blue. A blue arrow points from the red `x` to the blue `x`, indicating they refer to the same variable. Another blue arrow points from the blue `x` to the blue `x` in the `fun2` binding, indicating they are different variables.



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Definition of Names

Definitions are of the form

qualifier name ... = body

- `val name =`
- `fun name (argnames) =`
- `local definitions
in definition
end`



Use of Names

Names are used in expressions.

Expressions may occur

- by themselves – to be evaluated
- as the *body* of a definition
- as the *body* of a **let**-expression

```
let definitions
in expression
end
```

use of local

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Quit

local...in...end

perfect

local

```
exception invalidArg;
```

```
fun ifdivisor3 (n, k) =
```

```
  if n <= 0 orelse
```

```
    k <= 0 orelse
```

```
      n < k
```

```
    then raise invalidArg
```

```
  else if n mod k = 0
```

```
    then k
```

```
  else 0;
```



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Quit

local...in...end

perfect

```
fun sum_div2 (n, l, u) =  
  if n <= 0 orelse  
    l <= 0 orelse  
    l > n orelse  
    u <= 0 orelse  
    u > n  
  then raise invalidArg  
else if l > u  
then 0  
else if divisor3 (n, l)  
  + sum_div2 (n, l+1, u)
```



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local...in...end

perfect

in

```
fun perfect n =
  if n <= 0
  then raise invalidArg
  else
    let
      val nby2 = n div 2
    in
      n = sum_div2 (n, 1, nby2)
    end
end
```



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local...in...end

perfect

Standard ML of New Jersey,

- use "perfect2.sml";

[opening perfect2.sml]

GC #0.0.0.0.1.10: (1 ms)

val perfect = fn : int -> bool

val it = () : unit

- perfect 28;

val it = true : bool

- perfect 6;

val it = true : bool

- perfect 8128;

val it = true : bool



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Scope & local

local

```
fun fun1    y =  
            ...
```

```
fun fun2    z = ...  
            fun1
```

in

```
fun fun3    x =  
            ...  
            fun2 ...  
            fun1 ...
```

end



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Computations: Simple

For most simple expressions it is

- left to right, and
- top to bottom

except when

- presence of brackets
- precedence of operators

determine otherwise.

Hence



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Simple computations

$$\begin{aligned} & 4 + 6 - (4 + 6) \text{ div } 2 \\ = & 10 - (4 + 6) \text{ div } 2 \\ = & 10 - 10 \text{ div } 2 \\ = & 10 - 5 \\ = & 5 \end{aligned}$$



Computations: Composition

$$f(x) = x^2 + 1$$

$$g(x) = 3 * x + 2$$

Then for any value $a = 4$

$$\begin{aligned} & f(g(a)) \\ &= f(3 * 4 + 2) \\ &= f(14) \\ &= 14^2 + 1 \\ &= 196 + 1 \\ &= 197 \end{aligned}$$

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Composition: Alternative



$$f(x) = x^2 + 1$$

$$g(x) = 3 * x + 2$$

Why not

$$\begin{aligned} & f(g(a)) \\ &= g(4)^2 + 1 \\ &= (3 * 4 + 2)^2 + 1 \\ &= (12 + 2)^2 + 1 \\ &= 14^2 + 1 \\ &= 196 + 1 \\ &= 197 \end{aligned}$$

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Compositions: Compare

$$\begin{array}{ll} f(g(a)) & f(g(a)) \\ = f(3 * 4 + 2) & = g(4)^2 + 1 \\ = f(14) & = (3 * 4 + 2)^2 + 1 \\ = & = (12 + 2)^2 + 1 \\ = 14^2 + 1 & = 14^2 + 1 \\ = 196 + 1 & = 196 + 1 \\ = 197 & = 197 \end{array}$$

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Compositions: Compare

Question 1: Which is more correct?

Why?

Question 2: Which is easier to implement?

Question 3: Which is more efficient?



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Computations: Composition

A computation of $f(g(a))$ proceeds thus:

- $g(a)$ is evaluated to some value, say b
- $f(b)$ is next evaluated



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Recursion

$$factL(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ factL(n - 1) * n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$factR(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n * factR(n - 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Recursion: Left

$$\begin{aligned} & factL(4) \\ = & (factL(4 - 1) * 4) \\ = & (factL(3) * 4) \\ = & ((factL(3 - 1) * 3) * 4) \\ = & ((factL(2) * 3) * 4) \\ = & (((factL(2 - 1) * 2) * 3) * 4) \\ = & \dots \end{aligned}$$



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Recursion: Right

$$\begin{aligned} & factR(4) \\ &= (4 * factR(4 - 1)) \\ &= (4 * factR(3)) \\ &= (4 * (3 * factR(3 - 1))) \\ &= (4 * (3 * factR(2))) \\ &= (4 * (3 * (2 * factR(2 - 1)))) \\ &\equiv \dots \end{aligned}$$



3. Introducing Reals

3.1. Floating Point

1. So Far-1: Computing
2. So Far-2: Algorithms & Programs
3. So far-3: Top-down Design
4. So Far-4: Algorithms to Programs
5. So far-5: Caveats
6. So Far-6: Algorithmic Variations
7. So Far-7: Computations
8. Floating Point
9. Real Operations
10. Real Arithmetic
11. Numerical Methods
12. Errors
13. Errors
14. Infinite Series
15. Truncation Errors

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16. Equation Solving
17. Root Finding-1
18. Root Finding-2
19. Root Finding-3
20. Root Finding-4

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So Far-1: Computing

- The general nature of computation
- The notion of primitives, composition & induction
- The notion of an **algorithm**
- The digital computer & programming language

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So Far-2: Algorithms & Programs

- Algorithms: Finite mathematical processes
- Programs: Precise, unambiguous explications of algorithms
- Standard ML: Its primitives
- Writing technically complete specifications



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So far-3: Top-down Design

integer Square Root

- Begin with the function you need to design
- Write a
 - small compact technically complete definition of the function
 - perhaps using other functions that have not yet been defined
- Each function in turn is defined in a top-down manner



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So Far-4: Algorithms to Programs

- Perform top development till you require only the available primitives
- Directly translate the algorithm into a Program
- Use scope rules to localize or generalize

SML code for perfect

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So far-5: Caveats

- Don't arbitrarily vary code from your algorithmic development
 - It might **work** or
 - It might **not work**
 - unless properly **justified**
- May destroy technical completeness
- May create **scope** violations.

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So Far-6: Algorithmic Variations

Algorithmic Variations

- Are safe if developed from first principles. Thus ensuring their
 - mathematical correctness
 - technical completeness
 - termination properties

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So Far-7: Computations

- Work within the notion of mathematical equality
 - Simple **expressions**
 - Composition of functions
 - Recursive computations
- But are generally **irreversible**



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Floating Point

- Each real number $3E11$ is represented by a **pair** of integers
 1. **Mantissa:** 3 or 30 or 300 or ...
 2. **Exponent:** the power of 10 which the mantissa has to be multiplied by
- What is displayed is not necessarily the same as the internal representation.
- There is no **unique** representation of a real number



Real Operations

Depending upon the operations involved

- Each real number is first converted into a suitable representation
- The operation is performed
- The result is converted into a suitable representation for display.

[skip to Numerical methods](#)

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Real Arithmetic

- for **addition** and **subtraction** the two numbers should have the same exponent for ease of **integer operations** to be performed
- the conversion may involve loss of precision
- for **multiplication** and **division** the exponents may have to be adjusted so as not to cause an **integer overflow or underflow**.

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Numerical Methods

- Finite (limited) precision
- Accuracy depends upon available precision
- Whereas **integer** arithmetic is exact, **real** arithmetic is not.
- Numerical solutions are a finite approximation of the result

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Errors

- Hence an estimate of the error is necessary.
- If a is the “correct” value and a^* is the computed value,

absolute error = $a^* - a$

relative error = $\frac{a^* - a}{a}$



Errors

Errors in floating point computations are mainly due

finite precision Round-off errors

fnite process It is impossible to compute the value of a (convergent) infinite series because computations are themselves finite processes. **In-**
finite series

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Infinite Series

cannot be computed to ∞

$$e^x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!}$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m}}{(2m)!}$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!}$$



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Truncation Errors

and hopefully it is good enough to restrict it to appropriate values of n

$$e^x = \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{x^m}{m!}$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m}}{(2m)!}$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!}$$



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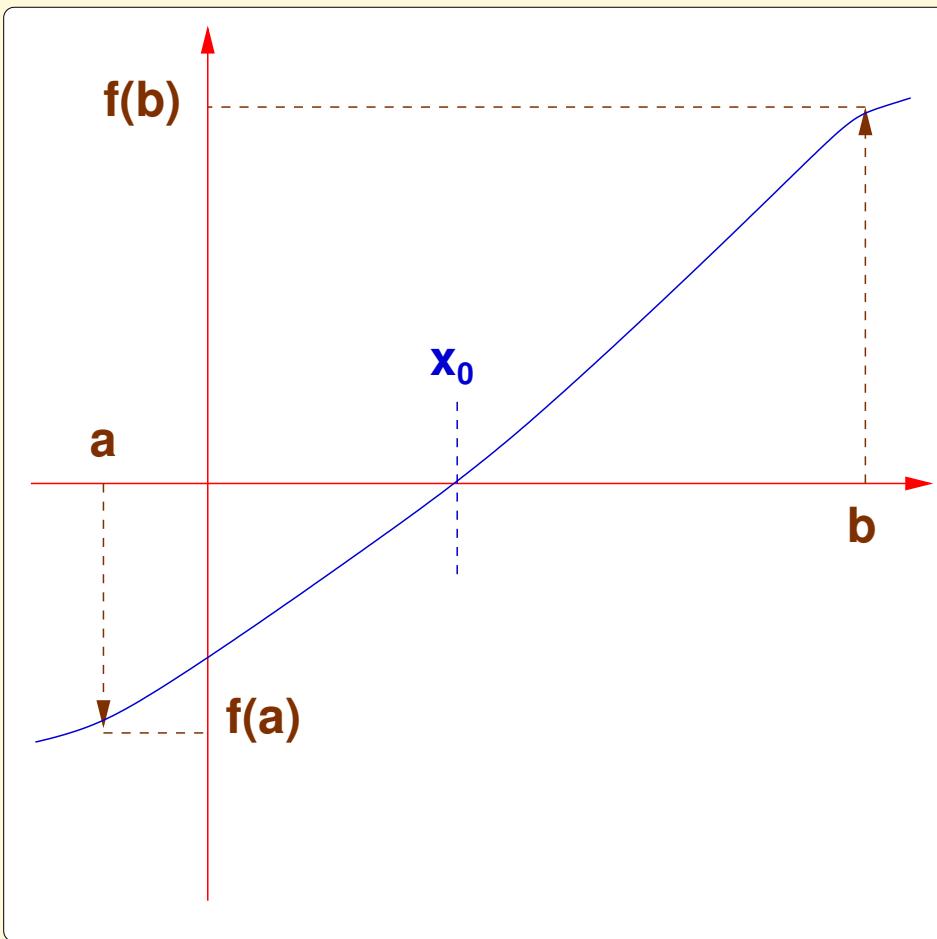
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Equation Solving

- The fifth most basic operation
- Root finding: A particular form of equation solving

$$f(x) = 0$$

Root Finding-1



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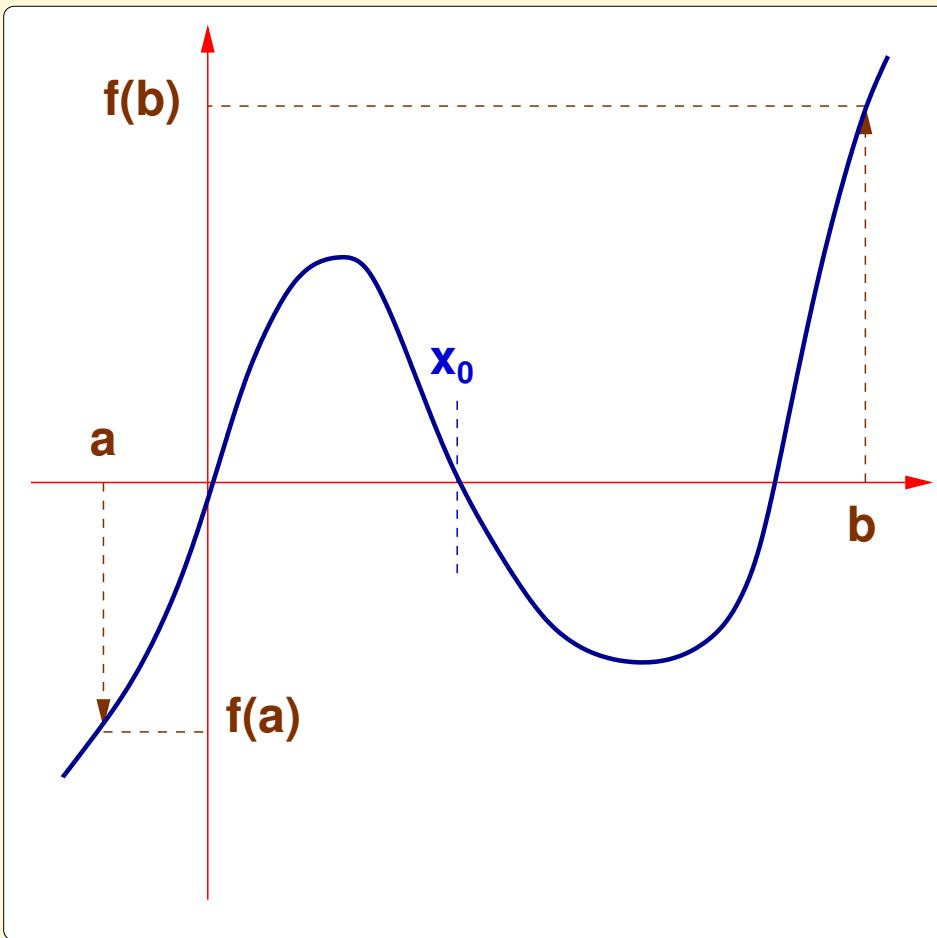
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Root Finding-2



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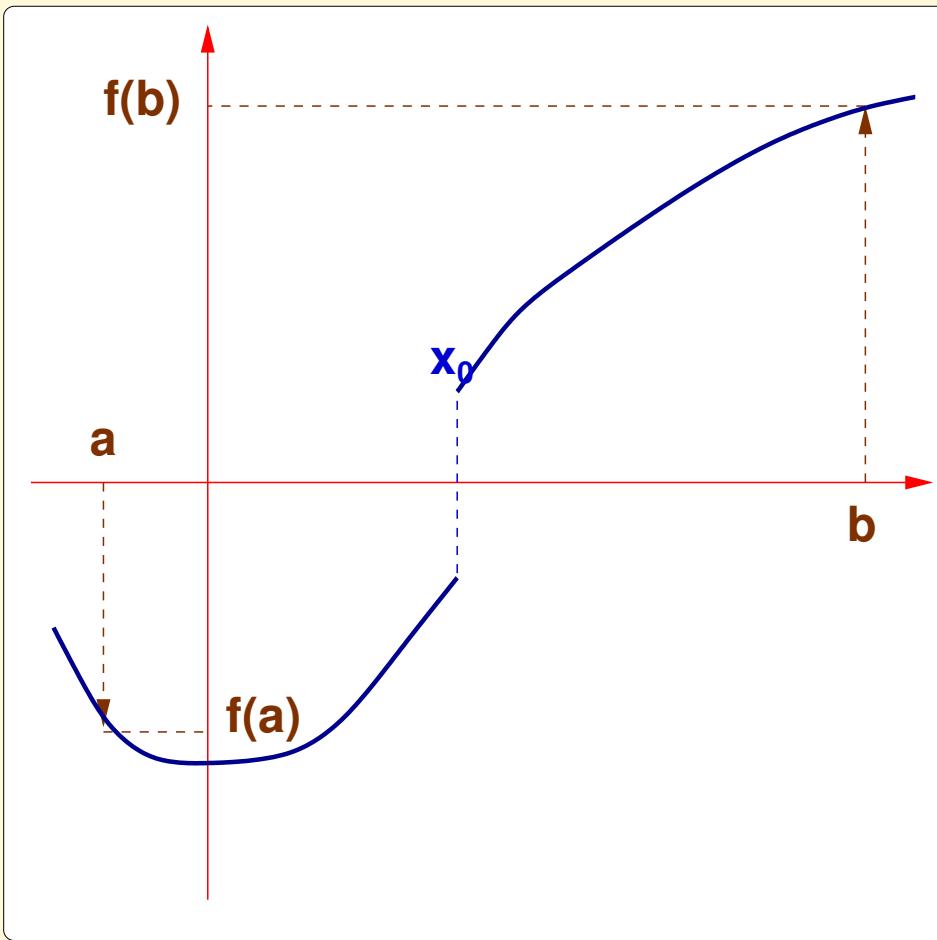
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Root Finding-3



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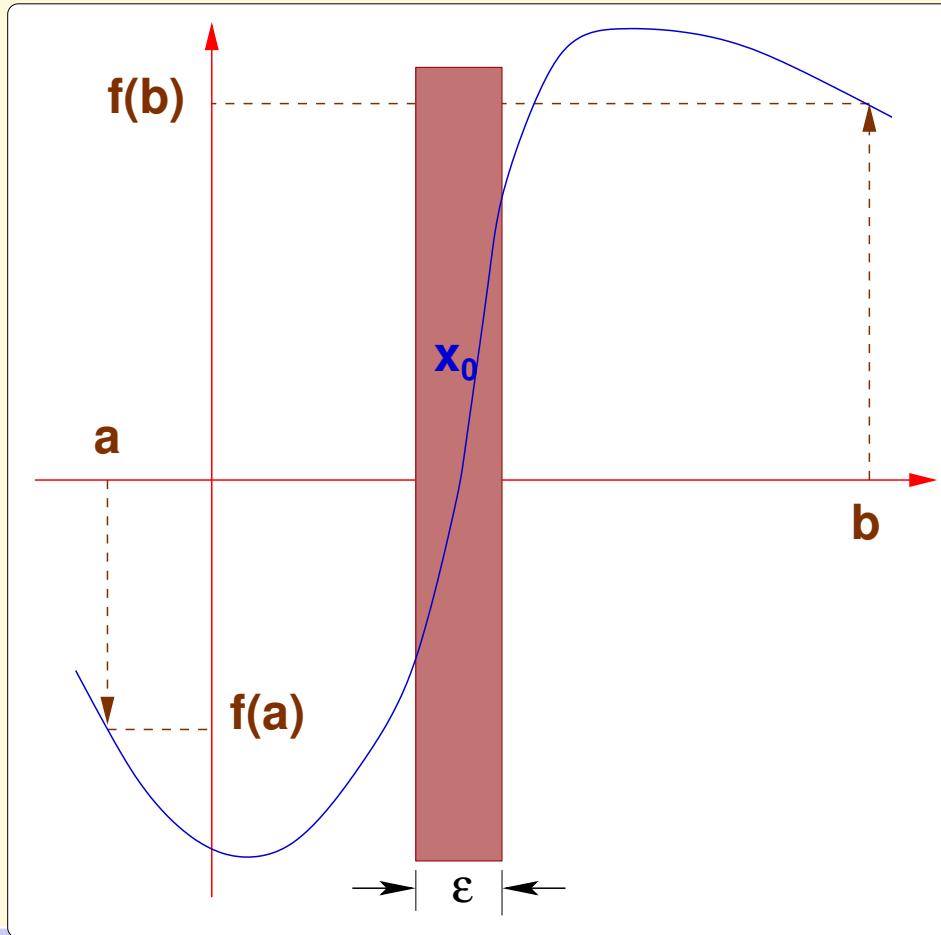
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Root Finding-4

Rather **steep** isn't it?



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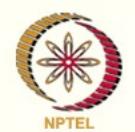
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Root Finding: Newton's Method

Consider a function $f(x)$

- smooth and continuously differentiable over $[a, b]$
- with a non-zero derivative $f'(x)$ everywhere in $[a, b]$
- the signs of $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ are different

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Root Finding: Newton's Method



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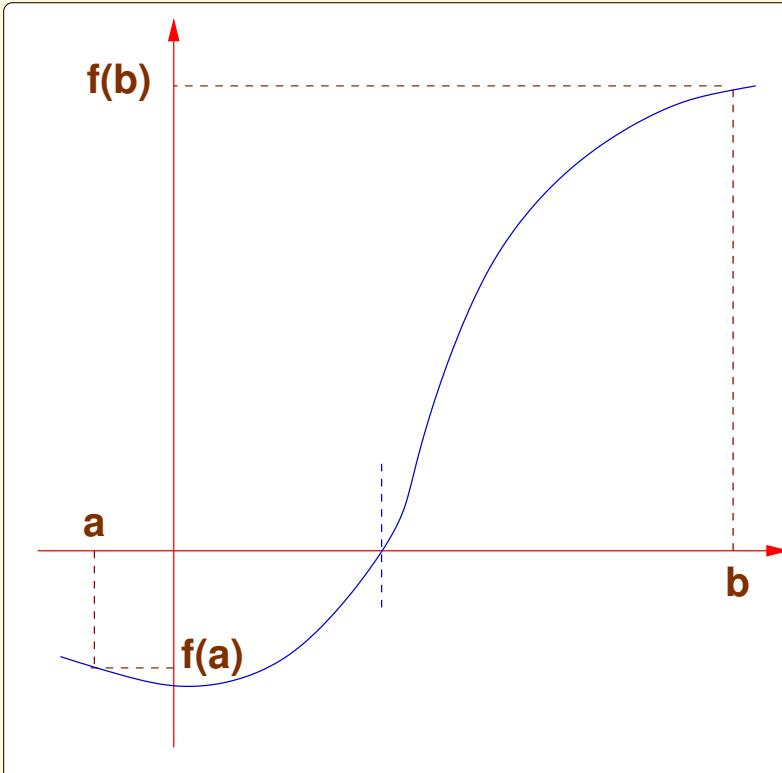
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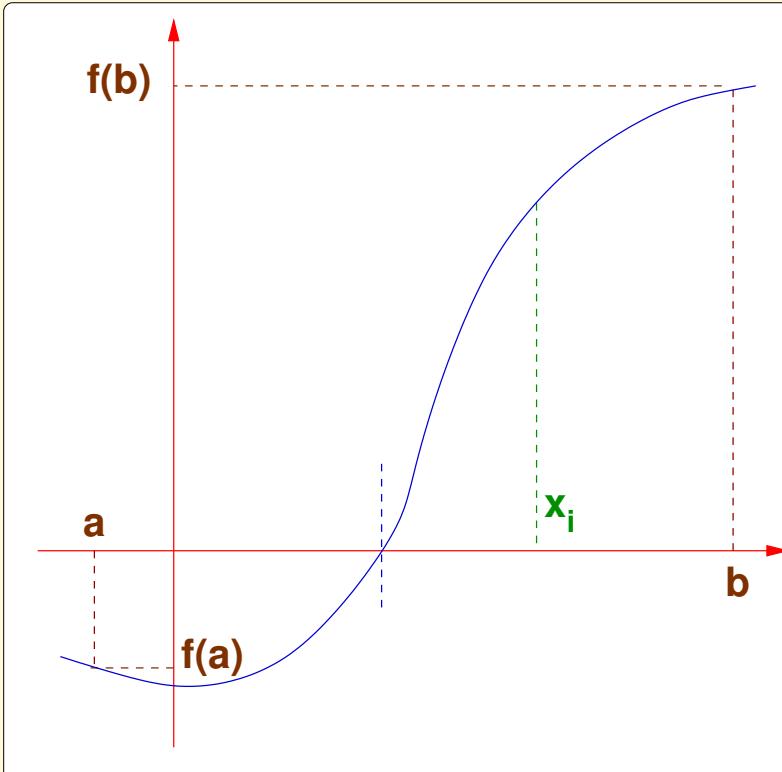
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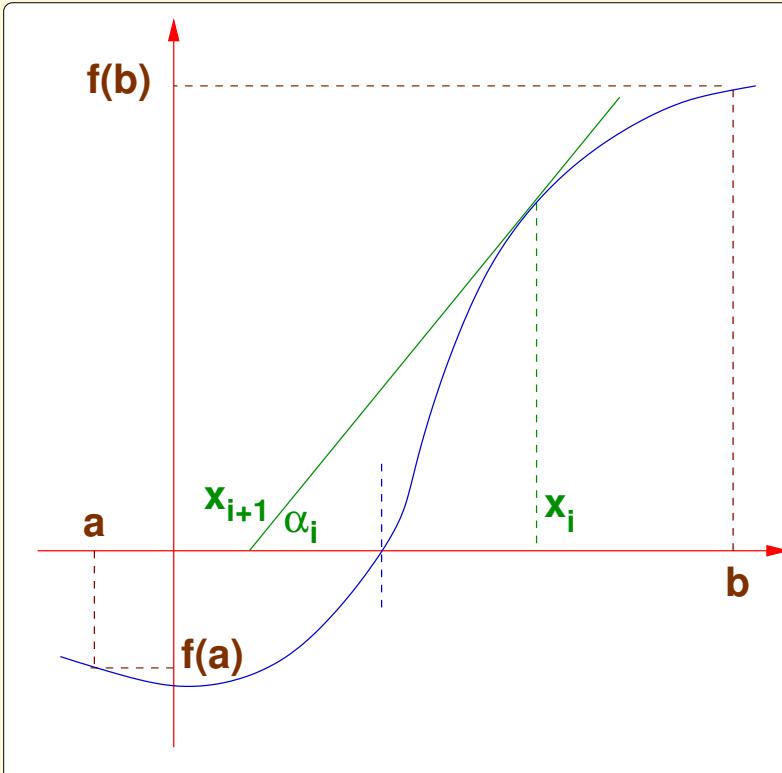
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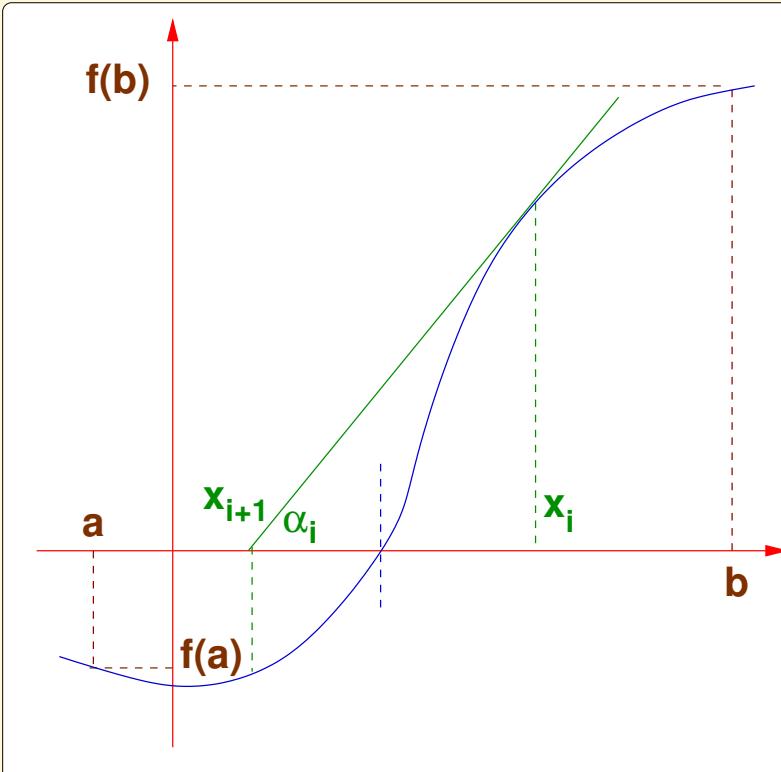
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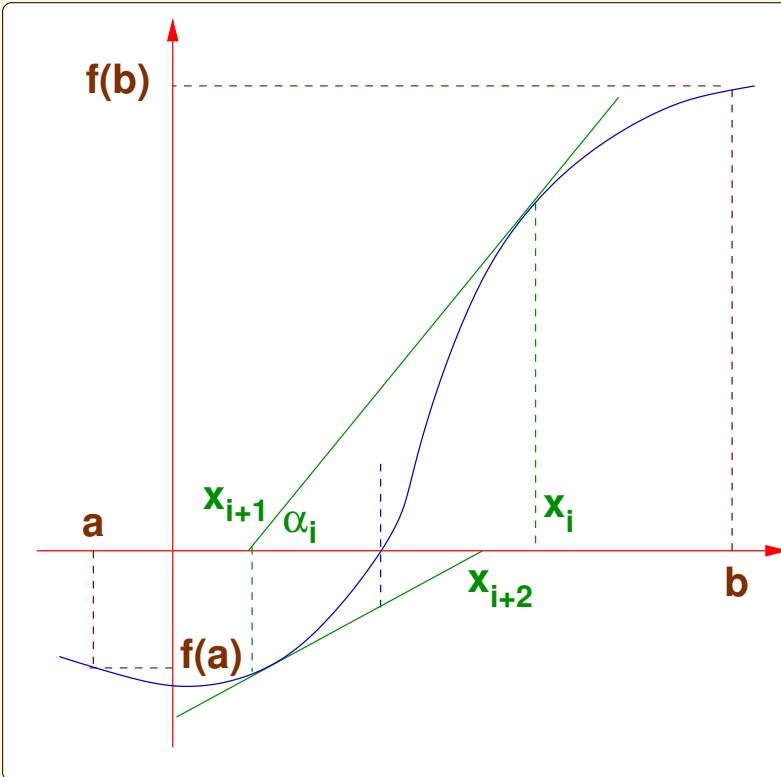
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Newton's Method: Basis

$$\tan \alpha_i = f'(x_i) = \frac{f(x_i)}{x_i - x_{i+1}}$$

whence

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}$$

Starting from an initial value $x_0 \in [a, b]$,
if the sequence $f(x_i)$ converges to 0
i.e

$$f(x_0), f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots \rightarrow 0$$

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Newton's Method: Basis

i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f(x_n)| = 0$

i.e. $\forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists N \geq 0 : \forall n > N :$

$$|f(x_n)| < \varepsilon$$

then the sequence

$$x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$$

converges to a root of f .

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Newton' Method: Algorithm

Select a small enough $\varepsilon > 0$ and x_0 .

Then

$newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_i) =$

$$\begin{cases} x_i & \text{if } |f(x_i)| < \varepsilon \\ newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_{i+1}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$x_0 \in [a, b]$$

and

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} \in [a, b]$$

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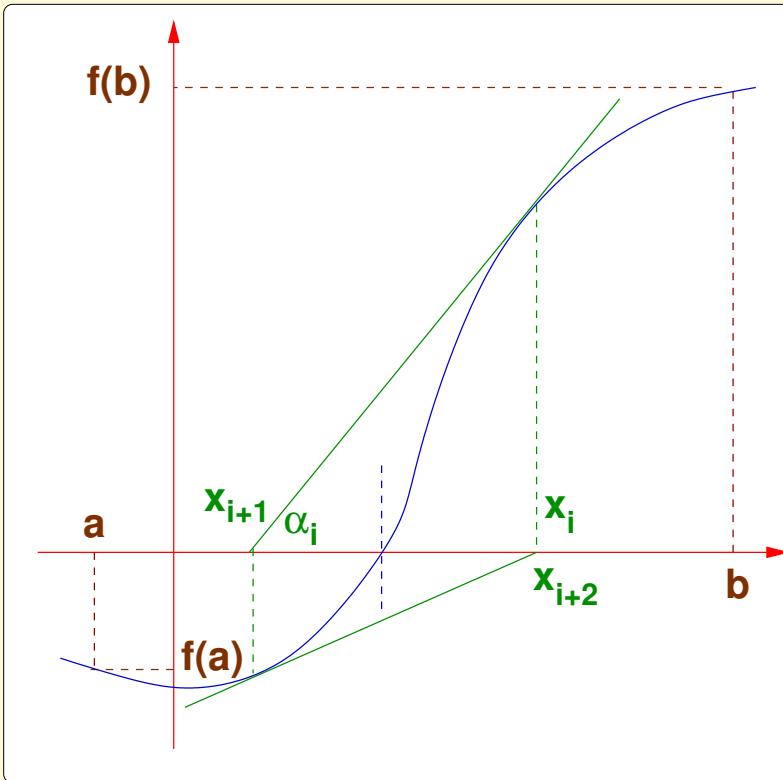
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What can go wrong!-1

Oscillations!



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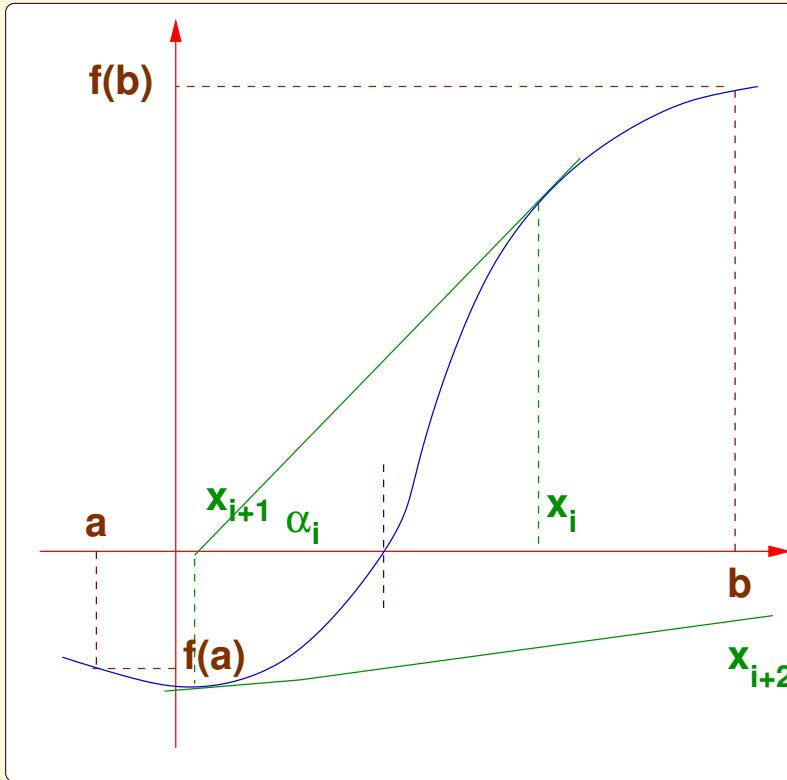
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What can go wrong!-2

An intermediate point may lie **outside** $[a, b]$! The function may not satisfy all the assumptions outside $[a, b]$. There are then no guarantees about the behaviour of the function.

What can go wrong!-2

Interval bounds error!

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What can go wrong!-3

The function may be too steep



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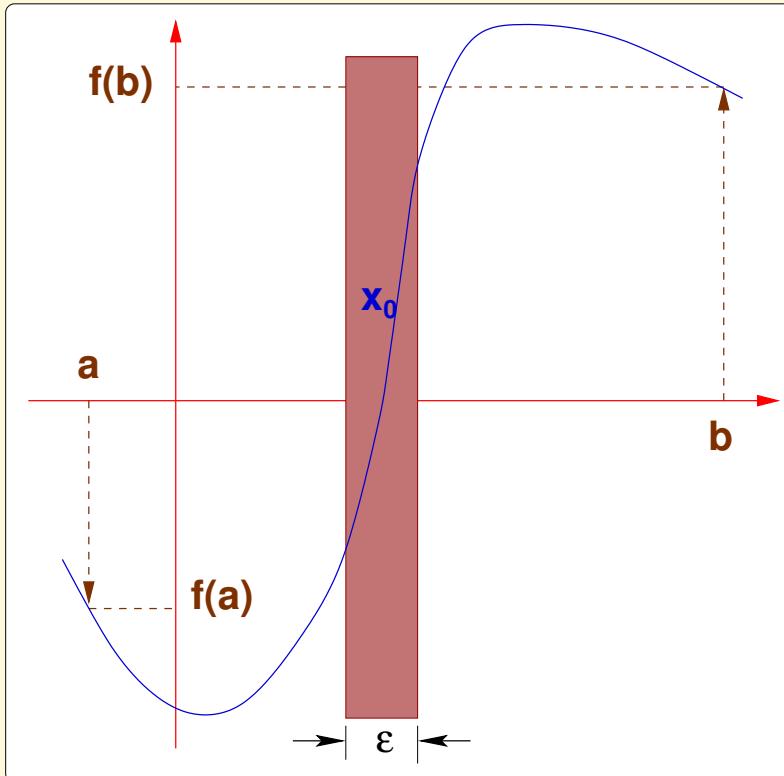
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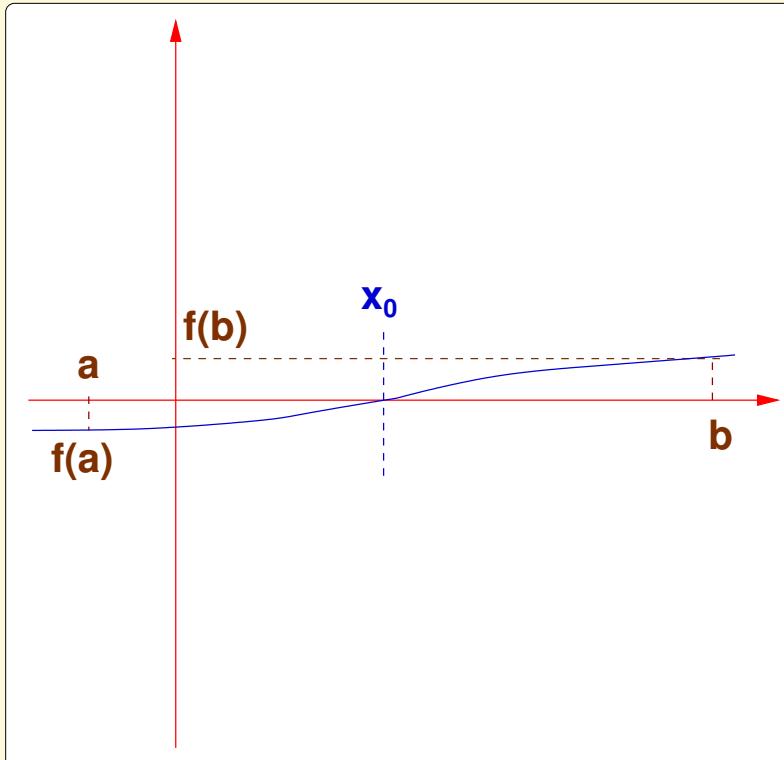
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for the available precision.

What can go wrong!-4

Or too shallow!



Real Computations & Induction: 1

Newton's method ([when it does work!](#)) computes a sequence

$$x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

of essentially [discrete](#) values such that even if the sequence is not totally ordered, there is some discrete convergence [measure](#) viz.

$$|f(x_i) - 0|$$

which is [well-founded](#).



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Real Computations & Induction: 2

That is, for some decreasing sequence of integers $k_i \geq 0$,

$$k_0 > k_1 > k_2 > \dots > k_n = 0$$

we have

$$k_i \varepsilon \leq |f(x_i) - 0| < (k_i + 1)\varepsilon$$

and therefore inductive on integer multiples of ε



What's it good for? 1

Finding the positive n -th root $\sqrt[n]{c}$ of a $c > 0$ and $n > 1$ amounts to solving the equation

$$x^n = c$$

which is equivalent to finding the root of $f(x)$ with

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= x^n - c \\f'(x) &= nx^{n-1}\end{aligned}$$

with $[a, b] = [0, c]$ or $[0, \sqrt{c}]$ and an appropriately chosen ε .

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What's it good for? 2

Finding roots of polynomials.

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i$$

$$f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n i c_i x^{i-1}$$

and

- an appropriately chosen ε ,
- an appropriately chosen $[a, b]$ with one of the limits possibly being c_0 .



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newton: Computation

$newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_0)$
 $\rightsquigarrow newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_1)$
 $\rightsquigarrow newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_2)$
 $\rightsquigarrow newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_3)$
⋮ ⋮ ⋮
 $\rightsquigarrow newton(f, f', a, b, \varepsilon, x_n)$
 $\rightsquigarrow x_n$

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Generalized Composition

Computations

$$h(x) = f(x, g(x))$$

where

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ y & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ g(x - 1) + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Two Computations of $h(1)$

$h(1)$	$ $	$h(1)$
$\rightsquigarrow f(1, g(1))$	$ $	$\rightsquigarrow f(1, g(1))$
$\rightsquigarrow g(1)$	$ $	$\rightsquigarrow f(1, (g(0) + 1))$
$\rightsquigarrow g(0) + 1$	$ $	$\rightsquigarrow f(1, (0 + 1))$
$\rightsquigarrow 0 + 1$	$ $	$\rightsquigarrow f(1, 1)$
$\rightsquigarrow 1$	$ $	$\rightsquigarrow 1$

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Two Computations of $h(-1)$

$h(-1)$		$h(-1)$
$\rightsquigarrow f(-1, g(-1))$		$\rightsquigarrow f(-1, g(-1))$
$\rightsquigarrow 0$		$\rightsquigarrow f(-1, (g(-2) + 1))$
DONE!		$\rightsquigarrow f(-1, ((g(-3) + 1) + 1))$
		$\rightsquigarrow \dots$
		$\rightsquigarrow \text{FOREVER!}$

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Recursive Computations

- Newton's method
- Factorial
 - $factL$
 - $factR$

[skip to nonlinear recursion](#)
[skip to Recursion Revisited](#)

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Recursion: Left

$factL(4)$
~~~  $(factL(4 - 1) * 4)$   
~~~  $(factL(3) * 4)$   
~~~  $((factL(3 - 1) * 3) * 4)$   
~~~  $((factL(2) * 3) * 4)$   
~~~  $((((factL(2 - 1) * 2) * 3) * 4)$   
~~~ ...



Recursion: Right

factR(4)

$\rightsquigarrow (4 * factR(4 - 1))$

$\rightsquigarrow (4 * factR(3))$

$\rightsquigarrow (4 * (3 * factR(3 - 1))))$

$\rightsquigarrow (4 * (3 * factR(2))))$

$\rightsquigarrow (4 * (3 * (2 * factR(2 - 1))))))$

$\rightsquigarrow \dots$

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Recursion: Nonlinear

Fibonacci

$$\begin{aligned} & fib(5) \\ \rightsquigarrow & fib(4) + fib(3) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (fib(3) + fib(2)) + fib(3) \\ \rightsquigarrow & ((fib(2) + fib(1)) + fib(2)) + fib(3) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (((fib(1) + fib(0)) + fib(1)) + fib(2)) + fib(3) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (((1 + fib(0)) + fib(1)) + fib(2)) + fib(3) \\ \rightsquigarrow & \dots \end{aligned}$$

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contd ...

Some Practical Questions

- What is the essential difference between the computations of *newton* and the two factorial programs?

Answer: Constant space vs. Linear space

- What is the essential similarity between the computations of *factL* and *factR*? [Answer](#)
- Why can't we calculate beyond *fib(43)* using the definition Fibonacci, on *ccsun50* or a P-IV? [Answer](#)



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Some Practical Questions

- What does a computation of Fibonacci look like?
- What is the essential difference between the computations of Fibonacci and *newton* or *factL* or *factR*?

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4.1. Termination and Space Complexity

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Recursion Revisited

- Linear recursions
 - Waxing
 - Waning
- Non-linear recursion



Linear Recursion: Waxing

$$\begin{aligned} & factL(4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (factL(3) * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & ((factL(2) * 3) * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (((factL(1) * 2) * 3) * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (((((factL(0) * 1) * 2) * 3) * 4) \end{aligned}$$

contrast with newton

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Recursion: Waning

$$\begin{aligned}\rightsquigarrow & (((((1 * 1) * 2) * 3) * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (((1 * 2) * 3) * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & ((2 * 3) * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & (6 * 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & 24\end{aligned}$$

contrast with newton



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Nonlinear Recursions

Fibonacci

- Each computation of *fib* has its own waxing and waning
- There is still an “envelope” which shows waxing and waning.



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Fibonacci: *contd*

~~~  $((1 + 1) + fib(1)) + fib(2)) + fib(3)$   
~~~  $(2 + fib(1)) + fib(2)) + fib(3)$   
~~~  $((2 + 1) + fib(2)) + fib(3)$   
~~~ ...

Recursion: Waxing & Waning



- **Waning:** Occurs when an expression is **simplified** without requiring replacement of names by definitions.
- **Waxing:** Occurs when a *name* is replaced by its *definition*.
 - name by value replacements
 - occurs in **generalized composition** but just once if it is not recursively defined
 - **Unfolding recursion**

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Unfolding Recursion

- may occur several times (terminating), or
- even an infinite number of times leading to nontermination



Non-termination

Algorithm

- Simple expressions never lead to nontermination
- (Generalized) composition never leads to nontermination
- Recursion may lead to non-termination or infinite computations, unless proved otherwise

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Termination

Since recursion may lead to nontermination

- Termination needs to be proved for recursive definitions, and
- for expressions and definitions that use recursively defined names as components.

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Proofs of termination

A recursive definition guarantees termination

- if it is **inductive**, or
- it is **well-founded**



Proofs of termination: Induction

A recursive definition guarantees termination

- if it is **inductive**,

Examples:

- Factorial
- Fibonacci

- it is **well-founded**, though not obviously inductive

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Proof of termination: Factorial

Factorial

Consider factL defined only for non-negative integers. We prove that it is an algorithm i.e. that it terminates

Basis : For $n = 0$, $\text{factL}(n) = 1$ which is not a recursive definition. Hence it does indeed terminate in a single step.



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Proof of termination: Factorial

Induction hypothesis. For some $n > 0$, $\forall k : 0 \leq k \leq n : factL(k)$ terminates in $\propto k$ steps.

Induction step. Then $factL(n + 1) = factL(n) * (n + 1)$ is guaranteed to terminate in $\propto (n + 1)$ steps, since $factL(n)$ does so in $\propto n$ steps.

back

Fibonacci: Termination

Fibonacci

The proof is similar to that of factL .

Basis For $n = 0$ or $n = 1$ $\text{fib}(n) = 1$.

Induction hypothesis For some $n > 0$,
 $\forall k : 0 \leq k \leq n : \text{fib}(k)$ terminates in
 $\propto f(k)$ steps

Induction Step Then since each of $\text{fib}(n)$ and $\text{fib}(n - 1)$ is guaranteed to terminate in $\propto f(n)$ and $\propto f(n - 1)$ steps $\text{fib}(n + 1) = \text{fib}(n) + \text{fib}(n - 1)$ is also guaranteed to terminate in $f(n + 1) \propto f(n) + f(n - 1)$ steps.



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GCD computations

Euclidean GCD

$$\begin{aligned} & \gcd(12, 64) \\ \rightsquigarrow & \gcd(64, 12) \\ \rightsquigarrow & \gcd(12, 4) \\ \rightsquigarrow & \gcd(4, 0) \\ \rightsquigarrow & 4 \end{aligned}$$

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Well-foundedness: GCD

Euclidean GCD

For $x, y > 0$, $0 \leq x \bmod y < y$. Hence the sequence of remainders obtained is

- a sequence of *non-negative integers*, and
- is *strictly decreasing*

$$r_1 > r_2 > \cdots > r_{n-1} > r_n = 0$$

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Well-foundedness

A definition is **well-founded** if it is possible to define a **measure** (i.e. a function w of its arguments) called the **well-founded function** such that

1. the **well-founded function** takes only non-negative integer values
2. with each successive recursive call the value of the **well-founded function** is guaranteed to decrease by at least 1.

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Induction is Well-founded

The well-founded function usually is a measure of the number of computation steps that the algorithm will take to terminate

- Factorial $w(n) \propto n$
- Fibonacci $w(n) \propto f(n)$

Then

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Induction is Well-founded

- $w(n)$ is always non-negative if $factL$ and fib are defined only for non-negative integers
- The argument to $factL$ and fib in each recursive unfolding is strictly decreasing.

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Where it doesn't work

Such proofs do not work for

- *fact* arbitrarily extended to include negative integers. (**since $w(n)$ no longer strictly non-negative**)
- $fact(n) = fact(n+1) \text{ div } (n+1)$, even if n is non-negative (**since $w(n)$ is no longer decreasing**)

since the function is no longer **well-founded**.

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Well-foundedness is inductive

But the induction variable is

- **hidden** or
- too complex to worry about, or
- it serves no useful purpose for the algorithm, except as a counter.

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Well-foundedness is inductive

Given any well-founded function $w(\vec{x})$ whose values form a decreasing sequence in some algorithm

$$y_0 > y_1 > \dots > y_{n-1} > y_n \geq 0$$

it is possible to put this sequence in 1-1 correspondence with the set $\{0, \dots, n\}$ via a function ind such that

$$ind(w(\vec{x})) = n - i$$

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GCD: Well-foundedness

GCD

Well-founded function for gcd

$$w(a, b) = b$$



Newton: Well-foundedness

Newton's Method

Convergence condition

$$f(x_0), f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots \rightarrow 0$$

Compute the discrete value sequence

$$x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

such that

$$k_0 > k_1 > k_2 > \dots > k_n = 0$$

where

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Newton: Well-foundedness

Newton's Method

$$k_i \varepsilon \leq |f(x_i) - 0| < (k_i + 1) \varepsilon$$

and therefore inductive on integer multiples of ε Hence

$$w(x) = \left\lfloor \frac{|f(x)|}{\varepsilon} \right\rfloor$$

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Example: Zero

A peculiar way to define the *zero* function

zero(x) =

$$\begin{cases} \text{zero}(x + 1.0) & \text{if } x \leq -1.0 \\ 0.0 & \text{if } -1.0 < x < 1.0 \\ \text{zero}(x - 1.0) & \text{if } x \geq 1.0 \end{cases}$$

$w(x) = \lceil |x| \rceil$ is the well-founded function



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Questions

Q: Is it always possible to find a well-founded function for each algorithm?

A: Unfortunately not! However if we can't then we cannot call it an algorithm!. But if we can then we are guaranteed that the algorithm will terminate.

The Collatz Problem



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The Collatz Problem

Does the following algorithm terminate?

$\text{collatz}(m) =$

$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } m \leq 1 \\ \text{collatz}(m \text{ div } 2) & \text{if } m \text{ is even} \\ \text{collatz}(3 * m + 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Unproven Claim. $\text{collatz}(m) \rightsquigarrow 1$ for all m .



Questions

Q: what other uses can well-founded functions be put to?

A: They can be used to estimate the complexity of your algorithm in *order of magnitude* terms.

Space Complexity : The amount of memory space required, as a function of the input

Time Complexity : The amount of time (number of computation steps) as a function of the input

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Space Complexity

What is the space complexity of

- Newton's method
- Euclidean GCD
- Factorial
- Fibonacci

Newton & Euclid: Absolute

Newton's Method Computation

Newton's method (wherever and whenever it works well) requires space to compute

- the value of f at each point x_i
- the value of f' at each point x_i
- the value of x_{i+1} from the above

Their **absolute** space requirements could be different. But . . .

Euclidean GCD Computation



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Newton & Euclid: Relative

Newton's Method
Computation

GCD and Newton's method (wherever and whenever it works well) require the same amount of space for each **recursive unfolding** since each fresh unfolding can reuse the space used by the previous one.

Euclidean GCD
Computation

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Deriving space requirements

We may use the algorithm itself to derive the space required as follows:

Assume that memory *proportional to calculating* and *outputting* the answer is a unit. Then space as a function of the input is given by



GCD: Space

$$S_{gcd(a,b)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b = 0 \\ S_{gcd(b,a \bmod b)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This implies (from well-foundedness) that the entire computation ends with the space of a **unit**.

$$S_{gcd(a,b)} \propto 1$$

A similar analysis and result holds for *newton*

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Factorial: Space

factL

$$S_{factL(n)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ S_{factL(n-1)} + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The 1 is for output and the +1 is because one needs to store space proportional to remembering “*multiply by n*”.

$$S_{factL(n)} \propto n.$$

A similar analysis and result holds for *factR*.

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Fibonacci: Space

Fibonacci

$$S_{fib(n)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \leq 1 \\ S_{fib(n-1)} + S_{fib(n-2)} & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Fibonacci: Space

Fibonacci

It is easy to see prove by induction that for $n > 1$,

$$S_{fib(n-1)} < S_{fib(n)} \leq 2S_{fib(n-1)}$$

That is, as the value of n increases by 1 the space requirement approximately doubles. Further, it is easy to show by induction that

$$2^{n-2} < S_{fib(n)} \leq 2^{n-1}$$



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4.2. Efficiency Measures and Speed-ups

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2. Recapitulation
3. Time & Space Complexity
4. *isqrt*: Space
5. Time Complexity
6. *isqrt*: Time Complexity
7. *isqrt2*: Time
8. *shrink* vs. *shrink2*: Times
9. Factorial: Time Complexity
10. Fibonacci: Time Complexity
11. Comparative Complexity
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14. Efficiency Measures: Time
15. Efficiency Measures: Space
16. Speeding Up: 1
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- 18. Factoring out calculations
- 19. Tail Recursion: 1
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Recapitulation

- Recursion & nontermination
- Termination & well-foundedness
- Well-foundedness proofs
- Well-foundedness & Complexity



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Recapitulation

- Recursion & nontermination
- Termination & well-foundedness
- Well-foundedness proofs
 - By induction
 - well-founded functions
 - By well-founded functions
 - induction as well-foundedness
 - Well-foundedness as induction
- Well-foundedness & Complexity



Time & Space Complexity

Questions

An order of magnitude estimate of the **time or space (memory)** required (in terms of some large computation steps).

- Newton & Euclid's GCD
- Deriving space requirements
 - Integer Sqrt
 - Factorial
 - Fibonacci

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isqrt: Space

Integer Sqrt shrink

$S_{isqrt}(n) = S_{shrink}(n,0,n)$ for large n .

$S_{shrink}(n,l,u) =$

$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } l = u \\ S_{shrink}(n,l+1,u) & \text{if } l < u \dots \\ S_{shrink}(n,l,u-1) & \text{if } l < u \dots \end{cases}$$

Assuming 1 unit of space for output.
By induction on $|(l, u)|$

$$S_{isqrt}(n) = S_{shrink}(n,0,n) \propto 1$$

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Time Complexity

As in the case of **space** we may use the algorithm itself to derive the **time** complexity.

- Integer sqrt
- Factorial
- Fibonacci

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isqrt: Time Complexity

Integer Sqrt
shrink

Assume condition-checking (along with $+1$ or -1) takes a unit of time.

Then $T_{shrink}(n, l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l = u \\ 1 + T_{shrink}(n, l+1, u) & \text{if } l < u \dots \\ 1 + T_{shrink}(n, l, u-1) & \text{if } l < u \dots \end{cases}$$

Then $T_{shrink}(n, l, u) \propto |[l, u]| - 1$ and

$$T_{isqrt}(n) = T_{shrink}(n, 0, n) \propto n$$



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Assume condition-checking (along with $(l + u) \text{ div } 2$) takes a unit of time.

Then $T_{\text{shrink2}}(n, l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u \leq l \leq u \\ 1 + T_{\text{shrink2}}(n, m, u) & \text{if } m^2 \leq n \dots \\ 1 + T_{\text{shrink2}}(n, l, u-1) & \text{if } m^2 > n \end{cases}$$

If $2^{k-1} \leq |[l, u]| - 1 < 2^k$ then the algorithm terminates in at most k steps.

Since $k = \lceil \log_2 |[l, u]| - 1 \rceil$,

$$T_{\text{shrink2}}(n, l, u) \propto \lceil \log_2 |[l, u]| - 1 \rceil$$



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shrink VS. *shrink2*: Times

shrink

shrink2

1. The time units are **different**,
2. But they differ by a **constant factor** at most.
3. So clearly, for **large n** , *shrink2* is **faster** than *shrink*
4. But for **small n** , it depends on the **constant factor**.
5. **Implicitly** assume that the actual unit of time includes the time required to **unfold** the recursion.



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Factorial: Time Complexity

factL

Here we assume multiplication takes unit time.

$$T_{factL(n)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ T_{factL(n-1)} + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then

$$T_{factL(n)} \propto n$$



Fibonacci: Time Complexity

Fibonacci

Assuming addition and condition-checking together take a unit of time, we have

$$T_{fib(n)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \leq 1 \\ T_{fib(n-1)} + T_{fib(n-2)} & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

It follows that

$$2^{n-2} < T_{fib(n)} \leq 2^{n-1}$$

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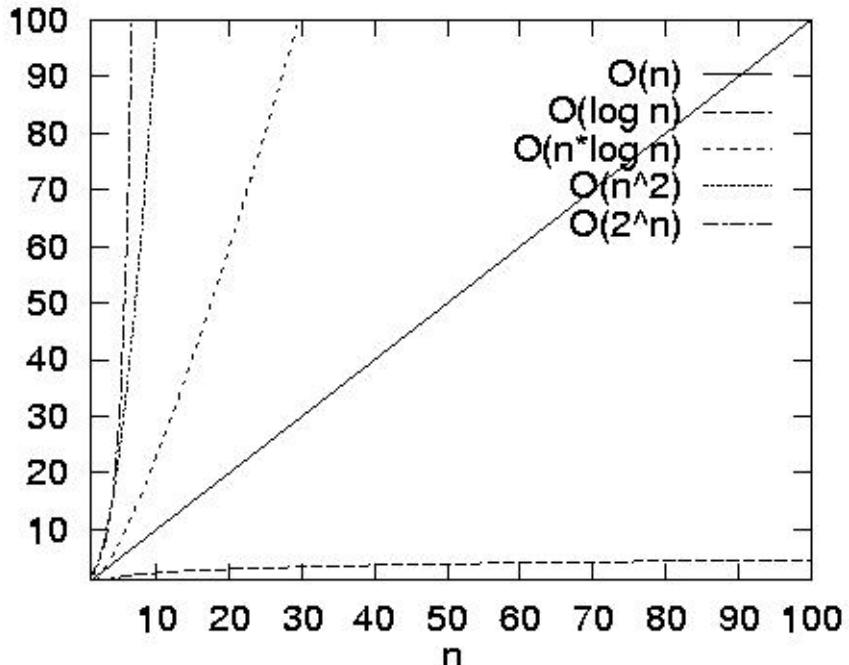
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Comparative Complexity

| Algorithm | Space | Time |
|-------------|----------|---------------|
| $isqrt(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(n)$ |
| $isqrt2(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(\log_2 n)$ |
| $factL(n)$ | $O(n)$ | $O(n)$ |
| $fib(n)$ | $O(2^n)$ | $O(2^n)$ |

Comparisons

For smaller values



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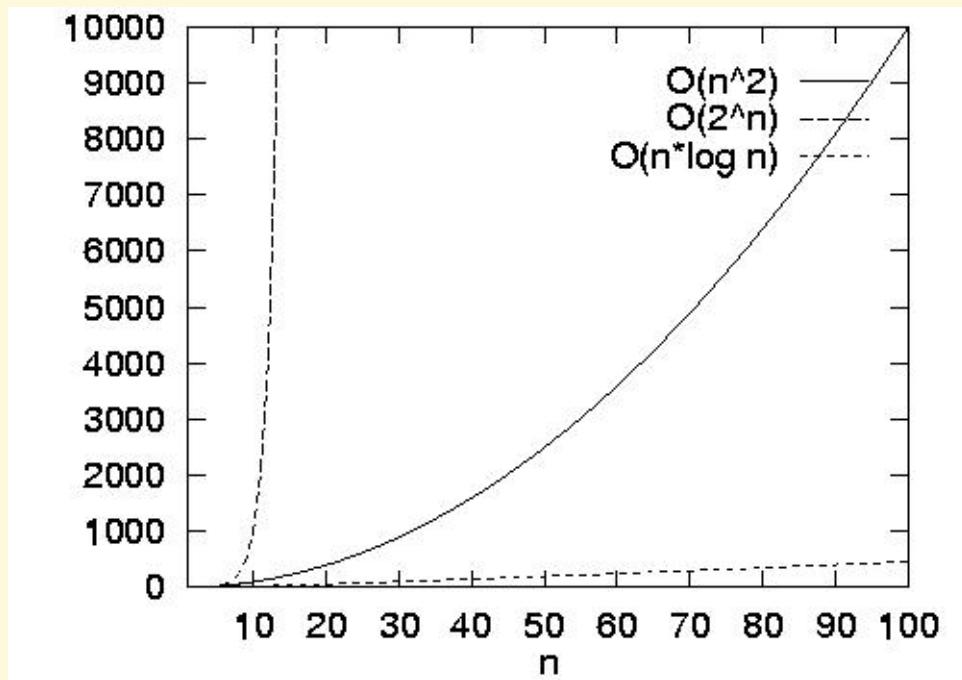
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Comparisons

For large values

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Efficiency Measures: Time

An algorithm for a problem is asymptotically faster or asymptotically more time-efficient than another for the same problem if its time complexity is bounded by a function that has a slower growth rate as a function of the value of its arguments.

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Efficiency Measures: Space

Similarly an algorithm is asymptotically more space efficient than another if its **space complexity** is bounded by a function that has a ***slower growth rate***.



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Speeding Up: 1

Q: Can fibonacci be speeded up or made more space efficient?

A: Perhaps by studying the nature of the function e.g. *isqrt2* vs. *isqrt* and attempting more efficient algorithmic variations.



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Speeding Up: 2

Q: Are there general methods of speeding up or saving space?

A: Take inspiration from *gcd*, *newton*, *shrink*



Factoring out calculations

$gcd(a_0, b_0)$
compute a_1, b_1
 $\rightsquigarrow gcd(a_1, b_1)$
compute a_2, b_2
 $\rightsquigarrow gcd(a_2, b_2)$
 $\rightsquigarrow \dots$
 $\rightsquigarrow gcd(a_n, b_n)$
 $\rightsquigarrow a_n$

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Tail Recursion: 1

- Factor out calculations and remember only those values that are required for the next recursive call.
- Create a vector of state variables and include them as arguments of the function



Tail Recursion: 2

- Try to **reorder** the computation using the **state** variables so as to get the **next state completely defined**.
- Redefine the function entirely in terms of the state variables so that the recursive call is the **outermost** operation.

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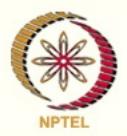
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Factorial: Tail Recursion



factL Waxing

factL Waning

- The recursive call **precedes** the multiplication operation. *Change it!*
- Define a **state** variable *p* which contains the product of all the values that one must remember
- **Reorder** the computation so that the computation of *p* is performed before the recursive call.
- For that **redefine** the function in terms of *p*.

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Factorial: Tail Recursion

Factorial

$$\text{factL2}(n) = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \text{factL_tr}(n, 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$\text{factL_tr}(n, p) =$$

$$\begin{cases} p & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \text{factL_tr}(n - 1, np) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



A Computation

```
factL2(4)
~~> factL_tr(4, 1)
~~> factL_tr(3, 4)
~~> factL_tr(2, 12)
~~> factL_tr(1, 24)
~~> factL_tr(0, 24)
~~> 24
```

Reminiscent of `gcd` and `newton`!

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Factorial: Issues

- **Correctness:** Prove (by induction on n) that for all $n \geq 0$, $\text{factL2}(n) = n!$.
- **termination:** Prove by induction on n that **every** computation of factL2 terminates.
- **Space complexity:** Prove that $S_{\text{factL2}(n)} = O(1)$ (as against $S_{\text{factL}(n)} \propto n$).
- **Time complexity:** Prove that $T_{\text{factL2}(n)} = O(n)$



Fibonacci: Tail Recursion

- Remove **duplicate** computations by defining appropriate state variables
- Let a and b be the consecutive fibonacci numbers $fib(m - 2)$ and $fib(m - 1)$ required for the computation of $fib(m)$.
- The **state** consists of the variables n, a, b, m .

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Fibonacci: Tail Recursion

$fibTR(n) =$

$$\begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq n \leq 1 \\ fib_iter(n, 1, 1, 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$fib_iter(n, a, b, m) =$

$$\begin{cases} b & \text{if } m \geq n \\ fib_iter(n, b, a + b, m + 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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fibTR: SML

local

```
  fun fib_iter (n, a, b, m) =  
(* fib (m) = b ,fib (m-1) = a *)  
  if m >= n then b  
  else fib_iter (n, b, a+b, m+1)
```

in

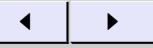
```
fun fibTR (n) =  
  if n < 0 then raise negativeArgument  
  else if (n <= 1) then 1  
  else fib_iter (n, 1, 1, 1)  
end;
```

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State in Tail Recursion

- The variables that make up the *state* bear a definite relation to each other.
- **INVARIANCE.** That relationship between the state variables does not change throughout the computation of the function.

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Invariance

- The **invariant** property of a tail-recursive function must hold
 - Initially** when it is first invoked, and
 - Continues** to hold before every successive invocation
- The **invariant** property characterizes the entire computation and the algorithm and is crucial to the proof of correctness

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4.3. Invariance & Correctness

1. Recap
2. Recursion Transformation
3. Tail Recursion: Examples
4. Comparisons
5. Transformation Issues
6. Correctness Issues 1
7. Correctness Issues 2
8. Correctness Theorem
9. Invariants & Correctness 1
10. Invariants & Correctness 2
11. Invariance Lemma: *factL_tr*
12. Invariance: Example
13. Invariance: Example
14. Proof
15. Invariance Lemma: *fib_iter*
16. Proof
17. Correctness: Fibonacci

- 18. Variants & Invariants
- 19. Variants & Invariants
- 20. More Invariants
- 21. Fast Powering 1
- 22. Fast Powering 2
- 23. Root Finding: Bisection
- 24. Advantage Bisection



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Recap

- Asymptotic Complexity:
 - Space
 - Time
- Comparative Complexity
- Comparisons:
 - Small inputs
 - Large inputs

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Recursion Transformation

- To achieve **constant space** and **linear time**, if possible
- Speeding up using **tail recursion**
 - Factor out calculations
 - Reorder the computations with state variables
 - Recursion as the **outermost** operation

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Tail Recursion: Examples

- Factorial vs. Factorial:
factL vs. *factL2* vs.
- Fibonacci vs. Fibonacci:
fib vs. *fibTR*



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Comparisons

| Algorithm | Space | Time |
|-------------|----------|---------------|
| $isqrt(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(n)$ |
| $isqrt2(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(\log_2 n)$ |
| $factL(n)$ | $O(n)$ | $O(n)$ |
| $factL2(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(n)$ |
| $fib(n)$ | $O(2^n)$ | $O(2^n)$ |
| $fibTR(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(n)$ |



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Transformation Issues

- **Correctness:** Prove that the new algorithm computes the same function as the **original simple** algorithm
- **Termination:** Prove by induction on n that **every** computation is finite.
- **Space complexity:** Compute it.
- **Time complexity:** Compute it.



Correctness Issues 1

- **Absolute** correctness: For any function f , that an algorithm A that claims to implement it, prove that

$$f(\vec{x}) = A(\vec{x})$$

for all argument values \vec{x} for which f is defined.

- **Transformation** correctness:

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Correctness Issues 2

- **Absolute** correctness:
- **Transformation** correctness: For any algorithm A and a transformed algorithm B prove that

$$A(\vec{x}) = B(\vec{x})$$

for all argument values \vec{x} for which A is defined. Then B is **absolutely** correct provided A is **absolutely** correct.



Correctness Theorem

Invariant properties factL2

Theorem 8 For all $n \geq 0$,

$$\text{factL2}(n) = n!$$

Proof: For $n = 0$, it is clear that $\text{factL2}(0) = 1 = 0!$. For $n > 0$, $\text{factL2}(n) = \text{factL_tr}(n, 1)$. The proof is done provided we can show that $\text{factL_tr}(n, 1) = n!$. □

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Invariants & Correctness 1

Invariant properties *factL2*

- To prove the **absolute** or **transformation** correctness of a tail-recursion transformation usually requires an **invariant** property to be proven about the tail-recursive function.



Invariants & Correctness 2

Invariant properties *factL2*

- This allows the independent proof of the properties of the tail-recursive function without reference to the function that uses it.
- It reflects the design of the algorithm and its division into sub-problems.

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Invariance Lemma: $factL_tr$

Invariant properties $factL2$

Lemma 9 For all $n \geq 0$ and p

$$factL_tr(n, p) = (n!)p$$

Proof: By induction on n .



Back to theorem



Invariance: Example

factL2

$factL_tr(4, 7)$
 $\rightsquigarrow factL_tr(3, 28)$
 $\rightsquigarrow factL_tr(2, 84)$
 $\rightsquigarrow factL_tr(1, 168)$
 $\rightsquigarrow factL_tr(0, 168)$
 $\rightsquigarrow 168$

Contrast with a *factL2(4)* computation

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Invariance: Example

factL2

So what exactly is invariant?

$$\text{factL_tr}(4, 7) \quad 168 = 4! \times 7$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \text{factL_tr}(3, 28) \quad 168 = 3! \times 28$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \text{factL_tr}(2, 84) \quad 168 = 2! \times 84$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \text{factL_tr}(1, 168) \quad 168 = 1! \times 168$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \text{factL_tr}(0, 168) \quad 168 = 0! \times 168$$

$$\rightsquigarrow 168$$



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Proof

Basis For $n = 0$, $\text{factL_tr}(0, p) = p = (0!)p$.

Induction hypothesis (IH) For all k ,

$$0 < k \leq n,$$

$$\boxed{\text{factL_tr}(k, p) = p = (k!)p}$$

Induction Step

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{factL_tr}(n + 1, p) \\ = & \text{factL_tr}(n, (n + 1)p) \\ = & (n!)(n + 1)p \quad (IH) \\ = & (n + 1)!p \end{aligned}$$

Back to lemma



Invariance Lemma: *fib_iter*

fib_iter \mathbf{F}

Lemma 10 For all $n > 1, a, b, m : 1 \leq m \leq n$, if $a = \mathbf{F}(m - 1)$ and $b = \mathbf{F}(m)$, then

INV : $fib_iter(n, a, b, m) = \mathbf{F}(n)$

Proof: By induction on $k = n - m$ \square

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Proof

Basis For $k = 0$, $n = m$, it follows that

$$\text{fib_iter}(n, a, b, m) = \mathbf{F}(n)$$

Induction hypothesis (IH) For all $n > 1$ and $1 \leq m \leq n$, with $n - m \leq k$,
INV holds

Induction Step Let $1 \leq m < n$ such that $n - m = k + 1$, $\mathbf{F}(m) = b$ and $\mathbf{F}(m - 1) = a$. Then $\mathbf{F}(m + 1) = a + b$ and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{fib_iter}(n, a, b, m) \\ &= \text{fib_iter}(n, b, a + b, m + 1) \\ &= \mathbf{F}(n) \quad (\text{IH}) \end{aligned}$$



Correctness: Fibonacci

fibTR

Fibonacci

Theorem 11 For all $n \geq 0$,
 $fibTR(n) = F(n)$.

Proof: For $0 \leq n \leq 1$, it holds trivially. For $n > 1$, $fibTR(n) = fib_iter(n, 1, 1, 1) = F(n)$, by the **invariance lemma**, with $m = 1$, $a = 1 = F(m - 1)$ and $b = 1 = F(m)$. \square

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Variants & Invariants

factL2

factL3(n) =

$$\begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \textcolor{blue}{factL_tr2(n, 1, 1)} & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

where

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Variants & Invariants

factL2

factL_tr2(n, p, m) =

$$\begin{cases} p & \text{if } n = m \\ factL_tr2(n, (m + 1)p, m + 1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$factL_tr2(n, p, m) = (m!)p$$

for all $1 \leq m \leq n$.

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More Invariants

- *shrink* For all $n > 0, l, u$, if $[l, u] \subseteq [0, n]$,

$$l \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor \leq u$$

- *shrink2*

For all $n > 0, l, u$, if $[l, u] \subseteq [0, n]$,

$$m = \lfloor (l + u)/2 \rfloor \text{ and } l \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor \leq u$$

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Fast Powering 1

power2

power3(x, n) =

$$\begin{cases} 1.0 / \text{power3}(x, -n) & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 1.0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \text{powerTR}(x, n, 1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

where



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Fast Powering 2

power2

$powerTR(x, n, p) =$

$$\begin{cases} p & \text{if } n = 0 \\ powerTR(x^2, n \text{ div } 2, p) & \text{if } even(n) \\ powerTR(x^2, n \text{ div } 2, xp) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $even(n) \iff n \bmod 2 = 0$.

$powerTR(x, n, p) = x^n p$



Root Finding: Bisection

Newton's Method

Algorithm

Select a small enough $\varepsilon > 0$ and x_0 . Then if $sgn(f(a)) \neq sgn(f(b))$,
 $bisect(f, a, b, \varepsilon) =$

$$\begin{cases} c & \text{if } |f(c)| < \varepsilon \\ bisect(f, c, b, \varepsilon) & \text{if } sgn(f(c)) \neq sgn(f(b)) \\ bisect(f, a, c, \varepsilon) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $c = (a + b)/2$

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Advantage Bisection

More robust than Newton's method

- Requires continuity and change of sign
- Does not require differentiability
- Could change the condition suitably to take care of very shallow curves
- **Oscillations** could occur only if the function is too **steep**.
- An intermediate point can never go **outside** the interval.

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5. Compound Data

5.1. Tuples, Lists & the Generation of Primes

1. Recap: Tail Recursion
2. Examples: Invariants
3. Tuples
4. Lists
5. New Lists
6. List Operations
7. List Operations: *cons*
8. Generating Primes upto n
9. More Properties
10. Composites
11. Odd Primes
12. *primesUpto(n)*
13. *generateFrom(P, m, n, k)*
14. *generateFrom*
15. *primeWRT(m, P)*
16. *primeWRT(m, P)*
17. *primeWRT*

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- 18. Density of Primes
- 19. The Prime Number Theorem
- 20. The Prime Number Theorem
- 21. Complexity
- 22. Diagnosis



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Recap: Tail Recursion

- Asymptotic Complexity:

Time Linear

Space Constant

- Correctness: Capture the algorithm through

Invariant Invariance Lemma

Bound function Proof by induction

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Examples: Invariants

factL_tr2

shrink & *shrink2*

$$l \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor \leq u$$

$m = \lfloor (l + u)/2 \rfloor$ and $l \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor \leq u$

Fast Powering

$$\text{powerTR}(x, n, p) = x^n p$$

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Tuples: Formation

Simplest form of compound data:
Cartesian products.

- Each element of a cartesian product is a **tuple**
- Tuples may be constructed as we do in mathematics, simply by enclosing the elements (separated by commas) in a pair of parentheses.

```
- val a = (2, 3.0, false);  
val a = (2,3.0,false) :  
          int * real * bool
```



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Tuples: Decomposition

- Individual components of a tuple may be taken out too.

- #1 a;

```
val it = 2 : int
```

- #2 (a);

```
val it = 3.0 : real
```

- #3 a;

```
val it = false : bool
```

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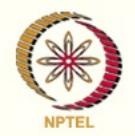
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Tuples: divmod

Standard ML of New Jersey, . . .

```
- fun divmod (a, b) =
    (a div b, a mod b);
val divmod =
fn : int * int -> int * int
- val dm = divmod (24, 9);
val dm = (2, 6) : int * int
- #1 dm;
val it = 2 : int
- #2 dm;
val it = 6 : int
```



Constructors & Destructors

Every way of constructing compound data from simpler data elements has

Constructors : Operators which construct compound data from simpler ones (for tuples it is simply `(`, `,` and `)`).

Destructors : Operators which allow us to extract the individual components of a compound data item (for tuples they are `#1`, `#2` ... depending upon how many components it consists of).

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Tuples: Identity

Every tuple that has been broken up into its components using its **destructors** can be put together back again using its **constructors**.

Given a tuple $\mathbf{a} \in A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$, we have

$$\mathbf{a} = (\#1 \ \mathbf{a}, \#2 \ \mathbf{a}, \dots, \#n \ \mathbf{a})$$



Lists

An *α list* represents a **sequence** of elements of a given type α .

Given a (nonempty) list

- A list is **ordered**
- There may be **more than one occurrence of an element** in the list
- only the **first element** (called the **head**) of the list is immediately accessible.

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New Lists

Given a (nonempty) list L ,

- A **new** list M may be created from an existing list L by the tl operation.
- New elements can be **added** (by the operation $cons$) to an existing list, one at a time to create **new** lists.
- the last element that was added becomes the head of the **new** list.
- Two lists are equal only if they have the same elements in the same order

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List Operations

- The empty list: *nil* or $[]$
- Nonempty lists: Given a nonempty list *L*

$$L = [1, 2, 3, 4]$$

head : $hd : \alpha List \rightarrow \alpha$

$$hd(L) = 1$$

tail : $tl : \alpha List \rightarrow \alpha List$

$$tl(L) = [2, 3, 4]$$

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List Operations: *cons*

- $L = [1, 2, 3, 4]$

cons : *cons* : $\alpha \times \alpha List \rightarrow \alpha List$

$$cons(0, nil) = [0]$$

$$cons(0, L) = 0 :: L = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]$$

$$1 :: (0 :: L) = [1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4]$$

back to lists Recap

Polynomial Evaluation

Evaluating a polynomial

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$$

given

- its coefficients as a list $[a_n, \dots, a_0]$ of values from the highest degree term to the constant a_0 .
- a value for the variable x .

Assume an empty list of coefficients yields a value 0.



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Naive Solution

$poly0(L, x) =$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } L = nil \\ hx^n + poly0(T, x) & \text{if } L = h :: T \end{cases}$$

where $n = |L| - 1$.

```
fun poly0 ( [] , x ) = 0 . 0
| poly0 ( ( h :: T ) , x ) =
  h * power ( x , n ) + poly0 ( T , x )
```



Complexity of poly_0

Space. $O(n)$ to store both the list and the intermediate computations.

Additions. $O(n)$ additions.

Multiplications. $n(n - 1)/2$ by the simplest powering algorithm.

Multiplications. $O(\log_2(n) + O(\log_2(n - 1) + \dots + O(\log_2(1))) \leq O(n \log_2(n))$ by the fast powering algorithm.

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Arden's Rule

Factor out the multiplications to get

$$p(x) = (\dots((a_n x + a_{n-1})x + a_{n-2})x + \dots)x + a_0$$

and define a tail-recursive function which requires only n multiplications.

$$\text{poly1}(L, x) = \text{poly_TR}(0, L, x)$$

where

$$\text{poly_TR}(p, L, x) =$$

$$\begin{cases} p & \text{if } L = \text{nil} \\ \text{poly_TR}(px + h, T, x) & \text{if } L = h :: T \end{cases}$$

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poly1 in SML

local

```
fun poly_TR (p, [], x) = p
| poly_TR (p, (h :: T), x) =
  poly_TR (p * x + h, T, x)
```

in

```
fun poly L x =
  poly_TR (0.0, L, x)
```

end;

Question 1. What is the right theorem to prove that *poly TR* is the right generalization for the problem?

Ans.

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poly1 in SML

local

```
fun poly_TR (p, [], x) = p
  | poly_TR (p, (h :: T), x) =
    poly_TR (p * x + h, T, x)
```

in

```
fun poly L x =
  poly_TR (0.0, L, x)
```

end;

$$\text{Ans. } \text{poly_TR}(p, L, x) = px^{n+1} + \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$$



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Reverse Input

Supposing the coefficients were given in reverse order $[a_0, \dots, a_n]$. Reversing this list will be an extra $O(n)$ time and space. Though the asymptotic complexity does not change much, it is more interesting to work directly with the given list.



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revpoly0

revpoly0(L, x) =

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } L = nil \\ h + x \times \text{revpoly0}(T, x) & \text{if } L = h :: T \end{cases}$$

```
fun revpoly0 ([], x) = 0.0
| revpoly0 ((h::T), x) =
  h + x * revpoly0 (T, x)
```



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Tail Recursive

$\text{revpoly1}(L, x) = \text{revpoly1_TR}(L, x, 1, x)$

where

$\text{revpoly1_TR}(L, x, p, s) =$

$$\begin{cases} s & \text{if } L = \text{nil} \\ \text{revpoly1}(T, x, px, s + ph) & \text{if } L = h :: T \end{cases}$$



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Tail Recursion: SML

local

```
fun revpoly1_TR( [], x, p, s ) = s
  | revpoly1_TR( (h :: T), x, p, s ) = revpoly1_TR( T, x, p * x, s + p * h )
```

in

```
fun revpoly1 ( L, x ) =
  revpoly1_TR ( L, x, 1.0, 0.0 )
```

end



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Complexity of *revpoly1*

Space. $O(n)$ space to store the list

Multiplications. $2n$ multiplications

Additions. n additions.



Generating Primes upto n

Definition 12 A positive integer $n > 1$ is **composite** iff it has a **proper divisor** $d|n$ with $1 < d < n$. Otherwise it is **prime**.

- 2 is the smallest (first) prime.
- 2 is the only even prime.
- No other even number can be a prime.
- All other primes are odd

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More Properties

- An odd number cannot have any even divisors.
- Every number may be expressed uniquely (upto order) as a product of prime factors.
- No divisor of a positive integer can be greater than itself.
- For each divisor $d|n$ such that $d \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$, $n/d \geq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$ is also a divisor.

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Composites

- If a number n is composite, then it has a proper divisor d , $2 \leq d \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$.
- If a number n is composite, then it has a **prime** divisor p , $2 \leq p \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$.
- An **odd** composite number n has an **odd** prime divisor p , $3 \leq p \leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$.



Odd Primes

- An odd number > 1 is a prime iff it has no proper odd divisors
- An odd number > 1 is a prime iff it is not divisible by any odd prime smaller than itself.
- An odd number $n > 1$ is a prime iff it is not divisible by any odd prime $\leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$.

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primesUpto(n)

primesUpto(n) =

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n < 2 \\ [(1, 2)] & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \textit{primesUpto}(n - 1) \\ \textit{generateFrom} \\ ([(1, 2)], 3, n, 2) & \text{elseif } \textit{even}(n) \\ & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where



generateFrom(P, m, n, k)

bound function

$n - m$

Invariant

$$2 < m \leq n \wedge \text{odd}(m)$$

implies

$$P = [(k - 1, p_{k-1}), \dots, (1, p_1)]$$

and

$$\forall q : p_{k-1} < q < m : \text{composite}(q)$$

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generateFrom

generateFrom(P, m, n, k) =

$$\begin{cases} P & \text{if } m > n \\ \text{i} \text{f } m > n \\ \text{generateFrom} & \text{elseif} \\ (((k, m) :: P), m + 2, n, k + 1) \text{ pwrt} \\ \text{generateFrom} & \text{else} \\ (P, m + 2, n, k) & \end{cases}$$

where $\textit{pwrt} = \text{primeWRT}(m, P)$

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primeWRT(m, P)

Definition 13 A number m is prime with respect to a list L of numbers iff it is not divisible by any of them.

- A number is prime iff it is prime with respect to the list of all primes smaller than itself.
- From properties of odd primes it follows that a number n is prime iff it is prime with respect to the list of all primes $\leq \sqrt{n}$

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*primeWRT(m, P)***bound function $length(P)$** **Invariant** If $P = [(i - 1, p_{i-1}), \dots, (1, p_1)]$,
for some $i \geq 1$ then

- $p_k \geq m > p_{k-1}$, and
- m is prime with respect to $[(k - 1, p_{k-1}), \dots, (i, p_i)]$
- m is a prime iff it is a prime with respect to P



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primeWRT $\text{primeWRT}(m, P) =$

$$\begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } P = \text{nil} \\ \text{false} & \text{elseif } h|m \\ \text{primeWRT} & \text{else} \\ (m, \text{tl}(P)) & \end{cases}$$

where

$$(i, h) = \text{hd}(P)$$

for some $i > 0$



Density of Primes

Let $\pi(n)$ denote the number of primes upto n . Then

| n | $\pi(n)$ | % |
|-----------|----------|--------|
| 100 | 25 | 25.00% |
| 1000 | 168 | 16.80% |
| 10000 | 1229 | 12.29% |
| 100000 | 9592 | 9.59% |
| 1000000 | 78,498 | 7.85% |
| 10000000 | 664579 | 6.65% |
| 100000000 | 5761455 | 5.76% |

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The Prime Number Theorem



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$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(n)}{n / \ln n} = 1$$

Proved by Gauss.

- Shows that the primes get sparser at higher n
- A larger percentage of numbers as we go higher are composite.

from David Burton: *Elementary Number Theory*.

The Prime Number Theorem



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| n | $\pi(n)$ | % | $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(n)}{n / \ln n}$ |
|-----------|----------|--------|--|
| 100 | 25 | 25.00% | |
| 1000 | 168 | 16.80% | 1.159 |
| 10000 | 1229 | 12.29% | 1.132 |
| 100000 | 9592 | 9.59% | 1.104 |
| 1000000 | 78,498 | 7.85% | 1.084 |
| 10000000 | 664579 | 6.65% | 1.071 |
| 100000000 | 5761455 | 5.76% | 1.061 |

from David Burton: *Elementary Number Theory*.



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Complexity

| function | calls |
|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <i>primesUpto</i> | 1 |
| <i>generateFrom</i> | $n/2$ |
| <i>primeWRT</i> | $\sum_{m=3, \text{odd}(m)}^n \pi(m)$ |

Diagnosis

For each $m \leq n$,

- P is in **descending** order of the primes
- m is checked for divisibility $\pi(m)$ times
- From **properties of odd primes** it should not be necessary to check each m more than $\pi(\lfloor \sqrt{m} \rfloor)$ times for divisibility.
- Organize P in **ascending** order instead of **descending**.

ascending-order



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5.2. Compound Data & Lists

1. Compound Data
2. Recap: Tuples
3. Tuple: Formation
4. Tuples: Selection
5. Tuples: Equality
6. Tuples: Equality errors
7. Lists: Recap
8. Lists: Append
9. *cons* vs. @
10. Lists of Functions
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15. Tail Recursion
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18. AS3: Complexity
19. Generating Primes: 2
20. *primes2Upto(n)*
21. *generate2From(P, m, n, k)*
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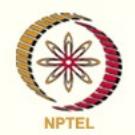
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Compound Data

- Forming (compound) data structures from simpler ones
- Breaking up compound data into its components.



Recap: Tuples

formation : Cartesian products of types

selection : Selection of individual components

equality : Equality checking

equality errors : Equality errors

forward to Lists

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Tuple: Formation

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- val a = ("arun", 1<2, 2);  
val a = ("arun", true, 2)  
      : string * bool * int  
- val b = ("arun", true, 2);  
val b = ("arun", true, 2)  
      : string * bool * int
```

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Tuples: Selection

```
- #2 a;  
val it = true : bool  
- #1 a;  
val it = "arun" : string  
- #3 a;  
val it = 2 : int  
- #4 a;  
stdIn:1.1-1.5 Error: operator and operand types do not match at top level  
operator domain: {4:'Y; 'Z}  
operand: string * bool  
in expression:  
(fn {4=4, . . . } => 4) a
```

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Tuples: Equality

- a = b;

```
val it = true : bool
```

- (1<2, true) = (1.0 < 2.0, true);

```
val it = true : bool
```

- (true, 1.0 < 2.4)

= (1.0 < 2.4, true);

```
val it = true : bool
```

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Tuples: Equality errors

- ("arun", (1, true))

= ("arun", 1, true);

stdin:1.1-29.39 Error: operator and
operator domain: (string * (int *
operand: (string * (int *
in expression:

("arun", (1, true))

= ("arun", 1, true)

- ("arun", (1, true))

= (("arun", 1), true);

stdin:1.1-29.39 Error: operator and

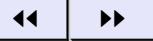


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Lists: Recap

formation : Sequence α List

selection : Selection of individual components

new lists : Making new lists from old



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Lists: Append

- op @;

```
val it = fn : 'a list * 'a list  
          -> 'a list
```

- [1,2,3] @ [~1, ~3];

```
val it = [1,2,3,~1,~3]  
          : int list
```

- [[1,2,3], [~1, ~2]]

@ [[1,2,3], [~1, ~2]];

```
val it =
```

```
[[1,2,3], [~1,~2],  
 [1,2,3], [~1,~2]]
```

```
: int list list
```

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cons VS. @

cons is a **constant time** = $O(1)$ operation. But @ is **linear** = $O(n)$ in the length *n* of the first list. @ is defined as

$L@M =$

$$\begin{cases} M & \text{if } L = nil \\ h :: (T@M) & \text{if } L = h :: T \end{cases}$$



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Lists of Functions

```
- fun add1 x = x+1;  
val add1 = fn : int -> int  
- fun add2 x = x + 2;  
val add2 = fn : int -> int  
- fun add3 x = x + 3;  
val add3 = fn : int -> int
```



Lists of Functions

- val addthree

= [add1, add2, add3];

val addthree

= [fn, fn, fn] : (int -> int) list

- fun addall x = [(add1 x), (add2 x)]

val addall = fn : int -> int list

- addall 3;

val it = [4, 5, 6] : int list

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Arithmetic Sequences

$AS1(a, d, n) =$

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ AS1(a, d, n - 1) & \text{else} \\ @ [a + (n - 1) * d] \end{cases}$$

| function | calls | Order |
|----------|------------------|----------|
| $AS1$ | n | $O(n)$ |
| $@$ | n | $O(n)$ |
| $::$ | $\sum_{i=0}^n i$ | $O(n^2)$ |

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Tail Recursion

$AS2(a, d, n) =$

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ AS2_iter(a, d, n - 1, 0, []) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

where

for any initial L_0 and $n \geq k \geq 0$

$INV2 : L = L_0 @ [a] @ \dots @ [a + (k - 1) * d]$

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Tail Recursion: Invariant

$$INV2 : L = L_0 @ [a] @ \dots @ [a + (k - 1) * d]$$

and bound function

$$n - k$$

AS2_iter(a, d, n, k, L) =

$$\begin{cases} L & \text{if } k \geq n \\ AS2_iter(a, d, n, k + 1) \text{ else} \\ L @ [a + k * d] \end{cases}$$



Tail Recursion: Complexity

| function | calls | Order |
|-----------------|------------------|----------|
| <i>AS2</i> | 1 | |
| <i>AS2_iter</i> | n | $O(n)$ |
| @ | n | $O(n)$ |
| :: | $\sum_{i=0}^n i$ | $O(n^2)$ |

So tail recursion simply doesn't help!

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Another Tail Recursion

• AS3

$AS3(a, d, n) =$

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ AS3_iter(a, d, n - 1, []) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

where

for any initial L_0 , $n_0 \geq n > 0$, and

$INV3 : L = (a + (n - 1) * d) :: \dots ::$

$\dots :: (a + (n_0 - 1) * d) :: L_0$



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Another Tail Recursion: *AS3_iter*

$INV3 : L = (a + (n - 1) * d) :: \dots$

$\dots :: (a + (n_0 - 1) * d) :: L_0$

and bound function n ,

$AS3_iter(a, d, n, L) =$

$$\begin{cases} L & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ AS3_iter(a, d, n - 1, & \text{else} \\ (a + (n - 1) * d) :: L) \end{cases}$$

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AS3: Complexity

| function | calls | Order |
|-------------|------------------|--------|
| $AS3$ | 1 | |
| $AS3_iter$ | n | $O(n)$ |
| @ | 0 | |
| :: | $\sum_{i=0}^n 1$ | $O(n)$ |



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Generating Primes: 2

composites

- *primesUpto*
- *invariant*
- *generateFrom*



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primes2Upto(n)

primes2Upto(n) =

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n < 2 \\ [(1, 2)] & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \textit{primes2Upto}(n - 1) \\ \textit{generate2From} \\ ([1, 2]), 3, n, 2 & \text{elseif } \textit{even}(n) \\ & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where



generate2From(P, m, n, k)

bound function

$n - m$

Invariant

$$2 < m \leq n \wedge \text{odd}(m)$$

implies

$$P = [(1, p_1), \dots, (k-1, p_{k-1})]$$

and

$$\forall q : p_{k-1} < q < m : \text{composite}(q)$$

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generate2From

generate2From(P, m, n, k) =

$$\begin{cases} P & \text{if } m > n \\ \text{i} \text{generate2From} \\ (P@[(k, m)], m + 2, n, k + 1) \text{ pwrt} & \text{elseif} \\ \text{i} \text{generate2From} \\ (P, m + 2, n, k) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

where $\text{pwrt} = \text{prime2WRT}(m, P)$



prime2WRT(m, P)

bound function $length(P)$

Invariant If $P = [(i, p_i), \dots, (k-1, p_{k-1})]$,
for some $i \geq 1$ then

- $p_k \geq m > p_{k-1}$, and
- m is prime with respect to $[(1, p_1), \dots, (i-1, p_{i-1})]$
- m is a prime iff it is a prime with respect to $[(1, p_1), \dots, (j, p_j)]$, where $p_j \leq \lfloor \sqrt{m} \rfloor < p_{j+1}$

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prime2WRT

prime2WRT(m, P) =

$$\begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } P = \text{nil} \\ \text{true} & \text{if } h > m \text{ div } h \\ \text{false} & \text{elseif } h|m \\ \text{primeWRT} & \text{else} \\ (m, \text{tl}(P)) & \end{cases}$$

where

$$(i, h) = \text{hd}(P)$$

for some $i > 0$

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primes2: Complexity

| function | calls |
|----------------------|---|
| <i>primes2Upto</i> | 1 |
| <i>generate2From</i> | $n/2$ |
| <i>prime2WRT</i> | $\sum_{m=3, \text{odd}(m)}^n \pi(\lfloor \sqrt{m} \rfloor)$ |



primes2: Diagnosis

generate2From

- Uses `@` to create an ascending sequence of primes
- For each new prime p_k this operation takes time $O(k)$.
- Can tail recursion be used to reduce the complexity due to `@`?
- Can a more efficient algorithm using `::` instead of `@` be devised (as in the case of *AS3*)?

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5.3. Compound Data & List Algorithms

1. Compound Data: Summary
2. Records: Constructors
3. Records: Example 1
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Compound Data: Summary

- Compound Data:

Tuples: Cartesian products of different types (**ordered**)

Lists: Sequences of the same type of element

Records: Unordered named aggregations of elements of **different types**.

- Constructors & Destructors



Records: Constructors

- A record is a **set** of values drawn from various types such that each component (called a **field**) has a unique **name**.
- Each record has a type defined by
field names
types of fieldnames
The order of presentation of the record fields does not affect its type in any way.

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Records: Example 1

Standard ML of New Jersey,

```
- val pinky =  
{ name = "Pinky",      age = 3,  
  fav_colour = "pink"};  
- val pinky = {age=3,  
               fav_colour="pink",  
               name="Pinky"}  
: {age:int,  
   fav_colour:string,  
   name:string  
 }  
 }
```



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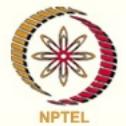
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Records: Example 2

```
- val billu =  
{ age = 1,  
  name = "Billu",  
  fav_colour = "blue"  
} ;  
- val billu =  
{age=1, fav_colour="blue", name="Billu"}  
{age:int, fav_colour:string, name:string}  
- pinky = billu;  
val it = false : bool
```



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Records: Destructors

```
#age billu;  
val it = 1 : int  
- #fav_colour billu;  
val it = "blue" : string  
- #name billu;  
val it = "Billu" : string
```



Records: Equality

```
- val pinky2 =  
{ name = "Pinky",  
  fav_colour = "pink",  
  age = 3  
};  
- val pinky2 =  
{age=3, fav_colour="pink", name="Pinky"  
{age:int, fav_colour:string, name:string}  
- pinky = pinky2;  
val it = true : bool
```

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Tuples & Records

- A *k*-tuple may be thought of as a record whose fields are numbered #1 to #k instead of having names.
- A record may be thought of as a generalization of tuples whose components are named rather than being numbered.

back



Back to Lists

- Every $L : \alpha$ List satisfies

$$L = []$$

XOR

$$L = hd(L) :: tl(L)$$

- Many functions on lists (L) are defined by induction on its length ($|L|$).

$$f(L) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } L = [] \\ g(h, T) & \text{if } L = h :: T \end{cases}$$

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Lists: Correctness

Hence their properties (P) are proved by induction on the length of the list.

Basis $|L| = 0$. Prove $P(\boxed{\text{[]}})$

Induction hypothesis (IH) Assume for some $|T| = n > 0$, $\boxed{P(T)}$ holds.

Induction Step Prove $\boxed{P(h :: T)}$ for $L = h :: T$ with $|L| = n + 1$

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Lists: Case Analysis

inductive defns on lists

- Every list has exactly one of the following forms (patterns)

- $[]$
- $h::T$

- ML provides convenient case analysis based on patterns.

```
fun f [] = c
    | f (h :: T) = g (h, T)
;
```

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Lists: Correctness by Cases

Lists-correctness

P is proved by case analysis.

Basis Prove

$$P([])$$

Induction hypothesis (IH) Assume

$$P(T)$$

Induction Step Prove

$$P(h :: T)$$



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List-functions: *length*

$$\begin{cases} \text{length } [] = 0 \\ \text{length } (h :: T) = 1 + (\text{length } T) \end{cases}$$



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List Functions: *search*

To determine whether x occurs in a list

L

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{search}(x, []) & = \text{false} \\ \text{search}(x, h :: T) & = \text{true if } x = h \\ \text{search}(x, h :: T) & = \text{search}(x, T) \text{ else} \end{array} \right.$$



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List Functions: *search2*

Or even more conveniently

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{search2}(x, []) & = \text{false} \\ \text{search2}(x, h :: T) & = (x = h) \text{ or} \\ & \quad \text{search2}(x, T) \end{array} \right.$$

Time Complexity??



List Functions: *ordered*

Definition 14 A list $L = [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}]$ is *ordered* by a relation \leq if consecutive elements are related by \leq , i.e $a_i \leq a_{i+1}$, for $0 \leq i < n - 1$.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ordered } [] \\ \text{ordered } [h] \\ \text{ordered } (h_0 :: h_1 :: T) \quad \text{if } h_0 \leq h_1 \text{ and} \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{ordered}(h_1 :: T) \end{array} \right.$$

Time Complexity??

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List Functions:*insert*

Given an **ordered** list $L : \alpha \text{ List}$, insert an element $x : \alpha$ at an appropriate position

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{insert}(x, []) = [x] \\ \\ \text{insert}(x, h :: T) = x :: (h :: T) \\ \quad \text{if } x \leq h \\ \\ \text{insert}(x, h :: T) = h :: (\text{insert}(x, T)) \\ \quad \text{else} \end{array} \right.$$

Time Complexity??

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List Functions: *reverse*

Reverse the elements of a list

$L = [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}]$ to obtain $M = [a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0]$.

$$\begin{cases} \text{reverse } [] = [] \\ \text{reverse } (h :: T) = (\text{reverse } T) @ [h] \end{cases}$$

Time Complexity?? $O(n^2)$



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List Functions: *reverse2*

$$\begin{cases} \text{reverse } [] = [] \\ \text{reverse } (h :: T) = \text{rev } ((h :: T), []) \end{cases}$$

where

$$\begin{cases} \text{rev } ([] , N) = N \\ \text{rev } (h :: T, N) = \text{rev } (T, h :: N) \end{cases}$$

Correctness ??
Time Complexity ?? $O(n)$



List Functions:*merge*

Merge two **ordered** lists $|L| = l$, $|M| = m$ to produce an **ordered** list $|N| = l + m$ containing exactly the elements of L and M . That is if

$L = [1, 3, 5, 9, 11]$ and

$M = [0, 3, 4, 4, 10]$, then

$\text{merge}(L, M) = N$, where

$N = [0, 1, 3, 3, 4, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11]$

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List Functions: *merge*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{merge}([], M) & = M \\ \\ \text{merge}(L, []) & = L \\ \\ \text{merge}(L, M) & = \\ a :: (\text{merge}(S, M)) & \quad \text{if } a \leq b \\ \\ \text{merge}(L, M) & = \\ b :: (\text{merge}(L, T)) & \quad \text{else} \end{array} \right.$$

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List Functions:*merge* *contd.*

where

$$\begin{cases} L = a :: S \\ M = b :: T \end{cases}$$



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ML: *merge*

```
fun merge ( [], M) = M
| merge (L, []) = L
| merge (L as a::S,
          M as b::T) =
    if a <= b
    then a :: merge (S, M)
    else b :: merge (L, T)
```



Sorting by Insertion

Given a list of elements to **reorder** them (i.e. with the same number of occurrences of each element as in the original list) to produce a new ordered list.

Hence $\text{sort}[10, 8, 3, 6, 9, 7, 4, 8, 1] = [1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 8, 9, 10]$

$$\begin{cases} \text{isort}[] = [] \\ \text{isort}(h :: T) = \text{insert}(h, (\text{isort}T)) \end{cases}$$

Time Complexity??

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Sorting by Merging

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} msort [] = [] \\ msort [a] = [a] \\ msort L = \text{merge} ((msort M), \\ \quad (msort N)) \end{array} \right.$$

where

$$(M, N) = \text{split } L$$



Sorting by Merging

where

$$\begin{cases} \text{split } [] & = ([], []) \\ \text{split } [a] & = ([a], []) \\ \text{split } (a :: b :: P) & = (a :: \text{Left}, b :: \text{Right}) \end{cases}$$

where

$$(\text{Left}, \text{Right}) = \text{split } P$$

Time Complexity??

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Functions as Data

list of functions

- Every **function** is **unary**. A function of many arguments may be thought of as a function of a single argument i.e. a tuple of appropriate type.
- Every **function** is a **value** of an appropriate type.
- Hence **functions** are also **data**.

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Higher Order Functions

Compound data may be constructed from functions as values using the constructors of the compound data structure.

Functions may be defined with other functions and/or data as arguments to produce new values or new functions.

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5. An Example
6. Currying
7. Currying: Contd
8. Generalization
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Summary: Compound Data

- Records and tuples
- Lists
 - Correctness
 - Examples



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List: Examples

- Length of a list
- Searching a list
- Checking whether a list is ordered
- Reversing a list
- Sorting of lists



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Lists: Sorting

- Sorting by insertion
- Sorting by Divide-and-Conquer



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Higher Order Functions

- Functions as data
- Higher order functions



An Example

List of functions

- $\text{add1 } x = x + 1$
- $\text{add2 } x = x + 2$
- $\text{add3 } x = x + 3$

Suppose we needed to define a long list of length n , where the i -th element is the function that adds $i + 1$ to the argument.

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Currying

$$\text{addc } y \ x = x + y$$

ML's response :

```
val addc = fn :  
             int -> (int -> int)
```

Contrast with ML's response

- op +;

```
val it = fn : int * int -> int
```

addc is the **curried** version of the binary operation **+**.

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Currying: Contd

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$$f : (\alpha * \beta * \gamma) \rightarrow \delta \checkmark$$

$$f_c : \alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \delta \checkmark$$

$$f_c^1 : (\alpha * \beta) \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \delta \checkmark$$

$$f_c^2 : \alpha \rightarrow (\beta * \gamma) \rightarrow \delta \checkmark$$



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Generalization

Then

- $addc1 = (addc\ 1): \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$
- $addc2 = (addc\ 2): \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$
- $addc3 = (addc\ 3): \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

and for any i ,

$(addc\ i): \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

is the required function.



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Generalization: 2

list_adds n =

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ (list_adds(n - 1)) @ [(addc\ n)] & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

ML's response :

```
val list_adds = fn :  
int -> (int -> int) list
```



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Applying a list

addall

$$\begin{cases} \text{applyl } []\ x = [] \\ \text{applyl } (h :: T)\ x = (h\ x) :: (\text{applyl } T\ x) \end{cases}$$

ML's response:

```
val applyl = fn :  
('a -> 'b) list ->  
'a -> 'b list
```



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Trying it out

interval x n = applyl x (list_adds n)

ML's response:

```
val interval = fn :  
    int -> int -> int list  
- interval 53 5;  
val it = [54, 55, 56, 57, 58]  
: int list
```



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Associativity

- Application associates to the left.

$$f\ x\ y = ((f\ x)\ y)$$

- \rightarrow associates to the right.

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma = \alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow \gamma)$$

If $f : \alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \delta$

then $f\ a : \beta \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \delta$

and $f\ a\ b : \gamma \rightarrow \delta$

and $f\ a\ b\ c : \delta$



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Apply to a list

Apply a list Transpose of a matrix

$$\begin{cases} \text{map } f [] = [] \\ \text{map } f (h :: T) = (f h) :: (\text{map } f T) \end{cases}$$

```
val it = fn : ('a -> 'b) ->
            'a list -> 'b list
- map addc3 [4, 6, ~1, 0];
val it = [7,9,2,3] : int list
- map real [7,9,2,3];
val it = [7.0,9.0,2.0,3.0]
: real list
```



Sequences

Arithmetic sequences-1

Arithmetic sequences-2

Arithmetic sequences-3

$AS4(a, d, n) =$

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ a :: (\text{map } (\text{addc } d) \\ \quad (\text{AS4 } (a, d, (n - 1)))) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

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Further Generalization

Given

$$f : \alpha * \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$

Then

$$\text{curry2 } f \ x \ y = f(x, y)$$

and

$$(\text{curry2 } f) : \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha)$$

and for any $d : \alpha$,

$$((\text{curry2 } f) \ d) : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$



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Further Generalization

$seq(f, a, d, n) =$

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ a :: (map ((curry2 f) d) \\ (seq (f, a, d, n - 1))) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

is the sequence of length n generated with $((curry2 f) d)$, starting from a .

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Sequences

Arithmetic: $AS5(a, d, n)$ =
 $seq(op+, a, d, n)$

Geometric: $GS1(a, r, n)$ =
 $seq(op*, a, r, n)$

Harmonic: $HS1(a, d, n)$ =
 $map reci (AS5(a, d, n))$

where
 $reci\ x = 1.0/(real\ x)$ gives the reciprocal of a (non-zero) integer.

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Efficient Generalization

Let's not use *map* repeatedly.

$seq2(f, g, a, d, n) =$

$$\begin{cases} [] & \text{if } n \leq 0 \\ (f\ a) :: (seq2\ (f, g(a, d), d, n - 1)) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

is the sequence of length *n* generated with a unary *f*, a binary *g* starting from *f(a)*.

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Sequences: 2

- $AS6(a, d, n) = seq2(id, op+, a, d, n)$
- $GS2(a, r, n) = seq2(id, op*, a, r, n)$
- $HS2(a, d, n) = seq2(reci, op+, a, d, n)$

where $id\ x = x$ is the identity function.



More Generalizations

Often interested in some particular **measure** related to a sequence, rather than in the sequence itself, e.g. **summations** of

- arithmetic, geometric, harmonic sequences
- e^x , trigonometric functions upto some *n*-th term
- (Truncated) Taylor and Maclaurin series

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More Summations

Wasteful to **first** generate the sequence and **then** compute the measure

$$\sum_{i=l}^u f(i)$$

where the range $[l, u]$ is defined by a unary *succ* function

sum(f, succ, l, u) =

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } [l, u] = \emptyset \\ f(l) + \text{sum}(f, \text{succ}, \text{succ}(l), u) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



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Or Maybe . . . Products

Or may be interested in forming products of sequences.

$$\prod_{i=l}^u f(i)$$

prod(f, succ, l, u) =

$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } [l, u] = \emptyset \\ f(l) * prod(f, succ, succ(l), u) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

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Or Some Other \otimes

Or some other binary operation \otimes which has the following properties:

- $\otimes : (\alpha * \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$ is **closed**
- \otimes is **associative** i.e.

$$a \otimes (b \otimes c) = (a \otimes b) \otimes c$$

- \otimes has an **identity element** e i.e

$$a \otimes e = a = e \otimes a$$

$$\bigotimes_{i=l}^u f(l)$$

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Other \otimes

Then if $f, succ : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
 $ser(\otimes, f, succ, l, u) =$

$$\begin{cases} e & \text{if } [l, u] = \emptyset \\ f(l) \otimes ser(\otimes, f, succ, succ(l), u) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



Examples of \otimes , e

- $+$, 0 on integers and reals
- concatenation and the empty string on strings
- andalso, true on booleans
- orelse, false on booleans
- $+$, 0 on vectors and matrices
- $*$, 1 on vectors and matrices

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6.2. Structured Data

1. Transpose of a Matrix
2. Transpose: 0
3. Transpose: 10
4. Transpose: 01
5. Transpose: 20
6. Transpose: 02
7. Transpose: 30
8. Transpose: 03
9. *trans*
10. *is2DMatrix*
11. User Defined Types
12. Enumeration Types
13. User Defined Structural Types
14. Functions vs. data
15. Data as 0-ary Functions
16. Data vs. Functions
17. Data vs. Functions: Recursion
18. Lists



19. Constructors
20. Shapes
21. Shapes: Triangle Inequality
22. Shapes: Area
23. Shapes: Area
24. ML: Try out
25. ML: Try out (contd.)
26. Enumeration Types
27. Recursive Data Types
28. Resistors: Datatype
29. Resistors: Equivalent
30. Resistors
31. Resistors: Example
32. Resistors: ML session

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Transpose of a Matrix

Map

Assume a 2-D $r \times c$ matrix is represented by a list of lists of elements.

Then

transpose L =

$$\begin{cases} \text{trans } L & \text{if } \text{is2DMatrix}(L) \\ \perp & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

where



Transpose: 0

[

| | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 11 | 12 | 13 |
| 21 | 22 | 23 |
| 31 | 32 | 33 |
| 41 | 42 | 43 |

]

[

]

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Transpose: 10

[[11 12 13]
[21 22 23]
[31 32 33]
[41 42 43]]

[]

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Transpose: 01

```
[  
[ 12 13 ]  
[ 22 23 ]  
[ 32 33 ]  
[ 42 43 ]]  
]
```

```
[  
[ 11 21 31 41 ]  
]
```

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Transpose: 20

```
[  
[ 12 13 ]  
[ 22 23 ]  
[ 32 33 ]  
[ 42 43 ]]  
]
```

```
[  
[ 11 21 31 41 ]]  
]
```

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Transpose: 02

```
[  
[           13 ]  
[           23 ]  
[           33 ]  
[           43 ]  
]
```

```
[  
[ 11   21   31   41 ]  
[ 12   22   32   42 ]  
]  
]
```

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Transpose: 30

```
[  
 [ 13 ]  
 [ 23 ]  
 [ 33 ]  
 [ 43 ]]  
 ]
```

```
[  
 [ 11  21  31  41 ]  
 [ 12  22  32  42 ]]  
 ]
```

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Transpose: 03

```
[  
 [ ]  
 [ ]  
 [ ]  
 [ ]  
 ]
```

```
[  
 [ 11  21  31  41 ]  
 [ 12  22  32  42 ]  
 [ 13  23  33  43 ]  
 ]
```

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trans

$$\begin{cases} \text{trans } [] &= [] \\ \text{trans } [] :: TL &= [] \\ \text{trans } LL &= (\text{map } \text{hd } LL) :: \\ &\quad (\text{trans } (\text{map } \text{tl } LL)) \end{cases}$$

and

is2DMatrix = #1(dimensions L)

where



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is2DMatrix

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{dimensions } [] = (\text{true}, 0, 0) \\ \text{dimensions } [H] = (\text{true}, 1, h) \\ \text{dimensions } (H :: TL) = (b \text{ and } (h = c), r + 1, c) \end{array} \right.$$

where $\text{dimensions } TL = (b, r, c)$
and $h = \text{length } H$



User Defined Types

Many languages allow user-defined data types.

- record types: Pinky and Billu
- Enumerations: aggregates of heterogeneous data.
- other structural constructions (if desperate!)

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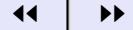


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Enumeration Types

Many languages allow user-defined data types.

- record types: Pinky and Billu
- Enumerations: aggregates of heterogeneous data.
 - days of the week
 - colours
 - geometrical shapes
- other structural constructions (if desperate!)



User Defined Structural Types

Many languages allow user-defined data types.

- record types: Pinky and Billu
- Enumerations: aggregates of heterogeneous data.
- other structural constructions (if desperate!)
 - trees
 - graphs
 - symbolic expressions

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Functions vs. data

- Inspired by the list **constructors**, **nil** and **cons**
- Grand Unification of functions and data
 - Functions as data
 - Data as functions



Data as 0-ary Functions

- Every data element may be regarded as a function with 0 arguments

– Caution: A constant function

$$f(x) = 5, \text{ for all } x : \alpha$$

where

$$f : \alpha \rightarrow \text{int}$$

is not the same as a value

$$5 : \text{int}$$

. Their types are different.

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Data vs. Functions

| Facilities | Functions | Data |
|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| primitive | operations | values |
| user-defined | functions | constructors |
| composition | application | alternative |
| recursion | recursion | recursion |



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Data vs. Functions: Recursion

Recursion

Basis
naming
composition
induction



Lists as Structured Data

```
datatype 'a list =  
            nil |  
            cons of 'a * 'a list
```

Every *α list* is either

`nil`: (**Basis, name**)

`|` : or (**alternative**)

`cons` : constructed **inductively** from
an element of type `'a` and another
list of type `'a list` using the con-
structor `cons`

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Constructors

- Inspired by the list constructors

nil : α list

cons : $\alpha \times \alpha$ list \rightarrow α list

- combine heterogeneous types: α and α list
- allows recursive definition by a form of induction

Basis : *nil*

Induction : *cons*

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Shapes

A non-recursive data type

datatype shape =

CIRCLE of real

| RECTANGLE of real * real

| TRIANGLE of

real * real * real



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Shapes: Triangle Inequality

```
fun isTriangle
  (TRIANGLE (a, b, c)) =
    (a+b>c) andalso
    (b+c>a) andalso
    (c+a>b)
| isTriangle _ = false
```



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Shapes: Area

```
exception notShape;
```

```
fun area (CIRCLE (r)) =  
    3.14159 * r * r  
| area (RECTANGLE (l,b)) =  
    l*b  
| area (s as TRIANGLE (a, b, c)) =
```



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Shapes: Area

```
if isTriangle (s) then
let val s = (a+b+c)/2.0
in Math.sqrt
    (s*(s-a)*(s-b)*(s-c))
end
else raise notShape;
```



ML: Try out

```
- use "shapes.sml";  
[opening shapes.sml]  
datatype shape  
  = CIRCLE of real  
  | RECTANGLE of real * real  
  | TRIANGLE of  
    real * real * real  
val isTriangle =  
  fn : shape -> bool  
exception notShape  
val area = fn : shape -> real
```

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ML: Try out (contd.)

```
val it = () : unit
- area (TRIANGLE (2.0, 1.0, 3.0)) ;
```

uncaught exception notShape

raised at: shapes.sml:22.17-22.25

```
- area
  (TRIANGLE (3.0, 4.0, 5.0));
```

```
val it = 6.0 : real
```

—

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Back to User defined types



Enumeration Types

- Enumeration types are non-recursive datatypes with
- 0-ary constructors

```
datatype working = MON | TUE  
                  | WED | THU | FRI;
```

```
datatype weekends = SAT | SUN
```

```
datatype weekdays = working  
                  | weekends;
```

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Back to User defined types



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Recursive Data Types

- But the really interesting types are the **recursive** data types

[Back to Lists](#)

- As with lists proofs of correctness on recursive data types depend on a case-analysis of the structure (basis and inductive constructors)

[Correctness on lists](#)



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Resistors: Datatype

```
datatype resist =  
    RES of real |  
    SER of resist * resist |  
    PAR of resist * resist
```



Resistors: Equivalent

```
fun value (RES (r)) = r
| value (SER (R1, R2)) =
  value (R1) + value (R2)
| value (PAR (R1, R2)) =
  let val r1 = value (R1);
      val r2 = value (R2)
  in (r1*r2)/(r1+r2)
end;
```

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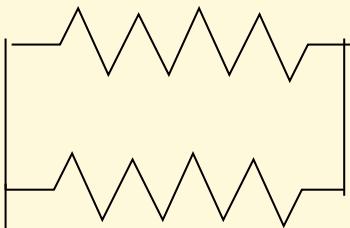
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Resistors

5.0



5.0

2.0

4.0

3.0

+

-

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Resistors: Example

```
val R = PAR ( SER ( PAR ( RES (5.0) ,  
                           RES (4.0)  
                         ) ,  
                     SER ( RES (5.0) ,  
                           RES (2.0)  
                         )  
                       ) ,  
                     RES (3.0)  
                   ) ;
```



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Resistors: ML session

- use "resistors.sml";

[opening resistors.sml]

```
datatype resist = PAR of resist
                  | RES of real
                  | SER of resist
```

```
val value = fn : resist -> real
```

```
val R = PAR (SER (PAR #, SER #), RES 3)
```

```
val it = () : unit
```

- value R;

```
val it = 2.26363636364 : real
```

-



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6.3. User Defined Structured Data Types

1. User Defined Types
2. Resistors: Grouping
3. Resistors: In Pairs
4. Resistor: Values
5. Resistance Expressions
6. Resistance Expressions
7. Arithmetic Expressions
8. Arithmetic Expressions: 0
9. Arithmetic Expressions: 1
10. Arithmetic Expressions: 2
11. Arithmetic Expressions: 3
12. Arithmetic Expressions: 4
13. Arithmetic Expressions: 5
14. Arithmetic Expressions: 6
15. Arithmetic Expressions: 7
16. Arithmetic Expressions: 8
17. Binary Trees

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18. Arithmetic Expressions: 0
19. Trees: Traversals
20. Recursive Data Types: Correctness
21. Data Types: Correctness



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User Defined Types

- Records
- Structural Types
 - Constructors
 - * Non-recursive
 - * Enumeration Types
 - Recursive datatypes
 - * Resistance circuits

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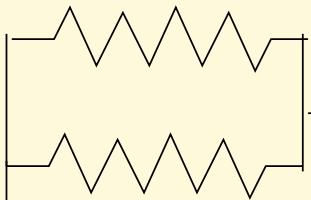
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Resistors: Grouping

R3

5.0



4.0

R1

5.0

2.0

R2

3.0

R4

+ -

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: *Contents* res:

:< res:

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Resistors: In Pairs

```
val R1 = PAR (RES 5.0, RES 4.0)
val R2 = SER (RES 5.0, RES 2.0)
val R3 = SER (R1, R2);
val R4 = PAR (R3, RES(3.0));
```



Resistor: Values

- value R1;

```
val it = 2.22222222222 : real
```

- value R2;

```
val it = 7.0 : real
```

- value R3;

```
val it = 9.22222222222 : real
```

- value R4;

```
val it = 2.26363636364 : real
```

-

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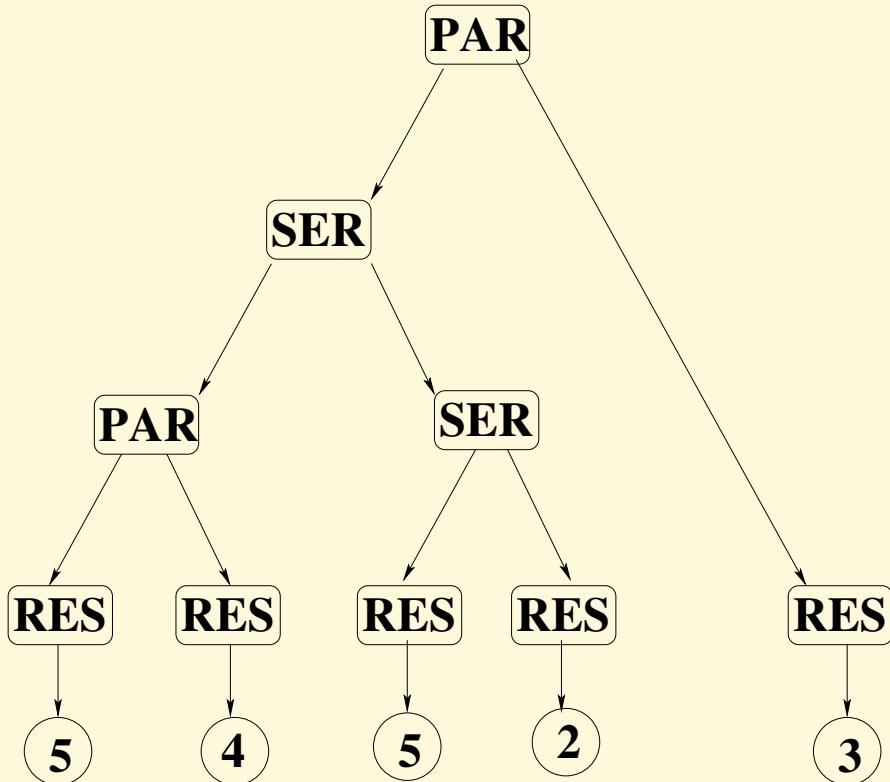
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Resistance Expressions

A resistance expression



Circuit Diagram



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Resistance Expressions

A resistance expression



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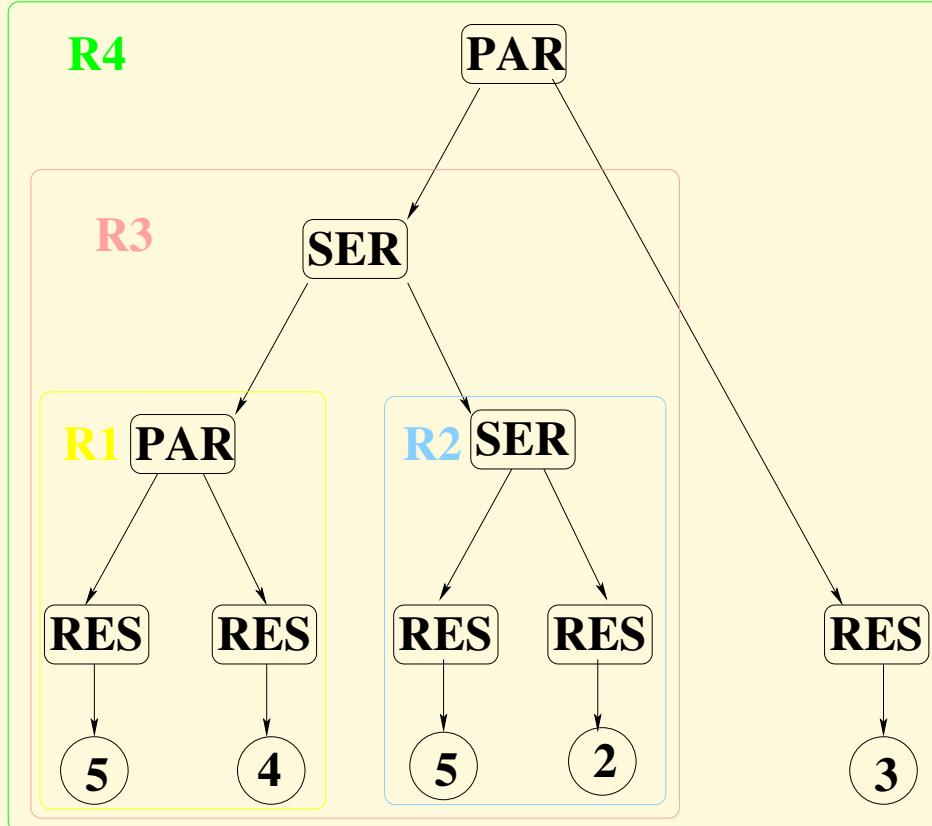
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Circuit Diagram



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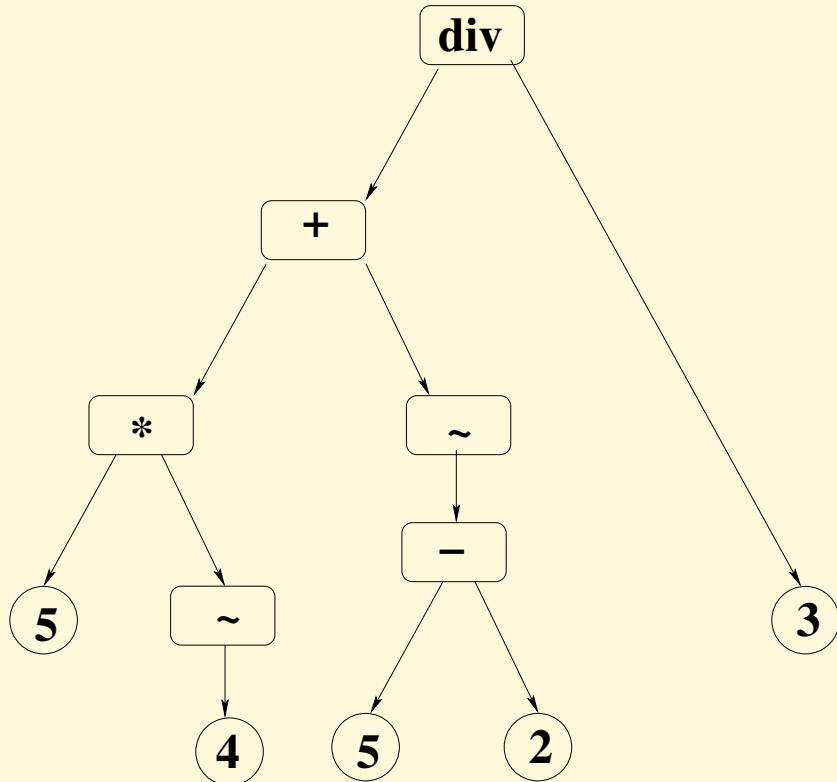
Arithmetic Expressions

ML arithmetic expressions:

((5 * ~4) + ~(5 - 2)) div 3

are represented as trees

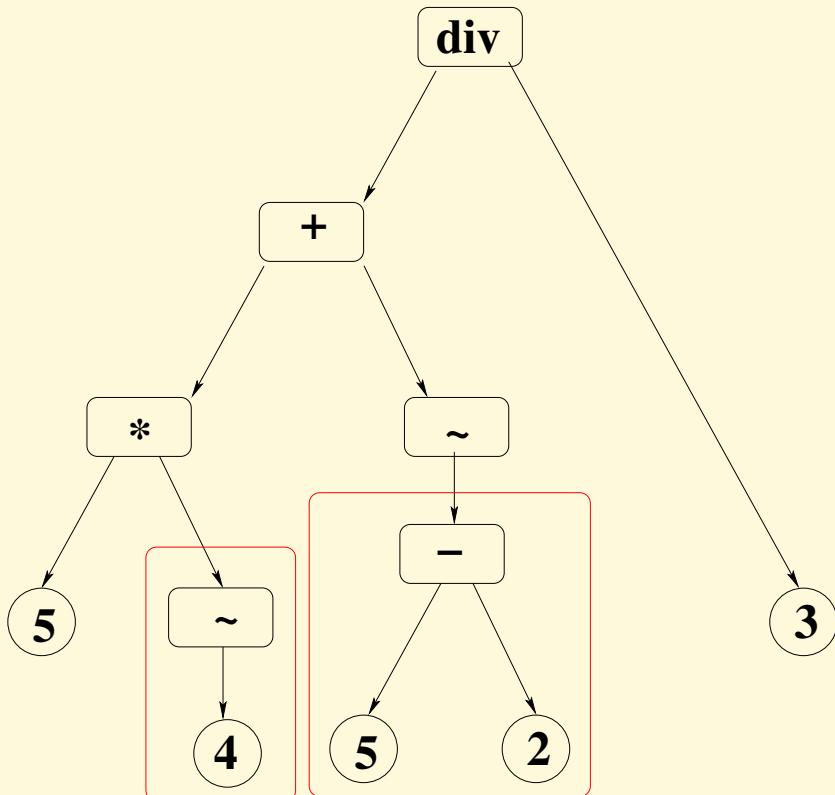
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Arithmetic Expressions: 1



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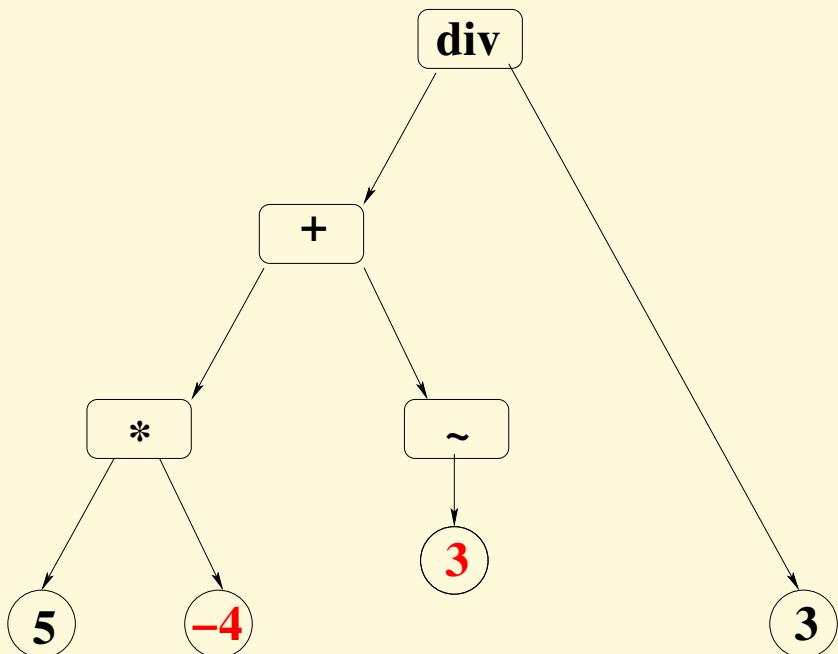
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Arithmetic Expressions: 2



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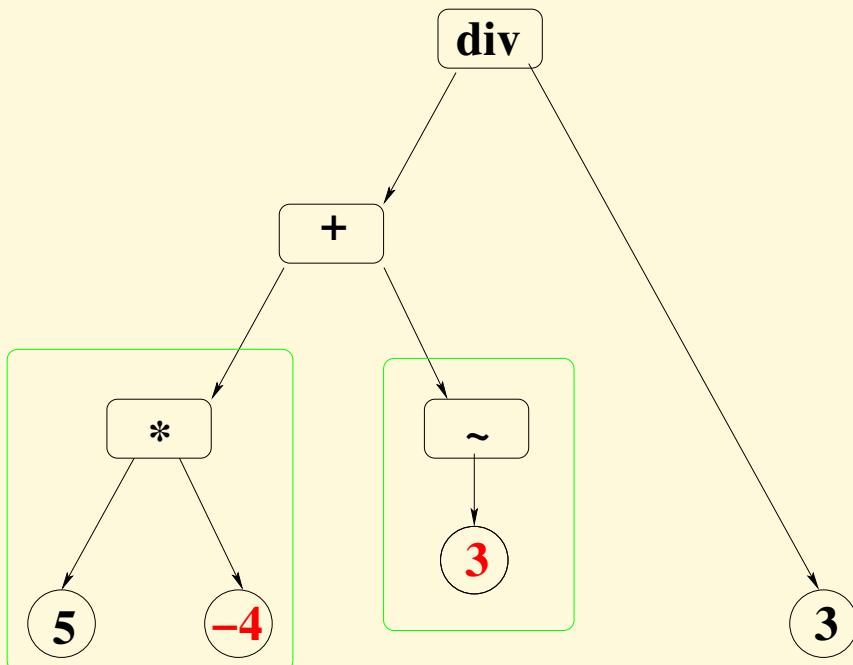
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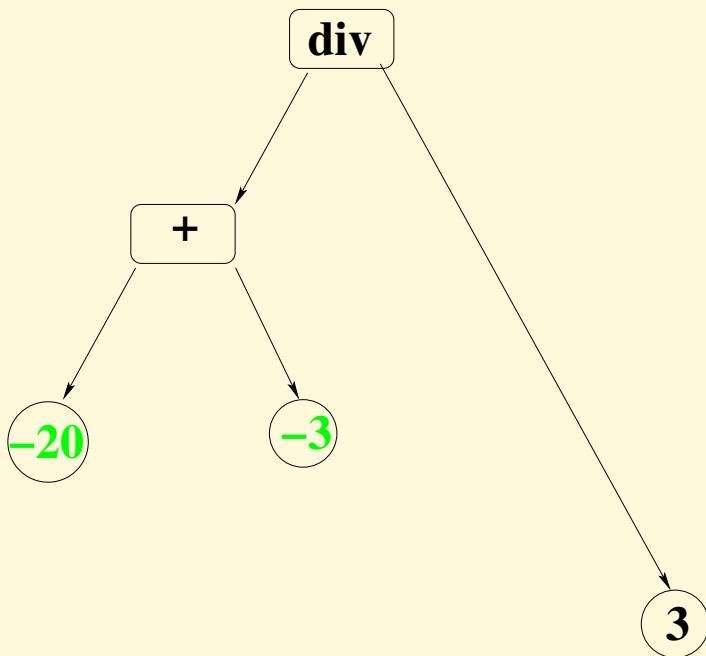
Arithmetic Expressions: 3

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Arithmetic Expressions: 4



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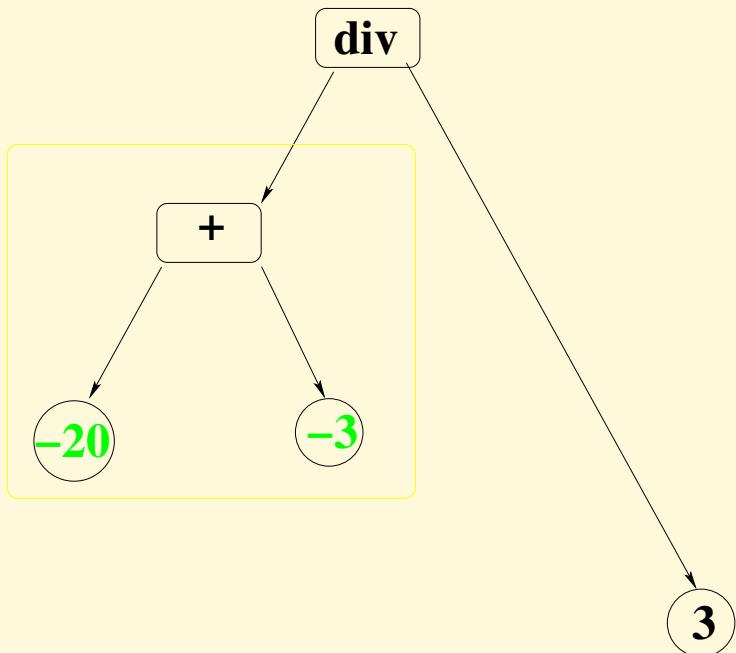
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Arithmetic Expressions: 5



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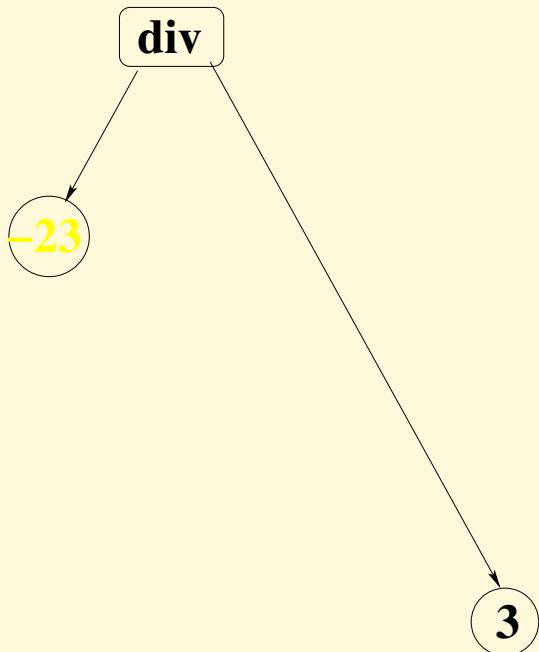
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Arithmetic Expressions: 6



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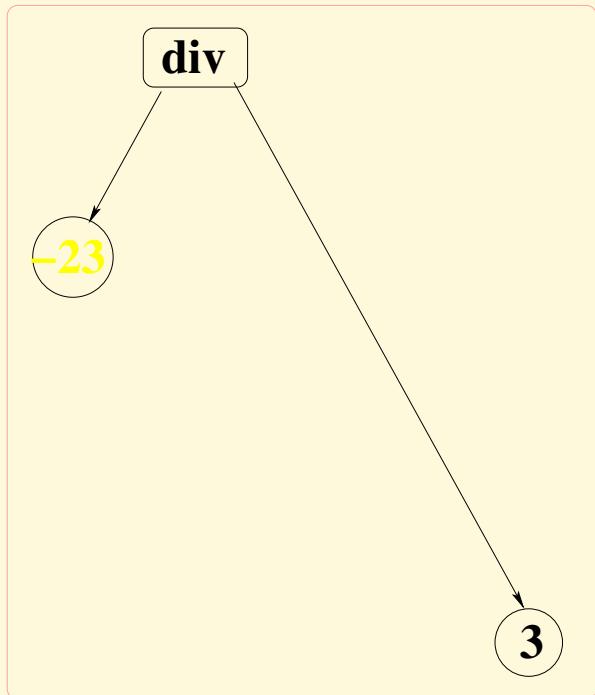
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Arithmetic Expressions: 7



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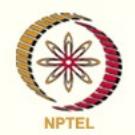
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Arithmetic Expressions: 8

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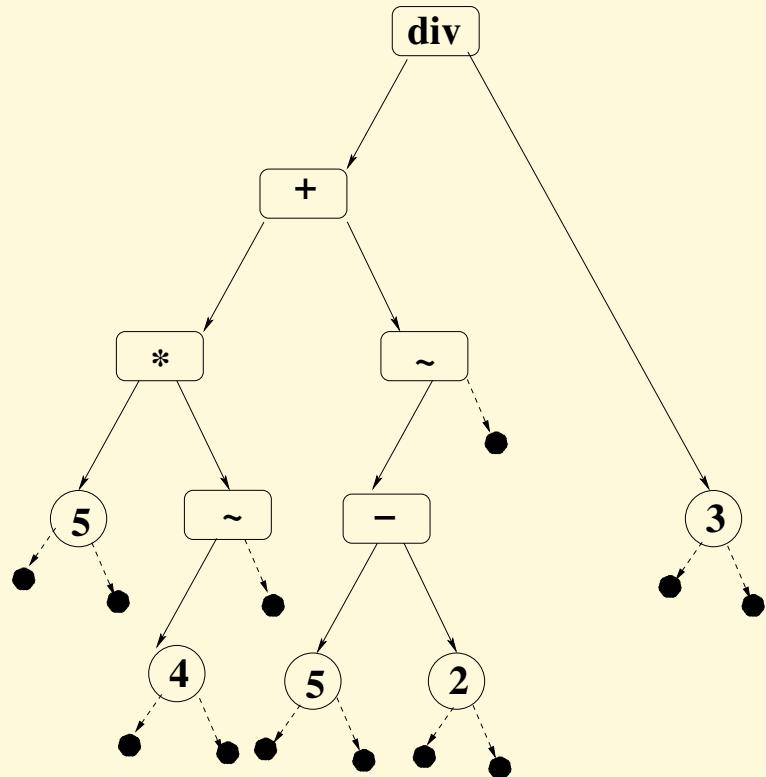
Quit

Binary Trees

```
datatype 'a bintree =  
    Empty |  
    Node of 'a *  
    'a bintree *  
    'a bintree
```

Arithmetic Expressions: 0

Arithmetic Expressions



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Trees: Traversals

- preorder
- inorder
- postorder



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Recursive Data Types: Correctness

Correctness on lists by cases

P is proved by case analysis.



Data Types: Correctness

Basis Prove $P(c)$ for each non-recursive constructor c

Induction hypothesis (IH) Assume $P(T)$ for all elements of the data type less than a certain depth

Induction Step Prove $P(r(T_1, \dots, T_n))$ for each recursive constructor r

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7. Imperative Programming: An Introduction

7.1. Introducing a Memory Model

1. Summary: Functional Model
2. CPU & Memory: Simplified
3. Resource Management
4. Shell: User Interface
5. GUI: User Interface
6. Memory Model: Simplified
7. Memory
8. The Imperative Model
9. State Changes: σ
10. State
11. State Changes
12. State Changes: σ
13. State Changes: σ_1
14. State Changes: σ_2
15. Languages
16. User Programs
17. Imperative Languages

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- 18. Imperative vs Functional Variables
- 19. Assignment Commands
- 20. Assignment Commands
- 21. Assignment Commands
- 22. Assignment Commands
- 23. Assignment Commands
- 24. Assignment Commands: Swap
- 25. Swap
- 26. Swap
- 27. Swap

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Summary: Functional Model

- Stateless (as is most mathematics)
- Notion of **value** is paramount
 - Integers, reals, booleans, strings and characters are all **values**
 - Every **function** is also a **value**
 - Every complex piece of data is also a **value**
- No concept of **storage** (except for space complexity calculations)



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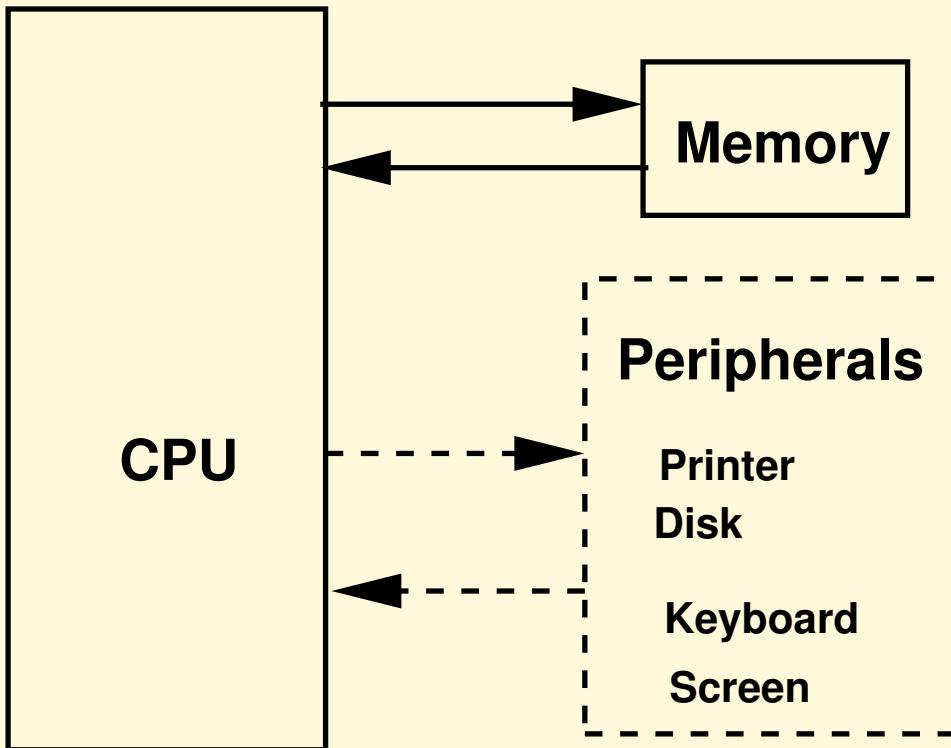
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CPU & Memory: Simplified



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Resource Management

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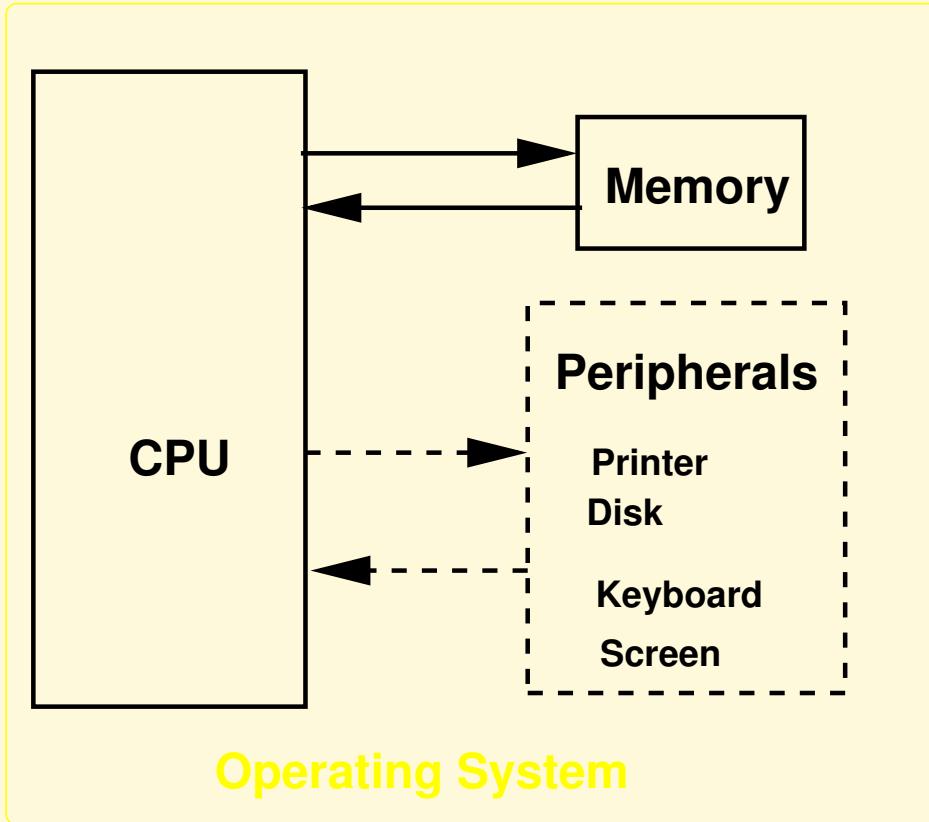
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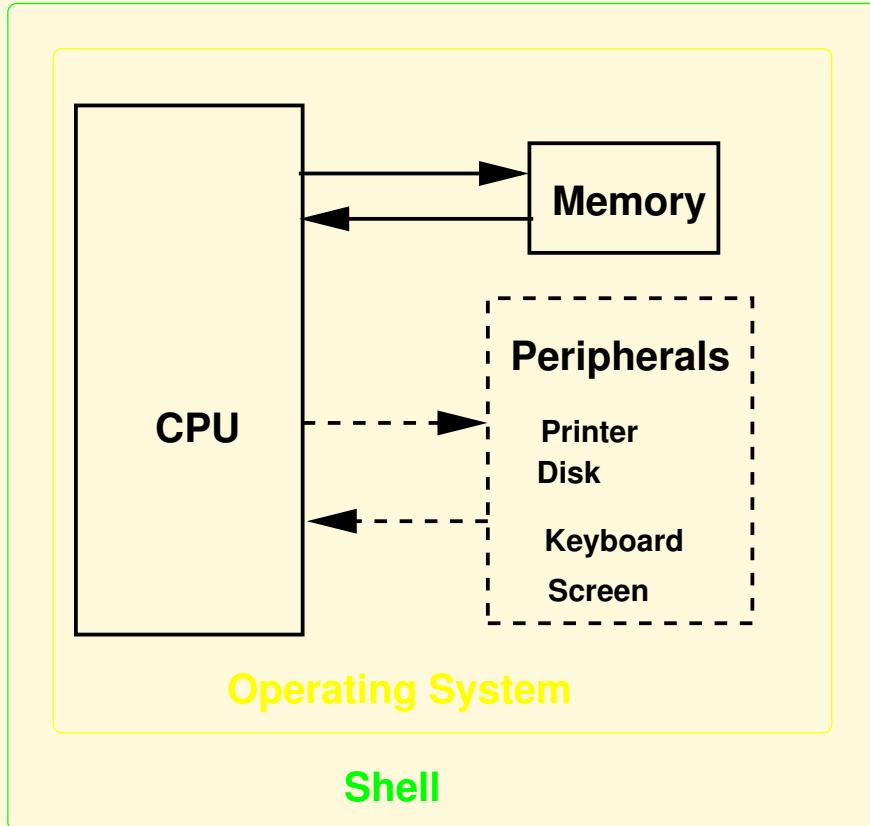
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Shell: User Interface



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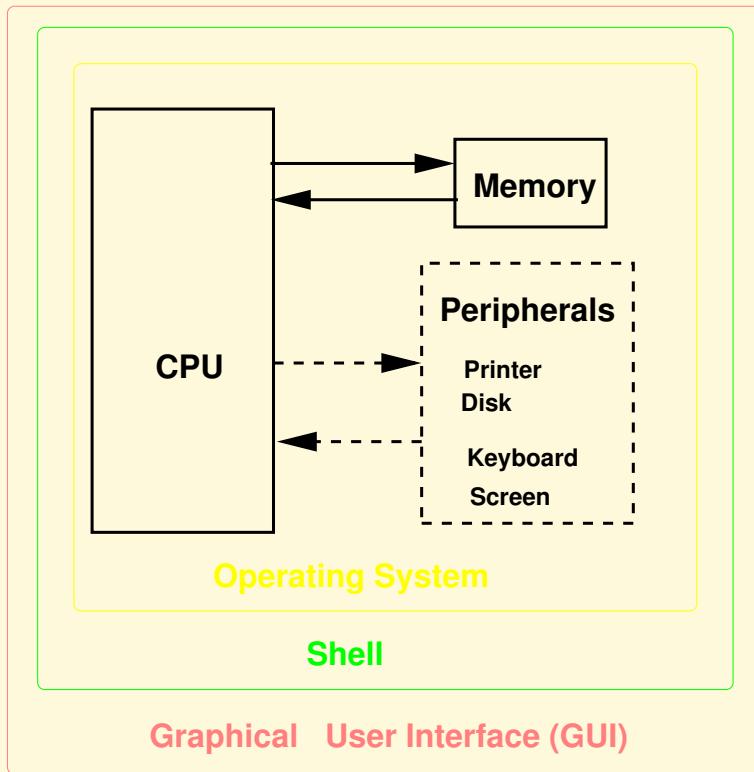
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GUI: User Interface



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Memory Model: Simplified

1. A sequence of storage **cells**
2. Each **cell** is a **container** of a single unit of information.
 - integer, real, boolean, character or string
3. Each cell has a unique name, called its **address**
4. The memory cell addresses range from **0** to (usually) $2^k - 1$ (for some k)

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Memory

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
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The Imperative Model

- **Memory** or Storage made explicit
- Notion of **state** (of memory)
 - **State** is simply the value contained in each cell.
 - $state : Addresses \rightarrow Values$
- **State changes**

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State Changes: σ

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|------|--|------|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 4 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | 3.1 | | | | |
| | | | true | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | "#a" | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

Assume all other cells are filled with null



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State

The state σ

- $\sigma(12) = 4 : \text{int}$
- $\sigma(20) = \text{null}$
- $\sigma(43) = \text{true} : \text{bool}$
- $\sigma(66) = "\#a" : \text{char}$



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State Changes

- A state change takes place when the value in some cell changes
- The contents of only one cell may be changed at a time.

State Changes: σ

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|------|--|--|------|--|--|--|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | | |
| | | | 4 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | 3.1 | | | |
| | | | true | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | "#a" | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

Assume all other cells are filled with null



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State Changes: σ_1

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|------|--|-----|------|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 5 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | 3.1 | | | |
| | | | true | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | "#a" | | |
| | | | | | | | | |

Assume all other cells are filled with null



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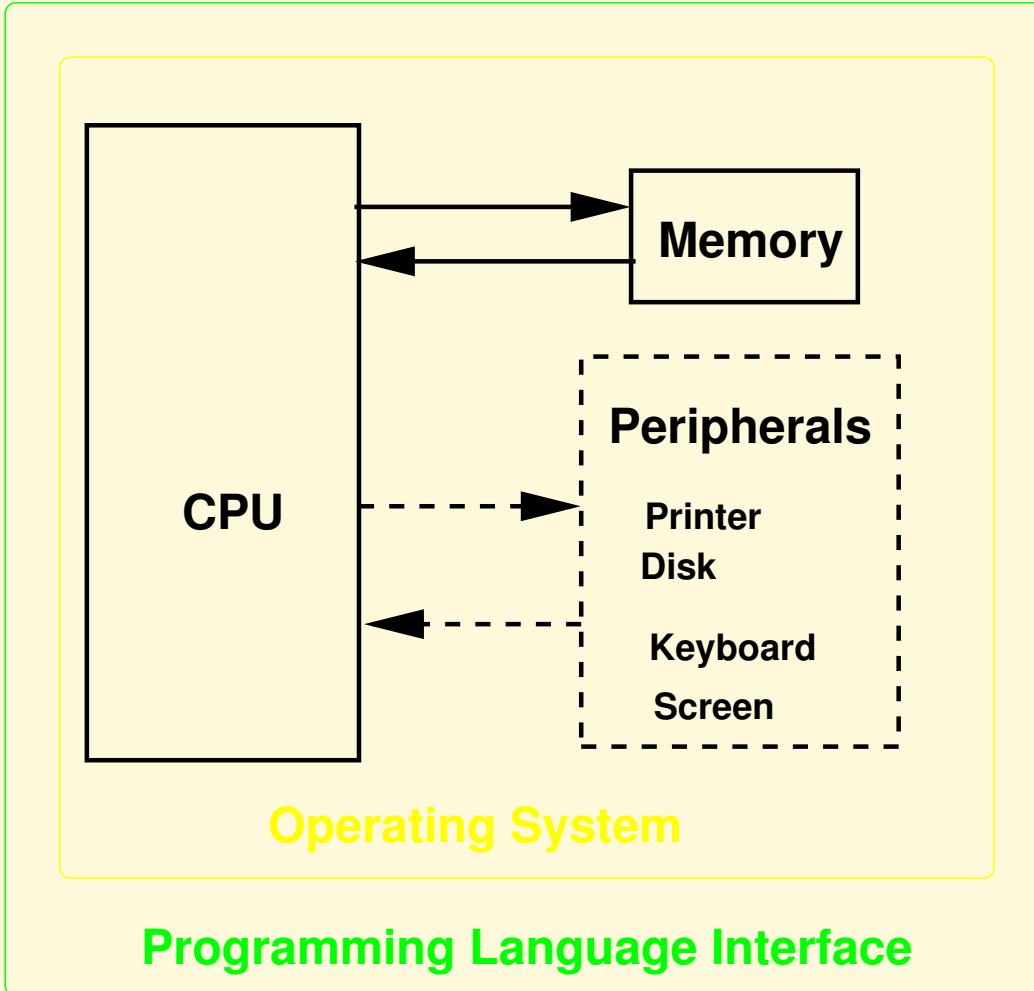
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| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|-------------|--|--|--|-------------|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 5 | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | 3.1 | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | true | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12 | | | | | | | "#a" | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |

Assume all other cells are filled with null

Languages



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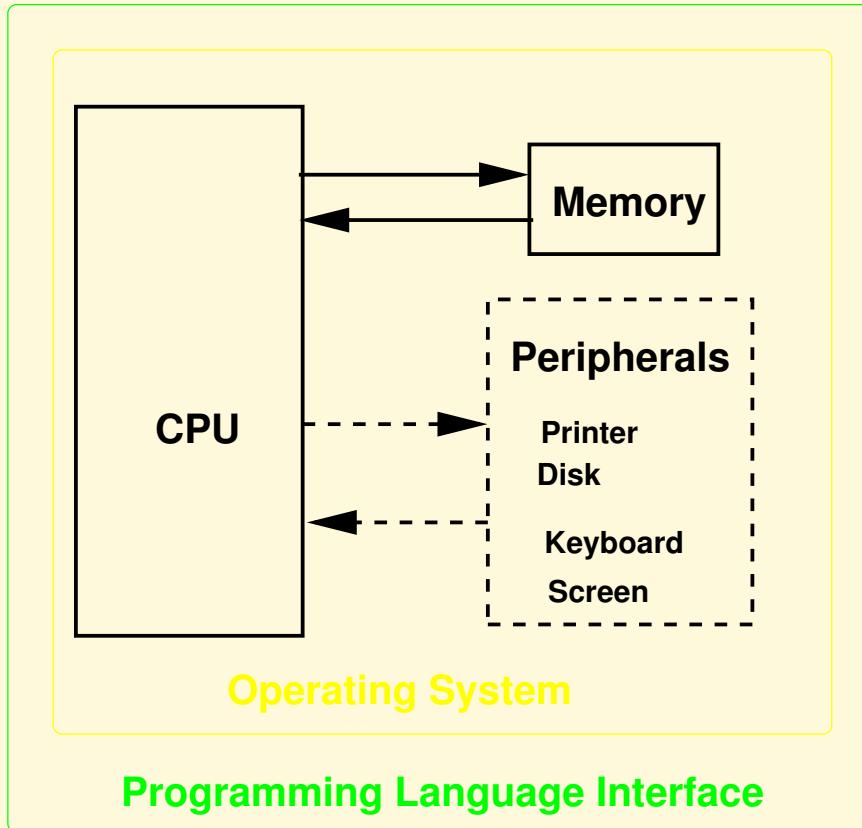
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User Programs



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Imperative Languages

- How is the memory accessed?
 - Through system calls to the OS.
- How are memory cells identified?
 - Use **Imperative variables**.
 - Each such variable is a *name* mapped to an *address* .
- How are state changes accomplished?
 - By the **assignment command**.

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Imperative vs Functional Variables

| Functional | Imperative |
|--------------------------|---|
| name of a value constant | name of an address could change with time |

The value contained in an imperative variable x is denoted $!x$.



Assignment Commands

Let x and y be imperative variables.
Consider the following commands.
Assuming $!x = 1$ and $!y = 2$.

x

1

y

2

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Assignment Commands

Store the value 5 in x.

$$x := 5$$

x

5

y

2

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Assignment Commands

Copy the value contained in y into x .

$$x := !y$$

x

2

y

2

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Assignment Commands

Increment the value contained in x by 1.

$$x := !x + 1$$

x

3

y

2

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Assignment Commands

Store the product of the values in x and y in y .

$$y := !x * !y$$

x

3

y

6

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Assignment Commands: Swap

Swap the values in x and y .

Swapping values implies trying to make two state changes simultaneously!

Requires a new memory cell t to temporarily store one of the values.

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Swap

How does one get a new memory cell?

```
val t = ref 0
```

Then the rest is easy

```
val t = ref 0;  
t := !x;  
x := !y;  
y := !t;
```

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Swap

Could be made simpler!

```
val t = ref (!x);  
x := !y;  
y := !t;
```



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Swap

Could use a temporary **functional** variable *t* instead of an **imperative** variable

```
val t = !x;  
x := !y;  
y := t;
```



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7.2. Imperative Programming:

1. Imperative vs Functional
2. Features of the Store
3. References: Experiments
4. References: Experiments
5. References: Experiments
6. Aliases
7. References: Experiments
8. References: Aliases
9. References: Experiments
10. After Garbage Collection
11. Side Effects
12. Imperative ML
13. Imperative ML
14. Imperative ML
15. Imperative ML
16. Nasty Surprises
17. Imperative ML



- 18. Imperative ML
- 19. Common Errors
- 20. Aliasing & References
- 21. Dangling References
- 22. New Reference
- 23. Imperative Commands: Basic
- 24. Imperative Commands: Compound
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Imperative vs Functional

- Functional Model
- Memory/Store Model
- Imperative Model
- State Changes
- Accessing the store

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Features of the Store

Memory is treated as a datatype with constructors

Allocation $ref : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha\ ref$

Dereferencing $\mathbf{!} : \alpha\ ref \rightarrow \alpha$

Updation $::= : \alpha\ ref * \alpha \rightarrow unit$

Deallocation of memory is **automatic!**

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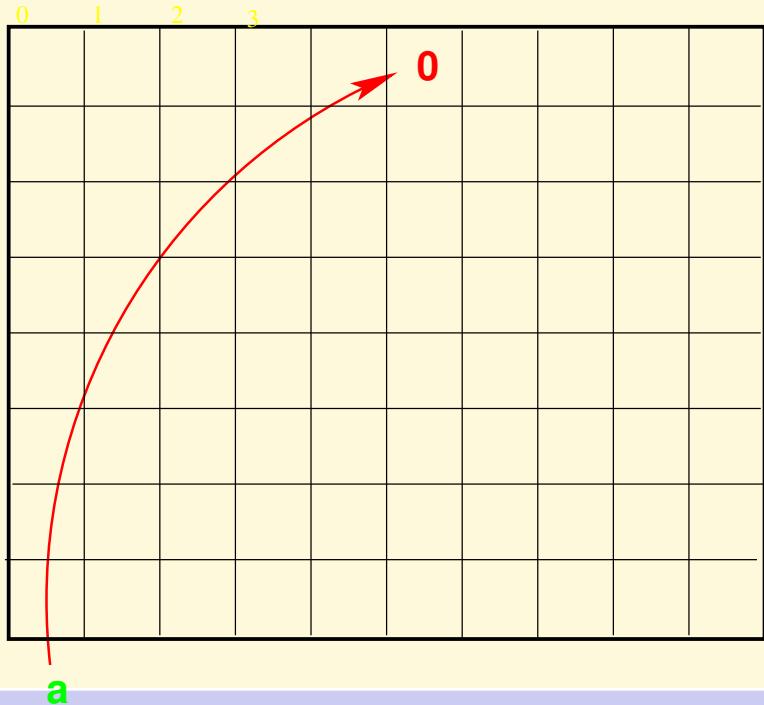
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References: Experiments

```
- val a = ref 0;  
val a = ref 0 : int ref
```

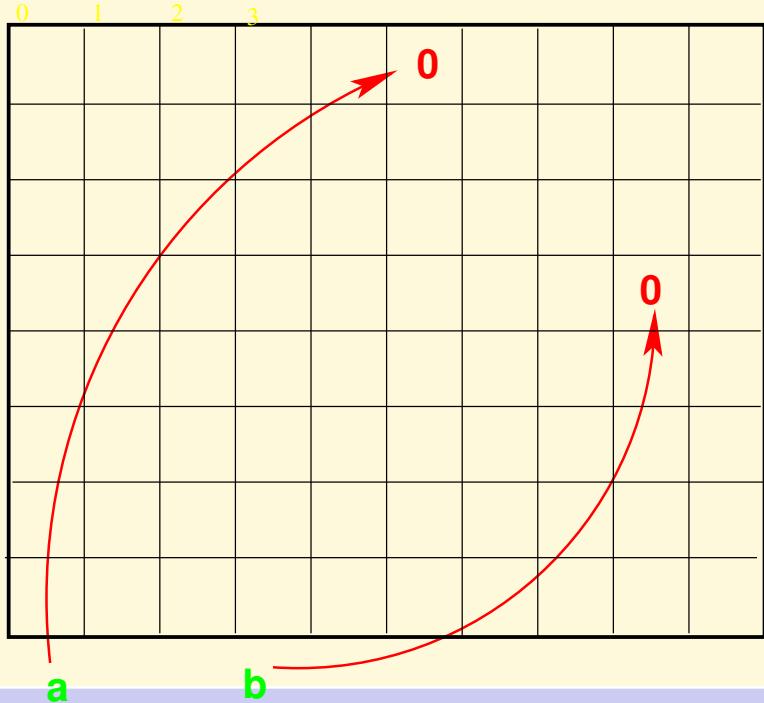
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References: Experiments

```
- val b = ref 0;  
val b = ref 0 : int ref
```

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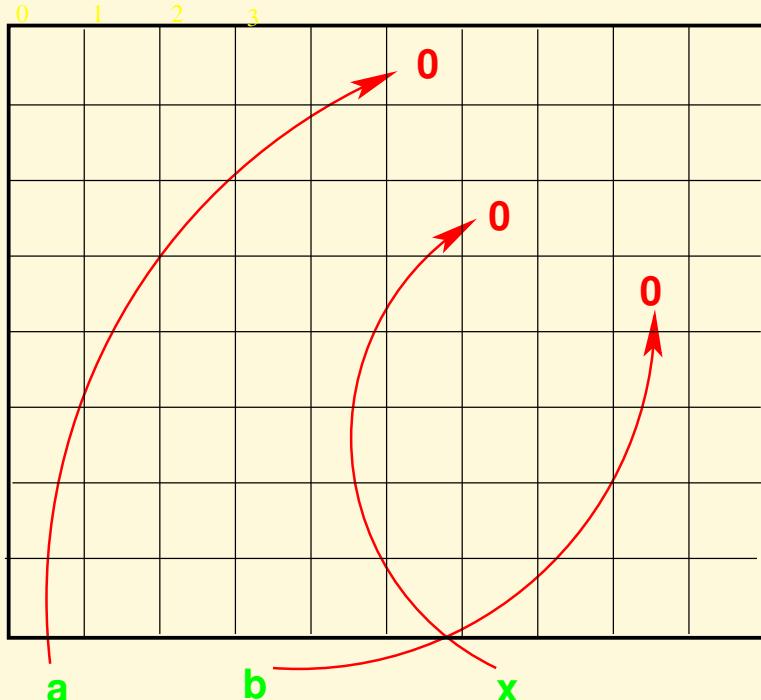
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References: Experiments

```
- a = b;  
val it = false : bool  
- !a = !b;  
val it = true : bool
```

Aliases

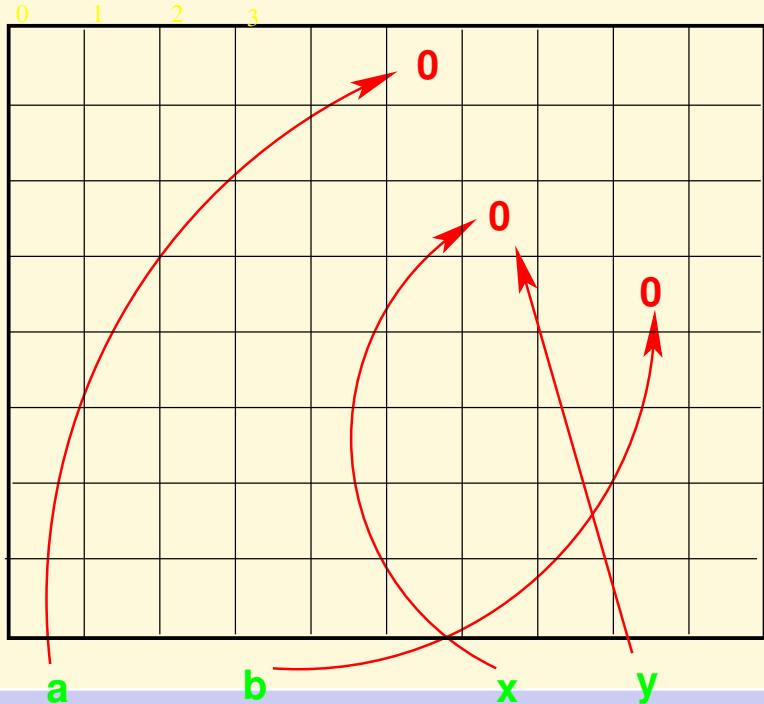
```
- val x = ref 0;  
val x = ref 0 : int ref
```



References: Experiments

- val y = x;

val y = ref 0 : int ref



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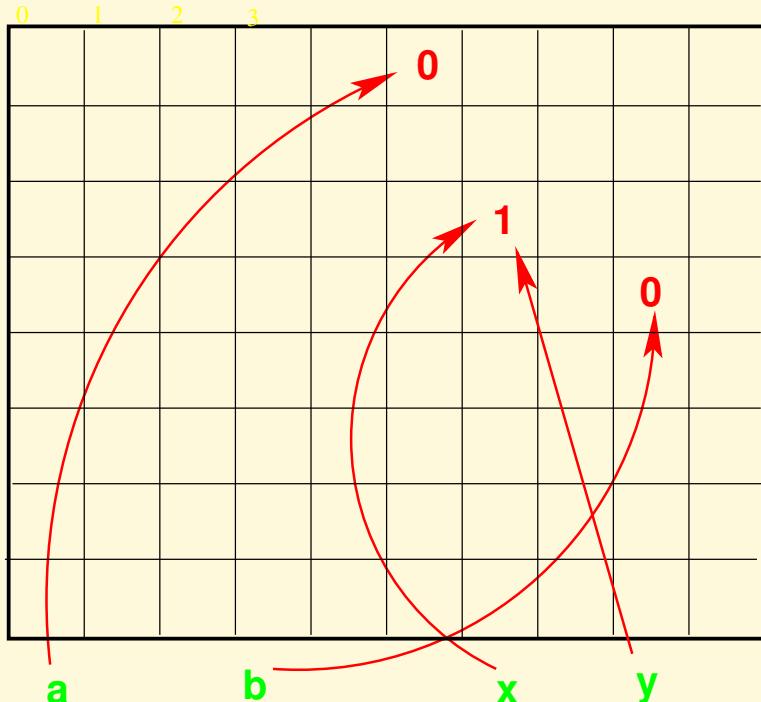
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References: Aliases

```
- x := !x + 1;  
val it = () : unit
```

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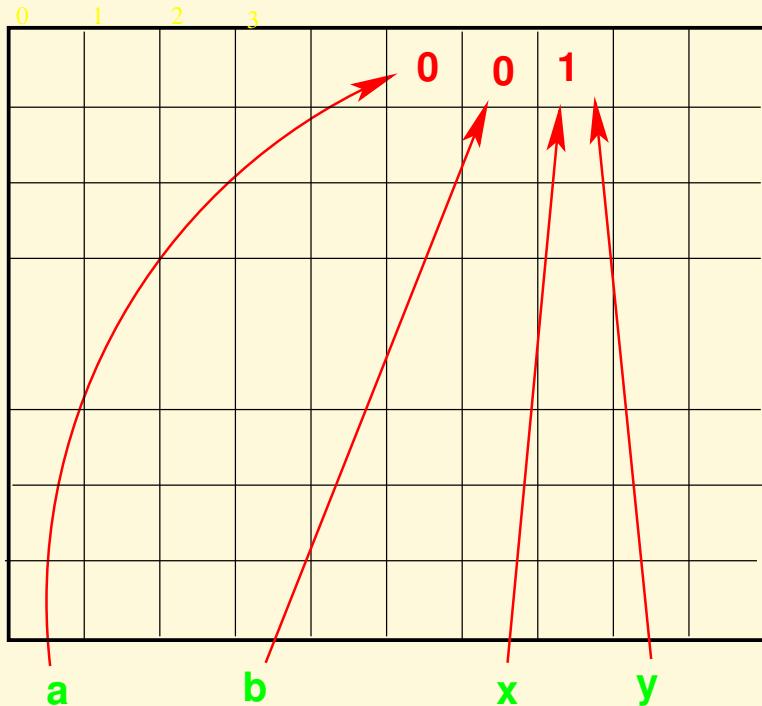
References: Experiments

```
- !y;  
val it = 1 : int  
- x = y;  
val it = true : bool
```



After Garbage Collection

GC #0.0.0.0.2.45: (0 ms)



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Side Effects

- **Assignment** does not produce a value
- It produces only a state change (side effect)
- But side-effects are compatible with functional programming since it is provided as a new data type with constructors and destructors.

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Imperative ML

- Does not provide **direct access** to memory addresses
- Does not allow for uninitialized imperative variables
- Provides a type with every memory location
- Manages the memory completely automatically



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Imperative ML

- Does not provide direct access to memory addresses
 - Prevents the use of memory addresses as integers that can be manipulated by the user program
- Does not allow for **uninitialized** imperative variables
- Provides a type with every memory location
- Manages the memory completely automatically



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Imperative ML

- Does not provide direct access to memory addresses
- Does not allow for uninitialized imperative variables
 - Most imperative languages keep declarations **separate** from initializations
- Provides a **type** with every memory cell
- Manages the memory completely automatically



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Imperative ML

- Does not provide direct access to memory addresses
- Does not allow for uninitialized imperative variables
 - A frequent source of surprising results in most imperative language programs
- Provides a **type** with every memory cell
- Manages the memory completely automatically



Nasty Surprises

Separation of declaration from initialization

- Uninitialized variables
- Execution time errors if not detected by compiler, since every memory location contains some data
- Might use a value stored previously in that location by some imperative variable that no longer exists.
- Errors due to type violations.

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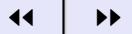
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Imperative ML

- Does not provide direct access to memory addresses
- Does not allow for uninitialized imperative variables
- Provides a type with every memory cell
- **Manages** the memory completely automatically and securely.



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Imperative ML

- Does not provide direct access to memory addresses
- Does not allow for uninitialized imperative variables
- Provides a **type** with every memory cell
- Manages the memory completely automatically and securely
 - Memory has to be managed by the user program in most languages
 - Prone to various errors



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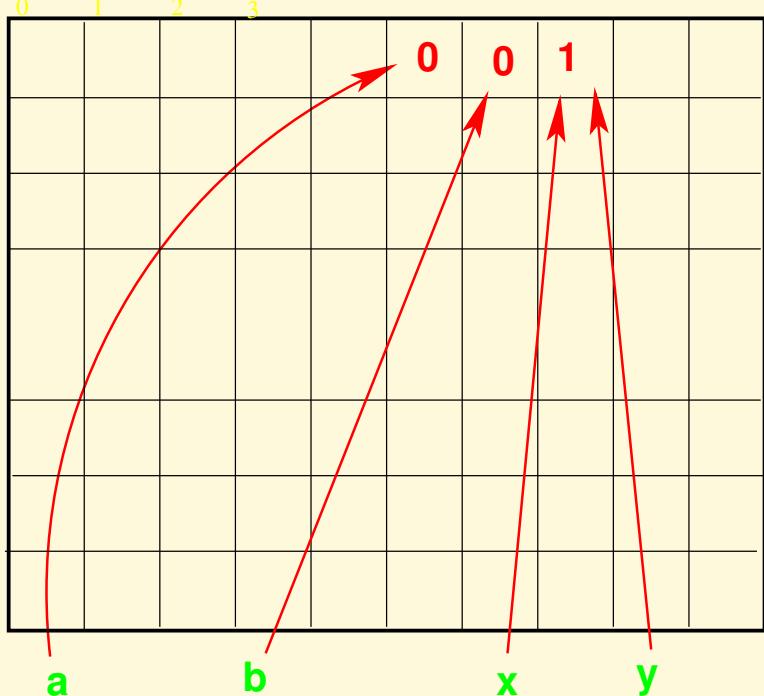
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Common Errors

- Memory access errors due to integer arithmetic, especially in large structures (arrays)
- **Dangling references** on deallocation of aliased memory

Aliasing & References

Before deallocation:



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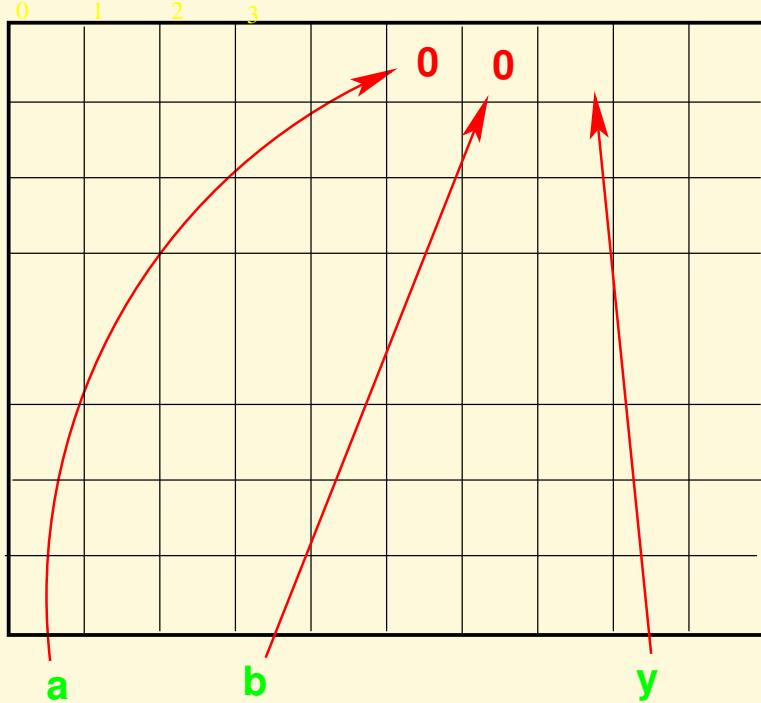
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Dangling References

Deallocate x through a system call



y is left dangling!



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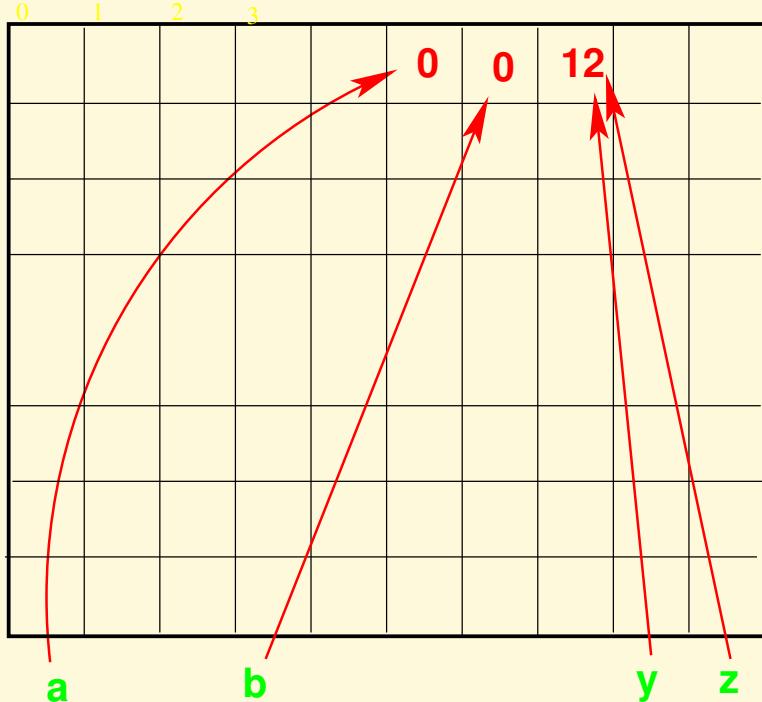
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New Reference

```
val z = ref 12;
```



By sheer coincidence $y = 12$



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Imperative Commands: Basic

A **Command** is an ML expression that creates a **side effect** and returns an empty tuple $(() : unit)$.

Assignment

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Imperative Commands: Compound

Any complex ML expression or function definition whose type is of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \text{unit}$ is a compound command.

- Predefined ML compound commands
- Could be user-defined. After all, *everything is a value!*

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Predefined Compound Commands

branching *if e then c₁ else c₀*.

cases *case e of p₁ ⇒ c₁ | … | p_n ⇒ c_n*

Sequencing $(c_1; c_2; \dots; c_n)$. Sequencing is associative

looping *while e do c₁* is defined recursively as

*if e then (c₁; *while e do c₁*) else ()*

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7.3. Arrays

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2. Arrays
3. Indexing Arrays
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6. Physical Addressing
7. Arrays
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Why Imperative

- Historical reasons: Early machine instruction set.
- Programming evolved from the machine architecture.
- Legacy software:
 - numerical packages
 - operating systems
- Are there any real benefits of imperative programming?

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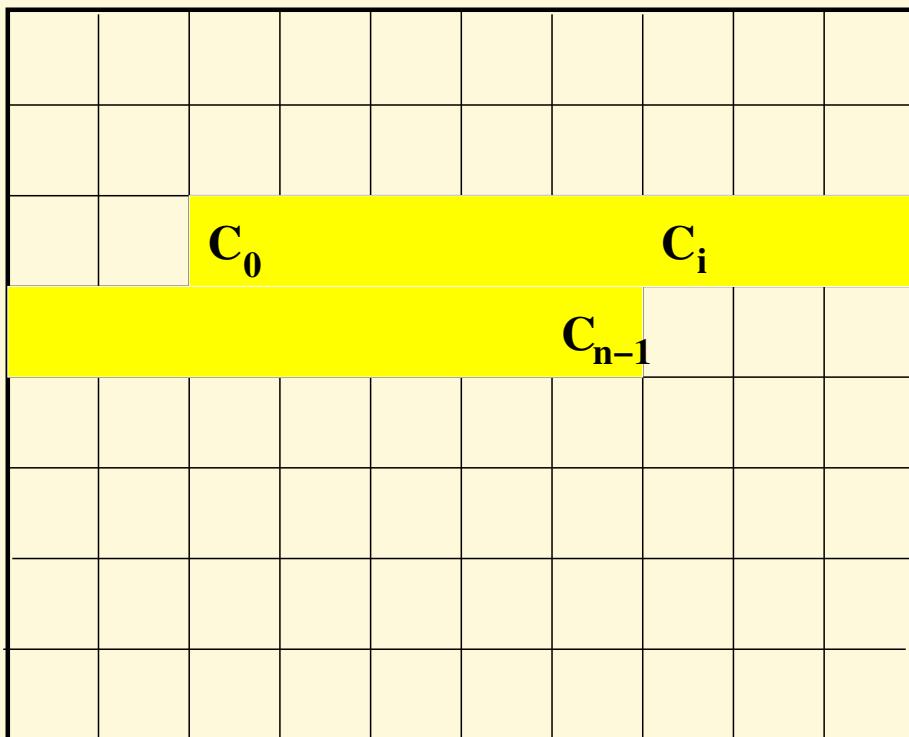
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Arrays

An **array** of length n is a **contiguous** sequence of n memory cells

$$C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{n-1}$$



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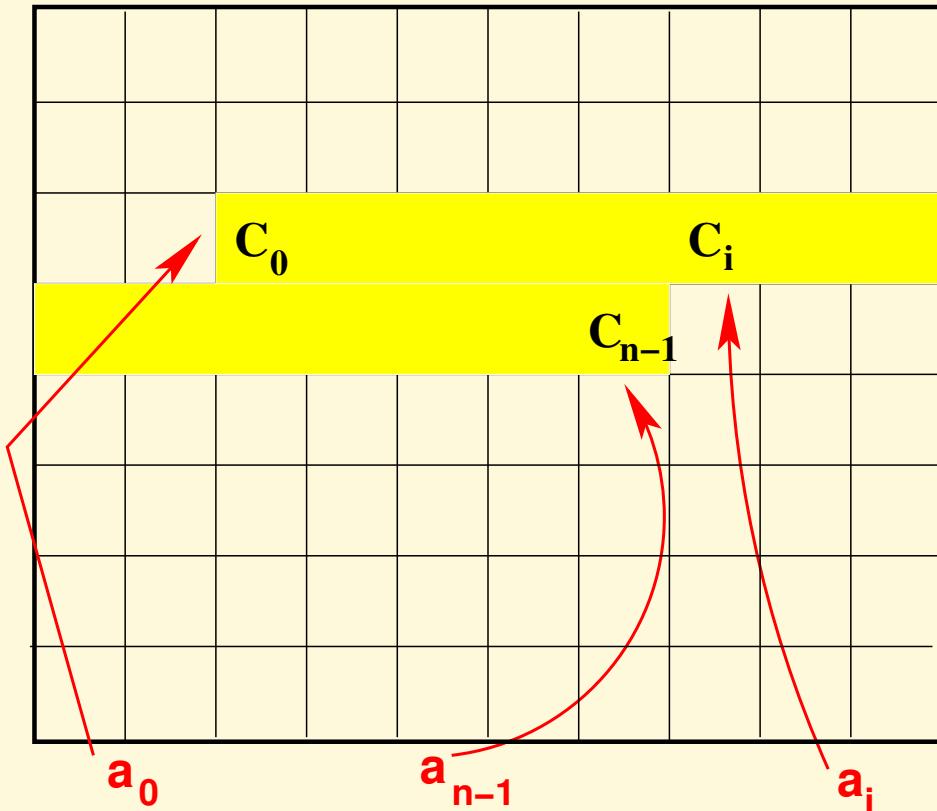
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Indexing Arrays

For any array

- $i, 0 \leq i < n$ is the *index* of cell C_i .
- C_i is at a distance of i cells away from C_0

Indexing Arrays

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Indexing Arrays

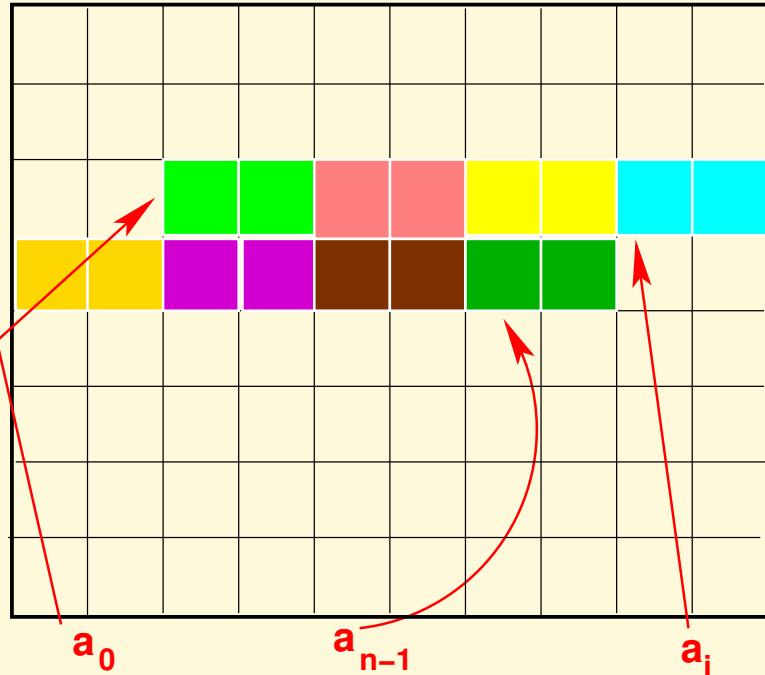
- The *start* address of the array and the *address* of C_0 are the same (say a_0)
- The address a_i of cell C_i is

$$a_i = a_0 + i$$

Physical Addressing

If each element occupies s *physical* memory locations, then

$$a_i = a_0 + i \times s$$



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Arrays

A 2-dimensional array of

- r rows numbered 0 to $r - 1$
- each row containing c elements numbered 0 to $c - 1$

is also a contiguous sequence of rc memory cells

$C_{0,0}, C_{0,1}, \dots, C_{0,c-1}, C_{1,0}, \dots, C_{r-1,c-1}$



2D Arrays

A 2 dimensional-array is represented as an array of length $r \times c$, where

- a_{00} is the start address of the array, and
- the address of the (i, j) -th cell is given by

$$a_{ij} = a_{00} + (c \times i + j)$$

- the physical address of the (i, j) -th cell is given by

$$a_{ij} = a_{00} + (c \times i + j) \times s$$

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2D Arrays: Indexing

- The index (i, j) of a 2D array may be thought of as being similar to a 2-digit number in base c
- The successor of index (i, j) is the successor of a number in base c i.e.

$$succ(i, j) = \begin{cases} (i + 1, 0) & \text{if } j = n - 1 \\ (i, j + 1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Ordering of indices

There is a natural “ $<$ ” ordering on indices given by

$$(i, j) < (k, l) \iff$$

$$(i < k) \quad \text{or}$$

$$(i = k \quad \text{and} \quad j < l)$$



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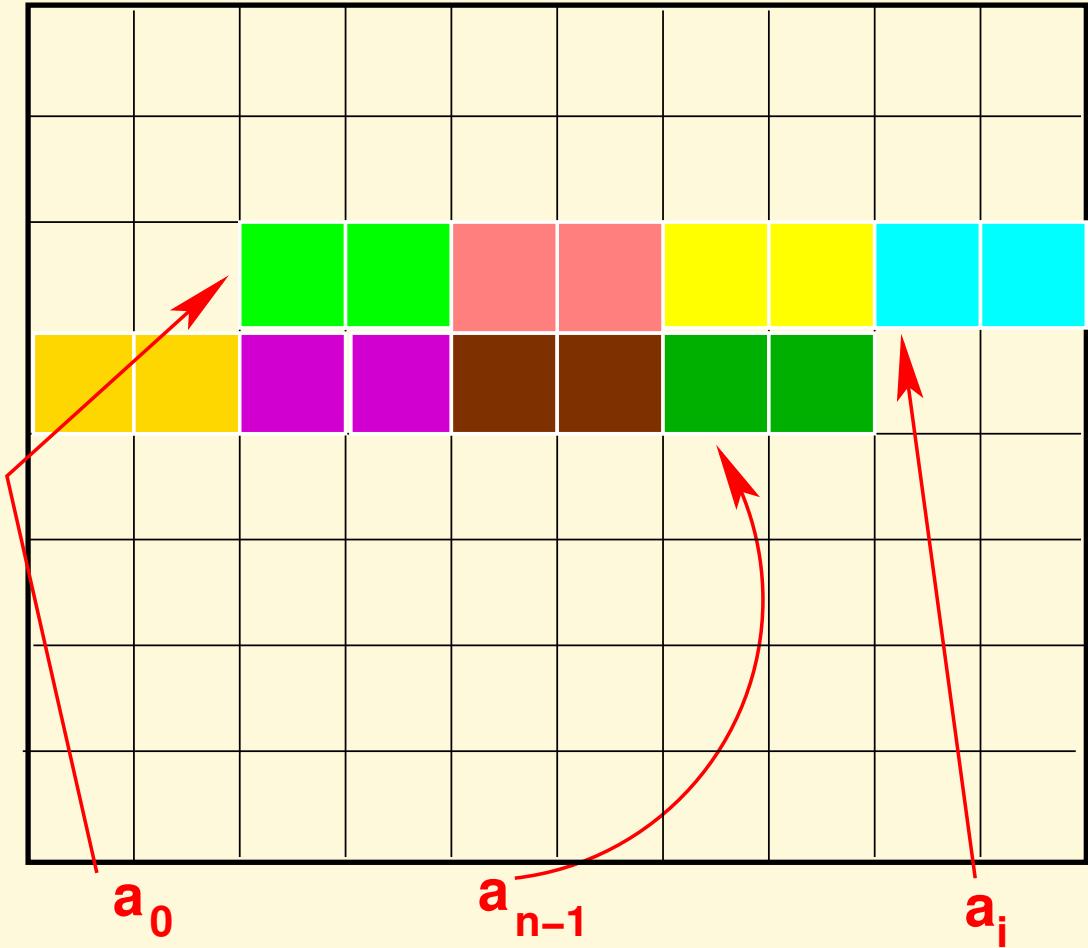
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Arrays vs. Lists

| Lists | Arrays |
|---------------------|---------------|
| Unbounded lengths | Fixed length |
| Insertions possible | Very complex |
| Indirect access | Direct access |

Arrays: Physical



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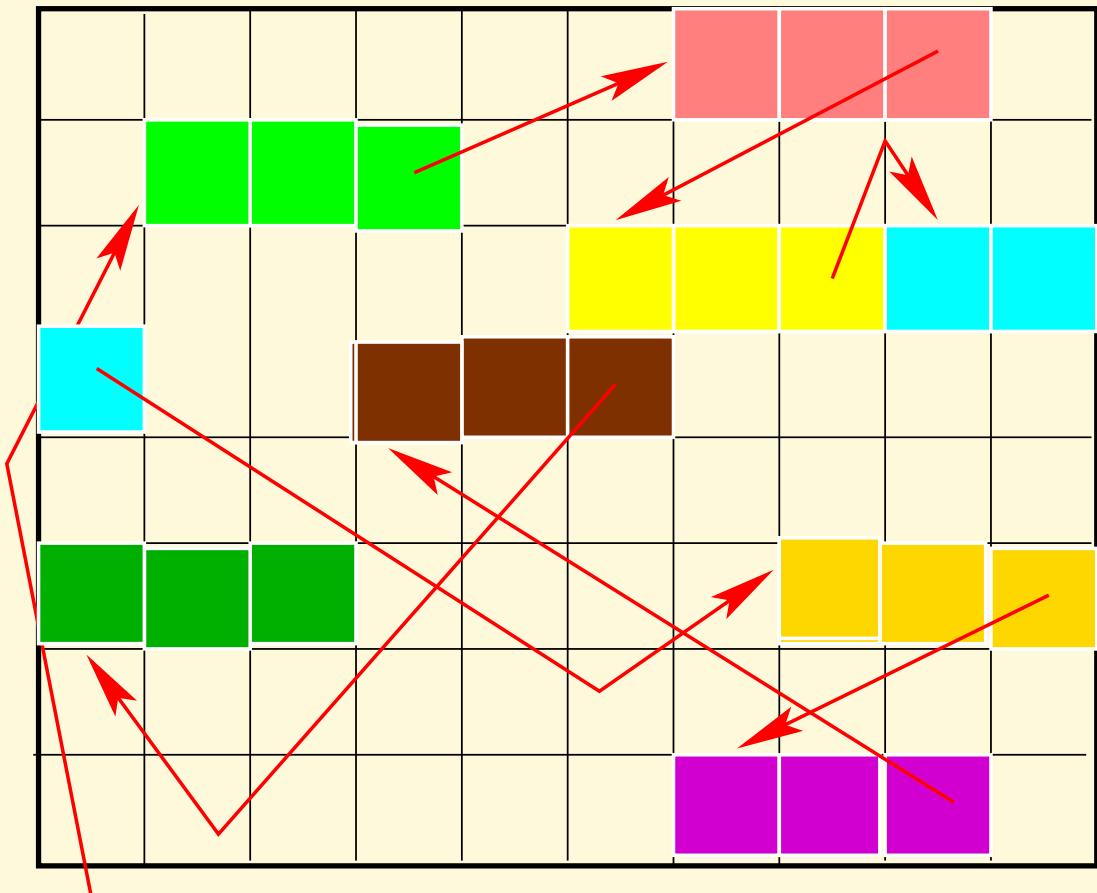
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Lists: Physical



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8. A large Example: Tautology Checking

8.1. Large Example: Tautology Checking

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Logical Arguments

Examples.

- Saintly and Rich
- About cats
- About God
- Russell's argument



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Saintly and Rich

hy1 *The landed are rich.*

hy2 *One cannot be both saintly and rich.*

conc The landed are not saintly



About Cats

hy1 *Tame cats are non-violent and vegetarian.*

hy2 *Non-violent cats would not kill mice.*

hy3 *Vegetarian cats are bottle-fed.*

hy4 *Cats eat meat.*

conc *Cats are not tame.*

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About God

hy1 *God is omniscient and omnipotent.*

hy2 *An omniscient being would know there is evil.*

hy3 *An omnipotent being would prevent evil.*

hy4 *There is evil.*

conc There is no God

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Russell's Argument

hy1 *If we can directly know that God exists, then we can know God exists by experience.*

hy2 *If we can indirectly know that God exists, then we can know God exists by logical inference from experience.*

hy3 *If we can know that God exists, then we can directly know that God exists, or we can indirectly know that God exists.*

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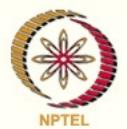
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Russell's Argument

hy4 *If we cannot know God empirically, then we cannot know God by experience and we cannot know God by logical inference from experience.*

hy5 *If we can know God empirically, then “God exists” is a scientific hypothesis and is empirically justifiable.*

hy6 *“God exists” is not empirically justifiable.*

conc We cannot know that God exists.

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Russell's Argument

hy1 If we can directly know that God exists, then we can know God exists by experience.

hy2 If we can indirectly know that God exists, then we can know God exists by logical inference from experience.

hy3 If we can know that God exists, then (we can directly know that God exists, or we can indirectly know that God exists).

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Russell's Argument

hy4 If we cannot know God empirically, then (we cannot know God by experience and we cannot know God by logical inference from experience.)

hy5 If we can know God empirically, then (“God exists” is a scientific hypothesis and is empirically justifiable.)

hy6 “God exists” is not empirically justifiable.

conc We cannot know that God exists.

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Propositions

A **proposition** is a sentence to which a truth value may be assigned.

In any real or imaginary world of facts a proposition has a truth value, **true** or **false**.

An **atom** is a simple proposition that has no propositions as components.

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Compound Propositions

Compound propositions may be formed from **atoms** by using the following operators/constructors.

| operator | symbol |
|--------------|--------|
| not | ¬ |
| and | ∧ |
| or | ∨ |
| if...then... | ⇒ |
| equivalent | ↔ |

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Valuations

Given truth values to individual atoms
the truth values of compound proposi-
tions are evaluated as follows:

| p | $\neg p$ |
|-------|----------|
| true | false |
| false | true |



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Valuations

| p | q | $p \wedge q$ | $p \vee q$ | $p \Rightarrow q$ | $p \iff q$ |
|-------|-------|--------------|------------|-------------------|------------|
| true | true | true | true | true | true |
| true | false | false | true | false | false |
| false | true | false | true | true | false |
| false | false | false | false | true | true |



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Tautology

A (compound) proposition is a tautology if it is true regardless of what truth values are assigned to its atoms.

Examples.

- $p \vee \neg p$
- $(p \wedge q) \Rightarrow p$
- $(p \wedge \neg p) \Rightarrow q$



Properties

- Every proposition may be expressed in a logically equivalent form using only the operators \neg , \wedge and \vee

$$(p \leftrightarrow q) = (p \Rightarrow q) \wedge (q \Rightarrow p)$$

$$(p \Rightarrow q) = (\neg p \vee q)$$

- De Morgan's laws may be applied to push \neg inward

$$\neg(p \wedge q) = \neg p \vee \neg q$$

$$\neg(p \vee q) = \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

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Negation Normal Form

- Double negations may be removed since

$$\neg\neg p = p$$

- Every proposition may be expressed in a form containing only \wedge and \vee with \neg appearing only in front of atoms.

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Literals & Clauses

- A **literal** is either an **atom** or \neg applied to an **atom**
- \vee is commutative and associative
- A **clause** is of the form $\bigvee_{j=1}^m l_j$, where each l_j is a **literal**.



Conjunctive Normal Form

- \vee may be distributed over \wedge

$$p \vee (q \wedge r) = (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$$

- \wedge is commutative and associative.
- Every proposition may be expressed in the form $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n q_i$, where each q_i is a clause.

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Validity

- A logical argument consists of a number of hypotheses and a single conclusion $([h_1, \dots, h_n] | c)$
- A logical argument is valid if the conclusion logically follows from the hypotheses.



Logical Validity

The conclusion logically follows from the given hypotheses if for *any truth assignment* to the atoms,

either some hypothesis h_i is **false**

or whenever *every one* of the hypotheses is **true** the conclusion is also **true**

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Validity & Tautologies

- A **tautology** is a **valid** argument in which there is a **conclusion** *without any hypothesis.*
- A **logical argument** $[h_1, \dots, h_n] | c$, is **valid if and only if**

$$(h_1 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n) \Rightarrow c$$

is a **tautology**



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Problem

Given an argument $[h_1, \dots, h_n] | c$,

- determine whether $(h_1 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n) \Rightarrow c$ is a tautology, and
- If it is not a tautology, to determine what truth assignments to the atoms make it **false**.



Tautology Checking

A proposition in CNF ($\bigwedge_{i=1}^n p_i$)

- is a tautology if and only if every proposition p_i , $1 \leq i \leq m$, is a tautology.
- otherwise at least one clause p_i must be false
- Clause $p_i = \bigvee_{j=1}^m l_{ij}$ is false if and only if every literal l_{ij} , $1 \leq j \leq m$ is false

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Falsifying

For a proposition in CNF ($\bigwedge_{i=1}^n p_i$) that is not a tautology

- A clause $p_i = \bigvee_{j=1}^m l_{ij}$ is **false**
- A truth assignment that **falsifies** the argument
 - sets the atoms that occur **negatively** in p_i to **true**,
 - sets every other atom to **false**

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8.2. Tautology Checking Contd.

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4. The Signature
5. The Core subproblem
6. The datatype
7. Convert to CNF
8. Rewrite into NNF
9. \iff and \Rightarrow Elimination
10. Push \neg inward
11. Push \neg inward
12. conj_of_disj
13. Push \vee inward
14. Tautology & Falsification



Tautology Checking

- Logical arguments
- Propositional forms
- Propositions
- Compound Propositions
- Truth table
- Tautologies

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Normal Forms

- Properties
- Negation Normal Form
- Conjunctive Normal Forms
- Valid Propositional Arguments as tautologies
- The problem

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Top-down Development

- Transform the argument into a single proposition.
- Transform the single **proposition** into one in **CNF**
- Check whether every **clause** is a tautology
- If any **clause** is not a tautology, find the truth assignment(s) that make it **false**



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The Signature

```
signature PropLogic =  
sig datatype Prop = ??  
type Argument =  
    Prop list * Prop  
val falsifyArg :  
    Argument -> Prop list list  
val Valid:  
    Argument -> bool *  
        Prop list list  
    ...  
end;
```

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The Core subproblem

- Representing propositions
- Transformation of propositions into CNF
 - Transform into Negation Normal Form (NNF)
 - Transform NNF into Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

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The datatype

```
datatype Prop =  
    ATOM of string |  
    NOT of Prop |  
    AND of Prop * Prop |  
    OR of Prop * Prop |  
    IMP of Prop * Prop |  
    EQL of Prop * Prop
```



Convert to CNF

Convert a given proposition into CNF

```
fun cnf (P) =  
  conj_of_disj (  
    nnf (rewrite (P))) ;
```

where

- `rewrite` eliminates \leftrightarrow and \Rightarrow
- `nnf` converts into NNF
- `conj_of_disj` converts into CNF

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Rewrite into NNF

- Eliminate \leftrightarrow and then \Rightarrow
- Push \neg inward using De Morgan's laws and eliminate double negations.



↔ and ⇒ Elimination

```
fun rewrite (ATOM a) = ATOM a
| rewrite (IMP (P, Q)) =
  OR (NOT (rewrite(P)), 
       rewrite(Q))
| rewrite (EQL (P, Q)) =
  rewrite (AND (IMP (P, Q),
                 IMP (Q, P)))
| ...
```

Proposition made up of only \neg , \wedge and \vee .

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Push \neg inward

```
fun nnf (ATOM a) =  
    ATOM a  
  | nnf (NOT (ATOM a)) =  
    NOT (ATOM a)  
  | nnf (NOT (NOT (P))) =  
    nnf (P)
```



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Push \hookleftarrow inward

- | $\text{nnf } (\text{NOT } (\text{AND } (P, Q))) =$
 $\text{nnf } (\text{OR } (\text{NOT } (P),$
 $\qquad\qquad\qquad \text{NOT } (Q)))$
- | $\text{nnf } (\text{NOT } (\text{OR } (P, Q))) =$
 $\text{nnf } (\text{AND } (\text{NOT } (P),$
 $\qquad\qquad\qquad \text{NOT } (Q)))$
- | . . .

Proposition made up of only \wedge and \vee
applied to positive or negative literals.



conj_of_disj

```
fun conj_of_disj (AND (P, Q)) =  
    AND (conj_of_disj (P),  
          conj_of_disj (Q))  
| conj_of_disj (OR (P, Q)) =  
  distOR (conj_of_disj (P),  
           conj_of_disj (Q))  
| conj_of_disj (P) = P
```

where **distOR** is

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Push \vee inward

Use distributivity of \vee over \wedge

```
fun distOR (P, AND (Q, R)) =  
    AND (distOR (P, Q),  
          distOR (P, R))  
  
| distOR (AND (Q, R), P) =  
  AND (distOR (Q, P),  
        distOR (R, P))  
  
| distOR (P, Q) = OR (P, Q)
```



Tautology & Falsification

Falsifying a proposition

- A proposition Q in CNF, not a tautology *if and only if* at least one of the clauses can be made false, by a suitable truth assignment
- The list of atoms which are set true to falsify a clause is called a falsifier.
- A proposition is a tautology *if and only if* there is no falsifier!

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