

# midterm

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Monday, October 20, 2014 6:31 PM

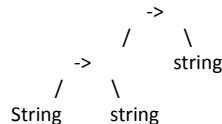
```
List.filter: ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list
(bool list -> bool) -> bool list list
List.head: 'b list -> 'b
Bool list -> bool
```

```
Nsub[1;2;3]
  nsub [2;3] = [[2;3];[2];[3]]
==> [1]      [[1;2;3];[1;2];[1;3];[2;3];[2];[3]]
```

Fun x y is a curried definition  
 $((\text{Fun} \rightarrow x) \rightarrow y)$

float -> ((string \* (bool list)) -> int)

Arrow binds rightest to the right



Infix precedence binds more tightly the prefix

1::(2::[3])

$\text{xs} @ (\text{ys} @ \text{zs})$  <--- cheaper to do  
 $(\text{xs} @ \text{ys}) @ \text{zs}$

Experienced F# programmers do not ordinarily program with `List.isEmpty`, `List.head`, and `List.tail`, preferring to use pattern matching style. There are four advantages to using pattern matching:

1. It's pretty!
2. If you accidentally apply `List.head` or `List.tail` to an empty list, you get an exception. In contrast, the pattern `x::xs` matches only a nonempty list, safely binding `x` to the head and binding `xs` to the tail.
3. The F# compiler checks whether you have included enough patterns to cover all possible inputs. If not, it gives an *Incomplete pattern matches* warning.
4. The F# compiler checks whether a pattern is *redundant*, in the sense that no input will cause it to be used. If so, F# gives a *This rule will never be matched* warning.

Note that the indentation of nested match expressions can be significant:

```
let foo x = function
| 1 -> match x with
| 0 -> true
| 1 -> false
| 2 -> true
val foo : x:int -> _arg1:int -> bool
```

```
> let roots (a,b,c) =
  let disc = sqrt (b*b - 4.0*a*c)
  let twoa = 2.0*a
  ((-b+disc)/twoa, (-b-disc)/twoa);;

val roots : float * float * float -> float * float
```

```
> let map f xs =
  let rec map_aux = function
  | [] -> []
  | y::ys -> f y :: map_aux ys
  map_aux xs;;
```

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

One possibility is to use the binding in effect where the function is *defined*; this is called *static scoping* (*lexical scoping*). Another possibility is to use the binding in effect when the function is *called*; this is called *dynamic scoping*. Here's an example that shows that F# uses static scoping.

```
> let x = 3 in let f y = x+y
  let x = 6
  f x;;
val it : int = 9
```

From the point of view of language design, there is now a consensus that static scoping is better than dynamic scoping. The reason is that, under dynamic scoping, one cannot understand a function with free identifiers by simply studying its definition---at the time of a *call* to the function, there could be new bindings for the free identifiers that would completely change the function's behavior.

```
let myand (e1,e2) = if e1 then e2 else false;;
val myand : bool * bool -> bool
```

The trouble is that, under eager evaluation, we don't get short-circuit evaluation. Under eager evaluation, F# immediately evaluates both *e1* and *e2*, even though *myand* needs the value of *e2* only when *e1* is true.

```
> let myand (e1, e2) = if e1() then e2() else false;;
val myand : (unit -> bool) * (unit -> bool) -> bool

> myand ((fun () -> x > 0), (fun () -> 10/x > 2));;
val it : bool = false
```

- *e1 :: e2*  
Here the values of *e1* and *e2* are pointers *p1* and *p2*. We allocate a new cons cell, put *p1* and *p2* into it, and return a pointer to the new cons cell.
- *List.isEmpty e*  
Here the value of *e* is a pointer *p*. We just test whether *p* is the null pointer.
- *List.head e*  
Again, the value of *e* is a pointer *p*. If *p* is a null pointer, then we raise an *ArgumentException*. Otherwise, we return the *left* pointer of the cons cell that *p* points at.
- *List.tail e*  
Again, the value of *e* is a pointer *p*. If *p* is a null pointer, then we raise an *ArgumentException*. Otherwise, we return the *right* pointer of the cons cell that *p* points at.

```
let rec append = function
| [] , ys -> ys
| (x::xs) , ys -> x :: append (xs,ys)
```

If  $xs$  has length  $n$  and  $ys$  has length  $m$ , then notice that we get a total of  $n+1$  invocations. And each of these invocations again does  $O(1)$  work. So in total the running time is  $O(n)$ . In other words,  $xs @ ys$  takes time proportional to the length of  $xs$  but independent of the length of  $ys$ . This asymmetry is very important to keep in mind when you use  $@$ .

```
let rec split = function
| [] -> ([] , [])
| [a] -> ([a] , [])
| a::b::cs -> let (M,N) = split cs
                (a::M, b::N)
| a::b::cs -> (a :: fst (split cs), b :: snd (split cs))
```

then we would recursively split  $cs$  twice. What are the asymptotic time complexities of these two definitions of  $split$ ?

First, with either definition of  $split$ , it is clear that each invocation does a *constant* amount of work directly. How many recursive invocations are there on an input of length  $n$ ? When  $n > 1$ , the first definition makes *one* recursive call on a list of length  $n-2$ , while the second definition makes *two* such calls.

Hence the first definition makes about  $n/2$  recursive invocations total, and hence takes *linear* time,  $O(n)$ .

But the second definition makes 2 calls on lists of length  $n-2$ , 4 calls on lists of length  $n-4$ , 8 calls on lists of length  $n-6$ , 16 calls on lists of length  $n-8$ , and so on, until finally making (if  $n$  is even)  $2^{n/2}$  calls on lists of length 0. Hence the second definition takes *exponential* time,  $O(2^{n/2})$ ! (Try the two definitions on lists of size 55, and you will already see a huge difference in performance.)

```
let rec rev = function
| [] -> []
| x::xs -> rev xs @ [x]
```

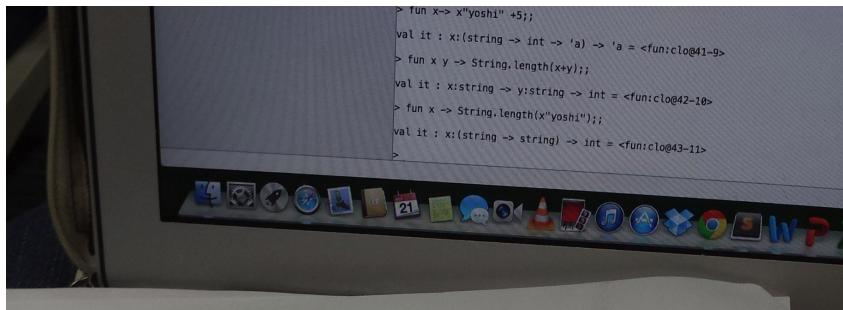
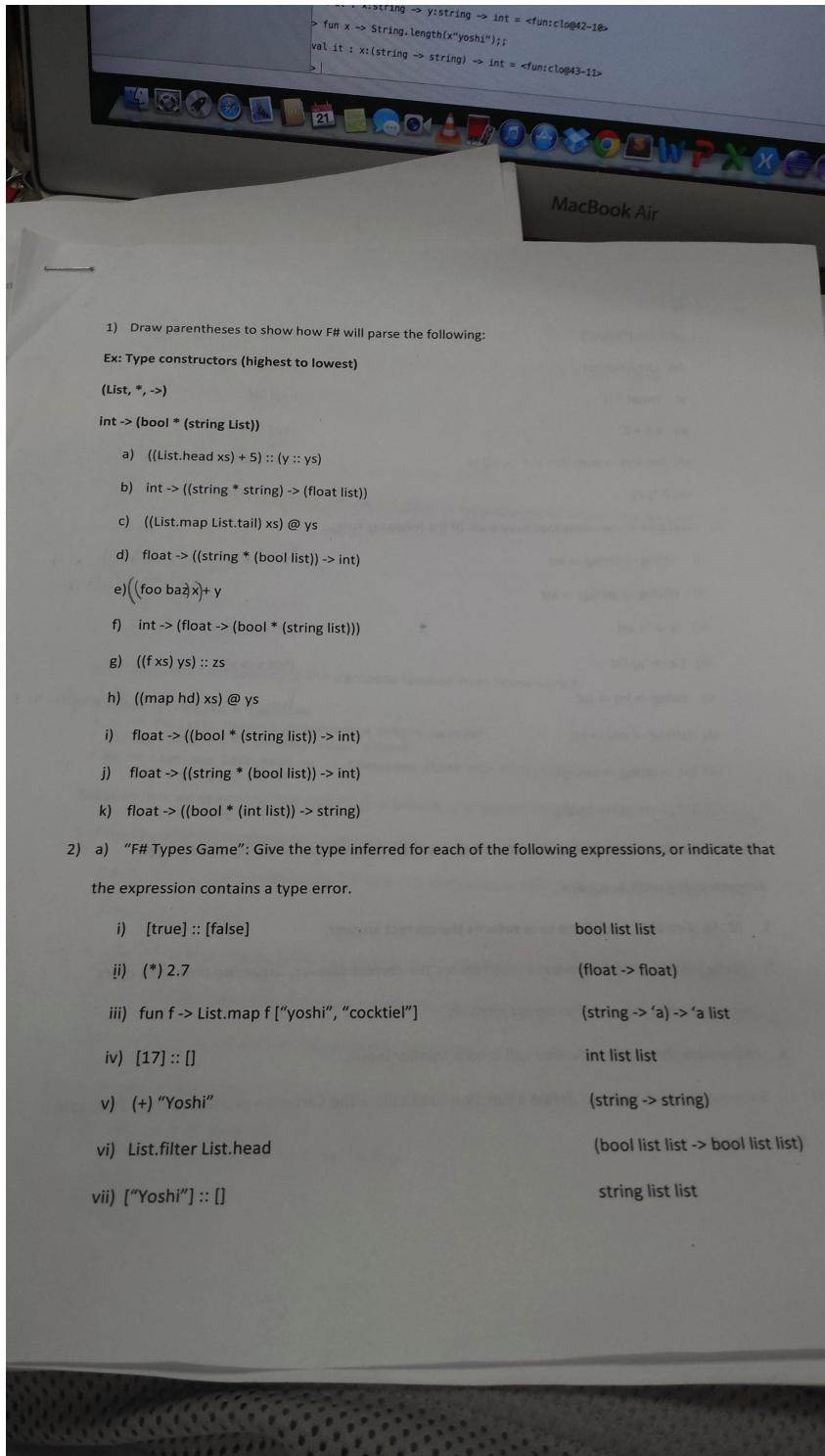
On a list of length  $n$ , this definition makes  $n+1$  recursive invocations. But each invocation here does linear work, since it does an append where the left argument has length  $O(n)$  and the right argument has length 1. (This is an example where the asymmetry of the running time of  $@$  is critical.) Hence this definition of  $rev$  takes *quadratic* time.

To develop your cases systematically, it helps to keep in mind the following *Checklist for Programming with Recursion*:

1. Make sure that each base case returns the correct answer.
2. Make sure that each non-base case returns the correct answer, *assuming that each of its recursive calls returns the correct answer*.
3. Make sure that each recursive call is on a *smaller* input.



```
val int length : string -> int
```



viii) [] :: ["Yoshi"] Type Error  
ix) List.filter not (bool list -> bool list)  
x) [true] :: [] bool list  
xi) 3.5 + 2 Type Error  
xii) fun x ys -> map (fun y -> (x, y)) ys 'a -> 'b list -> ('a \* 'b) list  
xiii) [(\*)] 7 (int -> int) list

b) Next give expressions that have each of the following types.

i) string -> string -> int fun x y -> String.length x + String.length y  
ii) (string -> string) -> int fun x -> [x]  
iii) 'a -> 'a list  
iv) ('a -> 'a) list  
v) string -> int -> int fun x (y:int) -> St.length  
vi) (string -> int) -> int fun x -> 5 + x "yes"  
vii) Int -> string -> string fun (x : int) y -> y + ".."  
viii) (Int -> string) -> string fun f -> "yoshi" + f 2

To develop your cases systematically, it helps to keep in mind the following Checklist for Programming with Recursion:

1. Make sure that each base case returns the correct answer.
2. Make sure that each non-base case returns the correct answer, assuming that each of its recursive calls returns the correct answer.
3. Make sure that each recursive call is on a smaller input.

a) Suppose that we want to define a function to calculate the Cartesian product of two lists, as

Homework 2:

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```
> fun x y -> String.length x + String.length y
val it : x:string -> y:string -> int = <fun:clo@42-10>
> fun x -> String.length(x"yoshi");
val it : x:(string -> string) -> int = <fun:clo@43-11>
>
```

E1,27@C2:27

$x_s \quad y_s \quad (1;2;3;2)$

$\alpha \text{ list} \rightarrow \alpha \text{ list} \rightarrow \alpha \text{ list}$

```
> cart ([1;2], ["a";"b"]);
val it : (int * string) list = [(1, "a"); (1, "b"); (2, "a"); (2, "b")]
```

We might try the following definition:

```
let rec cart = function
| [], ys -> []
| (x::xs, ys) -> cart ((x, ys) :: cart (xs, ys));
```

Analyze this definition with respect to the Checklist for Programming with Recursion. Be sure to

discuss all three steps.

Step 1: correct ?

Step 2: correct

Step 3: incorrect ? Every recursive call is on a smaller input. X never gets smaller

b) Here is a correct solution to the transpose function from Homework 2:

```
let rec transpose = function
| [] -> failwith "cannot transpose a 0-by-n matrix"
| []::xs -> []
// base case: m-by-0
| xs -> List.map List.head xs :: transpose (List.map List.tail xs)
```

Suppose that we delete the first case ("| [] -> failwith ..."). Explain why the definition now fails Step

3 of the Checklist for Programming with Recursion.

Transpose [] is now handled by the last line. But (List.map List.tail []) is [], so the recursive call is on the original input!

c) Representing sets as lists, we might wish to implement an F# function nsub xs that returns (in whatever order) the set of all the nonempty subsets of xs. (Note that nsub is almost the same as powerset from Homework 2.) We might try the following:

```
let rec nsub = function
| [] -> []
| x::xs -> let p = nsub xs
            List.map (fun s -> x::s) p @ p
```

Calling the same thing over and over on the empty list []::xs only checks for empty head not tail so it will run forever.

```
F# Interactive
val it : x:(string -> int -> 'a) -> 'a = <fun:clo@59->
> fun x-> 5+x"yoshi";
val it : x:(string -> int) -> int = <fun:clo@40-8>
> fun x-> x"yoshi" +5;
val it : x:(string -> int -> 'a) -> 'a = <fun:clo@41-9>
> fun x y -> String.length(x+y);
val it : x:string -> y:string -> int = <fun:clo@42-10>
> fun x -> String.length(x"yoshi");
val it : x:(string -> string) -> int = <fun:clo@43-11>
>
```

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Analyze this definition with respect to all three steps of the Checklist for Programming with

Recursion. If you find any bugs, show how they should be corrected!

Step 1: correct, since the empty set has no nonempty subset.

Step 2: incorrect, a nonempty subset of x :: xs either contains x or not. If not, it is a nonempty subset of xs. If, so it can be formed by adding x to a nonempty subset of xs, or it is just [x]. The above code misses that the last possibility. To correct it, insert "[x] ::" at the start of the last line.

Step 3: correct, since xs is shorter than x :: xs.

d) Suppose we wish to define an F# function insert(x, xs) to insert a value x into a non-decreasing

list xs:

```
> insert (3, [1;1;3;6;7]);
val it : int list = [1; 1; 3; 3; 6; 7]
```

Here is a definition of insert:

```
let rec insert = function
```

$| (x, []) \rightarrow [x]$   
 $| (x, y::ys) \rightarrow \text{if } x \leq y \text{ then } x::y::ys \text{ else } y::\text{insert}(x, ys)$

Analyze this definition with respect to the Checklist for Programming with Recursion. Be sure to discuss all three steps:

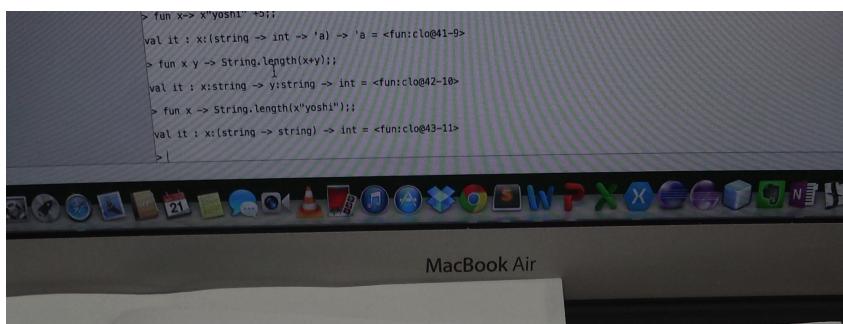
- Step 1: correct
- Step 2: correct
- Step 3: probably correct
- Step 4: incorrect

4) In mathematics, we can write summations like

$$\sum_{i=1}^7 (2i - 1) = 49.$$

Write an F# function sum (lower, upper, e) to do the integer sum  $\sum_{i=lower}^{upper} e$ . Note that e should be a function of the "index variable" i:

```
> sum (1, 7, fun i -> 2*i-1);;
val it : int = 49
```



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5) a) Consider the following (rather nonsensical) function foo.

```
let rec foo = function
| [] -> 1
| x::xs -> (x + _foo xs) * _foo xs
```

i) What is the "big O" running time of foo on an input of length n? Briefly justify your answer.

ii) Rewrite the non-base case to make foo more efficient.

b) Here is an F# function to find the minimum value in a list:

```
let rec min = function
| [] -> k
| k::ks -> if k <= min ks then k else min ks
```

i) What warning will the F# compiler issue for this definition?

Incomplete pattern matches.

What line of code could be added to eliminate the warning?

```
| [] -> failwith "empty list has no min"
```

ii) What is the worst-case asymptotic time complexity ("big O running time") of this definition on a list of length n? Explain your answer.

If the minimum uniquely occurs last in the list, then we always make two recursive calls

or list of length  $n-1$ . Hence min takes  $O(2^n)$  time, since it makes  $2^n$  invocations.

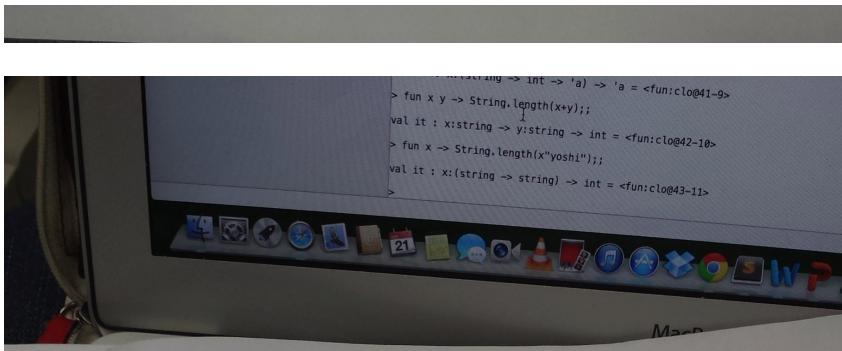
- iii) Show how we can make min efficient by rewriting the last line of the definition using a local

let:

```

> fun x y -> String.length(x+y);;
val it : x:string -> y:string -> int = <fun:clo@42-10>
> fun x -> String.length(x"yoshi");;
val it : x:(string -> string) -> int = <fun:clo@43-11>
> | k :: ks -> Let min = min ks
    If k = m then k else m
c) Suppose we want to implement an insertion sort function:
> sort [3;1;4;1;5;9];
val it : int list = [1; 1; 3; 4; 5; 9]
i) Using the above insert function as an auxiliary function, complete the following (three-line)
definition of sort:
let rec sort = function
| []      ->
| x::xs ->
ii) What are the worst-case and the best-case running times of sort on a list of n elements?
6) a) Recall our F# implementation of binary search trees, defined by:
type 'a tree = Lf | Br of 'a * 'a tree * 'a tree
And with property that the key in any Br node is greater than all the keys in its left subtree, and less than
or equal to all the keys in its right subtree.
Define an F# function revorder that returns a list, in reverse order, of all the keys in a binary search tree:
> revorder (Br(5,Br(3,Lf,Lf),Br(8,Br(6,Lf,Lf),Lf)));
val it : int list = [8; 6; 5; 3]
b) Define an uncurried F# function pairup, with type
'a list * 'b list -> ('a * 'b) list

```



that takes two equal-length lists as input and “pairs up” the corresponding elements. (If the lists are not of equal length, then raise an exception.) For example,

```
> pairup ([1;2;3], ["a","b","c"]);
val it : (int * string) list = [(1, "a"); (2, "b"); (3, "c")]

let rec pairup = function
| ([], []) -> []
| (x :: xs, y :: ys) -> (x, y) :: pairup (xs, ys)
| _ -> failwith "list not of equal length"
```

c) Recall that in F# we can create a type of infinite stream with

```
type 'a stream = Cons of 'a * (unit -> 'a stream)
```

and we can define many of the build-in list functions on streams. For example,

```
let rec filter p (Cons(x, xsf)) =
  if p x then Cons(x, fun () -> filter p (xsf()))
  else filter p (xsf())
```

We can also define map f s on streams-this gives the stream formed by applying function f to each

element of stream s. complete the following definition of map:

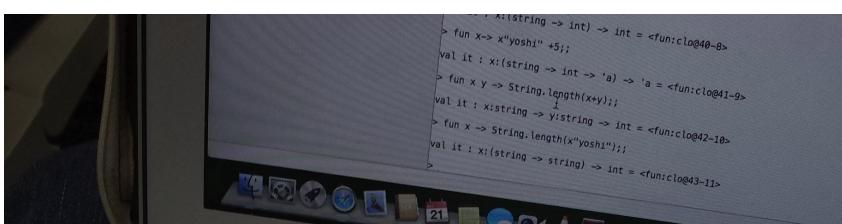
```
let rec map' f (Cons(x, xsf)) =
```

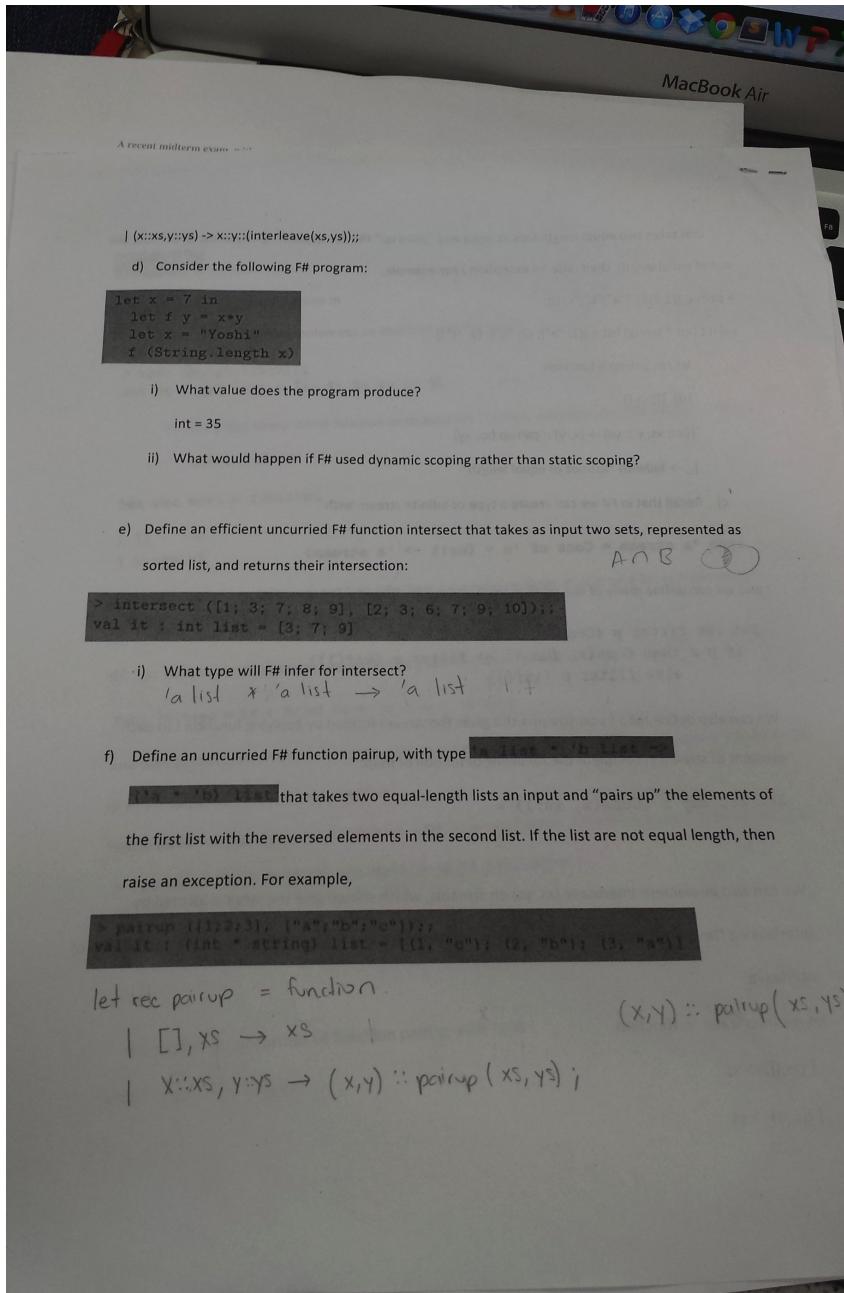
We can also implement interleave (xs, ys) on streams, which should give the stream formed by

interleaving the elements of streams xs and ys, starting with the first element of xs. Give a definition of

interleave:

```
let rec interleave = function
| (xs,[]) -> xs
| (,[],ys) -> ys
```





Which of the following F# expressions is *not* well typed?

Select one:

- "4" + "5.6"
- 2 + 5 \* 10
- 4 + 5.6
- 10! \* 20!

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: 4 + 5.6

**Question 2**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

A curried function has a type of which form?

Select one:

t1 -> (t2 -> t3)

t1 -> t2 \* t3

t1 \* t2 -> t3

(t1 -> t2) -> t3

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: t1 -> (t2 -> t3)

**Question 3**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

If an F# function has type 'a -> 'b when 'a : comparison, which of the following is *not* a legal type for it?

Select one:

(float -> float) -> bool

string -> int

int -> int

int list -> bool list

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: (float -> float) -> bool

**Question 4**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Which of the following statements about F# lists is *not* true?

Select one:

They can be heterogeneous.

They can be of any length.

Their built-in functions are polymorphic.

They are immutable.

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: They can be heterogeneous.

**Question 5**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Which of the following F# expressions evaluates to [1; 2; 3]?

Select one:

1@2@3@[]

1::2::3::[]

[1; 2; 3]::[]

((1::2)::3)::[]

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: 1::2::3::[]

How does F# interpret the expression List.map List.head foo @ baz?

Select one:

(List.map List.head) (foo @ baz)

List.map (List.head (foo @ baz))

((List.map List.head) foo) @ baz

(List.map (List.head foo)) @ baz

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: ((List.map List.head) foo) @ baz

**Question 2**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

How does F# interpret the type `int * bool -> string list`?

Select one:

- (`int * (bool -> string)`) list
- (`(int * bool) -> string`) list
- `int * (bool -> (string list))`
- `(int * bool) -> (string list)`

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: `(int * bool) -> (string list)`**Question 3**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Let F# function `foo` be defined as follows:

```
let rec foo = function
| ([] , []) -> []
| (xs , y::ys) -> foo (xs@[y] , ys)
```

If `foo` is supposed to append its two list parameters, which of the following is true?

Select one:

foo fails Step 1 of the [Checklist for Programming with Recursion](#).foo fails Step 2 of the [Checklist for Programming with Recursion](#).foo fails Step 3 of the [Checklist for Programming with Recursion](#).foo will get an *Incomplete pattern matches* warning.

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: foo will get an *Incomplete pattern matches* warning.**Question 4**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Which of the following is the type that F# infers for `(fun f -> f 17)`?

Select one:

- `('a -> 'b) -> 'b`
- `(int -> int) -> int`
- `(int -> 'a) -> 'a`
- `('a -> 'a) -> 'a`

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: `(int -> 'a) -> 'a`**Question 5**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Which of the following has type `int -> int list`?

Select one:

- `(@) [5]`
- `[fun x -> x+1]`
- `fun x -> 5::x`
- `fun x -> x::[5]`

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: `fun x -> x::[5]`What type does F# infer for the expression `(3, [], true)`?

Select one:

- `int * 'a list * bool`
- Type error.
- `int * int list * bool`
- `int * 'a * bool`

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: int \* 'a list \* bool

**Question 2**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

What type does F# infer for the expression fun x y -> x+y+".."?

Select one:

string \* string -> string

string -> string -> string

Type error.

int -> int -> string

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: string -> string -> string

**Question 3**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

What type does F# infer for the expression fun xs -> List.map (+) xs ?

Select one:

Type error.

int list -> int list

int list -> int -> int list

int list -> (int -> int) list

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: int list -> (int -> int) list

**Question 4**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Which of the following does F# infer to have type string -> string -> string ?

Select one:

fun (x, y) -> x + y + ".."

fun x y -> String.length x \* String.length y

fun x -> fun y -> x + y + ".."

(+)

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: fun x -> fun y -> x + y + ".."

**Question 5**

Correct

Mark 1.00 out of 1.00

Flag question

Question text

Which of the following does F# infer to have type(string -> string) -> string ?

Select one:

fun x y -> x + " " + y

fun f -> f "yoshi"

fun f -> f (f "yoshi")

fun f -> String.length (f "yoshi")

Feedback

Your answer is correct.

The correct answer is: fun f -> f (f "yoshi")