## Introduction to Programming and its Mathematical Foundations Lesson 8: Lists, Part 2 (Lesson 3 forms Lists, Part 1)

Notation: A *list* in functional programming is commonly written as a sequence of elements, <u>all of the same</u> type e.g., [2,18,9, 10]. The *component type* can be any simple or compound type that is legal in Gofer, e.g., Int, and the aggregate *list type* is written as the component type in brackets, e.g., [Int]

This notation is "syntactic sugarcoating" that hides the true, recursive, nature of the list structure (see Figures 1 below).

(Definition): A *list* is either empty [], or consists of a *head* (single element) and a *tail* (list of elements satisfying this recursive definition), all elements of the same type. The head and tail are connected together by the cons operator, written: in Gofer. (Note: In standard Haskell notation, cons is written with a single colon,:)

(Recursive) A non-empty tail has a head (single element( and a tail (itself another list), till finally the tail is the empty list []. The head and tail are connected together by the cons operator, written::, so [2,18,9,10] is identically equal to 2::(18::(9::(10::[])), as illustrated in Figures 1a and 1b.

Figure 1a: Structure of [2, 18, 9, 10] That is, the value of [2,18,9,10] == 2::(18::(9::(10::[]))) is True.

Lists can be represented in a natural way as lopsided trees, see Figure 1. The inverse operators of :: are the built-in unary functions head and tail, and there is a length function, (single element)

so that length([2, 18, 9, 10]) is 4, and length([]) is 0.

tail :: / \ 18 ::

18

Further, just like we have the n+1 pattern for positive integers, there is an x::xs pattern for nonempty lists. There is no particular significance to the names—x stands for one element, and xs stands for many elements. Just as the base case for the n+1 pattern is 0, for lists it is []. Note that neither the n+1 pattern nor the [ pattern can match the base case—the n+1 pattern matches integer arguments 1 and above, while the x::xs pattern matches non-empty lists, i.e., lists of size 1 or more.

Figure 1b: the head is 2 and the tail is [18, 9, 10]

Signatures	Examples	Application
head: [a] -> a	head.[2,18,9,0] = 2	head.(x::xs) = x
tail: [a] -> [a]	tail.[2,18,9,0] = [18,9,0]	tail.(x::xs) = xs
<pre>length: [a] -&gt; Int</pre>	length. $[2,18,9,0] = 4$	length.[] = 0

The various forms of recursive function definition for integers, as shown in file recfuncs.gs, can be used in recursive function definitions for lists. Assume that s is a list, x::xs is a list pattern. Just as the induction case for integers connects parameter n to n-1, we have s connected to tail.s on the right hand side, and as the induction case connects pattern n+1 to n, we have x::xs connected to x. To practically observe these "connections," inspect the details of the example for len, given below

Assume len is a function that finds list length. (The name of the built-in function is not len but length.) The different versions of len are structured as below. The first uses the x::xs pattern, the second uses function tail, and the third uses a conditional expression. The n+1 pattern matches integers 1 and above, the x::xs pattern matches non-empty lists (of length >= 1).

<u>Induction case first</u> (using pattern x::xs)

<u>Base case first</u> (using parameter s)

len.
$$(x::xs) = 1+len. xs$$
 len. $[] = 0$  len.  $s = 1+len.(tail.s)$ 

Conditional expression: len. s = if s = [] then 0 else 1 + len.(tail.s)

## PROOF BY STRUCTURAL INDUCTION, FOR LISTS

Remark: Structural induction, a generalisation of mathematical induction, is used to prove that some proposition P(x) holds for all instances x of some "recursively defined" structure, such as lists or trees. Often, such a proof proceeds by natural induction on the size of the structure.

Let P(s) be a well-formed proposition that involves s, a list in the sense of purely functional programming. We want to show that P(s) holds, i.e., P(s) is true, for all lists s in a given context, e.g., a certain list type.

The base case will be for small-sized lists, typically the empty list [], and sometimes the singleton list [x]. As with natural numbers, the base case for lists is usually shown to be correct by inspection. The induction case will be for non-empty lists, denoted by the pattern x::xs, or lists with >2 elements x::y::ys. The induction hypothesis is that P(xs) is true, and the induction step is to do "something" with x, the list head, and the value of the recursive call on the list tail xs, and conclude that P(xs) holds, i.e., show that P(xs) = P(xs)

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len: [a] -> Int
len . [ ] = 0
len . (x::xs) = 1 + len . xs

sum: Num.a => [a] -> Int-all numeric types a
sum . [ ] = 0
sum . (x::xs) = x + sum . xsBelow, you will find descriptions of problems that can be
solved naively (i.e., from first principles, i.e., using the "base case first" or "induction case first" or
"conditional expression" approaches, (according to your thinking or problem-solving strategy.)
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To get a complete expression out of the "mention" below, you have to supply the list argument, e.g., when the argument is list s, the complete expressions are, e.g., len.s or oll.p.s or isin.q.s.

Function	mention	description	
len	len	length of a list (same as builtin length)	
total	total	sum of list elements (same as builtin sum)	
produc	produc	product of list elements (same as product)	
counteve	ens countevens	count the even numbers in the list	
sumEvens	sumEvens	sum the even numbers in the list	
sumalt1	sumalt1	sum of alternating elements starting from the head of the list	
sumalt2	sumalt2	sum of alt elements, not counting the head, i.e., sumalt1 of the tail	
anee	anee.p	does any element satisfy predicate p, same as builtin any	
oll	oll.p	do all list elements satisfy predicate p, same as builtin all	
isin	isin.q	does q occur in the list	
allare	allare.q	do all the list elements have the value q	