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THE HONG KONG UNIVERSITY OF
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Principles of Programming Languages (Lecture 6)

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Tuples and Generic Methods

Sorting Lists Faster

As a non-trivial example, let's design a function to sort lists that is more efficient than insertion sort.

A good algorithm for this is *merge sort*. The idea is as follows:

If the list consists of zero or one elements, it is already sorted.

Otherwise,

- ▶ Separate the list into two sub-lists, each containing around half of the elements of the original list.
- ▶ Sort the two sub-lists.
- ▶ Merge the two sorted sub-lists into a single sorted list.

First MergeSort Implementation

Here is the implementation of that algorithm in Scala:

```
def msort(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] =  
  val n = xs.length / 2  
  if n == 0 then xs  
  else  
    def merge(xs: List[Int], ys: List[Int]) = ???  
    val (fst, snd) = xs.splitAt(n)  
    merge(msort(fst), msort(snd))
```

The SplitAt Function

The `splitAt` function on lists returns two sublists

- ▶ the elements up to the given index
- ▶ the elements from that index

The lists are returned in a *pair*.

Detour: Pair and Tuples

The pair consisting of x and y is written (x, y) in Scala.

Example

```
val pair = ("answer", 42)  > pair : (String, Int)
```

The type of `pair` above is `(String, Int)`.

Pairs can also be used as patterns:

```
val (label, value) = pair  > label: String; value: Int
```

This works analogously for tuples with more than two elements.

Example Use of Pairs

We can define `splitAt` as follows...

```
extension [A](xs: List[A])
```

```
  def splitAt(n: Int): (List[A], List[A]) =
```

Example Use of Pairs

We can define `splitAt` as follows...

```
extension [A](xs: List[A])
```

```
def splitAt(n: Int): (List[A], List[A]) =  
  (xs.take(n), xs.drop(n))
```


Translation of Tuples

For small(*) n , the tuple type (T_1, \dots, T_n) is an abbreviation of the parameterized type

`scala.Tuplen[T1, ..., Tn]`

A tuple expression (e_1, \dots, e_n) is equivalent to the function application

`scala.Tuplen(e1, ..., en)`

A tuple pattern (p_1, \dots, p_n) is equivalent to the constructor pattern

`scala.Tuplen(p1, ..., pn)`

(*) Currently, “small” = up to 22. There’s also a TupleXXL class that handles Tuples larger than that limit.

The Tuple class

Here, all `Tuplen` classes are modeled after the following pattern:

```
case class Tuple2[+T1, +T2](_1: T1, _2: T2):  
  override def toString = "(" + _1 + ", " + _2 + ")"
```

The fields of a tuple can be accessed with names `_1`, `_2`, ...

So instead of the pattern binding

```
val (label, value) = pair
```

one could also have written:

```
val label = pair._1  
val value = pair._2
```

But the pattern matching form is generally preferred.

Definition of Merge

Here is a definition of the merge function:

```
def merge(xs: List[Int], ys: List[Int]) = (xs, ys) match
  case (Nil, ys) => ys
  case (xs, Nil) => xs
  case (x :: xs1, y :: ys1) =>
    if x < y
    then x :: merge(xs1, ys)
    else y :: merge(xs, ys1)
```

Note how this programming style is hard to get wrong:
the compiler will warn us if we forget a case!

(Compare with traditional index-based imperative loops.)

Definition of Merge

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```
def merge(xs: List[Int], ys: List[Int]) = (xs, ys) match
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  case (xs, Nil) => xs
  case (x :: xs1, y :: ys1) =>
    if x < y
    then x :: merge(xs1, ys)
    else y :: merge(xs, ys1)
```

Note how this programming style is hard to get wrong:
the compiler will warn us if we forget a case!

(Compare with traditional index-based imperative loops.)

Making Sort More General

Problem: How to parameterize `msort` so that it can also be used for lists with elements other than `Int`?

```
def msort[T](xs: List[T]): List[T] = ???
```

does not work, because the comparison `<` in `merge` is not defined for arbitrary types `T`.

Idea: Parameterize `merge` with the necessary comparison function.

Parameterization of Sort

The most flexible design is to make the function `sort` polymorphic and to pass the comparison operation as an additional parameter:

```
def msort[T](xs: List[T])(lt: (T, T) => Boolean) =  
  ...  
  merge(msort(fst)(lt), msort(snd)(lt))
```

Merge then needs to be adapted as follows:

```
def merge[T](xs: List[T], ys: List[T]) = (xs, ys) match  
  ...  
  case (x :: xs1, y :: ys1) =>  
    if lt(x, y) then ...  
    else ...
```

Important Note: Syntax and Semantics of Pair-Taking Functions

In Scala,

- ▶ `f: (T, T) => Boolean`
is the type of a function that takes *two* parameters
- ▶ `g: ((T, T)) => Boolean`
is the type of a function that takes *one* parameters of *pair type*
- ▶ i.e., the latter is syntax sugar for `g: (Tuple2[T, T]) => Boolean`

However, Scala often (but *not always*) glosses over the difference...

```
g((0, 1)) // the formally correct way of calling g
g(0, 1)   // also compiles
f(0, 1)   // the formally correct way of calling f
f((0, 1)) // does NOT compile (missing argument)
```

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f((0, 1)) // does NOT compile (missing argument)
```


Calling Parameterized Sort

We can now call `msort` as follows:

```
val xs = List(-5, 6, 3, 2, 7)
val fruits = List("apple", "pear", "orange", "pineapple")
```

```
msort(xs)((x: Int, y: Int) => x < y)
msort(fruits)((x: String, y: String) => x.compareTo(y) < 0)
```

Or, since parameter types can be inferred from the call `msort(xs)`:

```
msort(xs)((x, y) => x < y)
```

Higher-Order List Functions

Recurring Patterns for Computations on Lists

The examples have shown that functions on lists often have similar structures.

We can identify several recurring patterns, like,

- ▶ transforming each element in a list in a certain way,
- ▶ retrieving a list of all elements satisfying a criterion,
- ▶ combining the elements of a list using an operator.

Functional languages allow programmers to write generic functions that implement patterns such as these using **higher-order functions**.

Applying a Function to Elements of a List

A common operation is to transform each element of a list and then return the list of results.

For example, to multiply each element of a list by the same factor, you could write:

```
def scaleList(xs: List[Double], factor: Double): List[Double] = xs match
  case Nil      => xs
  case y :: ys => y * factor :: scaleList(ys, factor)
```

Mapping

This scheme can be generalized to the method `map` of the `List` class. A simple way to define `map` is as follows:

```
extension [T](xs: List[T])  
  def map[U](f: T => U): List[U] = xs match  
    case Nil      => Nil  
    case x :: xs => f(x) :: xs.map(f)
```

(in fact, the actual definition of `map` is a bit more complicated, because it is tail-recursive, and also because it works for arbitrary collections, not just lists).

Using `map`, we can rewrite `scaleList` more concisely:

```
def scaleList(xs: List[Double], factor: Double) =  
  xs.map(x => x * factor)
```

Exercise

Consider a function to square each element of a list, and return the result. Complete the two following equivalent definitions of `squareList`.

```
def squareList(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match
  case Nil      => ???
  case y :: ys => ???
```

```
def squareList(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] =
  xs.map(???)
```

Exercise

Consider a function to square each element of a list, and return the result. Complete the two following equivalent definitions of `squareList`.

```
def squareList(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match
  case Nil      => Nil
  case y :: ys => y * y :: squareList(ys)
```

```
def squareList(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] =
  xs.map(x => x * x)
```

Filtering

Another common operation on lists is the selection of all elements satisfying a given condition. For example:

```
def posElems(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match
  case Nil      => xs
  case y :: ys => if y > 0 then y :: posElems(ys) else posElems(ys)
```


Filter

This pattern is generalized by the method `filter` of the `List` class:

```
extension [T](xs: List[T])  
  def filter(p: T => Boolean): List[T] = this match  
    case Nil      => xs  
    case x :: xs => if p(x) then x :: xs.filter(p) else xs.filter(p)
```

Using `filter`, `posElems` can be written more concisely.

```
def posElems(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] =  
  xs.filter(x => x > 0)
```

Variations of Filter

Besides filter, there are also the following methods that extract sublists based on a predicate:

- `xs.filterNot(p)` Same as `xs.filter(x => !p(x))`; The list consisting of those elements of `xs` that do not satisfy the predicate `p`.
- `xs.partition(p)` Same as `(xs.filter(p), xs.filterNot(p))`, but computed in a single traversal of the list `xs`.
- `xs.takeWhile(p)` The longest prefix of list `xs` consisting of elements that all satisfy the predicate `p`.
- `xs.dropWhile(p)` The remainder of the list `xs` after any leading elements satisfying `p` have been removed.
- `xs.span(p)` Same as `(xs.takeWhile(p), xs.dropWhile(p))` but computed in a single traversal of the list `xs`.

Exercise

Write a function `pack` that packs consecutive duplicates of list elements into sublists. For instance,

```
pack(List("a", "a", "a", "b", "c", "c", "a"))
```

should give

```
List(List("a", "a", "a"), List("b"), List("c", "c"), List("a")).
```

You can use the following template:

```
def pack[T](xs: List[T]): List[List[T]] = xs match
  case Nil      => ???
  case x :: xs1 => ???
```

Exercise

Write a function `pack` that packs consecutive duplicates of list elements into sublists.

```
def pack[T](xs: List[T]): List[List[T]] = xs match
  case Nil      => Nil
  case x :: xs1 =>
    val (more, rest) = xs1.span(y => y == x)
    (x :: more) :: pack(rest)
```

Exercise

Using pack, write a function encode that produces the run-length encoding of a list.

The idea is to encode n consecutive duplicates of an element x as a pair (x, n) . For instance,

```
encode(List("a", "a", "a", "b", "c", "c", "a"))
```

should give

```
List(("a", 3), ("b", 1), ("c", 2), ("a", 1)).
```

Exercise

Using pack, write a function encode that produces the run-length encoding of a list.

```
def encode[T](xs: List[T]): List[(T, Int)] =
```

Exercise

Using `pack`, write a function `encode` that produces the run-length encoding of a list.

```
def encode[T](xs: List[T]): List[(T, Int)] =  
  pack(xs).map(ys => (ys.head, ys.length))
```

But you told us to avoid using `head`! True, and there is a type-safe way:

```
def pack[T](xs: List[T]): List[::[T]] = xs match  
  case Nil      => Nil  
  case x :: xs1 =>  
    val (more, rest) = xs1.span(y => y == x)  
    (new ::(x, more)) :: pack(rest)
```

Type `::[T]` represents *non-empty lists*, on which calling `head` is safe.

Exercise

Using `pack`, write a function `encode` that produces the run-length encoding of a list.

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def encode[T](xs: List[T]): List[(T, Int)] =  
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```

Type `::[T]` represents *non-empty lists*, on which calling `head` is safe.

Reduction of Lists

Reduction of Lists

Another common operation on lists is to combine the elements of a list using a given operator.

For example:

$$\text{sum}(\text{List}(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = 0 + x_1 + \dots + x_n$$
$$\text{product}(\text{List}(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = 1 * x_1 * \dots * x_n$$

We can implement this with the usual recursive schema:

```
def sum(xs: List[Int]): Int = xs match
  case Nil      => 0
  case y :: ys => y + sum(ys)
```

ReduceLeft

This pattern can be abstracted out using the generic method `reduceLeft`:

`reduceLeft` inserts a given binary operator between adjacent elements:

```
List(x1, ..., xn).reduceLeft((x, y) => x.op(y)) = x1.op(x2). ... .op(xn)
```

Using `reduceLeft`, we can simplify:

```
def sum(xs: List[Int])      = (0 :: xs).reduceLeft((x, y) => x + y)
def product(xs: List[Int]) = (1 :: xs).reduceLeft((x, y) => x * y)
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def product(xs: List[Int]) = (1 :: xs).reduceLeft((x, y) => x * y)
```

Caution: `reduceLeft` function only works on non-empty lists!

A Shorter Way to Write Simple Functions

Instead of `((x, y) => x * y)`, one can also write the shorter:

`(_ * _)`

Every `_` represents a new parameter, going from left to right.

The parameters are defined at the next outer pair of parentheses (or the whole expression if there are no enclosing parentheses).

So sum and product can also be expressed like this:

```
def sum(xs: List[Int])      = (0 :: xs).reduceLeft(_ + _)
def product(xs: List[Int]) = (1 :: xs).reduceLeft(_ * _)
```

FoldLeft

reduceLeft is defined in terms of a more general function, foldLeft.

foldLeft is like reduceLeft but takes an *accumulator*, z, as an additional parameter, which is returned when foldLeft is called on an empty list.

```
List(x1, ..., xn).foldLeft(z)(_op(_)) = z.op(x1).op ... .op(xn)
```

So sum and product can also be defined as follows:

```
def sum(xs: List[Int])      = xs.foldLeft(0)(_ + _)
def product(xs: List[Int])  = xs.foldLeft(1)(_ * _)
```

Implementations of ReduceLeft and FoldLeft

foldLeft and reduceLeft can be implemented in class List as follows.

```
sealed abstract class List[T]:
```

```
  def reduceLeft(op: (T, T) => T): T = this match  
    case Nil      => throw IllegalArgumentException("Nil.reduceLeft")  
    case x :: xs => xs.foldLeft(x)(op)
```

```
  def foldLeft[U](z: U)(op: (U, T) => U): U = this match  
    case Nil      => z  
    case x :: xs => xs.foldLeft(op(z, x))(op)
```


FoldRight and ReduceRight

Uses of foldLeft and reduceLeft unfold on trees that lean to the left.

They have two dual functions, foldRight and reduceRight, which produce trees which lean to the right, i.e.,

```
List(x1, ..., x{n-1}, xn).reduceRight(op)
```

```
==
```

```
x1.op(x2.op( ... x{n-1}.op(xn) ... ))
```

```
List(x1, ..., xn).foldRight(z)(op )
```

```
==
```

```
x1.op(x2.op( ... xn.op(z) ... ))
```

Implementation of FoldRight and ReduceRight

They are defined as follows

```
def reduceRight(op: (T, T) => T): T = this match
  case Nil      => throw UnsupportedOperationException("Nil.reduceRight")
  case x :: Nil => x
  case x :: xs  => op(x, xs.reduceRight(op))

def foldRight[U](z: U)(op: (T, U) => U): U = this match
  case Nil      => z
  case x :: xs  => op(x, xs.foldRight(z)(op))
```

Difference between FoldLeft and FoldRight

For operators that are associative and commutative, `foldLeft` and `foldRight` are equivalent (though there may be a difference in efficiency).

But sometimes, only one of the two operators is appropriate.

Exercise

Here is another formulation of concat:

```
def concat[T](xs: List[T], ys: List[T]): List[T] =  
  xs.foldRight(ys)(_ :: _)
```

Here, it isn't possible to replace foldRight by foldLeft. Why?

- ☐ The types would not work out
- ☐ The resulting function would not terminate
- ☐ The result would be reversed

Exercise

Here is another formulation of concat:

```
def concat[T](xs: List[T], ys: List[T]): List[T] =  
  xs.foldRight(ys)(_ :: _)
```

Here, it isn't possible to replace foldRight by foldLeft. Why?

- X The types would not work out
- 0 The resulting function would not terminate
- 0 The result would be reversed

Back to Reversing Lists

We now develop a function for reversing lists which has a linear cost.

The idea is to use the operation `foldLeft`:

```
def reverse[T](xs: List[T]): List[T] = xs.foldLeft(z?)(op?)
```

All that remains is to replace the parts `z?` and `op?`.

Let's try to *calculate* them from examples.

Deduction of Reverse (1)

To start calculating $z?$, let's consider $\text{reverse}(\text{Nil})$.

We know $\text{reverse}(\text{Nil}) == \text{Nil}$, so we can calculate as follows:

`Nil`

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`Nil`

`= reverse(Nil)`

Deduction of Reverse (1)

To start calculating $z?$, let's consider `reverse(Nil)`.

We know `reverse(Nil) == Nil`, so we can calculate as follows:

`Nil`

`= reverse(Nil)`

`= Nil.foldLeft(z?)(op)`

Deduction of Reverse (1)

To start calculating $z?$, let's consider $\text{reverse}(\text{Nil})$.

We know $\text{reverse}(\text{Nil}) == \text{Nil}$, so we can calculate as follows:

`Nil`

`= reverse(Nil)`

`= Nil.foldLeft(z?)(op)`

`= z?`

Consequently, $z? = \text{Nil}$

Deduction of Reverse (2)

We still need to calculate `op?`. To do that let's plug in the next simplest list after `Nil` into our equation for reverse:

`x :: Nil`

Deduction of Reverse (2)

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Deduction of Reverse (2)

We still need to calculate `op?`. To do that let's plug in the next simplest list after `Nil` into our equation for reverse:

`x :: Nil`

`= reverse(x :: Nil)`

`= (x :: Nil).foldLeft(Nil)(op?)`

Deduction of Reverse (2)

We still need to calculate `op?`. To do that let's plug in the next simplest list after `Nil` into our equation for `reverse`:

`x :: Nil`

`= reverse(x :: Nil)`

`= (x :: Nil).foldLeft(Nil)(op?)`

`= op?(Nil, x)`

Consequently, `op?(Nil, x) = x :: Nil`.

This suggests to take for `op?` the operator `::` but with its operands swapped.

Deduction of Reverse(3)

We thus arrive at the following implementation of reverse.

```
def reverse[T](xs: List[T]): List[T] =  
  xs.foldLeft[List[T]](Nil)((xs, x) => x :: xs)
```

Q: What is the complexity of this implementation of reverse ?

Deduction of Reverse(3)

We thus arrive at the following implementation of reverse.

```
def reverse[T](xs: List[T]): List[T] =  
  xs.foldLeft[List[T]](Nil)((xs, x) => x :: xs)
```

Q: What is the complexity of this implementation of reverse ?

A: Linear in xs

Exercise

Complete the following definitions of the basic functions `map` and `length` on lists, such that their implementation uses `foldRight`:

```
def mapFun[T, U](xs: List[T], f: T => U): List[U] =  
  xs.foldRight(List())( ??? )
```

```
def lengthFun[T](xs: List[T]): Int =  
  xs.foldRight(0)( ??? )
```

Exercise

Complete the following definitions of the basic functions `map` and `length` on lists, such that their implementation uses `foldRight`:

```
def mapFun[T, U](xs: List[T], f: T => U): List[U] =  
  xs.foldRight(Nil)((y, ys) => f(y) :: ys)
```

```
def lengthFun[T](xs: List[T]): Int =  
  xs.foldRight(0)((y, n) => n + 1)
```