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Welcome to Software Foundations
         University of Luxembourg
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         Bachelor in Computer Sciences (BICS)
         Semester 3
         Lecture - Week #3
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         Recap of Lecture #2

    Conditionals

              if-then-else statements
              guarded equations
              case expressions
          • Infinite lists and lazy evaluation
          Types
              ■ Bool, Char, Int (bounded), Integer (unbounded), Float, Double, ...

    Type checking at compile time

              Polymorphism
              Type classes

    Local definitions

              where
              ■ let ... in ...
         Recursion
         Recursion plays a central role in Haskell, and is also used throughout computer science and mathematics. It is essentially
         a mechanism for looping.
                      A visual form of recursion known as the Droste effect, named after a Dutch brand of cocoa.
         We have seen that many functions can naturally be defined in terms of other functions.
             factorial n = product [1..n]
         In Haskell, it is also permissible to define functions in terms of themselves, in which case the functions are called
         recursive. For example, we've also seen that the factorial function can be defined as follows:
             factorial 0 = 1
             factorial n = n * factorial (n-1)

    The first equation defines the base case.

          • The second equation defines the function factorial in terms of itself.
         Why recursive functions?

    We can't use cycles in a purely functional language because we can't modify variables.

    The only functional way to express repetition is to use recursion.

    Fortunately, any algorithm that can be written with cycles can also be written with recursive functions.

    Defining functions in terms of themselves can lead to elegant and concise solutions to many problems.

    Haskell has a strong type system, which helps ensure that recursive functions are well-defined and terminate,

             making it a safer language for recursive programming.
         Recursion over lists

    Recursion is not exclusive to functions on integers, but can also be used to define functions on lists.

         Examples
             product :: [Int] -> Int
             product [] = 1
             product (x:xs) = x * product xs
             length :: [a] -> Int
             length []
             length (:xs) = 1 + length xs
         Recursive functions with mutiple arguments
         Functions with multiple arguments can also be defined using recursion on more than one argument at the same time.
         Example
             zip :: [a] -> [b] -> [(a, b)]
             zip_{[]} = []
             zip [] _ = []
             zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : zip xs ys
         Multiple recursion
         A function may also be applied more than once in its own definition, resulting in a multiple recursion definition.
         Example
             fib :: Int -> Int
             fib 0 = 0
             fib 1 = 1
             fib n = fib (n-2) + fib (n-1)
         Mutual recursion
         The classic example is the isEven and isOdd functions, which determine if a given number is even or odd.
             isEven 0 = True
             isEven n = isOdd (n-1)
             isOdd 0 = False
             isOdd n = isEven (n-1)
         Quicksort

    Quicksort is an efficient, general-purpose sorting algorithm.

    It can be defined recursively to sort a list:

              If the list is empty, then the list is already sorted.
              If the list is not empty, let x be the head of the list and xs the tail of the list in
                  1. Recursively sort all element in xs that are smaller than x.
                  2. Recursively sort all element in xs that are greater than x.
                  3. Concatenate the two lists with x in the middle.
In [ ]: quicksort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
         quicksort [] = []
         quicksort (x:xs) = quicksort smallerThanX ++ [x] ++ quicksort biggerThanX
             smallerThanX = [v | v \leftarrow xs, v \leftarrow x]
             biggerThanX = [v | v \leftarrow xs, v >= x]
         quicksort [5,2,4,9,10,13]
         quicksort "Programming Fundamentals 3"
         -- mergesort: exercise at home
         [2,4,5,9,10,13]
           3FPaaadeggilmmmnnnorrstu"
         Step by step
         Let's break down the execution step by step:
             qsort [5,2,4,9,10,13]
             = qsort [2,4] ++ [5] ++ qsort [9,10,13]
             = (qsort [] ++ [2] ++ qsort [4]) ++ [5] ++ (qsort [] ++ [9] ++ qsort [10,13])
             = (qsort [] ++ [2] ++ qsort [4]) ++ [5] ++ (qsort [] ++ [9] ++ (qsort [] ++ [10] ++
             qsort [13]))
             = [2,4,5,9,10,13]
         Recap of different recursive examples

    Recursion on integers

    Recursion on lists

    Recursive functions with multiple arguments

    Multiple recursion

    Mutual recursion

         How to do recursion
         The 5-step process to write recursive functions
         1) Define the type of the function 2) Enumerate the cases 3) Define the simple cases 4) Define the other cases 5)
         Generalize and simplify
         Example 1
         Let's try out the 5-step process by re-defining the Prelude function drop that removes a given number of elements
         from the start of a list.
         Example 1: Step 1
         Let's try out the 5-step process by re-defining the Prelude function drop that removes a given number of elements
         from the start of a list.
         Step 1: Define the type of the function
             drop' :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
         Example 1: Step 2
         Let's try out the 5-step process by re-defining the Prelude function drop that removes a given number of elements
         from the start of a list.
         Step 2: Enumerate the cases
             drop' :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
             drop' 0 [] =
             drop' 0 (x:xs) =
             drop' n []
             drop' n (x:xs) =
         Example 1: Step 3
         Let's try out the 5-step process by re-defining the Prelude function drop that removes a given number of elements
         from the start of a list.
         Step 3: Define the simple cases
             drop' :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
             drop' 0 [] = []
             drop' \emptyset (x:xs) = (x:xs)
             drop'n[] = []
             drop' n (x:xs) =
         Example 1: Step 4
         Let's try out the 5-step process by re-defining the Prelude function drop that removes a given number of elements
         from the start of a list.
         Step 4: Define the other cases
             drop' :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
             drop' 0 [] = []
             drop' 0 (x:xs) = (x:xs)
             drop' n [] = []
             drop' n (x:xs) = drop' (n-1) xs
         Example 1: Step 5
         Let's try out the 5-step process by re-defining the Prelude function drop that removes a given number of elements
         from the start of a list.
         Step 5: Generalize and simplify
         Generalize
             drop' :: Integral b => b -> [a] -> [a]
             drop' 0 []
                              = []
             drop' 0 (x:xs) = (x:xs)
             drop'n[] = []
             drop' n (x:xs) = drop' (n-1) xs
         Simplify
             drop' :: Integral b => b -> [a] -> [a]
             drop' 0 xs
                              = xs
             drop'_[] = []
             drop' n (\_:xs) = drop' (n-1) xs
         How to do recursion (cont.)
         Example 2
         Because we don't have loops in Haskell, it's really important to understand recursion for repetition. Let us give another
         try at the 5-step process by re-defining Prelude function init that removes the last element of a list.
         Example 2: Step 1
         Because we don't have loops in Haskell, it's really important to understand recursion for repetition. Let us give another
         try at the 5-step process by re-defining Prelude functino init that removes the last element of a list.
         Step 1: Define the type of the function Lists can be of any type.
             init' :: [a] -> [a]
         Example 2: Step 2
         Because we don't have loops in Haskell, it's really important to understand recursion for repetition. Let us give another
         try at the 5-step process by re-defining Prelude functino init that removes the last element of a list.
         Step 2: Enumerate the cases We cannot remove the last element of a list if the list if already empty. Therefore, we only
         have one case.
             init' :: [a] -> [a]
             init'(x:xs) =
         Example 2: Step 3
         Because we don't have loops in Haskell, it's really important to understand recursion for repetition. Let us give another
         try at the 5-step process by re-defining Prelude functino init that removes the last element of a list.
         Step 3: Define the simple cases
         If x is the last element of the list, return an empty list.
             init' :: [a] -> [a]
             init'(x:xs) \mid null xs = []
                            | otherwise =
         Example 2: Step 4
         Because we don't have loops in Haskell, it's really important to understand recursion for repetition. Let us give another
         try at the 5-step process by re-defining Prelude functino init that removes the last element of a list.
         Step 4: Define the other cases
         Otherwise we keep x and remove the last element from xs.
             init' :: [a] -> [a]
             init' (x:xs) | null xs = []
                            | otherwise = x : init' xs
         Example 2: Step 5
         Because we don't have loops in Haskell, it's really important to understand recursion for repetition. Let us give another
         try at the 5-step process by re-defining Prelude functino init that removes the last element of a list.
         Step 5: Generalize and simplify
         Type is already generalized, so nothing to do in that regard.
             init' :: [a] -> [a]
             init'(x:xs) \mid null xs = []
                            | otherwise = x : init' xs
         Instead of using guards, we could enumerate the case where the list only has 1 element.
             init' :: [a] -> [a]
             init' [_] = []
             init'(x:xs) = x : init'xs
         Exercises 🐔
         (1) Growth of a Population
          https://www.codewars.com/kata/563b662a59afc2b5120000c6
         (2) Multiples of 3 or 5
          https://projecteuler.net/problem=1
In [ ]: -- problem 1
         nbYears :: Int -> Float -> Int -> Int -> Int
         nbYears p0 percent aug p
              p0 >= p = 0
               otherwise = 1 + nbYears (floor (fromIntegral p0 * (1 + percent/100)) + aug) percent aug p
         nbYears 1000 2 50 1200
         -- problem 2
         sum [x | x < [1..999], (x \mod 3 == 0) | (x \mod 5 == 0)]
         233168
         Questions from the class?
         Question: The generalized signature type of quicksort is quicksort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]. Why generic
         type a has to be constrained on typeclass 0rd?
         Answer: The Ord class is used for totally ordered datatypes. Data types that are instances of Ord are guaranteed to
         be applicable to the following functions:
             class Eq a => Ord a where
                  compare :: a -> a -> Ordering
                  (<) :: a -> a -> Bool
                  (<=) :: a -> a -> Bool
                  (>) :: a -> a -> Bool
                  (>=) :: a -> a -> Bool
                  max :: a -> a -> a
                  min :: a -> a -> a
         Our quicksort function makes use of (<=) and (>), thus a has to be constrained on class Ord. In simple
         terms: we can only sort 'things' that have an order. It happens that all data types we've seen so far are instances of class
         Ord, but we will see later on that we can create our own data types and comparison is not granted unless we make
         those new data types instances of Ord.
         <u>Question</u>: How is quicksort different from mergesort?
         Answer: quicksort takes the head of the list and splits the tail into two sublist of elements based on the critea 'less or
         equal' or 'greater than' the head, and then recursively applies itself to these sublists and places the head in between
         these two sorted lists. In the base case, the empty list is always sorted.
         mergesort splits the list to be sorted into two halves, recursively applies itself to the sublists and merges the two
         sublists together, which is an easy task since these are now sorted. In the base case, an empty list and a list with a single
         element is always sorted. Here is a possible implementation of mergesort:
            mergesort :: 0rd a => [a] -> [a]
            mergesort [] = []
            mergesort [x] = [x]
            mergesort xs = let (left, right) = split xs
                               in merge (mergesort left) (mergesort right)
             split :: [a] -> ([a], [a])
             split xs = splitAt (length xs `div` 2) xs
             merge :: 0rd a => [a] -> [a] -> [a]
             merge [] ys = ys
            merge xs[] = xs
             merge (x:xs) (y:ys)
                  | x \le y = x : merge xs (y:ys)
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| otherwise = y : merge (x:xs) ys