

# **BFNP – Functional Programming**

Lecture 4: Collections: Lists, maps and sets

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These slides are based on original slides by Michael R. Hansen, DTU. Thanks!!!



The original slides has been used at a course in functional programming at DTU.

#### Motivation



#### Higher-order functions are

everywhere

$$\sum_{i=a}^{b} f(i), \frac{df}{dx}, \{x \in A \mid P(x)\}, \dots$$

powerful

Parameterized modules succinct code ...

The collections, List, Maps and Sets share these properties

- expose natural abstract concepts; and may be viewed as design patterns in the small.
- efficient code reuse because functions can be used and combined in many ways
- the data structures are immuttable.
- the same design patterns are used across the libraries

### HIGHER-ORDER FUNCTIONS ARE USEFUL



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#### now down to earth

Many recursive declarations follows the same schema.

### For example:

### Succinct declarations achievable using higher-order functions

#### Contents

- Higher-order list functions (in the library)
  - map
  - · exists, forall, filter, tryFind
  - · foldBack, fold

Avoid (almost) identical code fragments by parameterizing functions with functions

# A simple declaration of a list function



# A typical declaration following the structure of lists:

Applies the function fun  $x \rightarrow x > 0$  to each element in a list

### Another declaration with the same structure



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Applies the addition function + to each pair of integers in a list

# The function: map



#### Applies a function to each element in a list

```
map f[v_1; v_2; ...; v_n] = [f(v_1); f(v_2); ...; f(v_n)]
```

#### Declaration

# Library function

### Succinct declarations can be achieved using map, e.g.

```
let posList = map (fun x -> x > 0);;
val posList : int list -> bool list
let addElems = map (fun (x,y) -> x+y);;
val addElems : (int * int) list -> int list
```

# Does map always run through the entire list, assuming f returns a value?

### Exercise



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### Declare a function

g 
$$[x_1,\ldots,x_n] = [x_1^2+1,\ldots,x_n^2+1]$$

### Remember

map 
$$f[v_1; v_2; ...; v_n] = [f(v_1); f(v_2); ...; f(v_n)]$$

# Higher-order list functions: exists



Predicate: For some x in xs: p(x).

exists 
$$p \ xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true for some } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Declaration

Library function

```
let rec exists p = function
  | [] -> false
  \mid x::xs \rightarrow p x \mid \mid exists p xs;;
val exists : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool
```

### Example

```
exists (fun x \rightarrow x>=2) [1; 3; 1; 4];;
val it : bool = true
```

Does exists always run through the entire list, assuming p returns a value?

#### Exercise



# Declare isMember function using exists.

```
let isMember x ys = exists ????? ;;
val isMember : 'a -> 'a list -> bool when 'a : equality
```

#### Remember

exists 
$$p \ xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true for some } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Higher-order list functions: forall



Predicate: For every x in xs: p(x).

forall 
$$p xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true, for all elements } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Declaration

# Library function

```
let rec forall p = function
    | []     -> true
    | x::xs -> p x && forall p xs;;
val forall : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool
```

### Example

```
forall (fun x -> x>=2) [1; 3; 1; 4];;
val it : bool = false
```

Does for all always run through the entire list, assuming p returns a value?

#### Exercises



#### Declare a function

which is true when there are no common elements in the lists xs and ys, and false otherwise.

#### Declare a function

which is true when every element in the lists xs is in ys, and false otherwise.

#### Remember

for all 
$$p xs = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } p(x) = \text{true, for all elements } x \text{ in } xs \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Higher-order list functions: filter



```
Set comprehension: \{x \in xs : p(x)\}
```

filter p xs is the list of those elements x of xs where p(x) = true.

#### Declaration

Library function

### Example

```
filter System.Char.IsLetter ['1'; 'p'; 'F'; '-'];;
val it : char list = ['p'; 'F']
```

where System.Char.IsLetter c is true iff  $c \in \{'A', \ldots, 'Z'\} \cup \{'a', \ldots, 'z'\}$ 

Does filter always run through the entire list, assuming *p* returns a value?

### Exercise



### Declare a function

#### inter XS YS

which contains the common elements of the lists xs and ys — i.e. their intersection.

#### Remember:

filter p xs is the list of those elements x of xs where p(x) = true.

# Higher-order list functions: tryFind



```
\operatorname{tryFind} p \, xs = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{Some} x & \text{for an element } x \text{ of } xs \text{ with } p(x) = \operatorname{true} \\ \operatorname{None} & \text{if no such element exists} \end{array} \right.
```

```
tryFind (fun x \rightarrow x>3) [1;5;-2;8];; val it : int option = Some 5
```

Does tryFind always run through the entire list, assuming p returns a value?

# Folding a function over a list (I)



### Example: sum of norms of geometric vectors:

```
let norm(x1:float,y1:float) = sqrt(x1*x1+y1*y1);;
val norm : float * float -> float
let rec sumOfNorms = function
    | | | | -> 0.0
    | v::vs -> norm v + sumOfNorms vs;;
val sumOfNorms : (float * float) list -> float
let vs = [(1.0,2.0); (2.0,1.0); (2.0,5.5)];;
val vs : (float * float) list
       = [(1.0, 2.0); (2.0, 1.0); (2.0, 5.5)]
sumOfNorms vs;;
val it : float = 10.32448591
```

# Folding a function over a list (II)



```
let rec sumOfNorms = function
    | [] -> 0.0
    | v::vs -> norm v + sumOfNorms vs;;
```

Let  $f \vee s$  abbreviate norm v + s in the evaluation:

```
sumofNorms [v_0; v_1; ...; v_{n-1}]

\rightarrow norm v_0 + (\text{sumofNorms}[v_1; ...; v_{n-1}])

= f v_0 (\text{sumofNorms}[v_1; ...; v_{n-1}])

\rightarrow f v_0 (f v_1 (\text{sumofNorms}[v_2; ...; v_{n-1}]))

\vdots

\rightarrow f v_0 (f v_1 (...(f v_{n-1} 0.0)...))
```

This repeated application of f is also called a folding of f.

Many functions follow such recursion and evaluation schemes

# Higher-order list functions: foldBack (1)



### Suppose that $\otimes$ is an infix function. Then

```
foldBack (\otimes) [a_0; a_1; ...; a_{n-2}; a_{n-1}] e_b
= a_0 \otimes (a_1 \otimes (... (a_{n-2} \otimes (a_{n-1} \otimes e_b))...))
List.foldBack (+) [1; 2; 3] 0 = 1 + (2 + (3 + 0)) = 6
List.foldBack (-) [1; 2; 3] 0 = 1 - (2 - (3 - 0)) = 2
```

### Using the cons operator gives the append function @ on lists:

```
foldBack (fun x rst -> x::rst) [X_0; X_1; ...; X_{n-1}] ys = X_0::(X_1:: ...; (X_{n-1}::ys) ...)) = [X_0; X_1; ...; X_{n-1}] @ ys
```

### so we get:

```
let (@) xs ys = List.foldBack (fun x rst -> x::rst) xs ys;;
val (@): 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list

[1;2] @ [3;4];;
val it: int list = [1: 2: 3: 4]
```

### Declaration of foldBack



```
let rec foldBack f xlst e =
     match xlst with
     | x::xs -> f x (foldBack f xs e)
     | [] -> e ;;
   val foldBack : ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b -> 'b
let sumOfNorms vs = foldBack (fun v s -> norm v + s) vs 0.0;;
let length xs = foldBack (fun _ n -> n+1) xs 0;;
let map f xs = foldBack (fun x rs -> f x :: rs) xs [];;
```

Does foldBack always run through the entire list, assuming *f* returns a value?

### Exercise: union of sets



### Let an insertion function be declared by

```
let insert x ys = if isMember x ys then ys else x::ys;;
```

Declare a union function on sets, where a set is represented by a list without duplicated elements.

#### Remember:

```
\texttt{foldBack} \; (\oplus) \, [x_1; x_2; \ldots; x_n] \; b \; \rightsquigarrow \; x_1 \oplus (x_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus (x_n \oplus b) \cdots)
```

# Higher-order list functions: fold (1)



Suppose that  $\oplus$  is an infix function.

Then the fold function has the definitions:

```
fold (\oplus) e_a [b_0; b_1; \dots; b_{n-2}; b_{n-1}]
= ((\dots((e_a \oplus b_0) \oplus b_1) \dots) \oplus b_{n-2}) \oplus b_{n-1}
```

i.e. it applies 

from left to right.

### Examples:

List.fold (-) 0 [1; 2; 3] = 
$$((0-1)-2)-3 = -6$$
  
List.foldBack (-) [1; 2; 3] 0 =  $1-(2-(3-0)) = 2$ 

# Higher-order list functions: fold (2)



```
let rec fold f e = function
  | x::xs -> fold f (f e x) xs
  | []    -> e ;;
val fold : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a
```

# Using cons in connection with fold gives the reverse function:

```
let rev xs = fold (fun rs x -> x::rs) [] xs;;
```

#### This function has a linear execution time:

```
rev [1;2;3]

→ fold (fun ...) [] [1;2;3]

→ fold (fun ...) (1::[]) [2;3]

→ fold (fun ...) [1] [2;3]

→ fold (fun ...) (2::[1]) [3]

→ fold (fun ...) [2;1] [3]

→ fold (fun ...) (3::[2;1]) []

→ fold (fun ...) [3;2;1] []

→ [3:2:1]
```

# Summary



Many recursive declarations follows the same schema.

# For example:

### Succinct declarations achievable using higher-order functions

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- Higher-order list functions (in the library)
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Avoid (almost) identical code fragments by parameterizing functions with functions

### Overview



Sets and Maps as abstract data types

- Useful in the modelling and solution of many problems
- · Many similarities with the list library

Recommendation: Use these libraries whenever it is appropriate.

# The set concept (1)



A set (in mathematics) is a collection of element like

$$\{Bob,Bill,Ben\},\{1,3,5,7,9\},\mathbb{N},\text{and }\mathbb{R}$$

- the sequence in which elements are enumerated is of no concern, and
- repetitions among members of a set is of no concern either

It is possible to decide whether a given value is in the set.

Alice 
$$\not\in \{Bob, Bill, Ben\}$$
 and  $7 \in \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ 

The empty set containing no element is written  $\{\}$  or  $\emptyset$ .

# The sets concept (2)



A set A is a *subset* of a set B, written  $A \subseteq B$ , if all the elements of A are also elements of B, for example

$$\{Ben, Bob\} \subseteq \{Bob, Bill, Ben\}$$
 and  $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ 

Two sets A and B are equal, if they are both subsets of each other:

$$A = B$$
 if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ 

i.e. two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements.

The subset of a set A which consists of those elements satisfying a predicate p can be expressed using a *set-comprehension*:

$$\{x \in A \mid p(x)\}$$

For example:

$$\{1,3,5,7,9\} = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{odd}(x) \text{ and } x < 11\}$$

# The set concept (3)



### Some standard operations on sets:

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$
 union  $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$  intersection  $A \setminus B = \{x \in A \mid x \notin B\}$  difference

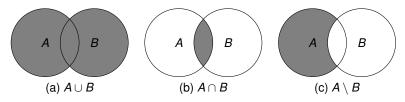


Figure: Venn diagrams for (a) union, (b) intersection and (c) difference

#### For example

```
 \{Bob, Bill, Ben\} \cup \{Alice, Bill, Ann\} = \{Alice, Ann, Bob, Bill, Ben\} \\ \{Bob, Bill, Ben\} \cap \{Alice, Bill, Ann\} = \{Bill\} \\ \{Bob, Bill, Ben\} \setminus \{Alice, Bill, Ann\} = \{Bob, Ben\}
```

# Abstract Data Types



An abstract Data Type: A type together with a collection of operations, where

• the representation of values is hidden.

An abstract data type for sets must have:

- Operations to generate sets from the elements. Why?
- Operations to extract the elements of a set. Why?
- Standard operations on sets.

#### Sets in F#



The Set library of F# supports finite sets. An efficient implementation is based on a balanced binary tree.

### Examples:

```
set ["Bob"; "Bill"; "Ben"];;
val it : Set<string> = set ["Ben"; "Bill"; "Bob"]
set [3; 1; 9; 5; 7; 9; 1];;
val it : Set<int> = set [1; 3; 5; 7; 9]
```

### Equality of two sets is tested in the usual manner:

```
set["Bob";"Bill";"Ben"] = set["Bill";"Ben";"Bill";"Bob"];;
val it : bool = true
```

### Sets are ordered on the basis of a lexicographical ordering:

```
compare (set ["Ann";"Jane"]) (set ["Bill";"Ben";"Bob"]);;
val it : int = -1
```

# Selected operations (1)



- ofList: 'a list -> Set<'a>. where ofList  $[a_0; ...; a_{n-1}] = \{a_0; ...; a_{n-1}\}$
- toList: Set<'a> -> 'a list. where to List  $\{a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}\} = [a_0; \ldots; a_{n-1}]$
- add: 'a -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>. where add  $a A = \{a\} \cup A$
- remove: 'a -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>, where remove  $a A = A \setminus \{a\}$
- contains: 'a -> Set<'a> -> bool. where contains  $aA = a \in A$
- minElement: Set<'a> -> 'a) where minElement  $\{a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-2}, a_{n-1}\} = a_0$  when n > 0

### Notice that minElement is well-defined due to the ordering:

```
Set.minElement (Set.ofList ["Bob"; "Bill"; "Ben"]);;
val it : string = "Ben"
```

# Selected operations (2)



- union: Set<'a> -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>. where union  $AB = A \cup B$
- intersect: Set<'a> -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>. where intersect  $AB = A \cap B$
- difference: Set<'a> -> Set<'a> -> Set<'a>. where difference  $AB = A \setminus B$
- exists: ('a -> bool) -> Set<'a> -> bool, where exists  $p A = \exists x \in A . p(x)$
- forall: ('a -> bool) -> Set<'a> -> bool. where forall  $p A = \forall x \in A . p(x)$
- fold: ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> Set<'b> -> 'a. where

fold 
$$f$$
 a  $\{b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-2}, b_{n-1}\}$   
=  $f(f(f(\dots f(f(a, b_0), b_1), \dots), b_{n-2}), b_{n-1})$ 

These work similar to their List siblings, e.g.

Set.fold (-) 0 (set [1; 2; 3]) = 
$$((0-1)-2)-3=-6$$

where the ordering is exploited.

30

# Example: Map Coloring (1)



### Maps and colors are modelled in a more natural way using sets:

```
type country = string;;
type map = Set<country*country>;;
type color = Set<country>;;
type coloring = Set<color>;;
```

WHY?

```
Two countries c_1, c_2 are neighbors in a map m, if either (c_1, c_2) \in m or (c_2, c_1) \in m:
```

```
let areNb c1 c2 m =
   Set.contains (c1,c2) m || Set.contains (c2,c1) m;;
```

Color col can be extended by a country c given map m, if for every country c' in col: c and c' are not neighbours in m

```
let canBeExtBy m col c =
   Set.forall (fun c' -> not (areNb c' c m)) col;;
```

# Example: Map Coloring (2)



#### The function

```
extColoring: map -> coloring -> country -> coloring
```

is declared as a recursive function over the coloring:

```
let rec extColoring m cols c =
   if Set.isEmpty cols
   then Set.singleton (Set.singleton c)
   else let col = Set.minElement cols
        let cols' = Set.remove col cols
        if canBeExtBy m col c
        then Set.add (Set.add c col) cols'
        else Set.add col (extColoring m cols' c);;
```

### Notice similarity to a list recursion:

- base case [] corresponds to the empty set
- for a recursive case x::xs, the head x corresponds to the minimal element col and the tail xs corresponds to the "rests" set cols'

# Example: Map Coloring (3)



#### The list-based version, from last lecture:

### The set-based version:

```
let rec extColoring m cols c =
   if Set.isEmpty cols
   then Set.singleton (Set.singleton c)
   else let col = Set.minElement cols
        let cols' = Set.remove col cols
        if canBeExtBy m col c
        then Set.add (Set.add c col) cols'
        else Set.add col (extColoring m cols' c)
```

The list-based version is more efficient (why?) and more readable.

# Example: Map Coloring (4)



A set of countries is obtained from a map by the function:

```
countries: map -> Set<country>
```

that is based on repeated insertion of the countries into a set:

```
let countries m =
   Set.fold
    (fun set (c1,c2) -> Set.add c1 (Set.add c2 set))
    Set.empty
    m
```

#### The function

```
colCntrs: map -> Set<country> -> coloring
```

is based on repeated insertion of countries in colorings using the extColoring function:

```
let colCntrs m cs = Set.fold (extColoring m) Set.empty cs
Type of Set.fold:
    (('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> Set<'b> -> 'a)
```

# Example: Map Coloring (5)



The function that creates a coloring from a map is declared using functional composition:

# The map concept



A map from a set A to a set B is a finite subset A' of A together with a function m defined on  $A': m: A' \to B$ .

The set A' is called the *domain* of m: dom m = A'.

A map *m* can be described in a tabular form:

$a_0$	<b>b</b> <sub>0</sub>
a <sub>1</sub>	<i>b</i> <sub>1</sub>
	1-
$a_{n-1}$	$b_{n-1}$

- An element  $a_i$  in the set A' is called a kev
- A pair  $(a_i, b_i)$  is called an *entry*, and
- $b_i$  is called the *value* for the key  $a_i$ .

We denote the sets of entries of a map as follows:

entriesOf(
$$m$$
) = { $(a_0, b_0), \dots, (a_{n-1}, b_{n-1})$ }

# Selected map operations in F#



- ofList: ('a\*'b) list -> Map<'a,'b> ofList  $[(a_0,b_0);...;(a_{n-1},b_{n-1})]=m$
- add: 'a -> 'b -> Map<'a,'b> -> Map<'a,'b> add a b m = m', where m' is obtained m by overriding m with the entry (a,b)
- find: 'a → Map<'a,'b> → 'b
  find a m = m(a), if a ∈ dom m;
  otherwise an exception is raised
- tryFind: 'a -> Map<'a,'b> -> 'b option tryFind a m = Some (m(a)), if a ∈ dom m; None otherwise

foldBack: ('a->'b->'c->'c) -> Map<'a,'b> -> 'c->'c foldBack  $f m c = f a_0 b_0 (f a_1 b_1 (f ... (f a_{n-1} b_{n-1} c) ...))$ 

### A few examples



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An entry can be added to a map using add and the value for a key in a map is retrieved using either find or tryFind:

# An example using Map.foldBack



We can extract the list of article codes and prices for a given register using the fold functions for maps:

This and other higher-order functions are similar to their List and Set siblings.

# Example: Cash register (1)



```
type articleCode = string;;
type articleName = string;;
type noPieces = int;;
type price = int;;

type info = noPieces * articleName * price;;
type infoseq = info list;;
type bill = infoseq * price;;
```

### The natural model of a register is using a map:

```
type register = Map<articleCode, articleName*price>;;
```

since an article code is a unique identification of an article.

#### First version:

```
type item = noPieces * articleCode;;
type purchase = item list;;
```

# Example: Cash register (1) - a recursive program



```
exception FindArticle;;
(* makebill: register -> purchase -> bill *)
let rec makeBill reg = function
    -> ([],0)
    | (np,ac)::pur ->
       match Map.tryFind ac reg with
        l None
                        -> raise FindArticle
        | Some (aname, aprice) ->
           let tprice = np*aprice
           let (infos, sumbill) = makeBill reg pur
            ((np,aname,tprice)::infos, tprice+sumbill);;
let pur = [(3, "a2"); (1, "a1")];;
makeBill reg1 pur;;
val it : (int * string * int) list * int =
  ([(3, "herring", 12); (1, "cheese", 25)], 37)
```

• the lookup in the register is managed by a Map.tryFind

# Example: Cash register (2) - using List.foldBack



- the recursion is handled by List.foldBack
- the exception is handled by Map.find

# Example: Cash register (2) - using maps for purchases



The purchase: 3 herrings, one piece of cheese, and 2 herrings, is the same as a purchase of one piece of cheese and 5 herrings.

A purchase associated number of pieces with article codes:

```
type purchase = Map<articleCode,noPieces>;;
```

A bill is produced by folding a function over a map-purchase:

# Summary



- The concepts of sets and maps.
- Fundamental operations on sets and maps.
- Applications of sets and maps.