

Part IA Foundations of Computer Science Notes

1 Recursion and efficiency

- In normal recursion the stack is built up, reducing efficiency
- Adding another **accumulator** argument can make a function **tail recursive** or **iterative**.
 - Tail recursion is only efficient if the compiler detects it
 - Mainly saves space, although it can run faster
- Space complexity never exceeds time complexity, it takes time to do anything with space
- Simple Recurrence Relations:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} T(n+1) & = & T(n) + 1 \\ T(n+1) & = & T(n) + n \\ T(n) & = & T(n/2) + 1 \\ T(n) & = & 2T(n/2) + n \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{l} O(n) \\ O(n^2) \\ O(\log n) \\ O(n \log n) \end{array} \right.$$

- Pattern matching can be done in a function using the **case** keyword, eg.

`1 case E0 of Pat1 => E1 | ... | Patn => En`

2 Lists

- Lists are ordered series of elements, in which repetitions are significant
- Built in functions are:
 - Append (@)
 - Reverse (rev)
 - Cons (::)
- A function can be polymorphic, this allows flexibility in the types of its arguments
- **Type variables** can stand for any type, this are denoted 'a', 'b', etc.
- **Equality type variables** can stand for any type that can be equality tested
 - Are denoted by ''a', ''b', etc.
 - Functions and abstract types can not be equality tested
 - Technically reals can not be equality tested, but a lot of system ignore this
- **Reduction in strength** - When expensive operations are replaced with equivalent but less expensive operations
- The functions **take** and **drop** divide a list into two parts
- The function **member** tests if an element is within a list
- The **zip** function pairs up corresponding elements in a pair of lists, discarding surplus
- The **unzip** function inverts the operation of **zip**

- The `interleave` function combines two lists, eg.

```

1 fun interleave ([], []) = []
2   | interleave (x, []) = x
3   | interleave ([], y) = y
4   | interleave (x::xs, y::ys) = x::y::interleave(xs, ys);

```

3 Strings and Characters

- Characters are represented using a hash symbol, eg. `#"A"`
- A string represented using quotation marks eg. `"Test"`
- The `explode(s)` function converts a string into a list of characters
- The `implode(l)` function converts a list of characters into a string
- The `size(s)` function gives the number of characters in a string
- A carat (^) is used to concatenate two strings

4 Sorting

4.1 Insertion Sort

```

1 fun ins (x:real, []) = [x]
2   | ins (x:real, y::ys) =
3     if x <= y then x::y::ys
4     else y::ins(x, ys);
5
6 fun insort [] = []
7   | insort (x::xs) = ins(x, insort xs);

```

- Repeated inserts elements in the correct position into a sorted list
- Requires $O(n^2)$ comparisons

4.2 Quicksort

```

1 fun quik([], sorted) = sorted
2   | quik([x], sorted) = x::sorted
3   | quik(a::bs, sorted) =
4     let fun part (l, r, []) : real list =
5           quik(l, a::quik(r, sorted))
6         | part (l, r, x::xs) =
7           if x <= a then part(x::l, r, xs)
8           else part(l, x::r, xs)
9     in part([], [], bs) end;

```

- Uses divide and conquer
- Chose a pivot a and partition into two lists, one $\leq a$ and one $> a$
- On average has a complexity of $O(n \log n)$, but has a worst can of $O(n^2)$

4.3 Merge Sort

- Two sorted list can be combined to produce an ordered list, with a complexity of $O(n + m)$, where n and m are the lengths of the two lists
- The `merge` function is used

```

1 fun merge([], ys)      = ys : real list
2   | merge(xs, [])     = xs
3   | merge(x::xs, y::ys) =
4       if x <= y then x::merge(xs, y::ys)
5       else y::merge(x::xs, ys);

```

- Merge sort divides the input into two roughly equal parts, sorts them recursively, and then merges them

```

1 fun tmergesort [] = []
2   | tmergesort [x] = [x]
3   | tmergesort xs =
4       let val k = (length xs) div 2
5           in merge (tmergesort (take (xs, k))),
6                   tmergesort (drop (xs, k)))
7       end;

```

- Merge sort has a worst case of $O(n \log n)$
- Merge sort has a large constant factor, making it slower than quicksort
- Could be improved by passing down the length of the new lists each time

5 Datatypes and Trees

5.1 User Datatypes

- User datatypes can be declared in ML, using the `datatype` keyword
- These can be treated as enumeration types or have data associated with them
- If there is data associated with the type then a constructor is declared
- User datatypes can be pattern matched

5.2 Functional Queues

- FIFO - First-In-First-Out
- Has amortized time per operation of $O(1)$
- Represented by a pair of lists
 - Add new items to rear list
 - Remove items from front list
 - If front list empty move rear to front

- Defined as follows

```

1 datatype 'a queue = Q of 'a list * 'a list;

```

- The function `norm` is used to normalise the queue, it is called every time something is added or removed from the queue, eg.

```

1 fun norm (Q ([], t1s)) = Q (rev t1s, [])
2   | norm q             = q;

```

5.3 Trees

- A data structure with multiple branching is called a tree
- A binary tree is a tree with each node with empty (**Lf**) or is a branch (**Br**) with two children
- A binary tree is declared as follows

```
1 datatype 'a tree = Lf
2           | Br of 'a * 'a tree * 'a tree;
```

- Trees can be traversed in three different ways
 - **Preorder** - Visits the label first, Polish Notation

```
1 fun preord (Lf, vs) = vs
2   | preord (Br (v, t1, t2), vs) =
3     v :: preord (t1, preord (t2, vs));
```

- **Inorder** - Visits the label midway, the sorted list

```
1 fun inord (Lf, vs) = vs
2   | inord (Br (v, t1, t2), vs) =
3     inord (t1, v :: inord (t2, vs));
```

- **Postorder** - Visits the label last, Reverse Polish Notation

```
1 fun postord (Lf, vs) = vs
2   | postord (Br (v, t1, t2), vs) =
3     postord (t1, postord (t2, v :: vs));
```

- Best-first searching uses a priority queue, and orders nodes by some ranking function
 - Can use a sorted list, but slow
 - Better to use a binary search tree
 - Fancier data structures improve on both

5.3.1 Breadth-First Tree Traversal

- Can be done using a list and append - but inefficient
- Instead use a queue

```
1 fun breadth q =
2   if qnull q then []
3   else
4     case ghd q of
5       Lf => breadth (deq q)
6       | Br (v, l, r) => v :: breadth (enq (enq (deq q, l), r));
```

- Unpractical for infinite trees, it uses too much space
- At a depth d in a tree with a branching factor of b , breadth-first search examines $\frac{b^{d+1}-1}{b-1}$ nodes, which is $O(b^d)$

5.3.2 Iterative Deepening

- Combines the space efficiency of depth-first with the nearest-first property of breadth-first search
- It performs depth-first search with increasing depth bounds, ie. examining all at depth 1, then 2
- Discards the result of previous searches

5.4 Dictionaries

- A dictionary is a collection of keys mapped to values
- They have the following functions
 - Lookup - Find an item in the dictionary
 - Update (insert) - Replace (store) an item in the dictionary
 - Delete - Remove an item from the dictionary
 - Empty - The null dictionary
 - Missing - Exception for errors in lookup and delete
- Can be achieved using a list, but inefficient
- Binary search trees are a more efficient way of implementing this
 - For any given node all keys in the left subtree are less than or equal to the node's key and all those in the right subtree are greater than
 - Worst case lookup of $O(n)$, for unbalanced tree
 - The update function only changes the tree along the path from root to insertion point, the rest is unchanged and shared in memory
 - The following update function is used

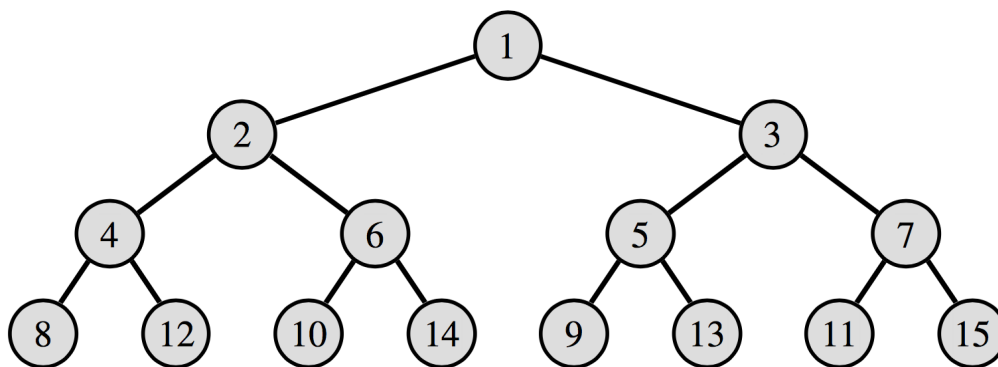
```

1 fun update (Lf, b:string, y) = Br((b,y), Lf, Lf)
2   | update (Br ((a, x), t1, t2), b, y) =
3     if b < a
4     then Br ((a, x), update(t1, b, y), t2)
5     else
6     if a < b
7     then Br ((a, x), t1, update(t2, b, y))
8     else Br ((a, y), t1, t2);

```

5.5 Functional Arrays

- A functional array is a finite map from integers to data
- Each node in a binary tree is labelled with a positive integer, with 1 at the root



- The tree is always balanced because of how elements are inserted into it
- The lookup function divides the subscript by two until 1 is reached. If the remainder is 0 then the function follows the left subtree, otherwise the right
- If the function reaches a leaf, it raises an exception

- The `sub` function is as follows

```

1 exception Subscript;
2
3 fun sub (Lf, _) = raise Subscript
4 | sub (Br (v, t1, t2), k) =
5     if k = 1 then v
6     else if k mod 2 = 0
7           then sub (t1, k div 2)
8           else sub (t2, k div 2);

```

- Subscript can be thought of in binary

- Subscript must be positive and therefore have a leading one, discard this
- Reverse the remaining bits
- Interpret zero as left and one as right, to give the path from root to the subscript

- The `update` function updates the element at that subscript, adding it to the end of the array if required

```

1 fun update (Lf, k, w) =
2     if k = 1 then Br (w, Lf, Lf)
3     else raise Subscript
4 | update (Br (v, t1, t2), k, w) =
5     if k = 1 then Br (w, t1, t2)
6     else if k mod 2 = 0
7           then Br (v, update (t1, k div 2, w), t2)
8           else Br (v, t1, update (t2, k div 2, w));

```

- Using an exception is not easily replaced by `NONE` and `SOME`
- The following function is used to cons an item onto the head of an array

```

1 fun tcons v Lf = Br (v, Lf, Lf)
2 | tcons v (Br (w, t1, t2)) = Br (v, tcons w t2, t1);

```

- The following function converts an array to a list

```

1 fun toList Lf = []
2 | toList (Br(v, l, r)) = v::interleave(toList l, toList r);

```

5.6 Finite Sets

- Represent by repetition-free lists
- Can be implemented using ordered lists

6 Exceptions

- Raising an exception abandons the current computation
- Handling an exception attempts an alternative computation
- Exceptions can be pattern matched
- Exceptions are declared with the `exception` keyword, like datatypes they can have more data associated with them, eg.

```

1 exception Failure;
2 exception NoChange of int;

```

- An exception can be raised with the `raise` keyword, eg.

```

1 raise Failure;
2 raise (NoChange n);

```

- An exception can then be handled with the `handle` keyword, this allows for pattern matching, eg.

```

1 E handle Failure => E1
2 E handle Pat1 => E1 | ... | Patn => En

```

- Exception names are constructors of the datatype `exn`
- An alternative to exceptions is have functions return an option datatype, eg.

```

1 datatype 'a option = NONE | SOME of 'a;

```

– This has the disadvantage of having to test for `NONE` in code

- Exceptions can be used to backtrack in code

7 Functions as Values

7.1 Functions as First Class Citizens

- Functions are first class citizens
 - Functions can be passed as arguments to other functions
 - Returned as results
 - **Can not** be tested for equality
- A functional or higher-order function is a function that operates on other functions
- Nameless functions can be declared using `fn` notation

```

1 fn x => E
2
3 fn n => n*n

```

– Can pattern match in nameless functions, eg.

```

1 fn Pat1 => E1 | ... | Patn => En

```

7.2 Curried Functions

- Curried functions return another function as a result
- A function taking multiple arguments can be expressed as nested functions each taking one argument
- A function returning function is just a function of two arguments
- Curried functions allows partial application, providing one argument will return a function requiring one fewer arguments, eg.

```

1 fun foo a b = a * b;
2
3 foo 4 ≡ 4 * b

```

- A function can be got from an operator using the `op<=` keyword, eg. `op<=`
- A polymorphic sort can be made by taking the less than or equal to operator as an argument, eg.

```

1 fun insort lessequal =
2   let fun ins (x, []) = [x]
3       | ins (x, y::ys) =
4         if lessequal(x,y) then x::y::xs
5         else y::ins (x, ys)
6       fun sort [] = []
7       | sort (x::xs) = ins (x, sort xs)
8   in sort end;

```

7.2.1 The Map Function

- `map` applies a function to every element of a list, returning a list of the functions results
- Has the following declaration,

```

1 fun map f [] = []
2   | map f (x::xs) = (f x) :: map f xs;

```

7.2.2 The Exists Function

- Given a predicate the `exists` function tests if it hold for any element in a list
- Has the following declaration,

```

1 fun exists p [] = false
2   | exists p (x::xs) = (p x) orelse (exists p xs);

```

7.2.3 The Filter Function

- Given a predicate the `filter` function returns a list of all elements in an input list that satisfy the predicate
- Has the following declaration,

```

1 fun filter p [] = []
2   | filter p (x::xs) =
3     if (p x) then x::filter p xs
4     else filter p xs;

```

8 Lazy Lists

- Lists of possibly infinite length
- Element computed upon demand
- Laziness implemented by delaying evaluation of the tail
- Avoids waste if there are many solutions
- Evaluation of the tail is called forcing the sequence
- Defined as follows

```

1 datatype 'a seq = Nil
2   | Cons of 'a * (unit -> 'a seq);

```

- The function `fn() => E` will delay evaluation until a unit is passed to it
- The following defines an infinite sequence of integers starting at k

```

1 fun from k = Cons (k, fn () => from (k + 1));

```

- The function `get`, is passed an integer n and a sequence, it returns the first n elements of the sequence as a list
- The lazy list append function will never get to its second argument if the first sequence is infinite
- The function `interleave` will combine two potentially infinite lazy lists, eg.

```
1 fun interleave (Nil,      yq) = yq
2   | interleave (Cons (x, xf), yq) = Cons (x, fn () => interleave (yq, xf()));
```

- The list functions `filter` and `map` can be altered to work with sequences, giving `filterq` and `mapq` respectively

9 Procedural Programming

9.1 Commands

- Procedural programs can change the state of the machine
- They can interact with its environment
- They use data abstractions of the computer's memory
 - References to memory cells
 - Arrays, blocks of memory cells
 - Linked structures, especially linked lists
- References point to mutable areas in memory, assignment never changes `val` bindings, which are immutable
- Calling `ref` will allocate a new location in memory, with a type τ `ref`, where τ is a type
- The function `!` will return the contents of a reference, eg. `!P`
- The function `:=` updates the contents of a reference, eg. `P := E`
- To allocate the number 1 and increment it, the following must be done,

```
1 val i = ref 1;
2 i := !i + 1;
```

- Commands are expressions that has an effect on the state of the machine, eg. update references, perform I/O etc.
 - A typical command returns an empty tuple, `()`
 - `C1; ... ;Cn` causes a series of expressions to be evaluated and returns the value of `Cn`

9.2 Iteration

- The `while` loop tests a Boolean conditions and executes the body while this condition is true
- Has the following syntax


```
1 while B do C
```
- This is a command and returns an empty tuple `()`
- If chained must be followed by a semicolon `;`

9.3 Arrays

- Arrays are like references that hold several values
- Arrays are zero indexed
- Arrays have a type τ `Array.array`
- An array is created using the `Array.tabulate(n, f)` function, where `n` is the size of the array and `f` is a function such that `A[i] = f(i)`
- The function `Array.sub(A, i)` returns the contents of `A[i]`
- The command `Array.update(A, i, E)` updates `A[i]` to the value `E`