15 Design Pattern: Streams

We last two lectures ago that subtyping multiple types is useful for code reuse. One special case of this is when you want your ADT to provide one or more of what we might call “standardized interfaces”. For instance, most aggregates structures (lists, trees, graphs, arrays, queues, stacks, etc) provide ways of traversing the structure and getting one’s hands on all the elements in it, in some order.

15.1 Streams for Aggregate Structures

Let’s look at one such way. We will use streams of values as a way to get at all the elements of an aggregate structure. Think of a stream as a (possibly infinite) list of values. The interface to streams is defined by the following parameterized trait:

```scala
trait Stream[A] {
  def hasElement (): Boolean
  def head (): A
  def tail (): Stream[A]
}
```

As an example, here is how we can have our List[T] ADT implement stream functionality. We start with the standard List[T] ADT, and add the following operations as specified by trait Stream:

```scala
hasElement : () -> Boolean
head : () -> T
tail : () -> Stream[T]
```

with specification:

```scala
empty().hasElement() = false
singleton(i).hasElement() = true
merge(L,M).hasElement() = \begin{cases} 
  \text{true} & \text{if } L\.hasElement() = \text{true or } M\.hasElement() = \text{true} \\
  \text{false} & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases}
```

160
singleton(i).head() = i
merge(L,M).head() = \begin{cases} 
L.head() & \text{if } L.\text{hasElement()} = \text{true} \\
M.\text{head()} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
singleton(i).tail() = empty()
merge(L,M).tail() = \begin{cases} 
\text{merge}(L.\text{tail()}, M) & \text{if } L.\text{hasElement()} = \text{true} \\
M.\text{rest()} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}

Adding this to the List specification, it is easy enough to apply the Interpreter Design Pattern and get an easy implementation:

```scala
object List {


  def singleton[B] (i:B):List[B] = new ListSingleton[B](i)

  def merge[C] (L:List[C], M:List[C]):List[C] = new ListMerge[C](L,M)

private class ListEmpty[T] () extends List[T] {

  def isEmpty ():Boolean = true
  def first ():T = throw new RuntimeException("empty().first()")
  def rest ():List[T] = throw new RuntimeException("empty().rest()")

  def length ():Int = 0

  def hasElement ():Boolean = false
  def head ():T = throw new RuntimeException("empty().head()")
  def tail ():Stream[T] = throw new RuntimeException("empty().tail()")

  override def hashCode ():Int = 41
  override def toString ():String = ""
}

private class ListSingleton[U] (i:U) extends List[U] {

```
def isEmpty ():Boolean = false
def first ():U = i
def rest ():List[U] = List.empty()

def hasElement ():Boolean = true
def head ():U = i
def tail ():Stream[U] = List.empty[U]() // uses an upcast!

def length ():Int = 1

override def hashCode ():Int = 41 + i.hashCode()

override def toString ():String = " " + i.toString()
}

private class ListMerge[V] (L:List[V], M:List[V]) extends List[V] {

def isEmpty ():Boolean =
  (L.isEmpty() && M.isEmpty())

def first ():V =
  if (L.isEmpty())
    M.first()
  else
    L.first()

def rest ():List[V] =
  if (L.isEmpty())
    M.rest()
  else
    List.merge(L.rest(),M)

def length ():Int = L.length() + M.length()

  // uses the intuition that a list is already a finite stream of values
  def hasElement ():Boolean = !(this.isEmpty())
  def head ():V = this.first()
  def tail ():Stream[V] = this.rest() // again, uses an upcast

  override def hashCode ():Int =

abstract class List[T] extends Stream[T] {

  def isEmpty (): Boolean
  def first (): T
  def rest (): List[T]
  def length (): Int

  // stream operations
  def hasElement (): Boolean
  def head (): T
  def tail (): Stream[T]
}

Note that when we are subtyping a single trait, then we use extends instead of with. Let’s illustrate this with several functions that work on streams, such as printAll() that prints the elements from a stream, and sumAll that sums up the elements of a stream of integers.

    def printAll[A] (st: Stream[A]): Unit =
      if (st.hasElement()) {
        println(" ", st.head());
        printAll(st.tail())
      } else
        ()

    def sumAll (st: Stream[Int]): Int =
      if (st.hasElement())
        st.head() + sumAll(st.tail())
      else
        0

We will see that we will be able to reuse all of those functions for all our aggregate structures that implement the Stream trait.

    val L1: List = List.merge(List.singleton(33),

List.merge(List.singleton(66),
List.merge(List.singleton(99),List.empty()))
println("Printing L1 = ")
printAll[Int](L1)
println("Sum L1 = " + sumAll(L1))

which yields an output:

Printing L1 =
  33
  66
  99
Sum L1 = 198

Of course, the stream functions also work with stream of different types, since they are parameterized by the type of stream taken as input:

val L2:List[String] = List.merge(List.singleton("hello"),
List.merge(List.singleton("world"),List.empty()))
println("L2 = " + L2)
println("Elements L2 = ")
printAll[String](L2)

with output:

L2 = hello world
Elements L2 =
  hello
  world

Recall binary trees from last lecture. Streams from binary trees are somewhat less trivial than for lists — for instance, in what order are you going to stream the content of the tree?

We saw the description of ADT last time, so we simply extend it with the stream operations. I will not describe the specification of the stream operations, but will simply say that they should deliver all the elements of the tree, in some order. (It’s that last bit, the “in some order” one, that is a pain to specify.)

Here is the code obtained from the Interpreter Design Pattern, with the stream operations added in as well:

```scala
object BinTree {
  def empty[T] ():BinTree[T] = new Empty[T]()  
}  
```

164
def node[T] (n:T, l:BinTree[T], r:BinTree[T]):BinTree[T] =
    new Node[T](n,l,r)

private class Empty[T] extends BinTree[T] {

    def isEmpty ():Boolean = true
    def root ():T =
        throw new RuntimeException("BinTree.empty().root()")
    def left ():BinTree[T] =
        throw new RuntimeException("BinTree.empty().left()")
    def right ():BinTree[T] =
        throw new RuntimeException("BinTree.empty().right()")
    def size ():Int = 0

    // canonical methods?
    override def toString ():String = "-"

    // stream methods
    def hasElement ():Boolean = false

    def head ():T =
        throw new RuntimeException("BinTree.empty().head()")

    def tail ():Stream[T] =
        throw new RuntimeException("BinTree.empty().tail()")
}

private class Node[T] (n:T, l:BinTree[T], r:BinTree[T])
    extends BinTree[T] {

    def isEmpty ():Boolean = false
    def root ():T = n
    def left ():BinTree[T] = l
    def right ():BinTree[T] = r
    def size ():Int = 1 + l.size() + r.size()

    // canonical methods?
    override def toString ():String = n + "[" + l + "," + r + "]"

    // stream methods
    def hasElement ():Boolean = true
```java
private class Sequence[T] (fst:Stream[T], snd:Stream[T]) extends Stream[T] {
  def head ():T = n
  def tail ():Stream[T] = new Sequence[T](1,r)
}

abstract class BinTree[T] extends Stream[T] {
  def isEmpty ():Boolean
  def root ():T
  def left ():BinTree[T]
  def right ():BinTree[T]
  def size ():Int

  def hasElement ():Boolean
  def head ():T
  def tail ():Stream[T]
}
```
Consider the implementation of the stream operations. The stream operations for empty() are straightforward, but for node(), not so much. The head() of the stream clearly should be the root of the tree, but what about the tail()? We want to return a stream that will deliver all the elements of the tree without its root. One way to do that is to have tail() return a new tree surgically altered so that it doesn’t have its root anymore. You could come up with a way to do that, but it’s messy. An alternative, which is what I used here, is to realize that since tail() only needs to return a Stream[T], there is no reason why it should return a binary tree. It can return anything that is a subtype of Stream[T], and as long as that anything can deliver the rest of the elements stored in the tree (without the root), it’s good enough for us. And the best way to think of what that should be is to realize that to deliver all the element from the left subtree and from the right subtree, we could simply first deliver all the elements from the left subtree as a stream, and then the element of the right subtree as a stream. So we would like a gadget that lets us take two streams and creates a new stream that sequences those two streams one after the other, that is delivers all the elements of the first stream followed by all the elements of the second stream. That’s the purpose of the Sequence helper class, which implements such a gadget.

Here is an example:

```scala
val T = BinTree // convenient abbreviation for BinTree module
val T1:BinTree[Int] = T.node(33,
    T.node(66,
        T.node(99,T.empty(),T.empty()),
        T.empty()),
    T.node(11,
        T.node(22,T.empty(),T.empty()),
        T.node(44,T.empty(),T.empty())))
println("T1 = " + T1)
println("Elements T1 = ")
printAll(T1)
println("Sum T1 = " + sumAll(T1))
```

which yields:

```
T1 = 33[66[99[-,-],-],11[22[-,-],44[-,-]]]
Elements T1 =
  33
  66
  99
  11
  22
  44
Sum T1 = 275
```
15.2 Stream Programming

Let me take a bit of a detour here and look at a few more examples of the kind of thing you can do with streams (and polymorphism).

The idea that I want to propose is to consider that a stream is a way to produce elements (the exact kind of elements produced depending of course on the type of the stream). Putting it another way, a stream is a standardized interface to something that can produce elements. Having a standardized interface means that as soon as you have a gadget that can connect to that standardized interface, you can connect it to anything that implement that standardized interface. If that gadget itself produces elements according to that standardized interface, you have the beginning of a system that lets you connect gadgets together in a standardized way. In the case of streams, they produce elements. You can imagine connecting gadgets to those strands that modify the elements produced before passing them on, or combining the elements from two streams into a single element. Those gadgets for all intents and purpose can be made to look like streams to the outside world.

Recall that for us streams are subtypes of the following trait:

```scala
trait Stream[A] {
  def hasElement () : Boolean
  def head () : A
  def tail () : Stream[A]
}
```

Recall also the following functions that work on streams, introduced last time:

```scala
def printAll[T] (st: Stream[T]): Unit =
  if (st.hasElement()) {
    println(" ")
    println(st.head());
    printAll(st.tail())
  }

def sumAll (st: Stream[Int]): T =
  if (st.hasElement())
    st.head().add(sumAll(st.tail()))
  else
    0
```

Functions `printAll()` and `sumAll()` print all the elements of a stream and sum all the elements of a stream (of integers), respectively. For reasons that will soon become clear, we introduce another function:

```scala
def printN[T] (st: Stream[T], n: Int): Unit =
```

168
if (st.hasElement())
  if (n > 0) {
    println(" " + st.head())
    printN(st.tail(), n-1)
  }
else
  println("...")

Function printN() prints the first n elements of a stream, for a provided n. This is important because as far as the definition of streams is concerned, there is nothing that prevents a stream from producing an infinite sequence of values. This may seem counterintuitive at first, because right now the only streams we have seen are those giving all the elements stored in an aggregate structure, and all our aggregate structures have only held finitely many elements. But as we will see below, there are perfectly natural streams that are infinite in nature, and more importantly, it makes sense to work with them. As long as we don’t try to print or work with all the elements of such a stream. Thus, we have a printN() function to only look at a finite prefix of a stream.

Above, we extended List and BinTree as subtyped of Stream, meaning that we could use stream operations on such types.

Let’s start by defining some streams independently of any underlying aggregate structure. The simplest kind of stream is an empty stream:

```scala
def empty[T] ():Stream[T] =
  new Empty[T]

class Empty[T] extends Stream[T] {

  def hasElement ():Boolean = false

  def head ():T = throw new RuntimeException("empty().head()")
  def tail ():Stream[T] = throw new RuntimeException("empty().tail()")
}
```

Equally simple is the (infinite) constant stream that delivers a single value whenever asked for an element.

```scala
def constant[T] (v:T):Stream[T] =
  new Constant[T](v)

class Constant[T] (v:T) extends Stream[T] {

  def hasElement ():Boolean = true
```
def head ():T = v
def tail ():Stream[T] = this
}

That stream is not doing anything especially interesting by itself:

println("Constant(99) = ")
println(constant(99),20)

outputs:

Constant(99) =
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
99
...

Note the ... at the end indicating that the stream is not empty when we stopped printing.

One step higher on the complexity scale is a stream that counts upwards from a given integer:

def intsFrom (v:Int):Stream[Int] =
    new IntsFrom(v)

class IntsFrom (v:Int) extends Stream[Int] {

The interesting to note here is that `tail()` produce a new instance of `intsFrom()` that naturally enough, starts counting one higher.

```scala
def hasElement ():Boolean = true

def head ():Int = v
def tail ():Stream[Int] = new IntsFrom(v+1)
```

produces output

```scalaintsFrom(10) =
  10
  11
  12
  13
  14
  15
  16
  17
  18
  19
  20
  21
  22
  23
  24
  25
  26
  27
  28
  29
  ...
```

The only thing we’ve done until now has been to produce streams. Let’s start worrying about transforming streams. The following gadget connects to a incoming stream and produces one out of every two element of that incoming stream, dropping all other elements on the floor.

```scala
def oneOutOfTwo[T] (st:Stream[T]):Stream[T] =
```

171
new OneOutOfTwo[T](st)

class OneOutOfTwo[T] (st:Stream[T]) extends Stream[T] {
    def hasElement ():Boolean = st.hasElement()
    def head ():T = st.head()
    def tail ():Stream[T] =
        if (st.tail().hasElement())
            new OneOutOfTwo(st.tail().tail())
        else
            empty()
}

Note that tail() method is set up so that it always returns a new instance of the gadget that is ready to deliver the next element from the incoming stream to be delivered. If there are no more elements to be delivered, then it returns an empty stream. We can now produce the stream of odd numbers and the stream of even numbers by skipping one out of two elements from the appropriate stream of integers:

    println("Odds = ")
    println(oneOutOfTwo(intsFrom(1)),20)
    println("Evens = ")
    println(oneOutOfTwo(intsFrom(2)),20)

which produces:

Odds =
1
3
5
7
9
11
13
15
17
19
21
23
25

172
... Evens =
  2
  4
  6
  8
  10
  12
  14
  16
  18
  20
  22
  24
  26
  28
  30
  32
  34
  36
  38
  40
...

Let’s look at a slightly more complex gadget. Suppose we have two streams. We can imagine a gadget that connects those two streams in sequence: it first delivers all the elements from the first streams, and when the elements of that stream are exhausted, it delivers the elements of the second stream.

```java
def sequence[T] (st1:Stream[T], st2:Stream[T]):Stream[T] =
  new Sequence[T](st1, st2)

class Sequence[T] (st1:Stream[T], st2:Stream[T]) extends Stream[T] {

  def hasElement ():Boolean = {
    st1.hasElement() || st2.hasElement()
  }
```

173
When we create a `sequence()`, we give it two streams (that produce the same type of elements). The `Sequence` class records the current first stream and the current second stream. When we ask for an element, it returns an element from the first stream if one is available, otherwise, from the second. When taking the tail of the produced stream, it tries to take the tail of the first stream. If the first stream is exhausted, then it takes the tail of the second stream. Think about it some, read the code, meditate on it. Try drawing pictures to understand what is happening. This is a common pattern when working with streams.

```python
def head ():T =
    if (st1.hasElement())
        st1.head()
    else
        st2.head()

def tail () :Stream[T] =
    if (st1.hasElement())
        new Sequence[T](st1.tail(),st2)
    else
        st2.tail()
```

```python
println("Sequence(T1,L3) = ")
printlnAll(sequence(T1,L3))
```

produces output:

```
Sequence(T1,L3) =
33
66
99
11
22
44
33
66
99
```

Let’s complicate things even further. Right now, all our gadgets have returned elements of the same type as the elements of the streams they are connected to. Let’s write a gadget that returns something different. In particular, let’s write a gadget that connects to two
streams and that returns pairs of elements, one taken from each stream. We need to figure out what happens when one of the streams the gadget is connected to exhausts before the other does. For simplicity, we make the gadget exhaust itself when one of the streams it is connected to has no more elements.

```java
def zip[T,U] (st1:Stream[T],st2:Stream[U]):Stream[Pair[T,U]] =
  new Zip[T,U](st1,st2)

class Zip[T,U] (st1:Stream[T],st2:Stream[U]) extends Stream[Pair[T,U]]
{
  def hasElement ():Boolean = {
    st1.hasElement() && st2.hasElement()
  }
  def head ():Pair[T,U] = Pair.create(st1.head(),st2.head())
  def tail ():Stream[Pair[T,U]] = new Zip[T,U](st1.tail(),st2.tail())
}
```

This code uses the following PAIR[T,U] ADT for representing pairs of values of different types:

**CREATORS**
create : (T,U) -> Pair[T,U]

**OPERATIONS**
first : () -> T
second : () -> U

with the obvious specification. Here is the resulting implementation, using the Interpreter Design Pattern:

```java
object Pair {
  def create[T,U] (f:T,s:U):Pair[T,U] =
    new PairImpl[T,U](f,s)

  private class PairImpl[T,U] (f:T,s:U) extends Pair[T,U] {
    def first ():T = f
    def second ():U = s

    // canonical methods?
}
```
override def toString ():String =
  "(" + f.toString() + "," + s.toString() + ")"
}
}
abstract class Pair[T,U] {

def first ():T
def second ():U
}

We create a \texttt{zip()} gadget by passing in two streams to connect to. When calling \texttt{head()}, we read the head of both streams we’re connected to, and create a pair that we return. When calling \texttt{tail()}, we simply take the tail of the underlying streams, creating a new \texttt{Zip} gadget connected to the newly created streams. There’s actually less bookkeeping in \texttt{Zip} than in \texttt{Sequence}.

\begin{verbatim}
println("Zip(Constant(99),IntsFrom(3)) = ")
println(zip(constant(99),intsFrom(3)),20)
println("Zip(Constant(99),T1) = ")
println(zip(constant(99),T1),20)
\end{verbatim}

procedes output:

\texttt{Zip(\texttt{Constant(99)},\texttt{IntsFrom(3)}) =}
\begin{itemize}
  \item (99,3)
  \item (99,4)
  \item (99,5)
  \item (99,6)
  \item (99,7)
  \item (99,8)
  \item (99,9)
  \item (99,10)
  \item (99,11)
  \item (99,12)
  \item (99,13)
  \item (99,14)
  \item (99,15)
  \item (99,16)
  \item (99,17)
  \item (99,18)
\end{itemize}
The above gadgets are all fairly straightforward, in the sense that they do not require tricks of any kinds, or any fields beyond the obvious ones, or any feature we have not seen yet. The following few examples require a bit more cleverness.

First, let’s write a variant of the `zip()` gadget that connects to two streams and returns pairs of elements from those two streams. Instead of pairing the first elements together, then the second elements together, then the third elements together and so, however, we want to produce pairs of all the possible combinations of an element from the first stream and an element of the second stream. Call it a `cartesian()` gadget (inspired by the cartesian product of two sets in set theory).

```scala
def cartesian[T,U] (st1:Stream[T],st2:Stream[U]):Stream[Pair[T,U]] =
  zip(new Duplicates[T](st1,1,1),new Prefixes[U](st2,1,1,1))

class Duplicates[T] (st:Stream[T],init:Int,curr:Int)
  extends Stream[T] {
  def hasElement ():Boolean = st.hasElement()

  def head ():T = st.head()

  def tail ():Stream[T] =
    if (curr > 1)
      new Duplicates(st,init,curr-1)
    else
      new Duplicates(st.tail(),init+1,init+1)
  }

class Prefixes[T] (st:Stream[T], ost:Stream[T],
  init:Int, curr:Int) extends Stream[T] {
```
The trick here is to figure how to code the gadget in such a way that we are not stuck trying to pair everything in the second stream with the first element of the first stream, because then if the second stream is infinite then we never get to the point where we can pair the second element of the first stream with anything in the second stream, let alone the third element of the first stream, or the fourth. Study the above code. Intuitively, Duplicates produces, from the stream \( a b c d e \ldots \), the stream \( abbc ccd dde eee e \ldots \), while Prefixes produces, from the stream \( a b c d e \), the stream \( aab ababa bcd a b c d e \). The final result works, though:

```java
def hasElement ():Boolean = st.hasElement()
def head ():T = st.head ()
def tail ():Stream[T] =
    if (curr > 1)
        new Prefixes(st.tail(),ost,init,curr-1)
    else
        new Prefixes(ost,ost,init+1,init+1)
}
```

```
println("Cartesian(T1,IntsFrom(1)) = ")
printN(cartesian(T1,intsFrom(1)),20)
```

produces output:

**Cartesian(T1,IntsFrom(1)) =**

\[
(33,1) \\
(66,1) \\
(66,2) \\
(99,1) \\
(99,2) \\
(99,3) \\
(11,1) \\
(11,2) \\
(11,3) \\
(11,4) \\
(22,1) \\
(22,2) \\
(22,3) \\
(22,4) \\
(22,5)
\]
The next two gadgets operate on a stream by modifying it using a function, the way you’ve seen functions acting on lists in Fundies 1. The first gadget, map() takes a stream and a function that can transform the elements of that stream, and produces a new stream where each element from the connected stream has been transformed by the function.

```scala
def map[T,U] (st:Stream[T],f:(T)=>U):Stream[U] = 
   new Map[T,U](st,f)

class Map[T,U] (st:Stream[T], f:(T)=>U) extends Stream[U] {
   def hasElement ():Boolean = st.hasElement()
   def head ():U = f(st.head())
   def tail ():Stream[U] = new Map(st.tail(),f)
}
```

The code is simple, once one knows how to specify that an argument to a function is itself a function. In Scala, the type of “function taking an A to a B” is written (A)=>B; the type of “function taking an A and a B to a C” is written (A,B)=>C, and so on. Thus, the type of map() says it expects a stream of Ts and a function (T)=>U transforming Ts to Us, and constructs a stream of Us. To call map(), we need to give it a function of the right type, like this:

```scala
def sq (x:Int):Int = x*x
println("Squares(IntsFrom(1)) = ")
val squares:Stream[Int] = map(intsFrom(1),sq)
println(squares,20)
```

which produces output:

```
Squares(IntsFrom1) = 
1
4
9
16
```
A related gadget is one that takes a predicate (that is, a function that returns a `Boolean`) and filters a stream, keeping only the elements for which the predicate returns `true`.

```scala
  new Filter[T](st,p)

class Filter[T] (st:Stream[T], p:(T)=>Boolean) extends Stream[T] {

  private def findNext (s:Stream[T]):Stream[T] =
    if (s.hasElement()) {
      if (p(s.head()))
        s
      else
        findNext(s.tail())
    } else
    s

  def hasElement ():Boolean = findNext(st).hasElement()

  def head ():T = findNext(st).head()

  def tail ():Stream[T] = new Filter(findNext(st).tail(),p)
}
```

Note that here, the next element to return is not the first element of the connected stream.
(i.e., we do not try to maintain the invariant that the next element on the connected stream satisfies the predicate). Trying to do that leads to problems when the connected stream runs out of elements satisfying the predicate. Note that in the above implementation, if the connected stream has no more elements satisfying the predicate, and we ask the filter() gadget for the next element on the stream satisfying the predicate, the code will enter an infinite loop. This is unavoidable.

```scala
def digitTest (x:Int):Boolean = (x % 10 <= 5)
println("Squares with last digit <= 5 = ")
println(filter(squares, digitTest, 20))
```

We now have enough ingredients to compute the stream of all prime numbers, using (a variant of) the Sieve of Eratosthenes. The sieve computes the list of prime numbers by essentially starting with all integers from 2 on, and then keeping 2 and removing all multiples of 2, then moving to the next unremoved integer (3), keeping it and removing all multiples of 3, moving to the next unremoved integer (5), keeping it and removing all multiples of 5, and so on. You can convince yourself that what you are left with is the stream of all prime numbers.

```scala
def sieve (st:Stream[Int]):Stream[Int] =
  new Sieve(st)

class Sieve (st:Stream[Int]) extends Stream[Int] {
  def hasElement () : Boolean = st.hasElement()
  def head () : Int = st.head()
  def tail () : Stream[Int] = {
    def notDivisibleBy (x:Int):Boolean = !(x % st.head() == 0)
    val multRemoved:Stream[Int] = filter(st.tail(),notDivisibleBy)
    new Sieve(multRemoved)
  }
}
```

We can now compute the stream of prime numbers by taking

```scala
val primes:Stream[Int] = sieve(intsFrom(2))
```

and indeed:

```scala
println("Primes = ")
println(primes,12)
```

producing output:
Primes =
  2
  3
  5
  7
  11
  13
  17
  19
  23
  29
  31
  37
  ...

Note, however, that this is far from being an efficient way for computing prime numbers, as you can tell immediately by trying to print the first 100 elements of primes.