

# Lecture 5 – Immutable Collections

## SWS121: Secure Programming

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2024 Spring

- **Functions**

- Methods vs Functions
- Eta Expansion
- Recursive Functions
- Tail-Call Optimization
- Default Parameter Values
- Nested Methods
- Multiple Parameter Lists

- **Pattern Matching**

- Sealed Types
- Regular Expression Patterns
- Extractor Objects

- **Functional Error Handling**

- Option Type
- Try Type
- Either Type

## 1. Recall: Basic Immutable Collections

- Lists, Options, Maps, and Sets

## 2. Why Immutable Collections?

## 3. Collections Hierarchy

## 4. Sequences

- ArraySeq

- Vector

- Range

- Queue

## 5. Sets and Maps

- HashSet and HashMap

- TreeSet and TreeMap

## 6. Performance Characteristics

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## 5. Sets and Maps

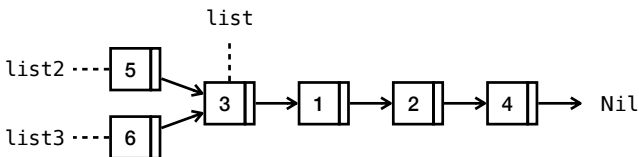
HashSet and HashMap

TreeSet and TreeMap

## 6. Performance Characteristics

**Lists** are **immutable** sequences of elements of the same type

```
val list: List[Int] = 3 :: 1 :: 2 :: 4 :: Nil
val list2: List[Int] = 5 :: list
val list3: List[Int] = 6 :: list
```



and support various **methods**:

```
list.size                // 4                : Int
list.map(_ * 2)          // List(6, 2, 4, 8)     : List[Int]
list.filter(_ % 2 == 1) // List(3, 1)     : List[Int]
list.flatMap(x => List(x, -x)) // List(3, -3, ..., 4, -4) : List[Int]
list.foldLeft(0)(_ + _)  // 0 + 3 + 1 + 2 + 4 = 10 : Int
```

We learned other basic immutable collections:

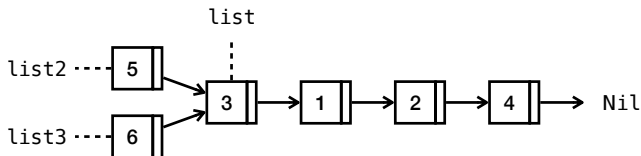
- `Option[T]`: represents **optional** values
- `Map[K, V]`: represents a collection of **key-value** pairs
- `Set[T]`: represents a collection of **unique** elements

```
val opt: Option[Int]      = Some(5)
val map: Map[String, Int] = Map("one" -> 1, "two" -> 2)
val set: Set[Int]        = Set(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

and support similar **methods**:

```
opt.size           // 1           : Int
set.map(_ * 2)     // Set(2, 4, 6, 8) : Set[Int]
map.filter((k, v) => v < 2) // Map("one" -> 1) : Map[String, Int]
opt.flatMap(x => Some(x * 2)) // Some(10)       : Option[Int]
set.foldLeft(1)(_ * _) // 1 * 1 * 2 * 3 * 4 = 24 : Int
```

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Why we should use **immutable** collections?

- **Thread Safety:** Since immutable collections cannot be modified once created, they are inherently thread-safe (e.g., no race conditions).
- **Security:** We can avoid bugs caused by unintended modifications from external libraries or other parts of the code.
- **Easier Debugging:** There is no need to trace changes in the code that might have altered the value of an immutable object.
- **Memory Efficiency:** Immutable collections are more memory-efficient as they can share common parts of their structure instead.



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- All collection classes are found in the package `scala.collection` divided into **mutable** and **immutable** collections.
- By default, Scala always picks immutable collections.
- For example, `List` is an alias of the following:

```
List           // scala.collection.immutable.List
```

- `Set` without a prefix refers to an immutable collection, whereas `mutable.Set` refers to the mutable counterpart.

```
Set           // scala.collection.immutable.Set  
mutable.Set   // scala.collection.mutable.Set
```

- Let's explore the collections hierarchy in Scala.

The **Iterable** trait is the root trait of all collection classes.  
It defines the following **concrete methods**:

Category	Methods
<b>Addition</b>	concat (++)
<b>Map</b>	map, flatMap, collect
<b>Conversions</b>	to, toList, toVector, toMap, toSet, toSeq, toIndexedSeq, toBuffer, toArray
<b>Copying</b>	copyToArray
<b>Size Info</b>	isEmpty, nonEmpty, size, knownSize, sizeIs
<b>Element</b>	head, last, headOption, lastOption, find
<b>Sub-collection</b>	tail, init, slice, take, drop, takeWhile, dropWhile, filter, filterNot, withFilter
<b>Subdivision</b>	splitAt, span, partition, partitionMap, groupBy, groupMap, groupMapReduce
<b>Element Tests</b>	exists, forall, count
<b>Folds</b>	foldLeft, foldRight, reduceLeft, reduceRight
<b>Specific Folds</b>	sum, product, min, max
<b>String Operations</b>	mkString, addString
<b>View</b>	view

To support previous concrete methods, we need to implement the following **abstract method** called **iterator**:

```
def iterator: Iterator[A]
```

We need to implement following **abstract method** for the **Iterator** object:

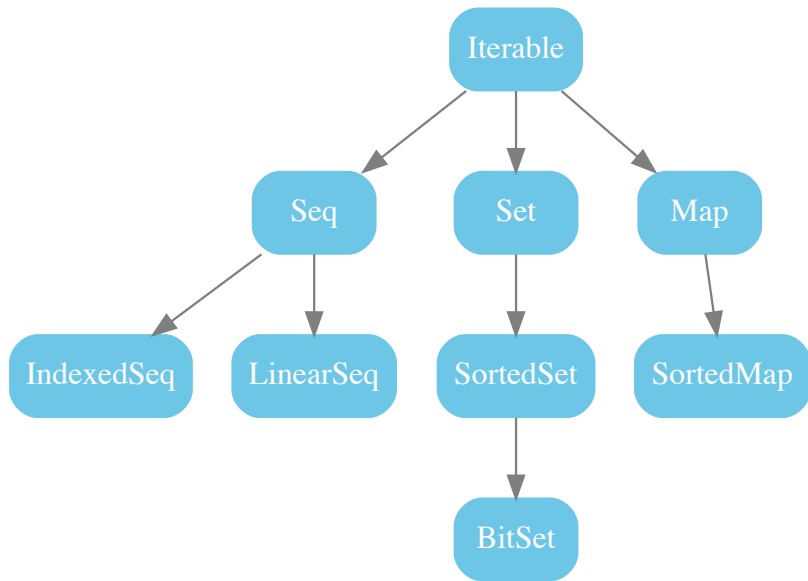
```
def hasNext: Boolean // Check if there is a next element available
def next(): A        // Return the next element and advance iterator
```

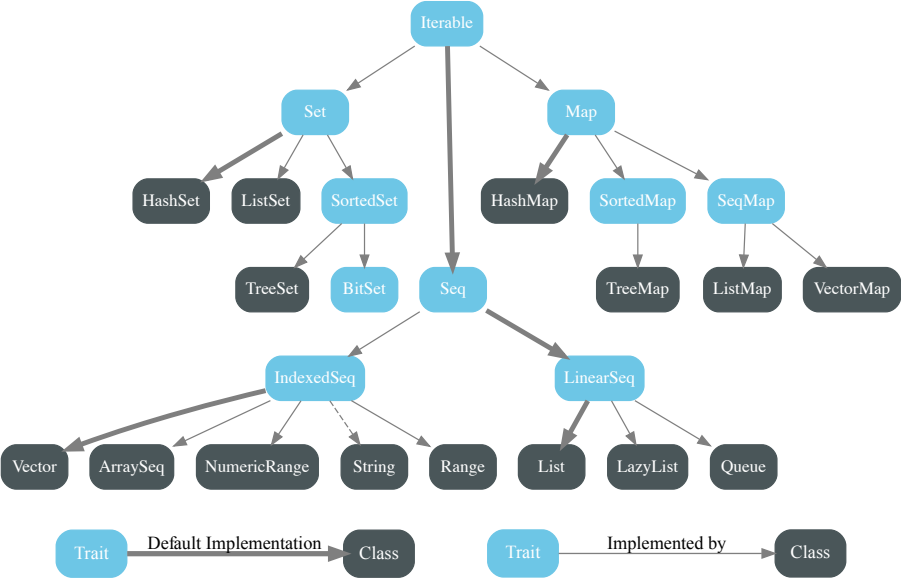
For example, the `headOption` method is implemented as follows:

```
def headOption: Option[A] =
  val it = iterator
  if (it.hasNext) Some(it.next()) else None
```

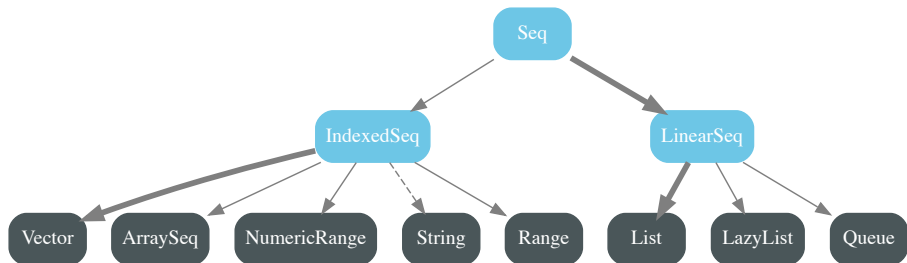
Then, we can use the `headOption` method as follows:

```
Nil.headOption           // None
List(1, 2, 3).headOption // Some(1)
```





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- **IndexedSeq**: A sequence of elements with efficient **random access**.

```

val seq: IndexedSeq[Int] = ArraySeq(0, 1, 2, 3, 4)
seq(3)                    // 3                    (constant time)
  
```

- **LinearSeq**: A sequence of elements with efficient **linear access**.

```

val list: LinearSeq[Int] = List(0, 1, 2, 3, 4)
list.head                 // 0                    (constant time)
list.tail                 // List(1, 2, 3, 4)      (constant time)
  
```



**ArraySeq** is an **indexed sequence** backed by an **array**.

In memory, the elements are stored in a **contiguous block** of memory.

Consider the following example:

```
val arraySeq: ArraySeq[Int] = ArraySeq(3, 7, 1, 4, 2, 8, 5, 6, 9, 0)
```

Then, the elements are stored as follows:

3	7	1	4	2	8	5	6	9	0
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

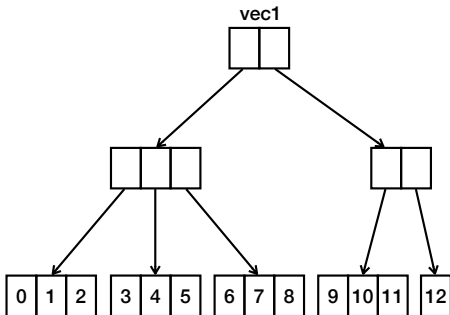
Thus, the time complexity of `apply` is **constant time**.

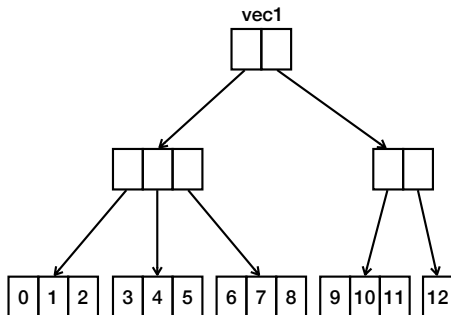
However, the time complexity of `prepend`, `update`, `prepend`, and `append` is **linear time** because we need to **copy all elements**.

**Vector** is a indexed sequence collection type that provides good performance for all its operations.

Vectors are represented as *m-wide trees*. For example, a vector with 3-wide trees is shown below:

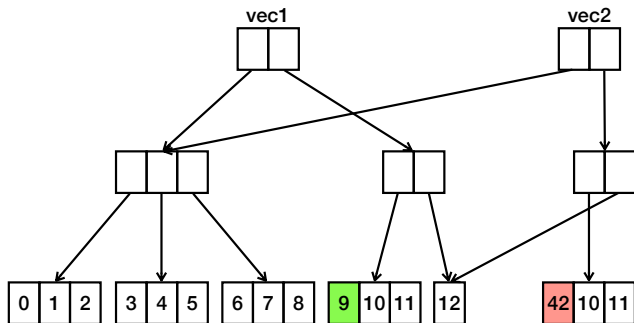
```
val vec1: Vector[Int] = Vector(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12)
```





The indexing operation is **effectively constant time** because the depth of the tree is **logarithmic** in the number of elements.

```
vec1(9) // 9
```



The update operation is also **effectively constant time** because the depth of the tree is **logarithmic** in the number of elements.

It is memory-efficient because it **shares common parts** of the tree.

```
val vec2 = vec1.updated(9, 42)
```

- In fact, vectors are represented as variants of 32-wide trees.<sup>1</sup>
- Vectors with up to 32 elements can be represented in a single node, and vectors with up to  $32 * 32 = 1024$  elements can be represented with a single indirection (hop).
- **Five hops** for vectors with up to  $2^{30} \approx 1$  billion elements.
- So for all vectors of reasonable size, an element selection involves up to 5 primitive array selections.
- This is why the time complexity of element access is **effectively constant time**.

---

<sup>1</sup>At the first time, the **relaxed radix balanced (RRB) trees** (ICFP 2015) were used, but now they are replaced by the **radix-balanced finger (RBF) trees** (2019).

**Range** is a collection of **equally spaced** integers.

For example, consider the following range:

```
val range: Range = Range(2, 28, 3)
```

It represents the range **starting** from 2 and **ending** at 28 with a **step** of 3:

2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, 23, 26

We can define ranges also using the methods (`to`, `until`, and `by`):

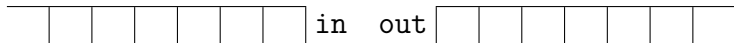
```
0 to 10           // Range(0, 1, 2, ..., 10)
0 to 10 by 2      // Range(0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10)
0 until 10        // Range(0, 1, 2, ..., 9)
0 until 10 by 2  // Range(0, 2, 4, 6, 8)
```

The time complexity of `apply` is **constant time** because we can compute the element using the formula:

$$\text{start} + \text{step} \times \text{index}$$

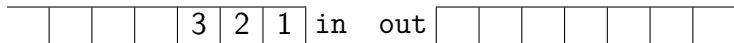
We can treat a **List** as a **stack** by using the `::` operator for **pop** and `head/tail` methods for **push**.

By combining **two lists**, we can implement a **queue**:



- The **enqueue** operation is implemented by **pushing** the elements to the `in` list.
- The **dequeue** operation is implemented by 1) **moving** the elements from the `in` list to the `out` list only when the `out` list is empty and 2) **poping** an element from the `out` list.

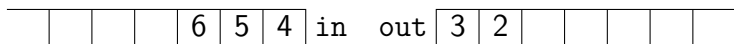
```
val q1 = Queue().enqueue(1).enqueue(2).enqueue(3)
```



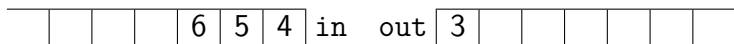
```
val (x, q2) = q1.dequeue // x == 1
```



```
val q3 = q2.enqueue(4).enqueue(5).enqueue(6)
```



```
val (y, q4) = q3.dequeue // y == 2
```





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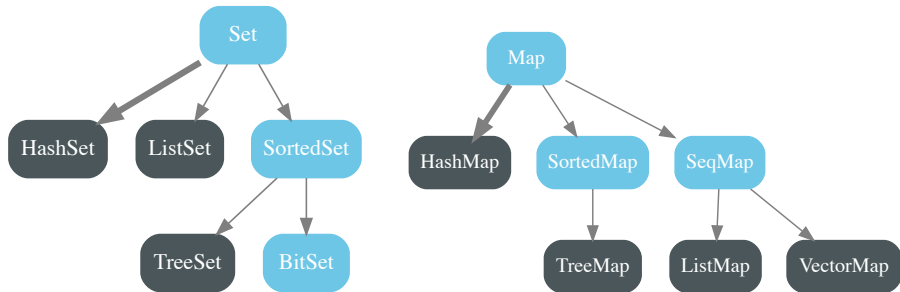
Queue

5. Sets and Maps

HashSet and HashMap

TreeSet and TreeMap

6. Performance Characteristics



- **HashSet/HashMap**: A set/map of elements with **no order**.
- **TreeSet/TreeMap**: A set/map of elements with **sorted order**
- **BitSet**: A set of bits with **dense packing**.
- **VectorMap**: A map of elements with **insertion order**.

**HashSet** and **HashMap** are sets and maps of elements with **no order** using a **compressed hash-array mapped prefix-tree (CHAMP)**<sup>2</sup>, which is a variant of the **hash-array mapped trie (HAMT)**.

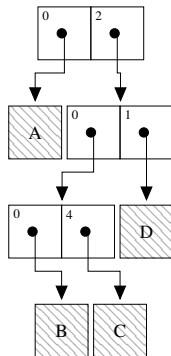
Following shows an example of a HAMT with 32-ary nodes:

$$\text{hash}(A) = 32_{10} = 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 32$$

$$\text{hash}(B) = 2_{10} = 2 \ 0 \ 0 \ 32$$

$$\text{hash}(C) = 4098_{10} = 2 \ 0 \ 4 \ 32$$

$$\text{hash}(C) = 34_{10} = 2 \ 1 \ 0 \ 32$$

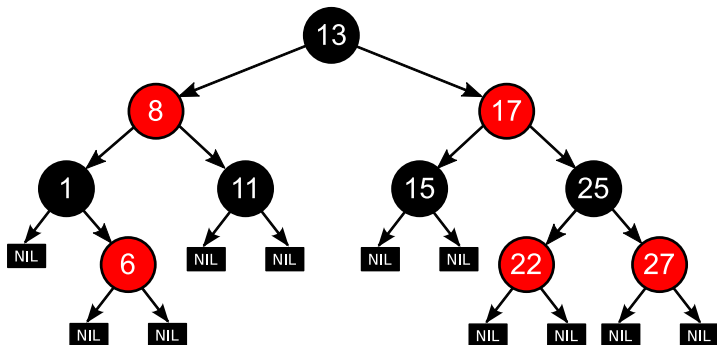


<sup>2</sup>The [CHAMP](#) (OOPSLA 2015) data structure is a variant of the [HAMT](#).

**TreeSet** and **TreeMap** are sets and maps of elements with **sorted order** using **red-black trees**.

For example, the following set is represented as a red-black tree:

```
val set = Set(1, 6, 8, 11, 13, 15, 17, 25, 22, 27)
```



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	head	tail	apply	update	prepend	append
<b>List</b>	C	C	L	L	C	L
ArraySeq	C	L	C	L	L	L
<b>Vector</b>	eC	eC	eC	eC	eC	eC
Queue	aC	aC	L	L	L	C
Range	C	C	C	-	-	-
String	C	L	C	L	L	L

	lookup	add	remove	min
<b>HashSet/HashMap</b>	eC	eC	eC	L
TreeSet/TreeMap	Log	Log	Log	Log
BitSet	C	L	L	eC <sup>3</sup>
VectorMap	eC	eC	aC	L
ListMap	L	L	L	L

where **L** = linear time, **Log** = logarithmic time, **C** = constant time, **eC** = effectively constant time, and **aC** = amortized constant time.

<sup>3</sup>Assuming bits are densely packed.

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- For Comprehensions

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