

# Chapter 3: The Logic of Types

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# Tuples with names, or “case classes”

- Pair of values: `val a: (Int, String) = (123, "xyz")`
- For *convenience*, we can define a name for this type:  
`type MyPair = (Int, String); val a: MyPair = (123, "xyz")`
- We can define a name for each value and also for the type:  
`case class MySocks(size: Double, color: String)  
val a: MySocks = MySocks(10.5, "white")`
- Case classes can be nested:  
`case class BagOfSocks(socks: MySocks, count: Int)  
val bag = BagOfSocks(MySocks(10.5, "white"), 6)`
- Parts of the case class can be accessed by name:  
`val c: String = bag.socks.color`
- Parts can be given in any order by using names:  
`val y = MySocks(color = "black", size = 11.0)`
- Default values can be defined for parts:  
`case class Shirt(color: String = "blue", hasHoles: Boolean = false)  
val sock = Shirt(hasHoles = true)`

# Tuples with one element and with zero elements

- A tuple type expression `(Int, String)` is special syntax for parameterized type `Tuple2[Int, String]`
- Case class with no parts is called a “case object”
- What are tuples with one element or with zero elements?
  - ▶ There is no `Tuple0` – it is a special type called `Unit`

Tuples	Case classes
<code>(123, "xyz"): Tuple2[Int, String]</code>	<code>case class A(x: Int, y: String)</code>
<code>(123,): Tuple1[Int]</code>	<code>case class B(z: Int)</code>
<code>(): Unit</code>	<code>case object C</code>

- Case classes can have one or more type parameters:  
`case class Pairs[A, B](left: A, right: B, count: Int)`
- The “`Tuple`” types could be defined by this code:  
`case class Tuple2[A, B](_1: A, _2: B)`

# Pattern-matching syntax for case classes

Scala allows pattern matching in two places:

- `val pattern = ...` (value assignment)
- `case pattern ⇒ ...` (partial function)

Examples with case classes:

- ```
val a = MySocks(10.5, "white")  
val MySocks(x, y) = a
```
- ```
val f: BagOfSocks⇒Int = { case BagOfSocks(MySocks(s, c), z)⇒...}
```
- ```
def f(b: BagOfSocks): String = b match {  
  case BagOfSocks(MySocks(s, c), z) ⇒ c  
}
```
- Note: `s`, `c`, `z` are defined as **pattern variables** of correct types

# Disjunction type: Either[A, B]

Example: `Either[String, Int]`

- Represents a value that is *either* a `String` or an `Int` (but not both)
- Example values: `Left("blah")` or `Right(123)`
- Use pattern matching to distinguish “left” from “right”:

```
def logError(x: Either[String, Int]): Int = x match {  
  case Left(error) ⇒ println(s"Got error: $error"); -1  
  case Right(res) ⇒ res  
} // Left("blah") and Right(123) are possible values of type Either[String, Int]
```

- Now `logError(Right(123))` returns `123` while `logError(Left("bad result"))` prints the error and returns `-1`
- The `case` expression chooses among possible values of a given type
  - ▶ Note the similarity with this code:

```
def f(x: Int): Int = x match {  
  case 0 ⇒ println(s"error: must be nonzero"); -1  
  case 1 ⇒ println(s"error: must be greater than 1"); -1  
  case res ⇒ res  
} // 0 and 1 are possible values of type Int
```

# More general disjunction types: using case classes

In a future version of Scala 3, there is a short syntax for disjunction types:

- `type MyIntOrStr = Int | String`
- more generally, `type MyType = List[Int] | Boolean | MySocks`

For now, in Scala 2, we use the “long syntax”:

```
sealed trait MyType
case class HaveListInt(x: List[Int]) extends MyType
case class HaveBool(b: Boolean) extends MyType
case class HaveSocks(socks: MySocks) extends MyType
```

Pattern-matching example:

```
exa***
```

# Types and propositional logic

- Tuple of functions:

```
val q: (Int  $\Rightarrow$  Int, Int  $\Rightarrow$  Int) = (x  $\Rightarrow$  x + 1, x  $\Rightarrow$  x - 1)
```

# Summary

- What problems can we solve now?
  - ▶ Compute mathematical expressions involving sums, products, and quantifiers, based on integer ranges (such as  $\sum_{k=1}^n f(k)$  etc.)
  - ▶ Implement functions that take or return other functions
  - ▶ Work on collections using `map` and other library methods
- What kinds of problems are not solved with these tools?
  - ▶ Compute the smallest  $n$  such that  $f(f(f(\dots f(1)\dots)) > 1000$ , where the function  $f$  is applied  $n$  times.
  - ▶ Find the  $k$ -th largest element in an (unsorted) array of integers.
  - ▶ Perform binary search over a sorted array.
- Why can't we solve such problems yet?
  - ▶ Because we can't yet put *mathematical induction* into code



# Exercises

- 1 Define a function of type `Seq[Double] => Seq[Double]` that “normalizes” the sequence: it finds the element having the max. absolute value and, if that value is nonzero, divides all elements by that factor.
- 2 Define a function of type `Seq[Seq[Int]] => Seq[Seq[Int]]` that adds 20 to every element of every inner sequence.
- 3 An integer  $n$  is called “3-factor” if it is divisible by only three different integers  $j$  such that  $2 \leq j < n$ . Compute the set of all “3-factor” integers  $n$  among  $n \in [1, \dots, 1000]$ .
- 4 Given a function  $f$  of type `Int => Boolean`, an integer  $n$  is called “3- $f$ ” if there are only three different integers  $j \in [1, \dots, n]$  such that  $f(j)$  returns `true`. Define a function that takes  $f$  as an argument and returns a sequence of all “3- $f$ ” integers among  $n \in [1, \dots, 1000]$ . What is the type of that function? Rewrite Exercise 3 using that function.
- 5 Define a function that takes two functions  $f: \text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Double}$  and  $g: \text{Double} \Rightarrow \text{String}$  as arguments, and returns a new function that computes the functional composition of  $f$  and  $g$ .