

Lecture 1 Introduction to Functional Programming & Scala

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Functional Programming

- Imperative Programming
 - Perceived as traditional programming
 - C, C++, JAVA, C#
 - The programmer tells the computer what to do, e.g., $x = y + z$.
 - Oriented around control statements, looping constructs and assignments.
- Functional Programming
 - Aims on describing the solution
 - What the program needs to be doing (rather than how it should be done).

Functional Programming

- It is based on *pure functions*.
 - Functions that have *no side effects!*
- Side Effects: rather than simply returning the results, a function does one of the following:
 - Modifying a variable
 - Modifying a data structure in place
 - Setting a field on an object
 - Throwing an exception or halting with an error
 - Printing to the console or reading user input
 - Reading from or writing to a file
 - Drawing on the screen

Functional Programming

“FP is a restriction on how we write programs, but not on what programs can express”.

It increases modularity via programming pure functions that are easier to:

- test
- reuse
- parallelize
- generalize
- can be reasoned

Pure functions are less prone to bugs!

A Program with Side Effects

Listing 1.1. A Scala program with side effects

our function merely returns a **Coffee** and these other actions are happening *on the side*.

Difficult to test because it is contacting the credit card company, and we don't want our tests to do that.

```
class Cafe {  
  def buyCoffee(cc: CreditCard): Coffee = {  
    val cup = new Coffee()  
    cc.charge(cup.price)  
    cup  
  }  
}
```

The **class** keyword introduces a class, much like in Java. Its body is contained in curly braces, { and }.

A method of a class is introduced by the **def** keyword.

cc: CreditCard defines a parameter named **cc** of type **CreditCard**. The **Coffee** return type of the **buyCoffee** method is given after the parameter list, and the method body consists of a block within curly braces after an = sign.

No semicolons are necessary. Newlines delimit statements in a block.

We don't need to say **return**. Since **cup** is the last statement in the block, it is automatically returned.

Side effect.
Actually charges the credit card.

A Program with Side Effects *making it more testable*

We *can* develop
mocks to test
Payments (which
can be an
interface).

Listing 1.2. Adding a payments object

```
class Cafe {  
    def buyCoffee(cc: CreditCard, p: Payments): Coffee = {  
        val cup = new Coffee()  
        p.charge(cc, cup.price)  
        cup  
    }  
}
```

We have gained some level
of testability.

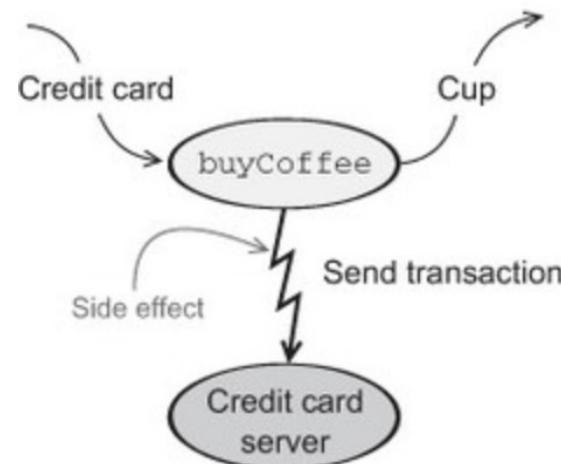
A Program with Side Effects *reusability*

The code was still difficult to reuse.

Scenario: In the case of buying more than one coffee, calling the function that many times (in a loop) would contact the bank that many times and that many processing charges.

A call to buyCoffee

With a side effect

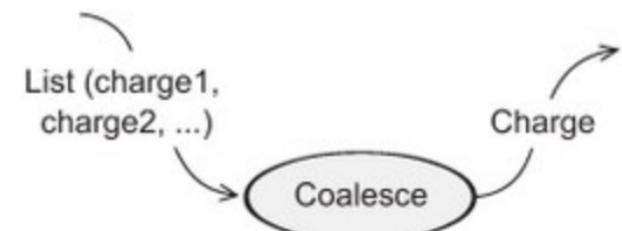


Can't test `buyCoffee`
without credit card server.
Can't combine two
transactions into one.

Without a side effect



If `buyCoffee`
returns a `charge` object
instead of performing a side
effect, a caller can easily combine
several charges into one transaction.
(and can easily test the `buyCoffee` function
without needing a payment processor).



A Program with Side Effects *removing side effects*

```
class Cafe {  
    def buyCoffee(cc: CreditCard): (Coffee, Charge) = {  
        val cup = new Coffee()  
        (cup, Charge(cc, cup.price))  
    }  
}
```

To create a pair, we put the `cup` and `Charge` in parentheses separated by a comma.

`buyCoffee` now returns a pair of a `Coffee` and a `Charge`, indicated with the type `(Coffee, Charge)`. Whatever system processes payments is not involved at all here.

```
case class Charge(cc: CreditCard, amount: Double) {  
    def combine(other: Charge): Charge =  
        if (cc == other.cc)  
            Charge(cc, amount + other.amount)  
        else  
            throw new Exception("Can't combine  
                charges to different cards")  
}
```

```
case class Charge(cc: CreditCard, amount: Double) {  
    def combine(other: Charge): Charge =  
        if (cc == other.cc)  
            Charge(cc, amount + other.amount)  
        else  
            throw new Exception("Can't combine charges to different cards")  
}
```

A case class has one primary constructor whose argument list comes after the class name (here, `Charge`). The parameters in this list become public, unmodifiable (immutable) fields of the class and can be accessed using the usual object-oriented dot notation, as in `other.cc`.

An `if` expression has the same syntax as in Java, but it also returns a value equal to the result of whichever branch is taken. If `cc == other.cc`, then `combine` will return `Charge(...)`; otherwise the exception in the `else` branch will be thrown.

The syntax for throwing exceptions is the same as in Java and many other languages. We'll discuss more functional ways of handling error conditions in a later chapter.

A case class can be created without the keyword `new`. We just use the class name followed by the list of arguments for its primary constructor.

A Program with Side Effects

Listing 1.3. Buying multiple cups with `buyCoffees`

```
class Cafe {  
  
    List.fill(n)(x)  
    creates a List with  
    n copies of x. We'll  
    explain this funny  
    function call syntax  
    in a later chapter.  
        →  
    def buyCoffee(cc: CreditCard): (Coffee, Charge) = ...  
  
    def buyCoffees(cc: CreditCard, n: Int): (List[coffee], Charge) = {  
        val purchases: List[(coffee, Charge)] = List.fill(n)(buyCoffee(cc))  
        val (coffees, charges) = purchases.unzip  
        (coffees, charges.reduce((c1,c2) => c1.combine(c2))) ←  
    }  
}  
  
unzip splits a list of pairs  
into a pair of lists. Here we're  
destructuring this pair to  
declare two values (coffees  
and charges) on one line.
```

List[coffee] is an immutable singly linked list of coffee values. We'll discuss this data type more in chapter 3.

charges.reduce reduces the entire list of charges to a single charge, using combine to combine charges two at a time. reduce is an example of a *higher-order function*, which we'll properly introduce in the next chapter.

Functional Programming

“FP is **merely a discipline** that takes what many consider a good idea to **its logical endpoint**, applying the discipline even in situations where its applicability is less obvious.”

A Pure Function

is easier to reason about

A function **f** with input type **A** and output type **B**

(written in Scala: $A \Rightarrow B$, pronounced “A to B” or “A arrow B”)

is a computation that relates every value **a** of type **A** to exactly one value **b** of type **B** such that **b** is determined solely by the value of **a**.

Any changing state of an internal or external process is irrelevant to computing the result **f(a)**.

Example:

function: `intToString`

`Int => String`

“IF it really is a *function*, it will do nothing else!”

function: length function of a String in Java, Scala

Returns **only** length; **the same length is always returned**.

strings are not modified (*immutability*)

Referential Transparency

pure functions

Referential transparency (RT) is a property of *expressions* and not just functions.

$$2 + 3 = 5$$

2, 3 are expressions; + is the pure function. This has *no side effects*.

The answer is always 5 OR always evaluates to 5.

If in a program we replace $2 + 3$ with 5, no behaviour or meaning will change.

“A function is *pure* if calling it with RT arguments is also RT.”

“An expression **e** is referentially transparent if, for all programs **p**, all occurrences of **e** in **p** can be replaced by the result of evaluating **e** without affecting the meaning of **p**. A function **f** is pure if the expression **f(x)** is referentially transparent for all referentially transparent **x**.”

Referential Transparency

purity and substitution model

```
def buyCoffee(cc: CreditCard): Coffee = {  
    val cup = new Coffee()  
    cc.charge(cup.price)  
    cup  
}
```

`buyCoffee(customerCreditCard)` will evaluate to `cup`
`cup` is `new Coffee()`

NOW

`p(buyCoffee(customerCreditCard)) != p(new Coffee())`

Therefore, it does not hold RT and purity.

RT forces the **invariance** that everything a function *does* is represented by the *value* that it returns, according to the result type of the function.

Referential Transparency

purity and substitution model

- RT enables a simple and natural mode of reasoning about program evaluation called the **substitution model**.
- Computation proceeds like an algebraic equation.
- RT enables **equational reasoning** about programs.

In an algebraic equation, every part of an expression is expanded, replacing all variables with their referents, and then, reducing it to its simplest form. At each step, **a term is replaced with an equivalent one**; computation proceeds by **substituting equals for equals**.

Referential Transparency

purity and substitution model

```
scala> val x = "Hello, World"  
x: java.lang.String = Hello, World
```

```
scala> val r1 = x.reverse  
r1: String = dlrow ,olleH
```

```
scala> val r2 = x.reverse ← r1 and r2 are the same.  
r2: String = dlrow ,olleH
```

```
scala> val r1 = "Hello, World".reverse  
r1: String = dlrow ,olleH
```

```
scala> val r2 = "Hello, World".reverse ← r1 and r2 are still the same.  
r2: String = dlrow ,olleH
```

replace all occurrences of x with the expression referenced by x.

Replacement/expansion didn't affect the result.
Therefore, x was referentially transparent.

Referential Transparency

not RT example

```
scala> val x = new StringBuilder("Hello")
x: java.lang.StringBuilder = Hello

scala> val y = x.append(", World")
y: java.lang.StringBuilder = Hello, World

scala> val r1 = y.toString
r1: java.lang.String = Hello, World

scala> val r2 = y.toString
r2: java.lang.String = Hello, World
```

← **r1 and r2 are the same.**

now we substitute the call to append(), replacing all occurrences of y with the expression referenced by y

```
scala> val x = new StringBuilder("Hello")
x: java.lang.StringBuilder = Hello

scala> val r1 = x.append(", World").toString
r1: java.lang.String = Hello, World

scala> val r2 = x.append(", World").toString
r2: java.lang.String = Hello, World, World
```

← **r1 and r2 are no longer the same.**

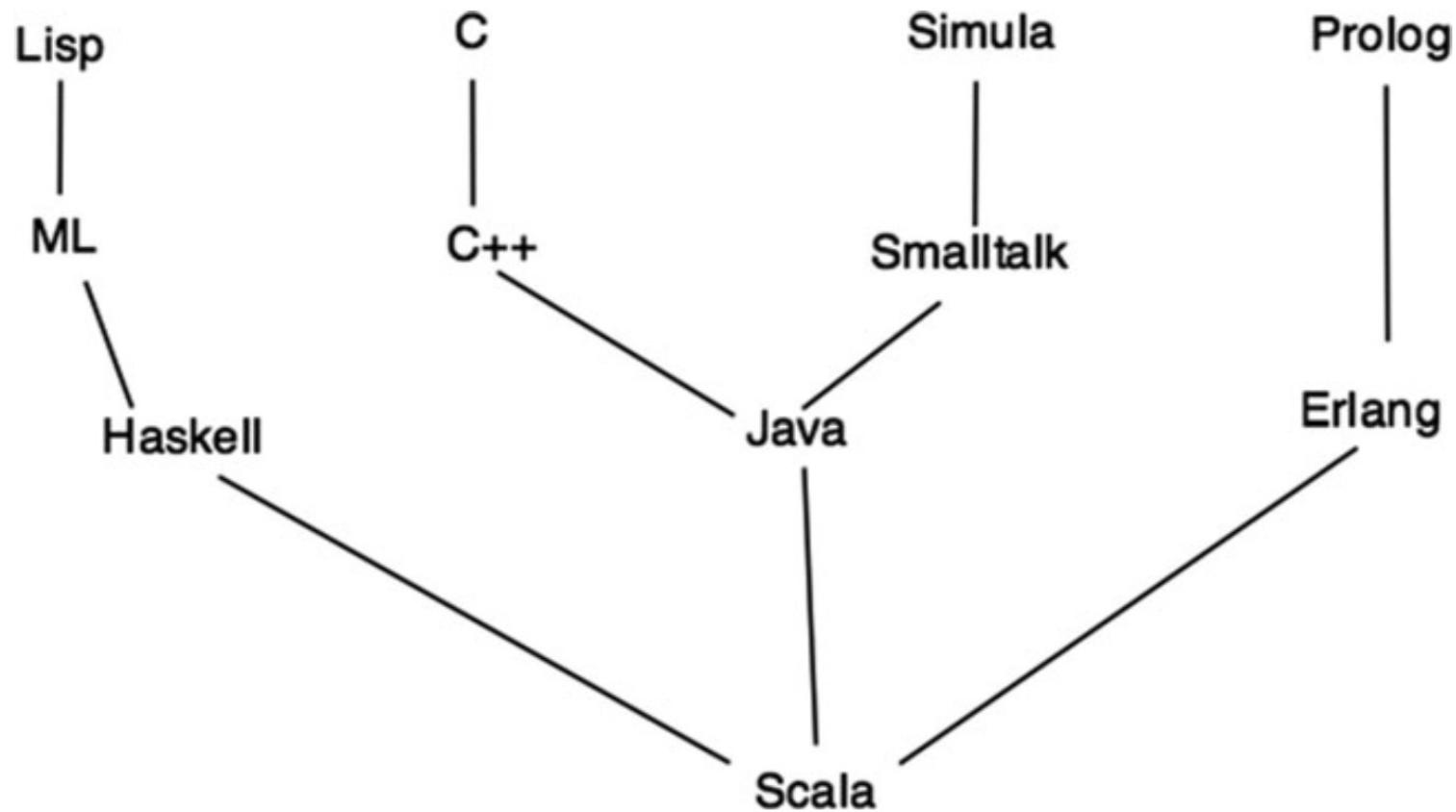
By the time r2 calls x.append(), r1 had already *mutated* the object referenced by x.

The function is not referentially transparent.
The value returned depends on x which
may be changed by another process. If you
think of this in terms of Object Oriented
programming, x could be a class member
variable and plus a class method. Such
operations are referentially opaque and are
common in the OO paradigm.



Scala

Scala



Scala

- It is a multi-paradigm (a hybrid) language: OOP + FP.
- From the OOP perspective, it is quite like JAVA or C++.
- It also enables functional programming like Haskell.
- It can be compiled into a JAVA byte code – runs on JVM.
- It has interoperability with JAVA.
- JRE allows Scala to exploit its libraries.



References

- Chiusano, P., & Bjarnason, R. (2014). *Functional Programming in Scala*. Manning publications.
- Hunt, J. (2018). A Beginner’s Guide to Scala, Object Orientation and Functional Programming. In *A Beginner’s Guide to Scala, Object Orientation and Functional Programming*. Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-75771-1>