

Objectives

- (Practice) To develop function definitions in Scala and use these functions
- (Theory) To explain the basic principles of FP

Resources

You should refer to the following resources accessible via Blackboard:

- Topic 4 Lecture videos 4A, 4B
- **Topic 4 folder** (zipped) – includes the notes and slides for this topic
- External website for Scala doc and other **Learning Resources** (see the folder on Blackboard). This contains a link to a nice lecture on recursion which will give you another explanation as well as those provided here.

Introduction

A very useful technique in mathematics and computer science is *recursion*. This is the ability for a function to be defined in terms of itself! Although this self-reference sounds odd, it does lead to very concise and readable solutions. Essentially, a function can be evaluated by delegation to (another instance of) itself. Consider the following function:

```
def countdown(n: Int): Unit = {
  print(s"$n ")
  if (n==0)
    println("Stopped")
  else
    countdown(n-1)
}
```

A call to `countdown(5)` will generate the following output:

5 4 3 2 1 0 Stopped

How does this work?

- `countdown(5)` calls the function with `n=5`
- 5 is printed and then, because 5 is not equal to zero, `countdown(5-1)` (i.e. `countdown(4)`) is called. At this point `countdown(5)` has not yet finished - it will only finish when the recursive call to `countdown(4)` has finished.
- `countdown(4)` has its own variable `n` which equals 4. This is printed. Then, because 4 is not equal to zero, `countdown(4-1)` (i.e. `countdown(3)`) is called.
- etc.
- and finally `countdown(0)` is called. The 0 is printed and then, because 0 is equal to zero, the function prints "Stopped" and then terminates. Control is passed back to the (suspended) `countdown(1)` which terminates and passes back control to `countdown(2)`, which stops and

passes back control to `countdown(3)`, which stops and passes back control to `countdown(4)`, which stops and passes back control to `countdown(5)`, which stops.

Classic example

```
def factorial(n: Long): Long = {
  if (n == 0)
    1
  else
    n * factorial(n - 1)
}
```

The function makes a call to itself. However, and this is crucial, note that the function's formal parameter, is `n`, but the recursive call is made with `n-1`. Thus the recursive call *makes progress towards zero*. Why is this important? Zero is the terminating condition: the condition that does not make another recursive call.

This pattern is common in many recursively defined functions. There will be some overall if-statement (or similar) in which:

- One branch does NOT have a recursive call: this is referred to as the *base case*. Typically, if a function has a numeric parameter, `n` (say), then the base case could be when `n=0`. If a function has a list parameter, `xs` (say), then the base case could be when the list is empty.
- One branch DOES have a recursive call. Importantly, the recursive call passes a parameter that gets closer to the base case. For a numeric parameter, `n`, this might be `n-1`, for example. For a list, `xs`, this might be the `xs.tail`, for example.

Finally, let us evaluate `factorial(4)` "on paper" (below) to show how the computation proceeds. Notice how `factorial(1)` cannot complete until `factorial(0)` has completed, and so on. The indentation reflects this:

```
factorial(5)
= 5 * factorial(4)
= 5 * (4 * factorial(3))
= 5 * (4 * (3 * factorial(2)))
= 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * factorial(1))))
= 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * (1 * factorial(0)))))
= 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * (1 * 1))))
= 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * 1)))
= 5 * (4 * (3 * 2))
= 5 * (4 * 6)
= 5 * 24
= 120
```

Data structures can also be recursive

The classic example of a recursive data structure is a singly-linked list. This will be the subject of a future topic. However, in this week's exercises we introduce you to Peano's numbers. Here are a couple of references:

<https://mathworld.wolfram.com/PeanosAxioms.html>

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peano_axioms

It is possible to represent the natural numbers like this:

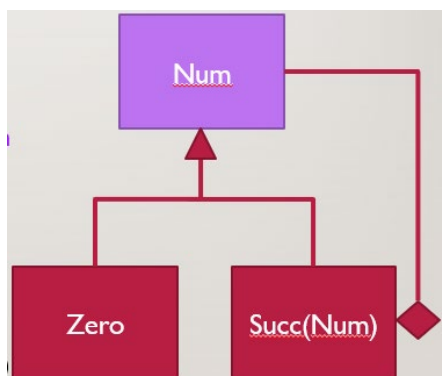
```
Zero                // the first natural number
Succ(Zero)          // the successor of Zero – i.e. One
Succ(Succ(Zero))    // the successor of One – i.e. Two
etc.
```

These numbers can be represented in a computer using a data structure like this:

```
sealed abstract class Num
case object Zero extends Num
case class Succ(n: Num) extends Num
```

The data structure is recursive (class **Succ** contains a value of type **Num**). It also resembles a singly-linked list – albeit one whose nodes do not store data items. In this case, the information we require is encoded by the *length* of the data structure. Let us assume that by *length* we mean the number of **Succ** constructors in the expression; then length 0 means Zero; length 1 means One; etc.

A class diagram shows the relationships.



The use of the Scala notation **case object** and **case class** for the concrete subclasses enables instances of these classes to be used in match expressions like this:

```
def toInt(n: Num): Int = n match {
  case Zero => 0
  case Succ(m) => 1 + toInt(m)
}
```

Activities

3.1 Watch the videos

Watch the videos 4A, 4B. The accompanying slides can be found in the topic-4-folder. These videos give you the background to FP and explain some of the fundamental concepts.

3.2 Install and run the FunctionDemo programs

Open your Scala IDE and within the **src** folder move to the **demo.function** package.

Copy the Scala files **FunDemo3.scala** and **FunDemo4.scala** into the **function** package.