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4.1

The Substitution Principle

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Floating Point Problem

```
def evaluate_3_tenths = 1.0/10 + 2.0/10
```

```
def multiply_by_10_over_3(x: Double) = x / 3 * 10
```

```
"doublePrecision" should "work properly" in {  
  val x = FunctionalProgramming.evaluate_3_tenths  
  val y = FunctionalProgramming.multiply_by_10_over_3(x)  
  y should be (1)  
}
```

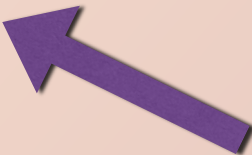
This test fails. Why? Because, unlike pure algebraic numbers, floating point numbers are *not associative*.

That's to say that $(a+b)+c \neq a+(b+c)$, at least in general. Much of the time, it will hold true but not always.

Floating Point Solution 1

ScalaTest:

```
"Floating Point Problem" should "be OK" in {  
  val x = Rational(1,10)+Rational.normalize(2,10)  
  val y = x * 10 / 3  
  y shouldBe 'unity  
}
```



Rational is a class defined in the class git repo.
There is also a chapter on a *Rational* class in the text book.

ScalaTest works fine for particular cases. We could do more testing to cover the domain, especially using *scalacheck*. But none of this is as good as...

Floating Point Solution 2

We can do better with substitution*:

(1) `Rational.normalize(2,10)` \Rightarrow `Rational(2/gcd(2,10),10/gcd(2,10))`
 \Rightarrow `Rational(2/gcd(2,0),10/gcd(2,0))` \Rightarrow `Rational(2/2,10/5)` \Rightarrow
`Rational(1,5)`

(2) `Rational(1,10)+Rational(1,5)` \Rightarrow
`Rational.normalize(1*5+10*1,10*5)` \Rightarrow `Rational.normalize(15,50)` \Rightarrow
`Rational(15/gcd(15,50),50/gcd(15,50))` \Rightarrow `Rational(3,10)`

(3) `Rational(3,10) * 10` \Rightarrow `Rational(3,1)`

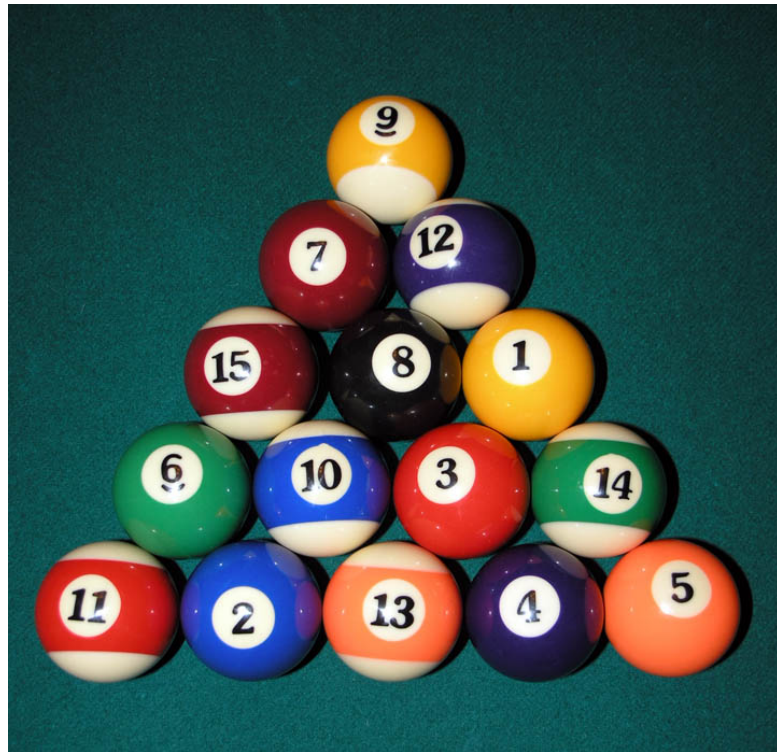
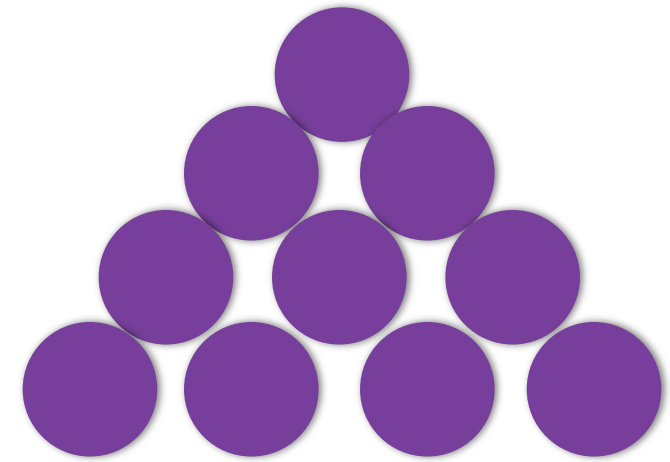
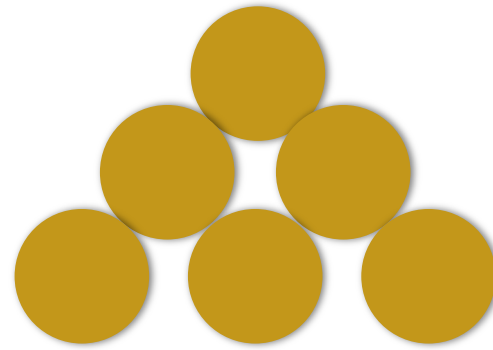
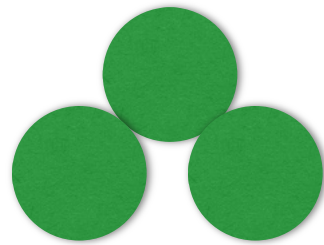
(4) `Rational(3,1) / 3` \Rightarrow `Rational(1,1)`

(5) `Rational(1,1).isUnity` \Rightarrow `1==1 && isWhole` \Rightarrow `1==1 && 1==1` \Rightarrow `true`

* The “Substitution Model” is an important aspect of functional programming which we will refer to again and again.

The Substitution Model

- Formalized in the **λ** calculus, introduced by Church (1932)
- Can be used to **prove** the equivalence of expressions *provided* all expressions reduce to “pure” functions (or constants), i.e. **there are no side-effects!**
- Termination: not all expressions can be substituted in a finite number of steps: e.g. `def x = x`
- In which order should we evaluate expressions?
 - `val x = 3*4*5`: two options: $(3*4)*5$ and $3*(4*5)$
 - `val x = square(3+4)`: two options: $(3+4)*(3+4)$ and $7*7$
 - These are known as call-by-name and call-by-value
 - Which do you think is fastest? Best?



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Eight_Ball_Rack_2005_SeanMcClean.jpg

9	5	4	13	2	11
7	12	14	3	10	6
15	8	1	1	8	15
6	10	3	14	12	7
11	2	13	4	5	9

$N(N+1)$

Sum of 1 thru N

Side-bar on “Proof by Induction”

- Consider the “discrete sum” of consecutive whole numbers:
 - $P(n) = 0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + n$
 - I will assert (see previous slide) that $P(n) = n(n+1)/2$ for any positive integer n .
 - This seems to work for $n = 4$: $0+1+2+3+4 = 10 = 4(5)/2$
 - But can we *prove* it for all n ?
- Proof by induction involves proving, independently, two cases: the base case and the inductive step:
 - Base case: $n = 1$
 - $0 + 1 = 1$ and $1(1+1)/2 = 1$
 - Inductive step:
 - *if* $P(n) = n(n+1)/2$ *then* $P(n+1)$ *should equal* $(n+1)(n+2)/2$
 - i.e. $(n+1)(n+2)/2 - n(n+1)/2$ should equal $n+1$
 - i.e. $(n+2-n)(n+1)/2$ should equal $n+1$
 - i.e. $2(n+1)/2$ should equal $n+1$
- Now, we have proven that the identity holds for $n=1$ and that, if it holds for n , it also holds for $n+1$
- Therefore: $P(n) = n(n+1)/2$



Substitution proof

- Let us prove a definition of *List.length*:

```
package edu.neu.coe.csye7200.list
```

```
trait List[+A] {  
  def length: Int  
}
```

```
case object Nil extends List[Nothing] {  
  def length: Int = 0  
}
```

```
case class Cons[+A](head: A, tail: List[A]) extends List[A] {  
  def length: Int = 1 + tail.length  
}
```

```
object List {  
  def apply[A](as: A*): List[A] =  
    if (as.isEmpty) Nil  
    else Cons(as.head, apply(as.tail: _*))  
}
```

- By *induction*: two parts:

- Prove the case for Nil (0)

- Prove that: *if* it holds for list of length *N*, *then* it holds for list of length *N+1*

Do this proof by induction. You may confer.




Substitution proof (2)

- (1):
 $\text{Nil.length} \rightarrow 0$
- (2):
 - Assume that listN.length yields the length of ListN , i.e. N
 $\text{Cons}(\text{"a"}, \text{listN}).\text{length} \rightarrow 1 + \text{listN.length} \rightarrow 1 + N$
- Statement is proved because of (1) and (2)

Call-by-name/value

- Remember from a few slides ago?
 - In which order should we evaluate expressions?
 - `val x = 3*4*5`: two options: $(3*4)*5$ and $3*(4*5)$
 - `val x = square(3+4)`: two options: $(3+4)*(3+4)$ and $7*7$
 - These are known as call-by-name and call-by-value
 - Which do you think is fastest? Best?
- Did you decide what was best?

Call-by-name/value

- If both CBN and CBV terminate, then the result is equivalent...
 - So, does it matter which we use?
 - It can matter a lot!!
 - if CBV terminates, then so must CBN (but not other way around)
 - `def zip[A,B](x: Seq[A], y: Seq[B]): Seq[(A,B)]`  “Seq” is a Trait extended by List, LazyList, etc.

```
Welcome to Scala version 2.11.6 (Java HotSpot(TM) 64-Bit Server VM, Java 1.8.0_05).
Type in expressions to have them evaluated.
Type :help for more information.
```

```
scala> val x = List("a","b")
x: List[String] = List(a, b)
```

```
scala> val y = LazyList from 1
Y: scala.collection.immutable.LazyList[Int] = LazyList(1, ?)
```

```
scala> x.zip(y)
res6: List[(String, Int)] = List((a,1), (b,2))
```

Strict/non-strict functions

- First off—a question:
 - You’ve been tasked with implementing a method which takes two boolean arguments and yields the “and” of the two values.
 - However, with a mind to efficiency, your “customer” says that he doesn’t want to evaluate the second argument if the first one is false.
 - Your first idea is this:

```
def and(a: Boolean, b: Boolean): Boolean =  
    if (a) b else false
```

 - How can you change the definition to achieve your goal?

Non-strict (lazy) functions

```
scala> def and(a: Boolean, b: Boolean): Boolean = if (a) b else false
and: (a: Boolean, b: Boolean)Boolean
```


```
scala> def myTrue = {println("hello"); true}
myTrue: Boolean
```

```
scala> and(false, myTrue)
hello
res9: Boolean = false
```


```
scala> def and(a: Boolean, b: () => Boolean): Boolean = if (a) b() else false
and: (a: Boolean, b: () => Boolean)Boolean
```

```
scala> and(false, myTrue _)
res10: Boolean = false
```

However, we did have to explicitly invoke *b* to yield a *Boolean* from *a => Boolean*.



Note that when we define *and* this way, we have to “partially apply” the value of *myTrue*.



Syntactic sugar for the form involving *Function0[Boolean]*



- Note that we replaced the “normal” value-type Boolean parameter “b” with a function that takes no arguments but returns a Boolean.
- We could also write the “and” method and its invocation thus:

```
def and(a: Boolean, b: => Boolean): Boolean = if (a) b else false
and(false, myTrue)
```


Type inference with isomorphism

- Let's say we have a *List* of *Ints* and we convert it to a list of *Strings*:
 - `val x = List(1,2,3)`
 - `val y = x map {n => n.toString}`
 - The compiler knows that *y* is a *List[String]* because of **Type Inference*** so we don't have to explicitly write `val y: List[String]=...`
- Let's say we need a greatest common denominator method:
 - `@tailrec private def gcd(a: Long, b: Long) = if (b==0) a else gcd(b, a % b)`
 - The compiler cannot figure out what the return type of *gcd* is supposed to be
 - `@tailrec private def gcd(a: Long, b: Long): Long = if (b==0) a else gcd(b, a % b)`
- More on this later...

However, explicitly specifying types can be a very helpful aid to getting programs to compile



We must explicitly specify the return type of a recursive method

* and because of type isomorphism, *map* retains the “shape” of *x* in *y*

Type inference/isomorphism continued

- We just saw this (where annotating the type of *y* is optional):
 - `val y: List[String] = List(1,2,3) map (_.toString)`
- But we could also have written any of the following:
 - `val y: Seq[String] = Seq(1,2,3) map (_.toString)`
 - `val y: LazyList[String] = LazyList.from(1) map (_.toString)`
 - `val y: Option[String] = Option(1) map (_.toString)`
- But there is really only one definition of *map*: it's in *IterableOnce*...
- How does it work? It's a little bit of magic and some ordinary code. You can look at the source code yourself. Rather advanced for now, though.