Functional Programming

```
Functional Programming
   Week1:
       call by value vs call by name:
        Conditionals:
        Blocks, Scopes and first functional program:
       Tail recursion:
   Week 2:
       Currying:
       Classes:
        Substitution and Extensions:
            1. Substitution:
            2. Extension methods (1):
            3. Operators:
   Week3:
       Abstract classes:
        Object definition:
        Programs:
       Traits:
       Cons List:
            A complete definition with Generics:
            Generic functions:
        Pure Object Orientation:
```

Week1:

call by value vs call by name:

Call-by-value: evaluate the parameters *then* execute the function on these values.

e.g:

```
sumOfSquares(3, 2+2)
sumOfSquares(3, 4) // evaluated 2+2 BEFORE executing sumOfSquares
square(3) + square(4)
3 * 3 + square(4)
9 + square(4)
9 + 4 * 4
9 + 16
```

Call-by-value has the advantage that it evaluates every function argument only once.

Call-by-name: Apply the function to unreduced arguments.

e.g:

```
sumOfSquares(3, 2+2)
square(3) + square(2+2) // executing sumeOfSquare before evaluating 2+2
3 * 3 + square(2+2)
9 + square(2+2)
9 + (2+2) * (2+2)
9 + 4 * (2+2)
9 + 4 * 4
```

Call-by-name has the advantage that a function argument is not evaluated if the corresponding parameter is unused in the evaluation of the function body.

e.g:

```
def loop : Int = loop
def f(a:Int , b : Int ) : Int = a // Call-by-value
f(1,loop) // does not terminate
def f(a:Int, b : ⇒ Int) : Int = a // Call-by-Name ( ⇒ )
f(1,loop) // terminates
```

Both strategies reduce to the same final values as long as

- ▶ the reduced expression consists of pure functions, and
- both evaluations terminate.

Conditionals:

```
def abs(x: Int) = if x \ge 0 then x else -x
```

if-then-else in Scala is an expression (has a value) not a statement.

Blocks, Scopes and first functional program:

Sqrt with Newton's method:

```
def sqrt(x: Double) = {
    def sqrtIter(guess: Double, x: Double): Double =
        if isGoodEnough(guess, x) then guess
        else sqrtIter(improve(guess, x), x)
    def improve(guess: Double, x: Double) =(guess + x / guess) /
    def isGoodEnough(guess: Double, x: Double) =abs(square(guess) - x) < 0.001
    sqrtIter(1.0, x)</pre>
```

sgrtIter, improve and isGoodEnough should not be outside sgrt because:

- they pollute the global scope.
- they should not be accessible to the user of the sgrt code given they are specific to sgrt.

the {} could be removed for more clarity.

Tail recursion:

```
def gcd(a: Int, b: Int): Int = if b = 0 then a else <math>gcd(b, a % b)
                               gcd(14, 21)
                               \rightarrow if 21 == 0 then 14 else gcd(21, 14 % 21)
                               \rightarrow if false then 14 else gcd(21, 14 % 21)
                               \rightarrow gcd(21, 14 % 21)
                               \rightarrow gcd(21, 14)
                               \rightarrow if 14 == 0 then 21 else gcd(14, 21 % 14)
                               \rightarrow gcd(14, 7)
gcd(14,21) = gcd(21,14) = gcd(14,7) = gcd(...,...) = ... = 7: flat structure, gcd only calls
gcd => tail recursion.
    def factorial(n: Int): Int = if n = 0 then 1 else n * factorial(n - 1)
factorial(4)
\rightarrow if 4 == 0 then 1 else 4 * factorial(4 - 1) 3-> \rightarrow 4 * factorial(3)
-> 4 * (3 * factorial(2))
-- 4 * (3 * (2 * factorial(1)))
\rightarrow 4 * (3 * (2 * (1 * factorial(0)))
-- 4 * (3 * (2 * (1 * 1)))
factorial calls factorial and multiplies, nested structure > not tail recursion
```

To tell the compiler than a function is tail recursive:

```
import scala.annotation.tailrec
@tailrec
def gcd(a: Int, b: Int): Int = ...
```

Week 2:

Higher order functions:

Def: Functions that take other functions as parameters and return functions. example:

```
def sum( f : Int \Rightarrow Int )( a : Int , b : Int ) : Int
```

- takes as argument: the function f: Int ⇒ Int
- returns: a function that has 2 arguments a:Int,b:Int and returns Int

Function types: $A \Rightarrow B$ is the type of a function that takes an argument of type A and returns a result of type B. e.g: Int \Rightarrow Int maps integers to integers.

Anonymous Functions:

```
(x: Int, y: Int) \Rightarrow x + y
```

Use case:

```
def sumCubes(a: Int, b: Int) = sum(x \Rightarrow x * x * x, a, b) // type of function is inferred by the compiler
```

Currying:

Suppose we have this header for sum : def sum(f : Int⇒Int , a : Int , b : Int)

```
def sumInts(a: Int, b: Int) = sum(x \Rightarrow x, a, b)
def sumCubes(a: Int, b: Int) = sum(x \Rightarrow x * x * x, a, b)
def sumFactorials(a: Int, b: Int) = sum(fact, a, b)
```

Notice that a and b get passed unchanged from sumInts to sum .

Q: Can we do it shorter?

```
def sum(f: Int ⇒ Int): (Int, Int) ⇒ Int =
    def sumF(a: Int, b: Int): Int =
        if a > b then 0
        else f(a) + sumF(a + 1, b)
sumF

def sumInts = sum(x ⇒ x)
def sumCubes = sum(x ⇒ x * x * x * x)
def sumFactorials = sum(fact)
```

is now a function that takes 1 argument () and returns a function that takes 2 arguments a and b.

We can still do shorter:

```
def sum(f: Int ⇒ Int)(a: Int, b: Int): Int =
    if a > b then 0 else f(a) + sum(f)(a + 1, b)

Q: What is the type of sum ?

A: (Int⇒Int) ⇒ ((Int,Int)⇒Int) equivalent to

(Int⇒Int) ⇒ (Int,Int)⇒Int

Note that function types associate to the right so it is equivalent to:
```

Classes:

we can define classes in Scala:

Int \Rightarrow Int \Rightarrow Int is equivalent to Int \Rightarrow (Int \Rightarrow Int)

```
class Rational(x: Int, y: Int):
   def numer = x // numer and denom here are functions (recalculated each call)
   def denom = y
    // adding operations
    def addRational(r: Rational, s: Rational):
        Rational = Rational(r.numer * s.denom + s.numer * r.denom,r.denom *
s.denom)
    // overriding toString
    override def toString = s"$numer/$denom" // s means formatted string
    // what is after a $ is evaluated
val x = Rational(1, 2) // x: Rational = Rational@2abe0e27
x.numer // 1
x.denom // 2
val y = Rational(5, 7)
val z = Rational(3, 2)
x.add(y).add(z)
```

Classes are very similar to Java.

Suppose that numer and denom need more calculations, like the following:

```
class Rational(x: Int, y: Int):
    private def gcd(a: Int, b: Int): Int =
        if b = 0 then a else gcd(b, a % b)
    def numer = x / gcd(x, y) // these are recalcaled at each call
    def denom = y / gcd(x, y) // BAD IDEA

// BETTER IDEA : VARIABLES :
    val numer = x / gcd(x, y)
    val denom = y / gcd(x, y)
```

It is possible to use this () like is lava.

Substitution and Extensions:

1. Substitution:

Suppose that we have a class definition:

```
class C(x1, ..., xm){ ... def f(y1, ..., yn) = b ... }
```

Q: How is the following expression evaluated? $C(v_1, ..., v_m).f(w_1, ..., w_n)$

A: Three substitutions happen written:

```
[w1/y1, ..., wn/yn][v1/x1, ..., vm/xm][C(v1, ..., vm)/this] b
```

- Substitution of y_1, \dots, y_n of f by the arguments w_1, \dots, w_n .
- Substitution of the x1, ..., xm of the class C by the class arguments v1, ..., vm.
- Substitution of the self reference this by the value of the object C(v1, ..., vn).

2. Extension methods (1):

Having to define all methods that belong to a class inside the class itself can lead to very large classes, and is not very modular.

Methods that do not need to access the internals of a class can alternatively be defined as extension methods.

For instance, we can add min and abs methods to class Rational like this:

```
extension (r: Rational):

def min(s: Rational): Boolean = if s.less(r) then s else r

def abs: Rational = Rational(r.numer.abs, r.denom)
```

• Extension methods **CANNOT** access internals (private) or this.(..).

3. Operators:

- ► We write x + y, if x and y are integers, but
- ► We write [r.add(s)] if r and s are rational numbers.

In Scala, we can eliminate this difference with **operators**.

```
extension (x: Rational):

def + (y: Rational): Rational = x.add(y)
```

Precedence rules:

```
(all letters)
|
^
&
< >
= !
:
+ -
* / %
(all other special characters)
```

(all other special characters) having the highest priority.

Week3:

Abstract classes:

```
abstract class IntSet:
    def incl(x: Int): IntSet // ABSTRACT MEMBERS : no implementation provided
    def contains(x: Int): Boolean
// incl returns the union of {x} and this set
```

Like in Java, abstract classes cannot be instantiated.

We will try to implement a set as a binary tree.

A set can either be:

- 1. A tree for the **empty set**.
- 2. A tree consisting of **one** integer with two subtrees.



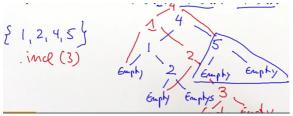
```
class Empty() extends IntSet:
    def contains(x: Int): Boolean = false
    def incl(x: Int): IntSet = NonEmpty(x, Empty(), Empty())

class NonEmpty(elem: Int, left: IntSet, right: IntSet) extends IntSet:
    def contains(x: Int): Boolean =
        if x < elem then left.contains(x)
        else if x > elem then right.contains(x) else true

    def incl(x: Int): IntSet =
        if x < elem then NonEmpty(elem, left.incl(x), right)
        else if x > elem then NonEmpty(elem, left, right.incl(x))
    else this
end NonEmpty
```

1. Persistence:

Note that we the sets are immutable, we always return a new tree while **reusing** some subtrees.(blue one in the following e.g)



A data structure that is creating by maintaining the old one is called **persistent**.

2. Dynamic binding:

```
class Empty() extends IntSet:
    ...
    def union(other : Inset): Intset = other
class NonEmpty((elem: Int, left: IntSet, right: IntSet)) extends Inset :
    ...
    def union(other : Inset ): Intset = l.union(r).union(that).incl(elem)

// Why does this terminate ? Union is called with strictly smaller sets each
time so union( "an empty set " ) will be called at some point.
```

Note that a call to union doesn't execute the same function if s is Empty or NonEmpty. That is called Dynamic **binding**. (Polymorphism)

Object definition:

In the IntSet example, one could argue that there is really **only a single** empty

This defines a **singleton** object named Empty. No other Empty instance can be (or needs to be) created.

```
object Empty extends IntSet:
def contains(x: Int): Boolean = false
def incl(x: Int): IntSet = NonEmpty(x, Empty, Empty) end Empty
```

Companion object:

If a class and object with the same name are given in the same sourcefile, we call them companions. Example:

```
class IntSet ...
object IntSet:
def singleton(x: Int) = NonEmpty(x, Empty, Empty)
```

Similar to Java, static nested class.

How is naming a class and an object the same name possible ? Scala has **two** namespaces . one for objects and the other for classes.

Programs:

Like Java, scale source files can have a main methods

```
object Hello:
    def main(args: Array[String]): Unit = println("hello world!")
// written Shorter as the following :
@main def birthday(name: String, age: Int) =
println(s"Happy birthday, $name! $age years old already!")
```

to run: scala Hello

Traits:

Java Interface but stronger: they can have parameters and can contain fields and concrete methods.

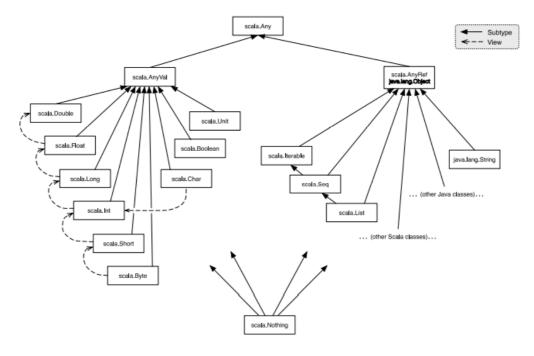
```
trait Planar:

def height: Int

def width: Int

def surface = height * width

class Square extends Shape, Planar, Movable ...
```



---> : can be converted (viewed) as

Cons List:

A fundamental data structure in many functional languages is the **immutable** linked list.

It is constructed from two building blocks:

```
1 Nil the emnty list
```

```
trait IntList ...
class Cons(val head: Int, val tail: IntList) extends IntList ...
// NOTE THE USE OF val
// this defines at the same time a parameter and a field of a class
class Nil() extends IntList ...
```

A IntList is either a Nil() or a Cons(x,xs).

A complete definition with Generics:

```
trait List[T]:
    def isEmpty: Boolean
    def head: T
    def tail: List[T]

class Cons[T](val head: T, val tail: List[T]) extends List[T]:
    def isEmpty = false

class Nil[T] extends List[T]:
    def isEmpty = true
    def head = throw new NoSuchElementException("Nil.head")
    def tail = throw new NoSuchElementException("Nil.tail")
```

Generic functions:

```
def singleton[T](elem: T) = Cons[T](elem, Nil[T])
// We can then write:
singleton[Int](1)
singleton[Boolean](true)
```

Pure Object Orientation:

Def: A pure object-oriented language is one in which every value is an object.

Q: Is Scala a pure OO language?

At first primitive types and functions seem like exceptions.

Primitive types are in fact not implemented as Class. (E.g scala.Int: 32bits, scala.Boolean as Java Boolean), for reasons of efficiency.

But they are not *conceptually* treated differently. In fact one can implement them using classes :

```
package idealized.scala
abstract class Boolean extends AnyVal:
    def ifThenElse[T](t: ⇒ T, e: ⇒ T): T
    def && (x: ⇒ Boolean): Boolean = ifThenElse(x, false)
    def || (x: ⇒ Boolean): Boolean = ifThenElse(true, x)
    def unary_!: Boolean = ifThenElse(false, true)
    def = (x: Boolean): Boolean = ifThenElse(x, x.unary_!)
    def ≠ (x: Boolean): Boolean = ifThenElse(x.unary_!, x)
...
end Boolean
```

```
object <mark>false</mark> extends <mark>Boolean:</mark>
def ifThenElse[T](t: ⇒ T, e: ⇒ T) = e
```

Here is how to implement Scala.Int.

Functions: In scala functions are objects with apply methods

The function type $A \Rightarrow B$ is just an abbreviation for the class scala. Function1[A, B], which is defined as follows.

```
package scala
trait Function1[A, B]:
def apply(x: A): B
```

Example:

```
f = (x:Int) ⇒ x * x
// is expended to
f = new Function1[Int, Int]:
    def apply(x: Int) = x * x
```

This anonymous class can itself expend to

```
{ class $anonfun() extends Function1[Int, Int]:
  def apply(x: Int) = x * x
  $anonfun()
  }
  f(7) // expends to
  f.apply(7)
```