

# Functional programming

## Week 1

### Evaluation strategies: call by name vs call by value

Suppose we have a program in scala that runs `sumOfSquares(3, 2+2)`. The call-by-value model would produce:

```
sumOfSquares(3, 2+2)
sumOfSquares(3, 4)
square(3) + square(4)
3*3 + square(4)
9 + 4*4
9 + 16
25
```

Whereas the call-by-name model would produce

```
sumOfSquares(3, 2+2)
square(3) + square(2+2)
3*3 + square(2+2)
9 + square(2+2)
9 + (2+2)*(2+2)
9 + 4*(2+2)
9 + 4*4
25
```

The advantage of call-by-value is that every function argument is evaluated only once. In the second snippet, we see how `2+2` is evaluated twice. However, call-by-name has the advantage that a function argument is not evaluated if a parameter is unused in the evaluation of the function body.

Consider this example:

```
def test(x: Int, y: Int) = x*x
// which evaluation method is more efficient?
test(3+4,8)

//CBV
7*8
//CBN
(3+4)*8
3*8 + 4*8
```

We can also have that a program will terminate under CBN but not under CBV and vice versa. For instance:

```
def first(x: Int, y: Int) = x
first(1,loop)
```

```
//CBN
1
//CBV
first(1,loop)
.
.
.
.
```

Scala normally uses CBV. But if the type of a function parameter starts with a right arrow it will use CBN. To demonstrate this, we define the and function making sure its second argument is call by name:

```
def and(x: Boolean, y: => Boolean): Boolean =
  if x then y else false
```

## Week 2

### Higher order and anonymous functions

A higher order function is a function that takes another function as argument. Here is an example:

Suppose we want to take the sum of all integers between some lower bound  $a$  and an upper bound  $b$ . We may recursively define

```
def sumInts(x:Int, y:Int):Int =
  if (x > y) 0
  else x + sumInts(x+1,y)
```

We could also define the same but for cubes

```
def sumCubes(x:Int, y:Int):Int =
  if (x > y) 0
  else cube(x) + sumCubes(x+1,y)
```

However we could make the code more generic and define a general sum function that takes as first argument a function, namely the rule to apply and this way if we also wanted to define some `sumFactorial` we could simply use the `sum` function. Consider

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

Then we could easily define

```
def id(x: Int):Int = x
def sumInts(a: Int, b: Int):Int = sum(id, a, b)
```

Now notice how we tediously had to define an `id` function. Instead we may define `id` anonymously, it would then look like

```
(x:Int) -> x
```

and then define `sumInts` as

```
def sumInts(a: Int, b: Int):Int = sum((x:Int) -> x, a, b)
```

Anonymous functions are *syntactic sugar*, that is they make life nicer, but not really essential since we can always go the tedious `def` way.

## Currying

The idea behind currying(named after Haskell Curry) is that we are able to describe a function that takes multiple arguments as a composition of functions that all take one argument. The point of currying is that it takes a function and provides a new function with the parameter applied. For instance, we apply currying to find the product of the square of numbers in a given range as follows:

```
def product(f: Int => Int)(a:Int, b:Int): Int =  
    if a > b then 1 else f(a) * product(f)(a+1,b)
```

```
// function call  
product(x => x*x)(1,5)  
/**  
will print 14400 = 4*9*16*25  
*/
```

## Functions and Data

Suppose we want to define a *rational* type, we would say:

```
class Rational(x:Int, y:Int): Rational  
    def numer = x  
    def denom = y
```

And we would add methods to our class as follows:

```
def addRational(r:Rational, s:Rational): Rational=  
    Rational (  
        r.numer*s.denom+s.numer*r.denom, r.denom*s.denom)
```

## Week 3

### Classes and polymorphism

**Abstract classes** contain members which are missing an implementation, no direct instances can be created.

**Persistent data structures** are those data structures that can be made from preexisting ones. Consider an implementation of a set as a binary tree. Now suppose we have a tree with nodes 1,2,4,5. If we were to add 3 to this set, we would simply add it to the preexisting object.

Overriding example:

```
abstract class Base:
  def foo = 1

class Sub extends Base:
  override def foo = 2
```

An object and a class can have the same name since the two live in different namespaces. But, a class and object with the same are called **companions**. This definition is similar to static class definitions.

And here is how one creates standalone Scala code without needing the REPL:

```
object HelloWorld:
  def main(args: Array[String]) : Unit = println("hello world")
```

Class imports:

```
import week3.rational
import week3.{rational,hello}
import week3._ //imports everything
```

**Traits** Normally a class can have only one superclass. But what if a class should have more than one super type? We use a trait.

Important top types:

- Any: base type of all types
- AnyRef: base type of all reference types
- AnyVal: base type of all primitive types

**Lists:** Lists in scala are defined as immutable linked-lists constructed from:

- Nil == the empty list
- Cons == cell containing element and the remainder of the list

```
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")
```

**Value parameters:** Writing (val head: Int, val tail: IntList) is the same as declaring the two parameters in the body of the class.

**Type erasure:** Scala removes types at compile time

**Polymorphism:** means a function that comes in many forms for instance:

- function can be applied to arguments of many types
- type can have instances of many types

## Week 4

Our objective this week is to find a general and convenient way to access heterogeneous data in a class hierarchy. We will use **pattern matching** for this feat.

### Case classes

```
trait Expr
case class Number(n: Int) extends Expr
case class Sum(e1: Expr, e2: Expr) extends Expr
case class Var(name: String) extends Expr
case class Prod(e1: Expr, e2: Expr) extends Expr
// example usage

def eval(e: Expr): Int = e match
  case Number(n) => n
  case Sum(e1,e2) => eval(e1) + eval(e2)

def show(e: Expr): String = e match
  case Number(n) => n.toString
  case Sum(e1, e2) => s"${show(e1)} + ${show(e2)}"
  case Var(x) => x
  case Prod(e1,e2) => s"${showP(e1)} * ${showP(e2)}"

def showP(e: Expr): String = e match
  case e: Sum => s"(${show(e)})"
  case _ => show(e)
```

### Lists

- Lists in scala are immutable, their elements can not be changed
- Lists are recursive, arrays are flat

All lists are constructed from the empty list Nil and :: (cons)

Example:

```
nums = 1 :: (2 :: (3 :: (4 :: Nil)))
```

Some facts:

- Operations that end in : associate to the right.
- All operations on lists can be expressed in terms of head, tail, isEmpty

List pattern matching example:

The pattern `x :: y :: List(xs, ys) :: zs` is matched by the condition `L >= 3` because it represents 3 elements with the last list element potentially being `Nil`.

### Insertion sort using pattern matching

```
def isort(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match
  case List() => List()
  case y :: ys => insert(y, isort(ys)) //recursively sort tail of list

def insert(x: Int, xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match
  case List() =>
  case y :: ys =>
    if x < y then x :: xs else y :: insert(x, ys) //if x < y then we make x the first el
```

### Enums

$$4 + 4 = \sum_{n=i}$$