## **Programming in Scala**

Lecture Three

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13 December 2017

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## **Reviewing Fold**

#### foldr and foldl

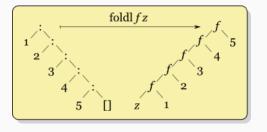
```
def reverse(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match {
    case List() => List()
    case y::ys => reverse(ys) ::: List(y)
}

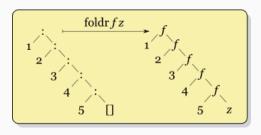
val xs = List(1,2,3,4,5)
val ys = reverse(xs)

val zs = ys.foldLeft(List[Int]())((xs: List[Int], x: Int) => x :: xs)

val ks = zs.foldRight(List[Int]())((x: Int, xs: List[Int]) => xs ::: List(x) )
```

## Visualizing folds





## More on Scala Classes

#### **Scala Classes Refresher**

In the first lecture we saw the basic mechanism provided by Scala to declare Classes. Back than we had seen *closures* without realizing it, thus let's take a fresh look at some of the examples:

```
class Complex(val re: Double, val im: Double) {
    override def toString = s"$re+i$im"
}

class Rational(a: Int, b: Int) {
    assert(b != 0)
    val num: Int = a / gcd(a, b)
    val den: Int = b / gcd(a, b)

def this(n: Int) = this(n, 1)
}
```

#### **Abstract Classes**

In Scala the **abstract** modifier is used to denote an abstract class. In other terms, a class that cannot be instantiated.

An abstract class *may have* abstract members that don't have an implementation (definition).

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex1

abstract class Shape {
    def scale(a: Float): Shape

// Parameter-less methods: Two takes:
    def show(): Unit

def area: Float
    def perimeter: Float

}
```

#### **Parameter-less Methods**

Parameter-less methods can be declared with or without parenthesis.

The convention is that parenthesis are used for methods that cause side-effects – like show above.

Parenthesis are not used to methods that compute properties. This way there **uniform access** between attributes and methods.

## **Extending a Class**

The *Shape* abstract type had defined some of the characteristics shared by some geometrical shapes.

A concrete shape can be defined by extending the abstract Shape class as follows:

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex1

class Circle(val radius: Float) extends Shape {

def scale(a: Float): Shape = new Circle(a * radius)

def show(): Unit = print(s"Circle($radius)")

def area: Float = Math.PI.toFloat*radius*radius

def perimeter: Float = 2*Math.PI.toFloat*radius

}
```

#### Methods or Vals?

The **area** and **perimeter** have been defined as parenthesis less methods.

As our shape are immutable, a valid question is if we could define them with **vals** and compute them only once, as opposed to every-time the method is called.

The good news is that Scala supports the concept of *abstract val*, let's see how to leverage them.

#### Abstract val

Along with abstract methods, an abstract class can also have abstract vals.

These are values which are declared but not defined.

If we were to leverage abstract values our Shape class could be declared as follows:

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex2

abstract class Shape {
    def scale(a: Float): Shape

    def show(): Unit

    val area: Float
    val perimeter: Float

}
```

## Implementing abstract val

Implementing an abstract val is as simple ad defining it as show in the code example below:

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex2

class Circle(val radius: Float) extends Shape {

def scale(a: Float): Shape = new Circle(a * radius)

def show(): Unit = print(s"Circle($radius)")

val area: Float = Math.PI.toFloat*radius*radius

val perimeter: Float = 2*Math.PI.toFloat*radius

}
```

#### **Observation**

Now, as we are using *val* the shape area is computed only once, at the time of initialization. This is an improvement compared from the previous example. Additionally, the client code cannot tell whether we are implementing the area and the perimeter with a val or with a parenthesis less method which is very good.

Yet... We are still spending the time even if the client code is never calling that operation. In an ideal world we would want to compute it once and only if needed... Can we do that?

#### lazy val

Scala defines the **lazy** modifier to indicate a value that should be computed lazily only when accessed.

If we want o do so, the only thing we need to change is the definition of the val, as shown below:

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex3

import edu.esiee.scala17.ex2.Shape

class Circle(val radius: Float) extends Shape {
 def scale(a: Float): Shape = new Circle(a * radius)

def show(): Unit = print(s"Circle($radius)")

lazy val area: Float = Math.PI.toFloat*radius*radius

lazy val perimeter: Float = 2*Math.PI.toFloat*radius

}
```

## **Overriding**

A subclass can override both *methods* as well as *val* defined in the parent class.

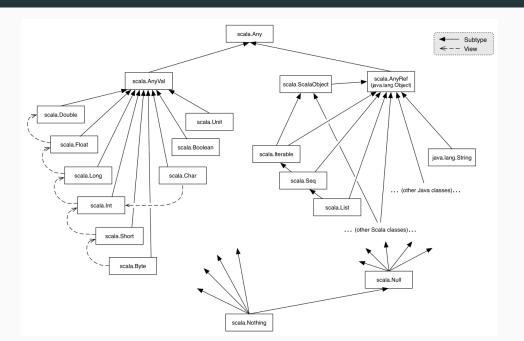
The super-class constructor can also be explicitly called as part of the extend declaration as shown in the example below:

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex3

class FastCircle(r: Float) extends Circle(r) {
    override val perimeter: Float = Math.PI.toFloat * (radius.toInt << 1)

override def show(): Unit = print(s"O($radius")
}</pre>
```

## **Scala Type Hierarchy**



## **Algebraic Data Types**

## Algebraic Data Type

In type theory and commonly in functional programming, an **algebraic data type** is a kind of composite type. In other term a type obtained by composing other types.

Depending on the composition operator we can have **product types** and **sum types** 

## **Product Types**

Product types are algebraic data types in which the algebra is product

A **product type** is defined by the conjunction of two or more types, called fields. The set of all possible values of a product type is the set-theoretic product, i.e., the Cartesian product, of the sets of all possible values of its field types.

#### **Example**

data Point = Point Double Double

In the example above the product type Point is defined by the Cartesian product of  $\mathit{Int} \times \mathit{Int}$ 

## **Sum Types**

The values of a sum type are typically grouped into several classes, called variants.

A value of a variant type is usually created with a quasi-functional entity called a constructor.

Each variant has its own constructor, which takes a specified number of arguments with specified types.

## **Sum Types Cont.**

The set of all possible values of a sum type is the set-theoretic sum, *i.e.*, the disjoint union, of the sets of all possible values of its variants.

Enumerated types are a special case of sum types in which the constructors take no arguments, as exactly one value is defined for each constructor.

Values of algebraic types are analyzed with pattern matching, which identifies a value by its constructor or field names and extracts the data it contains.

**Case Classes** 

**Pattern Matching** 

and

#### Case Classes

Scala **case classes** provide a way to *mimic* algebraic data types as found in functional programming languages.

The Scala version of the *Tree* type we defined in Haskell is:

```
package edu.esiee.scala17.ex4

abstract class Tree

object Empty extends Tree

case class Leaf(v: Int) extends Tree

case class Node(1: Tree, r: Tree) extends Tree

val t = Node(Leaf(1), Node(Leaf(2), Leaf(3)))
```

## Case Classes / Cont.

If you noticed the *Tree* algebraic data type was declared through case classes that did not have named attributes. In other term, there were no **val** or **var**.

That does not mean that you cannot declare **val** or **var** as part of a case class. It has more to do with the fact that case classes are worked upon using pattern matching.

## **Pattern Matching**

Scala pattern matching has the following structure:

selector match alternatives

A pattern match includes a series of *alternatives*, each starting with the keyword case.

Each alternative includes a *pattern* and one or more expressions, which are evaluated only if the pattern matches.

Let's see what are the kinds of patterns supported by Scala.

#### Wildcard Pattern

The wildcard pattern, denotated by \_, matches anything – thus its appelation.

```
def isEmpty(xs: List[Int]) =
       xs match {
         case List() => return true
3
         case _ => return false
5
6
    def isSingleElementList(xs: List[Int]) =
7
            xs match {
8
                     case List( ) => true
9
                     case _ => false
10
             }
11
```

#### **Constant Pattern**

A constant pattern matches only itself. Any literal, such as 18, 42, "Ciao", true can be used as a constant.

Any val or singleton object can also be used as a constant.

#### Variable Pattern

A variable pattern matches any object, just like a wildcard. But unlike a wildcard, Scala binds the variable to whatever the object is.

You can then use this variable to act on the object further.

#### **Constructor Pattern**

A constructor pattern looks like  $Node(Leaf(1), Node(Leaf(2), _))$ . It consists of a name (Tree) and then a number of patterns within parentheses.

Assuming the name designates a case class, such a pattern means to first check that the object is a member of the named case class, and then to check that the constructor parameters of the object match the extra patterns supplied.

#### **Example**

```
1  def triangleTree(t: Tree) =
2     t match {
3        case Node(Leaf(_), Leaf(_)) => True
4        case _ => False
5  }
```

Please notice that Sequence and Tuple patters are just a special case of constructor patterns.

#### **Exercise**

#### Define the following functions for our Tree type:

- 1. height which computes the tree height.
- 2. sum which is the function that computes the sum of all the elements of the tree.
- 3. fold which is a function that applies a generic binary operator to the tree, where the zero is used when for empty nodes.

## Typed Pattern

Typed pattern are used to test and cast types.

```
1  def generalSize(x: Any) = x match {
2    case s: String => s.length
3    case m: Map[_, _] => m.size
4    case _ => -1
5  }
```

#### Pattern Guards

A pattern guard comes after a pattern and starts with an **if**. The guard can be an arbitrary boolean expression, which typically refers to variables in the pattern.

If a pattern guard is present, the match succeeds only if the guard evaluates to true.

```
// match only positive integers
case n: Int if 0 < n => ...

// match only strings starting with the letter `a'
case s: String if s(0) == 'a' => ...
```

#### Other use of Patterns

Patterns can be used also in assignments, such as in:

```
val (a, b, c) = tripetFun(something)
```

Patterns can also be used in for expressions:

```
for ((key, value) <- store)
print("The key = " + key + "has value = " + value)</pre>
```

# For Expression Revisited

## For Expression

The general form of a **for** expression is:

Here, *seq* is a sequence of *generators*, *definitions*, and *filters*, with semicolons between successive elements.

## Generator, Definition and Filter

A **generator** is of the form:

$$pat \leftarrow expr$$

A **definition** is of the form:

$$pat = expr$$

A **filter** is of the form:

## for expression: Examples

```
for (x <- List(1, 2); y <- List("one", "two")) yield (x, y)</pre>
2
3
    for ( i <- 1 to 10; j <- i to 10) yield (i,j)
    val names = List("Morpheus", "Neo", "Trinity", "Tank", "Dozer")
5
6
    for (name <- names; if name.length == 3) yield name
7
8
    val xxs = List(List(1,2,3,4), List(6, 8, 10, 12), List(14, 16, 18))
9
10
    for (xs \leftarrow xxs; e \leftarrow xs; if (e \% 2 == 0)) yield e
11
12
13
    for (xs <- xxs; if (xs.isEmpty == false); h = xs.head) yield h
```

**Type Parameterization** 

## Type Constructors in Scala

Beside first order types, Scala supports Type Constructors, – a kind of higher order types.

In the case of Scala, a parametric class is an n-ary type operator taking as argument one or more types, and returning another type.

#### **Example**

The list time we have seen this far, is a type constructor declared as:

$$classList[+T]$$

Thus List[Int] and List[String] are two instances of the List[+T] type constructor.

## **Project Expo**

## When, and Who

- Gilles Ponnouradjane
- Sellathurai
- Wu
- Yildrim
- Adam
- Cavrois
- Derkaoui
- Fabianski
- Flamand and Lester
- Khadir
- Korenblit
- Li
- Mas

#### Where

```
Topic: Scala Project Expo
```

Time: Jan 3, 2018 3:00 PM Paris

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