

Programming in Scala

Lecture Four

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Implicit

Scala Implicit

Scala implicit definitions provide a general mechanism to control how the compiler resolves types or argument mismatches.

In other terms, it control the set of transformation available to the compiler to *fix* a compile time error.

Example

Suppose we have a function that sums the elements of a lists and we want to also use it to sum arrays.

If we just pass an array the compiler will raise a type error as he does not know how to convert an `Array[Int]` into a `List[Int]`.

```
def sum(xs: List[Int]): Int = xs match {  
  case List() => 0  
  case y::ys => y + sum(ys)  
}  
  
sum(Array[Int](1,3,4,5,6)) // Compiler error!
```

Implicit Functions

To fix this error and allow this function operate on Arrays as well as on List we can define an implicit conversion as shown below:

```
import scala.language.implicitConversions
object Converter {
    implicit def array2List(as: Array[Int])= as.toList
    implicit def strIntToInt(s: String) = s.toInt
}
```

```
import Converter._
```

```
sum(Array(1,3,4,5,6)) // Compiler inserts the conversion array2List
```

```
sum(Array[Int](1,"3",4,"5",6)) // Compiler inserts the conversions array2List and stringToInt
```

Implicit Classes

Implicit classes are commonly used to emulate *open classes* in Scala.

In other terms, one can define implicit transformation to extend or enrich the protocol supported by given type.

Example

```
object Implicits {  
  
    implicit class RichRunnable[T](runner: => T) extends Runnable {  
        def run() { runner() }  
    }  
  
}  
  
val thread = new Thread {  
    print("Hello!")  
}
```

Implicit Parameters

Implicit parameters can be used to let the compiler fill in missing parameters in curried functions.

Example

```
object Logger {  
  def log(msg: String)(implicit prompt: String) {  
    println(prompt + msg)  
  }  
}
```

```
implicit val defaultPrompt = ">>> "
```

```
Logger.log("Testing logger")
```

Implicit Resolution Rules

The compiler looks for potential conversions available in the current scope.
Thus, conversions needs to be imported in order for the compiler to apply them.

Mathematical Induction and Recursive Definitions

Proof

A proof is essentially a convincing argument that something is true

The mechanics of a proof typically requires to derive some statements from:

- Assumptions or Hypothesis
- Statements that already have been derived, and
- other generally accepted facts

Where the term *derive* means to derive using general principle of logical reasoning.

Usually what we are trying to prove involves a statement of the form $p \rightarrow q$.

Direct Proof

A **direct proof** assumes that a statement p is true and, using this assumption, shows that q is true.

Direc Proof Example

Prove that for any intergers a and b , if a and b are odd, then ab is odd.

Proof.

The first known fact that we will exploit is that an integer n is odd if and only if there exit an integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$. As such let's assume that exist x and y integers such that $a = 2x + 1$ and $b = 2y + 1$. From this we can write:

$$ab = (2x + 1)(2y + 1) = 4xy + 2x + 2y + 1 = 2(2xy + x + y) + 1$$

Say $z = 2xy + x + y$ we have:

$$ab = 2z + 1$$

Thus ab is odd.



Constructive Proof

The previous is an example of a *constructive proof*. In other terms, we prove statements of the form "There exist z such that..." by constructing a specific z that works.

Proof by Counter-Example

Suppose we have a statement $\forall x : P(x)$ that we want to prove false, in this case we can build a proof by *counter-example* by simply constructing an x for which the statement $P(x)$ is false.

Proof by Contrapositive

The alternative to a *direct proof* is an *indirect proof*.

The simplest form of an *indirect proof* is a *proof by contrapositive*, using the logical equivalence of $p \rightarrow q$ and $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

Proof by Contraddiction

In its most general form, proving a statement p by contraddiction means showing that if it is not true, some contraddiction results.

Formally this means showing that $\neg p \rightarrow \text{false}$ is true. It follows from the *contrapositive* statement that $\text{true} \rightarrow p$, which is equivalent to p .

Proof by Contraddiction Example

One of the most famous example of proof by contraddiciton is that proof known to ancient Greeks that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Prove it as an exercise.

Principle of Mathematical Induction

Suppose $P(n)$ is a statement involving an integer n . That to prove that $P(n)$ is true for every $n \geq n_0$, it is sufficient to show that:

1. $P(n_0)$ is *true*
2. For any $k \geq n_0$, if $P(k)$ is *true* then $P(k + 1)$ is *true*

A *proof by induction* is an application of this principle. The two parts of this proof are called *basic step* and the *inductive steps*.

Proof by Induction – Example 1

Prove that:

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n * (n + 1)}{2}$$

Proof by Induction – Example 2

Prove that:

```
def sum(xs : List[Int]) : Int = xs match {  
  case List() => 0  
  case x::xs => x + sum(xs)  
}
```

defines a function that computes the sum of the elements of a list.

Toward the Principle of Strong Induction

Suppose we wanted to prove the following proposition $P(n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} n \text{ is prime,} \\ n \text{ is the product of two or more primes} \end{array} \right. \quad \text{or} \quad (1)$$

Building this proof would require that as part of the inductive step we should be able to assume not only that $P(k)$ is true, but that $P(i)$ is true for all $i \leq k$.

This assumption is stronger than what we assume on the principle of induction.

Principle of Strong Induction

Suppose that $P(n)$ is a statement involving an integer n . Then to prove that $P(n)$ is true for every $n \geq n_0$, it is sufficient to show:

1. $P(n_0)$ is *true*
2. For any $K \geq n_0$, if $P(n)$ is true for every n satisfying $n_0 \leq n \leq K$, then $P(K + 1)$ is *true*.

The principle of *strong induction* is also referred as the principle of *complete induction*.

Something worth knowing is that the principle of strong induction is equivalent to the principle of induction and that neither of them can be proved nor disproved using standard properties of the natural numbers. Thus we must adopt them as axioms!

Traits

Defining Traits

Traits are one of the most fundamental unit of code reuse in Scala.

A Trait encapsulates methods and fields definitions that can be reused by mixing them into classes.

Unlike inheritance, which is single in scala, a class can *mix-in* any number of traits.

Ordered Trait

```
trait Ordered[A] extends Any with java.lang.Comparable[A] {  
  def compare(that: A): Int  
  
  def < (that: A): Boolean = (this compare that) < 0  
  
  def > (that: A): Boolean = (this compare that) > 0  
  
  def <= (that: A): Boolean = (this compare that) <= 0  
  
  def >= (that: A): Boolean = (this compare that) >= 0  
  
  def compareTo(that: A): Int = compare(that)  
}
```

Mixing-in the Ordered Trait

```
class Rational(n: Int, d: Int) extends Ordered[Rational] {  
  // ...  
  def compare(that: Rational): Int =  
    (this.num * that.den) - (that.num * this.den)  
}
```

Traits are Stackable

Traits allow to *decorate* the behaviour of existing methods of a class.

Additionally, multiple *decorations* can be stacked using traits.

Example

```
trait CompareLogger[A] extends Ordered[A] {  
  abstract override def compare(that: A) = {  
    println(s"Comparing $this to $that")  
    super.compare(that)  
  }  
}  
  
val r = new Rational(3,5) with CompareLogger[Rational]
```

Thin vs. Rich Interface

One of the most common application of traits is that of enriching a thin interface with additional convenience methods. Thus in a way transforming the *thin interface* in to a *rich interface*.

In the design of a class there is often a tension between maintaining the class with a thin interface – thus simplifying the task of the designer – or having a rich interface with several convenience methods – thus simplifying the use of the class from a developer perspective.

Traits help in addressing this natural tension by allowing to maintain *thin* the interface of a class for the designer, while making it possible to provide *rich* interfaces to the developer by leveraging traits.

Homeworks

Reading Assignment

Read the following chapters:

- Chapter 21
- Chapter 32