# Computer Programming with Scala

Week 3: Functional Programming (FP)

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### Named and Default Parameters

#### Refering paramters by name

#### Default Parameter values

### **Local Functions**

- ▶ Functions can be defined within other functions
- ► Functions are only visible in surrounding scope
- ▶ Inner function can access namespace of surrounding function

```
def filterEven(name: String, li:List[Int]):List[Int] = {
  def isEven(i:Int) = {
    println(name + " contains " + i)
    (i\%2 == 0)
  li match {
    case Nil => Nil
    case x::xs if (isEven(x)) => x::filterEven(name, xs)
                                     filterEven(name, xs)
    case x::xs
scala> filterEven("my list", List(1,2,3,4,5) )
mv list contains 1
my list contains 2
my list contains 3
my list contains 4
res0: List[Int] = List(2, 4)
```

## **Higher Order Functions**

#### First Class Functions → Functions are regular values

- ► Can be assigned to a variable
- ► Can be passed as arguments to functions
- ► Can be returned by other functions

### Higher Order Functions = Functions taking function as parameter

Powerful abstraction mechanism

```
def my_map (lst: List[Int] , fun: Int => Int) :List[Int] =
   for (l <- lst) yield fun (l)

val numbers = List (2 ,3 ,4 ,5)
def addone ( n : Int ) = n + 1

scala> my_map ( numbers , addone )
res0: List[Int] = List (3 , 4 , 5 , 6)
```

### **Higher Order Functions on class List**

#### Filtering and Partitioning

► Functions as (named) values

```
val li = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
def isEven (n: Int) = n%2 == 0
scala> li filter isEven
res0: List[Int] = List(2, 4)
```

▶ With an anonymous functions

```
scala> li filter (i => i%2 == 0)
res1: List[Int] = List(2, 4)
scala> li filter (_%2 == 0)
res2: List[Int] = List(2, 4)
```

```
scala> li partition (_%2 == 0)
res3: (List[Int], List[Int]) = (List(2, 4), List(1, 3, 5))
```

▶ Also defined: find, takeWhile, dropWhile and span. Check the doc

#### Mapping over elements

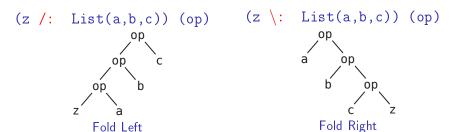
```
scala> li map (_ + 1)
res4: List[Int] = List (2, 3 , 4 , 5 , 6)
scala> li foreach (x => print(x + ", ") )
1, 2, 3, 4, 5,
```

### Folding List /: and \:

Reduce all elements into a single value using the provided function

```
scala> def sum(xs: List[Int]): Int = (0 /: xs) (_ + _)
scala> sum( List(1,2,3,4) )
res0:Int = 10  # = 0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 4
scala> def sumRight(xs: List[Int]): Int = (0 \: xs) (_ + _)
scala> sum( List(1,2,3,4) )
res0:Int = 10  # = 0 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1
```

 $\triangleright$  (z /: xs) (op) z: initial value, xs: list, op: operation to apply



Same result if op is associative; performance may vary

### Partially Applied Functions: Functions as Objects

- ▶ Passing in place of parameter list creates a partially applied function
- ► Function Object automatically built by the compiler

```
scala> def sum(a: Int, b: Int, c: Int) = a + b + c
sum: (a: Int, b: Int, c: Int)Int
scala > sum(1, 2, 3)
res0: Int = 6
                                            # This creates an object of type
                                           # <function3> (because sum takes
scala> val a = sum
a: (Int, Int, Int) => Int = <function3>
                                           # 3 parameters)
scala > a(1.2.3)
                                           # Apply parameters to partially
res1: Int = 6
                                            # applied function => function call
scala> a.apply(1,2,3)
                                           # Exactly as before
res2: Int = 6
scala > val b = sum(1, _:Int , 3)
                                           # Here, only one parameter remains
b: Int => Int = <function1>
                                           # free. Thus the type <function1>
```

## **Function Objects and Implicits**

▶ Underscore optional in contexts that require a function (and only there)

```
scala> someNumbers.foreach(print) # no need to write (print _) here
1234

scala> val c = sum
<console>:5: error: missing arguments for method sum...
follow this method with '_' if you want to treat it as a partially applied function
```

- ► Haskell doesn't require the for the partially applied function (implicit)
- ▶ But Scala targets Java developers ~> needs to detect missing parameters
- Thus the need for in general context
- is still optional where it can be no mistake

#### **Closures**

▶ Free variable: variable without a value; Bound variable: variable with a value

#### Closure = when a function refers to an external free variable

```
scala> var more = 1
scala> val addMore = (x: Int) => x + more
addMore: (Int) => Int = <function1>
scala> addMore(10)
res0: Int = 11
```

- ▶ This function object is a closure, because it encloses (packs) the free variables
- ▶ In scala, captures the variables, not the values (Java captures constants)

```
scala> more = 3 ; addMore(10)
res1: Int = 13
```

#### **Building Closures**

```
scala> def makeIncreaser(more: Int) = (x: Int) => x + more
makeIncreaser: (more: Int)Int => Int

scala> val inc9999 = makeIncreaser(9999)
inc9999: (Int) => Int = <function1>
```

► Each closure gets its own copy of the captured elements

### Other Considerations

#### Code Factorization with Higher Order Functions

```
def withOdd(nums: List[Int]): Boolean={
  var exists = false
  for (num <- nums)
    if (num % 2 == 1)
      exists = true
  exists
}</pre>
```

```
def withOdd(nums: List[Int]): Boolean=
    nums.exists(_%2 == 1)
```

- ▶ Q1: Implement List.length with :/
- ▶ Q2: List reverse() with :/
- ▶ Q3: Type of ((x:Double) => x+1)
- Q4: Write a function that adds 1 to every elements of a List[Int]
- ▶ Q5: Define  $S = \{a \times 2 \mid a \in [1, 100] \land a^2 < 99 \land a^3 > 9\}$
- ▶ Q6: Explain  $((\_:Double)+2)$  and  $(\_:String).size$

#### Tail Recusion Optimization

- ► Scala can optimize every tail recursive functions into a while loop
- ▶ Works only for basic forms (not mutually recursive, not partially applied)

## Lazy variables lazy val ui = ...

▶ Only evaluated on need (usually, scala values are evaluated when defined)

## Currying

▶ Defining functions with multiple parameter lists

```
scala> def curriedSum(x: Int)(y: Int) = x + y
curriedSum: (x: Int)(y: Int)Int

scala> curriedSum(1)(2)
res5: Int = 3
```

▶ You are actually defining two functions back to back

```
scala> def first(x: Int) = (y: Int) => x + y
first: (x: Int)(Int) => Int

scala> val second = first(1)
second: (Int) => Int = <function1>
```

► Currying and Partially applied function

```
scala> curriedSum(1)
<console>:14: error: missing arguments for method curriedSum; follow this method wi
scala> curriedSum(1)_
res6: Int => Int = <function1>
```

► This explains the :/ syntax

## **Function Composition**

```
def f(s: String) = "f(" + s + ")"
def g(s: String) = "g(" + s + ")"
compose makes a new function that composes its parameters: f(g(x))
scala> val FoG = f _ compose g _
FoG: String => String = <function1>
scala> FoG("yah")
res0: String = f(g(yah))
and Then does the same in the reverse order: g(f(x))
scala> val FthenG = f _ andThen g _
FthenG: String => String = <function1>
scala> FthenG("yah")
res1: String = g(f(yah))
```

### **PartialFunction**

- ▶ It's a function that is not defined for every parameter value
- ▶ It is not a Partially Applied Function

You can chain PartialFunctions with orElse

## case class and Pattern Matching

#### Defining a case class

```
abstract class Tree
case class Branch(left: Tree, right: Tree) extends Tree
case class Leaf(x: Int) extends Tree
```

#### Declaring a value

```
val t = Branch(Branch(Leaf(1), Leaf(2)), Branch(Leaf(3), Leaf(4)))
```

### Pattern Matching

```
def sumLeaves(t: Tree): Int = t match {
  case Branch(1, r) => sumLeaves(1) + sumLeaves(r)
  case Leaf(x) => x
}
```

#### Matching on Variable Declaration

```
scala> val b = Branch(Leaf(1), Leaf(2))
b: Branch
scala> val Branch(_, 1) = b
1: Tree = Leaf(2)
```

## Parametrized types

#### Defining a Tree[String] (without duplication)

```
abstract class Tree[A]
case class Branch[A](left: Tree[A], right: Tree[A]) extends Tree[A]
case class Leaf[A](x: A) extends Tree[A]

scala> val t = Branch(Branch(Leaf("a"), Leaf("b")), Branch(Leaf("c"), Leaf("d")))
t: Branch[String] = Branch(Branch(Leaf(a), Leaf(b)), Branch(Leaf(c), Leaf(d)))
```

Tree is a trait while Tree[Int] is a type

#### The Option type

- ▶ When you search for a value in a list, you don't know whether you'll find it
- ▶ An Option[A] can either be a Some (containing a value) or a None

```
val capitals = Map("France" -> "Paris", "Japan" -> "Tokyo")
scala> capitals get "France"
res0: Option[java.lang.String] = Some(Paris)
scala> capitals get "North Pole"
res1: Option[java.lang.String] = None
```

▶ Q: Define the follwing methods over Tree[A]: find, map, foreach, filter

### **V**ariance

- Would you say that a Tree[Int] is-a Tree[Any]?
- ▶ Is it ok to provide a Tree[Int] where a Tree[Any] was expected?
- ▶ Intuitively, yes, but by default, Scala generic types are nonvariant
- ▶ If your type Tree is covariant (flexible), just say so:

```
trait Tree[+T] { ... }  # a Tree[Int] is indeed a Tree[Any]
```

▶ In some cases, you can tell that your type is contravariant

▶ Purely functionnal types are often covariant

#### Mutable Data is often not Covariant

```
class Cell[+T](init: T) { # WRONG
  private[this] var current = init
  def get = current
  def set(x: T) { current = x }
}
val c1 = new Cell[String]("abc")
val c2: Cell[Any] = c1
c2.set(1)
val s: String = c1.get # WOOOOPS
```

- ▶ This would sets the string to 1!
- ► Type system actually prevents this

```
Cell.scala:7: error: covariant type T
occurs in contravariant position in
type T of value x
def set(x: T) = current = x
```

## Variance and subtyping

```
class Animal { val sound = "rustle" }
class Bird extends Animal { override val sound = "call" }
class Chicken extends Bird { override val sound = "cluck" }
```

#### Specialization: You need a Bird and have a Chicken. That's OK.

► This is the Liskov Substitution Principle

But you cannot use an Animal in place of a Bird

#### Function parameters are contravariants

- ▶ Can't use a function that takes a Chicken for a function that takes a Bird
  - ▶ It would choke on a Duck; But a function that takes an Animal is OK

```
scala> val getTweet: (Bird => String) = ((a: Animal) => a.sound )
getTweet: Bird => String = <function1>
```

#### Function return value are covariant

▶ Need a function that returns a Bird? A function returning a Chicken is OK

```
scala> val hatch: (() => Bird) = ((_) => new Chicken )
hatch: () => Bird = <function0>
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```

### Polymorphism Bounds

#### Refine your polymorphism

biophony takes any T that is-a Animal

#### Lower bound: List[T] defines ::(elem T) but also ::(U >: T)

```
scala> val flock = List(new Bird, new Bird)
flock: List[Bird] = List(Bird@7e1ec70e, Bird@169ea8d2)
scala> new Chicken :: flock
res6: List[Bird] = List(Chicken@56fbda05, Bird@7e1ec70e, Bird@169ea8d2)
scala> new Animal :: flock
res7: List[Animal] = List(Animal@56fbda05, Bird@7e1ec70e, Bird@169ea8d2)
```

### More on Polymorphism

Quantification: When one you don't care about one type

#### Structural Types: specify type requirements by interface structure

```
scala> def foo(x: { def get: Int }) = 123 + x.get
foo: (x: AnyRef{def get: Int})Int
scala> foo(new { def get = 10 })
res0: Int = 133
```

- ▶ x parameter must be provided with a get function to be concrete
- The second class makes an ad-hoc anonymous class

#### Erasure

- ▶ Unfortunately, the JVM erases every type specialization
- From List[Int], only List[\_] remains at runtime

### Take home messages

#### Functional Programming

- Avoid mutable values, prefer expressions over statements
- Higher Order: pass functions as parameters (to factorize behavior)
- ▶ Partially Applied Functions: Function objects as first-class citizens
- ► Closures: functions that encapsulate some external state
- Currying: functions with multiple parameter lists
- ▶ Parametrized types: containers such as Tree[A]
- ► Variance permits to refine what we expect (the type system to our rescue)

#### FP in Scala

- ▶ Having both OOP and FP is nice and funny, but that's a lot of tools
- ▶ Getting used to them requires a lot of practice
- Some Scala choices are very debatable (it targets the Java ecosystem)