

# **Evaluation and Operators**

Principles of Functional Programming

### Classes and Substitutions

We previously defined the meaning of a function application using a computation model based on substitution. Now we extend this model to classes and objects.

*Question:* How is an instantiation of the class  $C(e_1, ..., e_m)$  evaluted?

Answer: The expression arguments  $e_1, ..., e_m$  are evaluated like the arguments of a normal function. That's it.

The resulting expression, say,  $C(v_1, ..., v_m)$ , is already a value.

#### Classes and Substitutions

Now suppose that we have a class definition,

class 
$$C(x_1, ..., x_m)$$
 { ... def  $f(y_1, ..., y_n) = b$  ... }

where

- ▶ The formal parameters of the class are  $x_1, ..., x_m$ .
- ▶ The class defines a method f with formal parameters  $y_1, ..., y_n$ .

(The list of function parameters can be absent. For simplicity, we have omitted the parameter types.)

Question: How is the following expression evaluated?

$$C(v_1,...,v_m).f(w_1,...,w_n)$$

# Classes and Substitutions (2)

Answer: The expression  $C(v_1, ..., v_m).f(w_1, ..., w_n)$  is rewritten to:

$$[w_1/y_1,...,w_n/y_n][v_1/x_1,...,v_m/x_m][C(v_1,...,v_m)/this]\,b$$

There are three substitutions at work here:

- ▶ the substitution of the formal parameters  $y_1, ..., y_n$  of the function f by the arguments  $w_1, ..., w_n$ ,
- ▶ the substitution of the formal parameters  $x_1, ..., x_m$  of the class C by the class arguments  $v_1, ..., v_m$ ,
- ▶ the substitution of the self reference *this* by the value of the object  $C(v_1,...,v_n)$ .

Rational(1, 2).numer

```
Rational(1, 2).numer  \rightarrow [1/x,2/y] \; [] \; [Rational(1,2)/this] \; x
```

```
Rational(1, 2).numer  \rightarrow [1/x, 2/y] \ [] \ [Rational(1, 2)/this] \ x \\ = \ 1
```

```
Rational(1, 2).numer  \rightarrow [1/x, 2/y] [] [Rational(1, 2)/this] x 
= 1
Rational(1, 2).less(Rational(2, 3))
```

```
\label{eq:Rational} \begin{split} & + \text{Rational(1, 2).numer} \\ & \to \text{[1/x,2/y] [] [Rational(1,2)/this] x} \\ & = 1 \\ & \text{Rational(1, 2).less(Rational(2, 3))} \\ & \to \text{[1/x,2/y] [Rational(2,3)/that] [Rational(1,2)/this]} \\ & \quad \text{this.numer * that.denom < that.numer * this.denom} \end{split}
```

```
Rational(1, 2).numer
\rightarrow [1/x, 2/y] [] [Rational(1, 2)/this] x
= 1
Rational(1, 2).less(Rational(2, 3))
\rightarrow [1/x, 2/y] [Rational(2, 3)/that] [Rational(1, 2)/this]
     this.numer * that.denom < that.numer * this.denom
= Rational(1, 2).numer * Rational(2, 3).denom <
     Rational(2. 3).numer * Rational(1, 2).denom
```

```
Rational(1, 2).numer
\rightarrow [1/x, 2/y] [] [Rational(1, 2)/this] x
= 1
Rational(1, 2).less(Rational(2, 3))
\rightarrow [1/x, 2/y] [Rational(2, 3)/that] [Rational(1, 2)/this]
     this.numer * that.denom < that.numer * this.denom
= Rational(1, 2).numer * Rational(2, 3).denom <
     Rational(2, 3).numer * Rational(1, 2).denom
\rightarrow 1 * 3 < 2 * 2
\rightarrow true
```

### Extension Methods

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)
```

### Using Extension Methods

Extensions of a class are visible if they are listed in the companion object of a class (as in the code above) or if they defined or imported in the current scope.

Members of a visible extensions of class  ${\tt C}$  can be called as if they were members of  ${\tt C}$ . E.g.

```
Rational(1/2).min(Rational(2/3))
```

#### Caveats:

- Extensions can only add new members, not override existing ones.
- Extensions cannot refer to other class members via this

### Extension Methods and Substitutions

Extension method substitution works like normal substitution, but

- instead of this it's the extension parameter that gets substituted,
- class parameters are not visible, so do not need to be substituted at all.

```
Rational(1, 2).min(Rational(2, 3))
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 $\rightarrow$  [Rational(1,2)/r] [Rational(2,3)/s] if x.less(r) then s else r

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```
Rational(1, 2).min(Rational(2, 3))

→ [Rational(1,2)/r] [Rational(2,3)/s] if x.less(r) then s else r

=

if Rational(2, 3).less(Rational(1, 2)
then Rational(2, 3)
else Rational(1, 2)
```

### **Operators**

In principle, the rational numbers defined by Rational are as natural as integers.

But for the user of these abstractions, there is a noticeable difference:

- ► 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. We proceed in two steps.

# Step 1: Relaxed Identifiers

Operators such as + or < count as identifiers in Scala.

Thus, an identifier can be:

- ► *Alphanumeric*: starting with a letter, followed by a sequence of letters or numbers
- Symbolic: starting with an operator symbol, followed by other operator symbols.
- The underscore character '\_' counts as a letter.
- Alphanumeric identifiers can also end in an underscore, followed by some operator symbols.

Examples of identifiers:

```
x1 * +?%& vector_++ counter_=
```

## Step 1: Relaxed Identifiers

Since operators are identifiers, it is possible to use them as method names. E.g.

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

This allows rational numbers to be used like Int or Double:

```
val x = Rational(1, 2)
val y = Rational(1, 3)
x * x + y * y
```

### Step 2: Infix Notation

An operator method with a single parameter can be used as an infix operator.

An alphanumeric method with a single parameter can also be used as an infix operator if it is declared with an @infix annotation. E.g.

```
extension (x: Rational):
  @infix def min(that Rational): Rational = ...
```

It is therefore possible to write

### Precedence Rules

The *precedence* of an operator is determined by its first character.

The following table lists the characters in increasing order of priority precedence:

```
(all letters)
< >
(all other special characters)
```

#### Exercise

Provide a fully parenthesized version of

Every binary operation needs to be put into parentheses, but the structure of the expression should not change.