

Scala, an equal marriage

Part 2



Jacques.Noye@Mines-Nantes.fr

Methods and functions

Abstract point of view

A method is a *function*

```
class C {  
    ...  
    def m(a1: A1, ..., an: An):B = ...  
    ...  
}
```

m is a *function* (maths)

$$\begin{aligned}m &: C \times A_1 \times \dots \times A_n \rightarrow B \\(this, a_1, \dots, a_n) &\rightarrow m(this, a_1, \dots, a_n)\end{aligned}$$

Concrete point of view

A method is not a (first-class) function

```
scala> def inc(x: Int) = x + 1
add: (Int)Int
```

```
scala> val z = inc(2)
z: Int = 3
```

```
scala> inc
<console>:7: error: missing arguments for method inc in object
$iw;
follow this method with `_` if you want to treat it as a
partially applied function
  inc
  ^
```

A method is only available as a name to be used in a method call. It is not available as a **value**.

Note: toplevel definitions are actually made members of an internal object.
Try `scala -Xprint:parser` (scary).

First-class functions in Scala

a function literal

```
scala> val inc = (x: Int) => x + 1
add: (Int) => Int = <function1>
```

a function value
an object

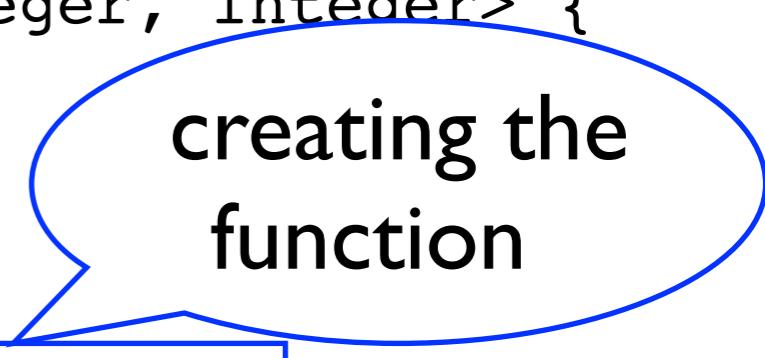
```
scala> val z = inc(2)
z: Int = 3
```

```
scala> inc
res1: (Int) => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> println(inc)
<function1>
```

Implementation Principle (in Java)

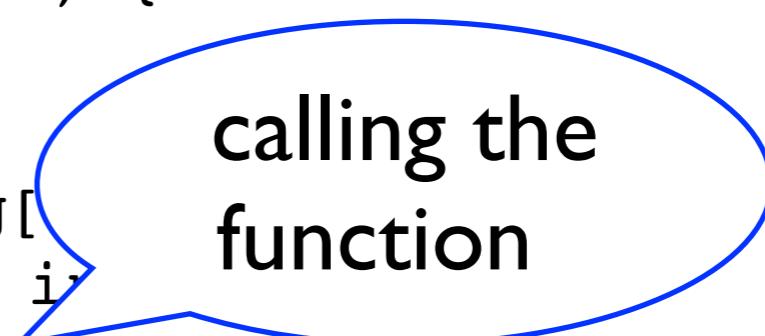
```
public interface Function1<T1, T> {  
    T apply(T1 e1);  
}  
public class Inc implements Function1<Integer, Integer> {  
    public Integer apply(Integer e1) {  
        return e1 + 1;  
    }  
    public static void main(String[] args){  
        Function1<Integer, Integer> inc = new Inc();  
        Integer z = inc.apply(2);  
        System.out.println(z);  
        System.out.println(inc);  
    }  
}
```



creating the function

Implementation Principle (in Java)

```
public interface Function1<T1, T> {  
    T apply(T1 e1);  
}  
public class Inc implements Function1<Integer, Integer> {  
    public Integer apply(Integer e1) {  
        return e1 + 1;  
    }  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Function1<Integer, Integer> inc = new Inc();  
        Integer z = inc.apply(2);  
        System.out.println(z);  
        System.out.println(inc);  
    }  
}
```



calling the function

Note: this is not as easy in the general case (closure).

Using an anonymous Java class

```
public interface Function1<T1, T> {  
    T apply(T1 e1);  
}  
public class Test1 {  
    public static void main(String[] args){  
        Function1<Integer, Integer> inc =  
            new Function1<Integer, Integer>(){  
                public Integer apply(Integer e1) {  
                    return e1 + 1;  
                }  
};  
        Integer z = inc.apply(2);  
        System.out.println(z);  
        System.out.println(inc);  
    }  
}
```

instantiation of
the anonymous class,
which implements
Function1

Implementation Principle (in Scala)

```
scala> val inc = new Function1[Int, Int]{
    |           |
    |           def apply(e1: Int) = e1 + 1
    |
inc: Integer => Integer = <function1>
```

instantiation of
the anonymous class,
which inherits the trait
Function1

```
scala> inc.apply(2)
res4: Integer = 3
```

```
scala> inc(2)
res5: Integer = 3
```

```
scala> inc{2}
res6: Int = 2
```

when there is a
single parameter

Note: the anonymous class is instantiated, not the trait.

The trait Function_n

variance
annotations
(on the definition side)

```
trait Functionn[ - $T_1$ , ..., - $T_n$ , + $R$ ] {  
    def apply( $x_1$ :  $T_1$ , ...,  $x_n$ :  $T_n$ ):  $R$   
    override def toString = "<functionn>"  
}
```

This is the usual rule: function types are covariant (+) in their result type and contravariant (-) in their argument type.

Variance

if $S <: T$ then

- Covariance: $U[..., S, ...] <: U[..., T, ...]$
- Contravariance: $U[..., S, ...] :> U[..., T, ...]$
- Nonvariance: $U[..., S, ...]$ and $U[..., T, ...]$ cannot be compared

Turning a method into a function

```
scala> def inc(x: Int) = x + 1  
add: (Int)Int
```

```
scala> val incF = (x: Int) => inc(x)  
incF: Int => Int = <function1>
```

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

```
scala> val addF = (x: Int, y: Int) => add(x, y)  
addF: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>
```

Note: compare the answers for **def** and **val**.

Using partial application

Explicit

```
scala> val incF = inc _  
incF: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> val addF = add _  
addF: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>
```

Implicit

```
scala> val incF: Int => Int = inc  
incF: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> val addF: addF: (Int, Int) = add  
addF: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>
```

Using partial application

```
scala> val incF = (_: Int) + 1
incF: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> val addF = (_: Int) + (_: Int)
addF: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>
```

```
scala> val incF: Int => Int = _ + 1
incF: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> val addF: addF: (Int, Int) = _ + _
addF: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>
```

Curried methods

```
scala> val addF = (x: Int, y: Int) => x + 1
addF: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>
```

```
scala> val inc = addF(_:Int, 1)
inc: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> val inc = addF(1, _:Int)
inc: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> def addC(x: Int) (y: Int) = x + y // curried method
addC: (x: Int)(y: Int)Int
```

```
scala> val inc = addC(1)_
inc: Int => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> val inc: Int => Int = addC(1)
inc: Int => Int = <function1>
```

partial application
applies to any argument

applies to last list of
arguments

Closures

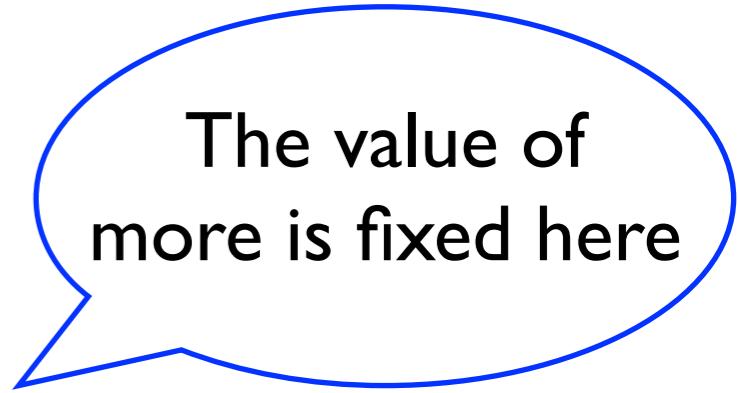
```
scala> val more = 1  
more: Int = 1
```

```
scala> val addMore = (x: Int) => x + more  
addMore: (Int) => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> addMore(10)  
res26: Int = 11
```

```
scala> val more = 2  
more: Int = 2
```

```
scala> addMore(10)  
res27: Int = 11
```



The value of
more is fixed here

Terminology

- Let us consider the expression e

$$(x: \text{Int}) \Rightarrow x + \text{more}$$

- x is **bound** in e (it appears as a parameter)
- more is **free** in e (it is defined elsewhere)
- The value of e is a **closure** (e is closed over its free variables)

Closures with mutable free variables

```
scala> var more = 1
more: Int = 1
```

```
scala> val addMore = (x: Int) => x + more
addMore: (Int) => Int = <function1>
```

```
scala> addMore(10)
res26: Int = 11
```

```
scala> more = 2
more: Int = 2
```

```
scala> addMore(10)
res27: Int = 12
```

The “value”
of more is fixed
here

Parameter passing

- By value, by default
- By name with by-name parameters:
compare:

```
def assert(test: Boolean) =  
  if (assertionEnable && !test)  
    throw new assertion  
def assert(test: () => Boolean) =  
  if (assertionEnable && !test())  
    throw new assertion  
def assert(test: => Boolean) =  
  if (assertionEnable && !test)  
    throw new assertion
```

test is a by-name parameter

Lists

Typing, pattern matching and
higher-order programming

Inductive definition

- A list is
 - either an empty list Nil
 - or a list $x :: l$ consisting of an element x , *head* of the list, and of a list l , *tail* of the list ($::$ is the *cons* operator).

Building lists

singleton type
{Nil, null}

```
scala> Nil
res0: scala.collection.immutable.Nil.type = List()
```

```
scala> 1 :: Nil
res1: List[Int] = List(1)
```

:: is right-associative

```
scala> val l = 1 :: (2 :: Nil)
l: List[Int] = List(1, 2)
```

```
scala> val tail = 2 :: Nil
tail: List[Int] = List(2)
```

```
scala> val l = 1 :: tail
l: List[Int] = List(1, 2)
```

Building lists with the constructor List

```
scala> val l = List(1, 2, 3)
l: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3)
```

```
scala> val l = List(1) :: Nil
l: List[List[Int]] = List(List(1))
```

```
scala> val l = 1 :: List(1) :: Nil
l: List[Any] = List(1, List(1))
```

This uses the “apply trick”:

```
object List {
  def apply[A](xs: A*): List[A] = xs.toList
}
```

A variable nb of args.
xs is of type Seq[A]

Typing

- Lists are **homogeneous**: all the elements are considered to have the same type T . The list has type $\text{List}[T]$.
- Lists are **covariants**:

```
abstract class List[+T] {  
    ...  
}
```

Covariance and subtyping

- If $S <: T$ then $\text{List}[S] <: \text{List}[T]$
- If an apple is a fruit then a basket of apples is a basket of fruits.
- If $S_1 <: T$ and $S_2 <: T$ then a list of S_1 and S_2 is a list of T
- Mixing cabbages and carrots in a basket results in a basket of vegetables.

new

The empty list

```
scala> val l = List()  
l: List[Nothing] = List()
```

```
scala> val l: List[Int] = empty  
l: List[Int] = List()
```

- `Nothing` is the smallest type: for all `T`, `Nothing <: T`
- `List[Nothing] <: List[T]`
- `T = Int`: the empty list is a list of integers

Accessors

```
scala> val numbers = List(1, 2, 3)
numbers: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3)
```

```
scala> numbers(1)
res5: Int = 2
```

```
scala> numbers.head
res6: Int = 1
```

```
scala> numbers.tail
res7: List[Int] = List(2, 3)
```

```
scala> numbers.isEmpty
res8: Boolean = false
```

```
scala> Nil.head
java.util.NoSuchElementException: head of empty
list
```

Computing with lists

basic idiom: follow the inductive definition

```
scala> def length[T](l: List[T]): Int =  
    if (l.isEmpty) 0  
    else 1 + length(l.tail)  
length: [T](l: List[T])Int
```

```
scala> length[Int](List(1, 2, 3))  
res0: Int = 3
```

Immutability

```
scala> var e = 1  
e: Int = 1
```

```
scala> val l = List(e)  
l: List[Int] = List(1)
```

```
scala> e = 2  
e: Int = 2
```

```
scala> l  
res0: List[Int] = List(1)
```

Note: compare with closures.

Modifying a list

Copying the list with the modifications!

```
scala> def append[T](l1: List[T], l2: List[T]): List[T] =  
    if (l1.isEmpty) l2  
    else l1.head :: append(l1.tail, l2)  
append: [T](l1: List[T],l2: List[T])List[T]
```

```
scala> append(List(1, 2), List(3, 4))  
res0: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
scala> append(List(1, 2), List("3", "4"))  
res1: List[Any] = List(1, 2, "3", "4")
```

A thrill

Patterns

```
scala> val h :: t = List(1, 2)
h: Int = 1
t: List[Int] = List(2)
```

```
scala> val e1 :: e2 :: Nil = List(1, 2)
e1: Int = 1
e2: Int = 2
```

```
scala> val List(_, x) = List(1, 2)
x: Int = 2
```

```
scala> val List(1, x) = List(2, 1)
scala.MatchError: List(2, 1)
```

The construct match

```
def length[T](l: List[T]): Int =  
  l match {  
    case Nil => 0  
    case _ :: t => 1 + length(t)  
  }  
  
def append[T](l1: List[T], l2: List[T]): List[T] =  
  l1 match {  
    case Nil => l2  
    case h1 :: t1 => h1 :: append(t1, l2)  
  }
```

Note: the compiler detects non exhaustive patterns.

A case sequence is a (partial) function literal

```
scala> val isEmpty: List[Int] => Boolean =  
{case Nil => true; case _ :: _ => false}  
isEmpty: List[Int] => Boolean = <function1>
```

Partial functions (instances of `PartialFunction[-A, +B]`) extend functions of one argument with a method:

```
def isDefinedAt(x: A): Boolean
```

Pattern Matching

The expression `{ case p1 => e1; ...; case pn => en }`

is a partial function:

- `isDefinedAt` returns true if one of the patterns matches, false otherwise
- `apply` returns the value of e for the first pattern p which matches, throws `MatchError` otherwise

Other basic patterns

- Typed Patterns: $\text{varId} : \text{Type}$ (checks type of `varId`, as `varId.isInstanceOf[Type]`)
- Pattern Binders: $\text{varId}@\text{Pattern}$ (binds matched value to `varId`)

The class List

```
object List extends SeqFactory {  
    def apply[A](xs: A*): List[A] = xs.toList  
}  
  
abstract class List[+T] {  
    def isEmpty: Boolean  
    def head: T  
    def tail: List[T]  
  
    def ::[U >: T](x: U): List[U] = new ::(x, this)  
}  
  
case object Nil extends List[Nothing] {  
    ...  
}  
case class ::[T](h: T, tl: List[T]) extends List[T] {  
    ...  
}
```

to get an extractor

lower type bound

case object
and class

There are also upper bounds: $U <: \text{Upper} >: \text{Lower}$

Case classes

Syntactic convenience:

- Adds a factory method with the class (`new` not needed)
- Parameters turned into fields
- Creates methods `toString`, `hashCode`, and `equals`
- Supports pattern matching (`::` and `Nil` for lists)

Typical AST example

```
abstract class Expr
case class BinExpr(op: String, e1: Expr, e2: Expr) extends Expr
case class UnExpr(op: String, e: Expr) extends Expr
case class Number(n: Int) extends Expr

object Eval {
    def eval(e: Expr): Int = e match {
        case Number(n) => n
        case BinExpr("+", e1, e2) => eval(e1) + eval(e2)
        case BinExpr("-", e1, e2) => eval(e1) - eval(e2)
        case UnExpr("-", e) => - eval(e)
    }
    def main(args : Array[String]) =
        println(eval(BinExpr("+", Number(1), UnExpr("-", Number(1))))))
}
```

The lower bound is not an option

```
scala> :paste
// Entering paste mode (ctrl-D to finish)

abstract class MyList[+T] {
  def ::(x: T): MyList[T] = new ::(x, this)
}
case object Nil extends MyList[Nothing]
case class ::[T](h: T, tl: MyList[T]) extends MyList[T]

// Exiting paste mode, now interpreting.

<console>:12: error: covariant type T occurs in
contravariant position in type T of value x
  def ::(x: T): MyList[T] = new ::(x, this)
               ^
```

detected by
the compiler

Extractors

An *extractor* is an object which provides a method `apply` (optional) and `unapply` (mandatory) to construct and destruct a pattern, respectively.

```
object Pair {  
  def apply[A, B](x: A, y:B) = Tuple2(x, y)  
  def unapply[A, B](x: Tuple2[A, B]): Option[Tuple2[A, B]] = Some(x)  
}
```

Capturing recursion patterns

map

```
def mapInc(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x :: xs => x + 1 :: mapInc(xs)
}

def map2String(xs: List[Int]): List[String] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x :: xs => x.toString :: map2String(xs)
}
```



list generalization

```
def mapInt[T](xs: List[Int], f: Int=>T): List[T] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x :: xs => f(x) :: mapInt(xs, f)
}
```



2nd generalization

```
def map[S, T](xs: List[S], f: S=>T): List[T] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x :: xs => f(x) :: map(xs, f)
}
```

Example of use

```
def map[S, T](xs:List[S], f: S=>T): List[T] = xs match {  
  case Nil => Nil  
  case x :: xs => f(x) :: map(xs, f)  
}
```

```
scala> map(List(1, 2, 3), (_:Int) + 1)  
res18: List[Int] = List(2, 3, 4)
```

```
scala> def map2String[S](xs: List[S]) =  
    map[S, String](xs, (x: S) => x.toString)  
map2String: [S](xs: List[S])List[String]
```

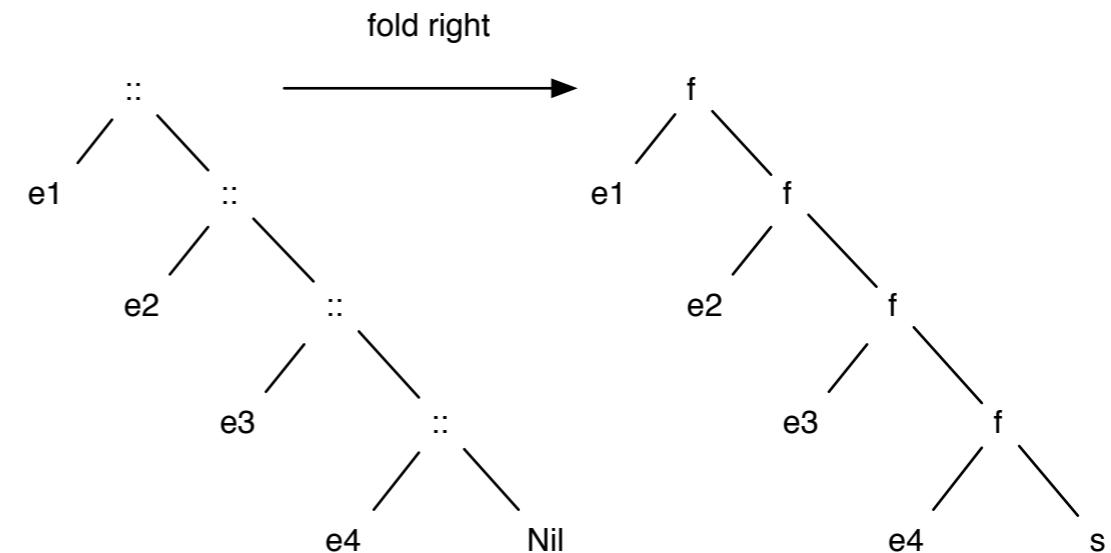
```
scala> map2String[Char](List('a', 'b'))  
res19: List[String] = List(a, b)
```

Capturing recursion patterns foldRight

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



generalization

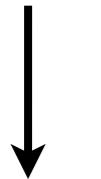


```
def foldRight[S,T](xs: List[S], s: T, f: (S, T) => T): T = xs match {  
  case Nil => s  
  case x :: xs => f(x, foldRight(xs, s, f))  
}
```

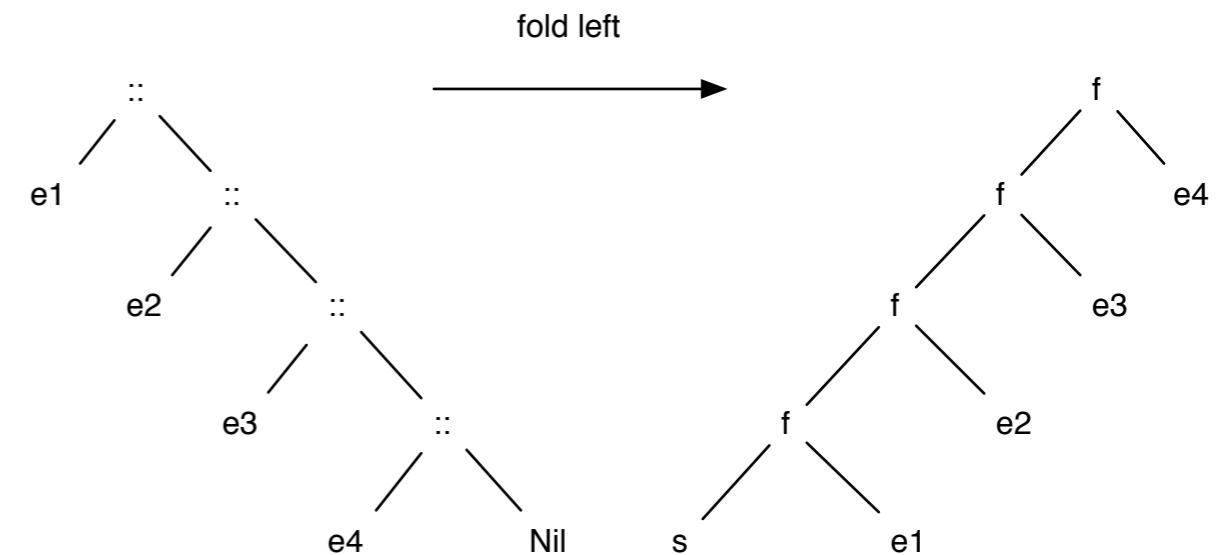
Capturing recursion patterns

foldLeft

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

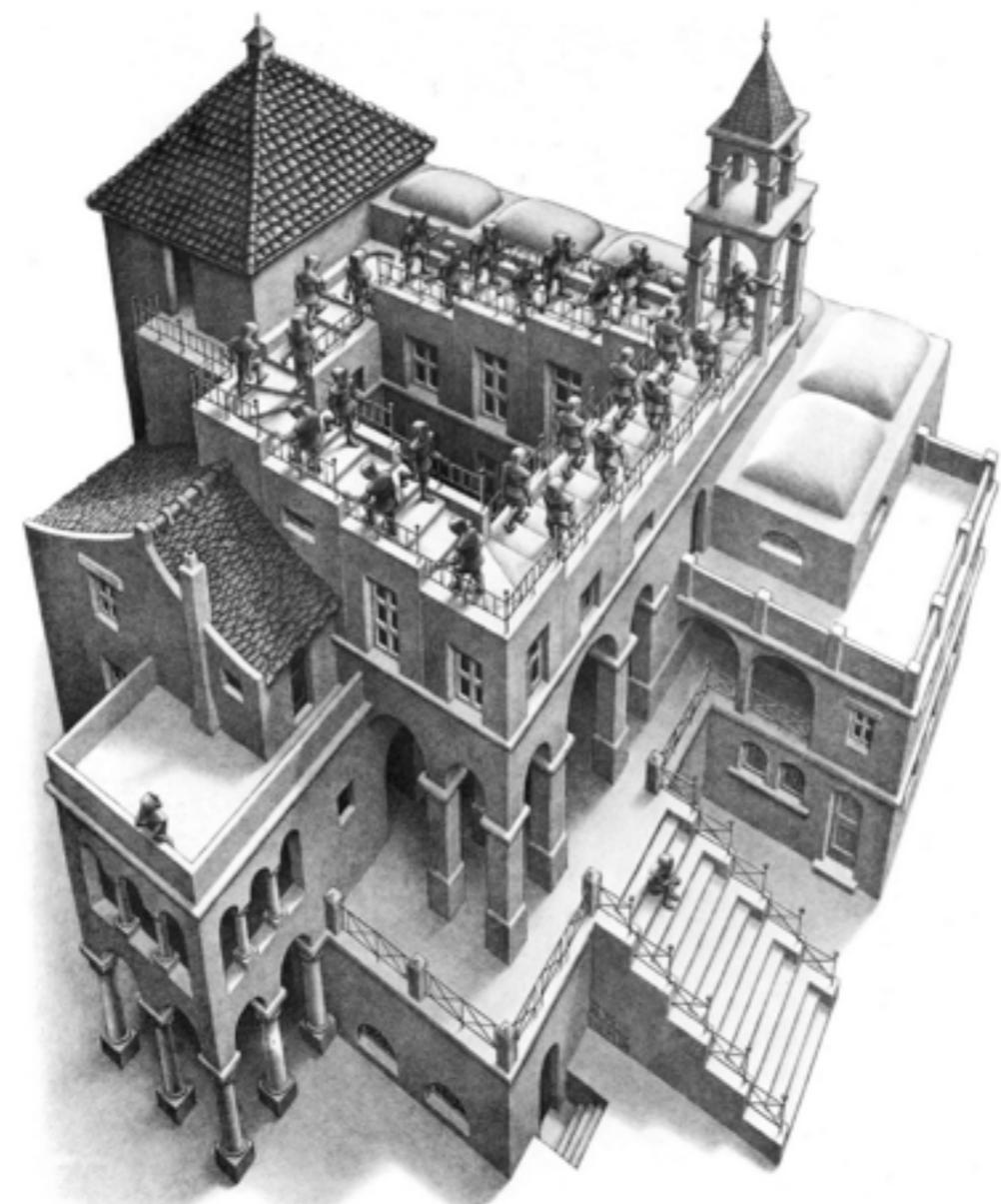


generalization



```
def foldLeft[S,T](s: T, xs: List[S], f: (T, S) => T): T = xs match {  
  case Nil => s  
  case x :: xs => foldLeft(f(s, x), xs, f)  
}
```

for expressions



map & Co as methods

```
def myMap[A, B](f: A => B, xs: List[A]): List[B] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x::xs => f(x) :: myMap(f, xs)
}

def myFilter[A](p: A => Boolean, xs: List[A]): List[A] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x::xs => if (p(x)) x :: myFilter(p, xs) else myFilter(p, xs)
}

def myFlatMap[A, B](f: A => List[B], xs: List[A]): List[B] = xs match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case x::xs => f(x) ::: myFlatMap(f, xs)
}

def myForeach[A](f: A => Unit, xs: List[A]): Unit = xs match {
  case Nil => ()
  case x :: xs => f(x); myForeach(f, xs)
}
```

map & Co as methods of List

```
scala> val words = List("The", "Dark", "Knight", "Rises")
words: List[java.lang.String] = List(The, Dark, Knight, Rises)
```

```
scala> words map (_.length)
res9: List[Int] = List(3, 4, 6, 5)
```

```
scala> words map (_.toList)
res13: List[List[Char]] = List(List(T, h, e), List(D, a, r, k), List(K, n, i, g, h, t),
List(R, i, s, e, s))
```

```
scala> words filter (_.length > 3)
res10: List[java.lang.String] = List(Dark, Knight, Rises)
```

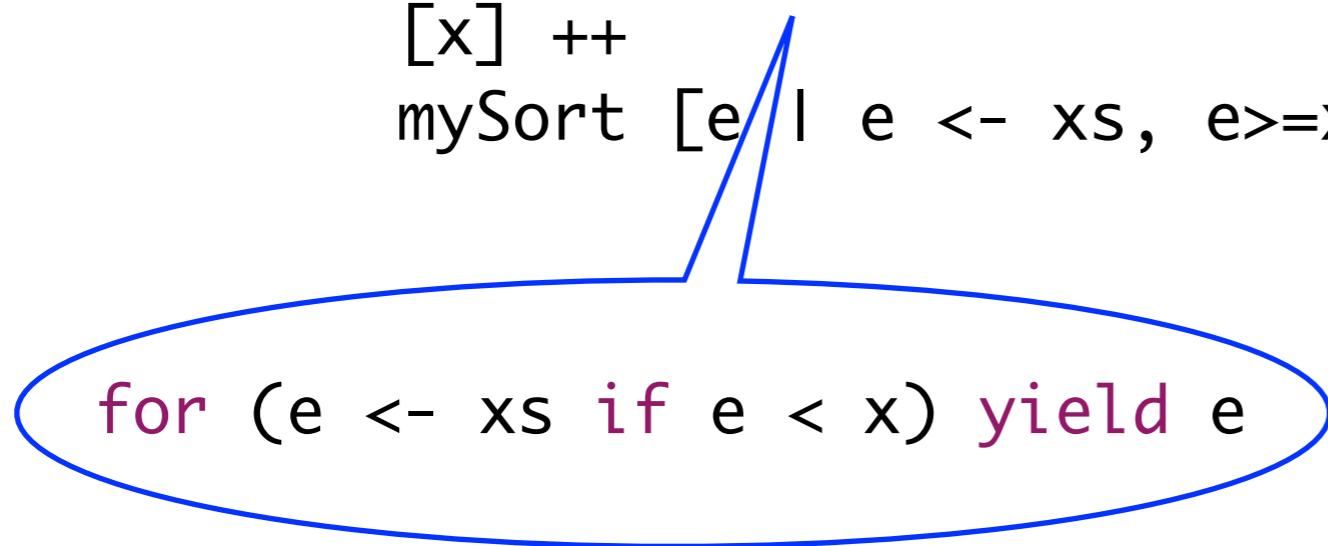
```
scala> words flatMap (_.toList)
res11: List[Char] = List(T, h, e, D, a, r, k, K, n, i, g, h, t, R, i, s, e, s)
```

```
scala> words foreach (print _)
TheDarkKnightRises
```

for expressions

loops and comprehensions

```
-- comprehension in Haskell, ZF
mySort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (x:xs) = mySort [e | e <- xs, e<x] ++
                  [x] ++
                  mySort [e | e <- xs, e>=x]
```



*e <- xs is a generator
if e < x is a filter*

map & Co. using for expressions

```
// for comprehensions (yield)
def myMap[A, B](f: A => B, xs: List[A]): List[B] =
  for (x <- xs) yield f(x)

def myFilter[A](p: A => Boolean, xs: List[A]): List[A] =
  for (x <- xs if p(x)) yield x

def myFlatMap[A, B](f: A => List[B], xs: List[A]): List[B] =
  for (x <- xs; y <- f(x)) yield y

// for loop (no yield)
def myForeach[A](f: A => Unit, xs: List[A]): Unit =
  for (x <- xs) f(x)
```

Translating for loops

A single generator

(1) `for (x <- expr) body` → `expr foreach (x => body)`

Several generators: one loop per generator

(2) `for (x <- expr1; y <- expr2 tail) body`
→ `expr1 foreach (for (y <- expr2 tail) body)`

Translating for comprehensions

A single generator

(3) `for (x <- expr1) yield expr2` → `expr1 map (x => expr2)`

A sequence of generators

(4) `for (x <- expr1; y <- expr2 tail) yield expr3`
→ `expr1 flatMap (x => for (y <- expr2 tail) yield expr3)`

Eliminating filters and definitions

Filter

```
(5) x <- expr1 if expr2  
→ x <- expr1 filter (x => expr2)
```

Definition

```
(6) x <- expr1; y = expr2  
→ (x, y) <- for (x <- expr1) yield (x, expr2)
```

Note: *x*, *expr1*... are metavariables.

Eliminating patterns

Refutable pattern in a generator

(0) $p \leftarrow \text{expr1}$
 $\rightarrow \text{expr1} \text{ filter } \{ \text{case } p \Rightarrow \text{true}; \text{case } __ \Rightarrow \text{false} \}$

Irrefutable pattern in a generator requires variants
of rules (1) to (6)

(3') $\text{for } (p \leftarrow \text{expr1}) \text{ yield } \text{expr2}$
 $\rightarrow \text{expr1} \text{ map } \{ \text{case } p \Rightarrow \text{expr2} \}$

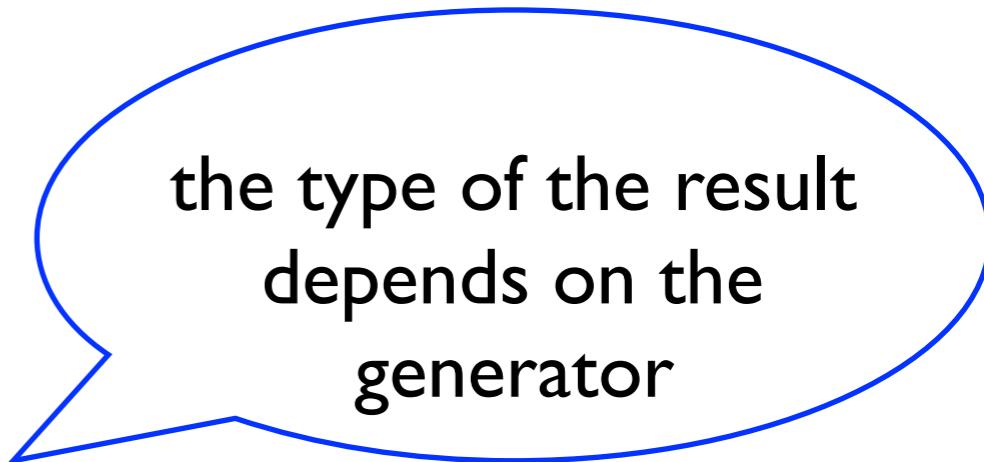
Generalization

Translation applied by the compiler.

Applies to any class implementing map, flatMap, filter and foreach (possibly partially).

For instance:

```
scala> val a = Array(1, 2, 3)
a: Array[Int] = Array(1, 2, 3)
scala> for (i <- 0 to 2) print(a(i))
123
scala> 0 to 2
res1: scala.collection.immutable.Range.Inclusive = Range(0, 1, 2)
scala> for (x <- a) print(x)
123
scala> for (i <- 0 to 2) yield a(i)
res2: scala.collection.immutable.IndexedSeq[Int] = Vector(1, 2, 3)
scala> for (x <- a) yield x
res3: Array[Int] = Array(1, 2, 3)
```



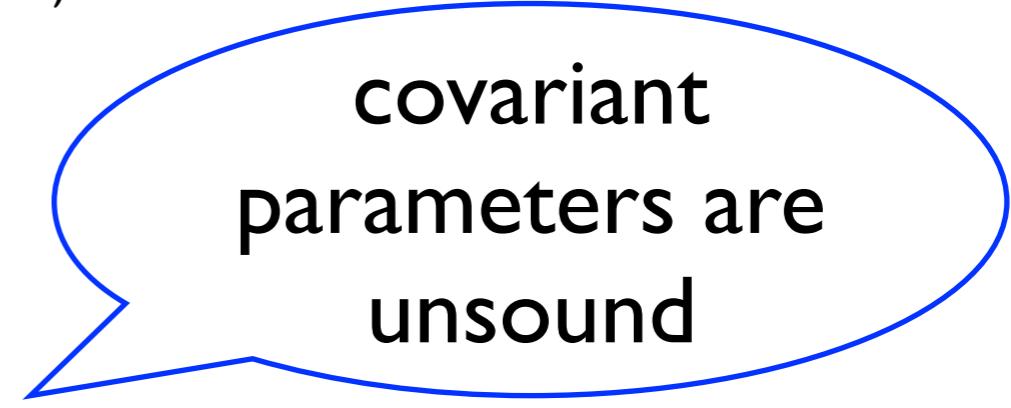
the type of the result
depends on the
generator

Some more fun/headaches

A case for abstract types

```
scala> :paste
// Entering paste mode (ctrl-D to finish)
class Food
class Grass extends Food

abstract class Animal {
  def eat(food: Food)
}
class Cow extends Animal {
  override def eat(food: Grass){}
}
// Exiting paste mode, now interpreting.
```



covariant
parameters are
unsound

```
<console>:15: error: class Cow needs to be abstract, since method eat
in class Animal of type (food: Food)Unit is not defined
(Note that Food does not match Grass: class Grass is a subclass of
class Food, but method parameter types must match exactly.)
  class Cow extends Animal {
    ^
<console>:16: error: method eat overrides nothing.
Note: the super classes of class Cow contain the following, non final
members named eat:
def eat(food: Food): Unit
  override def eat(food: Grass){}
```

Abstract types to the rescue

```
class Food
class Grass extends Food
class Fish extends Food

abstract class Animal {
    type SuitableFood <: Food // abstract type with upper bound
    def eat(food: SuitableFood)
}

class Cow extends Animal {
    type SuitableFood = Grass // concrete type
    override def eat(food: Grass) {}
}
```

Abstract types to the rescue

```
scala> val bessy = new Cow
bessy: Cow = Cow@6d643e7b

scala> bessy eat (new Grass)

scala> bessy eat (new Fish)
<console>:14: error: type mismatch;
  found   : Fish
  required: Grass
                     bessy eat (new Fish)
                                         ^
                                         ^
```

Path-dependent types

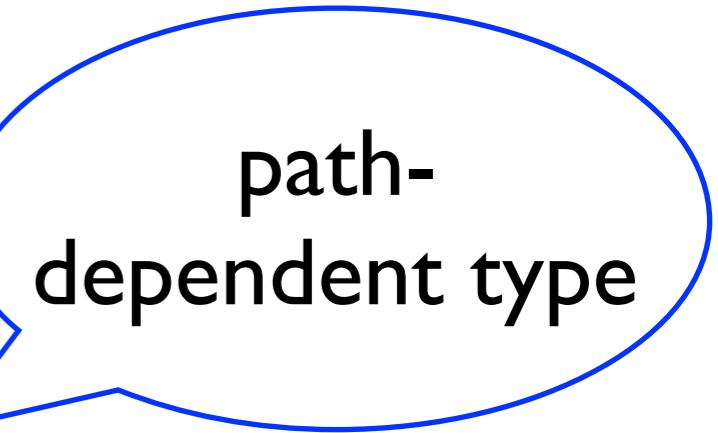
```
scala> val bessy:Animal = new Cow  
bessy: Animal = Cow@647a303a
```

```
scala> bessy eat (new Grass)  
<console>:13: error: type mismatch;  
      found   : Grass  
      required: bessy.SuitableFood  
                           bessy eat (new Grass)
```

```
scala> val bessy = new Cow  
bessy: Cow = Cow@575db0f5
```

```
scala> val lili = new Cow  
lili: Cow = Cow@1416c1f4
```

```
scala> lili eat (new bessy.SuitableFood)
```



Path-dependent types and inner classes

```
scala> class Outer {  
    class Inner  
}  
}  
defined class Outer  
scala> val o1 = new Outer  
o1: Outer = Outer@2029a303  
scala> val i1 = new o1.Inner  
i1: o1.Inner = Outer$Inner@200069ed  
scala> val o2 = new Outer  
o2: Outer = Outer@badfba  
scala> val i2 = new o2.Inner  
i2: o2.Inner = Outer$Inner@6ec4786e  
scala> val l = List(i1, i2)  
l: List[Outer#Inner] = List(Outer$Inner@200069ed,  
Outer$Inner@6ec4786e)
```

creating an inner instance

type projection
(an Inner from any Outer)

(Simple) Types

Type	Syntax
Class or trait	<code>class C ..., trait C ...</code>
Tuple type	(T_1, \dots, T_n)
Function type	$(T_1, \dots, T_n) \Rightarrow T$
Annotated type	$T @A$
Parameterized type	$A[T_1, \dots, T_n]$
Singleton type	$value.type$
Type projection	$O#I$
Compound type	$T_1 \text{ with } T_2 \text{ with } \dots \text{ with } T_n \{ declarations \}$
Infix type	$T_1 \And T_2$
Existential type	$T \text{ forSome } \{ type \text{ and } val \text{ declarations } \}$

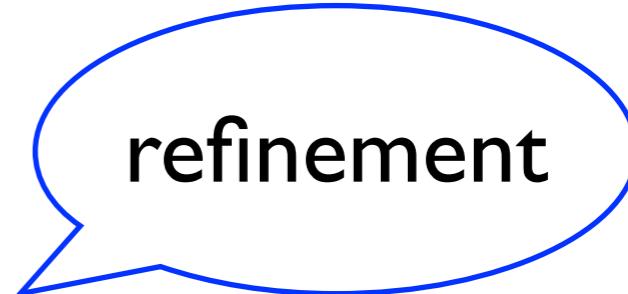
Simple: not qualified.

From *Scala for the Impatient*

Compound types

structural subtyping

```
case class Bird(val name: String) {  
    def fly(height: Int) = {}  
}  
  
case class Plane(val callsign: String) {  
    def fly(height: Int) = {}  
}  
  
def takeoff(  
    runway: Int,  
    r: {val callsign: String; def fly(height: Int)}) = {  
    r.fly(1000)  
}  
  
val bird = new Bird("Polly the parrot"){ val callsign = name }  
val a380 = new Plane("TZ-987")  
takeoff(42, bird)  
takeoff(89, a380)
```



refinement

Note: uses reflection at runtime.

Existential types

$T \text{ forSome } \{ \text{ decls } \}$

- Mainly used for interoperability with Java
- Java:
 - `Iterator<?>`
 - `Iterator<? extends Component>`
- Scala:
 - `Iterator<?> forSome { type T } or Iterator[_]`
 - `Iterator[T] forSome { type T <: Component }`



Actors

Concurrency paradigms (asynchronous)

- Shared memory
 - Pessimistic protocols: locking, monitors (Java)
 - Optimistic protocols: transactional memory
- Shared nothing
 - Synchronous message passing (Ada's rendez-vous)
 - Asynchronous message passing (Actor's mailbox)

Bounded Buffer v1.0

à la Java

```
class Buffer(capacity: Int) {  
    protected val data = new Array[AnyRef](capacity)  
    protected var in, out, count = 0  
  
    def put(o: AnyRef): Unit = { ... }  
    def get(): AnyRef = { ... }  
  
    def await(cond: => Boolean) = // parameter by name  
        while (!cond) { wait() }  
}
```

Bounded Buffer v1.0

put and get

```
def put(o: AnyRef) =  
    synchronized {  
        await(count < capacity)  
        data(in) = o  
        count += 1; in = (in + 1) % capacity  
        if (count == 1) notifyAll()  
    }  
def get() = {  
    synchronized {  
        await(count != 0)  
        val o = data(out); data(out) = null  
        count -= 1; out = (out + 1) % capacity  
        if (count == capacity - 1) notifyAll()  
        o  
    }  
}
```

Producers and Consumers

```
class Producer(buf: Buffer) extends Runnable {  
    new Thread(this).start()  
  
    def run() =  
        while(true) buf.put(new Product())  
}  
  
class Consumer(buf: Buffer) extends Runnable {  
    new Thread(this).start()  
  
    def run() =  
        while(true) buf.get()  
}
```

Actors

[Hewitt-Bishop-Steiger:ijcai73, Agha:86]

- Actors are **named** concurrent autonomous entities with **local state** that interact with each other through **asynchronous message passing** (each actor has its own **mailbox**).
- **Fair scheduling:** Messages are eventually delivered. No actor can permanently starve. An actor can still misbehave!
- **Location transparency** and **mobility**.

R.K. Karmani and A. Shali and G.Agha, Actor frameworks for the JVM platform: a comparative analysis, Proc. of the 7th Intl Conf. on Principles and Practice of Programming in Java, 2009

Actors in Scala

- Inherited from Erlang [Armstrong:86]
- Impure in many ways (bad and good)
- Thread-based and event-based actors
- Remote actors (no migration)

P. Haller and M. Odersky, Scala Actors: Unifying thread-based and event-based programming,
Theoretical Computer Science, 410(2-3), 2009

Creating Actors

```
import scala.actors.Actor

class Acteur(name: String, surname: String) extends Actor {
    def act(): Unit = {
        while (true)
            println("Bonjour, je suis " + name + " " + surname)
    }
}

object Take1 {
    def main(args: Array[String]) = {
        new Acteur("Laura", "Smet").start()
        new Acteur("Louis", "Garrel").start()
    }
}
```

Think about Thread and run() (but Actor is a *trait*)

Creating actors - Take 2

```
import scala.actors.Actor.actor

object Take2 {
    def main(args: Array[String]) = {
        private def loop(name: String, surname: String) =
            while (true)
                println("Bonjour, je suis " + name + " " + surname)

        actor { loop("Laura", "Smet") }
        actor { loop("Louis", "Garrel") }
    }
}
```

Sending and Receiving Messages

```
case object Bonjour  
case object Malotru
```

```
val louis = actor {  
    receive { case Bonjour => sender ! Bonjour }  
}  
  
val laura = actor {  
    louis ! Bonjour  
    receive {  
        case Bonjour =>  
        case _ => sender ! Malotru  
    }  
}
```



Syntactic Sugar for Replies

```
val louis = actor {  
    receive { case Bonjour => reply(Bonjour) }  
}  
  
val laura = actor {  
    louis ! Bonjour  
    receive {  
        case Bonjour =>  
        case _ => reply(Malotru)  
    }  
}
```

sender ! message □ reply(message)

Two-way messages

```
val louis = actor {  
    receive { case Bonjour => reply(Bonjour) }  
}  
  
val laura = actor {  
    louis !? Bonjour match {  
        case Bonjour =>  
        case _ => reply(Malotru)  
    }  
}
```

sender ! *message* ; receive { case *r* => *r*}
□ sender !? *message*

There is more to it

- Forwarding: the expression `actor forward message` sends `message` to `actor` on the behalf of `sender`
- Futures: non-blocking version of `!?`
- Receive with timeout: `receiveWithin`

Actors, Objects and Threads

- this and self: this denotes the current object and self the current actor (they are different when `actor { body }` is used).
- So far, actors are *thread-based* (each actor is associated a thread) and each thread can be seen as an actor.

Each Thread is an Actor

```
object SelfActor {  
    def main(args: Array[String]) = {  
        self ! Hello  
        receive { case Hello => println("I am an actor!")}  
    }  
}
```

Each Actor is a Thread (Not quite)

```
import scala.actors.Actor._  
  
object Main4 {  
    def main(args: Array[String]) =  
        println(currentThread);  
        actor { println(currentThread) }  
}
```

Output:

```
Thread[main,5,main]  
Thread[ForkJoinPool-1-worker-1,5,main]
```

actor vs **actor**

Scala shows off

- actor, !, receive are not specific Scala keywords!
- There is not a single mention of actors in The Scala Language Specification.
- Actors are implemented as a **library**:
`scala.actor`.

The trait and object Actor

```
trait Actor {  
    val mailbox = new Queue[Any]  
    def !(msg: Any): Unit = ...  
    def receive[R](f: PartialFunction[Any, R]): R = ...  
    ...  
}  
object Actor {  
    def self: Actor = ...  
    def actor(Body: => Unit): Actor = ...  
    ...  
}
```

Message sending

- Enqueues the message in the receiving actor's mailbox
- If the receiving actor is waiting for the message, the actor is resumed

Message reception

receive { f }

- The mailbox is scanned for expected messages (messages m such that $f.\text{isDefinedAt}(m)$ returns true).
- If there is such a message, it is removed from the mailbox and f is applied to it.
- If not, the actor is suspended.

Event-based vs Thread-Based Actors

- There are two ways to store continuations:
 - as frames on the (actor's thread) stack: *thread-based actors*
 - as a term on the heap (referenced by an instance variable of the actor) : *event-based actors*
- Event-based threads can be seen as event handlers: each execution of the actor's body is executed by a worker taken from a thread pool.

Syntax

- Thread-based

```
val louis = actor {  
    while (true) {  
        receive { case Bonjour => sender ! Bonjour }  
    }  
}
```

- Event-based

```
val louis = actor {  
    loop {  
        react { case Bonjour => sender ! Bonjour }  
    }  
}
```

Huh?

react vs receive

```
trait Actor {  
    def receive[R](f: PartialFunction[Any, R]): R = ...  
    def react(f: PartialFunction[Any, Unit]): Nothing = ...  
    ...  
}
```

Calling `react` never returns: the rest of the computation (the **continuation**) is defined in `f`.

Message handling

- When the actor is suspended, the continuation is stored in the actor and the thread executing the actor is released.
- A message send checks whether the actor is thread-based or event-based.
 - Thread-based: the underlying thread is resumed.
 - Event-based: a new task (handled by a **thread pool**) is created with the current continuation as a parameter.

Bounded Buffer v2.0

(Based on example from Scala's distribution)

```
class Buffer(size: Int) {  
    private case class Put(x: AnyRef)  
    private case object Get  
  
    private val buffer = actor { ... }  
  
    def put(o: Object) { buffer !? Put(o) }  
    def get: Object = (buffer !? Get).asInstanceOf[AnyRef]  
}
```

Bounded Buffer v2.0

```
private val buffer = actor {  
    val data = new Array[AnyRef](capacity)  
    var in, out, count = 0  
    loop { react {  
        case Put(o) if count < capacity =>  
            data(in) = o  
            count += 1; in = (in + 1) % capacity  
            reply()  
        case Get if count > 0 =>  
            val o = data(out); data = null  
            count -= 1; out = (out + 1) % capacity  
            reply(o)  
    }  
}  
}
```

Comments

- How is it that we don't need to care any longer about notifications?
- What do we gain?

```
public class Buffer {  
    protected Object[] data;  
    protected int in, out, count = 0;  
    protected final int capacity;  
  
    public Buffer(int capacity) {  
        this.capacity = capacity;  
        data = new Object[capacity];  
    }  
    public synchronized void put(Object o) {  
        while (count==capacity)  
            try { wait(); }  
            catch (InterruptedException ex) {}  
        data[in] = o;  
        ++count;  
        in=(in+1) % capacity;  
        if (count==1) notify();  
    }  
    public synchronized Object get() {  
        while (count==0)  
            try { wait(); }  
            catch (InterruptedException ex) {}  
        Object o = data[out];  
        data[out] = null;  
        -count;  
        out=(out+1) % capacity;  
        if (count == capacity - 1) notify();  
        return (o);  
    }  
}
```

```
class Buffer(size: Int) {  
    private case class Put(x: AnyRef)  
    private case object Get  
    private case object Stop  
  
    private val buffer = actor {  
        val data = new Array[AnyRef](size)  
        var in, out, count = 0  
        loop {  
            react {  
                case Put(o) if count < capacity =>  
                    data(in) = o  
                    count += 1; in = (in + 1) % capacity  
                    reply()  
                case Get if count > 0 =>  
                    val o = data(out); data(out) = null  
                    count -= 1; out = (out + 1) % capacity  
                    reply(o)  
            }  
        }  
        def put(o: AnyRef) { buffer !? Put(o) }  
        def get: Object = (buffer !? Get)  
    }  
}
```

Buffer as an actor (v3.0)

```
case class Put(o: Object)
case object Get

class Buffer(size: Int) extends Actor {
    val data = new Array[AnyRef](capacity)
    var in, out, count = 0

    def act() : Unit = {
        loop { react { // as before
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Producers and Consumers

v3.0

```
class Producer(buf: Buffer) extends Actor {  
    def act(): Unit =  
        loop { buf !? Put(new Product()) }  
}  
class Consumer(buf: Buffer) extends Actor {  
    def act() : Unit =  
        loop { (buf !? Get) }  
}
```

Producers and consumers

v4.0 (fully asynchronous)

```
case class Put(o: Object)
case object Reply // new
case object Get
case class Reply(o : Object) // new

class Producer(buf: Buffer) extends Actor {
    def act(): Unit = loop {
        buf ! Put(new Product())
        react { case Reply => }
    }
}

class Consumer(buf: Buffer) extends Actor {
    def act() : Unit = loop {
        buf ! Get
        react { case Reply(o) => }
    }
}
```

Conclusion

- Scala's extensibility (functions, syntax)
- Scala's actors are nice but not that easy to use (new programming patterns)
 - Possibility of mixing shared memory with threads (eg to deal with blocking IO) and shared nothing with actors (eg to create a large number of concurrent entities)
 - Quizz: what about sending/receiving mutable objects?

Conclusion

Some other stuff to look at

- Scalaz, a library for putting more Haskell in your Scala
- The Typesafe platform: Scala + Akka (distribution) + Play (web programming)

Scala as

- Food for thought
- Food for action (ie programming)

It is up to you

- to go farther and higher
- to design and implement even better languages



Mount Everest North Face as seen from the path to the base camp, Tibet. Wikimedia Commons. GNU 1.2.