

Mumbles and crumbles of Scala

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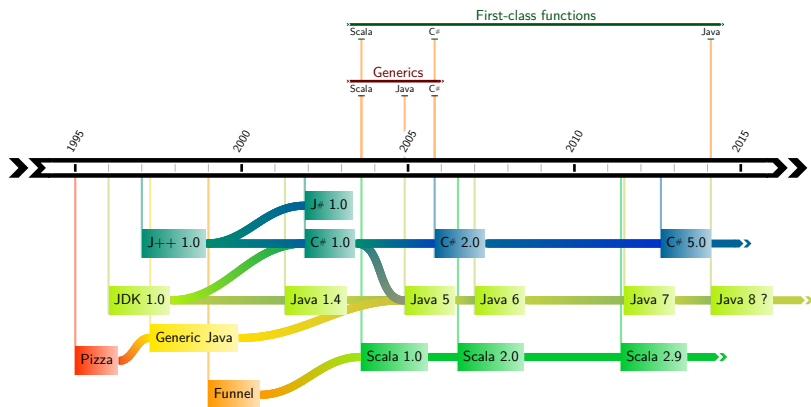
1996 - James **Gosling** invents **Java**. **Java** is a relatively verbose, garbage collected, class based, statically typed, single dispatch, object oriented language with single implementation inheritance and multiple interface inheritance. Sun loudly heralds **Java**'s novelty.

2001 - Anders **Hejlsberg** invents **C#**. **C#** is a relatively verbose, garbage collected, class based, statically typed, single dispatch, object oriented language with single implementation inheritance and multiple interface inheritance. Microsoft loudly heralds **C#**'s novelty.

2003 - A drunken Martin **Odersky** (...) has an idea. He creates **Scala**, a language that unifies constructs from both object oriented and functional languages. This pisses off both groups and each promptly declares jihad.

J.Iry, *"A Brief, Incomplete, and Mostly Wrong History of Programming Languages"*

A brief history of Scala



A brief history of Scala

- Statically typed, **pure object-oriented** language : every value is an object, every operation is a method call.
- Blended with **functional programming** features : first class functions, pattern matching, case classes ...
- Claims that the combination of the styles grants it **scalability** : **Scala** is adapted for writing small scripts as well as large programs.
- Compatibility with the JVM, but modifies/improves on **Java**'s capabilities and many aspects of the type system (class hierarchy, generics ...) and is not hindered by ascendant compatibility.
- Must stand the comparison with the upcoming **Java 8** new features.

- 1 Quick introduction
- 2 Traits and Code inheritance
- 3 Scala collections and generics
- 4 Implicits

For those with a computer at hand ...

- Go to the language home page :

<http://www.scala-lang.org/>

- Download the latest archive for the language.
- Run the interactive shell `scala`.
- Retrieve the code on the slides :

<http://www.labri.fr/~renault/working/code.scala>

- Dampen the sound on your keyboards.

Training wheels

The inevitable snippet about universality :

In **Scala** :

```
object HelloWorld {  
  def main(args: Array[String]): Unit =  
    { println("Scrmflghk") }  
}
```

In **Java** :

```
class HelloWorld {  
  public static void main(String[] args)  
    { System.out.println("Scrmflghk"); }  
}
```

Notice the difference at the toplevel : **object** vs. **class**

Singleton objects

Singleton objects are objects that are the unique instance of their class.

```
object JapanMap extends HashMap[String,String] {}  
JapanMap += (("Tokyo","Hotel")) // -> res:JapanMap.type = Map(Tokyo -> Hotel)  
JapanMap("Tokyo") // -> res: String = Hotel
```

⇒ Allows to do OOP without classes (fun !).

In **Scala**, singleton objects may be used to store the static methods of a class. In this case, they are called **companion objects**.

```
import java.math.BigInteger  
  
class BigInt(val bigIntgr: BigInteger)  
extends ScalaNumber ... {  
  def equals(that: BigInt):Boolean = ...  
  def compare(that: BigInt):Int = ...  
  def + (that: BigInt):BigInt = ...  
}
```

```
object BigInt {  
  def apply(i: Int):BigInt = ...  
  def apply(l: Long):BigInt = ...  
}  
new BigInt(new BigInteger("5"))  
// -> scala.math.BigInt = 5  
BigInt(43)  
// -> scala.math.BigInt = 43
```


Otherwise, **Scala** has the same look-and-feel than **Java** :

```
class A {}  
trait I { def moo() : Unit }  
  
class C(x : Int) extends A with I {  
  
    def moo() : Unit =  
        println("Grou")  
}  
  
val x : A = new C(1)
```

Scala

```
class A {}  
interface I { void moo(); }  
  
class C extends A implements I {  
    public final int x;  
    public C(int x) { this.x = x };  
  
    public void moo() {  
        System.out.println("Grou"); }  
}  
  
A x = new C(1);
```

Java

- **Java** interfaces are replaced by **Scala** traits.
- Integration with **Java** code is particularly simple

```
import java.util.GregorianCalendar  
val c = new GregorianCalendar() // -> c: java.util.GregorianCalendar  
c.get(java.util.Calendar.YEAR) // -> res: Int = 2014
```

Scala

Functional programming in Scala

- Functions are first-class values :

```
val max = (x:Int, y:Int) => {  
  if (x > y) x else y }      // -> max: (Int, Int) => Int = <function2>  
max(63,49)                   // -> res: Int = 63
```

- Case objects and **case classes** represent algebraic data types :

```
abstract class List  
final case object Nil          extends List  
final case class Cons(hd:Int, tl:List) extends List  
val l : List = Cons(1, Cons(2, Nil)) // -> l: List = Cons(1,Cons(2,Nil))
```

- **Pattern matching** (on case classes, simple values and classes) :

```
def last(l:List) : Int = l match {  
  case Nil          => throw new Exception("last")  
  case Cons(x,Nil) => x  
  case Cons(x,v)   => last(v) }  
last(l) // -> res:Int = 2
```

Type inference

- In many cases, **Scala** is able to infer the types of values :

```
val l = List("This", "is", "a", "list")           // -> List[String]
l.sortWith (_ > _)                               // -> (list, is, a, This)
```

- Nevertheless, its “flow-based” inference algorithm is not all that powerful. For instance, it cannot generalize the types of functions :

```
val max = (x,y) => { if (x > y) x else y } // Error : Missing parameter type
```

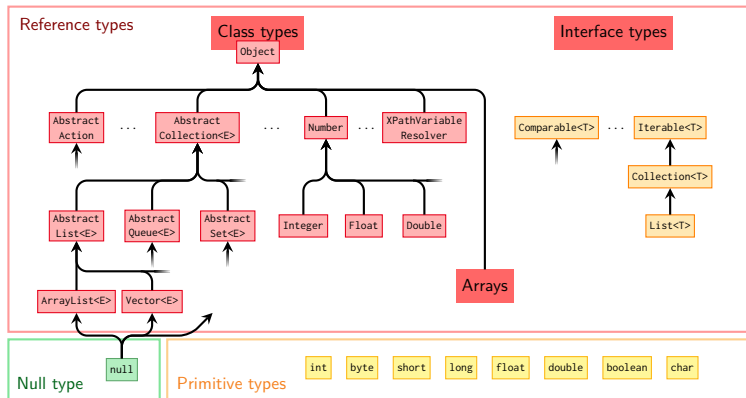
- Granted, getting a correct type is not that obvious :

```
def max[T<:Ordered[T]](x:T, y:T) = { if (x < y) x else y }
```

But **OCaml** and **Haskell** are able to infer it :

```
let max x y = if (x#gt y) then x else y;;
val max : (<gt : 'a -> bool; .. > as 'a) -> 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

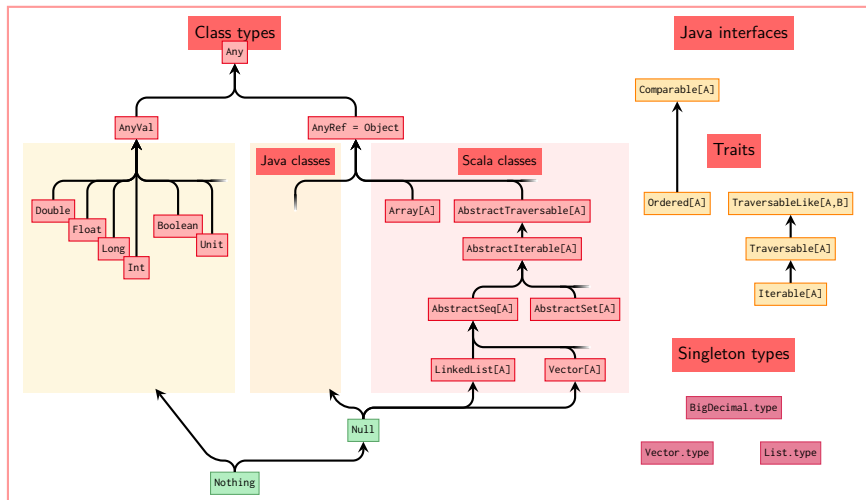
Java types and values



Shortcomings of **Java** type systems :

- Primitive types (duplication, performance issues, compatibility w/generics)
- Arrays (duplication, compatibility w/generics, type safety)
- `void` does not belong to the hierarchy (functional types not exhaustive)

Overview of Scala types and values



The **Java** language allows two forms of inheritance :

- Single implementation inheritance : a class extends a unique other class
- Multiple specification inheritance : a class may implement several interfaces

⇒ Single inheritance limits code reuse (i.e “you only get one shot”)

Scala allows multiple code inheritance with the help of **traits**.

Trait

A trait is an abstract class which is meant to be included (as a unit of code) into another class.

```
trait Ordered[A] extends Any {  
  def compare(that: A): Int // abstract function  
  def < (that: A): Boolean = (this.compare that) < 0  
  def > (that: A): Boolean = (this.compare that) > 0  
}
```

```
class Point(val x:Int, val y:Int) extends Ordered[Point] {  
  def compare(that: Point) = this.x - that.x }  
val p = new Point(2,3)  
val q = new Point(3,2)  
p < q // -> Boolean = true
```

- A trait is not meant to be instantiated by itself
- It can contain methods, but also values (and maintain a state)

Mixin composition

Mixin composition

A **Scala** class can extend only one class but implement multiple traits. In this case, it is called a **mixin composition** (or simply mixin).

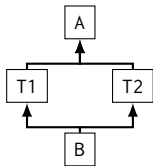
- Allows to create “rich” classes by mixing “thin” traits, each trait possibly representing an aspect of the behavior of the class.

```
| class Point extends Ordered[Point] with Serializable with Cloneable
```

- Promotes modularity and the reuse of existing code.

Multiple inheritance

Multiple inheritance is usually problematic, as shown in the “dreaded” **diamond problem** :



```
class A { def f = "A"}  
trait T1 extends A { override def f = "T1-" + super.f }  
trait T2 extends A { override def f = "T2-" + super.f }  
class B extends A with T1 with T2  
(new B()).f // -> T2-T1-A or T1-T2-A ?
```

C++ disambiguates by specifying explicitly the parent implementation.
Scala performs a linearization of the inheritance graph :



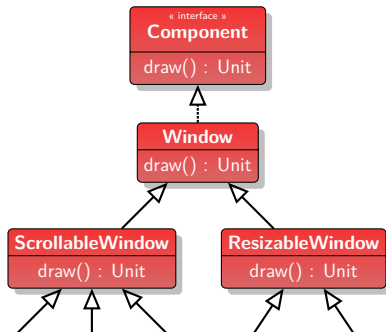
```
| (new B()).f // -> T2-T1-A
```

- Defines an order on the inclusion of the classes;
- At dispatch time, the first class implementing the method is selected.

Multiple overriding problem

Multiple overriding problem

Intent : to add additional multiple orthogonal responsibilities to an object, while preserving its type.



(Disclaimer : this is not the classical Decorator pattern)

In Java : overriding with inheritance

Intent : to add multiple orthogonal responsibilities to an object.

```
interface Component {  
    String draw(); }  
  
class Window implements Component {  
    public String draw() {  
        return "|__|"; }}
```

```
class ScrollableWindow extends Window {  
    public String draw() {  
        return "|" + super.draw() + "|";  
    }}  
  
class ResizableWindow extends Window {  
    public String draw() {  
        return super.draw() + "+/-|";  
    }}
```

Client-side use of the overridden methods :

```
Window w1 = new ScrollableWindow();  
w1.draw()    // -> ||__||  
Window w2 = new ResizableWindow();  
w2.draw();   // -> |__|+/-|
```

- Problem : combinatorial explosion of the children classes

In C++ : overriding with inheritance

Intent : to add multiple orthogonal responsibilities to an object.

```
class Component {
public: virtual string draw() = 0;
};

class Window : public Component {
public: string draw() { return "|_|"; }
};
```

```
template<class T>
class ScrollableWindow : public T {
    static_assert(
        std::is_base_of<Window, T>::value);

public: string draw() {
    return "|" + T::draw() + "|"; }
};
```

Client-side use of the overridden methods :

```
Window* w1 = new Window();
cout << w1->draw() << endl;    // -> "|_|"
Window* w2 = new ResizableWindow<ScrollableWindow<Window>>();
cout << w2->draw() << endl;    // -> "||_||+/-|"
```

- More flexible : the composite classes need not be constructed;
- Allowed in C++, not in Java because of the style of the generics.

In Scala : Stackable trait pattern

Intent : to add multiple orthogonal responsibilities to an object.

```
trait Component {  
  def draw () : String  
}  
  
class Window extends Component {  
  def draw () = { "|__|" }  
}
```

```
trait Scrollable extends Window {  
  override def draw () = {  
    "|" + super.draw () + "|"  
  }}  
  
trait Resizable extends Window {  
  override def draw () = {  
    super.draw () + "+/-|"  
  }}
```

Client-side use of the overridden methods :

```
val w1 = new Window  
println(w1.draw())      // -> |__|  
val w2 = new Window with Scrollable with Resizable  
println(w2.draw())     // -> ||__||+/-|
```

- Called the “stackable trait” pattern in **Scala**.

In Java : the classical Decorator pattern

Intent : to add multiple orthogonal responsibilities to an object.

```
interface Component { String draw(); }  
  
class Window implements Component {  
    public String draw() { return "|_|";  
}}
```

```
class ScrollableWindow extends Window {  
    private Window m = null;  
  
    public ScrollableWindow(Window m) {  
        this.m = m;    }  
  
    public String draw() {  
        return "|" + m.draw() + "|";  
    }  
}}
```

Decorations are dynamic : they can be added or removed at runtime.

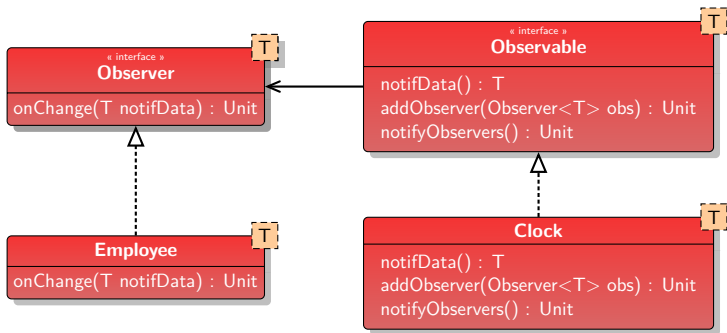
```
Window w = new ScrollableWindow(new Window());  
w.draw();           // -> |_|_|  
w = new ResizableWindow(w);  
w.draw();           // -> |_|_|+/-|
```

- Flexible solution with a bit of code duplication.

Design pattern : Observer

Observer pattern

Intent : establish a relation between objects such that when one object changes state, all its dependents are notified and updated automatically.



Example : the Observer pattern in Java

Intent : establish a relation between objects such that when one object changes state, all its dependents are notified and updated automatically.

```
interface Observer<T> {
    void onChange(T notifData); }

interface Observable<T> {
    T notifData();
    void addObserver(Observer<T> obs);
    void notifyObservers(); }

abstract class ObservableImpl<T>
    implements Observable<T> {
    private ArrayList<Observer<T>>
        observers = new ArrayList<>();
    public void addObserver(Observer<T> obs) {
        observers.add(obs); }
    public void notifyObservers() {
        for (Observer<T> obs : observers)
            obs.onChange(notifData()); }}
```

```
class Clock extends ObservableImpl<Integer> {
    public Integer notifData() { /* ... */ }
};

class Employee implements Observer<Integer> {
    public void onChange(Integer notifData) {
        System.out.println(this.toString() +
            " time = " + notifData); }
};
```

```
Clock c = new Clock();
Employee e1 = new Employee();
Employee e2 = new Employee();
c.addObserver(e1); c.addObserver(e2);
c.notifyObservers(); // Empl@1 time = 19
                    // Empl@2 time = 19
```

- Problem : the **Clock** class can no longer extend another class.

Example : the Observer pattern in Scala

Intent : establish a relation between objects such that when one object changes state, all its dependents are notified and updated automatically.

```
trait Observer[T] {  
  def onChange(notifData: T) : Unit  
}  
  
trait Observable[T] {  
  var observers:List[Observer[T]] = Nil  
  def notifData() : T  
  
  def addObserver(obs: Observer[T]) = {  
    observers = obs::observers  
  }  
  def notifyObservers() : Unit =  
    observers.foreach((obs:Observer[T])  
      => obs.onChange(notifData()))  
}
```

```
class Clock {  
  def notifData() = // .. Get time  
}  
  
class Employee extends Observer[Int] {  
  def onChange(x : Int) : Unit = {  
    println(this + " time = " + x) }  
}
```

```
val c = new Clock with Observable[Int]  
val e1 = new Employee  
val e2 = new Employee  
c.addObserver(e1); c.addObserver(e2)  
c.notifyObservers() // Empl@1 time = 19  
                   // Empl@2 time = 19
```

- The `Clock` class is now free to implement (or not) other traits.

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Generic programming

Polymorphism

Property of the type system where some elements of the language are compatible with a set of types.

Universal polymorphism corresponds to the case where the set of compatible types is defined by a particular structure.

- **Inclusion polymorphism** : the structure is defined by set inclusion
Ex. : class inheritance (**Java** and **Scala**), subtyping ...

```
p1 = new JPanel(); // Swing container (of JComponents)
l1 = new JLabel("Chat Log"); p1.add(l1); // JLabel <: JComponent
t1 = new JTextArea(10,10); p1.add(t1); // JTextArea <: JComponent
```

- **Parametric polymorphism** : the structure is defined by parameters
Ex. : generics (**Java** and **Scala**), templates (**C++**), **OCaml** ...

```
abstract class List[+T]
final case object Nil extends List[Nothing]
final case class Cons[T](hd:T, tl:List[T]) extends List[T]
val l = Cons(1, Cons(2, Nil)) // -> Cons[Int] = Cons(1,Cons(2,Nil))
```


Basic use of collections

- Instantiation :

```
| val l = List(1,2,3,4)           // List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

- Iteration :

```
| for(x <- l) { println(x) }     // Prints 1 2 3 4  
| l.foreach((x) => println(x))  // Prints 1 2 3 4
```

- Mapping :

```
| l.map((x) => x*2)              // List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

- Folding :

```
| l.fold(0)((x,y) => x+y)       // Int = 10, the sum of the elements of l
```

And each of these operations remains valid when replacing `List` by `Array`, (or anything inheriting from `Traversable`).

Why so many different collections ? Primarily for **efficiency**.

- Different structures, different complexities :

Data Structure	Average				Worst			
	Index	Search	Insert	Delete	Index	Search	Insert	Delete
Array	1	n	n	n	1	n	n	n
Linked List	n	n	1	1	n	n	1	1
Hash Table	-	1	1	1	-	n	n	n
Binary Search Tree	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	n	n	n	n
Red-Black Tree	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$	$\log(n)$

Excerpt from <http://bigocheatsheet.com/>

- Different structures, different properties, mostly based on mutability :
 - Mutable structures → spatial efficiency, easier sharing
 - Immutable structures → no shared state, easier parallelization
- Different structures handle different data types :
bitsets (integers), strings (characters) ...

Generics trivia

Consider the **map** function, that transforms elements of a list.
For example in **OCaml** :

```
List.map (* ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list *)  
List.map (fun x -> x+1) [1;2;3] (* -> [2;3;4] *)  
List.map (fun x -> x mod 2) [1;2;3] (* -> [1;0;1] *)
```

Scala possesses an equivalent **map** function that has the same behavior,
but acts on a much richer set of collections than in **OCaml**.

What should the following calls return ?

```
val s : Set[Int] = Set(1,2,3)  
s.map((x) => x % 2) // % is modulo
```

```
val s : String = "abc"  
s.map ((x) => (x.toInt+1))
```

Generics trivia

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```
List.map (* ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list *)  
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What should the following calls return ?

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val s : Set[Int] = Set(1,2,3)  
s.map((x) => x % 2) // % is modulo
```

Set[Int] = Set(1, 0)

```
val s : String = "abc"  
s.map ((x) => (x.toInt+1))
```


Generics trivia

Consider the **map** function, that transforms elements of a list.
For example in **OCaml** :

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but acts on a much richer set of collections than in **OCaml**.

What should the following calls return ?

```
val s : Set[Int] = Set(1,2,3)  
s.map((x) => x % 2) // % is modulo
```

Set[Int] = Set(1, 0)

```
val s : String = "abc"  
s.map ((x) => (x.toInt+1))
```

IndexedSeq[Int] = Vector(66, 67, 68)

Building collections

Each **Scala** class inheriting from **Traversable** contains a **Builder** :

```
trait HasNewBuilder[+A, +Repr] extends Any {  
  /* The builder that builds instances of Repr */  
  protected[this] def newBuilder: Builder[A, Repr] }  
}
```

... where $\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{Repr} & \text{is the type of the container} \\ A & \text{is the type of the contained} \end{array} \right.$ Set[Int]
Int

```
trait Builder[-A, +Repr] extends Growable[A] {  
  def +=(elem: A): this.type /* Adds a single element to the builder. */  
  def result(): Repr /* Produces a collection from the added elements. */  
}
```

... which is accessible in the collection companion object :

```
val s = Set(1,2,3) // -> Set(1,2,3)  
s.companion.apply(4,2,4) // -> Set(4,2)
```

Builder instances allow to write generic code, for instance filters :

```
private def filterImpl(p: A => Boolean, isFlipped: Boolean): Repr = {  
  val b = newBuilder  
  for (x <- this)  
    if (p(x) != isFlipped) b += x  
  b.result  
}  
def filter(p: A => Boolean): Repr    = filterImpl(p, isFlipped = false)  
def filterNot(p: A => Boolean): Repr = filterImpl(p, isFlipped = true)
```

This code is inherited from **Traversable**, at the top of the hierarchy, along with the following (non exhaustive) list of functions :

- partition, take, drop, splitAt (for **Traversable**)
- reverse, intersect, distinct (for **Seq**)

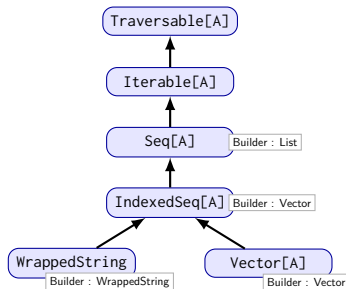
What about the concatenation (`++`) of two collections ?

```
| val s : WrappedString = "abc"
```

```
| s ++ "de" // -> WrappedString("abcdef")
```

```
| s ++ IndexedSeq(1,2) // -> Vector(a,b,c,1,2)
```

```
| s ++ Seq(1,2) // -> Vector(a,b,c,1,2)
```



Question : what is the result type of the concatenation ?

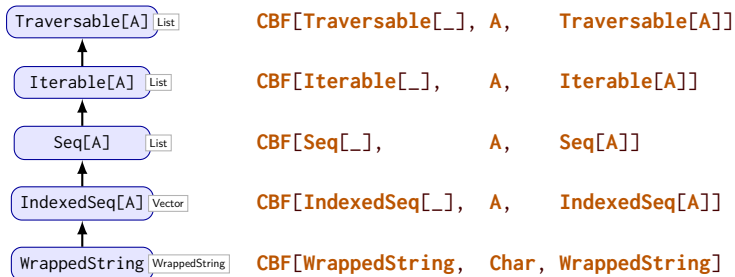
```
| def ++[B >: A, That](that: GenTraversableOnce[B])  
| (implicit bf: CanBuildFrom[Repr, B, That]): That
```

[†]Promise not to ask questions about implicits for the moment.

The `CanBuildFrom` trait just contains `Builder` instances :

```
trait CanBuildFrom[-From, -Elem, +To] {  
  def apply(from: From): Builder[Elem, To]  
  def apply(): Builder[Elem, To] }
```

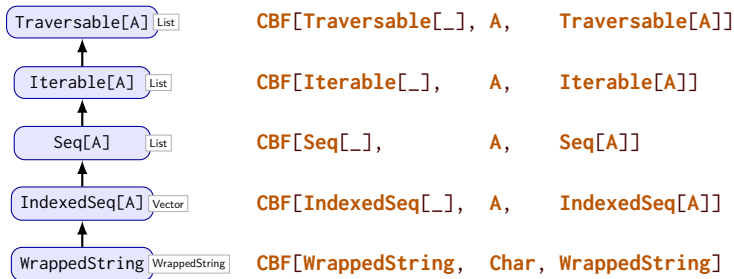
And each collection implements instances of this trait describing :



In effect, this describes a *function* on types :

(BaseCollection, ElementToAdd) → ResultCollection

```
def ++[B >: A, That](that: GenTraversableOnce[B])
    (implicit bf: CanBuildFrom[Repr, B, That]): That
```



When concatenating two collections, the result type **That** is looked up :

Repr	B		That ?	built as :
WrappedString	Char	→	WrappedString	WrappedString
IndexedSeq[Char]	Int	→	IndexedSeq	Vector

Scala's generic implementation of **map** is particularly concise :

```
def map[B, That](f: A => B)(implicit bf: CanBuildFrom[Repr, B, That]): That = {  
  def builder = { // builder extracted for inlining  
    val b = bf(repr)  
    b.sizeHint(this)  
    b  
  }  
  val b = builder  
  for (x <- this) b += f(x)  
  b.result  
}
```

Aside from that, this implementation has several qualities :

- it keeps the same behavior as the classical map function on lists;
- it preserves the properties of the collections such as uniqueness;
- it changes the type of the collections if necessary.

Comparison with Java collections

- **Java** 7 contains in general two versions of its operations.

For example for concatenation :

- a standard version in the current class :

```
| boolean addAll(Collection<? extends E> c)
```

- a static version in the `Collections` class :

```
| static <T> boolean addAll(Collection<? super T> c, T... elements)
```

- **Java** 8 collections support streams with generic operations, such as :

- the concatenation function :

```
| static <T> Stream<T> concat(Stream<? extends T> a, Stream<? extends T> b)
```

- the map function :

```
| <R> Stream<R> map(Function<? super T,? extends R> mapper)
```

- conversion to another collection :

```
| stream.collect(ArrayList::new, ArrayList::add, ArrayList::addAll);
```

- Keep in mind that in most cases, the **Java** collections are mutable.

One word on Implicit

Scala possesses a mechanism for marking definitions and function parameters as **implicit**.

```
def greet(name : String)(implicit age : Int) {  
  println("Captain " + name + ", you are " + age + " years old")  
}  
implicit def default_age : Int = 42  
greet("Ahab")           // Captain Ahab, you are 42 years old  
greet("Kirk")(-219)    // Captain Kirk, you are -219 years old
```

- When an **implicit** parameter is not filled in, the compiler looks up for an **implicit** definition of a compatible type in the current namespace.
- Tastes like *default parameters* (**Python**, **C++**, ...), but implicits are associated to a **type** and not to a parameter.

Another word on Implicit

Implicit have a bunch of possible applications, among which :

- **CanBuildFrom** type functions are enforced seamlessly :

```
BitSet(1,2,3).map((x) => x.toString)           // Set[String] = Set(1, 2, 3)
BitSet(1,2,3).map((x) => x.toString)(Set.canBuildFrom) // Same result
BitSet(1,2,3).map((x) => x.toString)(BitSet.canBuildFrom) // Type error
```

- Implicit transformations for implicit type conversions :

Ex : **Int** implicitly converted to **RichInt**

```
implicit def intWrapper(x : Int) = new runtime.RichInt(x)
1.until(5) // -> res : Range = Range(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

Also called the "pimp my library" pattern.

- Emulation of **Haskell** type classes : a set of types linked to a function

```
trait SemiGroup[A] { def add (x : A, y : A) : A }
def double[A](x : A)(implicit m : SemiGroup[A]) : A = m.add(x, x)
implicit object ISG extends SemiGroup[Int] { def add(x:Int,y:Int):Int = x+y }
double(1) // double will only answer to Int parameters
```

Why such an effort on the collections code ?

From a large-scale perspective :

- Factorization of code over a rich set of collections,
- Reasonable extensibility cost (in terms in lines of code),
- Very high flexibility of client code in a type-safe environment.

But on the other hand, the code itself is particularly complex, due to :

- Spaghetti code syndrome : 288 files, 412 class definitions, 292 traits, and everything scattered everywhere,
- Overly complex documentation, behavior not always obvious.

- M. Odersky, L. Spoon, B. Venners : *Programming in Scala*
<http://www.cs.ucsb.edu/~benh/260/Programming-in-Scala.pdf>
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- M. Odersky : *Scala by Example*
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