# Object-Oriented Programming in Scala



Mostly like Java with important differences:

- overridden methods must have override modifier, which is part of the language, not an annotation
- ▶ instead of interfaces Scala has *traits*, which are much richer
  - traits can have everything a class can have except constructors
  - a class can "mix-in" any number of traits (kinda like multiple inheritance, but without the "diamond inheritance problem") Note: these slides based on examples in Cay Horstmann's excellent Scala for the Impatient, 2ed



# Extending Classes

```
1
2
3
4
5
6
```

```
class Person(val name: String, val age: Int) {
   override def toString = s"${getClass.getName}[name=$name]"
}
class Employee(name: String, age: Int) extends Person(name, age) {
   var salary: Int = 0.0
}
```

- Person implicitly extends AnyRef (java.lang.Object)
- name and age are parametric fields constructor parameters that define instance variables
- Employee's constructor takes two parameters that are passed to Person constructor (equivalent to a super() call in a Java constructor)



### Run-time Type Identification

- obj.isInstanceOf[C1] like obj instanceof C1 in Java
- obj.asInstanceOf[C1] like (C1) obj in Java
- classOf[C1] like C1.class in Java



# **Overriding Fields**

1 2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

```
abstract class Person(val name: String) {
  def id: Int
   override def toString = s"${getClass.getName}[name=$name]"
  }
  class SecretAgent(val id: Int, codename: String)
   extends Person(codename) {
   override val name = "secret" // 'Dont want to reveal name . . .
   override val toString = "secret" // . . . or class name
  }
```

- id is abstract in Person because it is not defined (so Person must be declared abstract, just like in Java)
- SecretAgent overrides id with a val field (could add override modifier, but not required when overriding abstract member)

#### Rules

- A def can only override another def
- A val can only override another val or a parameterless def
- A var can only override an abstract var

Georg

## Scala's Class Hierarchy



Scala has two "bottom types"

Null has a single value, null, which is an instance of any class

- Nothing has no instances and is useful in a couple of places:
  - Empty list Nil has type List[Nothing], which is a subtype of List[T] for any T
  - AnyRef defines a ??? method with return type Nothing that Georgia simply throws a NotImplementedError when invoked

# Equality

1

2

3

4 5 6

7

Use  $_{eq}$  for identity equality (alias test – like == in Java). Similar to Java, AnyRef's equals method invokes eq. Override equals like this:

```
class Item(val description: String, val price: Double) {
 final override def equals(other: Any) = other match {
   case that: Item => description == that.description && price ==
        that.price
   case => false
 final override def hashCode = (description, price).##
```

- Recipe similar to Java's, but much more convenient
- Remember parameter type is Any
- Marked final to prevent symmetry problems in subclasses
- ## is a convenience method on tuples which makes defining hashCode trivial



#### **Companion Objects**

Scala doesn't have "static" members but use cases for static members can be done with a *companion object*, which:

- has the same name as its companion class
- must be defined in the same source file as its companion class
- has access to its companion class's private members (and vice-versa)

Companion objects are most often used for factory methods:

```
class Item(val description: String, val price: Double)
object Item {
  def apply(description: String, price: Double): Item =
     new Item(description, price)
}
val item = Item("Key Lime", 3.14) // Calls Item.apply
```

Georgia

#### Traits as Interfaces

```
1 trait Logger {
2  def log(msg: String)
3  }
4  class ConsoleLogger extends Logger {
5  def log(msg: String) = { println(msg) }
6  }
```

- Pretty much like a Java interface
- extends, not implements



#### Traits with Concrete Implementations

Traits can have concrete implementations (like default methods in Java interfaces), so our ConsoleLogger could be a trait:

```
1
2
3
```

1 2

3

4

5 6

```
trait ConsoleLogger extends Logger {
  def log(msg: String) { println(msg) }
}
```

Then we can "mix-in" the trait without having to override any methods:

```
abstract class SavingsAccount(var balance: Int) extends ConsoleLogger {
   def withdraw(amount: Int) {
      if (amount > balance) log("Insufficient funds")
      else balance -= amount
   }
}
```



### **Objects with Traits**

1

We can have SavingsAccount extend the abstract Logger instead of the concrete ConsoleLogger.

```
1 abstract class SavingsAccount(var balance: Int) extends Logger {
2   def withdraw(amount: Int) {
3     if (amount > balance) log("Insufficient funds")
4     else balance -= amount
5   }
6 }
```

You can mix in a trait with a concrete implementation of  $\log at$  construction:

```
val acct = new SavingsAccount(1) with ConsoleLogger
```

This works because SavingsAccount is a subtype of Logger and so is ConsoleLogger.

#### Stackable Modifications

Traits can invoke methods in other traits that have a common supertype declaring the method. The supertype can be abstract, and the result is that a chain of operations takes place when the method is called.

Here,  $_{\tt super}$  doesn't mean "supertype", it means "trait that was mixed-in to my left."



Resolution of super in Stacked Traits (1/2)

For simple mixin sequences you may think of method resolution as "back to"front". (Note the with syntax when extending multiple traits.)

```
1
```

```
val acct1 = new SavingsAccount(1) with Timestamping with Shortening
acct1.withdraw(2)
```

In the code above, Shortening is furthest to the right, so its  $\log$  method is called with "Insufficient funds", which, being 18 characters, is passed to the  $\log$  method in Timestamping so we get something like

```
1 2019-02-17T23:28:15.747452Z Insufficient funds
```



#### Resolution of $_{super}$ in Stacked Traits (2/2)

Here we mix-in Timestamping last, so its log method is called with "Insufficient funds", Timestamping.log prepends a timestamp, then passes the result to Shortening.log because its to the left of Timestamping in the mix-in order. So

1 val acct2 = new SavingsAccount(1) with Shortening with Timestamping
2 acct2.withdraw(2)

gives us something like

1 2019-02-17



#### Abstract Overrides

Because super calls are dynamically bound, you can invoke an abstract method as long as you mark your method as abstract override. See the Shouting we've added below.

```
1
    trait Timestamping extends ConsoleLogger {
 2
      override def log(msg: String) =
           super.log(s"${java.time.Instant.now()} $msg")
3
4
    trait Shortening extends ConsoleLogger {
5
      override def log(msg: String) =
        super.log( if (msg.length <= 18) msg else s"${msg.substring(0,</pre>
6
             10) ]")
7
8
    trait Shouting extends Logger {
9
      abstract override def log(msg: String) =
10
        super.log(msg.toUpperCase)
11
    }
```

This is saying "we assume a concrete log method exists." The compiler ensures that you can only mix shouting into a class that somehow provides a concrete log method.

### Compiling Traits with Abstract Overrides

The compiler ensures that the super call will succeed. So this will compile because Shortening provides a concrete log method (from ConsoleLogger) for the super call in Shouting

```
1
```

1

2

3

```
val acct3 = new SavingsAccount(1) with Shortening with Shouting
acct3.withdraw(2) // => INSUFFICIENT FUNDS
```

But this will not compile because Shortening's super call is refferring to  $Shouting's \log$  method, which has no concrete  $\log$  method for its super call.

```
// Won't compile
val acct4 = new SavingsAccount(1) with Shouting with Shortening
acct4.withdraw(2)
```

The resolution of super is called *linearization* and it is the (somewhat complicated) way Scala solves the diamond inheritance problem.

**Tech** 

Georgia

#### Packages

Like Java, Scala code that's not in a named package is in the global *unnamed* package. Put code into packages in two ways:

Putting a package declaration at top of source code file, like in Java:

```
1 package edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo
2
3 class Animal
4 trait Mammal extends Animal
5 class Dog extends Animal with Mammal
```

and ...



#### Namespace Packaging Syntax

Explicit packaging syntax (like the namespace feature of other languages):

```
1 package edu.gatech.cs2340 {
2   package zoo {
3      class Animal
4      trait Mammal extends Animal
5      class Dog extends Animal with Mammal
6   }
7 }
```

The second approach is flexible but not used much in practice. Note: although Scala allows you to organize your code any way you want, be a good person and follow Java's package naming (reverse domain name) and source code organization conventions (source directory tree mirrors package structure).



#### Imports

Scala imports are more flexible than Java's

- import edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo.Animal import Animal into namespace as simple name (name without package).
- import edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo.{Animal, Mammal} import Animal, Mammal but not Dog into namespace as simple names.
- import edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo.\_ import all top-level names in zoo into namespace as simple names.
- import edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo.Animal.\_ import all members of Animal into namespace as simple names.
- import edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo.{Mammal => FurryCreature} import Mammal into namespace but rename to FurryCreature.
- import edu.gatech.cs2340.zoo.{Mammal => \_, \_} import everything
  from zoo except Mammal.



#### Conclusion

- OOP in Scala is more consistent, more expressive, more flexible, and less verbose than in Java
- With great power comes great resonsibility
  - Don't get too crazy with trait mix-ins, whose linearizations can be difficult to understand
- Stick to Java's conventions for packages and source file organization

