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Second
Edition

Scala Cookbook

Recipes for Object-Oriented and
Functional Programming



Alvin Alexander

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Beijing • Boston • Farnham • Sebastopol • Tokyo

Scala Cookbook

by Alvin Alexander

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[LSI]

Dedication

To the Kirn family of Louisville, Kentucky. As in the movie, *While You Were Sleeping*, I adopted them a long time ago, and my life has never been the same.

And also to my friends who passed away during the creation of this book: Frank, Ben, Kenny, Bill, and Lori.

Preface

This is a cookbook of problem-solving recipes about Scala 3, the most interesting programming language I've ever used. The book contains solutions to more than two hundred fifty common Scala programming problems, demonstrated with more than one thousand examples.

Compared to other Scala 3 learning resources, there are several unique things about this book:

- As a cookbook, it's intended to save you time by providing solutions to the most common problems you'll encounter.
- The book covers not only the Scala language but also recipes on Scala tools and libraries, including sbt, Spark, Scala.js, Akka actors, and JSON processing with the Play Framework.
- The book takes a big dive into the Scala collections classes, using five chapters to demonstrate their use.
- Output from the examples is shown either in the Scala interpreter or in comments after the code. As a result, whether you're sitting by a computer, on a plane, or reading in your favorite recliner, you get the benefit of

seeing their exact output. (Which often leads to, “Ah, so that’s how that works.”)

The Scala 3 Language

In the first edition of *Scala Cookbook*, I described Scala 2 as feeling like a combination of Ruby and Java. Back then I wrote, “My (oversimplified) Scala elevator pitch is that it’s a child of Ruby and Java: it’s light, concise, and readable like Ruby, but it compiles to class files that you package as JAR files that run on the Java virtual machine (JVM); it uses traits and mixins, and feels dynamic, but it’s statically typed.”

Since then, the Scala language features have been rethought and debated in an open, public process, and with the release of Scala 3 in 2021, the language feels *even lighter*, and now it seems like a combination of four terrific languages: Ruby and Java, combined with the lightweight and clean syntax of Python and Haskell.

Part of this even-lighter feel is thanks to the new *optional braces* syntax, which is also known as a *significant indentation* style. With this one change, `for` loops that used to look like this:

```
for (i <- 1 to 5) { println(i) }
```

now look like this:

```
for i <- 1 to 5 do println(i)
```

Similarly, `if` expressions and many other expressions also use less boilerplate syntax and are easier to read:

```
val y = if (x == 1) { true } else { false }    //
val y = if x == 1 then true else false          //
```

While this new syntax is considered optional, it's become the de facto standard and is used in this book, the [*Scala 3 Book*](#) that I cowrote for the Scala documentation website, the official Scala 3 training classes on Coursera, the books *Programming in Scala* by Martin Odersky et al. (Artima Press) and *Programming Scala* by Dean Wampler (O'Reilly), and many more learning resources.

The new syntax isn't the only change. Scala 3 has many new features, including:

- Enumerations
- Union and intersection types

- Top-level definitions (so your code no longer has to be contained inside classes, traits, and objects)
- Simplified use of *implicits* with the new `given` and `using` syntax
- Greatly simplified syntax for extension methods and type classes

Even the syntax of traits and classes has been simplified to be more readable than ever before:

```
trait Animal:
    def speak(): Unit

trait HasTail:
    def wagTail(): Unit

class Dog extends Animal, HasTail:
    def speak() = println("Woof")
    def wagTail() = println("＼＼＼＼＼")
```

With the new syntax, every construct that creates unnecessary “noise” in your code has been removed.

Scala Features

In addition to everything just stated, Scala provides a multitude of features that make it a unique and truly modern programming language:

- It's created by Martin Odersky—the “father” of `javac`—and influenced by Java, Ruby, Smalltalk, ML, Haskell, Python, Erlang, and others.
- It's a high-level programming language.
- It has a concise, readable syntax—we call it *expressive*.
- It's statically typed—so you get to enjoy all the benefits of static type safety—but it feels like a dynamic scripting language.
- It's a pure object-oriented programming (OOP) language; every variable is an object, and every operator is a method.
- It's also a functional programming (FP) language, so you can pass functions around as variables.
- Indeed, [the essence of Scala](#) is, as Mr. Odersky puts it, that it's a fusion of FP and OOP in a typed setting, with:
 - — Functions for the logic
 - — Objects for the modularity
- It runs on the JVM, and thanks to the [Scala.js project](#), it's also a type-safe JavaScript replacement.
- It interacts seamlessly with Java and other JVM libraries.
- Thanks to GraalVM and Scala Native, you can now create fast-starting native executables from your Scala code.

- The innovative Scala collections library has dozens of prebuilt functional methods to save you time and greatly reduces the need to write custom `for` loops and algorithms.
- Programming best practices are built into Scala, which favors immutability, anonymous functions, higher-order functions, pattern matching, classes that cannot be extended by default, and much more.
- The Scala ecosystem offers the most modern FP libraries in the world.

One thing that I love about Scala is that if you’re familiar with Java, you can be productive with Scala on day 1—but the language is deep, so as you go along you’ll keep learning and finding newer, better ways to write code. Scala will change the way you think about programming—and that’s a good thing.

Of all of Scala’s benefits, what I like best is that it lets you write concise, readable code. The time a programmer spends reading code compared to the time spent writing code is said to be at least a 10:1 ratio, so writing code that’s concise and readable is a big deal.

Scala Feels Light and Dynamic

More than just being expressive, Scala feels like a light, dynamic scripting language. For instance, Scala's type inference system eliminates the need for the obvious. Rather than always having to specify types, you simply assign your variables to their data:

```
val hello = "Hello, world"    // a String
val i = 1                      // an Int
val x = 1.0                    // a Double
```

Notice that there's no need to declare that a variable is a `String`, `Int`, or `Double`. This is Scala's type inference system at work.

Creating your own custom types works in exactly the same way.

Given a `Person` class:

```
class Person(val name: String)
```

you can create a single person:

```
val p = Person("Martin Odersky")
```

or multiple people in a list, with no unnecessary boilerplate code:

```
val scalaCenterFolks = List(  
    Person("Darja Jovanovic"),  
    Person("Julien Richard-Foy"),  
    Person("Sébastien Doeraene")  
)
```

And even though I haven't introduced `for` expressions yet, I suspect that any developer with a little bit of experience can understand this code:

```
for  
    person <- scalaCenterFolks  
    if person.name.startsWith("D")  
do  
    println(person.name)
```

And even though I haven't introduced enums yet, the same developer likely knows what this code means:

```
enum Topping:  
    case Cheese, Pepperoni, Mushrooms, Olives
```

Notice again that there's no unnecessary boilerplate code here; the code is as "minimalist" as possible, but still easily readable.

Great care has been taken to continue Scala's tradition of being an expressive language.

In all of these examples you can see Scala's lightweight syntax, and how it feels like a dynamic scripting language.

Audience

This book is intended for programmers who want to be able to quickly find solutions to problems they'll encounter when using Scala and its libraries and tools. I hope it will also be a good tool for developers who want to learn Scala. I'm a big believer in learning by example, and this book is chock-full of examples.

I generally assume that you have some experience with another programming language like C, C++, Java, Ruby, C#, PHP, Python, Haskell, and the like. My own experience is with those languages, so I'm sure my writing is influenced by that background.

Another way to describe the audience for this book involves looking at different levels of software developers. In [this article on Scala levels](#), Martin Odersky defines the following levels of computer programmers:

- Level A1: Beginning application programmer

- Level A2: Intermediate application programmer
- Level A3: Expert application programmer
- Level L1: Junior library designer
- Level L2: Senior library designer
- Level L3: Expert library designer

This book is primarily aimed at the application developers in the A1, A2, A3, and L1 categories. While helping those developers is my primary goal, I hope that L2 and L3 developers can also benefit from the many examples in this book—especially if they have no prior experience with functional programming, or they want to quickly get up to speed with Scala and its tools and libraries.

Contents of This Book

This book is all about *solutions*, and [Chapter 1, Command-Line Tasks](#) contains a collection of recipes centered around using Scala at the command line. It begins by showing tips on how to use the Scala REPL, as well as the feature-packed Ammonite REPL. It then shows how to use command-line tools like `scalac` and `scala` to compile and run your code, as well as the `javap` command to disassemble your Scala class files. Finally, it shows how to run Scala-generated JAR files.

[Chapter 2, Strings](#) provides recipes for working with strings. Scala gets its basic `String` functionality from Java, but with the power of implicit conversions, Scala adds new functionality to strings, so you can also treat them as a sequence of characters (`Char` values).

[Chapter 3, Numbers and Dates](#) provides recipes for working with Scala's numeric types, as well as the date classes that were introduced with Java 8. In the numeric recipes, you'll see that there are no `++` and `-` operators for working with numbers; this chapter explains why and demonstrates the other methods you can use. It also shows how to handle large numbers, currency, and how to compare floating-point numbers. The date recipes use the Java 8 date classes and also show how to work with legacy dates.

[Chapter 4, Control Structures](#) demonstrates Scala's built-in control structures, starting with if/then statements and basic `for` loops, and then provides solutions for working with for/yield loops (`for` comprehensions), and `for` expressions with embedded `if` statements (guards). Because `match` expressions and pattern matching are so important to Scala, several recipes show how to use them to solve a variety of problems.

[Chapter 5, Classes](#) provides examples related to Scala classes, parameters, and fields. Because Scala constructors are very different than Java constructors, several recipes show the ins and outs of writing both primary and auxiliary constructors. Several recipes show what `case` classes are and how to use them.

[Chapter 6, Traits and Enums](#) provides examples of the all-important Scala trait, as well as the brand-new `enum`. The trait recipes begin by showing how to use a trait like a Java interface, and then they dive into more advanced topics, such as how to use traits as mixins, and how to limit which members a trait can be mixed into using a variety of methods. The final two recipes demonstrate how to use enums in domain modeling, including the creation of algebraic data types (ADTs).

[Chapter 7, Objects](#) contains recipes related to objects, including the meaning of an *object* as an instance of a class, as well as everything related to the `object` keyword.

[Chapter 8, Methods](#) shows how to define methods to accept parameters, return values, use parameter names when calling methods, set default values for method parameters, create varargs fields, and write methods to support a fluent style of

programming. The last recipe in the chapter demonstrates the all-new Scala 3 extension methods.

[Chapter 9, Packaging and Imports](#) contains examples of Scala's `package` and `import` statements, which provide more capabilities than the same Java keywords. This includes how to use the curly brace style for packaging, how to hide and rename members when you import them, and more.

Although much of the book demonstrates FP techniques, [Chapter 10, Functional Programming](#) combines many FP recipes in one location. Solutions show how to define anonymous functions (function literals) and use them in a variety of situations. Recipes demonstrate how to define a method that accepts a function argument, partially applied functions, and how to return a function from a function.

The Scala collections library is rich and deep, so Chapters [11](#) through [15](#) provide hundreds of collection-related examples.

Recipes in [Chapter 11, Collections: Introduction](#) help you choose collections classes for specific needs and then help you choose and use methods within a collection to solve specific problems, such as transforming one collection into a new collection, filtering a collection, and creating subgroups of a collection.

[Chapter 12, Collections: Common Sequence Classes](#) demonstrates the most common collections classes, including `Vector`, `List`, `ArrayBuffer`, `Array`, and `LazyList`. Recipes demonstrate how to create each type, as well as adding, updating, and removing elements.

[Chapter 13, Collections: Common Sequence Methods](#) then demonstrates how to use the most common methods that are available for the Scala sequence classes. Recipes show how to iterate over sequences, transform them, filter them, sort them, and more.

In the same way that the previous chapter demonstrates common sequence methods, [Chapter 14, Collections: Using Maps](#) demonstrates many of the same techniques for use with Scala `Map` classes.

Lastly, [Chapter 15, Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#) provides coverage of the other Scala collections classes, including tuples, ranges, sets, stacks, and queues.

[Chapter 16, Files and Processes](#) then shows how to work with files and processes. Recipes demonstrate how to read and write files, obtain directory listings, and work with serialization.

Several recipes then demonstrate how to work with external processes in a platform-independent manner.

[Chapter 17, Building Projects with sbt](#) is a comprehensive guide to the de facto build tool for Scala applications. It starts by showing several ways to create an sbt project directory structure, and then it shows how to include managed and unmanaged dependencies, build your projects, generate Scaladoc for your projects, deploy your projects, and more.

[Chapter 18, Concurrency with Scala Futures and Akka Actors](#) provides solutions for the wonderful world of building concurrent applications (and engaging those multicore CPUs!) with futures and the Akka actors library. Recipes with futures show how to build one-shot, short-lived pockets of concurrency, while the actors' recipes demonstrate how to create long-living parallel processes that may respond to billions of requests in their lifetime.

[Chapter 19, Play Framework and Web Services](#) shows how to use Scala on both the client and server sides of web services. On the server side it shows how to use the *Play Framework* to develop RESTful web services. For both client and server code it shows how to serialize and deserialize JSON, and how to work with HTTP headers.

[Chapter 20, Apache Spark](#) demonstrates the Apache Spark framework. Spark is one of the applications that made Scala famous, and recipes demonstrate how to work with large datasets as a *Resilient Distributed Dataset* (RDD), and also how to query them using industry-standard SQL queries.

[Chapter 21, Scala.js, GraalVM, and jpackage](#) provides several recipes for libraries and tools in the Scala and JVM worlds. The first several recipes demonstrate how to use Scala.js as a type-safe JavaScript replacement. The final recipes show how to convert your Scala code into a native executable using GraalVM, and then how to package your Scala application as a native application using Java’s `jpackage` utility.

[Chapter 22, Integrating Scala with Java](#) shows how to solve the few problems you might encounter when integrating Scala and Java code. While Scala code often just works when interacting with Java, there are a few “gotchas.” This chapter shows how to resolve problems related to the differences in the collections libraries, as well as problems you can run into when calling Scala code from Java.

[Chapter 23, Types](#) provides recipes for working with Scala’s powerful type system. Starting right from the introduction, concepts such as type variance, bounds, and constraints are

demonstrated by example. Recipes show how to declare generics in class and method definitions, implement *duck typing*, and control which types your traits can be mixed into. Then several all-new Scala 3 concepts are demonstrated with opaque types, `given`` and ``using` values as a replacement for implicits, union and intersection types, and two recipes related to the concept of *equality* when comparing objects.

[Chapter 24, Best Practices](#) is unique for a cookbook, but because this is a book of solutions, I think it's important to have a section dedicated to showing the best practices, i.e., how to write code “the Scala way.” Recipes show how to create methods with no side effects, how to work with immutable objects and collection types, how to think in terms of expressions (rather than statements), how to use pattern matching, and how to eliminate null values in your code.

Installing Scala

You can install Scala 3 in several different ways, including Homebrew (on macOS), Coursier, SDKMAN, and downloading and installing Scala manually. Coursier is considered to be the “Scala installer,” and its use is covered in this [“Getting Started with Scala 3” page](#).

If you don't want to install Scala just yet, you can also experiment with it in your browser using these online tools:

- [Scastie](#)
- [ScalaFiddle](#)

Conventions in This Book

There are a few important points to know about the conventions I use in this book. First, as mentioned, I use the optional braces (significant indentation) programming style, which eliminates most need for parentheses and curly braces:

```
for i <- 1 to 5 do println(i)      // use this style
for (i <- 1 to 5) { println(i) }    // don't use this style
```

Along with this style, I indent my code with four spaces. Currently there's no indentation standard, and developers seem to prefer two to four spaces.

Next, when I show examples, I often show the result of my examples in comments after the examples. Therefore, my examples look like this:

```
(1 to 10 by 2).toList      // List(1, 3, 5, 7, 9)
```

```
(1 until 10 by 2).toList    // List(1, 3, 5, 7, 9)
('D' to 'H').toList          // List(d, e, f, g, h)
('D' until 'H').toList       // List(d, e, f, g)
```

Using this style helps me include *many* more examples in this book than I could fit in the first edition.

Other coding standards used in this book are:

- I always define variables as `val` fields (which are like `final` in Java), unless there's a reason they need to be a `var`.
- When a method takes no parameters and has a side effect (such as printing to the console), I define and call the method with empty parentheses, as `()`.
- While in many situations it's not necessary to define data types, I always declare the return type of public methods.

As an example of that last standard, you can define a method without declaring its return type, like this:

```
def double(i: Int) = i * 2
```

However, most developers prefer to show the method return type:

```
def double(i: Int): Int = i * 2
```

For just a few more characters of typing *now*, it makes your code easier to read *later*.

Support

Many of the source code examples shown in this book are available in this GitHub repository, which includes many complete sbt projects:

- [*github.com/alvinj/ScalaCookbook2Examples*](https://github.com/alvinj/ScalaCookbook2Examples)

The [Scala Gitter channel](#) is an excellent source of help, and you'll occasionally see my questions out there.

If you're interested in proposals and debates about Scala features, the [“Scala Contributors” website](#) is also a terrific resource.

Finally, you can find my latest blog posts at [*alvinalexander.com*](http://alvinalexander.com), and I often tweet about Scala topics at [*twitter.com/alvinalexander*](http://twitter.com/alvinalexander).

Conventions Used in This Book

The following typographical conventions are used in this book:

Italic

Indicates new terms, URLs, email addresses, filenames, and file extensions.

Constant width

Used for program listings, as well as within paragraphs to refer to program elements such as variable or function names, databases, data types, environment variables, statements, and keywords.

Constant width italic

Shows text that should be replaced with user-supplied values or by values determined by context.

TIP

This element signifies a tip or suggestion.

NOTE

This element signifies a general note.

WARNING

This element indicates a warning or caution.

Using Code Examples

Supplemental material (code examples, exercises, etc.) is available for download at

<https://github.com/alvinj/ScalaCookbook2Examples>.

If you have a technical question or a problem using the code examples, please send an email to bookquestions@oreilly.com.

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Acknowledgments

Writing a book this large takes a lot of work, and I'd like to thank my editor, Jeff Bleiel, for his work throughout the creation of this book. We began working together on the book in December 2018, and while Scala 3 kept changing through the community process, we continued working together on it until the book's completion in 2021.

As I completed initial drafts of chapters, Jeff offered hundreds of suggestions on how to improve them. This process continued on through the COVID-19 pandemic, and as the book became more clear, Jeff (correctly) suggested the reorganization of several chapters. He's incredibly thorough, and I can tell you that when you see a book that's been edited by Jeff Bleiel, you can be assured that it's well edited and thought out.

For this edition of the book, all the reviewers were helpful in different ways. [Jason Swartz](#) was a “most valuable reviewer” candidate on the first edition of *Scala Cookbook*, and he did another stellar job on this edition with many solid suggestions.

[Philip Schwarz](#) joined us on this edition and offered a number of good insights, especially on the early chapters of the book.

But for this edition, I owe a huge and special thanks to [Hermann Hueck](#), who was the most valuable reviewer for this edition. Hermann offered hundreds of suggestions, both large and small, covering everything from the smallest line of code to the overall organization of the book.

I can't say enough about both Jeff and Hermann, but maybe the best way to say it is that this book wouldn't have been the same without them—thank you both!

I'd also like to thank Christopher Faucher, the production editor for this book. After Jeff and I agreed that we were finished with the initial writing and editing process, Chris came in and helped get the book to the finish line, as we worked through hundreds of comments and issues. If you know what it's like to bring a large software application to life, getting a big book like this past the finish line is exactly the same. Thank you, Chris!

Finally, I'd like to thank [Martin Odersky](#) and his team for creating such an interesting programming language. I first fell in love with Scala when I found his book *Programming in Scala* at a bookstore in Anchorage, Alaska, in 2010, and since then it's been a lovefest that continues through Scala 3 in 2021 and beyond.

All the best,

Al

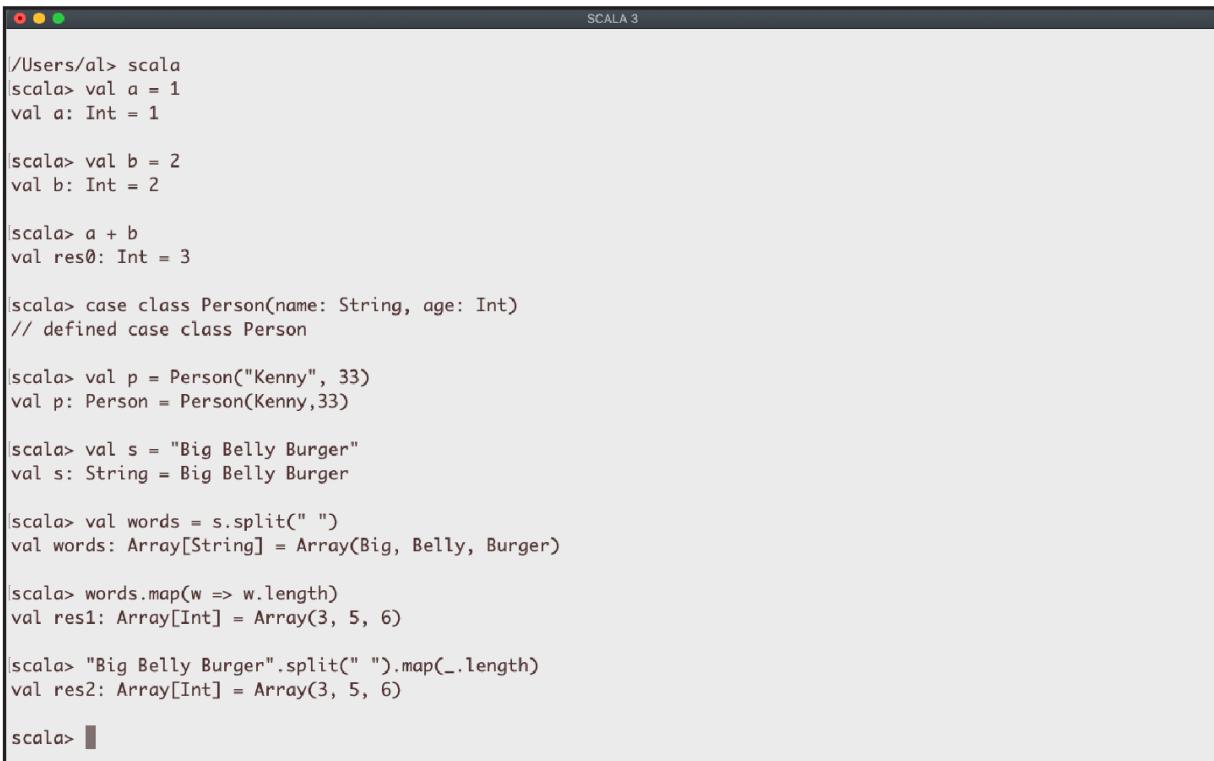
Chapter 1. Command-Line Tasks

Most likely, one of the first steps on your Scala 3 journey will involve working at the command line. For instance, after you install Scala as shown in “[Installing Scala](#)”, you might want to start the *REPL*—Scala’s Read/Eval/Print/Loop—by typing `scala` at your operating system command line. Or you may want to create a little one-file “Hello, world” project and then compile and run it. Because these command-line tasks are where many people will start working with Scala, they’re covered here first.

The REPL is a command-line *shell*. It’s a playground area where you can run small tests to see how Scala and its third-party libraries work. If you’re familiar with Java’s JShell, Ruby’s `irb`, the Python shell or IPython, or Haskell’s `ghci`, Scala’s REPL is similar to all of these. As shown in [Figure 1-1](#), just start the REPL by typing `scala` at your operating system command line, then type in your Scala expressions, and they’ll be evaluated in the shell.

Any time you want to test some Scala code, the REPL is a terrific playground environment. There’s no need to create a full-blown project—just put your test code in the REPL and experiment with it until you know it works. Because the REPL is such an

important tool, its most important features are demonstrated in the first two recipes of this chapter.

A screenshot of a macOS Terminal window titled "SCALA 3". The window contains a session of the Scala 3 REPL. The user has typed several Scala expressions and definitions. The session starts with defining a variable 'a' and then 'b'. It then defines a case class 'Person' with fields 'name' and 'age'. A value 'p' is created using this case class. Next, a string 's' is defined as "Big Belly Burger". The user then splits this string into an array of words ("Big", "Belly", "Burger") and maps each word to its length, resulting in an array [3, 5, 6]. Finally, the user splits the original string 's' into an array of words and maps each word to its length, resulting in an array [3, 5, 6].

```
|/Users/al> scala
|scala> val a = 1
|val a: Int = 1

|scala> val b = 2
|val b: Int = 2

|scala> a + b
|val res0: Int = 3

|scala> case class Person(name: String, age: Int)
// defined case class Person

|scala> val p = Person("Kenny", 33)
|val p: Person = Person(Kenny,33)

|scala> val s = "Big Belly Burger"
|val s: String = Big Belly Burger

|scala> val words = s.split(" ")
|val words: Array[String] = Array(Big, Belly, Burger)

|scala> words.map(w => w.length)
|val res1: Array[Int] = Array(3, 5, 6)

|scala> "Big Belly Burger".split(" ").map(_.length)
|val res2: Array[Int] = Array(3, 5, 6)

scala> ■
```

Figure 1-1. The Scala 3 REPL running in a macOS Terminal window

While the REPL is terrific, it's not the only game in town. The *Ammonite REPL* was originally created for Scala 2, and it had many more features than the Scala 2 REPL, including:

- The ability to import code from GitHub and Maven repositories
- The ability to save and restore sessions
- Pretty-printed output
- Multiline editing

At the time of this writing Ammonite is still being ported to Scala 3, but many important features already work. See [Recipe 1.3](#) for examples of how to use those features.

Finally, when you need to build Scala projects, you'll typically use a build tool like sbt, which is demonstrated in [Chapter 17](#). But if you ever want to compile and run a small Scala application, such as one that has just one or two files, you can compile your code with the `scalac` command and run it with `scala`, just like you do in Java with the `javac` and `java` commands. This process is demonstrated in [Recipe 1.4](#), and after that, [Recipe 1.6](#) shows how you can run applications that you package as a JAR file with the `java` or `scala` commands.

1.1 Getting Started with the Scala REPL

Problem

You want to get started using the Scala REPL, and start taking advantage of some of its basic features.

Solution

If you've used REPL environments in languages like Java, Python, Ruby, and Haskell, you'll find the Scala REPL to be very familiar. To start the REPL, type `scala` at your operating system command line. When the REPL starts up you may see an initial message, followed by a `scala>` prompt:

```
$ scala
Welcome to Scala 3.0
Type in expressions for evaluation. Or try :help

scala> _
```

The prompt indicates that you're now using the Scala REPL. Inside the REPL environment you can try all sorts of different experiments and expressions:

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

scala> val y = 2
y: Int = 2

scala> x + y
res0: Int = 3

scala> val x = List(1, 2, 3)
```

```
x: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3)
```

```
scala> x.sum
```

```
res1: Int = 6
```

As shown in these examples:

- After you enter your command, the REPL output shows the result of your expression, including data type information.
- If you don't assign a variable name, as in the third example, the REPL creates its own variable, beginning with `res0`, then `res1`, etc. You can use these variable names just as though you had created them yourself:

```
scala> res1.getClass
```

```
res2: Class[Int] = int
```

```
scala> res1 + 2
```

```
res3: Int = 8
```

Both beginning and experienced developers write code in the REPL every day to quickly see how Scala features and their own algorithms work.

Tab completion

There are a few simple tricks that can make using the REPL more effective. One trick is to use *tab completion* to see the methods that are available on an object. To see how tab completion works, type the number `1`, then a decimal, and then press the Tab key. The REPL responds by showing the dozens of methods that are available on an `Int` instance:

```
scala> 1.  
!=  
##  
%  
&  
*  
finalize  
floatValue  
floor  
formatted  
getClass  
many more here ...
```

You can also limit the list of methods that are displayed by typing the first part of a method name and then pressing the Tab key. For instance, if you want to see all the methods available on a `List`, type `List(1)`. followed by the Tab key, and you'll see over two hundred methods. But if you're only interested in methods on a `List` that begin with the characters `to`, type `List(1).to` and then press Tab, and that output will be reduced to these methods:

```
scala> List(1).to
```

```
scala> l
to          toIndexedSeq    toList      t
toArray     toIterable      toMap       t
toBuffer    toIterator     toSeq       t
```

Discussion

I use the REPL to create many small experiments, and it also helps me understand some type conversions that Scala performs automatically. For instance, when I first started working with Scala and typed the following code into the REPL, I didn't know what type the variable `x` was:

```
scala> val x = (3, "Three", 3.0)
val x: (Int, String, Double) = (3,Three,3.0)
```

With the REPL, it's easy to run tests like this and then call `getClass` on a variable to see its type:

```
scala> x.getClass
val res0: Class[? <: (Int, String, Double)] = cl
```

Although some of that result line is hard to read when you first start working with Scala, the text on the right side of the `=` lets

you know that the type is a `Tuple3` class.

You can also use the REPL's `:type` command to see similar information, though it currently doesn't show the `Tuple3` name:

```
scala> :type x
(Int, String, Double)
```

However, it's generally helpful in many other instances:

```
scala> :type 1 + 1.1
Double

scala> :type List(1,2,3).map(_ * 2.5)
List[Double]
```

Though these are simple examples, you'll find that the REPL is extremely helpful when you're working with more complicated code and libraries you're not familiar with.

STARTING THE REPL INSIDE SBT

You can also start a Scala REPL session from inside the sbt shell. As shown in [Recipe 17.5, “Understanding Other sbt Commands”](#), just start the sbt shell inside an sbt project:

```
$ sbt  
MyProject> _
```

Then use either the `console` or the `consoleQuick` command from there:

```
MyProject> console  
scala> _
```

The `console` command compiles the source code files in the project, puts them on the classpath, and starts the REPL. The `consoleQuick` command starts the REPL with the project dependencies on the classpath, but without compiling project source code files. This second option is useful for times when your code isn’t compiling, or when you want to try some test code with your dependencies (libraries).

See Also

If you like the idea of a REPL environment but want to try alternatives to the default REPL, there are several great free alternatives:

- The Ammonite REPL has more features than the REPL, and it’s demonstrated in [Recipe 1.3](#).

- [Scastie](#) is a web-based alternative to the REPL that supports sbt options and lets you add external libraries into your environment.
- [ScalaFiddle](#) is also a web-based alternative.
- The IntelliJ IDEA and Visual Studio Code (VS Code) IDEs both have *worksheets*, which are similar to the REPL.

1.2 Loading Source Code and JAR Files into the REPL

Problem

You have Scala code in a source code file and want to use that code in the REPL.

Solution

Use the `:load` command to read source code files into the REPL environment. For example, given this code in a file named *Person.scala*, in a subdirectory named *models*:

```
class Person(val name: String):  
    override def toString = name
```

you can load that source code into the running REPL environment like this:

```
scala> :load models/Person.scala
// defined class Person
```

After the code is loaded into the REPL, you can create a new `Person` instance:

```
scala> val p = Person("Kenny")
val p: Person = Kenny
```

Note, however, that if your source code has a package declaration:

```
// Dog.scala file
package animals
class Dog(val name: String)
```

the `:load` command will fail:

```
scala> :load Dog.scala
1 |package foo
| ^^^
|Illegal start of statement
```

Source code files can't use packages in the REPL, so for situations like this you'll need to compile them into a JAR file, and then include them in the classpath when you start the REPL. For instance, this is how I use version 0.2.0 of my [Simple Test library](#) with the Scala 3 REPL:

```
// start the repl like this
$ scala -cp simpletest_3.0.0-0.2.0.jar

scala> import com.alvinalexander.simpletest.Simp:
        ^

scala> isTrue(1 == 1)
true
```

At the time of this writing you can't add a JAR to an already running REPL session, but that feature may be added in the future.

Discussion

Another good thing to know is that compiled class files in the current directory are automatically loaded into the REPL. For example, if you put this code in a file named *Cat.scala* and then compile it with `scalac`, that creates a *Cat.class* file:

```
case class Cat(name: String)
```

If you start the REPL in the same directory as that class file, you can create a new `Cat`:

```
scala> Cat("Morris")
val res0: Cat = Cat(Morris)
```

On Unix systems you can use this technique to customize your REPL environment. To do so, follow these steps:

1. Create a subdirectory in your home directory named *repl*.
In my case, I create this directory as */Users/al/repl*. (Use any name for this directory that you prefer.)
2. Put any **.class* files you want in that directory.
3. Create an alias or shell script you can use to start the REPL in that directory.

On my system I put a file named *Repl.scala* in my *~/repl* directory, with these contents:

```
import sys.process.*
```

```
def clear = "clear"!.
def cmd(cmd: String) = cmd.!!
def ls(dir: String) = println(cmd(s"ls -al $dir"))
def help =
  println("\n==== MY CONFIG ====")
  "cat /Users/Al/repl/Repl.scala"!

case class Person(name: String)
val nums = List(1, 2, 3)
```

I then compile that code with `scalac` to create its class files in that directory. Then I create and use this alias to start the REPL:

```
alias repl="cd ~/repl; scala; cd -"
```

That alias moves me to the `~/repl` directory, starts the REPL, and then returns me to my current directory when I exit the REPL.

As another approach, you can create a shell script named `repl`, make it executable, and place it in your `~/bin` directory (or anywhere else on your `PATH`):

```
#!/bin/sh

cd ~/repl
scala
```

Because a shell script is run in a subprocess, you'll be returned to your original directory when you exit the REPL.

By using this approach, your custom methods will be loaded into the REPL when it starts up, so you can use them inside the `scala` shell:

```
clear          // clear the screen
cmd("ps")      // run the 'ps' command

ls(".")        // run 'ls' in the current directory
help          // displays my Repl.scala file as a :
```

Use this technique to preload any other custom definitions you'd like to use in the REPL.

1.3 Getting Started with the Ammonite REPL

Problem

You want to get started using the Ammonite REPL, including understanding some of its basic features.

Solution

The [Ammonite REPL](#) works just like the Scala REPL: just download and install it, then start it with its `amm` command. As with the default Scala REPL, it evaluates Scala expressions and assigns a variable name if you don't provide one:

```
@ val x = 1 + 1
x: Int = 2

@ 2 + 2
res0: Int = 4
```

But Ammonite has many additional features. You can change the shell prompt with this command:

```
@ repl.prompt() = "yo: "
yo: _
```

Next, if you have these Scala expressions in a file named *Repl.scala*, in a subdirectory named *foo*:

```
import sys.process.*  
  
def clear = "clear".!  
def cmd(cmd: String) = cmd.!!  
def ls(dir: String) = println(cmd(s"ls -al $dir"))
```

you can import them into your Ammonite REPL with this command:

```
@ import $file.foo.Repl, Repl.*
```

Then you can use those methods inside Ammonite:

```
clear          // clear the screen  
cmd("ps")      // run the 'ps' command  
ls("/tmp")     // use 'ls' to list files in /tmp
```

Similarly, you can import a JAR file named *simpletest_3.0.0-0.2.0.jar* in a subdirectory named *foo* into your `amm` REPL session using the Ammonite `$cp` variable:

```
// import the jar file  
import $cp.foo.`simpletest_3.0.0-0.2.0.jar`
```

```
// use the library you imported
import com.alvinalexander.simpletest.SimpleTest
   .isTrue(1 == 1)
```

The `import ivy` command lets you import dependencies from Maven Central (and other repositories) and use them in your current shell:

```
yo: import $ivy.`org.jsoup:jsoup:1.13.1`
import $ivy.$

yo: import org.jsoup.Jsoup, org.jsoup.nodes.{Document}
import org.jsoup.Jsoup

yo: val html = "<p>Hi!</p>"
html: String = "<p>Hi!</p>"

yo: val doc: Document = Jsoup.parse(html)
doc: Document = <html> ...

yo: doc.body.text
res2: String = "Hi!"
```

Ammonite's built-in `time` command lets you time how long it takes to run your code:

```
@ time(Thread.sleep(1_000))  
res2: (Unit, FiniteDuration) = ((), 1003788992 nanos)
```

Ammonite's auto-complete ability is impressive. Just type an expression like this, then press Tab after the decimal:

```
@ Seq("a") .map(x => x.
```

When you do so, Ammonite displays a long list of methods that are available on `x`—which is a `String`—beginning with these methods:

```
def intern(): String  
def charAt(x$0: Int): Char  
def concat(x$0: String): String  
much more output here ...
```

This is nice because it shows you not only the method names but also their input parameters and return type.

Discussion

Ammonite's list of features is long. Another great one is that you can use a startup configuration file, just like using a Unix *.bashrc* or *.bash_profile* startup file. Just put some expressions in a *~/.ammonite/predef.sc* file:

```
import sys.process.*  
  
repl.prompt() = "yo: "  
def clear = "clear".!  
def cmd(cmd: String) = cmd.!!  
def ls(dir: String) = println(cmd(s"ls -al $dir"))  
def reset = repl.sess.load() // similar to the s
```

Then, when you start the Ammonite REPL, your prompt will be changed to `yo:`, and those other methods will be available to you.

One more great feature is that you can save a REPL session, and it will save everything you've done to this point. To test this, create a variable in the REPL, and then save your session:

```
val remember = 42  
repl.sess.save()
```

Then create another variable:

```
val forget = 0
```

Now reload the session, and you'll see that the `remember` variable is still available, but the `forget` variable has been forgotten, as desired:

```
@ repl.sess.load()
res3: SessionChanged = SessionChanged(removedImports = Set(), addedImports = Set(), removedJars = Set(), addedJars = Set())
@ remember
res4: Int = 42

@ forget
| val res5 = forget
| ^
|       Not found: forget
```

You can also save and load multiple sessions by giving them different names, like this:

```
// do some work
val x = 1
repl.sess.save("step 1")
```

```
// do some more work
val y = 2
repl.sess.save("step 2")

// reload the first session
repl.sess.load("step 1")

x // this will be found
y // this will not be found
```

See [the Ammonite documentation](#) for details on more features.

1.4 Compiling with scalac and Running with scala

Problem

Though you'll typically use a build tool like sbt or Mill to build Scala applications, occasionally you may want to use more basic tools to compile and run small test programs, in the same way you might use `javac` and `java` with small Java applications.

Solution

Compile small programs with `scalac`, and run them with `scala`. For example, given this Scala source code file named `Hello.scala`:

```
@main def hello = println("Hello, world")
```

compile it at the command line with `scalac`:

```
$ scalac Hello.scala
```

Then run it with `scala`, giving the `scala` command the name of the `@main` method you created:

```
$ scala hello
Hello, world
```

Discussion

Compiling and running classes is the same as Java, including concepts like the classpath. For instance, imagine that you have a class named `Pizza` in a file named `Pizza.scala`, and that it depends on a `Topping` type:

```
class Pizza(val toppings: Topping*):  
    override def toString = toppings.toString
```

Assuming that `Topping` is defined like this:

```
enum Topping:  
    case Cheese, Mushrooms
```

and that it's in a file named *Topping.scala*, and has been compiled to *Topping.class* in a subdirectory named *classes*, compile *Pizza.scala* like this:

```
$ scalac -classpath classes Pizza.scala
```

Note that the `scalac` command has many additional options you can use. For instance, if you add the `-verbose` option to the previous command, you'll see hundreds of lines of additional output that show how `scalac` is working. These options may change over time, so use the `-help` option to see additional information:

```
$ scalac -help
```

Usage: scalac <options> <source files>
where possible standard options include:

```
-P           Pass an option to a plugin, e.g.  
-X           Print a synopsis of advanced options  
-Y           Print a synopsis of private options  
-bootclasspath Override location of bootstrap classpath  
-classpath    Specify where to find user classes
```

much more output here ...

Main methods

While we're talking about compiling `main` methods, it helps to know that they can be declared in two ways with Scala 3:

- Using the `@main` annotation on a method
- Declaring a `main` method with the proper signature in an object

As shown in the Solution, a simple `@main` method that takes no input parameters can be declared like this:

```
@main def hello = println("Hello, world")
```

You can also declare an `@main` method to take whatever parameters you want on the command line, such as taking a `String` and `Int` in this example:

```
@main def hello(name: String, age: Int): Unit =  
    println(s"Hello, $name, I think you are $age")
```

After that code is compiled with `scalac`, it can be run like this:

```
$ scala hello "Lori" 44  
Hello, Lori, I think you are 44 years old.
```

For the second approach, declaring a `main` method inside an `object` is just like declaring a `main` method in Java, and the signature for the Scala `main` method must look like this:

```
object YourObjectName:  
    // the method must take `Array[String]` and ...  
    def main(args: Array[String]): Unit =  
        // your code here
```

If you're familiar with Java, that Scala code is analogous to this Java code:

```
public class YourObjectName {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        // your code here
```

```
    }  
}
```

1.5 Disassembling and Decompiling Scala Code

Problem

In the process of learning how Scala code is compiled into class files, or trying to understand a particular problem, you want to examine the bytecode the Scala compiler generates from your source code.

Solution

The main way to disassemble Scala code is with the `javap` command. You may also be able to use a decompiler to convert your class files back to Java source code, and this option is shown in the Discussion.

Using `javap`

Because your Scala source code files are compiled into regular JVM class files, you can use the `javap` command to

disassemble them. For example, assume that you've created a file named `Person.scala` that contains this source code:

```
class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)
```

Next, compile that file with `scalac`:

```
$ scalac Person.scala
```

Now you can disassemble the resulting `Person.class` file into its signature using `javap`, like this:

```
$ javap -public Person
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public class Person {
    public Person(java.lang.String, int);
    public java.lang.String name();
    public void name_$eq(java.lang.String);
    public int age();
    public void age_$eq(int);
}
```

This shows the public signature of the `Person` class, which is its public API, or interface. Even in a simple example like this you can see the Scala compiler doing its work for you, creating

methods like `name()`, `name_eq`, `age()`, and `age_eq`. The Discussion shows more detailed examples.

If you want, you can see additional information with the `javap -private` option:

```
$ javap -private Person
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public class Person {
    private java.lang.String name;      // new
    private int age;                  // new
    public Person(java.lang.String, int);
    public java.lang.String name();
    public void name_eq(java.lang.String);
    public int age();
    public void age_eq(int);
}
```

The `javap` has several more options that are useful. Use the `-c` option to see the actual commands that comprise the Java bytecode, and add the `-verbose` option to that to see many more details. Run `javap -help` for details on all options.

Discussion

Disassembling class files with `javap` can be a helpful way to understand how Scala works. As you saw in the first example with the `Person` class, defining the constructor parameters `name` and `age` as `var` fields generates quite a few methods for you.

As a second example, take the `var` attribute off both of those fields, so you have this class definition:

```
class Person(name: String, age: Int)
```

Compile this class with `scalac`, and then run `javap` on the resulting class file. You'll see that this results in a much shorter class signature:

```
$ javap -public Person
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public class Person {
    public Person(java.lang.String, int);
}
```

Conversely, leaving `var` on both fields and turning the class into a *case class* significantly expands the amount of code Scala generates on your behalf. To see this, change the code in `Person.scala` so you have this case class:

```
case class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)
```

When you compile this code, it creates two output files, *Person.class* and *Person\$.class*. Disassemble those two files using `javap`:

```
$ javap -public Person
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public class Person implements scala.Product,java.lang.Object {
    public static Person apply(java.lang.String, int);
    public static Person fromProduct(scala.Product);
    public static Person unapply(Person);
    public Person(java.lang.String, int);
    public scala.collection.Iterator productIterator();
    public scala.collection.Iterator productElement(int);
    public int hashCode();
    public boolean equals(java.lang.Object);
    public java.lang.String toString();
    public boolean canEqual(java.lang.Object);
    public int productArity();
    public java.lang.String productPrefix();
    public java.lang.Object productElement(int);
    public java.lang.String productElementName(int);
    public java.lang.String name();
    public void name_$eq(java.lang.String);
    public int age();
    public void age_$eq(int);
}
```

```
public Person copy$default$1();
public Person copy(java.lang.String, int);
public java.lang.String copy$default$1();
public int copy$default$2();
public java.lang.String _1();
public int _2();
}

$ javap -public Person$
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public final class Person$ implements scala.Serializable {
    public static final Person$ MODULE$;
    public static {};
    public Person apply(java.lang.String, int);
    public Person unapply(Person);
    public java.lang.String toString();

    public Person fromProduct(scala.Product);
    public java.lang.Object fromProduct(scala.Produ
}
```

As shown, when you define a class as a case class, Scala generates a *lot* of code for you, and this output shows the public signature for that code. See [Recipe 5.14, “Generating Boilerplate Code with Case Classes”](#), for a detailed discussion of this code.

ABOUT THOSE .TASTY FILES

You may have noticed that in addition to `.class` files, Scala 3 also generates `.tasty` files during the compilation process. These files are generated in what's known as a *TASTy* format, where the acronym TASTy comes from the term *typed abstract syntax trees*.

Regarding what these files are, [the TASTy Inspection documentation](#) states, “TASTy files contain the full typed tree of a class including source positions and documentation. This is ideal for tools that analyze or extract semantic information from the code.”

One of their uses is for integration between Scala 3 and Scala 2.13+. As [this Scala forward compatibility page](#) states, “Scala 2.13 can read these (TASTy) files to learn, for example, which terms, types and implicits are defined in a given dependency, and what code needs to be generated to use them correctly. The part of the compiler that manages this is known as the Tasty Reader.”

See Also

- In my [“How to Create Inline Methods in Scala 3” blog post](#), I show how to use this technique to understand `inline` methods.
- You may also be able to use decompilers to convert `.class` files into Java code. I occasionally use a tool named JAD, which was discontinued in 2001, but amazingly it’s still able to at least partially decompile class files twenty years later. A much more modern decompiler named [CFR](#) was also mentioned [on the Scala Gitter channel](#).

For more information on TASTy and *.tasty* files, see these resources:

- [“Macros: the Plan for Scala 3”](#)
- [“Forward Compatibility for the Scala 3 Transition”](#)
- [“Scala 3 Migration Guide: Compatibility Reference”](#)

1.6 Running JAR Files with Scala and Java

Problem

You've created a JAR file from a Scala application and want to run it using the `scala` or `java` commands.

Solution

First, create a basic sbt project, as shown in [Recipe 17.1](#), [“Creating a Project Directory Structure for sbt”](#). Then add [sbt-assembly](#) into the project configuration by adding this line to the *project/plugins.sbt* file:

```
// note: this version number changes several times
addSbtPlugin("com.eed3si9n" % "sbt-assembly" % "(
```

Then put this *Hello.scala* source code file in the root directory of that project:

```
@main def hello = println("Hello, world")
```

Next, create a JAR file with either the `assembly` or `show assembly` command in the sbt shell:

```
// option 1  
sbt:RunJarFile> assembly  
  
// option 2: shows the output file location  
sbt:RunJarFile> show assembly  
[info] target/scala-3.0.0/RunJarFile-assembly-0.1
```

As shown, the output of the `show assembly` command prints the location where the output JAR file is written. This file begins with the name *RunJarFile* because that's the value of the `name` field in my *build.sbt* file. Similarly, the *0.1.0* portion of the filename comes from the `version` field in that file:

```
lazy val root = project  
  .in(file("."))  
  .settings(
```

```
    name := "RunJarFile",
    version := "0.1.0",
    scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
)
```

Next, create an *Example* subdirectory, move into that directory, and copy the JAR file into that directory:

```
$ mkdir Example
$ cd Example
$ cp ../../target/scala-3.0.0/RunJarFile-assembly-0
```

Because the sbt-assembly plugin packages everything you need into the JAR file, you can run the `hello` main method with this `scala` command:

```
$ scala -cp "RunJarFile-assembly-0.1.0.jar" hello
Hello, world
```

Note that if your JAR file contains multiple `@main` methods in packages, you can run them with similar commands, specifying the full path to the methods at the end of the command:

```
scala -cn "RunJarFile-assembly-0.1.0.jar" com.alvin
```

```
scala -cp "RunJarFile-assembly-0.1.0.jar" com.alvin
```

Discussion

If you (a) attempt to run your JAR file with the `java` command, or (b) create the JAR file with `sbt package` instead of `sbt assembly`, you'll need to manually add your JAR file dependencies to your classpath. For example, when running a JAR file with the `java` command, you'll need to use a command like this:

```
$ java -cp "~/bin/scala3/lib/scala-library.jar:my  
foo.bar.Hello  
Hello, world
```

Note that the entire `java` command should be on one line, including the `foo.bar.Hello` portion at the end of the line.

For this approach you need to find the *scala-library.jar* file. In my case, because I manage the Scala 3 distribution manually, I found it in the directory shown. If you're using a tool like [Coursier](#) to manage your Scala installation, the files it downloads can be found under these directories:

- On macOS: `~/Library/Caches/Coursier/v1`
- On Linux: `~/.cache/coursier/v1`
- On Windows: `%LOCALAPPDATA%\Coursier\Cache\v1`,
which, for a user named Alvin, typically corresponds to
`C:\Users\Alvin\AppData\Local\Coursier\Cache\v1`

See the [Coursier Cache page](#) for up-to-date details on these directory locations.

Why use sbt-assembly?

Note that if your application uses managed or unmanaged dependencies and you use `sbt package` instead of `sbt assembly`, you'll have to understand all of those dependencies and their transitive dependencies, find those JAR files, and then include them in the classpath setting. For that reason, the use of `sbt assembly` or a similar tool is strongly recommended.

See Also

- See [Recipe 17.11, “Deploying a Single Executable JAR File”](#), for more details on how to configure and use sbt-assembly.

Chapter 2. Strings

As programmers, we deal with strings all the time—names, addresses, phone numbers, and the like. Scala strings are great because they have all the features of Java strings, and more. In this chapter you'll see some of the shared features in the recipes on string formatting and using regex patterns, while the other recipes demonstrate features that are unique to Scala.

Because of the syntax of the Scala language, one major difference with Java is in how Scala strings are declared. All Scala variables are declared as a `val` or `var`, so a string variable is typically created like this:

```
val s = "Hello, world"
```

That expression is equivalent to this Java code:

```
final String s = "Hello, world"
```

In Scala the general rule of thumb is to always declare a variable as a `val`, unless there's a good reason to use a `var`. (Pure functional programming takes this further, and strictly forbids the use of `var` fields.)

You can also *explicitly* declare a `String` type:

```
val s: String = "Hello, world" // don't do this
```

However, that isn't recommended because it only makes your code unnecessarily verbose. Because Scala's *type inference* is very powerful, the *implicit* syntax shown in the first example is sufficient, and preferred. In fact, as a practical matter, the only time I declare a type explicitly when creating a variable is when I call a method and it's not clear from the method name what its return type is:

```
val s: String = someObject.someMethod(42)
```

Scala String Features

Additional features that give power (superpower!) to Scala strings are:

- The ability to compare strings with `==`
- Multiline strings
- String interpolators, which let you write code like

```
println(s"Name: $name")
```

- Dozens of additional functional methods that let you treat a string as a sequence of characters

The recipes in this chapter demonstrate all of these features.

Strings are a sequence of characters

An important point I just touched on is that Scala strings can be treated as a sequence of characters, i.e., as a `Seq[Char]`.

Because of this, given this example string:

```
val s = "Big Belly Burger"
```

these are just a few of the commonly used “sequence” methods you can call on it:

```
s.count(_ == 'B')           // 3
s.dropRight(3)              // "Big Belly Bur"
s.dropWhile(_ != ' ')       // " Belly Burger"
s.filter(_ != ' ')          // "BigBellyBurger"
s.sortWith(_ < _)           // " BBBeggillrruy"
s.take(3)                   // "Big"
s.takeRight(3)              // "ger"
s.takeWhile(_ != 'R')       // "Big Belly Bu"
```

All of those methods are standard `Seq` methods, and they're covered in depth in [Chapter 11](#).

Chaining Method Calls Together

Except for the `foreach` method—which returns `Unit` and is not “functional” according to some definitions—all the methods on a `Seq` are functional, meaning that they don’t mutate the existing sequence but instead return a new value when they’re applied. Because of this functional nature, you can call several methods in series on a string:

```
scala> "scala".drop(2).take(2).capitalize
res0: String = Al
```

If you haven’t seen this technique before, here’s a brief description of how this example works: `drop` is a collection method that drops (discards) the number of elements that are specified from the beginning of the collection, and it keeps the remaining elements. When it’s called on the string as `drop(2)`, it drops the first two characters (`sc`) from the string (`scala`) and returns the remaining elements:

```
scala> "scala".drop(2)
res0: String = ala
```

Next, the `take(2)` method *retains* the first two elements from the sequence it's given—the string "ala"—and discards the rest:

```
scala> "scala".drop(2).take(2)
res1: String = al
```

Finally, the `capitalize` method is called to get the end result:

```
scala> "scala".drop(2).take(2).capitalize
res2: String = Al
```

If you're not familiar with chaining methods together like this, it's known as a *fluent* style of programming. See [Recipe 8.8, “Supporting a Fluent Style of Programming”](#), for more information. Code like this is very common in functional programming, where every function is pure and returns a value. This style is popular with Rx technologies like RxJava and RxScala and is also heavily used with Spark.

Where do those methods come from?

If you know Java, you may know that the Java `String` class doesn't have a `capitalize` method, so it can be a surprise that

it's available on a Scala string. Indeed, a Scala string has dozens of additional methods on top of a Java string, all of which you can see with the “code assist” feature in an IDE like Eclipse or IntelliJ IDEA.

Once you see all the methods that are available, it can be a surprise when you learn that there is no Scala `String` class. How can a Scala string have all these methods if there is no Scala `String` class?

The way this works is that Scala inherits the Java `String` class and then adds methods to it through features known as implicit conversions and extension methods. *Implicit conversions* were the way to add methods to closed classes in Scala 2, and *extension methods* are how they're added in Scala 3. See [Recipe 8.9, “Adding New Methods to Closed Classes with Extension Methods”](#), for details on how to create extension methods.

While this may change over time, in Scala 3.0 many of the extra methods you'll find on a Scala `String` are defined in the `StringOps` class. Those methods are defined in `StringOps`, and then they're automatically imported into the scope of your code by the `scala.Predef` object, which is implicitly imported into every Scala source code file. In the Scala 2.13 `Predef`

object—which is still used by Scala 3.0—you’ll find this documentation and implicit conversion:

```
/** The `String` type in Scala has all the methods
 *  `java.lang.String`, of which it is just an alias.
 *  Extension methods in `scala.collection.StringOps`
 *  are added implicitly through the conversion and
 */
@inline implicit def augmentString(x: String): StringOps =
```

`augmentString` converts a `String` into a `StringOps` type. The end result is that the methods from the `StringOps` class are added to all Scala `String` instances. This includes methods like `drop`, `take`, and `filter` that let you treat a string as a sequence of characters.

LOOK AT THE PREDEF SOURCE CODE

If you’re first learning Scala, I encourage you to look at the source code for the Scala 2.13 [`scala.Predef` object](#). You can find a link to the source code on that Scaladoc page, and it provides great examples of many Scala programming features. You can also see how it includes other types like `StringOps` and `WrappedString`.

2.1 Testing String Equality

Problem

You want to compare two strings to see if they're equal, i.e., whether they contain the same sequence of characters.

Solution

In Scala, you compare two `String` instances with the `==` operator. Given these strings:

```
val s1 = "Hello"  
val s2 = "Hello"  
val s3 = "H" + "ello"
```

you can test their equality like this:

```
s1 == s2    // true  
s1 == s3    // true
```

A nice benefit of the `==` method is that it doesn't throw a `NullPointerException` on a basic test if a string is null:

```
val s4: String = null    // String = null  
s3 == s4                // false  
s4 == s3                // false
```

If you want to compare two strings in a case-insensitive manner, one approach is to convert both strings to uppercase or lowercase and compare them with the `==` method:

```
val s1 = "Hello"                      // Hello
val s2 = "hello"                       // hello
s1.toUpperCase == s2.toUpperCase      // true
```

You can also use the `equalsIgnoreCase` method that comes along with the Java `String` class:

```
val a = "Kimberly"
val b = "kimberly"

a.equalsIgnoreCase(b)    // true
```

Note that while an equality test on a null string doesn't throw an exception, calling a method on a null string will throw a `NullPointerException`:

```
val s1: String = null
val s2: String = null

scala> s1.toUpperCase == s2.toUpperCase
java.lang.NullPointerException  // more output he
```

Discussion

In Scala you test object equality with the `==` method. This is different than Java, where you use the `equals` method to compare two objects.

The `==` method is defined in the `AnyRef` class—the root class of all *reference types*—and it first checks for `null` values and then calls the `equals` method on the first object (i.e., `this`) to see if the two objects (`this` and `that`) are equal. As a result, you don't have to check for `null` values when comparing strings.

BETTER YET, DON'T USE NULL

In idiomatic Scala, you *never* use `null` values. The discussion in this recipe is intended to help you understand how `==` works if you encounter a `null` value, presumably from working with a Java library, or some other library where `null` values were used.

If you're coming from a language like Java, any time you feel like using a `null`, use an `Option` instead. I find it helpful to imagine that Scala doesn't even have a `null` keyword. See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala's Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”,](#) for more information and examples.

In Scala 3 you can even change the type system so that any type that extends `AnyRef`—i.e., types like `String`, `List`, `Option`, etc.—is *non-nullable*. By using the experimental `-Yexplicit-nulls` compiler option, you actually change the Scala type hierarchy so that this code won't compile:

```
val s: String = null
// won't compile with '-Yexplicit-nulls'
```

See the Scala [explicit nulls page](#) for more details.

See Also

For more information on `==` and defining `equals` methods, see [Recipe 5.9, “Defining an equals Method \(Object Equality\)”,](#)

2.2 Creating Multiline Strings

Problem

You want to create multiline strings within your Scala source code, like you can with the *heredoc* syntax of other languages.

Solution

In Scala, you create multiline strings by surrounding your text with three double quotes:

```
val foo = """This is  
a multiline  
String"""
```

Although this works, the second and third lines in this example will end up with whitespace at the beginning of their lines.

When you print the string, it looks like this:

```
This is  
a multiline  
String
```

You can solve this problem in several different ways. The best solution is to add the `stripMargin` method to the end of your

multiline string and begin all lines after the first line with the pipe symbol (|):

```
val speech = """Four score and  
| seven years ago""".stripMargin
```

If you don't like using the | symbol, just specify the character you want to use when calling stripMargin:

```
val speech = """Four score and  
#seven years ago""".stripMargin('#')
```

You can also left-justify every line after the first line of your string:

```
val foo = """Four score and  
seven years ago"""
```

All of these approaches yield the same result, a multiline string with each line of the string left-justified:

```
Four score and  
seven years ago
```

Those approaches result in a true multiline string, with a hidden `\n` character after the end of each line. If you want to convert this multiline string into one continuous line you can add a `replaceAll` method after the `stripMargin` call, replacing all newline characters with blank spaces:

```
val speech = """Four score and  
| seven years ago  
| our fathers...""".stripMargin.replaceAll("\n" → " ")
```

This yields:

```
Four score and seven years ago our fathers...
```

Discussion

Another great feature of Scala's multiline string syntax is that you can include single- and double-quotes in a string without having to escape them:

```
val s = """This is known as a  
|"multiline" string  
|or 'heredoc' syntax.""".stripMargin.replaceAll("\n" → " ")
```

This results in this string:

```
This is known as a "multiline" string or 'heredoc'
```

2.3 Splitting Strings

Problem

You want to split a string into parts based on a field separator, such as a string you get from a comma-separated value (CSV) or pipe-delimited file.

Solution

Use one of the overridden `split` methods that are available on `String` objects:

```
scala> "hello world".split(" ")
res0: Array[String] = Array(hello, world)
```

The `split` method returns an array of strings, which you can work with as usual:

```
scala> "hello world".split(" ").foreach(println)
```

```
hello  
world
```

Discussion

You can split a string on simple characters like a comma in a CSV file:

```
scala> val s = "eggs, milk, butter, Cocoa Puffs"  
s: java.lang.String = eggs, milk, butter, Cocoa Puffs  
  
// 1st attempt  
scala> s.split(",")  
res0: Array[String] = Array("eggs", " milk", " butter", " Cocoa Puffs")
```

Using this approach, it's best to trim each string. Use the `map` method to call `trim` on each string before returning the array:

```
// 2nd attempt, cleaned up  
scala> s.split(",").map(_.trim)  
res1: Array[String] = Array(eggs, milk, butter, Cocoa Puffs)
```

You can also split a string based on a regular expression. This example shows how to split a string on whitespace characters:

```
scala> "Relax, nothing is under control".split(",")  
res0: Array[String] = Array(Relax,, nothing, is,
```

NOT ALL CSV FILES ARE CREATED EQUALLY

Note that some files that state they are CSV files may actually contain commas within their fields, typically enclosed in single or double quotation marks. Other files may also include newline characters in their fields. An algorithm to process files like that will be more complicated than the approach shown. See the [Wikipedia entry on CSV files](#) for more information.

About that split method...

The `split` method is interesting in that it's overloaded, with some versions of it coming from the Java `String` class and some coming from Scala's `StringOps` class. For instance, if you call `split` with a `Char` argument instead of a `String` argument, you're using the `split` method from `StringOps`:

```
// split with a String argument (from Java)  
"hello world".split(" ")      //Array(hello, world)  
  
// split with a Char argument (from Scala)  
"hello world".split(' ')      //Array(hello, world)
```

2.4 Substituting Variables into Strings

Problem

You want to perform variable substitution into a string, like you can do with other languages, such as Perl, PHP, and Ruby.

Solution

To use basic string interpolation in Scala, precede your string with the letter `s` and include your variables inside the string, with each variable name preceded by a `$` character. This is shown in the `println` statement in the following example:

```
val name = "Fred"
val age = 33
val weight = 200.00

scala> println(s"$name is $age years old and weighs $weight")
Fred is 33 years old and weighs 200.0 pounds.
```

According to [the official Scala string interpolation documentation](#), when you precede your string with the letter `s`, you're creating a *processed* string literal. This example uses

the “`s` string interpolator,” which lets you embed variables inside a string, where the variables are replaced by their values.

Using expressions in string literals

In addition to putting simple variables inside strings, you can include *expressions* inside a string by placing the expression inside curly braces. In the following example, the value `1` is added to the variable `age` inside the processed string:

```
scala> println(s"Age next year: ${age + 1}")
Age next year: 34
```

This example shows that you can use an equality expression inside the curly braces:

```
scala> println(s"You are 33 years old: ${age == 33}")
You are 33 years old: true
```

You also need to use curly braces when printing object fields:

```
case class Student(name: String, score: Int)
val hannah = Student("Hannah", 95)
```

```
scala> println(s"${hannah.name} has a score of $
Hannah has a score of 95
```

Notice that attempting to print the values of object fields without wrapping them in curly braces results in the wrong information being printed:

```
// error: this is intentionally wrong
scala> println(s"$hannah.name has a score of $h
Student(Hannah,95).name has a score of Student(Ha
```

Discussion

The `s` that's placed before each string literal is actually a method. Though this seems slightly less convenient than just putting variables inside of strings, there are at least two benefits to this approach:

- Scala provides other interpolation functions to give you more power.
- Anyone can define their own string interpolation functions. For example, Scala SQL libraries take advantage of this capability to let you write queries like `sql"SELECT * FROM USERS"`.

Let's look at Scala's two other built-in string interpolation methods.

The f string interpolator (printf style formatting)

In the example in the Solution, the `weight` was printed as `200.0`. This is OK, but what can you do if you want to add more decimal places to the weight, or remove them entirely?

This simple desire leads to the “`f` string interpolator,” which lets you use `printf` style formatting specifiers inside strings. The following examples show how to print the `weight`, first with two decimal places:

```
scala> println(f"$name is $age years old and weighs $weight")
Fred is 33 years old and weighs 200.00 pounds.
```

and then with no decimal places:

```
scala> println(f"$name is $age years old and weighs $weight")
Fred is 33 years old and weighs 200 pounds.
```

As demonstrated, to use this approach, just follow these steps:

1. Precede your string with the letter `f`

2. Use `printf` style formatting specifiers immediately after your variables

PRINTF FORMATTING SPECIFIERS

The most common `printf` format style specifiers are shown in [Recipe 2.5](#).

Though these examples use the `println` method, it's important to note that you can assign the result of a variable substitution to a new variable, similar to calling `sprintf` in other languages:

```
scala> val s = f"$name, you weigh $weight%.0f pou
      s: String = Fred, you weigh 200 pounds.
```

Now `s` is a normal string that you can use as desired.

The raw interpolator

In addition to the `s` and `f` string interpolators, Scala includes another interpolator named `raw`. The `raw` interpolator doesn't escape any literals within the string. The following example shows how `raw` compares to the `s` interpolator:

```
scala> s"foo\nbar"  
val res0: String = foo  
bar  
  
scala> raw"foo\nbar"  
res1: String = foo\nbar
```

As shown, `s` treats `\n` as a newline character while `raw` doesn't give it any special consideration and just passes it along.

CREATE YOUR OWN INTERPOLATOR

In addition to the `s`, `f`, and `raw` interpolators, you can define your own interpolators. See [Recipe 2.11](#) for examples of how to create your own interpolator.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.5](#) lists many common string formatting characters.
- The [Oracle Formatter class documentation](#) has a complete list of formatting characters that can be used.
- The [official Scala string interpolation page](#) shows a few more details about interpolators.
- [Recipe 2.11](#) demonstrates how to create your own string interpolator.

2.5 Formatting String Output

Problem

You want to format string output, including strings that contain integers, floats, doubles, and characters.

Solution

Use `printf`-style formatting strings with the `f` interpolator. Many configuration options are shown in the following examples.

DATE/TIME FORMATTING

If you're interested in date and time formatting, those topics are covered in [Recipe 3.11, “Formatting Dates”](#).

Formatting strings

Strings can be formatted with the `%s` format specifier. These examples show how to format strings, including how to left- and right-justify them within a certain space:

```
val h = "Hello"  
  
f'''$h%s'''      // 'Hello'  
f'''$h%10s'''    // '      Hello'  
f'''$h%-10s'''   // 'Hello      '
```

I find it easier to read formatted strings when the variable name is enclosed in curly braces, so I'll use this style for the rest of this recipe:

```
f'''${h}%s'''      // 'Hello'  
f'''${h}%10s'''    // '      Hello'  
f'''${h}%-10s'''   // 'Hello      '
```

Formatting floating-point numbers

Floating-point numbers are printed with the `%f` format specifier. Here are several examples that show the effects of formatting floating-point numbers, including `Double` and `Float` values:

```
val a = 10.3456          // a: Double = 10.3456  
val b = 101234567.3456  // b: Double = 1.0123456  
  
f'''${a}%.1f'''        // '10.3'
```

```
f'''${a}%.2f'''      // '10.35'  
f'''${a}%-8.2f'''    // ' 10.35'  
f'''${a}%-8.4f'''    // ' 10.3456'  
f'''${a}%08.2f'''    // '00010.35'  
f'''${a}%-8.2f'''    // '10.35 '  
  
f'''${b}%-2.2f'''    // '101234567.35'  
f'''${b}%-8.2f'''    // '101234567.35'  
f'''${b}%-14.2f'''   // '101234567.35 '
```

Those examples demonstrate `Double` values, and the same syntax works with `Float` values:

```
val c = 10.5f      // c: Float = 10.5  
f'''${c}%.1f'''    // '10.5'  
f'''${c}%.2f'''    // '10.50'
```

Integer formatting

Integers are printed with the `%d` format specifier. These examples show the effects of padding and justification:

```
val ten = 10  
f'''${ten}%d'''      // '10'  
f'''${ten}%5d'''     // '    10'  
f'''${ten}%-5d'''    // '10    '
```

```
val maxInt = Int.MaxValue
f"${maxInt}%5d"          // '2147483647'

val maxLong = Long.MaxValue
f"${maxLong}%5d"          // '9223372036854775807'
f"${maxLong}%22d"         // '9223372036854775807
```

Zero-fill integer options

These examples show the effects of zero-filling integer values:

```
val zero = 0
val one = 1
val negTen = -10
val bigPos = 12345
val bigNeg = -12345
val maxInt = Int.MaxValue

// non-negative integers
f"${zero}%03d"          // 000
f"${one}%03d"            // 001
f"${bigPos}%03d"          // 12345
f"${bigPos}%08d"          // 00012345
f"${maxInt}%08d"          // 2147483647
f"${maxInt}%012d"         // 002147483647
```

```
// negative integers
f"${negTen}%03d"      // -10
f"${negTen}%05d"      // -0010
f"${bigNeg}%03d"      // -12345
f"${bigNeg}%08d"      // -0012345
```

Character formatting

Characters are printed with the `%c` format specifier. These examples show the effects of padding and justification when formatting character output:

```
val s = 's'
f"|$${s}%c|"      // |s|
f"|$${s}%5c|"      // |      s|
f"|$${s}%-5c|"     // |s      |
```

f works with multiline strings

It's important to note that the `f` interpolator works with multiline strings, as shown in this example:

```
val n = "Al"
val w = 200.0
val s = f"""Hi, my name is ${n}
           and I weigh ${w}.1f pounds.
```

```
| """ .stripMargin.replaceAll("\n", " ")  
println(s)
```

That code results in the following output:

```
Hi, my name is Al and I weigh 200.0 pounds.
```

As noted in [Recipe 2.2](#), you also don't need to escape single and double quotation marks when you use multiline strings.

Discussion

As a reference, [Table 2-1](#) shows common `printf` style format specifiers.

Table 2-1. Common printf style format specifiers

Format specifier	Description
<code>%c</code>	Character
<code>%d</code>	Decimal number (integer, base 10)
<code>%e</code>	Exponential floating-point number

Format specifier	Description
%f	Floating-point number
%i	Integer (base 10)
%o	Octal number (base 8)
%s	A string of characters
%u	Unsigned decimal (integer) number
%x	Hexadecimal number (base 16)
%%	Print a “percent” character
\$\$	Print a “dollar sign” character

To help demonstrate how these format specifiers work, these examples show how to use `%%` and `$$`:

```
println(f"%%")    // prints %
println(f"$$")    // prints $
```

Table 2-2 shows special characters you can use when formatting strings.

Table 2-2. Character sequences that can be used in strings

Character sequence	Description
\b	backspace
\f	form feed
\n	newline, or linefeed
\r	carriage return
\t	tab
\\"	backslash
\\"	double quote
\'	single quote
\u	beginning of a Unicode character

See Also

- The [java.util.Formatter class documentation](#) shows all the available formatting characters.

2.6 Processing a String One Character at a Time

Problem

You want to iterate through each character in a string, performing an operation on each character as you traverse the string.

Solution

If you need to *transform* the characters in a string to get a new result (as opposed to a side effect), use a `for` expression, or higher-order functions (HOFs) like `map` and `filter`. If you want to do something that has a side effect, such as printing output, use a simple `for` loop or a method like `foreach`. If you need to treat the string as a sequence of bytes, use the `getBytes` method.

Transformers

Here's an example of a `for` expression—a `for` loop with `yield`—that transforms each character in a string:

```
scala> val upper = for c <- "yo, adrian" yield c  
upper: String = YO, ADRIAN
```

Here's an equivalent `map` method:

```
scala> val upper = "yo, adrian".map(c => c.toUpperCase)  
upper: String = YO, ADRIAN
```

That code can be shortened with the magic of Scala's underscore character:

```
scala> val upper = "yo, adrian".map(_.toUpperCase)  
upper: String = YO, ADRIAN
```

A great thing about HOFs and pure transformation functions is that you can combine them in series to get a desired result.

Here's an example of calling `filter` and then `map`:

```
"yo, adrian".filter(_ != 'A').map(_.toUpper) //
```

Side effects

When you need to perform a side effect—something like printing each character in a string to STDOUT—you can use a simple `for` loop:

```
scala> for c <- "hello" do println(c)
h
e
l
l
o
```

The `foreach` method can also be used:

```
scala> "hello".foreach(println)
h
e
l
l
o
```

Working on string bytes

If you need to work with a string as a sequence of bytes, you can also use the `getBytes` method. `getBytes` returns a sequential collection of bytes from a string:

```
scala> "hello".getBytes
res0: Array[Byte] = Array(104, 101, 108, 108, 111)
```

Adding `foreach` after `getBytes` shows one way to operate on each `Byte` value:

```
scala> "hello".getBytes.foreach(println)
104
101
108
108
111
```

WRITING A METHOD TO WORK WITH MAP

To write a method that you can pass into `map` to operate on the characters in a `String`, define it to take a single `Char` as input, then perform the logic on that `Char` inside the method. When the logic is complete, return whatever data type is needed for your algorithm. Though the following algorithm is short, it demonstrates how to create a custom method and pass that method into `map`:

```
// write your own method that operates on a character
def toLower(c: Char): Char = (c.toByte+32).toChar

// use that method with map
"HELLO".map(toLower)
    // String = hello
```

See the *Eta Expansion* discussion in [Recipe 10.2, “Passing Functions Around as Variables”](#), for more details about how you’re able to pass a *method* into another method that expects a *function* parameter.

Discussion

Because Scala treats a `String` as a sequence of characters—a `Seq[Char]`—all of those examples work naturally.

for + yield

If you’re coming to Scala from an imperative language (Java, C, C#, etc.), using the `map` method might not be comfortable at

first. In this case you might prefer to write a `for` expression like this:

```
val upper = for c <- "hello, world" yield c.toUpperCase
```

Adding `yield` to a `for` loop essentially places the result from each loop iteration into a temporary holding area. When the loop completes, all the elements in the holding area are returned as a single collection; you can say that they are *yielded* by the `for` loop.

While I (strongly!) recommend getting comfortable with how `map` works, if you want to write `for` expressions when you first start, it may help to know that this expression that uses `filter` and `map`:

```
val result = "hello, world"  
          .filter(_ != 'L')  
          .map(_.toUpperCase)
```

is equivalent to this `for` expression:

```
val result = for  
  c <- "hello, world"  
  if c != 'L'
```

```
yield  
  c.toUpperCase
```

CUSTOM FOR LOOPS ARE RARELY NEEDED

As I wrote in the first edition of the [Scala Book](#) on the official Scala website, a great strength of the Scala collections classes is that they come with dozens of prebuilt methods. A great benefit of this is that you no longer need to write custom `for` loops every time you need to work on a collection. And if that doesn't sound like enough of a benefit, it also means that you no longer have to read custom `for` loops written by other developers. ;)

More seriously, studies have shown that developers spend much more time *reading* code than *writing* code, with reading/writing ratios estimated to be as high as 20:1, and most certainly at least 10:1. Because we spend so much time reading code, it's important that code be both concise and readable—what Scala developers call *expressive*.

Transformer methods

But once you become comfortable with the “Scala way”—which involves taking advantage of Scala’s built-in transformer functions so you don’t have to write custom `for` loops—you’ll want to use a `map` method call. Both of these `map` expressions produce the same result as that `for` expression:

```
val upper = "hello, world".map(c => c.toUpperCase)  
val upper = "hello, world".map(_.toUpperCase)
```

A transformer method like `map` can take a simple one-line anonymous function like the one shown, and it can also take a much larger algorithm. Here's an example of `map` that uses a multiline block of code:

```
val x = "HELLO".map { c =>
    // 'c' represents each character from "HELLO"
    // that's passed one at a time into this algo
    val i: Int = c.toByte + 32
    i.toChar
}

// x: String = "hello"
```

Notice that this algorithm is enclosed in curly braces. Braces are required any time you want to create a multiline block of code like this.

As you might guess from these examples, `map` has a loop built into it, and in that loop it passes one `Char` at a time to the algorithm it's given.

Before moving on, here are a few more examples of string transformer methods:

```
val f = "foo bar baz"  
f.dropWhile(_ != ' ')      // " bar baz"  
f.filter(_ != 'A')         // foo br bz  
f.takeWhile(_ != 'R')      // foo ba
```

Side effect approaches

Where the `map` or `for / yield` approaches are used to transform one collection into another, the `foreach` method is used to operate on each element without returning a result, which you can tell because its method signature shows that it returns `Unit`:

```
def foreach[U](f: (A) => U): Unit
```

This tells us that `foreach` is useful for handling side effects, such as printing:

```
scala> "hello".foreach(println)  
h  
e
```

```
l  
l  
o
```

A Complete Example

The following example demonstrates how to call `getBytes` on a string and then pass a block of code into `foreach` to help calculate an Adler-32 checksum value on a string:

```
/**  
 * Calculate the Adler-32 checksum using Scala.  
 * @see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adler-32  
 */  
  
def adler32sum(s: String): Int =  
    val MOD_ADLER = 65521  
    var a = 1  
    var b = 0  
  
    // loop through each byte, updating `a` and  
    // `b`  
    s.getBytes.foreach{ byte =>  
        a = (byte + a) % MOD_ADLER  
        b = (b + a) % MOD_ADLER  
    }  
  
    // this is the return value.  
    // note that Int is 32 bits which this result
```

```

    // Note that this is 32 bits, which this requires
    b * 65536 + a      // or (b << 16) + a

@main def adler32Checksum =
  val sum = adler32sum("Wikipedia")
  println(f"checksum (int) = ${sum}%d")
  println(f"checksum (hex) = ${sum.toHexString}")

```

The second `println` statement in the `@main` method prints the hex value `11e60398`, which matches the `0x11E60398` on the Adler-32 algorithm page.

Note that I use `foreach` in this example instead of `map` because the goal is to loop over each byte in the string and then do something with each byte, but without returning anything from the loop. Instead, the algorithm updates the mutable variables `a` and `b`.

See Also

- Under the covers, the Scala compiler translates a `for` loop into a `foreach` method call. This gets more complicated if the loop has one or more `if` statements (guards) or a `yield` expression. This is discussed in great detail in my book [*Functional Programming, Simplified*](#) (CreateSpace).

- The Adler code is based on Wikipedia's discussion of [the Adler-32 checksum algorithm](#).

2.7 Finding Patterns in Strings

Problem

You need to search a `String` to see if it contains a regular expression pattern.

Solution

Create a `Regex` object by invoking the `.r` method on a `String`, and then use that pattern with `findFirstIn` when you're looking for one match, and `findAllIn` when looking for all matches.

To demonstrate this, first create a `Regex` for the pattern you want to search for, in this case, a sequence of one or more numeric characters:

```
val numPattern = "[0-9]+".r // scala.util.match
```

Next, create a sample string you can search:

```
val address = "123 Main Street Suite 101"
```

The `findFirstIn` method finds the first match:

```
scala> val match1 = numPattern.findFirstIn(address)
match1: Option[String] = Some(123)
```

Notice that this method returns an `Option[String]`.

When looking for multiple matches, use the `findAllIn` method:

```
scala> val matches = numPattern.findAllIn(address)
val matches: scala.util.matching.Regex.MatchIterator[
```

As shown, `findAllIn` returns an iterator, which lets you loop over the results:

```
scala> matches.foreach(println)
123
101
```

If `findAllIn` doesn't find any results, an empty iterator is returned, so you can still write your code just like that—you don't need to check to see if the result is `null`. If you'd rather have the results as a `Vector`, add the `toVector` method after the `findAllIn` call:

```
scala> val matches = numPattern.findAllIn(address)
val matches: Vector[String] = Vector(123, 101)
```

If there are no matches, this approach yields an empty vector. Other methods like `toList`, `toSeq`, and `toArray` are also available.

Discussion

Using the `.r` method on a `String` is the easiest way to create a `Regex` object. Another approach is to import the `Regex` class, create a `Regex` instance, and then use the instance in the same way:

```
import scala.util.matching.Regex
val numPattern = Regex("[0-9]+")

val address = "123 Main Street Suite 101"
val match1 = numPattern.findFirstIn(address) /,
```

Although this is a bit more work, it's also more obvious. I've found that it can be easy to overlook the `.r` at the end of a string (and then spend a few minutes wondering how the code I was looking at could possibly work).

A brief discussion of the Option returned by `findFirstIn`

As mentioned in the Solution, the `findFirstIn` method finds the first match in the example string and returns an `Option[String]`:

```
scala> val match1 = numPattern.findFirstIn(address)
match1: Option[String] = Some(123)
```

The `Option/Some/None` pattern is discussed in [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”,](#) so I won’t go into it in great detail here, but a simple way to think about an `Option` is that it’s a container that holds either zero or one values. In the case of `findFirstIn`, if it succeeds it returns the string `"123"` wrapped in a `Some`, i.e., as a `Some("123")`. However, if it fails to find the pattern in the string it’s searching, it returns a `None`:

```
scala> val address = "No address given"
address: String = No address given

scala> val match1 = numPattern.findFirstIn(address)
match1: Option[String] = None
```

In summary, any time a method is (a) defined to return an `Option[String]`, (b) guaranteed to not throw an exception, and (c) guaranteed to terminate (i.e., not to go into an infinite loop), it will always return either a `Some[String]` or a `None`.

See Also

- See the [Scala Regex class documentation](#) for more ways to work with regular expressions.
- See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for details on how to work with `Option` values.

2.8 Replacing Patterns in Strings

Problem

You want to search for regular-expression patterns in a string and then replace them.

Solution

Because a string is immutable, you can't perform find-and-replace operations directly on it, but you can create a new string that contains the replaced contents. There are several ways to do this.

You can call `replaceAll` on a string, assigning the result to a new variable:

```
scala> val address = "123 Main Street".replaceAll("123", "xxx")
address: String = xxx Main Street
```

You can create a regular expression and then call `replaceAllIn` on that expression, again remembering to assign the result to a new string:

```
scala> val regex = "[0-9]".r
regex: scala.util.matching.Regex = [0-9]

scala> val newAddress = regex.replaceAllIn("123 Main Street", "xxx")
newAddress: String = xxx Main Street
```

To replace only the first occurrence of a pattern, use the `replaceFirst` method:

```
scala> val result = "123".replaceFirst("[0-9]", '  
result: String = x23
```

You can also use `replaceFirstIn` with a `Regex`:

```
scala> val regex = "H".r  
regex: scala.util.matching.Regex = H  
  
scala> val result = regex.replaceFirstIn("Hello w  
result: String = Jello world
```

See Also

- The [scala.util.matching.Regex documentation](#) shows more examples of creating and using `Regex` instances.

2.9 Extracting Parts of a String That Match Patterns

Problem

You want to extract one or more parts of a string that match the regular-expression patterns you specify.

Solution

Define the regular-expression (regex) patterns you want to extract, placing parentheses around them so you can extract them as regular-expression groups. First, define the desired pattern:

```
val pattern = "( [0-9]+) ([A-Za-z]+)".r
```

This creates `pattern` as an instance of the [scala.util.matching.Regex class](#). The regex that's used can be read as, “One or more numbers, followed by a space, followed by one or more alphanumeric characters.”

Next, this is how you extract the regex groups from the target string:

```
val pattern(count, fruit) = "100 Bananas"  
// count: String = 100  
// fruit: String = Bananas
```

As shown in the comments, this code extracts the numeric field and the alphanumeric field from the given string as two separate variables, `count` and `fruit`.

Discussion

The syntax shown here may feel a little unusual because it seems like you're defining `pattern` as a `val` field twice, but this syntax is more convenient and readable in a real-world example that uses a `match` expression.

Imagine you're writing the code for a search engine like Google, and you want to let people search for movies using a variety of phrases. To be really convenient, you'll let them type any of these phrases to get a listing of movies near Boulder, Colorado:

```
"movies near 80301"  
"movies 80301"  
"80301 movies"  
"movie: 80301"  
"movies: 80301"  
"movies near boulder, co"  
"movies near boulder, colorado"
```

One way you can allow all these phrases to be used is to define a series of regular-expression patterns to match against them. Just define your expressions, and then attempt to match whatever the user types against all the possible expressions you're willing to allow.

As a small example, imagine that you just want to allow these two patterns:

```
// match "movies 80301"  
val MoviesZipRE = "movies (\\\d{5})".r  
  
// match "movies near boulder, co"  
val MoviesNearCityStateRE = "movies near ([a-z]+)
```

These patterns will match strings like this:

```
"movies 80301"  
"movies 99676"  
"movies near boulder, co"  
"movies near talkeetna, ak"
```

Once you've defined regex patterns you want to allow, you can match them against whatever text the user enters using a `match` expression. In this example, you call a fictional method

named `getSearchResults` that returns an `Option[List[String]]` when a match occurs:

```
val results = textUserTyped match
  case MoviesZipRE(zip) => getSearchResults(zip)
  case MoviesNearCityStateRE(city, state) => getSearchResults(city + " " + state)
  case _ => None
```

As shown, this syntax makes your `match` expressions very readable. For both patterns you're matching you call an overloaded version of the `getSearchResults` method, passing it the `zip` field in the first case and the `city` and `state` fields in the second case.

It's important to note that with this technique, the regular expressions must match the *entire* user input. With the regex patterns shown, the following strings will fail because they have a blank space at the end of the line:

```
"movies 80301 "
"movies near boulder, co "
```

You can solve this problem by trimming the input string, or using a more complicated regular expression, which you'll

want to do anyway in the real world.

As you can imagine, you can use this same pattern-matching technique in many different circumstances, including matching date and time formats, street addresses, people's names, and many other situations.

See Also

- See [Recipe 4.6, “Using a Match Expression Like a switch Statement”](#), for more `match` expression examples.
- In the `match` expression you can see that `scala.util.matching.Regex` is used as an *extractor*. Extractors are discussed in [Recipe 7.8, “Implementing Pattern Matching with unapply”](#).

2.10 Accessing a Character in a String

Problem

You want to access a character at a specific position in a string.

Solution

Use Scala's array notation to access a character by an index position, but be careful you don't go past the end of the string:

```
"hello"(0)      // Char = h
"hello"(1)      // Char = e
"hello"(99)     // throws java.lang.StringIndexOutOfBoundsException
```

Discussion

I include this recipe because in Java you use the `charAt` method for this purpose. You can also use it in Scala, but this code is unnecessarily verbose:

```
"hello".charAt(0)      // Char = h
"hello".charAt(99)     // throws java.lang.StringIndexOutOfBoundsException
```

In Scala the preferred approach is to use the array notation shown in the Solution.

ARRAY NOTATION IS REALLY A METHOD CALL

The Scala array notation is a nice-looking and convenient way to write code, but if you want to know how things work behind the scenes, it's interesting to know that this code, which is convenient and easy for humans to read:

```
"hello"(1)    // 'e'
```

is translated by the Scala compiler into this code:

```
"hello".apply(1)    // 'e'
```

For more details, this little bit of syntactic sugar is explained in [Recipe 7.5, “Using apply Methods in Objects as Constructors”](#).

2.11 Creating Your Own String Interpolator

Problem

You want to create your own string interpolator, like the `s`, `f`, and `raw` interpolators that come with Scala.

Solution

To create your own string interpolator, you need to know that when a programmer writes code like `foo"a b c"`, that code is transformed into a `foo` method call on the `StringContext` class. Specifically, when you write this code:

```
val a = "a"  
foo"a = $a"
```

it's translated into this:

```
StringContext("a = ", "") .foo(a)
```

Therefore, to create a custom string interpolator, you need to create `foo` as a Scala 3 extension method on the `StringContext` class. There are a few additional details you need to know, and I'll show those in an example.

Suppose that you want to create a string interpolator named `caps` that capitalizes every word in a string, like this:

```
caps"john c doe"    // "John C Doe"  
  
val b = "b"  
caps"a $b c"        // "A B C"
```

To create `caps`, define it as an extension method on `StringContext`. Because you're creating a string interpolator, you know that your method needs to return a `String`, so you begin writing the solution like this:

```
extension(sc: StringContext)
def caps(?) : String = ???
```

Because a preinterpolated string can contain multiple expressions of any type, `caps` needs to be defined to take a varargs parameter of type `Any`, so you can further write this:

```
extension(sc: StringContext)
def caps(args: Any*) : String = ???
```

To define the body of `caps`, the next thing to know is that the original string comes to you in the form of two different variables:

- `sc`, which is an instance of `StringContext`, and provides it data in an iterator
- `args.iterator`, which is an instance of `Iterator[Any]`

This code shows one way to use those iterators to rebuild a `String` with each word capitalized:

```

extension(sc: StringContext)
  def caps(args: Any*): String =
    // [1] create variables for the iterators.
    // input string "a b c", `strings` will be
    // point.
    val strings: Iterator[String] = sc.parts.iterator
    val expressions: Iterator[Any] = args.iterator

    // [2] populate a StringBuilder from the values
    val sb = StringBuilder(strings.next.trim)
    while strings.hasNext do
      sb.append(expressions.next.toString)
      sb.append(strings.next)

    // [3] convert the StringBuilder back to a String
    // then apply an algorithm to capitalize each word
    // the string
    sb.toString
      .split(" ")
      .map(_.trim)
      .map(_.capitalize)
      .mkString(" ")

  end caps
end extension

```

Here's a brief description of that code:

1. First, variables are created for the two iterators. The `strings` variable contains all the string literals in the input string, and `expressions` contains values to represent all of the expressions in the input string, such as a `$a` variable.
2. Next, I populate a `StringBuilder` by looping over the two iterators in the `while` loop. This starts to put the string back together, including all of the string literals and expressions.
3. Finally, the `StringBuilder` is converted back into a `String`, and then a series of transformation functions are called to capitalize each word in the string.

There are other ways to implement the body of that method, but I use this approach to be clear about the steps involved, specifically that when an interpolator like `caps"a $b c $ {d*e}"` is created, you need to rebuild the string from the two iterators.

Discussion

To understand the solution it helps to understand how string interpolation works, i.e., how the Scala code you type in your IDE is converted into other Scala code. With string

interpolation, the consumer of your method writes code like this:

```
id"text0${expr1}text1 ... ${exprN}textN"
```

In this code:

- `id` is the name of your string interpolation method, which is `caps` in my case.
- The `textN` pieces are string constants in the input (preinterpolated) string.
- The `exprN` pieces are the expressions in the input string that are written with the `$expr` or `${expr}` syntax.

When you compile the `id` code, the compiler translates it into code that looks like this:

```
StringContext ("text0", "text1", ..., "textN").id
```

As shown, the constant parts of the string—the string literals—are extracted and passed as parameters to the `StringContext` constructor. The `id` method of the `StringContext` instance—`caps`, in my example—is passed any expressions that are included in the initial string.

As a concrete example of how this works, assume that you have an interpolator named `yo` and this code:

```
val b = "b"  
val d = "d"  
yo"a $b c $d"
```

In the first step of the compilation phase the last line is converted into this:

```
val listOfFruits = StringContext("a ", " c ", "")
```

Now the `yo` method needs to be written like the `caps` method shown in the solution, handling these two iterators:

```
args.iterators contains: "a ", " c ", ""    // {  
exprs.iterators contains: b, d                // }
```

MORE INTERPOLATORS

For more details, [my GitHub project for this book](#) shows several examples of interpolators, including my `Q` interpolator, which converts this multiline string input:

```
val fruits = Q"""
  apples
  bananas
  cherries
  """
```

into this resulting list:

```
List("apples", "bananas", "cherries")
```

See Also

- This recipe uses extension methods, which are discussed in [Recipe 8.9, “Adding New Methods to Closed Classes with Extension Methods”](#).
- The [official Scala page on string interpolation](#).

2.12 Creating Random Strings

Problem

When you try to generate a random string using the `nextString` method of the `Random` class, you see a lot of unusual output or `?` characters. The typical problem looks like this:

```
scala> val r = scala.util.Random()
val r: scala.util.Random = scala.util.Random@360c

scala> r.nextString(10)
res0: String = ??????????
```

Solution

What's happening with `nextString` is that it returns Unicode characters, which may or may not display well on your system. To generate only alphanumeric characters—the letters `[A-Za-z]` and the numbers `[0-9]`—use this approach:

```
import scala.util.Random

// examples of two random alphanumeric strings
Random.alphanumeric.take(10).mkString // 7qowB9
Random.alphanumeric.take(10).mkString // a0Wylv
```

`Random.alphanumeric` returns a `LazyList`, so I use `take(10).mkString` to get the first ten characters from the stream. If you only call `Random.alphanumeric.take(10)`, you'll get this result:

```
Random.alphanumeric.take(10)    // LazyList[Char]
```

Because `LazyList` is lazy—it computes its elements only when they're needed—you have to call a method like `mkString` to force a string result.

Discussion

Per the [Random class Scaladoc](#), `alphanumeric` “returns a `LazyList` of pseudorandomly chosen alphanumeric characters, equally chosen from A-Z, a-z, and 0-9.”

If you want a wider range of characters, the `nextPrintableChar` method returns values in the ASCII range 33–126. This includes almost every simple character on your keyboard, including letters, numbers, and characters like `!`, `-`, `+`, `]`, and `>`. For example, here's a little algorithm that generates a random-length sequence of printable characters:

```
val r = scala.util.Random
```

```
val randomSeq = for i <- 0 to r.nextInt(10) yield
```

Here are a few examples of the random sequence that's created by that algorithm:

```
Vector(s, ` , t, e, o, e, r, {, S)  
Vector(X, i, M, ., H, x, h)  
Vector(f, V, +, v)
```

Those can be converted into a `String` with `mkString`, as shown in this example:

```
randomSeq.mkString // @Wvz#y#Rj\  
randomSeq.mkString //b0F:P&!WT$
```

See asciitable.com or a similar website for the complete list of characters in the ASCII range 33–126.

Lazy methods

As described in [Recipe 20.1, “Getting Started with Spark”](#), with Apache Spark you can think of collections methods as being either transformation methods or action methods:

- *Transformation methods* transform the elements in a collection. With immutable classes like `List`, `Vector`, and `LazyList`, these methods transform the existing elements to create a new collection. Just like Spark, when you use a Scala `LazyList`, these methods are lazily evaluated (also known as *lazy* or *nonstrict*). Methods like `map`, `filter`, `take`, and many more are considered transformation methods.
- *Action methods* are methods that essentially force a result. They're a way of stating, “I want the result *now*.” Methods like `foreach` and `mkString` can be thought of as action methods.

See [Recipe 11.1, “Choosing a Collections Class”](#) for more discussion and examples of transformer methods.

See Also

- In my blog post [“How to Create Random Strings in Scala \(A Few Different Examples\)”](#), I show seven different methods for generating random strings, including alpha and alphanumeric strings.
- In [“Scala: A Function to Generate a Random-Length String with Blank Spaces”](#) I show how to generate a random

string of random length, where the string also contains blank spaces.

Chapter 3. Numbers and Dates

This chapter covers recipes for working with Scala's numeric types, and it also includes recipes for working with the Date and Time API that was introduced with Java 8.

In Scala, the types `Byte`, `Short`, `Int`, `Long`, and `Char` are known as *integral types* because they are represented by integers, or whole numbers. The integral types along with `Double` and `Float` comprise Scala's *numeric types*. These numeric types extend the `AnyVal` trait, as do the `Boolean` and `Unit` types. As discussed on the [unified types Scala page](#), these nine types are called the *predefined value types*, and they are non-nullable.

The relationship of the predefined value types to `AnyVal` and `Any` (as well as `Nothing`) is shown in [Figure 3-1](#). As shown in that image:

- All of the numeric types extend `AnyVal`.
- All other types in the Scala class hierarchy extend `AnyRef`.

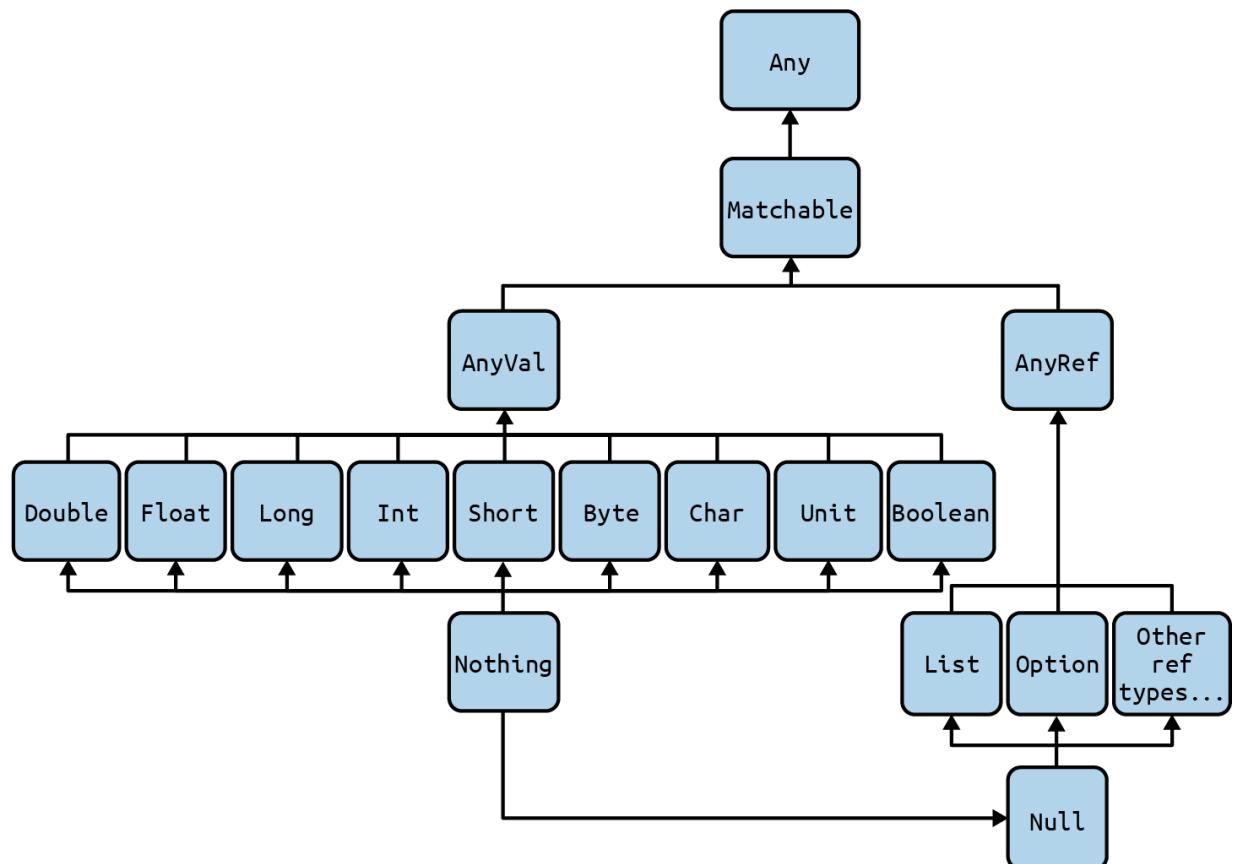


Figure 3-1. All the predefined numeric types extend `AnyVal`

As shown in [Table 3-1](#), the numeric types have the same data ranges as their Java primitive equivalents.

Table 3-1. The data ranges of Scala's built-in numeric types

Data type	Description	Range
Char	16-bit unsigned Unicode character	0 to 65,535

Data type	Description	Range
Byte	8-bit signed value	-128 to 127
Short	16-bit signed value	-32,768 to 32,767
Int	32-bit signed value	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
Long	64-bit signed value	-2^{63} to $2^{63}-1$, inclusive (see below)
Float	32-bit IEEE 754 single precision float	See below
Double	64-bit IEEE 754 double precision float	See below

In addition to those types, `Boolean` can have the values `true` or `false`.

If you ever need to know the exact values of the data ranges and don't have this book handy, you can find them in the Scala

REPL:

```
Char.MinValue.toInt      // 0
Char.MaxValue.toInt     // 65535
Byte.MinValue          // -128
Byte.MaxValue          // +127
Short.MinValue         // -32768
Short.MaxValue         // +32767
Int.MinValue           // -2147483648
Int.MaxValue           // +2147483647
Long.MinValue          // -9,223,372,036,854,775,8
Long.MaxValue          // +9,223,372,036,854,775,8
Float.MinValue         // -3.4028235e38
Float.MaxValue         // +3.4028235e38
Double.MinValue        // -1.7976931348623157e308
Double.MaxValue        // +1.7976931348623157e308
```

In addition to these basic numeric types, the `BigInt` and `BigDecimal` classes are also covered in this chapter.

Underscores in Numeric Literals

Scala 2.13 introduced the ability to use underscores in numeric literal values:

```
// Int
val x = 1_000
```

```

val x = 1_000
val x = 100_000
val x = 1_000_000

// Long (can also use lowercase 'L', but I find +)
val x = 1_000_000L

// Double
val x = 1_123.45
val x = 1_123.45D
val x = 1_123.45d
val x = 1_234e2      // 123400.0

// Float
val x = 3_456.7F
val x = 3_456.7f
val x = 1_234e2F

// BigInt and BigDecimal
val x: BigInt = 1_000_000
val x: BigDecimal = 1_234.56

```

Numeric literals with underscores can be used in all the usual places:

```

val x = 1_000 + 1

if x > 1_000 && x < 1_000_000 then println(x)

```

```
x match
  case 1_000 => println("got 1,000")
  case _        => println("got something else")

for
  i <- 1 to 1_000
  if i > 999
do
  println(i)
```

One place where they can't currently be used is in casting from `String` to numeric types:

```
Integer.parseInt("1_000")      // NumberFormatException
"1_000".toInt                  // NumberFormatException
```

Complex Numbers

If you need more powerful math classes than those that are included with the standard Scala distribution, check out the [Spire project](#), which includes classes like `Rational`, `Complex`, `Real`, and more.

Dates and Times

The last several recipes in this chapter cover the Date and Time API that was introduced with Java 8, and they show how to work with new classes like `LocalDate`, `LocalTime`, `LocalDateTime`, `Instant`, and `ZonedDateTime`.

3.1 Parsing a Number from a String

Problem

You want to convert a `String` to one of Scala's numeric types.

Solution

Use the `to*` methods that are available on a `String`:

```
"1".toByte      // Byte = 1
"1".toShort     // Short = 1
"1".toInt       // Int = 1
"1".toLong      // Long = 1
"1".toFloat     // Float = 1.0
"1".toDouble    // Double = 1.0
```

Be careful, because these methods can throw a

NumberFormatException :

```
"hello!".toInt    // java.lang.NumberFormatException
```

As a result, you may prefer to use the `to*Option` methods, which return a `Some` when the conversion is successful, and a `None` when the conversion fails:

```
"1".toByteOption      // Option[Byte] = Some(1)
"1".toShortOption     // Option[Short] = Some(1)
"1".toIntOption       // Option[Int] = Some(1)
"1".toLongOption      // Option[Long] = Some(1)
"1".toFloatOption     // Option[Float] = Some(1.0)
"1".toDoubleOption    // Option[Double] = Some(1.0)
"one".toIntOption      // Option[Int] = None
```

`BigInt` and `BigDecimal` instances can also be created directly from strings:

```
val b = BigInt("1")           // BigInt = 1
val b = BigDecimal("1.234")    // BigDecimal = 1.234
```

And they can also throw a `NumberFormatException`:

```
val b = BigInt("yo")           // NumberFormatException  
val b = BigDecimal("duke!")    // NumberFormatException
```

Handling a base and radix with Int

If you need to perform calculations using bases other than 10, use the `parseInt` method of the `java.lang.Integer` class, as shown in these examples:

```
Integer.parseInt("1", 2)      // Int = 1  
Integer.parseInt("10", 2)      // Int = 2  
Integer.parseInt("100", 2)     // Int = 4  
Integer.parseInt("1", 8)       // Int = 1  
Integer.parseInt("10", 8)      // Int = 8
```

Discussion

If you've used Java to convert a `String` to a numeric data type, then the `NumberFormatException` is familiar. However, Scala doesn't have checked exceptions, so you'll probably want to handle this situation differently.

A first thing to know is that you don't have to declare that Scala methods can throw an exception, so it's perfectly legal to write a method like this:

```
// you're not required to declare "throws NumberFormatException"
def makeInt(s: String) = s.toInt
```

Writing a pure function

However, in functional programming (FP) you'd never do this. As written, this method can short-circuit a caller's code, and that's something you never do in FP. (You might think of it as something you'd never do to another developer, or want another developer to do to you.) Instead, a pure function *always* returns the type that its signature shows. Therefore, in FP you'd write this function like this instead:

```
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] =
  try
    Some(s.toInt)
  catch
    case e: NumberFormatException => None
```

This function is declared to return `Option[Int]`, meaning that if you give it a `"10"`, it will return a `Some(10)`, and if you give it `"Yo"`, it returns a `None`. This function is equivalent to `toIntOption`, which was shown in the Solution, and introduced in Scala 2.13.

SHORTER MAKEINT FUNCTIONS

While that code shows a perfectly legitimate way to write a `makeInt` function that returns `Option[Int]`, you can write it shorter like this:

```
import scala.util.Try
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = Try(s.toInt).toOption
```

Both this function and the previous `makeInt` function always return either `Some[Int]` or `None`:

```
makeInt("a")           // None
makeInt("1")           // Some(1)
makeInt("2147483647") // Some(2147483647)
makeInt("2147483648") // None
```

If you prefer to return `Try` from your function instead of `Option`, you can write it like this:

```
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}
def makeInt(s: String): Try[Int] = Try(s.toInt)
```

The advantage of using `Try` is that when things go wrong, it returns the reason for the failure inside a `Failure` object:

```
makeInt("1")    // Success(1)
makeInt("a")    // Failure(java.lang.NumberFormatException: For input string: "a")
```

Document methods that throw exceptions

These days I don't like methods that throw exceptions, but if for some reason they do, I prefer that the behavior is documented. Therefore, if you're going to allow an exception to be thrown, consider adding an `@throws` Scaladoc comment to your method:

```
@throws(classOf[NumberFormatException])  
def makeInt(s: String) = s.toInt
```

This approach is *required* if the method will be called from Java code, as described in [Recipe 22.7, “Adding Exception Annotations to Scala Methods”](#).

See Also

- [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala's Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), provides more details on using `Option`, `Some`, and `None`.

3.2 Converting Between Numeric Types (Casting)

Problem

You want to convert from one numeric type to another, such as from an `Int` to a `Double`, `Double` to `Int`, or possibly a conversion involving `BigInt` or `BigDecimal`.

Solution

Numeric values are typically converted from one type to another with a collection of `to*` methods, including `toByte`, `toChar`, `toDouble`, `toFloat`, `toInt`, `toLong`, and `toShort`. These methods are added to the base numeric types by classes like `RichDouble`, `RichInt`, `RichFloat`, etc., which are automatically brought into scope by `scala.Predef`.

As shown on the Scala [unified types page](#), numeric values are easily converted in the direction shown in [Figure 3-2](#).

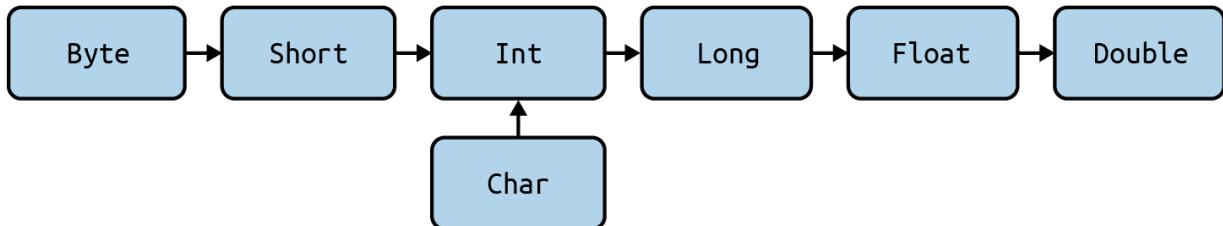


Figure 3-2. The direction in which numeric values are easily converted

A few examples show how casting in this direction is done:

```

val b: Byte = 1
b.toShort          // Short = 1
b.toInt            // Int = 1
b.toLong           // Long = 1
b.toFloat          // Float = 1.0
b.toDouble         // Double = 1.0
  
```

When you go with the flow like that, conversion is simple. It's also *possible* to go in the opposite direction—against the flow—like this:

```

val d = 100.0      // Double = 100.0
d.toFloat          // Float = 100.0
d.toLong           // Long = 100
d.toInt            // Int = 100
d.toShort          // Short = 100
d.toByte           // Byte = 100
  
```

However, be aware that going in this direction can cause serious problems:

```
val d = Double.MaxValue // 1.7976931348623157E308

// intentional error: don't do these things
d.toFloat    // Float = Infinity
d.toLong     // Long = 9223372036854775807
d.toInt      // Int = 2147483647
d.toShort    // Short = -1
d.toByte     // Byte = -1
```

Therefore, before attempting to use those methods, you should always check to see if the conversion attempt is valid:

```
val d: Double = 65_535.0
d.isValidByte    // false (Byte ranges from -128 to 127)
d.isValidChar    // true  (Char ranges from 0 to 65_535)
d.isValidShort   // false (Short ranges from -32,768 to 32,767)
d.isValidInt     // true  (Int ranges from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647)
```

Note that these methods are not available on `Double` values:

```
d.isValidFloat   // not a member of Double
d.isValidLong    // not a member of Double
```

Also note, as you might expect, when using this technique the `Int` / `Short` / `Byte` tests will fail if the `Double` has a nonzero fractional part:

```
val d = 1.5          // Double = 1.5
d.isValidInt        // false
d.isValidShort      // false
d.isValidByte       // false
```

asInstanceOf

Depending on your needs you can also cast “with the flow” using `asInstanceOf`:

```
val b: Byte = 1           // Byte = 1
b.asInstanceOf[Short]     // Short = 1
b.asInstanceOf[Int]       // Int = 1
b.asInstanceOf[Long]      // Long = 1
b.asInstanceOf[Float]     // Float = 1.0
b.asInstanceOf[Double]    // Double = 1.0
```

Discussion

Because all of these numeric types are classes (and not primitive values), `BigInt` and `BigDecimal` also work

similarly. The following examples show how they work with the numeric value types.

BigInt

The `BigInt` constructor is overloaded, giving you nine different ways to construct one, including giving it an `Int`, `Long`, or `String`:

```
val i: Int = 101
val l: Long = 102
val s = "103"

val b1 = BigInt(i)      // BigInt = 101
val b2 = BigInt(l)      // BigInt = 102
val b3 = BigInt(s)      // BigInt = 103
```

`BigInt` also has `isValid*` and `to*` methods to help you cast a `BigInt` value to the numeric types:

- `isValidByte`, `toByte`
- `isValidChar`, `toChar`
- `isValidDouble`, `toDouble`
- `isValidFloat`, `toFloat`
- `isValidInt`, `toInt`
- `isValidLong`, `toLong`

- `isValidShort`, `toShort`

BigDecimal

Similarly, `BigDecimal` can be constructed in many different ways, including these:

```
BigDecimal(100)
BigDecimal(100L)
BigDecimal(100.0)
BigDecimal(100F)
BigDecimal("100")
BigDecimal(BigInt(100))
```

`BigDecimal` has all the same `isValid*` and `to*` methods that the other types have. It also has `to*Exact` methods that work like this:

```
BigDecimal(100).toBigIntExact      // Some(100)
BigDecimal(100.5).toBigIntExact    // None

BigDecimal(100).toIntExact        // Int = 100
BigDecimal(100.5).toIntExact      // java.lang.Arith
                                //     (RoundingMode.HALF_UP)
BigDecimal(100.5).toLongExact     // java.lang.Arith
```

```
BigDecimal(100.5).toByteExact      // java.lang.BigDecimal
BigDecimal(100.5).toShortExact     // java.lang.BigDecimal
```

See the [BigInt Scaladoc](#) and [BigDecimal Scaladoc](#) for even more methods.

3.3 Overriding the Default Numeric Type

Problem

When using an implicit type declaration style, Scala automatically assigns types based on their numeric values, and you need to override the default type when you create a numeric field.

Solution

If you assign `1` to a variable without explicitly declaring its type, Scala assigns it the type `Int`:

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

Therefore, when you need to control the type, explicitly declare it:

```
val a: Byte = 1      // Byte = 1
val a: Short = 1    // Short = 1
val a: Int = 1       // Int = 1
val a: Long = 1     // Long = 1
val a: Float = 1    // Float = 1.0
val a: Double = 1   // Double = 1.0
```

While I prefer that style, it's also legal to specify the type at the end of the expression:

```
val a = 0: Byte
val a = 0: Int
val a = 0: Short
val a = 0: Double
val a = 0: Float
```

For longs, doubles, and floats you can also use this style:

```
val a = 1L      // Long = 1
val a = 1L      // Long = 1
val a = 1d      // Double = 1.0
val a = 1D      // Double = 1.0
```

```
val a = 1f    // Float = 1.0
val a = 1F    // Float = 1.0
```

You can create hex values by preceding the number with a leading `0x` or `0X`, and you can store them as an `Int` or `Long`:

```
val a = 0x20    // Int = 32
val a = 0x20L   // Long = 32
```

Discussion

It's helpful to know about this approach when creating any object instance. The general syntax looks like this:

```
// general case
var [name]: [Type] = [initial value]

// example
var a: Short = 0
```

This form can be helpful when you need to initialize `var` fields in a class:

```
class Foo:
    var a: Short = 0        // specify a default val
    var b: Short =          // defaults to 0
```

```
val s: String = _           // defaults to null
```

As shown, you can use the underscore character as a placeholder when assigning an initial value. This works when creating class variables, but it doesn't work in other places, such as inside a method. For numeric types this isn't an issue—you can just assign the type the value zero—but with most other types, if you really want a null value you can use this approach inside a method:

```
var name = null.asInstanceOf[String]
```

But the usual warning applies: don't use null values. It's better to use the `Option / Some / None` pattern, which you'll see in the best Scala libraries and frameworks, such as the Play Framework. See [Recipe 24.5, “Eliminating null Values from Your Code”](#), and [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for more discussion of this important topic.

TYPE ASSCRIPTION

In some rare instances, you may need to take advantage of a technique called *type ascription*, whose syntax looks like these examples. The [Stack Overflow question “What Is the Purpose of Type Ascriptions in Scala?”](#) shows a case where it’s advantageous to upcast a `String` to an `Object`:

```
val s = "Hala"      // s: String = Hala
val o = s: Object   // o: Object = Hala
```

As shown, the syntax is similar to this recipe. This upcasting is known as type ascription, and [the Scala style guide on types](#) describes it as follows:

“Ascription is basically just an up-cast performed at compile time for the sake of the type checker. Its use is not common, but it does happen on occasion. The most often seen case of ascription is invoking a varargs method with a single `Seq` parameter. This is done by ascribing the `_*` type.”

3.4 Replacements for `++` and `--`

Problem

You want to increment or decrement numbers using operators like `++` and `--` that are available in other languages, but Scala doesn’t have these operators.

Solution

Because `val` fields are immutable, they can't be incremented or decremented, but `var Int` fields can be mutated with the `+=` and `-=` methods:

```
var a = 1      // a = 1
a += 1         // a = 2
a -= 1         // a = 1
```

As an added benefit, you use similar methods for multiplication and division:

```
var i = 1      // i = 1
i *= 4         // i = 4
i /= 2         // i = 2
```

Attempting to use this approach with `val` fields results in a compile-time error:

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

scala> x += 1
<console>:9: error: value += is not a member of :
                  x += 1
                           ^
```

Discussion

Another benefit of this approach is that you can use these operators on other numeric types besides `Int`. For instance, the `Double` and `Float` classes can be used in the same way:

```
var d = 1.2      // Double = 1.2
d += 1          // 2.2
d *= 2          // 4.4
d /= 2          // 2.2

var f = 1.2F    // Float = 1.2
f += 1          // 2.2
f *= 2          // 4.4
f /= 2          // 2.2
```

3.5 Comparing Floating-Point Numbers

Problem

You need to compare two floating-point numbers, but as in some other programming languages, two floating-point numbers that *should* be equivalent may not be.

Solution

When you begin working with floating-point numbers, you quickly learn that `0.1` plus `0.1` is `0.2`:

```
scala> 0.1 + 0.1
res0: Double = 0.2
```

But `0.1` plus `0.2` isn't exactly `0.3`:

```
scala> 0.1 + 0.2
res1: Double = 0.3000000000000004
```

This inaccuracy makes comparing two floating-point numbers a significant problem:

```
val a = 0.3          // Double = 0.3
val b = 0.1 + 0.2    // Double = 0.3000000000000004
a == b              // false
```

The solution to this problem is to write your own functions to compare floating-point numbers with a tolerance. The following *approximately equals* method demonstrates the approach:

```
import scala.annotation.targetName
@targetName("approxEqual")
def ~=(x: Double, y: Double, tolerance: Double) :
    if (x - y).abs < tolerance then true else false
```

You can use this method like this:

```
val a = 0.3          // 0.3
val b = 0.1 + 0.2    // 0.3000000000000004
~=(a, b, 0.0001)    // true
~=(b, a, 0.0001)    // true
```

Discussion

In this solution the `@targetName` annotation is optional, but it's recommended for these reasons when you create a method that uses symbols:

- It helps interoperability with other languages that don't support the use of symbolic method names.
- It makes it easier to use stacktraces, where the target name you supply is used instead of the symbolic name.

- It provides an alternative name for your symbolic method name in the documentation, showing the target name as an alias of the symbolic method name.

Extension methods

As shown in [Recipe 8.9, “Adding New Methods to Closed Classes with Extension Methods”](#), you can define this method as an extension method on the `Double` class. If you assume a tolerance of `0.5`, you can create that extension method like this:

```
extension (x: Double)
  def ~=(y: Double): Boolean = (x - y).abs < 0
```

If you prefer, the method’s test condition can be expanded to this:

```
extension (x: Double)
  def ~=(y: Double): Boolean =
    if (x - y).abs < 0.5 then true else false
```

In either case, it can then be used with `Double` values like this:

```
if a ~= b then ...
```

That makes for very readable code. However, when you hardcode the tolerance, it's probably preferable to define the tolerance as a percentage of the given value `x`:

```
extension (x: Double)
  def ~=(y: Double): Boolean =
    // allow a +/- 10% variance
    val xHigh = if x > 0 then x*1.1 else x*0.9
    val xLow = if x > 0 then x*0.9 else x*1.1
    if y >= xLow && y <= xHigh then true else false
```

Or, if you prefer to have the `tolerance` as a method parameter, define the extension method like this:

```
extension (x: Double)
  def ~=(y: Double, tolerance: Double): Boolean =
    if (x - y).abs < tolerance then true else false
```

and then use it like this:

```
1.0 ~= (1.1, .2)      // true
1.0 ~= (0.9, .2)      // true
```

```
1.0 ~= (1.21, .2)    // false
1.0 ~= (0.79, .2)    // false
```

See Also

- [“What Every Computer Scientist Should Know About Floating-Point Arithmetic”](#)
- The “Accuracy problems” section of the Wikipedia [floating-point accuracy arithmetic page](#)
- The Wikipedia [arbitrary-precision arithmetic page](#)

3.6 Handling Large Numbers

Problem

You’re writing an application and need to use very large integer or decimal values.

Solution

If the `Long` and `Double` types aren’t large enough, use the Scala `BigInt` and `BigDecimal` classes:

```
val bi = BigInt(1234567890)           // BigInt = 12
```

```
val bd = BigDecimal(123456.789)      // BigDecimal

// using underscores with numeric literals
val bi = BigInt(1_234_567_890)       // BigInt = 1234567890
val bd = BigDecimal(123_456.789)      // BigDecimal
```

`BigInt` and `BigDecimal` wrap the Java `BigInteger` and `BigDecimal` classes, and they support all the operators you're used to using with numeric types in Scala:

```
bi + bi          // BigInt = 2469135780
bi * bi          // BigInt = 1524157875019052100
bi / BigInt(2)   // BigInt = 617283945
```

You can convert them to other numeric types:

```
// bad conversions
bi.toByte        // -46
bi.toChar         //
bi.toShort        // 722

// correct conversions
bi.toInt          // 1234567891
bi.toLong         // 1234567891
```

```
bi.toFloat      // 1.23456794E9  
bi.toDouble     // 1.234567891E9
```

To avoid conversion errors, test them first:

```
bi.isValidByte      // false  
bi.isValidChar     // false  
bi.isValidShort    // false  
bi.isValidInt      // true  
bi.isValidLong     // true
```

`BigInt` also converts to a byte array:

```
bi.toByteArray // Array[Byte] = Array(73, -106)
```

Discussion

Before using `BigInt` or `BigDecimal`, you can check the minimum and maximum values that `Long` and `Double` can handle:

```
Long.MinValue      // -9,223,372,036,854,775,808  
Long.MaxValue     // +9,223,372,036,854,775,807  
Double.MinValue   // -1.7976931348623157e308  
Double.MaxValue   // +1.7976931348623157e308
```

Depending on your needs, you may also be able to use the `PositiveInfinity` and `NegativeInfinity` of the standard numeric types:

```
scala> 1.7976931348623157E308 > Double.PositiveInfinity
res0: Boolean = false
```

BIGDECIMAL IS OFTEN USED FOR CURRENCY

`BigDecimal` is often used to represent currency because it offers control over rounding behavior. As shown in previous recipes, adding `$0.10 + $0.20` with a `Double` isn't exactly `$0.30`:

```
0.10 + 0.20    // Double = 0.30000000000000004
```

But `BigDecimal` doesn't suffer from that problem:

```
BigDecimal(0.10) + BigDecimal(0.20)    // BigDecimal = 0.3
```

That being said, you can still run into issues when using `Double` values to construct `BigDecimal` values:

```
BigDecimal(0.1 + 0.2)    // BigDecimal = 0.30000000000000004  
BigDecimal(.2 * .7)      // BigDecimal = 0.13999999999999999
```

Therefore, it's recommended that you always use the `String` version of the `BigDecimal` constructor to get the precise results you're looking for:

```
BigDecimal("0.1") + BigDecimal("0.2")    // BigDecimal = 0.3  
BigDecimal("0.2") * BigDecimal("0.7")    // BigDecimal = 0.14
```

As Joshua Bloch states in *Effective Java* (Addison-Wesley), “use `BigDecimal`, `int`, or `long` for monetary calculations.”

See Also

- Baeldung's "[BigDecimal and BigInteger in Java](#)" has a lot of details on the Java classes that are wrapped by Scala's `BigDecimal` and `BigInt` class.
- If you need to save these data types into a database, these pages may be helpful:
 - — The Stack Overflow page "[How to Insert BigInteger in Prepared Statement Java](#)"
 - — The Stack Overflow page "[Store BigInteger into MySql](#)"
- The "[Unpredictability of the BigDecimal\(double\) Constructor](#)" Stack Overflow page discusses the problem of passing a `double` to `BigDecimal` in Java.

3.7 Generating Random Numbers

Problem

You need to create random numbers, such as when testing an application, performing a simulation, and many other situations.

Solution

Create random numbers with the `scala.util.Random` class.

The following examples show common random number use cases:

```
val r = scala.util.Random

// random integers
r.nextInt      // 455978773
r.nextInt      // -1837771511

// returns a value between 0.0 and 1.0
r.nextDouble   // 0.22095085955974536
r.nextDouble   // 0.3349793259700605

// returns a value between 0.0 and 1.0
r.nextFloat    // 0.34705013
r.nextFloat    // 0.79055405

// set a seed when creating a new Random
val r = scala.util.Random(31)

// update the seed after you already have a Random
r.setSeed(1_000L)

// limit the integers to a maximum value
r.nextInt(6)    // 0
r.nextInt(6)    // 5
r.nextInt(6)    // 1
```

```
r.nextInt(10) // 1
```

When setting a maximum value on `nextInt`, the `Int` returned is between `0` (inclusive) and the value you specify (exclusive), so specifying `100` returns an `Int` from `0` to `99`.

Discussion

This section shows several other useful things you can do with the `Random` class.

Random length ranges

Scala makes it easy to create a random-length range of numbers, which is especially useful for testing:

```
// random length ranges
0 to r.nextInt(10) // Range 0 to 9
0 to r.nextInt(10) // Range 0 to 3
0 to r.nextInt(10) // Range 0 to 7
```

Remember that you can always convert a `Range` to a sequence if that's what you need:

```
// the resulting list size will be random
(0 to r.nextInt(10)).toList // List(0, 1,
```

```
(0 to r.nextInt(10)).toList           // List(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)

// a random size LazyList
(0 to r.nextInt(1_000_000)).to(LazyList)
// result: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>)
```

A `for/yield` loop gives you a nice way to modify the values in the sequence:

```
for i <- 0 to r.nextInt(10) yield i * 10
```

That approach yields sequences like these:

```
Vector(0, 10, 20, 30)
Vector(0, 10)
Vector(0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80)
```

Fixed-length ranges with random values

Another approach is to create a sequence of known length, filled with random numbers:

```
val seq = for i <- 1 to 5 yield r.nextInt(100)
```

That approach yields sequences that contain five random integers, like these:

```
Vector(99, 6, 40, 77, 19)
Vector(1, 75, 87, 55, 39)
Vector(46, 40, 4, 82, 92)
```

You can do the same thing with `nextFloat` and `nextDouble`:

```
val floats = for i <- 1 to 5 yield r.nextFloat()
val doubles = for i <- 1 to 5 yield r.nextDouble()
```

Shuffling an existing sequence

Another common need is to “randomize” an existing sequence.

To do that, use the `Random` class `shuffle` method:

```
import scala.util.Random
val x = List(1, 2, 3)

Random.shuffle(x)    // List(3, 1, 2)
Random.shuffle(x)    // List(2, 3, 1)
```

Getting a random element from a sequence

If you have an existing sequence and want to get a single random element from it, you can use this function:

```
import scala.util.Random

def getRandomElement[A](list: Seq[A], random: Random) = list(random.nextInt(list.length))
```

Here are a few examples of how to use this method:

```
val r = scala.util.Random

// integers
val ints = (1 to 100).toList
getRandomElement(ints, r)      // Int = 66
getRandomElement(ints, r)      // Int = 11

// strings
val names = List("Hala", "Helia", "Hannah", "Hope")
getRandomElement(names, r)     // Hala
getRandomElement(names, r)     // Hannah
```

3.8 Formatting Numbers and Currency

Problem

You want to format numbers or currency to control decimal places and separators (commas and decimals), typically for printed output.

Solution

For basic number formatting, use the `f` string interpolator. For other needs, such as adding commas and working with locales and currency, use instances of the `java.text.NumberFormat` class:

```
NumberFormat.getInstance          // general-purpose  
NumberFormat.getIntegerInstance // integers  
NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance // currency  
NumberFormat.getPercentInstance  // percentages
```

The `NumberFormat` instances can also be customized for locales.

The f string interpolator

The `f` string interpolator, which is discussed in detail in [Recipe 2.4, “Substituting Variables into Strings”](#), provides simple number formatting capabilities:

```
val pi = scala.math.Pi      // Double = 3.1415926535  
println(f"${pi}%.1.5f")    // 3.14159
```

A few more examples demonstrate the technique:

```
// floating-point  
f"${pi}%.1.2f"      // String = 3.14  
f"${pi}%.1.3f"      // String = 3.142  
f"${pi}%.1.5f"      // String = 3.14159  
f"${pi}%.6.2f"      // String = " 3.14"  
f"${pi}%.06.2f"     // String = 003.14  
  
// whole numbers  
val x = 10_000  
f"${x}%d"          // 10000  
f"${x}%2d"         // 10000  
f"${x}%8d"         // "    10000"  
f"${x}%-8d"        // "10000    "
```

If you prefer the explicit use of the `format` method that's available to strings, write the code like this instead:

```
"%06.2f".format(pi)    // String = 003.14
```

Commas, locales, and integers

When you want to format integer values, such as by adding commas in a locale like the United States, use `NumberFormat`'s `getIntegerInstance` method:

```
import java.text.NumberFormat
val formatter = NumberFormat.getIntegerInstance
formatter.format(10_000)        // String = 10,000
formatter.format(1_000_000)      // String = 1,000,(
```

That result shows commas because of my locale (near Denver, Colorado), but you can set a locale with `getIntegerInstance` and the [Locale class](#):

```
import java.text.NumberFormat
import java.util.Locale

val formatter = NumberFormat.getIntegerInstance()
formatter.format(1_000)        // 1.000
```

```
formatter.format(10_000)          // 10.000  
formatter.format(1_000_000)        // 1.000.000
```

Commas, locales, and floating-point values

You can handle floating-point values with a formatter returned by `getInstance`:

```
val formatter = NumberFormat.getInstance  
formatter.format(12.34)           // 12.34  
formatter.format(1_234.56)         // 1,234.56  
formatter.format(1_234_567.89)     // 1,234,567.89
```

You can also set a *locale* with `getInstance`:

```
val formatter = NumberFormat.getInstance(Locale.CANADA_FRENCH)  
formatter.format(12.34)           // 12,34  
formatter.format(1_234.56)         // 1.234,56  
formatter.format(1_234_567.89)     // 1.234.567,89
```

Currency

For currency output, use the `getCurrencyInstance` formatter. This is the default output in the United States:

```
val formatter = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance  
formatter.format(123.456789)      // $123.46  
formatter.format(12_345.6789)      // $12,345.68  
formatter.format(1_234_567.89)      // $1,234,567.89
```

Use a `Locale` to format international currency:

```
import java.util.{Currency, Locale}  
  
val deCurrency = Currency.getInstance(Locale.GERMANY)  
val deFormatter = java.text.NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(deCurrency)  
deFormatter.setCurrency(deCurrency)  
  
deFormatter.format(123.456789)      // €123.46  
deFormatter.format(12_345.6789)      // €12,345.68  
deFormatter.format(1_234_567.89)      // €1,234,567.89
```

If you don't use a currency library you'll probably want to use `BigDecimal`, which also works with `getCurrencyInstance`. Here's the default output in the United States:

```
import java.text.NumberFormat  
import scala.math.BigDecimal.RoundingMode  
  
val a = BigDecimal("10000.995")           // Bi
```

```
val b = a.setScale(2, RoundingMode.DOWN)      // BigDecimal(1234567.89)

val formatter = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.US)
formatter.format(b)                          // String = $1,234,567.89
```

Here are two examples of `BigDecimal` values that use a locale:

```
import java.text.NumberFormat
import java.util.Locale
import scala.math.BigDecimal.RoundingMode

val b = BigDecimal("1234567.891").setScale(2, RoundingMode.DOWN)
// result: BigDecimal = 1234567.89

val deFormatter = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.GERMAN)
deFormatter.format(b)                      // String = 1.234.567,89 €

val ukFormatter = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.UK)
ukFormatter.format(b)                      // String = £1,234,567.89
```

Custom formatting patterns

You can also create your own formatting patterns with the `DecimalFormat` class. Just create the pattern you want, then

apply the pattern to a number using the `format` method, as shown in these examples:

```
import java.text.DecimalFormat

val df = DecimalFormat("0.##")
df.format(123.45)           // 123.45 (type = String)
df.format(123.4567890)      // 123.46
df.format(.1234567890)      // 0.12
df.format(1_234_567_890)    // 1234567890

val df = DecimalFormat("0.#####")
df.format(.1234567890)      // 0.1235
df.format(1_234.567890)      // 1234.5679
df.format(1_234_567_890)    // 1234567890

val df = DecimalFormat("#,###,##0.00")
df.format(123)               // 123.00
df.format(123.4567890)       // 123.46
df.format(1_234.567890)      // 1,234.57
df.format(1_234_567_890)    // 1,234,567,890.00
```

See the Java [DecimalFormat class](#) for more formatting pattern characters (and a warning that, in general, you shouldn't create a direct instance of `DecimalFormat`).

Locales

The `java.util.Locale` class has three constructors:

```
Locale(String language)
Locale(String language, String country)
Locale(String language, String country, String da
```

It also includes more than a dozen static instances for locales like `CANADA`, `CHINA`, `FRANCE`, `GERMANY`, `JAPAN`, `UK`, `US`, and more. For countries and languages that don't have `Locale` constants, you can still specify them using a language or a pair of language/country strings. For example, per [Oracle's JDK 10 and JRE 10 Supported Locales page](#), locales in India can be specified like this:

```
Locale("hi-IN", "IN")
Locale("en-IN", "IN")
```

Here are a few other examples:

```
Locale("en-AU", "AU")    // Australia
Locale("pt-BR", "BR")    // Brazil
Locale("es-ES", "ES")    // Spain
```

These examples demonstrate how the first India locale is used:

```
// India
import java.util.{Currency, Locale}

val indiaLocale = Currency.getInstance(Locale("hi"))
val formatter = java.text.NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(indiaLocale)
formatter.setCurrency(indiaLocale)

formatter.format(123.456789)      // ₹123.46
formatter.format(1_234.56789)     // ₹1,234.57
```

With all of the `get*Instance` methods of `NumberFormat`, you can also set a default locale:

```
import java.text.NumberFormat
import java.util.Locale

val default = Locale.getDefault
val formatter = NumberFormat.getInstance(default)

formatter.format(12.34)           // 12.34
formatter.format(1_234.56)        // 1,234.56
formatter.format(1_234_567.89)    // 1,234,567.89
```

Discussion

This recipe falls back to the Java approach for printing currency and other formatted numeric fields, though of course the currency solution depends on how you handle currency in your applications. In my work as a consultant, I've seen most companies handle currency using the Java `BigDecimal` class, and others create their own custom currency classes, which are typically wrappers around `BigDecimal`.

3.9 Creating New Date and Time Instances

Problem

You need to create new date and time instances using the Date and Time API that was introduced with Java 8.

Solution

Using the Java 8 API you can create new dates, times, and date/time values. [Table 3-2](#) provides a description of some of the new classes you'll use (from [the `java.time` Javadoc](#)), all of which work in the ISO-8601 calendar system.

Table 3-2. Descriptions of common Java 8 Date and Time classes

Class	Description
LocalDate	A date without a time zone, such as 2007-12-03.
LocalTime	A time without a time zone, such as 10:15:30.
LocalDateTime	A date-time without a time zone, such as 2007-12-03T10:15:30.
ZonedDateTime	A date-time with a time zone, such as 2007-12-03T10:15:30+01:00 Europe/Paris.
Instant	Models a single instantaneous point on the timeline. This might be used to record event timestamps in the application.

To create new date/time instances:

- Use `now` methods on those classes to create new instances that represent the current moment.
- Use `of` methods on those classes to create dates that represent past or future date/time values.

Now

To create instances to represent the current date and time, use the `now` methods that are available on the new classes in the API:

```
import java.time.*  
  
LocalDate.now      // 2019-01-20  
LocalTime.now      // 12:19:26.270  
LocalDateTime.now  // 2019-01-20T12:19:26.270  
Instant.now        // 2019-01-20T19:19:26.270Z  
ZonedDateTime.now  // 2019-01-20T12:44:53.466-0
```

The results of those methods demonstrate the data that's stored in each type.

Past or future

To create dates and times in the past or future, use the `of` factory methods on each of the classes shown. For example,

here are a few ways to create `java.time.LocalDate` instances with its `of` factory methods:

```
val squirrelDay = LocalDate.of(2020, 1, 21)
val squirrelDay = LocalDate.of(2020, Month.JANUARY, 1)
val squirrelDay = LocalDate.of(2020, 1, 1).plusDays(20)
```

Note that with `LocalDate`, January is represented by `1` (not `0`).

`java.time.LocalTime` has five `of*` factory methods, including these:

```
LocalTime.of(hour: Int, minute: Int)
LocalTime.of(hour: Int, minute: Int, second: Int)

LocalTime.of(0, 0)      // 00:00
LocalTime.of(0, 1)      // 00:01
LocalTime.of(1, 1)      // 01:01
LocalTime.of(23, 59)    // 23:59
```

These intentional exceptions help demonstrate the valid values for minutes and hours:

```
LocalTime.of(23, 60)    // DateTimeException: Invalid
```

```
// (valid values 0 - 59): 60  
  
LocalTime.of(24, 1)    // DateTimeException: Invalid value 24 for hour-of-day  
                      // (valid values 0 - 23): 23
```

java.time.LocalDateTime has nine *of** factory method constructors, including these:

```
LocalDateTime.of(year: Int, month: Int, dayOfMonth: Int)  
LocalDateTime.of(year: Int, month: Month, dayOfMonth: Int)  
LocalDateTime.of(date: LocalDate, time: LocalTime)
```

java.time.ZonedDateTime has seven *of** factory method constructors, including these:

```
of(int year, int month, int dayOfMonth, int hour,  
   int nanoOfSecond, ZoneId zone)  
of(LocalDate date, LocalTime time, ZoneId zone)  
of(LocalDateTime localDateTime, ZoneId zone)  
ofInstant(Instant instant, ZoneId zone)
```

Here's an example of the second method:

```
val zdt = ZonedDateTime.of(  
  LocalDate.now(),
```

```
LocalDate.now,  
LocalTime.now,  
ZoneId.of("America/New_York")  
)  
  
// result: 2021-01-01T20:38:57.590542-05:00[America/New_York]
```

While I'm in the neighborhood, a few other
`java.time.ZoneId` values look like this:

```
ZoneId.of("Europe/Paris")           // java.time.ZoneId  
ZoneId.of("Asia/Tokyo")            // java.time.ZoneId  
ZoneId.of("America/New_York")      // java.time.ZoneId  
  
// an offset from UTC (Greenwich) time  
ZoneId.of("UTC+1")                 // java.time.ZoneId
```

`java.time.Instant` has three *of** factory methods:

```
Instant.ofEpochMilli(epochMilli: Long)  
Instant.ofEpochSecond(epochSecond: Long)  
Instant.ofEpochSecond(epochSecond: Long, nanoAdjustment: Long)  
  
Instant.ofEpochMilli(100)           // Instant = 1970-01-01T00:00:00.100Z
```

The `Instant` class is nice for many reasons, including giving you the ability to calculate the time duration between two instants:

```
import java.time.{Instant, Duration}

val start = Instant.now                                // Instant
Thread.sleep(2_000)
val stop = Instant.now                                  // Instant
val delta = Duration.between(start, stop)             // Duration
delta.toMillis                                         // Long
delta.toNanos                                         // Long
```

3.10 Calculating the Difference Between Two Dates

Problem

You need to determine the difference between two dates.

Solution

If you need to determine the number of *days* between two dates, the `DAYS` enum constant of the

`java.time.temporal.ChronoUnit` class is the easiest solution:

```
import java.time.LocalDate
import java.time.temporal.ChronoUnit.DAYS

val now = LocalDate.of(2019, 1, 20)      // 2019-01-20
val xmas = LocalDate.of(2019, 12, 25)     // 2019-12-25

DAYS.between(now, xmas)                  // Long = 354
```

If you need the number of years or months between two dates, you can use the `YEARS` and `MONTHS` enum constants of `ChronoUnit`:

```
import java.time.LocalDate
import java.time.temporal.ChronoUnit.*

val now = LocalDate.of(2019, 1, 20)
val nextXmas = LocalDate.of(2020, 12, 25)

val years: Long = YEARS.between(now, nextXmas)
val months: Long = MONTHS.between(now, nextXmas)
val days: Long = DAYS.between(now, nextXmas)
```

Using the same `LocalDate` values, you can also use the `Period` class, but notice the significant difference in the output between the `ChronoUnit` and `Period` approaches:

```
import java.time.Period

val diff = Period.between(now, nextXmas)      // P1Y1M5D
diff.getYears                                // 1
diff.getMonths                               // 11
diff.getDays                                  // 5
```

Discussion

The `between` method of the `ChronoUnit` class takes two `Temporal` arguments:

```
between(temporal1Inclusive: Temporal, temporal2Exclusive: Temporal)
```

Therefore, it works with all `Temporal` subclasses, including `Instant`, `LocalDate`, `LocalDateTime`, `LocalTime`, `ZonedDateTime`, and more. Here's a `LocalDateTime` example:

```
import java.time.LocalDateTime
```

```
import java.time.temporal.ChronoUnit

// of(year, month, dayOfMonth, hour, minute)
val d1 = LocalDateTime.of(2020, 1, 1, 1, 1)
val d2 = LocalDateTime.of(2063, 4, 5, 1, 1)

ChronoUnit.DAYS.between(d1, d2)          // Long = 15490
ChronoUnit.YEARS.between(d1, d2)         // Long = 43
ChronoUnit.MINUTES.between(d1, d2)       // Long = 2299999
```

The `ChronoUnit` class has many other enum constants, including `CENTURIES`, `DECADES`, `HOURS`, `MICROS`, `MILLIS`, `SECONDS`, `WEEKS`, `YEARS`, and more.

3.11 Formatting Dates

Problem

You need to print dates in a desired format.

Solution

Use the `java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter` class. It provides three types of formatters for printing date/time values:

- Predefined formatters
- Locale formatters
- The ability to create your own custom formatters

Predefined formatters

`DateTimeFormatter` provides 15 predefined formatters you can use. This example shows how to use a formatter with a `LocalDate`:

```
import java.time.LocalDate
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter
val d = LocalDate.now      // 2021-02-04

val f = DateTimeFormatter.BASIC_ISO_DATE
f.format(d)                  // 20210204
```

These examples show what the other date formatters look like:

```
ISO_LOCAL_DATE      // 2021-02-04
ISO_DATE           // 2021-02-04
BASIC_ISO_DATE    // 20210204
ISO_ORDINAL_DATE   // 2021-035
ISO_WEEK_DATE      // 2021-W05-4
```

Locale formatters

Create locale formatters using these static
`DateTimeFormatter` methods:

- `ofLocalizedDate`
- `ofLocalizedTime`
- `ofLocalDateTime`

You also apply one of four `java.time.format.FormatStyle` values when creating a localized date:

- `SHORT`
- `MEDIUM`
- `LONG`
- `FULL`

This example demonstrates how to use `ofLocalizedDate` with a `LocalDate` and `FormatStyle.FULL`:

```
import java.time.LocalDate
import java.time.format.{DateTimeFormatter, FormatStyle}

val d = LocalDate.of(2021, 1, 1)
val f = DateTimeFormatter.ofLocalizedDate(FormatStyle.FULL)
f.format(d)    // Friday, January 1, 2021
```

Using the same technique, this is what the four format styles look like:

```
SHORT      // 1/1/21
MEDIUM     // Jan 1, 2021
LONG       // January 1, 2021
FULL       // Friday, January 1, 2021
```

Custom patterns with `ofPattern`

You can also create custom patterns by specifying your own formatting strings. Here's an example of the technique:

```
import java.time.LocalDate
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter

val d = LocalDate.now    // 2021-01-01
val f = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("yyyy-MM-dd")
f.format(d)              // 2021-01-01
```

Here are a few other common patterns:

```
"MM/dd/yyyy"          // 01/01/2021
"MMM dd, yyyy"        // Jan 01, 2021
"E, MMM dd yyyy"     // Fri, Jan 01 2021
```

This example demonstrates how to format a `LocalTime`:

```
import java.time.LocalTime
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter

val t = LocalTime.now

val f1 = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("h:mm a")
f1.format(t) // 6:48 PM

val f2 = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("HH:mm:ss a")
f2.format(t) // 18:48:33 PM
```

With a `LocalDateTime` you can format both date and time output:

```
import java.time.LocalDateTime
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter

val t = LocalDateTime.now
val f = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("MMM dd, yyyy HH:mm a")
f.format(t) // Jan 01, 2021 6:48 PM
```

See the [DateTimeFormatter](#) class for a complete list of predefined formats and formatting pattern characters that are

available.

3.12 Parsing Strings into Dates

Problem

You need to parse a string into one of the date/time types introduced in Java 8.

Solution

If your string is in the expected format, pass it to the `parse` method of the desired class. If the string is not in the expected (default) format, create a formatter to define the format you want to accept.

LocalDate

This example shows the default format for

```
java.time.LocalDate:
```

```
import java.time.LocalDate  
val d = LocalDate.parse("2020-12-10") // LocalI
```

If you try to pass a string into `parse` with the wrong format, you'll get an exception:

```
val d = LocalDate.parse("2020/12/10") // java.time.format.DateTimeParseException: Text '2020/12/10' could not be parsed: No matching begin offset found for start index 0, substring '2020/12/10'
```

To accept a string in a different format, create a formatter for the desired pattern:

```
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter
val df = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("yyyy/MM/dd")
val d = LocalDate.parse("2020/12/10", df) // LocalDate{2020-12-10}
```

LocalTime

These examples demonstrate the default format for `java.time.LocalTime`:

```
import java.time.LocalTime
val t = LocalTime.parse("01:02") //01:02
val t = LocalTime.parse("13:02:03") //13:02:03
```

Notice that each field requires a leading `0`:

```
val t = LocalTime.parse("1:02") //java.time.format.DateTimeParseException: Text '1:02' could not be parsed: No matching begin offset found for start index 0, substring '1:02'
```

```
val t = LocalTime.parse("1:02:03") //java.time
```

These examples demonstrate several ways of using formatters:

```
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter  
LocalTime.parse("00:00", DateTimeFormatter.ISO_TIME)  
// 00:00  
LocalTime.parse("23:59", DateTimeFormatter.ISO_LOCAL_TIME)  
// 23:59  
LocalTime.parse("23 59 59", DateTimeFormatter.ofLocalizedTime())  
// 23:59:59  
LocalTime.parse("11 59 59 PM", DateTimeFormatter.ofLocalizedTime())  
// 23:59:59
```

LocalDateTime

This example demonstrates the default format for
`java.time.LocalDateTime`:

```
import java.time.LocalDateTime  
val s = "2021-01-01T12:13:14"  
val ldt = LocalDateTime.parse(s) // LocalDateTime
```

These examples demonstrate several ways of using formatters:

```
import java.time.LocalDateTime
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter

val s = "1999-12-31 23:59"
val f = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("yyyy-MM-dd HH:mm")
val ldt = LocalDateTime.parse(s, f)
// 1999-12-31T23:59

val s = "1999-12-31 11:59:59 PM"
val f = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("yyyy-MM-dd HH:mm:ss a")
val ldt = LocalDateTime.parse(s, f)
// 1999-12-31T23:59:59
```

Instant

`java.time.Instant` only has one `parse` method that requires a date/time stamp in the proper format:

```
import java.time.Instant
Instant.parse("1970-01-01T00:01:02.00Z")      // 1970-01-01T00:01:02.00Z
Instant.parse("2021-01-22T23:59:59.00Z")      // 2021-01-22T23:59:59.00Z
```

ZonedDateTime

These examples demonstrate the default formats for

`java.time.ZonedDateTime`:

```
import java.time.ZonedDateTime

ZonedDateTime.parse("2020-12-31T23:59:59-06:00")
    // ZonedDateTime = 2020-12-31T23:59:59-06:00

ZonedDateTime.parse("2020-12-31T23:59:59-00:00[US/Pacific]")
    // ZonedDateTime = 2020-12-31T16:59:59-07:00
```

These examples demonstrate several ways of using formatters

with `ZonedDateTime`:

```
import java.time.ZonedDateTime
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter.*

val zdt = ZonedDateTime.parse("2021-01-01T01:02:03Z")
    // ZonedDateTime = 2021-01-01T01:02:03Z

ZonedDateTime.parse("2020-12-31T23:59:59+01:00",
    // ZonedDateTime = 2020-12-31T23:59:59+01:00

ZonedDateTime.parse("2020-02-29T00:00:00-05:00",
    // ZonedDateTime = 2020-02-29T00:00-05:00
```

```
ZonedDateTime.parse("Sat, 29 Feb 2020 00:01:02 GMT")
    // ZonedDateTime = 2020-02-29T00:01:02Z
```

Be aware that an improper date (or improperly formatted date) will throw an exception:

```
ZonedDateTime.parse("2021-02-29T00:00:00-05:00",
    // java.time.format.DateTimeParseException: Text '2021-02-29T00:00:00-05:00' could not be parsed: Invalid date 'February
    // could not be parsed: Invalid date 'February

ZonedDateTime.parse("Fri, 29 Feb 2020 00:01:02 GMT")
    // java.time.format.DateTimeParseException: Text 'Fri, 29 Feb 2020 00:01:02 GMT' could not be parsed: Field DayOfWeek 6 differs from DayOfWeek 5 of month February
```

Chapter 4. Control Structures

As their name implies, *control structures* provide a way for programmers to control the flow of a program. They're a fundamental feature of programming languages that let you handle decision making and looping tasks.

Prior to learning Scala back in 2010, I thought control structures like `if / then` statements, along with `for` and `while` loops, were relatively boring features of programming languages, but that was only because I didn't know there was another way. These days I know that they're a *defining feature* of programming languages.

Scala's control structures are:

- `for` loops and `for` expressions
- `if / then / else if` expressions
- `match` expressions (pattern matching)
- `try / catch / finally` blocks
- `while` loops

I'll briefly introduce each of these next, and then the recipes will show you additional details about how to use their features.

for Loops and for Expressions

In their most basic use, `for` loops provide a way to iterate over a collection to operate on the collection's elements:

```
for i <- List(1, 2, 3) do println(i)
```

But that's just a basic use case. `for` loops can also have *guards*—embedded `if` statements:

```
for
  i <- 1 to 10
    if i > 3
    if i < 6
do
  println(i)
```

With the use of the `yield` keyword, `for` loops also become `for` expressions—loops that yield a result:

```
val listOfInts = for
  i <- 1 to 10
    if i > 3
    if i < 6
```

```
yield  
    i * 10
```

After that loop runs, `listOfInts` is a `Vector(40, 50)`. The guards inside the loop filter out all of the values except `4` and `5`, and then those values are multiplied by `10` in the `yield` block.

Many more details about `for` loops and expressions are covered in the initial recipes in this chapter.

if/then/else-if Expressions

While `for` loops and expressions let you traverse over a collection, `if / then / else` expressions provide a way to make branching decisions. In Scala 3 the preferred syntax has changed, and now looks like this:

```
val absValue = if a < 0 then -a else a

def compare(a: Int, b: Int): Int =
  if a < b then
    -1
  else if a == b then
    0
```

```
    else
        1
    end compare
```

As shown in both of those examples, an `if` expression truly is an *expression* that returns a value. (Expressions are discussed in [Recipe 4.5.](#))

match Expressions and Pattern Matching

Next, `match` expressions and *pattern matching* are a defining feature of Scala, and demonstrating their capabilities takes up the majority of this chapter. Like `if` expressions, `match` expressions return values, so you can use them as the body of a method. As an example, this method is similar to the Perl programming language's version of things that are `true` and `false`:

```
def isTrue(a: Matchable): Boolean = a match
    case false | 0 | "" => false
    case _ => true
```

In that code, if `isTrue` receives a `0` or an empty string, it returns `false`, otherwise it returns `true`. Ten recipes in this chapter are used to detail the features of `match` expressions.

try/catch/finally Blocks

Next, Scala's `try/catch/finally` blocks are similar to Java, but the syntax is slightly different, primarily in that the `catch` block is consistent with a `match` expression:

```
try
    // some exception-throwing code here
  catch
    case e1: Exception1Type => // handle that exception
    case e2: Exception2Type => // handle that exception
  finally
    // close your resources and do anything else
```

Like `if` and `match`, `try` is an expression that returns a value, so you can write code like this to transform a `String` into an `Int`:

```
def.toInt(s: String): Option[Int] =
  try
```

```
    Some(s.toInt)
  catch
    case e: NumberFormatException => None
```

These examples show how `toInt` works:

```
toInt("1")      // Option[Int] = Some(1)
toInt("Yo")     // Option[Int] = None
```

[Recipe 4.16](#) provides more information about `try / catch` blocks.

while Loops

When it comes to `while` loops, you'll find that they're rarely used in Scala. This is because `while` loops are mostly used for side effects, such as updating mutable variables and printing with `println`, and these are things you can also do with `for` loops and the `foreach` method on collections. That being said, if you ever need to use one, their syntax looks like this:

```
while
  i < 10
do
```

```
    println(i)
    i += 1
```

while loops are briefly covered in [Recipe 4.1](#).

Finally, because of a combination of several Scala features, you can create your own control structures, and these capabilities are discussed in [Recipe 4.17](#).

Control Structures as a Defining Feature of Programming Languages

At the end of 2020 I was fortunate enough to cowrite the *Scala 3 Book* on the official [Scala Documentation website](#), including these three chapters:

- “[Scala for Java Developers](#)”
- “[Scala for JavaScript Developers](#)”
- “[Scala for Python Developers](#)”

When I said earlier that control structures are a “defining feature of programming languages,” one of the things I meant is that after I wrote those chapters, I came to realize the power of the features in this chapter, as well as how *consistent* Scala is

compared to other programming languages. That consistency is one of the features that makes Scala a joy to use.

4.1 Looping over Data Structures with for

Problem

You want to iterate over the elements in a collection in the manner of a traditional `for` loop.

Solution

There are many ways to loop over Scala collections, including `for` loops, `while` loops, and collection methods like `foreach`, `map`, `flatMap`, and more. This solution focuses primarily on the `for` loop.

Given a simple list:

```
val fruits = List("apple", "banana", "orange")
```

you can loop over the elements in the list and print them like this:

```
scala> for f <- fruits do println(f)
apple
banana
orange
```

That same approach works for all sequences, including `List`, `Seq`, `Vector`, `Array`, `ArrayBuffer`, etc.

When your algorithm requires multiple lines, use the same `for` loop syntax, and perform your work in a block inside curly braces:

```
scala> for f <- fruits do
|      // imagine this requires multiple lines
|      val s = f.toUpperCase
|      println(s)
APPLE
BANANA
ORANGE
```

for loop counters

If you need access to a counter inside a `for` loop, use one of the following approaches. First, you can access the elements in a sequence with a counter like this:

```
for i <- 0 until fruits.length do
  println(s"$i is ${fruits(i)}")
```

That loops yields this output:

```
0 is apple
1 is banana
2 is orange
```

You rarely need to access sequence elements by their index, but when you do, that is one possible approach. Scala collections also offer a `zipWithIndex` method that you can use to create a loop counter:

```
for (fruit, index) <- fruits.zipWithIndex do
  println(s"$index is $fruit")
```

Its output is:

```
0 is apple
1 is banana
```

```
2 is orange
```

Generators

On a related note, the following example shows how to use a `Range` to execute a loop three times:

```
scala> for i <- 1 to 3 do println(i)
1
2
3
```

The `1 to 3` portion of the loop creates a `Range`, as shown in the REPL:

```
scala> 1 to 3
res0: scala.collection.immutable.Range.Inclusive
```

Using a `Range` like this is known as using a *generator*. [Recipe 4.2](#) demonstrates how to use this technique to create multiple loop counters.

Looping over a Map

When iterating over keys and values in a `Map`, I find this to be the most concise and readable `for` loop:

```
val names = Map(  
    "firstName" -> "Robert",  
    "lastName" -> "Goren"  
)  
  
for (k,v) <- names do println(s"key: $k, value: $v")
```

The REPL shows its output:

```
scala> for (k,v) <- names do println(s"key: $k, value: $v")  
key: firstName, value: Robert  
key: lastName, value: Goren
```

Discussion

Because I've switched to a functional programming style, I haven't used a `while` loop in several years, but the REPL demonstrates how it works:

```
scala> var i = 0  
i: Int = 0
```

```
scala> while i < 3 do
|     println(i)
|     i += 1
0
1
2
```

`while` loops are generally used for side effects, such as updating a mutable variable like `i` and writing output to the outside world. As my code gets closer to pure functional programming—where there is no mutable state—I haven't had any need for them.

That being said, when you're programming in an object-oriented programming style, `while` loops are still frequently used, and that example demonstrates their syntax. A `while` loop can also be written on multiple lines like this:

```
while
  i < 10
do
  println(i)
  i += 1
```

Collection methods like `foreach`

In some ways Scala reminds me of the Perl slogan, “There’s more than one way to do it,” and iterating over a collection provides some great examples of this. With the wealth of methods that are available on collections, it’s important to note that a `for` loop may not even be the best approach to a particular problem; the methods `foreach`, `map`, `flatMap`, `collect`, `reduce`, etc., can often be used to solve your problem without requiring an explicit `for` loop.

For example, when you’re working with a collection, you can also iterate over each element by calling the `foreach` method on the collection:

```
scala> fruits.foreach(println)
apple
banana
orange
```

When you have an algorithm you want to run on each element in the collection, just pass the anonymous function into `foreach`:

```
scala> fruits.foreach(e => println(e.toUpperCase))
APPLE
BANANA
ORANGE
```

As with the `for` loop, if your algorithm requires multiple lines, perform your work in a block:

```
scala> fruits.foreach { e =>
|     val s = e.toUpperCase
|     println(s)
| }
```

APPLE
BANANA
ORANGE

See Also

- For more examples of how to use `zipWithIndex`, see [Recipe 13.4, “Using zipWithIndex or zip to Create Loop Counters”](#).
- For more examples of how to iterate over the elements in a `Map`, see [Recipe 14.9, “Traversing a Map”](#).

The theory behind how `for` loops work is very interesting, and knowing it can be helpful as you progress. I wrote about it at length in these articles:

- [“How to Make a Custom Sequence Work as a for Loop Generator”](#)
- [“How to Enable Filtering in a for Expression”](#)
- [“How to Enable the Use of Multiple Generators in a for Expression”](#)

4.2 Using for Loops with Multiple Counters

Problem

You want to create a loop with multiple counters, such as when iterating over a multidimensional array.

Solution

You can create a `for` loop with two counters like this:

```
scala> for i <- 1 to 2; j <- 1 to 2 do println(s'i = $i, j = $j')
i = 1, j = 1
i = 1, j = 2
i = 2, j = 1
i = 2, j = 2
```

Notice that it sets `i` to `1`, loops through the elements in `j`, then sets `i` to `2` and repeats the process.

Using that approach works well with small examples, but when your code gets larger, this is the preferred style:

```
for
    i <- 1 to 3
    j <- 1 to 5
    k <- 1 to 10 by 2
do
    println(s"i = $i, j = $j, k = $k")
```

This approach is useful when looping over a multidimensional array. Assuming you create and populate a small two-dimensional array like this:

```
val a = Array.ofDim[Int](2,2)
a(0)(0) = 0
a(0)(1) = 1
a(1)(0) = 2
a(1)(1) = 3
```

you can print every array element like this:

```
scala> for
|     i <- 0 to 1
|     j <- 0 to 1
|   do
|     println(s"(i) ($j) = ${a(i)(j)}")
(0) (0) = 0
(0) (1) = 1
(1) (0) = 2
(1) (1) = 3
```

Discussion

As shown in [Recipe 15.2, “Creating Ranges”](#), the `1 to 5` syntax creates a `Range`:

```
scala> 1 to 5
val res0: scala.collection.immutable.Range.Inclus
```

Ranges are great for many purposes, and ranges created with the `<-` symbol in `for` loops are referred to as *generators*. As shown, you can easily use multiple generators in one loop.

See Also

- [The Scala style guide on formatting control structures](#)

4.3 Using a for Loop with Embedded if Statements (Guards)

Problem

You want to add one or more conditional clauses to a `for` loop, typically to filter out some elements in a collection while working on the others.

Solution

Add one or more `if` statements after your generator, like this:

```
for
    i <- 1 to 10
        if i % 2 == 0
            do
                print(s"$i ")
// output: 2 4 6 8 10
```

These `if` statements are referred to as filters, filter expressions, or *guards*, and you can use as many guards as

needed for the problem at hand. This loop shows a hard way to print the number 4 :

```
for
  i <- 1 to 10
    if i > 3
    if i < 6
      if i % 2 == 0
do
  println(i)
```

Discussion

It's still possible to write `for` loops with `if` expressions in an older style. For instance, given this code:

```
import java.io.File
val dir = File(".")
val files: Array[java.io.File] = dir.listFiles()
```

you could, in theory, write a `for` loop in a style like this, which is reminiscent of C and Java:

```
// a C/Java style of writing a 'for' loop
for (file <- files) {
  if (file.getName() == "four")
```

```
    if (file.isFile && file.getName.endsWith(".scala"))
      println(s"Scala file: $file")
  }
}
```

However, once you become comfortable with Scala's `for` loop syntax, I think you'll find that it makes the code more readable, because it separates the looping and filtering concerns from the business logic:

```
for
  // loop and filter
  file <- files
  if file.isFile
    if file.getName.endsWith(".scala")
do
  // as much business logic here as needed
  println(s"Scala file: $file")
```

Note that because guards are generally intended to filter collections, you may want to use one of the many filtering methods that are available to collections—`filter`, `take`, `drop`, etc.—instead of a `for` loop, depending on your needs. See [Chapter 11](#) for examples of those methods.

4.4 Creating a New Collection from an Existing Collection with for/yield

Problem

You want to create a new collection from an existing collection by applying an algorithm (and potentially one or more guards) to each element in the original collection.

Solution

Use a `yield` statement with a `for` loop to create a new collection from an existing collection. For instance, given an array of lowercase strings:

```
scala> val names = List("chris", "ed", "maurice")
val names: List[String] = List(chris, ed, maurice)
```

you can create a new array of capitalized strings by combining `yield` with a `for` loop and a simple algorithm:

```
scala> val capNames = for name <- names yield name.capitalize
val capNames: List[String] = List(Chris, Ed, Maurice)
```

Using a `for` loop with a `yield` statement is known as a *for-comprehension*.

If your algorithm requires multiple lines of code, perform the work in a block after the `yield` keyword, manually specifying the type of the resulting variable, or not:

```
// [1] declare the type of `lengths`  
val lengths: List[Int] = for name <- names yield  
    // imagine that this body requires multiple :  
    name.length  
  
// [2] don't declare the type of `lengths`  
val lengths = for name <- names yield  
    // imagine that this body requires multiple :  
    name.length
```

Both approaches yield the same result:

```
List[Int] = List(5, 2, 7)
```

Both parts of your `for` comprehension (also known as a `for` expression) can be as complicated as necessary. Here's a larger example:

```
val xs = List(1,2,3)
val ys = List(4,5,6)
val zs = List(7,8,9)

val a = for
  x <- xs
  if x > 2
  y <- ys
  z <- zs
  if y * z < 45
yield
  val b = x + y
  val c = b * z
  c
```

That `for` comprehension yields the following result:

```
a: List[Int] = List(49, 56, 63, 56, 64, 63)
```

A `for` comprehension can even be the complete body of a method:

```
def between3and10(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] =
  for
    x <- xs
    if x >= 3
```

```
    if x <= 10
        yield x

between3and10(List(1, 3, 7, 11)) // List(3, 7)
```

Discussion

If you're new to using `yield` with a `for` loop, it can help to think of the loop like this:

1. When it begins running, the `for/yield` loop immediately creates a new empty collection that is of the same type as the input collection. For example, if the input type is a `Vector`, the output type will also be a `Vector`. You can think of this new collection as being like an empty bucket.
2. On each iteration of the `for` loop, a new output element may be created from the current element of the input collection. When the output element is created, it's placed in the bucket.
3. When the loop finishes running, the entire contents of the bucket are returned.

That's a simplification, but I find it helpful when explaining the process.

Note that writing a `for` expression without a guard is just like calling the `map` method on a collection.

For instance, the following `for` comprehension converts all the strings in the `fruits` collection to uppercase:

```
scala> val namesUpper = for n <- names yield n.toUpperCase
val namesUpper: List[String] = List(CHRIS, ED, MARY)
```

Calling the `map` method on the collection does the same thing:

```
scala> val namesUpper = names.map(_.toUpperCase)
val namesUpper: List[String] = List(CHRIS, ED, MARY)
```

When I first started learning Scala, I wrote all of my code using `for / yield` expressions, until one day I realized that using `for / yield` without a guard was the same as using `map`.

See Also

- Comparisons between `for` comprehensions and `map` are shown in more detail in [Recipe 13.5, “Transforming One Collection to Another with map”](#).

4.5 Using the if Construct Like a Ternary Operator

Problem

You're familiar with Java's special *ternary operator* syntax:

```
int absValue = (a < 0) ? -a : a;
```

and you'd like to know what the Scala equivalent is.

Solution

This is a bit of a trick problem, because unlike Java, in Scala there is no special ternary operator; just use an `if/else/then` expression:

```
val a = 1
val absValue = if a < 0 then -a else a
```

Because an `if` expression returns a value, you can embed it into a print statement:

```
println(if a == 0 then "a" else "b")
```

You can also use it in another expression, such as this portion of a `hashCode` method:

```
hash = hash * prime + (if name == null then 0 else
```

The fact that if/else expressions return a value also lets you write concise methods:

```
// Version 1: one-line style
def abs(x: Int) = if x >= 0 then x else -x
def max(a: Int, b: Int) = if a > b then a else b

// Version 2: the method body on a separate line,
def abs(x: Int) =
    if x >= 0 then x else -x

def max(a: Int, b: Int) =
    if a > b then a else b
```

Discussion

The [“Equality, Relational, and Conditional Operators” Java documentation page](#) states that the Java conditional operator

`? :` “is known as the *ternary operator* because it uses three operands.”

Java requires a separate syntax here because the Java `if / else` construct is a *statement*; it doesn’t have a return value, and is only used for side effects, such as updating mutable fields. Conversely, because Scala’s `if / else / then` truly is an expression, a special operator isn’t needed. See [Recipe 24.3, “Writing Expressions \(Instead of Statements\)”](#), for more details on statements and expressions.

ARITY

The word *ternary* has to do with the *arity* of functions. Wikipedia’s [“Arity” page](#) states, “In logic, mathematics, and computer science, the arity of a function or operation is the number of arguments or operands that the function takes.” A *unary* operator takes one operand, a *binary* operator takes two operands, and a *ternary* operator takes three operands.

4.6 Using a Match Expression Like a switch Statement

Problem

You have a situation where you want to create something like a simple Java integer-based `switch` statement, such as matching the days in a week, the months in a year, and other situations where an integer maps to a result.

Solution

To use a Scala `match` expression like a simple, integer-based `switch` statement, use this approach:

```
import scala.annotation.switch

// `i` is an integer
(i: @switch) match
  case 0 => println("Sunday")
  case 1 => println("Monday")
  case 2 => println("Tuesday")
  case 3 => println("Wednesday")
  case 4 => println("Thursday")
  case 5 => println("Friday")
  case 6 => println("Saturday")

// catch the default with a variable so you can
// see what happened
case whoa => println(s"Unexpected case: ${whoa}")
```

That example shows how to produce a side-effect action (`println`) based on a match. A more functional approach is to return a value from a `match` expression:

```
import scala.annotation.switch

// `i` is an integer
val day = (i: @switch) match
  case 0 => "Sunday"
  case 1 => "Monday"
  case 2 => "Tuesday"
  case 3 => "Wednesday"
  case 4 => "Thursday"
  case 5 => "Friday"
  case 6 => "Saturday"
  case _ => "invalid day" // the default, catch-all
```

The `@switch` annotation

When writing simple `match` expressions like this, it's recommended to use the `@switch` annotation, as shown. This annotation provides a warning at compile time if the switch can't be compiled to a `tableswitch` or `lookupswitch`. Compiling your match expression to a `tableswitch` or `lookupswitch` is better for performance because it results in a branch table rather than a decision tree. When a value is given

to the expression, it can jump directly to the result rather than working through the decision tree.

The Scala `@switch` annotation documentation states:

If [this annotation is] present, the compiler will verify that the match has been compiled to a tableswitch or lookupswitch, and issue an error if it instead compiles into a series of conditional expressions

The effect of the `@switch` annotation is demonstrated with a simple example. First, place the following code in a file named *SwitchDemo.scala*:

```
// Version 1 - compiles to a tableswitch
import scala.annotation.switch

class SwitchDemo:
    val i = 1
    val x = (i: @switch) match
        case 1 => "One"
        case 2 => "Two"
        case 3 => "Three"
        case _ => "Other"
```

Then compile the code as usual:

```
$ scalac SwitchDemo.scala
```

Compiling this class produces no warnings and creates the *SwitchDemo.class* output file. Next, disassemble that file with this `javap` command:

```
$ javap -c SwitchDemo
```

The output from this command shows a `tableswitch`, like this:

```
16: tableswitch    { // 1 to 3
    1: 44
    2: 52
    3: 60
    default: 68
}
```

This shows that Scala was able to optimize your `match` expression to a `tableswitch`. (This is a good thing.)

Next, make a minor change to the code, replacing the integer literal `1` with a value:

```
import scala.annotation.switch
```

```
// Version 2 - leads to a compiler warning
class SwitchDemo:
    val i = 1
    val one = 1 // added
    val x = (i: @switch) match
        case one => "One" // replaced the '1'
        case 2 => "Two"
        case 3 => "Three"
        case _ => "Other"
```

Again, compile the code with `scalac`, but right away you'll see a warning message:

```
$ scalac SwitchDemo.scala
SwitchDemo.scala:7: warning: could not emit switch
  val x = (i: @switch) match {
                           ^
one warning found
```

This warning message means that neither a `tableswitch` nor a `lookupswitch` could be generated for the `match` expression. You can confirm this by running the `javap` command on the `SwitchDemo.class` file that was generated.

When you look at that output, you'll see that the `tableswitch` shown in the previous example is now gone.

In his book, *Scala in Depth* (Manning), Joshua Suereth states that the following conditions must be true for Scala to apply the `tableswitch` optimization:

- The matched value must be a known integer.
- The matched expression must be “simple.” It can’t contain any type checks, `if` statements, or extractors.
- The expression must have its value available at compile time.
- There should be more than two `case` statements.

Discussion

The examples in the Solution showed the two ways you can handle the default “catch all” case. First, if you’re not concerned about the *value* of the default match, you can catch it with the `_` wildcard:

```
case _ => println("Got a default match")
```

Conversely, if you are interested in what fell down to the default match, assign a variable name to it. You can then use

that variable on the right side of the expression:

```
case default => println(default)
```

Using a name like `default` often makes the most sense, but you can use any legal name for the variable:

```
case oops => println(oops)
```

It's important to know that you can generate a `MatchError` if you don't handle the default case. Given this `match` expression:

```
i match
  case 0 => println("0 received")
  case 1 => println("1 is good, too")
```

if `i` is a value other than `0` or `1`, the expression throws a `MatchError`:

```
scala.MatchError: 42 (of class java.lang.Integer)
  at .<init>(<console>:9)
  at .<clinit>(<console>)
    much more error output here ...
```

So unless you're intentionally writing a partial function, you'll want to handle the default case.

Do you really need a match expression?

Note that you may not need a match expression for examples like this. For instance, any time you're just mapping one value to another, it may be preferable to use a `Map`:

```
val days = Map(  
    0 -> "Sunday",  
    1 -> "Monday",  
    2 -> "Tuesday",  
    3 -> "Wednesday",  
    4 -> "Thursday",  
    5 -> "Friday",  
    6 -> "Saturday"  
)  
  
println(days(0)) // prints "Sunday"
```

See Also

- For more information on how JVM switches work, see the [JVM spec on compiling switches](#).

- Regarding the difference between a `lookupsswitch` and `tableswitch`, [this Stack Overflow page](#) states, “The difference is that a lookupsswitch uses a table with keys and labels, yet a tableswitch uses a table with labels only.” Again, see [the “Compiling Switches” section of the Java Virtual Machine \(JVM\) specification](#) for more details.
- See [Recipe 10.7, “Creating Partial Functions”](#), for more information on partial functions.

4.7 Matching Multiple Conditions with One Case Statement

Problem

You have a situation where several `match` conditions require that the same business logic be executed, and rather than repeating your business logic for each case, you’d like to use one copy of the business logic for the matching conditions.

Solution

Place the match conditions that invoke the same business logic on one line, separated by the `|` (pipe) character:

```
// `i` is an Int
i match
  case 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 => println("odd")
  case 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 => println("even")
  case _ => println("too big")
```

This same syntax works with strings and other types. Here's an example based on a `String` match:

```
val cmd = "stop"
cmd match
  case "start" | "go" => println("starting")
  case "stop" | "quit" | "exit" => println("stopping")
  case _ => println("doing nothing")
```

This example shows how to match multiple objects on each `case` statement:

```
enum Command:
  case Start, Go, Stop, Whoa

import Command._

def executeCommand(cmd: Command): Unit = cmd match
  case Start | Go => println("start")
  case Stop | Whoa => println("stop")
```

As demonstrated, the ability to define multiple possible matches for each `case` statement can simplify your code.

See Also

- See [Recipe 4.12](#) for a related approach.

4.8 Assigning the Result of a Match Expression to a Variable

Problem

You want to return a value from a `match` expression and assign it to a variable, or use a `match` expression as the body of a method.

Solution

To assign the result of a `match` expression to a variable, insert the variable assignment before the expression, as with the variable `evenOrOdd` in this example:

```
val someNumber = scala.util.Random.nextInt()
val evenOrOdd = someNumber match
    case 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 => "odd"
    case 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 => "even"
    case _ => "other"
```

This approach is commonly used to create short methods or functions. For example, the following method implements the Perl definitions of `true` and `false`:

```
def isTrue(a: Matchable): Boolean = a match
    case false | 0 | "" => false
    case _ => true
```

Discussion

You may hear that Scala is an *expression-oriented programming* (EOP) language. EOP means that every construct is an expression, yields a value, and doesn't have a side effect. Unlike other languages, in Scala every construct like `if`, `match`, `for`, and `try` returns a value. See [Recipe 24.3, “Writing Expressions \(Instead of Statements\)”](#), for more details.

4.9 Accessing the Value of the Default Case in a Match Expression

Problem

You want to access the value of the default “catch all” case when using a match expression, but you can’t access the value when you match it with the `_` wildcard syntax.

Solution

Instead of using the `_` wildcard character, assign a variable name to the default case:

```
i match
  case 0 => println("1")
  case 1 => println("2")
  case default => println(s"You gave me: $defau
```

By giving the default match a variable name, you can access the variable on the right side of the expression.

Discussion

The key to this recipe is in using a variable name for the default match instead of the usual `_` wildcard character. The name you assign can be any legal variable name, so instead of naming it `default`, you can name it something else, such as `what`:

```
i match
  case 0 => println("1")
  case 1 => println("2")
  case what => println(s"You gave me: $what")
```

It's important to provide a default match. Failure to do so can cause a `MatchError`:

```
scala> 3 match
|   case 1 => println("one")
|   case 2 => println("two")
|   // no default match
scala.MatchError: 3 (of class java.lang.Integer)
many more lines of output ...
```

See the Discussion of [Recipe 4.6](#) for more `MatchError` details.

4.10 Using Pattern Matching in Match Expressions

Problem

You need to match one or more patterns in a `match` expression, and the pattern may be a constant pattern, variable pattern, constructor pattern, sequence pattern, tuple pattern, or type pattern.

Solution

Define a `case` statement for each pattern you want to match. The following method shows examples of many different types of patterns you can use in `match` expressions:

```
def test(x: Matchable): String = x match

    // constant patterns
    case 0 => "zero"
    case true => "true"
    case "hello" => "you said 'hello!''"
    case Nil => "an empty List"

    // sequence patterns
```

```

case List(0, _, _) => "a 3-element list with
case List(1, _*) => "list, starts with 1, has

// tuples
case (a, b) => s"got $a and $b"
case (a, b, c) => s"got $a, $b, and $c"

// constructor patterns
case Person(first, "Alexander") => s"Alexander"
case Dog("Zeus") => "found a dog named Zeus"

// typed patterns
case s: String => s"got a string: $s"
case i: Int => s"got an int: $i"
case f: Float => s"got a float: $f"
case a: Array[Int] => s"array of int: ${a.mkString(",")}"
case as: Array[String] => s"string array: ${as.mkString(",")}"
case d: Dog => s"dog: ${d.name}"
case list: List[_] => s"got a List: $list"
case m: Map[_,_] => m.toString

// the default wildcard pattern
case _ => "Unknown"

end test

```

The large `match` expression in this method shows the different categories of patterns described in the book *Programming in Scala*, including constant patterns, sequence patterns, tuple patterns, constructor patterns, and typed patterns.

The following code demonstrates all of the cases in the `match` expression, with the output of each expression shown in the comments. Note that the `println` method is renamed on import to make the examples more concise:

```
import System.out.{println => p}

case class Person(firstName: String, lastName: String)
case class Dog(name: String)

// trigger the constant patterns
p(test(0))                                // zero
p(test(true))                               // true
p(test("hello"))                            // you said 'hello'
p(test(Nil))                                // an empty List

// trigger the sequence patterns
p(test(List(0,1,2)))                      // a 3-element list with
p(test(List(1,2)))                          // list, starts with 1,
p(test(List(1,2,3)))                      // list, starts with 1,
p(test(Vector(1,2,3)))                     // vector, starts w/ 1,
```

```

// trigger the tuple patterns
p(test((1,2)))                                // got
p(test((1,2,3)))                                // got

// trigger the constructor patterns
p(test(Person("Melissa", "Alexander")))        // Alex
p(test(Dog("Zeus")))                            // four

// trigger the typed patterns
p(test("Hello, world"))                         // got
p(test(42))                                    // got
p(test(42F))                                   // got
p(test(Array(1,2,3)))                          // arra
p(test(Array("coffee", "apple pie")))          // str
p(test(Dog("Fido")))                           // dog
p(test(List("apple", "banana")))               // got
p(test(Map(1->"Al", 2->"Alexander")))     // Map

// trigger the wildcard pattern
p(test("33d"))                                 // you

```

Note that in the `match` expression, the `List` and `Map` expressions that were written like this:

```

case m: Map[_,_] => m.toString
case list: List[_] => s"thanks for the List: $list"

```

could have been written as this instead:

```
case m: Map[A, B] => m.toString
case list: List[X] => s"thanks for the List: $list"
```

I prefer the underscore syntax because it makes it clear that I'm not concerned about what's stored in the `List` or `Map`.

Actually, there are times that I might be interested in what's stored in the `List` or `Map`, but because of type erasure in the JVM, that becomes a difficult problem.

TYPE ERASURE

When I first wrote this example, I wrote the `List` expression as follows:

```
case l: List[Int] => "List"
```

If you're familiar with *type erasure* on the Java platform, you may know that this won't work. The Scala compiler kindly lets you know about this problem with this warning message:

```
Test1.scala:7: warning: non-variable type argument Int in
type pattern List[Int] is unchecked since it is eliminated
by erasure case l: List[Int] => "List[Int]"
^
```

If you're not familiar with type erasure, I've included a link in the See Also section of this recipe to a page that describes how it works on the JVM.

Discussion

Typically, when using this technique, your method will expect an instance that inherits from a base class or trait, and then your `case` statements will reference subtypes of that base type. This was inferred in the `test` method, where every Scala type is a subtype of `Matchable`. The following code shows a more obvious example.

In my [Blue Parrot application](#), which either plays a sound file or “speaks” the text it’s given at random time intervals, I have a method that looks like this:

```
import java.io.File

sealed trait RandomThing

case class RandomFile(f: File) extends RandomThing
case class RandomString(s: String) extends RandomThing

class RandomNoiseMaker:

    def makeRandomNoise(thing: RandomThing) = thing match {
        case RandomFile(f) => playSoundFile(f)
        case RandomString(s) => speakText(s)
```

The `makeRandomNoise` method is declared to take a `RandomThing` type, and then the `match` expression handles its two subtypes, `RandomFile` and `RandomString`.

Patterns

The large `match` expression in the Solution shows a variety of patterns that are defined in the book *Programming in Scala* (which was cowritten by Martin Odersky, the creator of the Scala language). The patterns include:

- Constant patterns
- Variable patterns
- Constructor patterns
- Sequence patterns
- Tuple patterns
- Typed patterns
- Variable-binding patterns

These patterns are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

Constant patterns

A constant pattern can only match itself. Any literal may be used as a constant. If you specify a `0` as the literal, only an `Int` value of `0` will be matched. Examples include:

```
case 0 => "zero"
case true => "true"
```

Variable patterns

This was not shown in the large match example in the Solution, but a *variable pattern* matches any object, just like the `_` wildcard character. Scala binds the variable to whatever the object is, which lets you use the variable on

the right side of the `case` statement. For example, at the end of a `match` expression you can use the `_` wildcard character like this to catch anything else:

```
case _ => s" Hmm, you gave me something ... "
```

But with a variable pattern you can write this instead:

```
case foo => s" Hmm, you gave me a $foo "
```

See [Recipe 4.9](#) for more information.

Constructor patterns

The *constructor pattern* lets you match a constructor in a `case` statement. As shown in the examples, you can specify constants or variable patterns as needed in the constructor pattern:

```
case Person(first, "Alexander") => s"found a  
case Dog("Zeus") => "found a dog named Zeus"
```

Sequence patterns

You can match against sequences like `List`, `Array`, `Vector`, etc. Use the `_` character to stand for one

element in the sequence, and use `_*` to stand for zero or more elements, as shown in the examples:

```
case List(0, _, _) => "a 3-element list with  
case List(1, _*) => "list, starts with 1, ha  
case Vector(1, _*) => "vector, starts with 1
```

Tuple patterns

As shown in the examples, you can match *tuple patterns* and access the value of each element in the tuple. You can also use the `_` wildcard if you're not interested in the value of an element:

```
case (a, b, c) => s"3-elem tuple, with value  
case (a, b, c, _) => s"4-elem tuple: got $a,
```

Typed patterns

In the following example, `str: String` is a *typed pattern*, and `str` is a *pattern variable*:

```
case str: String => s"you gave me this strin
```

As shown in the examples, you can access the pattern variable on the right side of the expression after declaring it.

Variable-binding patterns

At times you may want to add a variable to a pattern. You can do this with the following general syntax:

```
case variableName @ pattern => ...
```

This is called a *variable-binding* pattern. When it's used, the input variable to the `match` expression is compared to the pattern, and if it matches, the input variable is bound to `variableName`.

The usefulness of this is best shown by demonstrating the problem it solves. Suppose you had the `List` pattern that was shown earlier:

```
case List(1, _) * => "a list beginning with 1
```

As demonstrated, this lets you match a `List` whose first element is `1`, but so far, the `List` hasn't been accessed

on the right side of the expression. When accessing a `List`, you know that you can do this:

```
case list: List[_] => s"thanks for the List:"
```

so it seems like you should try this with a sequence pattern:

```
case list: List(1, _*) => s"thanks for the L
```

Unfortunately, this fails with the following compiler error:

```
Test2.scala:22: error: '>' expected but '('  
      case list: List(1, _*) => s"thanks for t  
                           ^  
one error found
```

The solution to this problem is to add a variable-binding pattern to the sequence pattern:

```
case list @ List(1, _*) => s"$list"
```

This code compiles, and works as expected, giving you access to the `List` on the right side of the statement.

The following code demonstrates this example and the usefulness of this approach:

```
case class Person(firstName: String, lastName: String)

def matchType(x: Matchable): String = x match
    //case x: List[_, _] => s"$x"      // does not compile
    case x @ List(1, _) => s"$x"       // prints 1
    case x @ List(_, 1) => s"$x"       // prints 1
    case x @ List(_, _) => s"$x"       // prints nothing

    //case Some(_) => "got a Some"      // works
    //case Some(x) => s"$x"             // returns Some(x)
    case x @ Some(_) => s"$x"         // returns Some(x)

    case p @ Person(first, "Doe") => s"$p" />
end matchType

@main def test2 =
    println(matchType(List(1, 2, 3)))
    println(matchType(Some("foo")))
    println(matchType(Person("John", "Doe")))
```

In the two `List` examples inside the `match` expression, the commented-out line of code won't compile, but the

second line shows how to match the desired `List` object and then bind that list to the variable `x`. When this line of code matches a list like `List(1, 2, 3)`, it results in the output `List(1, 2, 3)`, as shown in the output of the first `println` statement.

The first `Some` example shows that you can match a `Some` with the approach shown, but you can't access its information on the right side of the expression. The second example shows how you can access the value inside the `Some`, and the third example takes this a step further, giving you access to the `Some` object itself. When it's matched by the second `println` call, it prints `Some(foo)`, demonstrating that you now have access to the `Some` object.

Finally, this approach is used to match a `Person` whose last name is `Doe`. This syntax lets you assign the result of the pattern match to the variable `p`, and then access that variable on the right side of the expression.

Using Some and None in match expressions

To round out these examples, you'll often use `Some` and `None` with `match` expressions. For instance, when you attempt to

create a number from a string with a method like `toIntOption`, you can handle the result in a `match` expression:

```
val s = "42"

// later in the code ...
s.toIntOption match
  case Some(i) => println(i)
  case None => println("That wasn't an Int")
```

Inside the `match` expression you just specify the `Some` and `None` cases as shown to handle the success and failure conditions. See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for more examples of using `Option`, `Some`, and `None`.

See Also

- A discussion of getting around type erasure when using `match` expressions on [Stack Overflow](#)
- [My Blue Parrot application](#)
- [The type erasure documentation](#)

4.11 Using Enums and Case Classes in match Expressions

Problem

You want to match enums, case classes, or case objects in a `match` expression.

Solution

The following example demonstrates how to use patterns to match enums in different ways, depending on what information you need on the right side of each `case` statement.

First, here's an `enum` named `Animal` that has three instances, `Dog`, `Cat`, and `Woodpecker`:

```
enum Animal:  
    case Dog(name: String)  
    case Cat(name: String)  
    case Woodpecker
```

Given that `enum`, this `getInfo` method shows the different ways you can match the `enum` types in a `match` expression:

```
import Animal.*\n\ndef getInfo(a: Animal): String = a match\n    case Dog(moniker) => s"Got a Dog, name = $moniker"\n    case _: Cat          => "Got a Cat (ignoring the name)"\n    case Woodpecker      => "That was a Woodpecker"
```

These examples show how `getInfo` works when given a `Dog`, `Cat`, and `Woodpecker`:

```
println(getInfo(Dog("Fido")))           // Got a Dog, name = Fido\nprintln(getInfo(Cat("Morris")))         // Got a Cat (ignoring the name)\nprintln(getInfo(Woodpecker))           // That was a Woodpecker
```

In `getInfo`, if the `Dog` class is matched, its name is extracted and used to create the string on the right side of the expression. To show that the variable name used when extracting the name can be any legal variable name, I use the name `moniker`.

When matching a `Cat` I want to ignore the name, so I use the syntax shown to match any `Cat` instance. Because `Woodpecker` isn't created with a parameter, it's also matched as shown.

Discussion

In Scala 2, sealed traits were used with case classes and case objects to achieve the same effect as the `enum`:

```
sealed trait Animal
case class Dog(name: String) extends Animal
case class Cat(name: String) extends Animal
case object Woodpecker extends Animal
```

As described in [Recipe 6.12, “How to Create Sets of Named Values with Enums”](#), an `enum` is a shortcut for defining (a) a sealed class or trait along with (b) values defined as members of the class’s companion object. Both approaches can be used in the `match` expression in `getInfo` because case classes have a built-in `unapply` method, which lets them work in `match` expressions. I describe how this works in [Recipe 7.8, “Implementing Pattern Matching with unapply”](#).

4.12 Adding if Expressions (Guards) to Case Statements

Problem

You want to add qualifying logic to a `case` statement in a `match` expression, such as allowing a range of numbers or matching a pattern, but only if that pattern matches some additional criteria.

Solution

Add an `if` guard to your `case` statement. Use it to match a range of numbers:

```
i match
  case a if 0 to 9 contains a => println("0-9")
  case b if 10 to 19 contains b => println("10-19")
  case c if 20 to 29 contains c => println("20-29")
  case _ => println("Hmmm...")
```

Use it to match different values of an object:

```
i match
  case x if x == 1 => println("one, a lonely number")
  case x if (x == 2 || x == 3) => println(x)
  case _ => println("some other value")
```

As long as your class has an `unapply` method, you can reference class fields in your `if` guards. For instance, because a case class has an automatically generated `unapply` method, given this `Stock` class and instance:

```
case class Stock(symbol: String, price: BigDecimal)
val stock = Stock("AAPL", BigDecimal(132.50))
```

you can use pattern matching and guard conditions with the class fields:

```
stock match
  case s if s.symbol == "AAPL" && s.price < 140 =>
  case s if s.symbol == "AAPL" && s.price > 160 =>
  case _ => // do nothing
```

You can also extract fields from `case` classes—and classes that have properly implemented `unapply` methods—and use those in your guard conditions. For example, the `case` statements in this `match` expression:

```
// extract the 'name' in the 'case' and then use
def speak(p: Person): Unit = p match
  case Person(name) if name == "Fred" =>
    println("Yabba dabba doo")
```

```
case Person(name) if name == "Bam Bam" =>
    println("Bam bam!")
case _ =>
    println("Watch the Flintstones!")
```

will work if `Person` is defined as a case class:

```
case class Person(aName: String)
```

or as a class with a properly implemented `unapply` method:

```
class Person(val aName: String)
object Person:
    // 'unapply' deconstructs a Person. it's also
    // extractor, and Person is an "extractor ob-
    def unapply(p: Person): Option[String] = Some(p.aName)
```

See [Recipe 7.8, “Implementing Pattern Matching with unapply”](#),
for more details on how to write `unapply` methods.

Discussion

You can use `if` expressions like this whenever you want to add boolean tests to the left side of `case` statements (i.e., before the

```
=> symbol).
```

Note that all of these examples could be written by putting the `if` tests on the right side of the expressions, like this:

```
case Person(name) =>
  if name == "Fred" then println("Yabba dabba doo!")
  else if name == "Bam Bam" then println("Bam bam!")
```

However, for many situations, your code will be simpler and easier to read by joining the `if` guard directly with the `case` statement; it helps to separate the guard from the later business logic.

Also note that this `Person` example is a little contrived, because Scala's pattern-matching capabilities let you write the cases like this:

```
def speak(p: Person): Unit = p match
  case Person("Fred") => println("Yabba dabba doo!")
  case Person("Bam Bam") => println("Bam bam!")
  case _ => println("Watch the Flintstones!")
```

In this case, a guard would really be needed when `Person` is more complex and you need to do something more than match

against its parameters.

Also, as demonstrated in [Recipe 4.10](#), instead of using this code that's shown in the Solution:

```
case x if (x == 2 || x == 3) => println(x)
```

another possible solution is to use a *variable-binding pattern*:

```
case x @ (2 | 3) => println(x)
```

This code can be read as, “If the `match` expression value (`i`) is `2` or `3`, assign that value to the variable `x`, then print `x` using `println`.”

4.13 Using a Match Expression

Instead of `isInstanceOf`

Problem

You want to write a block of code to match one type, or multiple different types.

Solution

You can use the `isInstanceOf` method to test the type of an object:

```
if x.isInstanceOf[Foo] then ...
```

However, the “Scala way” is to prefer `match` expressions for this type of work, because it’s generally much more powerful and convenient to use `match` than `isInstanceOf`.

For example, in a basic use case you may be given an object of unknown type and want to determine if the object is an instance of a `Person`. This code shows how to write a `match` expression that returns `true` if the type is `Person`, and `false` otherwise:

```
def isPerson(m: Matchable): Boolean = m match
  case p: Person => true
  case _ => false
```

A more common scenario is that you’ll have a model like this:

```
enum Shape:
  case Circle(radius: Double)
```

```
case Square(length: Double)
```

and then you'll want to write a method to calculate the area of a `Shape`. One solution to this problem is to write `area` using pattern matching:

```
import Shape.*  
  
def area(s: Shape): Double = s match  
  case Circle(r) => Math.PI * r * r  
  case Square(l) => l * l  
  
// examples  
area(Circle(2.0))    // 12.566370614359172  
area(Square(2.0))    // 4.0
```

This is a common use, where `area` takes a parameter whose type is an immediate parent of the types that you deconstruct inside `match`.

Note that if `Circle` and `Square` took additional constructor parameters, and you only needed to access their `radius` and `length`, respectively, the complete solution looks like this:

```
enum Shape:  
  case Circle(x0: Double, y0: Double, radius: I
```

```
case Square(x0: Double, y0: Double, length: I

import Shape._

def area(s: Shape): Double = s match
  case Circle(_, _, r) => Math.PI * r * r
  case Square(_, _, l) => l * l

// examples
area(Circle(0, 0, 2.0))    // 12.566370614359172
area(Square(0, 0, 2.0))    // 4.0
```

As shown in the `case` statements inside the `match` expression, just ignore the parameters you don't need by referring to them with the `_` character.

Discussion

As shown, a `match` expression lets you match multiple types, so using it to replace the `isInstanceOf` method is just a natural use of the `match / case` syntax and the general pattern-matching approach used in Scala applications.

For the most basic use cases, the `isInstanceOf` method can be a simpler approach to determining whether *one* object matches a type:

```
if (o instanceof Person) { // handle this ...
```

However, for anything more complex than this, a `match` expression is more readable than a long `if/then/else if` statement.

ISINSTANCEOF IN OOP

In object-oriented programming, the use of `isInstanceOf` can be a sign that you're not using inheritance properly. For example, someone may have written code like this:

```
enum Animal:  
    case Cat, Dog, Ostrich
```

and if for some reason you find yourself writing `isInstanceOf` code like this, it can be a sign that you're doing something wrong:

```
if currentInstance.isInstanceOf[Ostrich] then ...
```

Instead, OOP code is intended to look like this:

```
val animal: Animal =  
    AnimalFactory.getAnimal("big flightless bird")  
  
// some time later in your code ...  
animal.walk()
```

or this:

```
val oz: Ostrich =  
    AnimalFactory.getAnimal(  
        "big flightless bird"  
    ).asInstanceOf[Ostrich]  
  
// some time later in your code ...  
oz.tryToFly()
```

If you write code like this to receive an `Animal`, the code shouldn't care whether the `Animal` you received is a `Cat`, `Dog`, or `Ostrich`, and if you immediately cast your object instance to an `Ostrich`, you know you can call any additional methods it has. Therefore, in OOP you should only rarely need to test an instance with `isInstanceOf`.

Conversely, in functional programming code, pattern matching with `match` expressions is used all the time to work with types.

See Also

- [Recipe 4.10](#) shows many more `match` techniques.

4.14 Working with a List in a Match Expression

Problem

You know that a `List` data structure is a little different than other sequential data structures: it's built from *cons* cells and ends in a `Nil` element. You want to use this to your advantage when working with a `match` expression, such as when writing a recursive function.

Solution

You can create a `List` that contains the integers `1`, `2`, and `3` like this:

```
val xs = List(1, 2, 3)
```

or like this:

```
val ys = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: Nil
```

As shown in the second example, a `List` ends with a `Nil` element, and you can take advantage of that when writing `match` expressions to work on lists, especially when writing recursive algorithms. For instance, in the following `listToString` method, if the current element is not `Nil`, the method is called recursively with the remainder of the `List`, but if the current element is `Nil`, the recursive calls are stopped and an empty `String` is returned, at which point the recursive calls unwind:

```
def listToString(list: List[String]): String = list match {
  case s :: rest => s + " " + listToString(rest)
  case Nil => ""
```

The REPL demonstrates how this method works:

```
scala> val fruits = "Apples" :: "Bananas" :: "Oranges"
fruits: List[java.lang.String] = List(Apples, Bananas, Oranges)

scala> toString(fruits)
res0: String = "Apples Bananas Oranges "
```

The same approach can be used when dealing with lists of other types and different algorithms. For instance, while you *could* just write `List(1, 2, 3).sum`, this example shows how to write your own sum method using `match` and recursion:

```
def sum(list: List[Int]): Int = list match
  case Nil => 0
  case n :: rest => n + sum(rest)
```

Similarly, this is a *product* algorithm:

```
def product(list: List[Int]): Int = list match
  case Nil => 1
  case n :: rest => n * product(rest)
```

The REPL shows how these methods work:

```
scala> val nums = List(1,2,3,4,5)
nums: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

scala> sum(nums)
res0: Int = 15

scala> product(nums)
res1: Int = 120
```

DON'T FORGET REDUCE AND FOLD

While recursion is great, Scala's various *reduce* and *fold* methods on the collections classes are built to let you traverse a collection while applying an algorithm, and they often eliminate the need for recursion. For instance, you can write a sum algorithm using `reduce` in either of these two forms:

```
// long form
def sum(list: List[Int]): Int = list.reduce((x,y) => x + y)

// short form
def sum(list: List[Int]): Int = list.reduce(_ + _)
```

See [Recipe 13.10, “Walking Through a Collection with the reduce and fold Methods”](#), for more details.

Discussion

As shown, recursion is a technique where a method calls itself in order to solve a problem. In functional programming—where all variables are immutable—recursion provides a way to iterate over the elements in a `List` to solve a problem, such as calculating the sum or product of all the elements in a `List`.

A nice thing about working with the `List` class in particular is that a `List` ends with the `Nil` element, so your recursive algorithms typically have this pattern:

```
def myTraversalMethod[A] (xs: List[A]): B = xs match
  case head :: tail =>
    // do something with the head
    // pass the tail of the list back to yourself
    // `myTraversalMethod(tail)`
  case Nil =>
    // end condition here (0 for sum, 1 for product)
    // end the traversal
```

VARIABLES IN FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING

In FP, we use the term *variables*, but since we only use immutable variables, it may seem that this word doesn't make sense, i.e., we have a *variable* that can't vary.

What's going on here is that we really mean “variable” in the *algebraic* sense, not in the computer programming sense. For instance, in algebra we say that `a`, `b`, and `c` are variables when we write this algebraic equation:

```
a = b * c
```

However, once they're assigned, they can't vary. The term *variable* has the same meaning in functional programming.

See Also

I initially found recursion to be an unnecessarily hard topic to grasp, so I've written quite a few blog posts about it:

- [“Scala Recursion Examples \(Recursive Programming\)”](#)
- [“Recursive: How Recursive Function Calls Work”](#)
- [“Tail-Recursive Algorithms in Scala”](#)
- [“Recursion: Visualizing the Recursive sum Function”](#)
- In [“Recursion: Thinking Recursively”](#), I write about *identity* elements, including how `0` is an identity element for the sum operation, `1` is an identity element for the product

operation, and `""` (a blank string) is an identity element for working with strings.

4.15 Matching One or More Exceptions with try/catch

Problem

You want to catch one or more exceptions in a `try / catch` block.

Solution

The Scala `try / catch / finally` syntax is similar to Java, but it uses the `match` expression approach in the `catch` block:

```
try
  doSomething()
catch
  case e: SomeException => e.printStackTrace
finally
  // do your cleanup work
```

When you need to catch and handle multiple exceptions, just add the exception types as different `case` statements:

```
try
    openAndReadAFile(filename)
catch
    case e: FileNotFoundException =>
        println(s"Couldn't find $filename.")

    case e: IOException =>
        println(s"Had an IOException trying to read $filename")
```

You can also write that code like this, if you prefer:

```
try
    openAndReadAFile(filename)
catch
    case e: (FileNotFoundException | IOException)
        println(s"Had an IOException trying to read $filename")
```

Discussion

As shown, the Scala `case` syntax is used to match different possible exceptions. If you're not concerned about which

specific exceptions might be thrown, and want to catch them all and do something with them—such as log them—use this syntax:

```
try
    openAndReadAFile(filename)
catch
    case t: Throwable => logger.log(t)
```

If for some reason you don't care about the value of the exception, you can also catch them all and ignore them like this:

```
try
    openAndReadAFile(filename)
catch
    case _: Throwable => println("Nothing to worry about")
```

Methods based on try/catch

As shown in this chapter's introduction, a `try/catch/finally` block can return a value and therefore be used as the body of a method. The following method returns an `Option[String]`. It returns a `Some` that contains a `String` if the file is found, and a `None` if there is a problem reading the file:

```
import scala.io.Source
import java.io.{FileNotFoundException, IOException}

def readFile(filename: String): Option[String] =
  try
    Some(Source.fromFile(filename).getLines.mkString)
  catch
    case _: (FileNotFoundException | IOException)
```

This shows one way to return a value from a `try` expression.

These days I *rarely* write methods that throw exceptions, but like Java, you can throw an exception from a `catch` clause. However, because Scala doesn't have checked exceptions, you don't need to specify that a method throws the exception. This is demonstrated in the following example, where the method isn't annotated in any way:

```
// danger: this method doesn't warn you that an exception can be thrown
def readFile(filename: String): String =
  try
    Source.fromFile(filename).getLines.mkString
  catch
    case t: Throwable => throw t
```

That's actually a horribly dangerous method—don't write code like this!

To declare that a method throws an exception, add the

`@throws` annotation to your method definition:

```
// better: this method warns others that an exception may be thrown
@throws(classOf[NumberFormatException])
def readFile(filename: String): String =
  try
    Source.fromFile(filename).getLines.mkString
  catch
    case t: Throwable => throw t
```

While that last method is better than the previous one, neither one is preferred. The “Scala way” is to *never* throw exceptions. Instead, you should use `Option`, as shown previously, or use the `Try` / `Success` / `Failure` or `Either` / `Right` / `Left` classes when you want to return information about what failed. This example shows how to use `Try`:

```
import scala.io.Source
import java.io.{FileNotFoundException, IOException}
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}
```

```
def readFile(filename: String): Try[String] =  
  try  
    Success(Source.fromFile(filename).getLines)  
  catch  
    case t: Throwable => Failure(t)
```

Whenever an exception message is involved, I always prefer using `Try` or `Either` instead of `Option`, because they give you access to the message in `Failure` or `Left`, where `Option` only returns `None`.

A concise way to catch everything

Another concise way to catch all exceptions is with the `allCatch` method of the `scala.util.control.Exception` object. The following examples demonstrate how to use `allCatch`, first showing the success case and then the failure case. The output of each expression is shown after the comment on each line:

```
import scala.util.control.Exception.allCatch  
  
// OPTION  
allCatch.opt("42".toInt)          // Option[Int] = Some(42)  
allCatch.opt("foo".toInt)         // Option[Int] = None
```

```
// TRY
allCatch.toTry("42".toInt)      // Matchable = 42
allCatch.toTry("foo".toInt)
    // Matchable = Failure(NumberFormatException)

// EITHER
allCatch.either("42".toInt)      // Either[Throwable, Int] =
allCatch.either("foo".toInt)
    // Either[Throwable, Int] =
    // Left(NumberFormatException: For input string: "foo")
```

See Also

- See [Recipe 8.7, “Declaring That a Method Can Throw an Exception”](#), for more examples of declaring that a method can throw an exception.
- See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for more information on using Option / Some / None and Try / Success / Failure.
- See the [scala.util.control.Exception Scaladoc page](#) for more allCatch information.

4.16 Declaring a Variable Before Using It in a try/catch/finally Block

Problem

You want to use an object in a `try` block, and need to access it in the `finally` portion of the block, such as when you need to call a `close` method on an object.

Solution

In general, declare your field as an `Option` before the `try/catch` block, then bind the variable to a `Some` inside the `try` clause. This is shown in the following example, where the `sourceOption` field is declared before the `try/catch` block, and assigned inside the `try` clause:

```
import scala.io.Source
import java.io.*

var sourceOption: Option[Source] = None
try
  sourceOption = Some(Source.fromFile("/etc/pas")
  sourceOption.foreach { source =>
    // do whatever you need to do with 'source'
    for line <- source.getLines do println(line)
  }
catch
  case ioe: IOException => ioe.printStackTrace
```

```
    case fnf: FileNotFoundException => fnf.printStackTrace()
  finally
    sourceOption match
      case None =>
        println("bufferedSource == None")
      case Some(s) =>
        println("closing the bufferedSource")
        s.close
```

This is a contrived example—and [Recipe 16.1, “Reading Text Files”](#), shows a much better way to read files—but it does show the approach. First, define a `var` field as an `Option` prior to the `try` block:

```
var sourceOption: Option[Source] = None
```

Then, inside the `try` clause, assign the variable to a `Some` value:

```
sourceOption = Some(Source.fromFile("/etc/passwd"))
```

When you have a resource to close, use a technique like the one shown (though [Recipe 16.1, “Reading Text Files”](#), also shows a much better way to close resources). Note that if an exception is

thrown in this code, `sourceOption` inside `finally` will be a `None` value. If no exceptions are thrown, the `Some` branch of the `match` expression will be evaluated.

Discussion

One key to this recipe is knowing the syntax for declaring `Option` fields that aren't initially populated:

```
var in: Option[FileInputStream] = None  
var out: Option[FileOutputStream] = None
```

This second form can also be used, but the first form is preferred:

```
var in = None: Option[FileInputStream]  
var out = None: Option[FileOutputStream]
```

Don't use null

When I first started working with Scala, the only way I could think to write this code was using `null` values. The following code demonstrates the approach I used in an application that checks my email accounts. The `store` and `inbox` fields in this

code are declared as `null` fields that have the `Store` and `Folder` types (from the `javax.mail` package):

```
// (1) declare the null variables (don't use null)
var store: Store = null
var inbox: Folder = null

try
    // (2) use the variables/fields in the try block
    store = session.getStore("imaps")
    inbox = getFolder(store, "INBOX")
    // rest of the code here ...
catch
    case e: NoSuchProviderException => e.printStackTrace()
    case me: MessagingException => me.printStackTrace()
finally
    // (3) call close() on the objects in the finally block
    if (inbox != null) inbox.close
    if (store != null) store.close
```

However, working in Scala gives you a chance to forget that `null` values even exist, so this is *not* a recommended approach.

See Also

See these recipes for more details on (a) how *not* to use `null` values, and (b) how to use `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` instead:

- [Recipe 24.5, “Eliminating null Values from Your Code”](#)
- [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(`Option`, `Try`, and `Either`\)”](#)
- [Recipe 24.8, “Handling Option Values with Higher-Order Functions”](#)

Whenever you’re writing code that needs to open a resource when you start and close the resource when you finish, it can be helpful to use the `scala.util.Using` object. See [Recipe 16.1, “Reading Text Files”](#), for an example of how to use this object and a much better way to read a text file.

Also, [Recipe 24.8, “Handling Option Values with Higher-Order Functions”](#), shows other ways to work with `Option` values besides using a `match` expression.

4.17 Creating Your Own Control Structures

Problem

You want to define your own control structures to customize the Scala language, simplify your code, or create a domain-specific language (DSL).

Solution

Thanks to features like multiple parameter lists, by-name parameters, extension methods, higher-order functions, and more, you can create your own code that works just like a control structure.

For example, imagine that Scala doesn't have its own built-in `while` loop, and you want to create your own custom `whileTrue` loop, which you can use like this:

```
var i = 0
whileTrue (i < 5) {
    println(i)
    i += 1
}
```

To create this `whileTrue` control structure, define a method named `whileTrue` that takes two parameter lists. The first parameter list handles the test condition—in this case, `i < 5`—and the second parameter list is the block of code the user

wants to run, i.e., the code in between the curly braces. Define both parameters to be by-name parameters. Because

`whileTrue` is only used for side effects, such as updating mutable variables or printing to the console, declare it to return `Unit`. An initial sketch of the method signature looks like this:

```
def whileTrue(testCondition: => Boolean)(codeBlock: Unit)
```

One way to implement the body of the method is to write a recursive algorithm. This code shows a complete solution:

```
import scala.annotation.tailrec

object WhileTrue:
    @tailrec
    def whileTrue(testCondition: => Boolean)(codeBlock: Unit): Unit =
        if (testCondition) then
            codeBlock
            whileTrue(testCondition)(codeBlock)
        end if
    end whileTrue
```

In this code, the `testCondition` is evaluated, and if the condition is true, `codeBlock` is executed, and then

```
whileTrue is called recursively. It keeps calling itself until  
testCondition returns false.
```

To test this code, first import it:

```
import WhileTrue.whileTrue
```

Then run the `whileTrue` loop shown previously, and you'll see that it works as desired.

Discussion

The creators of the Scala language made a conscious decision not to implement some keywords in Scala, and instead they implemented functionality through Scala libraries. For instance, Scala doesn't have built-in `break` and `continue` keywords. Instead it implements them through a library, as I describe in my blog post [“Scala: How to Use break and continue in for and while Loops”](#).

As shown in the Solution, the ability to create your own control structures comes from features like these:

- *Multiple parameter lists* let you do what I did with `whileTrue`: create one parameter group for the test

condition, and a second group for the block of code.

- *By-name parameters* also let you do what I did with `whileTrue`: accept parameters that aren't evaluated until they're accessed inside your method.

Similarly, other features like infix notation, higher-order functions, extension methods, and fluent interfaces let you create other custom control structures and DSLs.

By-name parameters

By-name parameters are an important part of the `whileTrue` control structure. In Scala it's important to know that when you define method parameters using the `=>` syntax:

```
def whileTrue(testCondition: => Boolean) (codeBlock: =>
```

you're creating what's known as a *call-by-name* or *by-name* parameter. A by-name parameter is only evaluated when it's accessed inside your method, so, as I write in my blog posts [“How to Use By-Name Parameters in Scala”](#) and [“Scala and Call-By-Name Parameters”](#), a more accurate name for these parameters is *evaluate when accessed*. That's because that's exactly how they work: they're only evaluated when they're

accessed inside your method. As I note in that second blog post, Rob Norris makes the comparison that a by-name parameter is like receiving a `def` method.

Another example

In the `whileTrue` example, I used a recursive call to keep the loop running, but for simpler control structures you don't need recursion. For instance, assume that you want a control structure that takes two test conditions, and if both evaluate to `true`, you'll run a block of code that's supplied. An expression using that control structure looks like this:

```
doubleIf(age > 18) (numAccidents == 0) { println('
```

In this case, define `doubleIf` as a method that takes *three* parameter lists, where again, each parameter is a by-name parameter:

```
// two 'if' condition tests
def doubleIf(test1: => Boolean) (test2: => Boolean)
  if test1 && test2 then codeBlock
```

Because `doubleIf` only needs to perform one test and doesn't need to loop indefinitely, there's no need for a recursive call in its method body. It simply checks the two test conditions, and if they evaluate to `true`, `codeBlock` is executed.

See Also

- One of my favorite uses of this technique is shown in the book *Beginning Scala* by David Pollak (Apress). Although it's rendered obsolete by the `scala.util.Using` object, I describe how the technique works in this blog post, ["The using Control Structure in Beginning Scala"](#).
- The Scala `Breaks` class is used to implement break and continue functionality in `for` loops, and I wrote about it: ["Scala: How to Use break and continue in for and while Loops"](#). The `Breaks` class source code is fairly simple and provides another example of how to implement a control structure. You can find its source code as a link on [its Scaladoc page](#).

Chapter 5. Classes

This chapter begins a series of four chapters that cover the concept of domain modeling in Scala 3. *Domain modeling* is how you use a programming language to model the world around you, i.e., how you model concepts like people, cars, financial transactions, etc. Whether you're writing code in a functional programming or object-oriented programming style, this means that you model the *attributes* and *behaviors* of these things.

To provide flexibility to model the world around you, Scala 3 offers the following language constructs:

- Classes
- Case classes
- Traits
- Enums
- Objects and case objects
- Abstract classes
- Methods, which can be defined within all of those constructs

This is a lot of ground to cover, so to help manage that complexity, [Recipe 5.1](#) shows how to use these constructs when programming in the FP and OOP styles. After that, classes and

case classes are covered in this chapter, traits and enums are covered in [Chapter 6](#), objects are covered in [Chapter 7](#), and recipes for methods are provided in [Chapter 8](#). Abstract classes aren't used very often, so they're touched upon in [Recipe 5.1](#).

Classes and Case Classes

Although Scala and Java share many similarities, the syntax related to *classes* and *constructors* represents some of the biggest differences between the two languages. Whereas Java tends to be more verbose—but obvious—Scala is more concise, and the code you write ends up generating other code. For example, this one-line Scala class compiles to at least 29 lines of Java code, most of which is boilerplate accessor/mutator code:

```
class Employee(var name: String, var age: Int, va
```

Because classes and constructors are so important, they're discussed in detail in the initial recipes in this chapter.

Next, because the concept of what *equals* means is such an important programming topic, [Recipe 5.9](#) spends a lot of time demonstrating how to implement an `equals` method in Scala.

USING CLASSES IN MATCH EXPRESSIONS

When you want to use a class in a `match` expression, implement an `unapply` method inside the companion object of a class. Because this is something you do in an `object`, that topic is covered in [Recipe 7.8, “Implementing Pattern Matching with unapply”](#).

The concept of accessing class fields is important, so [Recipe 5.10](#) demonstrates how to prevent accessor and mutator methods from being generated. After that, [Recipe 5.11](#) demonstrates how to override the default behaviors of accessor and mutator methods.

ACCESSORS AND MUTATORS

In Java, it seems correct to refer to *accessor* and *mutator* methods as *getter* and *setter* methods, primarily because of the JavaBeans `get` / `set` standard. In this chapter I use the terms interchangeably, but to be clear, Scala doesn’t follow the JavaBeans naming convention for accessor and mutator methods.

Next, two recipes demonstrate other techniques you’ll need to know related to parameters and fields. First, [Recipe 5.12](#) shows how to assign a block of code to a *lazy* field in a class, and then [Recipe 5.13](#) shows how to handle uninitialized `var` fields by using the `Option` type.

Finally, as you saw a few paragraphs ago, the OOP-style Scala `Employee` class is equivalent to 29 lines of Java code. By comparison, this FP-style `case` class is equivalent to well over one hundred lines of Java code:

```
case class Employee(name: String, age: Int, role
```

Because `case` classes generate so much boilerplate code for you, their uses and benefits are discussed in [Recipe 5.14](#). Also, because `case` classes are different than the default Scala `class`, constructors for `case` classes—they’re really factory methods—are discussed in [Recipe 5.15](#).

5.1 Choosing from Domain Modeling Options

Problem

Because Scala offers traits, enums, classes, case classes, objects, and abstract classes, you want to understand how to choose from these domain modeling options when designing your own code.

Solution

The solution depends on whether you're using a functional programming or object-oriented programming style. Therefore, these two solutions are discussed in the following sections.

Examples are also provided in the Discussion, followed by a brief look at when abstract classes should be used.

Functional programming modeling options

When programming in an FP style, you'll primarily use these constructs:

- Traits
- Enums
- Case classes
- Objects

In the FP style you'll use these constructs as follows:

Traits

Traits are used to create small, logically grouped units of behavior. They're typically written as `def` methods but can also be written as `val` functions if you prefer. Either way, they're written as pure functions (as detailed in

[“Pure Functions”](#)). These traits will later be combined into concrete objects.

Enums

Use enums to create algebraic data types (ADTs, as shown in [Recipe 6.13, “Modeling Algebraic Data Types with Enums”](#)) as well as generalized ADTs (GADTs).

Case classes

Use case classes to create objects with immutable fields (known as *immutable records* in some languages, such as the `record` type in Java 14). Case classes were created for the FP style, and they have several specialized methods that help in this style, including: parameters that are `val` fields by default, `copy` methods for when you want to simulate mutating values, built-in `unapply` methods for pattern matching, good default `equals` and `hashCode` methods, and more.

Objects

In FP you’ll typically use objects as a way to make one or more traits “real,” in a process that’s technically known as *reification*.

In FP, when you don't need all the features of case classes, you can also use the plain `class` construct (as opposed to the `case class` construct). When you do this you'll define your parameters as `val` fields, and then you can manually implement other behaviors, such as if you want to define an `unapply` extractor method for your class, as detailed in [Recipe 7.8, “Implementing Pattern Matching with unapply”](#).

Object-oriented programming modeling options

When programming in an OOP style, you'll primarily use these constructs:

- Traits
- Enums
- Classes
- Objects

You'll use these constructs in these ways:

Traits

Traits are primarily used as interfaces. If you've used Java, you can use Scala traits just like interfaces in Java 8 and newer, with both abstract and concrete members. Classes will later be used to implement these traits.

Enums

You'll primarily use enums to create simple sets of constants, like the positions of a display (top, bottom, left, and right).

Classes

In OOP you'll primarily use plain classes—not case classes. You'll also define their constructor parameters as `var` fields so they can be mutated. They'll contain methods based on those mutable fields. You'll override the default accessor and mutator methods (getters and setters) as needed.

Object

You'll primarily use the `object` construct as a way to create the equivalent of static methods in Java, like a `StringUtils` object that contains static methods that operate on strings (as detailed in [Recipe 7.4, “Creating Static Members with Companion Objects”](#)).

When you want many or all of the features that case classes provide (see [Recipe 5.14](#)), you can use them instead of plain classes (though they're primarily intended for coding in an FP style).

Discussion

To discuss this solution I'll demonstrate FP and OOP examples separately. But before jumping into those individual examples, I'll first show these enums, which are used by both:

```
enum Topping:  
    case Cheese, Pepperoni, Sausage, Mushrooms, ...  
  
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large  
  
enum CrustType:  
    case Regular, Thin, Thick
```

Using enums like this—technically as ADTs, as detailed in [Recipe 6.13, “Modeling Algebraic Data Types with Enums”](#)—shows some common ground between FP and OOP domain modeling.

An FP-style example

The pizza store example in [Recipe 10.10, “Real-World Example: Functional Domain Modeling”](#), demonstrates the FP domain modeling approach in detail, so I'll just quickly review it here.

First, I use those enums to define a `Pizza` class, using the `case class` construct:

```
case class Pizza(
    crustSize: CrustSize,
    crustType: CrustType,
    toppings: Seq[Topping]
)
```

After that, I model additional classes as case classes:

```
case class Customer(
    name: String,
    phone: String,
    address: Address
)

case class Address(
    street1: String,
    street2: Option[String],
    city: String,
    state: String,
    postalCode: String
)

case class Order(
    pizzas: Seq[Pizza],
```

```
    customer: Customer  
)
```

Case classes are preferred in FP because all the parameters are immutable, and case classes offer built-in methods to make FP easier (as shown in [Recipe 5.14](#)). Also, notice that these classes contain no methods; they're just simple data structures.

Next, I write the methods that operate on those data structures as pure functions, and I group the methods into small, logically organized traits, or just one trait in this case:

```
trait PizzaServiceInterface:  
    def addTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza  
    def removeTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza  
    def removeAllToppings(p: Pizza): Pizza  
    def updateCrustSize(p: Pizza, cs: CrustSize)  
    def updateCrustType(p: Pizza, ct: CrustType)
```

Then I implement those methods in other traits:

```
trait PizzaService extends PizzaServiceInterface  
    def addTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza =  
        // the 'copy' method comes with a case class  
        val newToppings = p.toppings :+ t  
        p.copy(toppings = newToppings)
```

```
p.copy(toppings = newToppings)

// there are about two lines of code for each
// methods, so all of that code is not repeated
def removeTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza = p.copy(toppings = toppings - t)
def removeAllToppings(p: Pizza): Pizza = p.copy(toppings = Nil)
def updateCrustSize(p: Pizza, cs: CrustSize): Pizza = p.copy(crustSize = cs)
def updateCrustType(p: Pizza, ct: CrustType): Pizza = p.copy(crustType = ct)

end PizzaService
```

Notice in this trait that everything is immutable. Pizzas, toppings, and crust details are passed into the methods, and they don't mutate those values. Instead, they return new values based on the values that are passed in.

Eventually I make my services “real” by reifying them as objects:

```
object PizzaService extends PizzaService
```

I only use one trait in this example, but in the real world you'll often combine multiple traits into one object, like this:

```
object DogServices extends TailService, RubberyNoseService
```

As shown, this is how you combine multiple granular, single-purpose services into one larger, complete service.

That's all I'll show of the pizza store example here, but for more details, see [Recipe 10.10, “Real-World Example: Functional Domain Modeling”](#).

An OOP-style example

Next, I'll create an OOP-style solution for this same problem.

First, I create an OOP-style pizza class using the `class` construct and mutable parameters:

```
class Pizza (
    var crustSize: CrustSize,
    var crustType: CrustType,
    val toppings: ArrayBuffer[Topping]
):
    def addTopping(t: Topping): Unit =
        toppings += t
    def removeTopping(t: Topping): Unit =
        toppings -= t
    def removeAllToppings(): Unit =
        toppings.clear()
```

The first two constructor parameters are defined as `var` fields so they can be mutated, and `toppings` is defined as an `ArrayBuffer` so its values can also be mutated.

Notice that whereas the FP-style case class contains attributes but no behaviors, with the OOP approach, the pizza class contains both, including methods that work with the mutable parameters. Each of those methods can be defined on one line, but I put the body of every method on a separate line to make them easy to read. But if you prefer, they can be written more concisely like this:

```
def addTopping(t: Topping): Unit = toppings += t
def removeTopping(t: Topping): Unit = toppings -= t
def removeAllToppings(): Unit = toppings.clear()
```

If you were to continue going down this road, you'd create additional OOP-style classes that encapsulate both attributes and behaviors. For instance, an `Order` class might completely encapsulate the concept of a series of line items that make up an `Order`:

```
class Order:
    private lineItems = ArrayBuffer[Product]()
```

```
def addItem(p: Product): Unit = ???  
def removeItem(p: Product): Unit = ???  
def getItems(): Seq[Product] = ???  
  
def getPrintableReceipt(): String = ???  
def getTotalPrice(): Money = ???  
end Order  
  
// usage:  
val o = Order()  
o.addItem(Pizza(Small, Thin, ArrayBuffer(Cheese,  
o.addItem(Cheesesticks)
```

This example assumes that you have a `Product` class hierarchy that looks like this:

```
// a Product may have methods to determine its co  
// and other details  
sealed trait Product  
  
// each class may have additional attributes and  
class Pizza extends Product  
class Beverage extends Product  
class Cheesesticks extends Product
```

I won't go further with this example because I assume that most developers are familiar with the OOP style of encapsulating attributes and behaviors, with polymorphic methods.

One more thing: When to use abstract classes

Because traits can now take parameters in Scala 3, and classes can only extend one abstract class (while they can mix in multiple traits), the question comes up, "When should I use abstract classes?"

The general answer is "rarely." A more specific answer is:

- When using Scala code from Java, it's easier to extend a class than a trait.
- When I asked this question at the Scala Center, Sébastien Doeraene, the creator of [Scala.js](#), wrote that "in Scala.js, a class can be imported from or exported to JavaScript."
- In that same discussion, Julien Richard-Foy, the director of education at the Scala Center, noted that abstract classes may have a slightly more efficient encoding than a trait, because as a parent, a trait is dynamic, whereas it's statically known for an abstract class.

So my rule of thumb is to always use a trait and then fall back and use an abstract class when it's necessary for one of these

conditions (or possibly other conditions we didn't think of).

See Also

In addition to helping you understand your domain modeling options, this recipe also serves as a pointer toward many other recipes that provide more details on each topic:

- Classes are discussed in many recipes, beginning with [Recipe 5.2](#).
- Case classes are discussed in detail in [Recipe 5.14](#).
- The concept of using a trait as an interface is discussed in [Recipe 6.1, “Using a Trait as an Interface”](#).
- Using a trait as an abstract class is discussed in [Recipe 6.3, “Using a Trait Like an Abstract Class”](#).
- The concept of reifying traits into modules is covered in [Recipe 6.11, “Using Traits to Create Modules”](#), and [Recipe 7.7, “Reifying Traits as Objects”](#).
- The FP-style pizza store example is covered in more detail in [Recipe 10.10, “Real-World Example: Functional Domain Modeling”](#).
- Many other FP concepts are discussed in [Chapter 10](#).
- If you're interested in using Scala traits in your Java code, see [Recipe 22.5, “Using Scala Traits in Java”](#).

5.2 Creating a Primary Constructor

Problem

You want to create a primary constructor for a Scala class, and you quickly find that the approach is different than Java (and other languages).

Solution

The primary constructor of a Scala class is a combination of:

- The constructor parameters
- Fields (variable assignments) in the body of the class
- Statements and expressions that are executed in the body of the class

The following class demonstrates constructor parameters, class fields, and statements in the body of a class:

```
class Employee(var firstName: String, var lastName: String) {  
    // a statement  
    println("the constructor begins ...")  
  
    // some class fields (variable assignments)
```

```
var age = 0
private var salary = 0d

// a method call
printEmployeeInfo()

// methods defined in the class
override def toString = s"$firstName $lastName"
def printEmployeeInfo() = println(this) //useful for debugging

// any statement or field prior to the end of the class
// definition is part of the class constructor
println("the constructor ends")

// optional 'end' statement
end Employee
```

The constructor parameters, statements, and fields are all part of the class constructor. Notice that the methods are also in the body of the class, but they're not part of the constructor.

Because the *method calls* in the body of the class are part of the constructor, when an instance of an `Employee` class is created, you'll see the output from the `println` statements at the beginning and end of the class declaration, along with the call to the `printEmployeeInfo` method:

```
scala> val e = Employee("Kim", "Carnes")
the constructor begins ...
Kim Carnes is 0 years old
the constructor ends
val e: Employee = Kim Carnes is 0 years old
```

Discussion

If you're coming to Scala from Java, you'll find that the process of declaring a primary constructor in Scala is quite different. In Java it's fairly obvious when you're in the main constructor and when you're not, but Scala blurs this distinction. However, once you understand the approach, it helps to make your class declarations more concise.

In the example shown, the two constructor arguments

`firstName` and `lastName` are defined as `var` fields, which means that they're variable, or *mutable*: they can be changed after they're initially set. Because the fields are mutable—and also because they have public access by default—Scala generates both accessor and mutator methods for them. As a result, given an instance `e` of type `Employee`, you can change the values like this:

```
e.firstName = "Xena"  
e.lastName = "Princess Warrior"
```

and you can access them like this:

```
println(e.firstName) // Xena  
println(e.lastName) // Princess Warrior
```

Because the `age` field is declared as a `var`—and like constructor parameters, class members are public by default—it's also visible and can be mutated and accessed:

```
e.age = 30  
println(e.age)
```

Conversely, the `salary` field is declared to be `private`, so it can't be accessed from outside the class:

```
scala> e.salary  
1 |e.salary  
| ^^^  
| variable salary cannot be accessed as a member
```

When you call a method in the body of the class—such as the call to the `printEmployeeInfo` method—that's a *statement*, and it's also part of the constructor. If you're curious, you can verify this by compiling the code to an `Employee.class` file with `scalac` and then decompiling it back into Java source code with a tool like the JAD decompiler. After doing so, this is what the `Employee` constructor looks like when it's decompiled back into Java code:

```
public Employee(String firstName, String lastName) {
    this.firstName = firstName;
    this.lastName = lastName;
    super();
    Predef$.MODULE$.println("the constructor begins");
    age = 0;
    double salary = 0.0D;
    printEmployeeInfo();
    Predef$.MODULE$.println("the constructor ends");
}
```

This clearly shows the two `println` statements and the `printEmployeeInfo` method call inside the `Employee` constructor, as well as the initial `age` and `salary` being set.

PRIMARY CONSTRUCTOR CONTENTS

In Scala, any statements, expressions, or variable assignments within the body of a class are a part of the primary class constructor.

As a final point of comparison, when you decompile the class file with JAD, and then you count the number of lines of source code in the Scala and Java files—using the same formatting style for each file—you’ll find that the Scala source code is nine lines long and the Java source code is 38 lines long. It’s been said that developers spend 10 times as much time *reading* code than we do *writing* code, so this ability to create code that’s concise and still readable—we call it *expressive*—is one thing that initially drew me to Scala.

5.3 Controlling the Visibility of Constructor Fields

Problem

You want to control the visibility of fields that are used as constructor parameters in a Scala class.

Solution

As shown in the following examples, the visibility of a constructor field in a Scala class is controlled by whether the field is declared as `val` or `var`, without either `val` or `var`, and whether `private` is added to the fields.

Here's the short version of the solution:

- If a field is declared as a `var`, Scala generates both getter and setter methods for that field.
- If the field is a `val`, Scala generates only a getter method for it.
- If a field doesn't have a `var` or `val` modifier, Scala doesn't generate a getter or a setter method for the field; it becomes private to the class.
- Additionally, `var` and `val` fields can be modified with the `private` keyword, which prevents public getters and setters from being generated.

See the examples that follow for more details.

var fields

If a constructor parameter is declared as a `var`, the value of the field *can* be changed, so Scala generates both getter and setter methods for that field. In this example, the constructor

parameter `name` is declared as a `var`, so the field can be accessed and mutated:

```
scala> class Person(var name: String)
scala> val p = Person("Mark Sinclair Vincent")

// getter
scala> p.name
val res0: String = Mark Sinclair Vincent

// setter
scala> p.name = "Vin Diesel"

scala> p.name
val res1: String = Vin Diesel
```

If you're familiar with Java, you can also see that Scala does not follow the JavaBean `getName` / `setName` naming convention when generating accessor and mutator methods. Instead, you simply access a field by its name.

val fields

If a constructor field is defined as a `val`, the value of the field *can't* be changed once it's been set—it's immutable, like `final`

in Java. Therefore, it makes sense that it should have an accessor method, and should *not* have a mutator method:

```
scala> class Person(val name: String)
defined class Person

scala> val p = Person("Jane Doe")
p: Person = Person@3f9f332b

// getter
scala> p.name
res0: String = Jane Doe

// attempt to use a setter
scala> p.name = "Wilma Flintstone"
1 | p.name = "Wilma Flintstone"
| ^^^^^^^^^^
| Reassignment to val name
```

The last example fails because a mutator method is not generated for a `val` field.

Fields without `val` or `var`

When neither `val` nor `var` is specified on constructor parameters, the field becomes private to the class, and Scala

doesn't generate accessor or mutator methods. You can see that when you create a class like this:

```
class SuperEncryptor(password: String) :  
    // encrypt increments each Char in a String by 1  
    private def encrypt(s: String) = s.map(c =>  
        def getEncryptedPassword = encrypt(password)
```

and then attempt to access the `password` field, which was declared without `val` or `var`:

```
val e = SuperEncryptor("1234")  
e.password           // error: value password  
e.getEncryptedPassword // 2345
```

As shown, you can't directly access the `password` field, but because the `getEncryptedPassword` method is a class member, it can access `password`. If you continue to experiment with this code, you'll see that declaring `password` without `val` or `var` is equivalent to making it a `private val`.

In most cases I only use this syntax by accident—I forget to specify `val` or `var` for the field—but it can make sense if you

want to accept a constructor parameter and then use that parameter within the class, but don't want to make it directly available outside the class.

Adding private to val or var

In addition to these three basic configurations, you can add the `private` keyword to a `val` or `var` field. This prevents getter and setter methods from being generated, so the field can only be accessed from within members of the class, as shown with the `salary` field in this example:

```
enum Role:
    case HumanResources, WorkerBee

import Role._

class Employee(var name: String, private var salary: Double)

    def getSalary(r: Role): Option[Double] = r match {
        case HumanResources => Some(salary)
        case _ => None
    }
```

In this code, `getSalary` can access the `salary` field because it's defined inside the class, but the `salary` field can't be

directly accessed from outside the class, as demonstrated in this example:

```
val e = Employee("Steve Jobs", 1)

// to access the salary field you have to use get
e.name                      // Steve Jobs
e.getSalary(WorkerBee)        // None
e.getSalary(HumanResources)   // Some(1.0)

e.salary // error: variable salary in class Emp
```

Discussion

If any of this is confusing, it helps to think about the choices the compiler has when generating code for you. When a field is defined as a `val`, by definition its value can't be changed, so it makes sense to generate a getter, but no setter. Similarly, by definition, the value of a `var` field *can* be changed, so generating both a getter and setter makes sense for it.

The `private` setting on a constructor parameter gives you additional flexibility. When it's added to a `val` or `var` field, the getter and setter methods are generated as before, but they're marked `private`. If you don't specify `val` or `var` on

a constructor parameter, no getter or setter methods are generated at all.

The accessors and mutators that are generated for you based on these settings are summarized in [Table 5-1](#).

Table 5-1. The effect of constructor parameter settings

Visibility	Accessor?	Mutator?
<code>var</code>	Yes	Yes
<code>val</code>	Yes	No
Default visibility (no <code>var</code> or <code>val</code>)	No	No
Adding the <code>private</code> keyword to <code>var</code> or <code>val</code>	No	No

Case classes

Parameters in the constructor of a *case class* differ from these rules in one way: case class constructor parameters are `val` by default. So if you define a case class field without adding `val` or `var`, like this:

```
case class Person(name: String)
```

you can still access the field, just as if it were defined as a `val`:

```
scala> val p = Person("Dale Cooper")
```

```
p: Person = Person(Dale Cooper)
```

```
scala> p.name
```

```
res0: String = Dale Cooper
```

Although this is different than a regular class, it's a nice convenience and has to do with the way case classes are intended to be used in functional programming, i.e., as immutable records.

See Also

- See [Recipe 5.11](#) for more information on manually adding your own accessor and mutator methods, and [Recipe 5.3](#) for more information on the `private` modifier.
- See [Recipe 5.14](#) for more information on how case classes work.

5.4 Defining Auxiliary Constructors for Classes

Problem

You want to define one or more auxiliary constructors for a class so that consumers of the class can have multiple ways to create object instances.

Solution

Define the auxiliary constructors as methods in the class with the name `this` and the proper signature. You can define multiple auxiliary constructors, but they must have different signatures (parameter lists). Also, each constructor must call one of the previously defined constructors.

To set up an example, here are two enum definitions that will be used in a `Pizza` class that follows:

```
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large
```

```
enum CrustType:  
    case Thin, Regular, Thick
```

Given those definitions, here's a `Pizza` class with a primary constructor and three auxiliary constructors:

```
import CrustSize.*, CrustType.*  
  
// primary constructor  
class Pizza (var crustSize: CrustSize, var crustType: CrustType) {  
  
    // one-arg auxiliary constructor  
    def this(crustSize: CrustSize) =  
        this(crustSize, Pizza.DefaultCrustType)  
  
    // one-arg auxiliary constructor  
    def this(crustType: CrustType) =  
        this(Pizza.DefaultCrustSize, crustType)  
  
    // zero-arg auxiliary constructor  
    def this() =  
        this(Pizza.DefaultCrustSize, Pizza.DefaultCrustType)  
  
    override def toString = s"A $crustSize pizza with $crustType crust"  
  
}
```

```
val DefaultCrustSize = Medium  
val DefaultCrustType = Regular
```

Given those constructors, the same pizza can now be created in the following ways:

```
import Pizza.{DefaultCrustSize, DefaultCrustType}  
  
// use the different constructors  
val p1 = Pizza(DefaultCrustSize, DefaultCrustType)  
val p2 = Pizza(DefaultCrustSize)  
val p3 = Pizza(DefaultCrustType)  
val p4 = Pizza
```

All of those definitions result in the same output:

```
A Medium pizza with a Regular crust
```

Discussion

There are several important points to this recipe:

- Auxiliary constructors are defined by creating methods named `this`.

- Each auxiliary constructor must begin with a call to a previously defined constructor.
- Each constructor must have a different parameter list.
- One constructor calls another constructor using the method name `this` and specifies the desired parameters.

In the example shown, all the auxiliary constructors call the primary constructor, but this isn't necessary; an auxiliary constructor just needs to call one of the previously defined constructors. For instance, the auxiliary constructor that takes the `crustType` parameter could have been written to call the `CrustSize` constructor:

```
def this(crustType: CrustType) =  
    this(Pizza.DefaultCrustSize)  
    this.crustType = Pizza.DefaultCrustType
```

DON'T FORGET ABOUT DEFAULT PARAMETER VALUES

Although the approach shown in the Solution is perfectly valid, before creating multiple class constructors like this, take a few moments to read [Recipe 5.6](#). Using default parameter values as shown in that recipe can often eliminate the need for multiple constructors. For instance, this approach has almost the same functionality as the class shown in the Solution:

```
class Pizza(  
    var crustSize: CrustSize = Pizza.DefaultCrustSize,  
    var crustType: CrustType = Pizza.DefaultCrustType  
) :  
    override def toString =  
        s"A $crustSize pizza with a $crustType crust"
```

5.5 Defining a Private Primary Constructor

Problem

You want to make the primary constructor of a class private, such as to enforce the Singleton pattern.

Solution

To make the primary constructor private, insert the `private` keyword in between the class name and any parameters the

constructor accepts:

```
// a private one-arg primary constructor
class Person private (var name: String)
```

As shown in the REPL, this keeps you from being able to create an instance of the class:

```
scala> class Person private(name: String)
defined class Person

scala> val p = Person("Mercedes")
1 |val p = Person("Mercedes")
|           ^
|method apply cannot be accessed as a member o:
```

When I first saw this syntax I thought it was a little unusual, but if you read the code out loud as you scan it, you'll read it as, “This is a `Person` class with a *private constructor*...” I find that the words “private constructor” in that sentence help me remember to put the `private` keyword immediately before the constructor parameters.

Discussion

To enforce the Singleton pattern in Scala, make the primary constructor `private`, and then create a `getInstance` method in the *companion object* of the class:

```
// a private constructor that takes no parameters
class Brain private:
    override def toString = "This is the brain."

object Brain:
    val brain = Brain()
    def getInstance = brain

@main def singletonTest =
    // this won't compile because the constructor is private
    // val brain = Brain()

    // this works:
    val brain = Brain.getInstance
    println(brain)
```

You don't have to name the accessor method `getInstance`; it's only used here because of the Java convention. Name it whatever seems best to you.

COMPANION OBJECTS

A *companion object* is simply an `object` that's defined in the same file as a `class` and that has the same name as the class. If you declare a class named `Foo` in a file named `Foo.scala`, and then declare an object named `Foo` in that same file, the `Foo` object is the companion object of the `Foo` class.

A companion object can be used for several purposes, and one purpose is that any method declared in a companion object will appear to be a static method on the object. See [Recipe 7.4, “Creating Static Members with Companion Objects”](#), for more information on creating the equivalent of Java's static methods, and [Recipe 7.6, “Implementing a Static Factory with apply”](#), for examples of how (and why) to define `apply` methods in a companion object.

Utility classes

Depending on what you're trying to accomplish, creating a private class constructor may not be necessary at all. For instance, in Java you'd create a *file utilities* class by defining `static` methods in a Java class, but in Scala you'd do the same thing by putting the methods in a Scala *object*:

```
object FileUtils:
    def readFile(filename: String): String = ???
    def writeFile(filename: String, contents: Sti
```

This lets consumers of your code call those methods without needing to create an instance of the `FileUtils` class:

```
val contents = FileUtils.readFile("input.txt")
FileUtils.writeFile("output.txt", content)
```

In a case like this, there's no need for a private class constructor; just don't define a class.

5.6 Providing Default Values for Constructor Parameters

Problem

You want to provide a default value for a constructor parameter, which gives consumers of your class the option of specifying that parameter when calling the constructor, or not.

Solution

Give the parameter a default value in the constructor declaration. Here's a declaration of a `Socket` class with one

constructor parameter named `timeout` that has a default value of `10_000`:

```
class Socket(val timeout: Int = 10_000)
```

Because the parameter is defined with a default value, you can call the constructor without specifying a timeout value, in which case you get the default value:

```
val s = Socket()  
s.timeout // Int = 10000
```

You can also specify a desired timeout value when creating a new `Socket`:

```
val s = Socket(5_000)  
s.timeout // Int = 5000
```

Discussion

This recipe demonstrates a powerful feature that can eliminate the need for auxiliary constructors. As shown in the Solution, the following single constructor is the equivalent of two constructors:

```
class Socket(val timeout: Int = 10_000)
val s = Socket()
val s = Socket(5_000)
```

If this feature didn't exist, two constructors would be required to get the same functionality—a primary one-arg constructor and an auxiliary zero-arg constructor:

```
class Socket(val timeout: Int) :
    def this() = this(10_000)
```

Multiple parameters

You can also provide default values for multiple constructor parameters:

```
class Socket(val timeout: Int = 1_000, val linger: Int = 0)
    override def toString = s"timeout: $timeout, linger: $linger"
```

Though you've defined only one constructor, your class now appears to have three constructors:

```
println(Socket())                      // timeout: 1000,
println(Socket(3_000))                  // timeout: 3000,
println(Socket(3_000, 4_000))          // timeout: 3000, linger: 4000
```

As shown in [Recipe 8.3, “Using Parameter Names When Calling a Method”](#), if you prefer, you can also provide the names of constructor parameters when creating class instances:

```
Socket(timeout=3_000, linger=4_000)
Socket(linger=4_000, timeout=3_000)
Socket(timeout=3_000)
Socket(linger=4_000)
```

5.7 Handling Constructor Parameters When Extending a Class

Problem

You want to extend a base class that has constructor parameters, and your new subclass may take additional parameters.

Solution

In this section I cover the case of extending a class that has one or more `val` constructor parameters. The solution for

handling constructor parameters that are defined as `var` is more complicated and is handled in the Discussion.

Working with `val` constructor parameters

Assuming that your base class has only `val` constructor parameters, when you define your subclass constructor, leave the `val` declaration off the fields that are common to both classes. Then define new constructor parameters in the subclass as `val` (or `var`) fields.

To demonstrate this, first define a `Person` base class that has a `val` parameter named `name`:

```
class Person(val name: String)
```

Next, define `Employee` as a subclass of `Person`, so that it takes the constructor parameter `name` and a new parameter named `age`. The `name` parameter is common to the parent `Person` class, so leave the `val` declaration off that field, but `age` is new, so declare it as a `val`:

```
class Employee(name: String, val age: Int) extends Person  
  override def toString = s"$name is $age years old"
```

Now you can create a new `Employee`:

```
scala> val joe = Employee("Joe", 33)
val joe: Employee = Joe is 33 years old
```

This works as desired, and because the fields are immutable, there are no other issues.

Discussion

When a constructor parameter in the base class is defined as a `var` field, the situation is more complicated. There are two possible solutions:

- Use a different name for the field in the subclass.
- Implement the subclass constructor as an `apply` method in a companion object.

Use a different name for the field in the subclass

The first approach is to use a different name for the common field in the subclass constructor. For instance, in this example I use the name `_name` in the `Employee` constructor, rather than using `name`:

```
class Person(var name: String)
```

```
// note the use of '_name' here
class Employee(_name: String, var age: Int) extends Person {
    override def toString = s"$name is $age"
```

The reason for this is that this constructor parameter in the `Employee` class (`_name`) ends up being generated as a field inside the `Employee` class. You can see this if you disassemble the `Employee` .class file:

```
$ javap -private Employee
public class Employee extends Person {
    private final java.lang.String _name;      // name
    private final int age;                      // age
    public Employee(java.lang.String, int);
    public int age();
    public java.lang.String toString();
}
```

If you had named this field `name`, this field in the `Employee` class would essentially cover up the `name` field in the `Person` class. This causes problems, such as the inconsistent results you see at the end of this example:

```
class Person(var name: String)
```

```

// i incorrectly use 'name' here, rather than '_name'
class Employee(name: String, var age: Int) extends Person {
    override def toString = s"$name is $age years old"
}

// everything looks OK at first
val e = Employee("Joe", 33)
e // Joe is 33 years old

// but problems show up when i update the 'name'
e.name = "Fred"
e.age = 34
e // "Joe is 34 years old" <-- error: this is a Person
e.name // "Fred" <-- this is Person

```

This happens in this example because I (incorrectly) name my field `name` in `Employee`, and this `name` collides with the `name` in `Person`. So, when extending a class that has a `var` constructor parameter, use a different name for that field in the subclass.

THIS CREATES A PRIVATE VAL FIELD

In this example, the approach shown creates a `private val` field named `_name` in the `Employee` class. However, that field can't be accessed outside of this class, so this is a relatively minor issue. As long as you don't use that field, nobody else can use it.

Use an apply method in a companion object

Because that solution does create a `private val` field named `_name` in the `Employee` class, you may prefer another solution.

Another way to solve the problem is:

- Make the `Employee` constructor private.
- Create an `apply` method in the `Employee` companion object to serve as a constructor.

For example, given this `Person` class with a `var` parameter named `name`:

```
class Person(var name: String):  
    override def toString = s"$name"
```

you can create the `Employee` class with a private constructor and an `apply` method in its companion object, like this:

```
class Employee private extends Person(""):  
    var age = 0  
    println("Employee constructor called")  
    override def toString = s"$name is $age"
```

```
object Employee:  
    def apply(_name: String, _age: Int) =  
        val e = new Employee()  
        e.name = _name  
        e.age = _age  
        e
```

Now when you run these steps, everything will work as desired:

```
val e = Employee("Joe", 33)  
e          // Joe is 33 years old  
  
// update and verify the name and age fields  
e.name = "Fred"  
e.age = 34  
e          // "Fred is 34 years old"  
e.name    // "Fred"
```

This approach allows the `Employee` class to inherit the `name` field from the `Person` class and doesn't require the use of a `_name` field, as shown in the previous solution. The trade-off is that this approach requires a little more code, though it's a cleaner approach.

In summary, if you're extending a class that only has `val` constructor parameters, use the approach shown in the

Solution. However, if you're extending a class that has `var` constructor parameters, use one of these two solutions shown in the Discussion.

5.8 Calling a Superclass Constructor

Problem

You want to control the superclass constructor that's called when you define constructors in a subclass.

Solution

This is a bit of a trick question, because you *can* control the superclass constructor that's called by the primary constructor in a subclass, but you *can't* control the superclass constructor that's called by an auxiliary constructor in the subclass.

When you define a subclass in Scala, you control the superclass constructor that's called by its primary constructor when you specify the `extends` portion of the subclass declaration. For instance, in the following code, the primary constructor of the `Dog` class calls the primary constructor of the `Pet` class, which is a one-arg constructor that takes `name` as its parameter:

```
class Pet(var name: String)
class Dog(name: String) extends Pet(name)
```

Furthermore, if the `Pet` class has multiple constructors, the primary constructor of the `Dog` class can call any one of those constructors. In this next example, the primary constructor of the `Dog` class calls the one-arg auxiliary constructor of the `Pet` class by specifying that constructor in its `extends` clause:

```
// (1) two-arg primary constructor
class Pet(var name: String, var age: Int):
    // (2) one-arg auxiliary constructor
    def this(name: String) = this(name, 0)
    override def toString = s"$name is $age years old"

// calls the Pet one-arg constructor
class Dog(name: String) extends Pet(name)
```

Alternatively, it can call the two-arg primary constructor of the `Pet` class:

```
// call the two-arg constructor
class Dog(name: String) extends Pet(name, 0)
```

However, regarding auxiliary constructors, because the first line of an auxiliary constructor must be a call to another constructor of the *current* class, there's no way for auxiliary constructors to call a superclass constructor.

Discussion

As shown in the following code, the primary constructor of the `Employee` class can call any constructor in the `Person` class, but the auxiliary constructors of the `Employee` class must call a previously defined constructor of its own class with the `this` method as its first line:

```
case class Address(city: String, state: String)
case class Role(role: String)

class Person(var name: String, var address: Address)

    // no way for Employee auxiliary constructors to call Person's constructor
    def this(name: String) =
        this(name, null)
        address = null //don't use null in the initialiser

class Employee(name: String, role: Role, address: Address)
extends Person(name, address)

    def this(name: String) =
        this(name, null, null)
```

```
def this(name: String, role: Role) =  
    this(name, role, null)  
  
def this(name: String, address: Address) =  
    this(name, null, address)
```

Therefore, there's no direct way to control which superclass constructor is called from an auxiliary constructor in a subclass. In fact, because each auxiliary constructor must call a previously defined constructor in the same class, all auxiliary constructors will eventually call the same superclass constructor that's called from the subclass's primary constructor.

5.9 Defining an equals Method (Object Equality)

Problem

You want to define an `equals` method for a class so you can compare object instances to each other.

Solution

This solution is easier to understand if I cover a bit of background, so first I'll share three things you need to know.

The first is that object instances are compared with the `==` symbol:

```
"foo" == "foo"      // true
"foo" == "bar"      // false
"foo" == null       // false
null == "foo"       // false
1 == 1              // true
1 == 2              // false

case class Person(name: String)
Person("Alex") == Person("Alvin")    // false
```

This is different than Java, which uses `==` for primitive values and `equals` for object comparisons.

The second thing to know is that `==` is defined on the `Any` class, so (a) it's inherited by all other classes, and (b) it calls the `equals` method that's defined for a class. What happens is that when you write `1 == 2`, that code is the same as writing `1.==`

(2), and then that `==` method invokes the `equals` method on the `1` object, which is an instance of `Int` in this example.

The third thing to know is that properly writing an `equals` method turns out to be a difficult problem, so much so that *Programming in Scala* takes 23 pages to discuss it, and *Effective Java* takes 17 pages to cover object equality. *Effective Java* begins its treatment with the statement, “Overriding the `equals` method seems simple, but there are many ways to get it wrong, and the consequences can be dire.” Despite this complexity, I’ll attempt to demonstrate a solid solution to the problem, and I’ll also share references for further reading.

Don’t implement `equals` unless necessary

Before jumping into how to implement an `equals` method, it’s worth noting that *Effective Java* states that *not* implementing an `equals` method is the correct solution for the following situations:

- Each instance of a class is inherently unique. Instances of a `Thread` class are given as an example.
- There is no need for the class to provide a logical equality test. The Java `Pattern` class is given as an example; the designers didn’t think that people would want or need this

functionality, so it simply inherits its behavior from the Java `Object` class.

- A superclass has already overridden `equals`, and its behavior is appropriate for this class.
- The class is private or package-private (in Java), and you are certain its `equals` method will never be invoked.

Those are four situations where you won't want to write a custom `equals` method for a Java class, and those rules make sense for Scala as well. The rest of this recipe focuses on how to properly implement an `equals` method.

A seven-step process

The fourth edition of *Programming in Scala* recommends a seven-step process for implementing an `equals` method for nonfinal classes:

1. Create a `canEqual` method with the proper signature, taking an `Any` parameter and returning a `Boolean`.
2. `canEqual` should return `true` if the argument passed into it is an instance of the current class, `false` otherwise. (The *current* class is especially important with inheritance.)

3. Implement the `equals` method with the proper signature, taking an `Any` parameter and returning a `Boolean`.
4. Write the body of `equals` as a single `match` expression.
5. The `match` expression should have two cases. As you'll see in the following code, the first case should be a typed pattern for the current class.
6. In the body of this first case, implement a series of logical "and" tests for all the tests in this class that must be true. If this class extends anything other than `AnyRef`, you'll want to invoke your superclass `equals` method as part of these tests. One of the "and" tests must also be a call to `canEqual`.
7. For the second case, just specify a wildcard pattern that yields `false`.

As a practical matter, any time you implement an `equals` method you should also implement a `hashCode` method. This is shown as an optional eighth step in the example that follows.

I'll show two examples in this recipe, one here, and another in the Discussion.

Example 1: Implementing equals for a single class

Here's an example that demonstrates how to properly write an `equals` method for a small Scala class. In this example I create a `Person` class with two `var` fields:

```
class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)
```

Given those two constructor parameters, here's the complete source code for a `Person` class that implements an `equals` method and a corresponding `hashCode` method. The comments show which steps in the solution the code refers to:

```
class Person(var name: String, var age: Int) :  
  
    // Step 1 - proper signature for `canEqual`  
    // Step 2 - compare `a` to the current class  
    // (isInstanceOf returns true or false)  
    def canEqual(a: Any) = a.isInstanceOf[Person]  
  
    // Step 3 - proper signature for `equals`  
    // Steps 4 thru 7 - implement a `match` expression  
    override def equals(that: Any): Boolean =  
        that match  
            case that: Person =>  
                that.canEqual(this) &&  
                this.name == that.name &&  
                this.age == that.age
```

```
    case _ =>
        false

// Step 8 (optional) - implement a corresponding hashCode method
override def hashCode: Int =
    val prime = 31
    var result = 1
    result = prime * result + age
    result = prime * result + (if name == null
        0
      else name.hashCode)
    result

end Person
```

If you compare that code to the seven steps previously described, you'll see that they match those definitions. A key to the solution is this code inside the first `case` statement:

```
case that: Person =>
    that.canEqual(this) &&
    this.name == that.name &&
    this.age == that.age
```

This code tests to see whether `that` is an instance of `Person`:

```
case that: Person =>
```

If `that` is *not* a `Person`, the other `case` statement is executed.

Next, this line of code tests the opposite situation: that the current instance (`this`) is an instance of the class of `that`:

```
that.canEqual(this) ...
```

This is particularly important when inheritance is involved, such as when `Employee` is an instance of `Person` but `Person` is not an instance of `Employee`.

After that, the rest of the code after `canEqual` tests the equality of the individual fields in the `Person` class.

With the `equals` method defined, you can compare instances of a `Person` with `==`, as demonstrated in the following ScalaTest unit tests:

```
import org.scalatest.funsuite.AnyFunSuite

class PersonTests extends AnyFunSuite:

    // these first two instances should be equal
    val nimoy    = Person("Leonard Nimoy", 82)
    val nimoy2   = Person("Leonard Nimoy", 82)
```

```

val nimoy83 = Person("Leonard Nimoy", 83)
val shatner = Person("William Shatner", 82)

// [1] a basic test to start with
test("nimoy    != null")      { assert(nimoy !=

// [2] these reflexive and symmetric tests :
// [2a] reflexive
test("nimoy    == nimoy")     { assert(nimoy ==
// [2b] symmetric
test("nimoy    == nimoy2")    { assert(nimoy ==
test("nimoy2 == nimoy")     { assert(nimoy2 ==

// [3] these should not be equal
test("nimoy    != nimoy83")  { assert(nimoy !=
test("nimoy    != shatner")   { assert(nimoy !=
test("shatner != nimoy")    { assert(shatner

```

All of these tests pass as desired. In the Discussion, the reflexive and symmetric comments are explained, and a second example shows how this formula works when an `Employee` class extends `Person`.

INTELLIJ IDEA

At the time of this writing, when given a `Person` class with `name` and `age` fields, IntelliJ IDEA Version 2021.1.4 generates an `equals` method that is almost identical to the code shown in this solution.

Discussion

The way `==` works in Scala is that when it's invoked on a class instance, as in `nimoy == shatner`, the `equals` method on `nimoy` is called. In short, this code:

```
nimoy == shatner
```

is the same as this code:

```
nimoy.==(shatner)
```

which is the same as this code:

```
nimoy.equals(shatner)
```

As shown, the `==` method is like syntactic sugar for calling `equals`. You could write `nimoy.equals(shatner)`, but

nobody does that because `==` is much easier for humans to read.

THE EQUALS CONTRACT

The [Scaladoc for the `equals` method of the `Any` class](#) essentially specifies the contract for how `equals` methods should be implemented. It begins by stating that “any implementation of this method should be an *equivalence relation*.” It further states that an equivalence relation should have these three properties:

- It is *reflexive*: for any instance `x` of type `Any`, `x.equals(x)` should return `true`.
- It is *symmetric*: for any instances `x` and `y` of type `Any`, `x.equals(y)` should return `true` if and only if `y.equals(x)` returns `true`.
- It is *transitive*: for any instances `x`, `y`, and `z` of type `AnyRef`, if `x.equals(y)` returns `true` and `y.equals(z)` returns `true`, then `x.equals(z)` should return `true`.

Finally it states that “if you override the `equals` method, you should verify that your implementation remains an equivalence relation.”

The `Person` example meets that criteria.

Now let’s look at how to handle this when inheritance is involved.

Example 2: Inheritance

An important benefit of this approach is that you can continue to use it when you use inheritance in classes. For instance, in the following code, the `Employee` class extends the `Person` class that's shown in the Solution. It uses the same formula that was shown in the first example, with additional tests to (a) test the new `role` field in `Employee`, and (b) call `super.equals(that)` to verify that `equals` in `Person` is also true:

```
class Employee(name: String, age: Int, var role: String)
  extends Person(name, age)

  override def canEqual(a: Any) = a.isInstanceOf[Employee]

  override def equals(that: Any): Boolean =
    that match
      case that: Employee =>
        that.canEqual(this) &&
        this.role == that.role &&
        super.equals(that)
      case _ =>
        false

  override def hashCode: Int =
    val prime = 31
    var result = 1
    result = prime * result + (if role == null then 0 else role.hashCode)
    result + super.hashCode
```

```
end Employee
```

Note in this code:

- `canEqual` checks for an instance of `Employee` (not `Person`).
- The first `case` expression also tests for `Employee` (not `Person`).
- The `Employee` case calls `canEqual`, tests the field(s) in its class, and also calls `super.equals(that)` to use the `equals` code in `Person` for its equality tests. This ensures that the fields in `Person` as well as the new `role` field in `Employee` are all equal.

The following ScalaTest unit tests verify that the `equals` method in `Employee` is implemented correctly:

```
import org.scalatest.funsuite.AnyFunSuite

class EmployeeTests extends AnyFunSuite:

    // these first two instances should be equal
    val eNimoy1 = Employee("Leonard Nimoy", 82, "Star Trek")
    val eNimoy2 = Employee("Leonard Nimoy", 82, "Star Trek")
    val pNimoy = Person("Leonard Nimoy", 82)
```

```
val eShatner = Employee("William Shatner", 82)

// equality tests (reflexive and symmetric)
test("eNimoy1 == eNimoy1") { assertEquals(eNimoy1, eNimoy1) }

test("eNimoy1 == eNimoy2") { assertEquals(eNimoy1, eNimoy2) }
test("eNimoy2 == eNimoy1") { assertEquals(eNimoy2, eNimoy1) }

// non-equality tests
test("eNimoy1 != pNimoy") { assertNotEquals(eNimoy1, pNimoy) }
test("pNimoy != eNimoy1") { assertNotEquals(pNimoy, eNimoy1) }
test("eNimoy1 != eShatner") { assertNotEquals(eNimoy1, eShatner) }
test("eShatner != eNimoy1") { assertNotEquals(eShatner, eNimoy1) }
```

All the tests pass, including the comparison of the `eNimoy` and `pNimoy` objects, which are instances of the `Employee` and `Person` classes, respectively.

Beware equals methods with var fields and mutable collections

As a warning, while these examples demonstrate a solid formula for implementing `equals` and `hashCode` methods, the [Artima blog post “How to Write an Equality Method in Java”](#) explains that when `equals` and `hashCode` algorithms depend

on *mutable state*, i.e., `var` fields like `name`, `age`, and `role`, this can be a problem for users in collections.

The basic problem is that if users of your class put mutable fields into collections, the fields can change after they're in the collection. Here's a demonstration of this problem. First, create an `Employee` instance like this:

```
val eNimoy = Employee("Leonard Nimoy", 81, "Actor")
```

Then add that instance to a `Set`:

```
val set = scala.collection.mutable.Set[Employee]
set += eNimoy
```

When you run this code, you'll see that it returns `true`, as expected:

```
set.contains(eNimoy) // true
```

But now if you modify the `eNimoy` instance and then run the same test, you'll find that it (probably) returns `false`:

```
eNimoy.age = 82
set.contains(eNimoy) // false
```

In regard to handling this problem, the Artima blog post suggests that in this situation you shouldn't override `hashCode` and should name your equality method something other than `equals`. This way, your class will inherit the default implementations of `hashCode` and `equals`.

Implementing `hashCode`

I won't discuss `hashCode` algorithms in depth, but in *Effective Java*, Joshua Bloch writes that the following statements comprise the contract for `hashCode` algorithms (which he adapted from the Java `Object` documentation):

- When `hashCode` is invoked on an object repeatedly within an application, it must consistently return the same value, provided that no information in the `equals` method comparison has changed.
- If two objects are equal according to their `equals` methods, their `hashCode` values must be the same.
- If two objects are *unequal* according to their `equals` methods, it is not required that their `hashCode` values be

different. But producing distinct results for unequal objects may improve the performance of hash tables.

As a brief survey of `hashCode` algorithms, the algorithm I used in the `Person` class is consistent with the suggestions in *Effective Java*:

```
// note: the `if name == null then 0` test is required
// `null.hashCode` throws a NullPointerException
override def hashCode: Int =
    val prime = 31
    var result = 1
    result = prime * result + age
    result = prime * result + (if name == null then 0 else name.hashCode)
    result
```

Next, this is the `hashCode` method produced by making `Person` a `case` class, then compiling its code with the Scala 3 `scalac` command and decompiling it with JAD:

```
public int hashCode() {
    int i = 0xcafebabe;
    i = Statics.mix(i, productPrefix().hashCode());
    i = Statics.mix(i, Statics.anyHash(name()));
    i = Statics.mix(i, age());
    return Statics.finalizeHash(i, 2);
```

```
}
```

The IntelliJ IDEA *generate code* option generates this code for a Scala 2.x version of the `Person` class:

```
// scala 2 syntax
override def hashCode(): Int = {
    val state = Seq(super.hashCode(), name, age)
    state.map(_.hashCode()).foldLeft(0)((a, b) =>
}
```

See Also

- *Programming in Scala*, by Martin Odersky et al. (Artima Press).
- *Effective Java*, by Joshua Bloch (Addison-Wesley).
- The Artima blog post [“How to Write an Equality Method in Java”](#).
- The Wikipedia definition of [equivalence relation](#).
- See [Recipe 23.11, “Controlling How Classes Can Be Compared with Multiversal Equality”](#), for a discussion of multiversal equality, and [Recipe 23.12, “Limiting Equality Comparisons with the CanEqual Typeclass”](#), for a

discussion of how to limit equality comparisons with the `CanEqual` typeclass.

5.10 Preventing Accessor and Mutator Methods from Being Generated

Problem

When you define a class field as a `var`, Scala automatically generates accessor (getter) and mutator (setter) methods for it, and defining a field as a `val` automatically generates an accessor method, but you don't want either an accessor or a mutator.

Solution

The solution is to either:

- Add the `private` access modifier to the `val` or `var` declaration so it can only be accessed by instances of the current class

- Add the `protected` access modifier so it can be accessed by classes that extend the current class

The `private` modifier

As an example of how the `private` access modifier works, this `Animal` class declares `_numLegs` as a private field. As a result, other non-`Animal` instances can't access `_numLegs`, but notice that the `iHaveMoreLegs` method can access the `_numLegs` field of another `Animal` instance (as `that._numLegs`):

```
class Animal:
    private var _numLegs = 2
    def numLegs = _numLegs // getter
    def numLegs_=(numLegs: Int): Unit = // setter
        _numLegs = numLegs

    // note that we can access the `'_numLegs` field
    // of another Animal instance (`that`)
    def iHaveMoreLegs(that: Animal): Boolean =
        this._numLegs > that._numLegs
```

Given that code, all the following ScalaTest `assert` tests pass:

```
val a = Animal()
assert(a.numLegs == 2) // getter test
```

```
a.numLegs = 4
assert(a.numLegs == 4)      // setter test

// the default number of legs is 2, so this is true

val b = Animal()
assert(a.iHaveMoreLegs(b))
```

Also, if you attempt to access `_numLegs` from outside the class, you'll see that this code won't compile:

```
//a._numLegs    // error, cannot be accessed (other than by its own methods)
```

The protected modifier

If you change the `_numLegs` field in `Animal` from `private` to `protected`, you can then create a new class that extends `Animal`, while overriding the `_numLegs` value:

```
class Dog extends Animal:
    _numLegs = 4
```

When you do this and then create two `Dog` instances, you'll see that all of these tests pass, just like the previous tests:

```
val a = Dog()
assert(a.numLegs == 4)

a.numLegs = 3
assert(a.numLegs == 3)

// the default number of legs is 4, so this is true
val b = Dog()
assert(b.iHaveMoreLegs(a))
```

Similarly, `_numLegs` still can't be accessed from outside the class, so this line of code won't compile:

```
a._numLegs // compiler error, cannot be accessed
```

Discussion

Scala constructor parameters and fields are publicly accessible by default, so when you don't want those fields to have an accessor or a mutator, defining the fields as `private` or `protected` gives you the levels of control shown.

DISASSEMBLE CLASSES TO SEE WHAT THE JVM SEES

As a reminder, whenever you want to know more about how Scala works, it can help to create small tests and then decompile them with `javap`. For instance, here's a class with two `val` fields, where `i` is public and `d` is private:

```
class Foo(val i: Int, private val d: Double)
```

When you compile that class with `scalac` and then disassemble it with `javap`, you can see what the JVM sees:

```
$ javap -private Foo
Compiled from "Foo.scala"
public class Foo {
    public Foo(int, double);

    private final int i;          // i is private and has
    public int i();                // a public accessor method

    private final double d;        // d is private and has
    private double d();           // a private accessor method
}
```

Note that I added comments to this code to explain its output, but the rest of it is generated by the `javap` command. Type `javap -help` at your command line to see other options that are available for disassembling class files.

5.11 Overriding Default Accessors and Mutators

Problem

You want to override the getter or setter methods that Scala generates for you.

Solution

This is a bit of a trick problem, because you can't directly override the getter and setter methods Scala generates for you, at least not if you want to stick with the Scala naming conventions. For instance, if you have a class named `Person` with a constructor parameter named `name`, and attempt to create getter and setter methods according to the Scala conventions, your code won't compile:

```
// error: this won't work
class Person(private var name: String) :
    def name = name
    def name_=(aName: String): Unit =
        name = aName
```

Attempting to compile this code generates this error:

```
2 |     def name = name
  |           ^
  |           Overloaded or recursive method
```

I'll examine these problems more in the Discussion, but the short answer is that both the constructor parameter and the getter method are named `name`, and Scala won't allow that.

To solve this problem, change the name of the field you use in the class constructor so it won't collide with the name of the getter method you want to use. One approach is to add a leading underscore to the parameter name, so if you want to manually create a getter method called `name`, use the parameter name `_name` in the constructor, then declare your getter and setter methods according to the Scala conventions:

```
class Person(private var _name: String):  
  def name = _name  
  def name_= (aName: String): Unit = _name = aName
```

Notice the constructor parameter is declared `private` and `var`. The `private` keyword keeps Scala from exposing that field to other classes, and `var` lets the value of `_name` be changed.

As you'll see in the Discussion, creating a getter method named `name` and a setter method named `name_=` conforms to the

Scala convention for a field named `name`, and it lets a consumer of your class write code like this:

```
val p = Person("Winston Bishop")  
  
// setter  
p.name = "Winnie the Bish"  
  
// getter  
println(p.name) // prints "Winnie the Bish"
```

If you don't want to follow this Scala naming convention for getters and setters, you can use any other approach you want. For instance, you can name your methods `getName` and `setName`, following the JavaBeans style.

To summarize this, the recipe for overriding default getter and setter methods is:

1. Create a `private var` constructor parameter with a name you want to reference from within your class. In this example, the field is named `_name`.
2. Define getter and setter method names that you want other classes to use. In the example, the getter method name is `name`, and the setter method name is `name_=`

(which, combined with Scala's syntactic sugar, lets users write `p.name = "Winnie the Bish"`).

3. Modify the body of the getter and setter methods as desired.

CLASS FIELDS WORK THE SAME WAY

While these examples use fields in a class constructor, the same principles hold true for fields defined inside a class.

Discussion

When you define a constructor parameter to be a `var` field and compile the code, Scala makes the field private to the class and automatically generates getter and setter methods that other classes can use to access the field. For instance, given this `Stock` class:

```
class Stock(var symbol: String)
```

after the class is compiled to a class file with `scalac` and then decompiled with a tool like JAD, you'll see Java code like this:

```
public class Stock {  
    public Stock(String symbol) {
```

```
        this.symbol = symbol;
        super();
    }

    public String symbol() {
        return symbol;
    }

    public void symbol_=eq(String x$1) {
        symbol = x$1;
    }

    private String symbol;
}
```

You can see that the Scala compiler generates two methods: a getter named `symbol` and a setter named `symbol_=eq`. This second method is the same as a method you would name `symbol_=` in your Scala code, but under the hood Scala needs to translate the `=` symbol to `$eq` to work with the JVM.

That second method name is a little unusual, but it follows a Scala convention, and when it's mixed with some syntactic sugar, it lets you set the `symbol` field on a `Stock` instance like this:

```
stock.symbol = "GOOG"
```

The way this works is that behind the scenes, Scala converts that line of code into this line of code:

```
stock.symbol_ $eq ("GOOG")
```

This is something you generally never have to think about, unless you want to override the mutator method.

5.12 Assigning a Block or Function to a (lazy) Field

Problem

You want to initialize a field in a class using a block of code, or by calling a method or function.

Solution

Assign the desired block of code or function to a field within the class body. Optionally, define the field as `lazy` if the algorithm requires a long time to run.

In the following example class, the field `text` is set equal to a block of code—a `try/catch` block—which either returns (a)

the text contained in a file, or (b) an error message, depending on whether the file exists and can be read:

```
import scala.io.Source

class FileReader(filename: String):
    // assign this block of code to the 'text' field
    val text =
        // 'fileContents' will either contain the file's
        // or the exception message as a string
        val fileContents =
            try
                Source.fromFile(filename).getLines().mkString
            catch
                case e: Exception => e.getMessage

        println(fileContents)      // print the contents
        fileContents              // return the contents

@main def classFieldTest =
    val reader = FileReader("/etc/passwd")
```

Because the assignment of the code block to the `text` field is in the body of the `FileReader` class, this code is in the class's constructor and will be executed when a new instance of the class is created. Therefore, when you compile and run this

example it will print either the contents of the file or the exception message that comes from trying to read the file. Either way, the block of code is executed—including the `println` statement—and the result is assigned to the `text` field.

Discussion

When it makes sense, define a field like this to be `lazy`, which means that the field won't be evaluated until it's accessed. To demonstrate this, update the previous example by making

`text` a `lazy val` field:

```
import scala.io.Source

class FileReader(filename: String) :
    // the only difference from the previous example
    // this field is defined as 'lazy'
    lazy val text =
        val fileContents =
            try
                Source.fromFile(filename).getLines()
            catch
                case e: Exception => e.getMessage
        println(fileContents)
        fileContents
```

```
@main def classFieldTest =  
  val reader = FileReader("/etc/passwd")
```

Now when this example is run, nothing happens; you see no output, because the `text` field isn't evaluated until it's accessed. The block of code isn't executed until you call `reader.text`, at which point you'll see output from the `println` statement.

This is how a `lazy` field works: even though it's defined as a field in a class—meaning that it's a part of the class constructor—that code won't be executed until you explicitly ask for it.

Defining a field as `lazy` is a useful approach when the field might not be accessed in the normal processing of your algorithms, or if running the algorithm will take long and you want to defer that to a later time.

See Also

- `try/catch` expressions were used in these examples, but the code can be written more concisely using the `Try` classes. See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for details on how to use

`Try`, `Success`, and `Failure` to make the code more concise.

- See [Recipe 5.2](#) to understand how fields work in class constructors.

5.13 Setting Uninitialized var Field Types

Problem

You want to set the type for an uninitialized `var` field in a class, so you begin to write code like this:

```
var x =
```

and then wonder how to finish writing the expression.

Solution

In general, the best approach is to define the field as an `Option`. For certain types, such as `String` and numeric fields, you can specify default initial values.

For instance, imagine that you're starting the next great social network, and to encourage people to sign up, you only ask for a username and password during the registration process. Therefore, you define `username` and `password` as fields in your class constructor:

```
case class Person(var username: String, var passw
```

However, later on you'll also want to get other information from users, including their age, first name, last name, and address. Setting those first three `var` fields with default values is simple:

```
var age = 0
var firstName = ""
var lastName = ""
```

But what do you do when you get to the `address`? The solution is to define the `address` field as an `Option`, as shown here:

```
case class Person(var username: String, var passw
  var age = 0
  var firstName = ""
  var lastName = ""
  var address: Option[Address] = None
```

```
val address = Option[Address] = None
```

```
case class Address(city: String, state: String, zip: Int)
```

Later, when a user provides an address, you assign it using a `Some`, like this:

```
val p = Person("alvinalexander", "secret")  
p.address = Some(Address("Talkeetna", "AK", 996))
```

When you need to access the `address` field, there are a variety of approaches you can use, and these are discussed in detail in [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#). As one example, you can print the fields of an `Address` using `foreach`:

```
p.address.foreach { a =>  
    println(s"${a.city}, ${a.state}, ${a.zip}")  
}
```

If the `address` field hasn’t been assigned, `address` will have the value `None`, and calling `foreach` on it does nothing. If the `address` field is assigned, it will be a `Some` that contains an

`Address`, and the `foreach` method on `Some` extracts the value out of the `Some` and the data is printed with `foreach`.

Discussion

You can think of the body of `None`'s `foreach` method as being defined like this:

```
def foreach[A, U](f: A => U): Unit = {}
```

Because `None` is guaranteed to be empty—it's an empty container—its `foreach` method is essentially a do-nothing method. (It's implemented differently than this, but this is a convenient way to think about it.)

Similarly, when you call `foreach` on `Some`, it knows that it contains one element—such as an instance of an `Address`—so it applies your algorithm to that element.

See Also

- It's important to stress that Scala provides a terrific opportunity for you to get away from ever using `null` values again. [Recipe 24.5, “Eliminating null Values from](#)

[Your Code](#)”, shows ways to eliminate common uses of `null` values.

- In Scala frameworks, such as the [Play Framework](#), `Option` fields are commonly used. See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for a detailed discussion of how to work with `Option` values.
- On a related note, there are times you may need to override the default type of a numeric field. For those occasions, see [Recipe 3.3, “Overriding the Default Numeric Type”](#).

5.14 Generating Boilerplate Code with Case Classes

Problem

You’re working with `match` expressions, [Akka actors](#), or other situations where you want to use the *case class* syntax to generate boilerplate code, including accessor and mutator methods, along with `apply`, `unapply`, `toString`, `equals`, and `hashCode` methods, and more.

Solution

When you want your class to have many additional built-in features—such as creating classes in functional programming—define your class as a *case class*, declaring any parameters it needs in its constructor:

```
// name and relation are 'val' by default
case class Person(name: String, relation: String)
```

Defining a class as a case class results in a lot of useful boilerplate code being generated, with the following benefits:

- Accessor methods are generated for the constructor parameters because case class constructor parameters are `val` by default. Mutator methods are also generated for parameters that are declared as `var`.
- A good default `toString` method is generated.
- An `unapply` method is generated, making it easy to use case classes in `match` expressions.
- `equals` and `hashCode` methods are generated, so instances can easily be compared and used in collections.
- A `copy` method is generated, which makes it easy to create new instances from existing instances (a technique used in functional programming).

Here's a demonstration of these features. First, define a `case` class and an instance of it:

```
case class Person(name: String, relation: String)
val emily = Person("Emily", "niece") // Person
```

Case class constructor parameters are `val` by default, so accessor methods are generated for the parameters, but mutator methods are not generated:

```
scala> emily.name
res0: String = Emily

// can't mutate `name`
scala> emily.name = "Miley"
1 |emily.name = "Miley"
| ^^^^^^
| Reassignment to val name
```

If you're writing code in a non-FP style, you can declare your constructor parameters as `var` fields, and then both accessor and mutator methods are generated:

```
scala> case class Company(var name: String)
defined class Company
```

```
scala> val c = Company("Mat-Su Valley Programming")
c: Company = Company(Mat-Su Valley Programming)

scala> c.name
res0: String = Mat-Su Valley Programming

scala> c.name = "Valley Programming"
c.name: String = Valley Programming
```

Case classes also have a good default `toString` method implementation:

```
scala> emily
res0: Person = Person(Emily,niece)
```

Because an `unapply` method is automatically created for a case class, it works well when you need to extract information in `match` expressions:

```
scala> emily match { case Person(n, r) => println(n, r) }
(Emily, niece)
```

`equals` and `hashCode` methods are generated for case classes based on their constructor parameters, so instances can

be used in maps and sets, and easily compared in `if` expressions:

```
scala> val hannah = Person("Hannah", "niece")
hannah: Person = Person(Hannah,niece)

scala> emily == hannah
res0: Boolean = false
```

A case class also generates a `copy` method that's helpful when you need to clone an object and change some of the fields during the cloning process:

```
scala> case class Person(firstName: String, lastName: String)
// defined case class Person

scala> val fred = Person("Fred", "Flintstone")
val fred: Person = Person(Fred,Flintstone)

scala> val wilma = fred.copy(firstName = "Wilma")
val wilma: Person = Person(Wilma,Flintstone)
```

This technique is commonly used in FP, and I refer to it as *update as you copy*.

Discussion

Case classes are primarily intended to create immutable records when you write Scala code in an FP style. Indeed, pure FP developers look at case classes as being similar to immutable records found in ML, Haskell, and other FP languages. Because they're intended for use with FP—where everything is immutable—case class constructor parameters are `val` by default.

Generated code

As shown in the Solution, when you create a case class, Scala generates a wealth of code for your class. To see the code that's generated, first compile a simple case class, then disassemble it with `javap`. For example, put this code in a file named *Person.scala*:

```
case class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)
```

Then compile the file:

```
$ scalac Person.scala
```

This creates two class files, *Person.class* and *Person\$.class*. The *Person.class* file contains the bytecode for the `Person` class, and you can disassemble its code with this command:

```
$ javap -public Person
```

That results in the following output, which is the public signature of the `Person` class:

```
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public class Person implements scala.Product,java.lang.Object {
    public static Person apply(java.lang.String, java.lang.String);
    public static Person fromProduct(scala.Product);
    public static Person unapply(Person);
    public Person(java.lang.String, int);
    public scala.collection.Iterator productIterator();
    public scala.collection.Iterator productElement(int);
    public int hashCode();
    public boolean equals(java.lang.Object);
    public java.lang.String toString();
    public boolean canEqual(java.lang.Object);
    public int productArity();
    public java.lang.String productPrefix();
    public java.lang.Object productElement(int);
    public java.lang.String productElementName(int);
    public java.lang.String name();
    public void name_$eq(java.lang.String);}
```

```
public int age();
public void age_$eq(int);
public Person copy(java.lang.String, int);
public java.lang.String copy$default$1();
public int copy$default$2();
public java.lang.String _1();
public int _2();

}
```

Next, disassemble *Person\$.class*, which contains the bytecode for the companion object:

```
$ javap -public Person$  
  
Compiled from "Person.scala"  
public final class Person$ implements  
scala.deriving.Mirror$Product, java.io.Serializable  
    public static final Person$ MODULE$;  
    public static {};  
    public Person apply(java.lang.String, int);  
    public Person unapply(Person);  
    public java.lang.String toString();  
    public Person fromProduct(scala.Product);  
    public java.lang.Object fromProduct(scala.Pro  
}  

```

As you can see, Scala generates a *lot* of source code when you declare a class as a case class.

As a point of comparison, if you remove the keyword `case` from that code—making it a regular class—and then compile it, it only creates the `Person.class` file. When you disassemble it, you'll see that Scala only generates the following code:

```
Compiled from "Person.scala"
public class Person {
    public Person(java.lang.String, int);
    public java.lang.String name();
    public void name_$eq(java.lang.String);
    public int age();
    public void age_$eq(int);
}
```

That's a big difference. The case class results in a total of 30 methods, while the regular class results in only 5. If you need the functionality, this is a good thing, and indeed, in FP all of these methods are put to use. However, if you don't need all of this additional functionality, consider using a regular `class` declaration instead, and adding to it as desired.

CASE CLASSES ARE JUST A CONVENIENCE

It's important to remember that while case classes are very convenient, there isn't anything in them that you can't code for yourself.

Case objects

Scala also has *case objects*, which are similar to case classes in that many similar additional methods are generated. Case objects are useful in certain situations, such as when creating immutable messages for [Akka actors](#):

```
sealed trait Message
case class Speak(text: String) extends Message
case object StopSpeaking extends Message
```

In this example, `Speak` requires a parameter, so it's declared as a case class, but `StopSpeaking` requires no parameters, so it's declared as a case object.

However, note that in Scala 3, enums can often be used instead of case objects:

```
enum Message:
    case Speak(text: String)
    case StopSpeaking
```

See Also

- Using case objects for Akka messages is discussed in [Recipe 18.7, “Sending Messages to Actors”](#).
- When you want to use multiple constructors with a case class, see [Recipe 5.15](#).
- See [Recipe 6.12, “How to Create Sets of Named Values with Enums”](#), for more details on how to use enums.

5.15 Defining Auxiliary Constructors for Case Classes

Problem

Similar to the previous recipe, you want to define one or more auxiliary constructors for a *case class* rather than a plain class.

Solution

A *case class* is a special type of class that generates a *lot* of boilerplate code for you. Because of the way they work, adding what *appears* to be an auxiliary constructor to a case class is

different than adding an auxiliary constructor to a regular class. This is because they're not really constructors: they're `apply` methods in the companion object of the class.

To demonstrate this, start with this case class in a file named `Person.scala`:

```
// initial case class  
case class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)
```

This lets you create a new `Person` instance:

```
val p = Person("John Smith", 30)
```

While this code looks the same as a regular `class`, it's actually implemented differently. When you write that last line of code, behind the scenes the Scala compiler converts it into this:

```
val p = Person.apply("John Smith", 30)
```

This is a call to an `apply` method in the *companion object* of the `Person` class. You don't see this—you just see the line that you wrote—but this is how the compiler translates your code. As a result, if you want to add new constructors to your case

class, you write new `apply` methods. (To be clear, the word *constructor* is used loosely here. Writing an `apply` method is more like writing a factory method.)

For instance, if you decide that you want to add two auxiliary constructors to let you create new `Person` instances, one without specifying any parameters and another by only specifying `name`, the solution is to add `apply` methods to the companion object of the `Person` case class in the `Person.scala` file:

```
// the case class
case class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)

// the companion object
object Person:
    def apply() = new Person("<no name>", 0)
    def apply(name: String) = new Person(name, 0)
```

The following code demonstrates that this works as desired:

```
val a = Person()                                // Person
val b = Person("Sarah Bracknell")               // Person
val c = Person("Sarah Bracknell", 32)           // Person
```

```
// verify the setter methods work
a.name = "Sarah Bannerman"
a.age = 38
println(a)                                // Person
```

Finally, notice that in the `apply` methods in the companion object, the `new` keyword is used to create a new `Person` instance:

```
object Person:
    def apply() = new Person("<no name>", 0)
    ---
```

This is one of the rare situations where `new` is required. In this situation, it tells the compiler to use the class constructor. If you leave `new` off, the compiler will assume that you're referring to the `apply` method in the companion object, which creates a circular or recursive reference.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.14](#) details the nuts and bolts of how case classes work.
- For more information on factories, see my [Java factory pattern tutorial](#).

Chapter 6. Traits and Enums

Because *traits* and *enums* are fundamental building blocks of large Scala applications, they're covered here in this second domain modeling chapter.

Traits can be used to define granular units of behavior, and then those granular units can be combined to build larger components. As shown in [Recipe 6.1](#), in their most basic use, they can be used like a pre-Java 8 `interface`, where the primary reason you use them is to declare the signatures for abstract methods that extending classes must implement.

However, Scala traits are much more powerful and flexible than this, and you can use them to define concrete methods and fields in addition to abstract members. Classes and objects can then mix in multiple traits. These features are demonstrated in Recipes [6.2](#), [6.3](#), and [6.4](#).

As a quick demonstration of this approach, rather than attempt to define everything a dog can do in a single `Dog` class, Scala lets you define traits for smaller units of functionality like a tail, legs, eyes, ears, nose, and a mouth. Those smaller units are easier to think about, create, test, and use, and they can later be combined together to create a complete dog:

```
class Dog extends Tail, Legs, Ears, Mouth, RubberDuck
```

That's a very limited introduction to what Scala traits can do.

Additional features include:

- Abstract and concrete fields ([Recipe 6.2](#))
- Abstract and concrete methods ([Recipe 6.3](#))
- Classes that can mix in multiple traits, as shown in Recipes [6.4](#) and [6.5](#)
- The ability to limit the classes your traits can be mixed into (demonstrated in Recipes [6.6](#), [6.7](#), and [6.8](#))
- Traits that can be parameterized, to limit which classes they can be used with ([Recipe 6.9](#))
- Traits that can have constructor parameters, as shown in [Recipe 6.10](#)
- The ability to use traits to build *modules*, as shown in [Recipe 6.11](#), which is a terrific way to organize and simplify large applications

All of these features are discussed in the recipes in this chapter.

A Brief Introduction to Traits

As a quick example of how traits are used, here's the source code for a trait named `Pet`, which has one concrete method and one abstract method:

```
trait Pet:
    def speak() = println("Yo")      // concrete implementation
    def comeToMaster(): Unit        // abstract method
```

As shown, a *concrete* method is a method that has an implementation—a body—and an *abstract* method is a method that has no body.

Next, here's a trait named `HasLegs`, which has a concrete `run` method built in:

```
trait HasLegs:
    def run() = println("I'm running!")
```

Finally, here's a `Dog` class that mixes in both the `Pet` and `HasLegs` traits, while providing a concrete implementation of the `comeToMaster` method:

```
class Dog extends Pet, HasLegs:
    def comeToMaster() = println("I'm coming!")
```

Now, when you create a new `Dog` instance and call its methods, you'll see output like this:

```
val d = Dog()
d.speak()           // yo
d.comeToMaster()   // I'm coming!
d.run()            // I'm running
```

That's a small glimpse of some basic *trait as an interface* features. This is one way of mixing in multiple traits to create a class.

Trait Construction Order

One point that isn't covered in the following recipes is the order in which traits are constructed when a class mixes in several traits. For example, given these traits:

```
trait First:
    println("First is constructed")
trait Second:
    println("Second is constructed")
trait Third:
    println("Third is constructed")
```

and this class that mixes in those traits:

```
class MyClass extends First, Second, Third:  
    println("MyClass is constructed")
```

when a new instance of `MyClass` is created:

```
val c = MyClass()
```

it has this output:

```
First is constructed  
Second is constructed  
Third is constructed  
MyClass is constructed
```

This demonstrates that the traits are constructed in order from left to right before the class itself is constructed.

After covering traits, the final two lessons cover the `enum` construct, which is new in Scala 3. An `enum`—an abbreviation for *enumeration*—is a shortcut for defining (a) a sealed class or trait along with (b) values defined as members of the class's companion object.

While `enum`s are a shortcut, they're a powerful, concise shortcut. They can be used to create sets of constant named values and can also be used to implement algebraic data types (ADTs). Their use to define a set of constants is demonstrated in [Recipe 6.12](#), and their use to define ADTs is shown in [Recipe 6.13](#).

6.1 Using a Trait as an Interface

Problem

You're used to creating pure interfaces in other languages—declaring method signatures without implementations—and want to create something like that in Scala and then use those interfaces with concrete classes.

Solution

At their most basic level, Scala traits can be used like pre-Java 8 interfaces, where you define method signatures but don't provide an implementation for them.

For example, imagine that you want to write some code to model any animal that has a tail, like a dog or cat. A first thing

you might think is that tails can wag, so you define a trait like this, with two method signatures and no method body:

```
trait HasTail:  
    def startTail(): Unit  
    def stopTail(): Unit
```

Those two methods don't take any parameters. If the methods you want to define will take parameters, declare them as usual:

```
trait HasLegs:  
    def startRunning(speed: Double): Unit  
    def runForNSeconds(speed: Double, numSeconds
```

Extending traits

On the flip side of this process, when you want to create a class that extends a trait, use the `extends` keyword:

```
class Dog extends HasTail
```

When a class extends multiple traits, use `extends` for the first trait, and separate subsequent traits with commas:

```
class Dog extends HasTail, HasLegs, HasRubberyNos
```

If a class extends a trait but doesn't implement all of its abstract methods, the class must be declared `abstract`:

```
abstract class Dog extends HasTail, HasLegs:  
    // does not implement methods from HasTail or  
    // it must be declared abstract
```

But if the class provides an implementation for all the abstract methods of the traits it extends, it can be declared as a normal class:

```
class Dog extends HasTail, HasLegs:  
    def startTail(): Unit = println("Tail is wagging")  
    def stopTail(): Unit = println("Tail is stopped")  
    def startRunning(speed: Double): Unit =  
        println(s"Running at $speed miles/hour")  
    def runForNSeconds(speed: Double, numSeconds: Int): Unit =  
        println(s"Running at $speed miles/hour for $numSeconds seconds")
```

Discussion

As shown in those examples, at their most basic level traits can be used as simple interfaces. Classes then extend traits using

the `extends` keyword, according to these rules:

- If a class extends one trait, use the `extends` keyword.
- If a class extends multiple traits, use `extends` for the first trait and separate the rest with commas.
- If a class extends a class (or abstract class) and a trait, always list the class name first—using `extends` before the class name—and then use commas before the additional trait names.

As you'll see in some of the following recipes, traits can also extend other traits:

```
trait SentientBeing:  
    def imAlive_!(): Unit = println("I'm alive!")  
trait Furry  
trait Dog extends SentientBeing, Furry
```

See Also

- Objects can also extend traits to create modules, and that technique is demonstrated in [Recipe 6.11](#).

6.2 Defining Abstract Fields in Traits

Problem

You want to declare that a trait should have a field, but you don't want to give the field an initial value, i.e., you want it to be abstract.

Solution

Over time, Scala developers have learned that the simplest and most flexible way to define abstract fields in traits is to use a

```
def :
```

```
trait PizzaTrait:  
    def maxNumToppings: Int
```

This lets you override the field in the classes (and traits) that extend your trait in a variety of ways, including as a `val`:

```
class SmallPizza extends PizzaTrait:  
    val maxNumToppings = 4
```

as a `lazy val`:

```
class SmallPizza extends PizzaTrait:  
    lazy val maxNumToppings =
```

```
// some long-running operation
Thread.sleep(1_000)
4
```

as a `var`:

```
class MediumPizza extends PizzaTrait:
    var maxNumToppings = 6
```

or as a `def`:

```
class LargePizza extends PizzaTrait:
    def maxNumToppings: Int =
        // some algorithm here
        42
```

Discussion

A field in a trait can be concrete or abstract:

- If you assign it a value, it's concrete.
- If you don't assign it a value, it's abstract.

From an implementation standpoint, that's as simple as this:

```
trait Foo:  
    def bar: Int    // abstract  
    val a = 1       // concrete val  
    var b = 2       // concrete var
```

While those options are available, over time Scala developers learned that the most flexible way—and the most abstract way—to define fields in traits is to declare them as a `def`. As shown in the Solution, that gives you a wide variety of ways to implement the field in classes that extend the trait. Stated another way, if you define an abstract field as a `var` or `val`, you significantly limit your options in extending classes.

I've learned that an important consideration is to ask yourself, "When I say that a base trait should have a field, how specific do I want to be about its implementation?" By definition, when you define a trait that you want other classes to implement, the trait is meant to be abstract, and in Scala the way to declare that field in the most abstract manner is to declare it as a `def`. This is a way of saying that you don't want to tie down the implementation; you want extending classes to implement it in the best way possible for their needs.

Concrete fields in traits

If you have a situation where you really do want to define a concrete `val` or `var` field in a trait, an IDE like IntelliJ IDEA or VS Code can help you determine what you can and can't do in classes that extend your trait. For instance, if you specify a *concrete* `var` field in a trait, you'll see that you can override that value in extending classes like this:

```
trait SentientBeing:
    var uuid = 0    // concrete

class Person extends SentientBeing:
    uuid = 1
```

Similarly, if you define a trait field as a concrete `val`, you'll need to use the `override` modifier to change that value in an extending class:

```
trait Cat:
    val numLives = 9    // concrete

class BetterCat extends Cat:
    override val numLives = 10
```

In both cases, you *can't* implement those fields as `def` or `lazy val` values in your classes.

See Also

Scala developers learned about the `def` approach over a period of time. Part of the reason for using this approach has to do with how the JVM works, and therefore how Scala compiles traits to work with the JVM. This is a long discussion, and if you're interested in the details, I write about it in excruciating detail in my blog post ["What def, val, and var Fields in Scala Traits Look Like After They're Compiled \(Including the Classes that Extend Them\)"](#).

6.3 Using a Trait Like an Abstract Class

Problem

You want to use a trait as something like an abstract class in Java, defining both abstract and concrete methods.

Solution

Define both concrete and abstract methods in your trait as desired. In classes that extend the trait, you can override both

types of methods, or, for the concrete methods, you can inherit the default behavior defined in the trait.

In the following example, a default, concrete implementation is provided for the `speak` method in the `Pet` trait, so implementing classes don't have to override it. The `Dog` class chooses not to override it, whereas the `Cat` class does. Both classes must implement the `comeToMaster` method because it has no implementation in the `Pet` trait:

```
trait Pet:
    def speak() = println("Yo")          // concrete implementation
    def comeToMaster(): Unit            // abstract method

class Dog extends Pet:
    // no need to implement `speak` if you don't want to
    def comeToMaster() = println("I'm coming!")

class Cat extends Pet:
    override def speak() = println("meow")
    def comeToMaster() = println("That's not going to happen!")
```

If a class extends a trait without implementing its abstract methods, it must be declared to be abstract. Because

`FlyingPet` doesn't implement `comeToMaster`, it must be declared `abstract`:

```
abstract class FlyingPet extends Pet:  
  def fly() = println("Woo-hoo, I'm flying!")
```

Discussion

Although Scala has abstract classes, it's *much* more common to use traits than abstract classes to implement base behavior. A class can only extend one abstract class, but it can implement multiple traits, so using traits is more flexible. Because Scala 3 also lets traits have constructor parameters, traits will be used in even more situations.

See Also

- See [Recipe 6.9](#) for details on using trait parameters with Scala 3.
- See [“One more thing: When to use abstract classes”](#) for information on when to use an abstract class instead of a trait.

6.4 Using Traits as Mixins

Problem

You want to design a solution where one or more traits can be mixed into a class to provide a robust design.

Solution

To use traits as mixins, define the methods in your traits as abstract or concrete methods, as usual, and then mix the traits into your classes using `extends`. This can be done in at least two different ways:

- Constructing a class with traits
- Mix in traits during variable construction

These approaches are discussed in the following sections.

Constructing a class with traits

A first approach is to create a class while extending one or more traits. For example, imagine that you have these two traits:

```
trait HasTail:  
    def wagTail() = println("Tail is wagging")
```

```
def stopTail() = println("Tail is stopped")

trait Pet:
    def speak() = println("Yo")
    def comeToMaster(): Unit // abstract
```

The methods in `HasTail` are both concrete, while the `comeToMaster` method in `Pet` is abstract because the method has no body. Now you can create a concrete `Dog` class by mixing in those traits and implementing `comeToMaster`:

```
class Dog(val name: String) extends Pet, HasTail
    def comeToMaster() = println("Woo-hoo, I'm co

val d = Dog("Zeus")
```

Using the same approach, you can create a `Cat` class that implements `comeToMaster` differently, while also overriding `speak`:

```
class Cat(val name: String) extends Pet, HasTail
    def comeToMaster() = println("That's not going to happen!")
    override def speak() = println("meow")

val c = Cat("Morris")
```

Mix in traits during variable construction

Another mixin approach is to add traits to a class at the same time as you create a variable. Imagine that you now have these three traits (which have no methods) and a `Pet` class:

```
trait HasLegs
trait HasTail
trait MansBestFriend
class Pet(val name: String)
```

Now you can create a new `Pet` instance while also mixing in the traits you want for this particular variable:

```
val zeus = new Pet("Zeus") with MansBestFriend with HasLegs
```

Then you can create other variables by mixing in the traits that make sense:

```
val cat = new Pet("Morris") with HasTail with HasLegs
```

Discussion

I show both approaches because different people have different definitions of what *mixin* means. When I first learned about mixins, the primary use case was the second example, showing how to mix in a trait at the time you create a variable.

But these days the term *mixin* can be used any time multiple traits are used to compose a class. This is because those traits aren't a sole parent of the class, but instead they're mixed into the class. For instance, the Wikipedia [mixin page](#) provides a good way to think about this, stating that mixins are "described as being 'included' rather than 'inherited.'"

This is a key benefit of traits: they let you build modular units of behavior by decomposing large problems into smaller problems. For instance, rather than attempting to design a large `Dog` class, it's much easier to understand the smaller *components* that make up a dog and break the problem into traits related to having a tail, legs, fur, ears, etc., and then mixing those traits together to create a dog. By doing so you create small, granular modules that are easier to understand and test, and those modules can also be used to create other things like cats, horses, etc.

Several keys to using traits as mixins are:

- Create small units of focused scope and functionality.
- Implement the methods you can, and declare the others as abstract.
- Because traits have a focused area of responsibility, they generally implement unrelated behavior (also known as orthogonal behavior).

STACKABLE TRAIT PATTERN

To see a great demonstration of the power of mixins, read Bill Venners' short [Artima article on stackable trait patterns](#). By defining traits and classes as *base*, *core*, and *stackable* components, the article demonstrates how 16 different classes can be derived from three traits by *stacking* the traits together.

As a final note about mixins, the book *Scala for the Impatient* by Cay S. Horstmann (Addison-Wesley Professional) makes the point that philosophically, this code:

```
class Pet(val name: String) extends HasLegs, HasTail, MansBestFriend
```

isn't read as "class Pet extends HasLegs 'with' HasTail and MansBestFriend" but is instead read as "class Pet extends HasLegs, HasTail, and MansBestFriend." It's a subtle point that says that a class mixes in all of those traits equally, rather than favoring the first trait in any special way.

See Also

When you develop traits, you may want to limit the classes they can be mixed into. That can be done using the following techniques:

- [Recipe 6.6](#) shows how to mark traits so they can only be used by subclasses of a certain type.
- [Recipe 6.7](#) demonstrates the technique to use to make sure a trait can only be mixed into classes that have a specific method.
- [Recipe 6.8](#) shows how to limit which classes can use a trait by declaring inheritance.
- [Recipe 7.7, “Reifying Traits as Objects”](#), shows how to create an `object` that mixes in multiple traits.
- Bill Venners' short [Artima article on stackable trait patterns](#) demonstrates how many different classes can be derived from stacking traits together.

6.5 Resolving Method Name Conflicts
and Understanding super

Problem

You attempt to create a class that mixes in multiple traits, but those traits have identical method names and parameter lists, resulting in a compiler error.

Solution

When two or more mixed-in traits share the same method name, the solution is to resolve the conflict manually. This can require understanding the meaning of `super` when referring to mixed-in traits.

As an example, imagine that you have two traits that both have a `greet` method:

```
trait Hello:
    def greet = "hello"

trait Hi:
    def greet = "hi"
```

Now if you attempt to create a `Greeter` class that mixes in both traits:

```
class Greeter extends Hello, Hi
```

you'll see an error like this:

```
class Greeter extends Hello, Hi
^

class Greeter inherits conflicting members:
|method greet in trait Hello of type    |=>
|method greet in trait Hi of type        |=>
(Note: this can be resolved by declaring an overr
```

The error message tells you the solution—that you can override `greet` in the `Greeter` class. But it doesn't give you details on how to do this.

There are three main solutions, all of which require that you override `greet` in `Greeter`:

- Override `greet` with custom behavior.
- Tell `greet` in `Greeter` to call the `greet` method from `super`, which raises the question, “What does `super` refer to when you’re mixing in multiple traits?”
- Tell `greet` in `Greeter` to use the `greet` method from a specific trait that was mixed in.

The next sections cover each solution in detail.

Override greet with custom behavior

The first solution is to ignore the methods defined in the traits and implement some custom behavior by overriding the method:

```
// resolve the conflict by overriding 'greet' in
class Greeter extends Hello, Hi:
    override def greet = "I greet thee!"

// the 'greet' method override works as expected
val g = Greeter()
g.greet == "I greet thee!"    // true
```

This is a simple, straightforward solution for the situations where you don't care how the traits have implemented this method.

Invoke greet using super

The second solution is to invoke the method as it's defined in your immediate parent, i.e., the `super` instance. In this code the `speak` method in the `Speaker` class invokes `super.speak`:

```
trait Parent:
```

```
def speak = "make your bed"
trait Granddad:
    def speak = "get off my lawn"

// resolve the conflict by calling 'super.speak'
class Speaker extends Parent, Granddad:
    override def speak = super.speak

@main def callSuperSpeak =
    println(Speaker().speak)
```

The question is, what does `super.speak` print?

The answer is that `super.speak` prints, "get off my lawn". In an example like this where a class mixes in multiple traits—and those traits have no mixin or inheritance relationships between themselves—`super` will always refer to *the last trait that is mixed in*. This is referred to as a *back to front* linearization order.

Control which super you call

In the third solution you specify which mixed-in trait's method you want to call with a `super[classname].methodName` syntax. For instance, given these three traits:

```
trait Hello:
    def greet = "hello"
trait Hi:
    def greet = "hi"
trait Yo:
    def greet = "yo"
```

you can create a `Greeter` class that mixes in those traits and then defines a series of `greet` methods that call the `greet` methods of those traits:

```
class Greeter extends Hello, Hi, Yo:
    override def greet = super.greet
    def greetHello = super[Hello].greet
    def greetHi    = super[Hi].greet
    def greetYo    = super[Yo].greet
end Greeter
```

You can test that configuration with this code in the REPL:

```
val g = Greeter()
g.greet      // yo
g.greetHello // hello
g.greetHi    // hi
g.greetYo    // yo
```

The key to this solution is that the `super[Hello].greet` syntax gives you a way to reference the `hello` method of the `Hello` trait, and so on for the `Hi` and `Yo` traits. Note in the `g.greet` example that `super` again refers to the last trait that is mixed in.

Discussion

Naming conflicts only occur when the method names are the same and the method parameter lists are identical. The method return type doesn't factor into whether a collision will occur. For example, this code results in a name collision because both versions of `f` have the type `(Int, Int)`:

```
trait A:
    def f(a: Int, b: Int): Int = 1
trait B:
    def f(a: Int, b: Int): Long = 2
// won't compile. error: "class C inherits conflict"
class C extends A, B
```

But this code *does not* result in a collision, because the parameter lists have different types:

```
trait A:
    def f(a: Int, b: Int): Int = 1      // (Int, Int) -> Int
trait B:
    def f(a: Int, b: Long): Int = 2     // (Int, Long) -> Int

// this code compiles because 'A.f' and 'B.f' have different
// parameter lists
class C extends A, B
```

See Also

Traits can be combined in a technique known as *stackable modifications*.

- The basic technique is well described in Chapter 12 of the first edition of *Programming in Scala*, which is freely available on the Artima website. See the [“Traits as stackable modifications” section](#) in that online chapter.
- This [knoldus.com article](#) has a good discussion about how the linearization of traits that are mixed into classes works.

6.6 Marking Traits So They Can Only Be Used by Subclasses of a Certain

Type

Problem

You want to mark your trait so it can only be used by types that extend a given base type.

Solution

To make sure a trait named `MyTrait` can only be mixed into a class that is a subclass of a type named `BaseType`, begin your trait with this syntax:

```
trait MyTrait:  
    this: BaseType =>
```

For instance, to make sure a `StarfleetWarpCore` can only be mixed into a class that also mixes in `FederationStarship`, begin the `StarfleetWarpCore` trait like this:

```
trait StarfleetWarpCore:  
    this: FederationStarship =>  
    // the rest of the trait here ...
```

Given that declaration, this code compiles:

```
// this compiles, as desired
trait FederationStarship
class Enterprise extends FederationStarship, StarfleetWarpCore
```

But other attempts like this will fail:

```
class RomulanShip

// this won't compile
class Warbird extends RomulanShip, StarfleetWarpCore
```

```
illegal inheritance: self type
Warbird of class Warbird does not conform to self-type
FederationStarship of parent trait StarfleetWarpCore
```

```
Explanation: You mixed in trait StarfleetWarpCore
            while overriding parent trait FederationStarship
```

The Discussion demonstrates how you can use this technique to require the presence of *multiple* other types.

Discussion

As shown in the error message, this approach is referred to as a *self type* (or *self-type*). The [Scala glossary](#) includes this statement as part of its description of a self type:

A self type of a trait is the assumed type of this, the receiver, to be used within the trait. Any concrete class that mixes in the trait must ensure that its type conforms to the trait's self type.

One way to think about that statement is by evaluating what this means when using mixins to compose a class. For instance, given a trait named HasLegs :

```
trait HasLegs
```

you can define a trait named CanRun that requires the presence of HasLegs whenever CanRun is mixed into a concrete class:

```
trait CanRun:  
    this: HasLegs =>
```

So when you create a `Dog` class by mixing in `HasLegs` and `CanRun`, you can test what `this` means inside that class:

```
class Dog extends HasLegs, CanRun:  
  def whatAmI(): Unit =  
    if this.isInstanceOf[Dog] then println("I  
    if this.isInstanceOf[HasLegs] then printi  
    if this.isInstanceOf[CanRun] then println
```

Now when you create a `Dog` instance and run `whatAmI`:

```
val d = Dog()  
d.whatAmI()
```

you'll see that it prints the following result, because `this` inside a `Dog` is an instance of all of those types:

```
Dog  
HasLegs  
CanRun
```

The important part to remember is that when you define a self-type like this:

```
trait CanRun:  
    this: HasLegs =>
```

the key is that `CanRun` knows that when a concrete instance of it is eventually created, `this` in that concrete instance can respond, “Yes, I am also an instance of `HasLegs`. ”

A trait can call methods on the required type

A great feature of this approach is that because the trait knows that the other type must be present, it can call methods that are defined in that other type. For instance, if you have a type named `HasLegs` with a method named `numLegs`:

```
trait HasLegs:  
    def numLegs = 0
```

you might want to create a new trait named `CanRun`. `CanRun` requires the presence of `HasLegs`, so you make that a contractual requirement with a self-type:

```
trait CanRun:  
    this: HasLegs =>
```

Now you can take this a step further. Because `CanRun` knows that `HasLegs` must be present when `CanRun` is mixed in, it can safely call the `numLegs` methods:

```
trait CanRun:  
  this: HasLegs =>  
    def run() = println(s"I have $numLegs legs and I'm running!")
```

Now when you create a `Dog` class with `HasLegs` and `CanRun`:

```
class Dog extends HasLegs, CanRun:  
  override val numLegs = 4  
  
  @main def selfTypes =  
    val d = Dog()  
    d.run()
```

you'll see this output:

```
I have 4 legs and I'm running!
```

This is a powerful and safe (compiler-enforced) technique.

Requiring multiple other types be present

A trait can also require that any type that wishes to mix it in must also extend *multiple* other types. The following `WarpCore` definition requires that any type that wishes to mix it in must extend `WarpCoreEjector`, `FireExtinguisher`, and `FederationStarship`:

```
trait WarpCore:  
    this: FederationStarship & WarpCoreEjector &  
    // more trait code here ...
```

Because the following `Enterprise` definition matches that signature, this code compiles:

```
class FederationStarship  
trait WarpCoreEjector  
trait FireExtinguisher  
  
// this works  
class Enterprise extends FederationStarship, WarpCoreEjector,  
    FireExtinguisher
```

See Also

- Regarding the `def numLegs` code, [Recipe 6.2](#) explains why an abstract field in a trait is best declared as a `def` field.

6.7 Ensuring a Trait Can Only Be Added to a Type That Has a Specific Method

Problem

You only want to allow a trait to be mixed into a type (class, abstract class, or trait) that has a method with a given signature.

Solution

Use a variation of the self-type syntax that lets you declare that any class that attempts to mix in the trait must implement the method you describe.

In the following example, the `WarpCore` trait requires that any class that attempts to mix it in must have an `ejectWarpCore` method with the signature shown, taking a `String` parameter and returning a `Boolean` value:

```
trait WarpCore:  
    this: { def ejectWarpCore(password: String):  
        // more trait code here ...
```

The following definition of the `Enterprise` class meets these requirements and therefore compiles:

```
class Starship:  
    // code here ...  
  
class Enterprise extends Starship, WarpCore:  
    def ejectWarpCore(password: String): Boolean  
        if password == "password" then  
            println("ejecting core!")  
            true  
        else  
            false  
        end if
```

Discussion

This approach is known as a *structural type*, because you're limiting what classes the trait can be mixed into by stating that

the class must have a certain structure, i.e., the method signatures you've specified.

A trait can also require that an implementing class have multiple methods. To require more than one method, add the additional method signatures inside the block. Here's a complete example:

```
trait WarpCore:
    this: {
        // an implementing class must have methods
        // these names and input parameters

        def ejectWarpCore(password: String): Boolean
        def startWarpCore(): Unit
    } =>
    // more trait code here ...

class Starship

class Enterprise extends Starship, WarpCore:
    def ejectWarpCore(password: String): Boolean
        if password == "password" then
            println("core ejected")
            true
        else
            false
        end if
```

```
    end ejectWarpCore  
    def startWarpCore() = println("core started")
```

In this example, because `Enterprise` includes the `ejectWarpCore` and `startWarpCore` methods that the `WarpCore` trait requires, `Enterprise` is able to mix in the `WarpCore` trait.

6.8 Limiting Which Classes Can Use a Trait by Inheritance

Problem

You want to limit a trait so it can only be added to classes that extend a specific superclass.

Solution

Use the following syntax to declare a trait named `TraitName`, where `TraitName` can only be mixed into classes that extend a type named `SuperClass`, where `SuperClass` may be a class or abstract class:

```
trait TraitName extends SuperClass
```

For example, in modeling a large pizza store chain that has a corporate office and many small retail stores, the legal department creates a rule that people who deliver pizzas to customers must be a subclass of `StoreEmployee` and cannot be a subclass of `CorporateEmployee`. To enforce this, begin by defining your base classes:

```
trait Employee
class CorporateEmployee extends Employee
class StoreEmployee extends Employee
```

Because someone who delivers food can only be a `StoreEmployee`, you enforce this requirement in the `DeliversFood` trait:

```
trait DeliversFood extends StoreEmployee
```

Now you can successfully define a `DeliveryPerson` class like this:

```
// this is allowed
class DeliveryPerson extends StoreEmployee, Deliv
```

But because the `DeliversFood` trait can only be mixed into classes that extend `StoreEmployee`, the following line of code won't compile:

```
// won't compile
class Receptionist extends CorporateEmployee, DeliversFood
```

The compiler error message looks like this:

```
illegal trait inheritance: superclass CorporateEmployee
does not derive from trait DeliversFood's superclass
```

This makes the people in the legal department happy.

Discussion

I don't use this technique very often, but when you need to limit which classes a trait can be mixed into by requiring a specific superclass, this is an effective technique.

Note that this approach does not work when

`CorporateEmployee` and `StoreEmployee` are traits instead of classes. When you need to use this approach with traits, see [Recipe 6.6](#).

6.9 Working with Parameterized Traits

Problem

As you become more advanced in working with types, you want to write a trait whose methods can be applied to generic types, or limited to other specific types.

Solution

Depending on your needs you can use type parameters or type members with traits. This example shows what a generic trait *type parameter* looks like:

```
trait Stringify[A]:  
    def string(a: A): String
```

This example shows what a *type member* looks like:

```
trait Stringify:  
    type A  
    def string(a: A): String
```

Here's a complete type parameter example:

```
trait Stringify[A]:  
    def string(a: A): String = s"value: ${a.toString}  
  
@main def typeParameter =  
    object StringifyInt extends Stringify[Int]  
        println(StringifyInt.string(100))
```

And here's the same example written using a type member:

```
trait Stringify:  
    type A  
    def string(a: A): String  
  
object StringifyInt extends Stringify:  
    type A = Int  
    def string(i: Int): String = s"value: ${i.toString}  
  
@main def typeMember =  
    println(StringifyInt.string(42))
```

DEPENDENT TYPES

The free book [*The Type Astronaut's Guide to Shapeless*](#) by Dave Gurnell (Underscore) shows an example where a type parameter and type member are used in combination to create something known as a [dependent type](#).

Discussion

With the type parameter approach you can specify multiple types. For example, this is a Scala implementation of the Java `Pair` interface that's shown on this [Java documentation page about generic types](#):

```
trait Pair[A, B]:  
    def getKey: A  
    def getValue: B
```

That demonstrates the use of two generic parameters in a small trait example.

An advantage of parameterizing traits using either technique is that you can prevent things from happening that should never happen. For instance, given this trait and class hierarchy:

```
sealed trait Dog  
class LittleDog extends Dog
```

```
class BigDog extends Dog
```

you can define another trait with a type member like this:

```
trait Barker:
    type D <: Dog    //type member
    def bark(d: D): Unit
```

Now you can define an object with a `bark` method for little dogs:

```
object LittleBarker extends Barker:
    type D = LittleDog
    def bark(d: D) = println("wuf")
```

and you can define another object with a `bark` method for big dogs:

```
object BigBarker extends Barker:
    type D = BigDog
    def bark(d: D) = println("WOOF!")
```

Now when you create these instances:

```
val terrier = LittleDog()  
val husky = BigDog()
```

this code will compile:

```
LittleBarker.bark(terrier)  
BigBarker.bark(husky)
```

and this code won't compile, as desired:

```
// won't work, compiler error  
// BigBarker.bark(terrier)
```

This demonstrates how a type member can declare a base type in the initial trait, and how more specific types can be applied in the traits, classes, and objects that extend that base type.

6.10 Using Trait Parameters

Problem

In Scala 3, you want to create a trait that takes one or more parameters, in the same way that a class or abstract class takes constructor parameters.

Solution

In Scala 3 a trait can have parameters, just like a class or abstract class. For instance, here's an example of a trait that accepts a parameter:

```
trait Pet(val name: String)
```

However, per [the Scala 3 trait parameters specification](#), there are limits on how this feature can be used:

- A trait T can have one or more parameters.
- A trait T_1 can extend T , so long as it does not pass parameters to T .
- If a class C extends T , and its superclass does not, C must pass arguments to T .
- If a class C extends T , and its superclass does too, C may not pass arguments to T .

Getting back to the example, once you have a trait that accepts a parameter, a class can extend it like this:

```
trait Pet(val name: String)

// a class can extend a trait with a parameter
class Dog(override val name: String) extends Pet
```

```
    override def toString = s"dog name: $name"

// use the Dog class
val d = Dog("Fido")
```

Later in your code, another class can also extend the `Dog` class:

```
class SiberianHusky(override val name: String) ex
```

In a world where all cats are named “Morris,” a class can extend a trait with parameters like this:

```
class Cat extends Pet("Morris"):
    override def toString = s"Cat: $name"

// use the Cat class
val c = Cat()
```

These examples show how traits are used in the previous first, third, and fourth bullet points.

One trait can extend another, with limits

Next, as stated previously, a trait can extend another trait that takes one or more parameters so long as it does not pass a

parameter to it. Therefore, this attempt fails:

```
// won't compile
trait Echidna(override val name: String) extends
```

```
trait Echidna may not call
```

And this attempt, which does not attempt to pass a parameter to `Pet`, succeeds:

```
// works
trait FeatheredPet extends Pet
```

Then, when a class later extends `FeatheredPet`, the correct approach is to write your code like this:

```
class Bird(override val name: String) extends Pet
    override def toString = s"bird name: $name"

// create a new Bird
val b = Bird("Tweety")
```

Discussion

In this solution there's a subtle distinction between these two approaches:

```
trait Pet(val name: String)    // shown in the Solution  
trait Pet(name: String)
```

When `val` is not used, `name` is a simple parameter, but it provides no getter method. When `val` is used, it provides a getter for `name`, and everything in the Solution works as shown.

When you leave `val` off the `name` field in `Pet`, all the following code works as before, except the `Cat` class, which will not compile:

```
trait Pet(name: String):  
    override def toString = s"Pet: $name"  
trait FeatheredPet extends Pet  
  
// `override` is not needed on these parameters  
class Bird(val name: String) extends Pet(name), FeatheredPet  
    override def toString = s"Bird: $name"  
class Dog(val name: String) extends Pet(name):
```

```
    override def toString = s"Dog: $name"
class SiberianHusky(override val name: String) extends Pet {
  // this will not compile
  class Cat extends Pet("Morris") {
    override def toString = s"Cat: $name"
  }
}
```

The `Cat` approach doesn't compile because the `name` parameter in the `Pet` class isn't defined as a `val`; therefore there is no getter method for it. Again, this is a subtle point, and how you define the initial field depends on how you want to access `name` in the future.

Trait parameters were added to Scala 3 at least in part to help eliminate a Scala 2 feature known as *early initializers* or *early definitions*. Somewhere in Scala 2 history, someone found out that you could write code like this:

```
// this is Scala 2 code. start with a normal trait
trait Pet {
  def name: String
  val nameLength = name.length // note: this is a Scala 2 "early definition"
}

// notice the unusual approach of initializing a
// before 'with'. this is a Scala 2 "early initialization"
```

```
class Dog extends {
    val name = "Xena, the Princess Warrior"
} with Pet

val d = new Dog
d.name          // Xena, the Princess Warrior
d.nameLength   // 26
```

The purpose of this approach was to make sure that `name` was initialized early, so the `nameLength` expression wouldn't throw a `NullPointerException`. Conversely, if you wrote the code like this, it will throw a `NullPointerException` when you try to create a new `Dog`:

```
// this is also Scala 2 code
trait Pet {
    def name: String
    val nameLength = name.length
}

class Dog extends Pet {
    val name = "Xena, the Princess Warrior"
}

val d = new Dog //java.lang.NullPointerException
```

I never used this early initializer feature in Scala 2, but it's known to be hard to implement properly, so it's eliminated in Scala 3 and replaced by trait parameters.

Also note that trait parameters have no effect on how traits are initialized. Given these traits:

```
trait A(val a: String):  
    println(s"A: $a")  
trait B extends A:  
    println(s"B: $a")  
trait C:  
    println(s"C")
```

the following classes `D` and `E` show that the traits can be specified in any order when they are mixed in:

```
class D(override val a: String) extends A(a), B,  
class E(override val a: String) extends C, B, A(a)
```

The output of creating new instances of `D` and `E` is shown in the REPL:

```
scala> D("d")  
A: d
```

```
B: d  
C  
  
scala> E("e")  
C  
A: e  
B: e
```

As shown, the traits can be listed in any order.

6.11 Using Traits to Create Modules

Problem

You've heard that traits are *the way* to implement modules in Scala, and you want to understand how to use them in this manner.

Solution

At a detailed level there are several ways to solve this problem, but a common theme in the solutions is that you use objects to create *modules* in Scala.

The technique shown in this recipe is generally used for composing large systems, so I'll start with a small example to demonstrate it. Imagine that you've defined a trait to implement a method that adds two integers:

```
trait AddService:  
    def add(a: Int, b: Int) = a + b
```

The basic technique to create a module is to create a singleton object from that trait. The syntax for doing this is:

```
object AddService extends AddService
```

In this case you create a singleton object named `AddService` from the trait `AddService`. You can do this without implementing methods in the `object` because the `add` method in the trait is concrete.

REIFYING A TRAIT

Some people refer to this as *reifying* the trait, where the word *reify* means “taking an abstract concept and making it concrete.” I find that a way to remember that meaning is to think of it as *real-ify*, as in, “to make real.”

The way you use the `AddService` module—a singleton object—in the rest of your code looks like this:

```
import AddService.*  
println(add(1,1))    // prints 2
```

Trying to keep things simple, here's a second example of the technique where I create another module by mixing in two traits:

```
trait AddService:  
    def add(a: Int, b: Int) = a + b  
  
trait MultiplyService:  
    def multiply(a: Int, b: Int) = a * b  
  
object MathService extends AddService, MultiplySe
```

The rest of your application uses this module in the same way:

```
import MathService.*  
println(add(1,1))        // 2  
println(multiply(2,2))   // 4
```

While these examples are simple, they demonstrate the essence of the technique:

- Create traits to model small, logically grouped areas of the business domain.
- The public interface of those traits contains only pure functions.
- When it makes sense, mix those traits together into larger logical groups, such as `MathService`.
- Build singleton objects from those traits (reify them).
- Use the pure functions from those objects to solve problems.

That's the essence of the solution in two small examples. But because traits have all the other features shown in this chapter, in the real world the implementation can be as complicated as necessary.

Discussion

The name Scala comes from the word *scalable*, and Scala is intended to scale: to solve small problems easily, and also scale to solve the world's largest computing challenges. The concept of modules and modularity is how Scala makes it possible to solve those large problems.

Programming in Scala, cowritten by Martin Odersky—creator of the Scala language—states that any technique to implement modularity in programming languages must provide several essentials:

- First, a language needs a module construct that provides a separation between interface and implementation. In Scala, traits provide that functionality.
- Second, there must be a way to replace one module with another that has the same interface, without changing or recompiling the modules that depend on the replaced one.
- Third, there should be a way to wire modules together. This wiring task can be thought of as configuring the system.

Programming in Scala, specifically recommends that programs be divided into singleton objects, which again, you can think of as modules.

A larger example: An order-entry system

As a larger demonstration of how this technique works—while also incorporating other features from this chapter—let's look at developing an order-entry system for a pizza store.

As the old saying goes, sometimes it helps to begin with the end in mind, and following that advice, here's the source code for an `@main` method that I'll create in this section:

```
@main def pizzaModuleDemo =  
    import CrustSize.*  
    import CrustType.*  
    import Topping.*  
  
    // create some mock objects for testing  
    object MockOrderDao extends MockOrderDao  
    object MockOrderController extends OrderController  
        // specify a concrete instance of an OrderController  
        // MockOrderDao for this MockOrderController  
        val orderDao = MockOrderDao  
  
        // Create some pizzas  
        val smallThinCheesePizza = Pizza(  
            Small, Thin, Seq(Cheese))  
        val largeThickWorks = Pizza(  
            Large, Thick, Seq(Cheese, Pepperoni, Olive))  
  
        MockOrderController.addItemToOrder(smallThinCheesePizza)  
        MockOrderController.addItemToOrder(largeThickWorks)  
        MockOrderController.printReceipt()
```

You'll see that when that code runs, it prints this output to STDOUT:

```
YOUR ORDER
-----
Pizza(Small,Thin,List(Cheese))
Pizza(Large,Thick,List(Cheese, Pepperoni, Olives))

LOG:
YOUR ORDER
-----
Pizza(Small,Thin,List(Cheese))
Pizza(Large,Thick,List(Cheese, Pepperoni, Olives))
```

To see how that code works, let's dig into the code that's used to build it. First, I start by creating some pizza-related ADTs using the Scala 3 `enum` construct:

```
enum CrustSize:
    case Small, Medium, Large

enum CrustType:
    case Thin, Thick, Regular
```

```
enum Topping:  
    case Cheese, Pepperoni, Olives
```

Next, create a `Pizza` class in a functional style—meaning that it's a case class with immutable fields:

```
case class Pizza(  
    crustSize: CrustSize,  
    crustType: CrustType,  
    toppings: Seq[Topping]  
)
```

This approach is similar to using a `struct` in other languages like C, Rust, and Go.

Next, I'll keep the concept of an order simple. In the real world an order will have line items that may be pizzas, breadsticks, cheesesticks, soft drinks, and more, but for this example it will only hold a list of pizzas:

```
case class Order(items: Seq[Pizza])
```

This example also handles the concept of a database, so I create a database *interface* that looks like this:

```
trait OrderDao:  
    def addItem(p: Pizza): Unit  
    def getItems: Seq[Pizza]
```

A great thing about an interface is that you can create multiple implementations of it, and then construct your modules with those implementations. For instance, it's common to create a mock database for use in testing, and then other code that connects to a real database server in production. Here's a mock data access object (DAO) for testing purposes that simply stores its items in an `ArrayBuffer` in memory:

```
trait MockOrderDao extends OrderDao:  
    import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer  
    private val items = ArrayBuffer[Pizza]()  
  
    def addItem(p: Pizza) = items += p  
    def getItems: Seq[Pizza] = items.toSeq
```

To make things a little more complex, let's assume that the legal department at our pizza store requires us to write to a separate log every time we create a receipt. To support that requirement I follow the same pattern, first creating an interface:

```
trait Logger:  
    def log(s: String): Unit
```

then creating an implementation of that interface:

```
trait ConsoleLogger extends Logger:  
    def log(s: String) = println(s"LOG: $s")
```

Other implementations might include a `FileLogger`, `DatabaseLogger`, etc., but I'll only use the `ConsoleLogger` in this example.

At this point the only thing left is to create an `OrderController`. Notice in this code that `Logger` is declared as a self-type, and `orderDao` is an abstract field:

```
trait OrderController:  
    this: Logger =>          // declares a self-type  
    def orderDao: OrderDao    // abstract  
  
    def addItemToOrder(p: Pizza) = orderDao.addItem(p)  
    def printReceipt(): Unit =  
        val receipt = generateReceipt  
        println(receipt)  
        log(receipt)    // from Logger
```

```
// this is an example of a private method in
private def generateReceipt: String =
  val items: Seq[Pizza] = for p <- orderDao
    yield p
  s"""
    | YOUR ORDER
    | -----
    | ${items.mkString("\n") }"""
  .stripMargin
```

Notice that the `log` method from whatever `Logger` instance this controller mixes in is called in the `printReceipt` method. The code also calls the `addItem` method on the `OrderDao` instance, where that instance may be a `MockOrderDao` or any other implementation of the `OrderDao` interface.

When you look back at the source code, you'll see that this example demonstrates several trait techniques, including:

- How to reify traits into objects (modules)
- How to use interfaces (like `OrderDao`) and abstract fields (`orderDao`) to create a form of dependency injection
- How to use self-types, where I declare that `OrderController` must have a `Logger` mixed in

There are many ways to expand on this example, and I describe a larger version of it in my book [*Functional Programming, Simplified*](#). For example, the `OrderDao` might grow like this:

```
trait OrderDao:  
    def addItem(p: Pizza): Unit  
    def removeItem(p: Pizza): Unit  
    def removeAllItems: Unit  
    def getItems: Seq[Pizza]
```

PizzaService then provides all the pure functions needed to update a Pizza:

```
trait PizzaService:  
    def addTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza  
    def removeTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza  
    def removeAllToppings(p: Pizza): Pizza  
    def setCrustSize(p: Pizza, cs: CrustSize): Pizza  
    def setCrustType(p: Pizza, ct: CrustType): Pizza
```

You'll also want a function to calculate the price of a pizza. Depending on your design ideas you may want that code in PizzaService, or you might want a separate trait related to pricing named PizzaPricingService:

```
trait PizzaPricingService:  
    def pizzaDao: PizzaDao  
    def toppingDao: ToppingDao
```

```
def calculatePizzaPrice(  
    p: Pizza,  
    toppingsPrices: Map[Topping, Money],  
    crustSizePrices: Map[CrustSize, Money],  
    crustTypePrices: Map[CrustType, Money]  
) : Money
```

As shown in the first two lines, `PizzaPricingService` requires references to other DAO instances to get prices from the database.

In all of these examples I use the word “Service” as part of the trait names. I find that it’s a good name, because you can think of those traits as providing a related collection of pure functions or services, such as those you find in a web service or microservice. Another good word to use is *Module*, in which case you’d have `PizzaModule` and `PizzaPricingModule`. (Feel free to use any name that is meaningful to you.)

See Also

- See [Recipe 7.3, “Creating Singletons with `object`”](#), for more details on singleton objects.

- I wrote about reification on my blog, [The Meaning of the Word Reify in Programming](#).
- The process of reifying traits as objects is discussed in [Recipe 7.7, “Reifying Traits as Objects”](#).
- See [Recipe 6.13](#) for details about ADTs.
- Recipes in [Chapter 10](#) demonstrate other ways to create and use ADTs and pure functions.

6.12 How to Create Sets of Named Values with Enums

Problem

You want to create a set of constants to model something in the world, such as directions (north, south, east, west), positions on a display (top, bottom, left, right), toppings on a pizza, and other finite sets of values.

Solution

Define sets of constant named values using the Scala 3 `enum` construct. This example shows how to define values for crust sizes, crust types, and toppings when modeling a pizza store application:

```
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large  
  
enum CrustType:  
    case Thin, Thick, Regular  
  
enum Topping:  
    case Cheese, Pepperoni, Mushrooms, GreenPepper
```

Once you've created an `enum`, first import its instances, and then use them in expressions and parameters, just like a class, trait, or other type:

```
import CrustSize.*  
  
if currentCrustSize == Small then ...  
  
currentCrustSize match  
    case Small => ...  
    case Medium => ...  
    case Large => ...  
  
case class Pizza(  
    crustSize: CrustSize,  
    crustType: CrustType,
```

```
    toppings: ArrayBuffer[Topping]  
)  
}
```

Like classes and traits, enums can take parameters and have members, such as fields and methods. This example shows how a parameter named `code` is used in an enum:

```
enum HttpResponse(val code: Int):  
  case Ok extends HttpResponse(200)  
  case MovedPermanently extends HttpResponse(301)  
  case InternalServerError extends HttpResponse
```

As described in the Discussion, instances of an `enum` are similar to case objects, so just like any other object, you access the `code` field directly on the object (like a `static` member in Java):

```
import HttpResponse.*  
Ok.code          // 200  
MovedPermanently.code // 301  
InternalServerError.code // 500
```

Members are shown in the discussion that follows.

ENUMS CONTAIN SETS OF VALUES

In this recipe the word *set* is used intentionally to describe enums. Like the `Set` class, all the values in an `enum` must be unique.

Discussion

An `enum` is a shortcut for defining (a) a sealed class or trait along with (b) values defined as members of the class's companion object. For example, this `enum`:

```
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large
```

is a shortcut for writing this more verbose code:

```
sealed class CrustSize  
object CrustSize:  
    case object Small extends CrustSize  
    case object Medium extends CrustSize  
    case object Large extends CrustSize
```

In this longer code, notice how the `enum` instances are enumerated as case objects in the companion object. This was a common way to create enumerations in Scala 2.

Enums can have members

As demonstrated with the `Planet` example on [this Scala 3 enum page](#), enums can also have members—i.e., fields and methods:

```
enum Planet(mass: Double, radius: Double):  
  private final val G = 6.67300E-11  
  def surfaceGravity = G * mass / (radius * radius)  
  def surfaceWeight(otherMass: Double) = otherMass * surfaceGravity  
  
  case Mercury extends Planet(3.303e+23, 2.4397e+09)  
  case Earth    extends Planet(5.976e+24, 6.3781e+09)  
  // more planets here ...
```

Notice in this example that the parameters `mass` and `radius` are not defined as `val` or `var` fields. Because of this, they are private to the `Planet` enum. This means that they can be accessed in internal methods like `surfaceGravity` and `surfaceWeight` but can't be accessed outside the `enum`. This is the same behavior you get when using private parameters with classes and traits.

When to use enums

It can seem like the line is blurry about when to use traits, classes, and enums, but a thing to remember about enums is that they're typically used to model a small, finite set of possible values. For instance, in the `Planet` example, there are only eight (or nine) planets in our solar system (depending on who's counting). Because this is a small, finite set of constant values, using an `enum` is a good choice to model the planets.

Compatibility with Java

If you want to define your Scala enums as Java enums, extend `java.lang.Enum`, which is imported by default:

```
enum CrustSize extends Enum[CrustSize] :  
    case Small, Medium, Large
```

As shown, you need to parameterize the `java.lang.Enum` with your Scala `enum` type.

See Also

- See [the Scala 3 `enum` documentation](#) for more details on `enum` features.
- The [“Domain Modeling” chapter](#) of the *Scala 3 Book* provides more details on enums.

- [Recipe 6.13](#) demonstrates additional uses of enums.
- The Scala `Planet` example was initially derived from the [enum types Java Tutorial](#).

6.13 Modeling Algebraic Data Types with Enums

Problem

When programming in a functional programming style, you want to model an algebraic data type using Scala 3.

Solution

There are two main types of ADTs:

- Sum types
- Product types

Both are demonstrated in the following examples.

Sum types

A *Sum type* is also referred to as an *enumerated type* because you simply enumerate all the possible instances of the type. In

Scala 3, this is done with the `enum` construct. For instance, to create your own boolean data type, start by defining a Sum type like this:

```
enum Bool:  
    case True, False
```

This can be read as “`Bool` is a type that has two possible values, `True` and `False`.” Similarly, `Position` is a type with four possible values:

```
enum Position:  
    case Top, Right, Bottom, Left
```

Product types

A *Product type* is created with a class constructor. The *Product* name comes from the fact that the number of possible concrete instances of the class is determined by multiplying the number of possibilities of all of its constructor fields.

For example, this class named `DoubleBool` has two `Bool` constructor parameters:

```
case class DoubleBool(b1: Bool, b2: Bool)
```

In a small example like this, you can enumerate the possible values that can be created from this constructor:

```
DoubleBoo(True, True)
DoubleBoo(True, False)
DoubleBoo(False, True)
DoubleBoo(False, False)
```

As shown, there are four possible values. As implied by the name *Product*, you can also derive this answer mathematically. This is covered in the Discussion.

Discussion

Informally, an *algebra* can be thought of as consisting of two things:

- A set of objects
- The operations that can be applied to those objects to create new objects

Technically an algebra also consists of a third item—the laws that govern the algebra—but that's a topic for a larger book on FP.

In the `Bool` example the set of objects is `True` and `False`. The *operations* consist of the methods you define for those objects. For instance, you can define `and` and `or` operations to work with `Bool` like this:

```
enum Bool:  
    case True, False  
  
import Bool.*  
  
def and(a: Bool, b: Bool): Bool = (a,b) match  
    case (True, True)    => True  
    case (False, False)  => False  
    case (True, False)   => False  
    case (False, True)   => False  
  
def or(a: Bool, b: Bool): Bool = (a,b) match  
    case (True, _)       => True  
    case (_, True)       => True  
    case (_, _)          => False
```

These examples show how those operations work:

```
and(True,True)      // True  
and(True,False)    // False  
or(True,False)     // True  
or(False,False)    // False
```

The Sum type

A few important points about Sum types:

- In Scala 3 they're created as cases of the `enum` construct.
- The number of enumerated types you list are the only possible instances of the type. In the previous example, `Bool` is the type, and it has two possible values, `True` and `False`.
- The phrases *is a* and *or a* are used when talking about Sum types. For example, `True` *is a* `Bool`, and `Bool` *is a* `True` *or a* `False`.

ALTERNATE NAMES FOR SUM TYPE INSTANCES

People use different names for the concrete instances in a Sum type, including value constructors, alternates, and cases.

The Product type

As mentioned, the name *Product type* comes from the fact that you can determine the number of possible instances of a type by multiplying the number of possibilities of all of its constructor fields. In the Solution, I enumerated the four

possible `Bool` values, but you can mathematically determine the number of possible instances like this:

1. `b1` has two possibilities.
2. `b2` has two possibilities.
3. Because there are two parameters, and each has two possibilities, the number of possible instances of `DoubleBool` is 2 times 2, or 4.

Similarly, in this next example, `TripleBool` has eight possible values, because 2 times 2 times 2 is 8:

```
case class TripleBool(b1: Bool, b2: Bool, b3: Bool)
```

Using that logic, how many values can this `Pair` class have?

```
case class Pair(a: Int, b: Int)
```

If you answered “a lot,” that’s close enough. An `Int` has 2^{32} possible values, so if you multiply the number of possible `Int` values by itself, you get a very large number.

Much more different than Scala 2

The `enum` type was introduced in Scala 3, and in Scala 2 you had to use this longer syntax to define a Sum type:

```
sealed trait Bool
case object True extends Bool
case object False extends Bool
```

Fortunately, the new syntax is much more concise, which you can appreciate when enumerating larger Sum types:

```
enum Topping:
    case Cheese, BlackOlives, GreenOlives, GreenPepperoni,
        Mushrooms, Sausage
```

WHY PROGRAMMERS DON'T USE STRING OR INT FOR CONSTANTS

The Product types portion of this recipe helps to explain why programmers don't like to use strings or numbers for constants. To demonstrate this, let's assume that you define all the sets of values related to a pizza as strings, starting like this:

```
val Small = "SMALL"
val Medium = "MEDIUM"
val Large = "LARGE"
```

If you keep doing that, you'll end up with this `Pizza` class constructor:

```
case class Pizza(
  crustSize: String,
  crustType: String,
  toppings: ArrayBuffer[String]
)
```

This approach has two problems:

- Scala is a statically typed language, so strong typing should be used here so you can get all the benefits of type safety. The parameters should use types like `CrustSize`, `CrustType`, and `Topping`, but strings are used instead.
- Knowing that this constructor creates a Product type, you also know that the number of possible values it can have are infinite: it has three constructor parameters that each have an infinite number of possibilities (and “infinity cubed” is infinity).

Conversely, when you use enums to model `CrustSize`, `CrustType`, and `Topping`, a `Pizza` with three possible crust sizes, three possible crust types, and 10 possible toppings has only 90 possibilities ($3 \times 3 \times 10$).

See Also

- In addition to Sum and Product types, there are other types of ADTs, informally known as *hybrid types*. I discuss these in [“Appendix: Algebraic Data Types in Scala”](#).
- The [“Algebraic Data Types” chapter](#) of the *Scala 3 Book* provides more details about ADTs and generalized ADTs in Scala.

Chapter 7. Objects

Continuing the domain modeling chapters, the word *object* has a dual meaning in Scala. As with Java, you use the name to refer to an instance of a class, but in Scala `object` is much more well known as a keyword. This chapter demonstrates both meanings of the word.

The first two recipes look at an object as an instance of a class. They show how to cast objects from one type to another and demonstrate the Scala equivalent of Java's `.class` approach.

The remaining recipes demonstrate how the `object` keyword is used for other purposes. In the most basic use, [Recipe 7.3](#) shows how to use it to create singletons. [Recipe 7.4](#) demonstrates how to use *companion objects* as a way to add static members to a class, and then [Recipe 7.5](#) shows how to use `apply` methods in companion objects as an alternative way to construct class instances.

After those recipes, [Recipe 7.6](#) shows how to create a static factory using an `object`, and [Recipe 7.7](#) demonstrates how to combine one or more traits into an object in a process that's technically known as *reification*. Finally, pattern matching is a very important Scala topic, and [Recipe 7.8](#) demonstrates how to

write an `unapply` method in a companion object so your classes can be used in `match` expressions.¹

7.1 Casting Objects

Problem

You need to cast an instance of a class from one type to another, such as when creating objects dynamically.

Solution

In the following example I'll work with the Sphinx-4 speech recognition library, which works in a manner similar to creating beans in older versions of the Spring Framework. In the example, the object returned by the `lookup` method is cast to an instance of a class named `Recognizer`:

```
val recognizer = cm.lookup("recognizer").asInstan
```

This Scala code is equivalent to the following Java code:

```
Recognizer recognizer = (Recognizer)cm.lookup("re
```

The `asInstanceOf` method is defined in the Scala `Any` class, and is therefore available on all objects.

Discussion

In dynamic programming, it's often necessary to cast from one type to another. For instance, this approach is needed when reading a YAML configuration file with [the SnakeYAML library](#):

```
val yaml = Yaml(new Constructor(classOf[EmailAccount])
  val emailAccount = yaml.load(text).asInstanceOf[EmailAccount]
```

The `asInstanceOf` method isn't limited to only these situations. You can also use it to cast numeric types:

```
val a = 10                                // Int = 10
val b = a.asInstanceOf[Long]      // Long = 10
val c = a.asInstanceOf[Byte]     // Byte = 10
```

It can be used in more complicated code too, such as when you need to interact with Java and send it an array of `Object` instances:

```
val objects = Array("a", 1)
val arrayOfClass = objects.asInstanceOf[Array[Object]]
```

```
AJavaClass.sendObjects(arrayOfObject)
```

If you're programming with the `java.net` classes, you may need to use it when opening an HTTP URL connection:

```
import java.net.{URL, HttpURLConnection}  
val connection = (new URL(url)).openConnection.as
```

Be aware that this type of coding can lead to a `ClassCastException`, as demonstrated in this REPL example:

```
scala> val i = 1  
i: Int = 1  
  
scala> i.asInstanceOf[String]  
ClassCastException: java.lang.Integer cannot be c
```

As usual, use a `try / catch` expression to handle this situation.

7.2 Passing a Class Type with the `classOf` Method

Problem

When an API requires that you pass in a `Class` type, you'd call `.class` on an object in Java, but that doesn't work in Scala.

Solution

Use the Scala `classOf` method instead of Java's `.class`. The following example from a Java Sound API project shows how to pass a class of type `TargetDataLine` to a method named `DataLine.Info`:

```
val info = DataLine.Info(classOf[TargetDataLine],
```

By contrast, the same method call would be made like this in Java:

```
// java
info = new DataLine.Info(TargetDataLine.class, null)
```

The `classOf` method is defined in the Scala `Predef` object and is therefore available without requiring an import.

Discussion

Once you have a `Class` reference you can begin with simple reflection techniques. For instance, the following REPL example demonstrates how to access the methods of the `String` class:

```
scala> val stringClass = classOf[String]
stringClass: Class[String] = class java.lang.String

scala> stringClass.getMethods
res0: Array[java.lang.reflect.Method] = Array(public boolean equals(java.lang.Object), public int hashCode(), public String toString(), public static String valueOf(java.lang.String), ...)
```

See Also

- The [Scala Predef object](#)

7.3 Creating Singletons with object

Problem

You want to create a singleton object to ensure that only one instance of a class exists.

Solution

Create singleton objects in Scala with the `object` keyword. For instance, you might create a singleton object to represent something you only want one instance of, such as a keyboard, mouse, or perhaps a cash register in a pizza restaurant:

```
object CashRegister:  
    def open() = println("opened")  
    def close() = println("closed")
```

With `CashRegister` defined as an object, there can be only one instance of it, and its methods are called just like static methods on a Java class:

```
@main def main =  
    CashRegister.open()  
    CashRegister.close()
```

Discussion

A singleton object is a class that has exactly one instance. Using this pattern is also a common way to create utility methods, such as this `StringUtils` object:

```
object StringUtils:  
    def isNullOrEmpty(s: String): Boolean =
```

```
    if s==null || s.trim.equals("") then true
def leftTrim(s: String): String = s.replaceAll(" ", "")
def rightTrim(s: String): String = s.replaceAll(" ", "")
def capitalizeAllWordsInString(s: String): String =
  s.split(" ").map(_.capitalize).mkString(" ")
```

Because these methods are defined in an `object` instead of a `class`, they can be called directly on the object, similar to a static method in Java:

```
scala> StringUtils.isNullOrEmpty("")
val res0: Boolean = true

scala> StringUtils.capitalizeAllWordsInString("big belly burger")
val res1: String = Big Belly Burger
```

Singleton case objects also make great reusable messages in certain situations, such as when using Akka actors. For instance, if you have a number of actors that can all receive start and stop messages, you can create singletons like this:

```
case object StartMessage
case object StopMessage
```

You can then use those objects as messages that can be sent to actors:

```
inputValve ! StopMessage  
outputValve ! StopMessage
```

See Also

- See [Chapter 18](#) for more examples of passing messages to actors.
- In addition to creating objects in this manner, you can give the appearance that a class has both static and nonstatic methods using an approach known as a companion object. See [Recipe 7.4](#) for examples of that approach.

7.4 Creating Static Members with Companion Objects

Problem

You've come to Scala from a language like Java and want to create a class that has both *instance* and *static* members, but Scala doesn't have a `static` keyword.

Solution

When you want nonstatic (instance) members in a class combined with static members, define the instance members in a `class` and define the members that you want to appear as “static” members in an `object` that has the same name as the class, and is in the same file as the class. This object is known as the class’s *companion object* (and the class is known as the object’s *companion class*).

Using this approach lets you create what appear to be static members on a class, as shown in this example:

```
// Pizza class
class Pizza (var crustType: String):
    override def toString = s"Crust type is $crus

// companion object
object Pizza:
    val CRUST_TYPE_THIN = "THIN"        // static fie
    val CRUST_TYPE_THICK = "THICK"
    def getPrice = 0.0                  // static met
```

With the `Pizza` class and `Pizza` object defined in the same file, members of the `Pizza` object can be accessed just as static

members of a Java class:

```
println(Pizza.CRUST_TYPE_THIN)      // THIN
println(Pizza.getPrice)             // 0.0
```

You can also create a new `Pizza` instance and use it as usual:

```
val p = Pizza(Pizza.CRUST_TYPE_THICK)
println(p)    // "Crust type is THICK"
```

USE ENUMS FOR CONSTANTS

In the real world, don't use strings for constant values. Use enumerations instead, as shown in [Recipe 6.12, “How to Create Sets of Named Values with Enums”](#).

Discussion

Although this approach is different than Java, the recipe is straightforward:

- Define your class and object in the same file, giving them the same name.
- Define members that should appear to be “static” in the object.
- Define nonstatic (instance) members in the class.

In this recipe I put the word *static* in quotation marks because Scala doesn't refer to members in objects as static members, but in this context they serve the same purpose as static members in Java classes.

Accessing private members

It's important to know that a class and its companion object can access each other's private members. In the following code, the static method `double` in the object can access the private variable `secret` of the class `Foo`:

```
class Foo:
    private val secret = 42

object Foo:
    // access the private class field `secret`
    def doubleFoo(foo: Foo) = foo.secret * 2

@main def fooMain =
    val f = Foo()
    println(Foo.doubleFoo(f)) // prints 84
```

Similarly, in the following code the instance member `printObj` can access the private field `obj` of the object `Foo`:

```
class Foo:  
    // access the private object field `obj`  
    def printObj = println(s"I can see ${Foo.obj}")  
  
object Foo:  
  
    private val obj = "Foo's object"  
  
    @main def fooMain =  
        val f = Foo()  
        f.printObj    // prints "I can see Foo's object"
```

See Also

- See [Recipe 7.6](#) for an example of how to implement a factory using this approach.

7.5 Using apply Methods in Objects as Constructors

Problem

In some situations it may be better, easier, or more convenient to create `apply` methods in a companion object to work as a

class constructor, and you want to understand how to write these methods.

Solution

The techniques in [Recipe 5.2, “Creating a Primary Constructor”](#), and [Recipe 5.4, “Defining Auxiliary Constructors for Classes”](#), show how to create both single and multiple class constructors. But another technique you can use to create constructors is to define `apply` methods in a class’s companion object—an object that has the same name as the class and is defined in the same file as the class. Technically these aren’t constructors, they’re more like functions or factory methods, but they serve a similar purpose.

Creating a companion object with an `apply` method takes just a few steps. Assuming that you want to create constructors for a `Person` class:

1. Define a `Person` class and `Person` object in the same file (making them *companions*).
2. Make the `Person` class constructor private.
3. Define one or more `apply` methods in the object to serve as builders of the class.

For the first two steps, create the class and object in the same file, and make the `Person` class constructor private:

```
class Person private(val name: String):  
    // define any instance members you need here  
  
object Person:  
    // define any static members you need here
```

Then create one or more `apply` methods in the companion object:

```
class Person private(val name: String):  
    override def toString = name  
  
object Person:  
    // the "constructor"  
    def apply(name: String): Person = new Person
```

Given this code, you can now create new `Person` instances, as shown in these examples:

```
val Regina = Person("Regina")  
val a = List(Person("Regina"), Person("Robert"))
```

In Scala 2 a benefit of this approach was that it eliminated the need for the `new` keyword before the class name. But because `new` isn't needed in most situations in Scala 3, you may want to use this technique because you prefer this factory approach, or because you need it in one of those rare situations.

Discussion

An `apply` method defined in the companion object of a class is treated specially by the Scala compiler. Essentially, there's a little syntactic sugar baked into the compiler so that when it sees this code:

```
val p = Person("Fred Flintstone")
```

one of the things it does is to look around and see if it can find an `apply` method in a companion object. When it does, it turns that code into this code:

```
val p = Person.apply("Fred Flintstone")
```

Therefore, `apply` is often referred to as a factory method, function, or perhaps a builder. Technically it's not a constructor.

When you want to use this technique and provide multiple ways to build a class, define multiple `apply` methods with the desired signatures:

```
class Person private(var name: String, var age: Int) {  
    override def toString = s"$name is $age years old"  
  
object Person:  
    // three ways to build a Person  
    def apply(): Person = new Person("", 0)  
    def apply(name: String): Person = new Person(name, 0)  
    def apply(name: String, age: Int): Person = new Person(name, age)}
```

That code creates three ways to build new `Person` instances:

```
println(Person())          // is 0 years old  
println(Person("Regina"))  // Regina is 0 years old  
println(Person("Robert", 22)) // Robert is 22 years old
```

Because `apply` is just a function, you can implement it however you see fit. For instance, you can construct a `Person` from a tuple, or even a variable number of tuples:

```
object Person:  
    def apply(t: (String, Int)) = new Person(t(0), t(1))
```

```
def apply(ts: (String, Int)*) =  
    for t <- ts yield new Person(t(0), t(1))
```

Those two `apply` methods are used like this:

```
// create a person from a tuple  
val john = Person(("John", 30))  
  
// create multiple people using a variable number  
val peeps = Person(  
    ("Barb", 33),  
    ("Cheryl", 31)  
)
```

See Also

- For information on how to implement a static factory with `apply`, see [Recipe 7.6](#).
- See [Recipe 5.2, “Creating a Primary Constructor”](#), for details on how to create a primary class constructor, and [Recipe 5.4, “Defining Auxiliary Constructors for Classes”](#), for details on how to define auxiliary class constructors.
- While `apply` is like a constructor, `unapply` is its opposite, known as an *extractor*, which is discussed in

Recipe 7.8.

7.6 Implementing a Static Factory with `apply`

Problem

To keep object creation logic in one location, you want to implement a static factory in Scala.

Solution

A static factory is a simplified version of the *factory pattern*. To create a static factory, you can take advantage of Scala's syntactic sugar and create the factory with an `apply` method in an object, typically a companion object.

For instance, suppose you want to create an `Animal` factory that returns instances of `Cat` and `Dog` classes based on what you ask for. By writing an `apply` method in the companion object of an `Animal` trait, users of your factory can create new `Cat` and `Dog` instances like this:

```
val cat = Animal("cat")      // creates a Cat
val dog = Animal("dog")       // creates a Dog
```

To implement this behavior, create a file named *Animals.scala*, and in that file create (a) a parent `Animal` trait, (b) the classes that extend that trait, and (c) a companion object with a suitable `apply` method:

```
package animals

sealed trait Animal:
    def speak(): Unit

private class Dog extends Animal:
    override def speak() = println("woof")

private class Cat extends Animal:
    override def speak() = println("meow")

object Animal:
    // the factory method
    def apply(s: String): Animal =
        if s == "dog" then Dog() else Cat()
```

Next, in a file named *Factory.scala*, define an `@main` method to test that code:

```
@main def test1 =  
    import animals.*  
  
    val cat = Animal("cat")      // returns a Cat  
    val dog = Animal("dog")      // returns a Dog  
  
    cat.speak()  
    dog.speak()
```

When you run that code, you see this output:

```
meow  
woof
```

A benefit of this approach is that instances of the `Dog` and `Cat` classes can only be created through the factory method. Attempting to create them directly will fail:

```
val c = Cat()      // compile error  
val d = Dog()      // compile error
```

Discussion

There are a variety of ways to implement a static factory, so experiment with different approaches, in particular regarding how you want to make the `Cat` and `Dog` classes accessible. The idea of the factory method is to make sure that concrete instances can *only* be created through the factory; therefore, the class constructors should be hidden from all other classes. The code in the Solution shows one possible solution to this problem.

See Also

This recipe demonstrates a simple static factory as a way to demonstrate features of a Scala `object`. For an example of how to create a true factory method in Scala, see my blog post [“A Scala Factory Pattern Example”](#).

7.7 Reifying Traits as Objects

Problem

You've created one or more traits that contain methods, and now you want to make them concrete. Or, perhaps you've seen code like this and then wondered what that last line of code is all about:

```
trait Foo:  
    println("Foo")  
    // more code ...  
  
object Foo extends Foo
```

Solution

When you see that an `object` extends one or more traits, the object is being used to reify the trait(s). The word *reify* means “to take an abstract concept and making it concrete,” in this case instantiating a singleton object from one or more traits.

For instance, given this trait and two classes that extend it:

```
trait Animal  
  
// in a world where all dogs and cats have names  
case class Dog(name: String) extends Animal  
case class Cat(name: String) extends Animal
```

in a functional programming style you might also create a set of animal services as a trait:

```
// assumes that all animal have legs
trait AnimalServices:
    def walk(a: Animal) = println(s"$a is walking")
    def run(a: Animal) = println(s"$a is running")
    def stop(a: Animal) = println(s"$a is stopped")
```

Once you have a trait like this, the next thing many developers do is reify the `AnimalServices` trait as an object:

```
object AnimalServices extends AnimalServices
```

Now you can use the `AnimalServices` functions:

```
val zeus = Dog("Zeus")
AnimalServices.walk(zeus)
AnimalServices.run(zeus)
AnimalServices.stop(zeus)
```

ABOUT THE NAME “SERVICE”

The name *service* comes from the fact that these functions provide a series of public services that are available to external clients. I find that this name makes sense when you imagine that these functions are implemented as a series of web service calls. For instance, when you use Twitter’s REST API to write a Twitter client, the functions it makes available to you are considered to be a series of web services.

Discussion

The approach shown is used in functional programming, where data is typically modeled using `case` classes and the related functions are put in traits. The general recipe goes like this:

1. Model your data using `case` classes.
2. Put the related functions in traits.
3. Reify your traits as objects, combining multiple traits as needed for a solution.

A slightly more real-world implementation of the previous code might look as follows. First, a simple data model:

```
trait Animal
trait AnimalWithLegs
trait AnimalWithTail
case class Dog(name: String) extends Animal, Anir
```

Next, create a series of services, i.e., sets of functions corresponding to the traits:

```
trait TailServices:
    def wagTail(a: AnimalWithTail) = println(s"$a's tail is wagging")
    def stopTail(a: AnimalWithTail) = println(s"$a's tail has stopped wagging")
```

```
trait AnimalWithLegsServices:
    def walk(a: AnimalWithLegs) = println(s"$a is walking")
    def run(a: AnimalWithLegs) = println(s"$a is running")
    def stop(a: AnimalWithLegs) = println(s"$a is stopped")

trait DogServices:
    def bark(d: Dog) = println(s"$d says 'woof'")
```

Now you can reify all those traits into a complete list of dog-related functions:

```
object DogServices extends DogServices, AnimalWithLegsServices
```

Then you can use those functions:

```
import DogServices._

val rocky = Dog("Rocky")
walk(rocky)
wagTail(rocky)
bark(rocky)
```

Even more specific!

There are times when you'll want to be more specific with your code and parameterize your traits, like this:

```
trait TailServices[AnimalWithTail] ...  
-----  
  
trait AnimalWithLegsServices[AnimalWithLegs] ...  
-----
```

This is a way of saying, “The functions in this trait can only be used with this type.” In larger applications, this technique can help other developers more easily understand the purpose of the trait. This is one of the advantages of using a statically typed language.

To use this technique with the current set of `case` classes, modify the traits like this:

```
trait TailServices[AnimalWithTail]:  
    def wagTail(a: AnimalWithTail) = println(s"$a's tail is wagging")  
  
trait AnimalWithLegsServices[AnimalWithLegs]:  
    def walk(a: AnimalWithLegs) = println(s"$a is walking")  
  
trait DogServices[Dog]:  
    def bark(d: Dog) = println(s"$d says 'woof'")
```

Then create the reified object like this:

```
object DogServices
  extends DogServices[Dog], AnimalWithLegsServices
```

Finally, you'll see that it works as before:

```
import DogServices._

val xena = Dog("Xena")
walk(xena)          // Dog(Xena) is walking
wagTail(xena)       // Dog(Xena) is wagging tail
bark(xena)          // Dog(Xena) says 'woof'
```

See Also

- When I first learned of the word *reify* I couldn't understand why it was used in this context, so I researched it and [summarized my findings on my blog](#).
- See [Recipe 6.11, “Using Traits to Create Modules”](#), for larger examples of using this technique to create modules.

7.8 Implementing Pattern Matching with unapply

Problem

You want to write an `unapply` method for a class so you can extract its fields in a `match` expression.

Solution

Write an `unapply` method in the companion object of your class with the proper return signature. The solution is shown here in two steps:

1. Writing an `unapply` method that returns a `String`
2. Writing an `unapply` method to work with a `match` expression

Writing an `unapply` method that returns a `String`

To begin demonstrating how `unapply` works, here's a `Person` class with a corresponding companion object that has an `unapply` method that returns a formatted string:

```
class Person(val name: String, val age: Int)
object Person:
    def unapply(p: Person): String = s"${p.name},
```

With this configuration you create a new `Person` instance as usual:

```
val p = Person("Lori", 33)
```

The benefit of an `unapply` method is that it gives you a way to *deconstruct* a person instance:

```
val personAsString = Person.unapply(p) // "Lori, 33"
```

As shown, `unapply` deconstructs the `Person` instance it's given into a `String` representation. In Scala, when you put an `unapply` method in a companion object, it's said that you've created an *extractor* method, because you've created a way to extract the fields out of the object.

Writing an unapply method to work with a match expression

While that example shows how to deconstruct a `Person` into a `String`, if you want to extract the fields out of `Person` in a `match` expression, `unapply` needs to return a specific type:

- If your class has only one parameter and it's of type `A`, return an `Option[A]`, i.e., the parameter value wrapped in a `Some`.
- When your class has multiple parameters of types `A1`, `A2`, ... `An`, return them in an `Option[(A1, A2 ... An)]`, i.e., a tuple that contains those values, wrapped in a `Some`.

If for some reason your `unapply` method can't deconstruct its parameters into proper values, return a `None` instead.

For example, if you replace the previous `unapply` method with this one:

```
class Person(val name: String, val age: Int)
object Person:
    def unapply(p: Person): Option[(String, Int)]
```

you'll see that you can now use `Person` in a `match` expression:

```
val p = Person("Lori", 33)
val deconstructedPerson: String = p match
  case Person(n, a) => s"name: $n, age: $a"
  case null => "null!"
```

The REPL shows the result:

```
scala> println(deconstructedPerson)
name: Lori, age: 33
```

Case classes generate this code automatically, but if you don't want to use a case class and you do want your class to work in a `match` expression, this is how you enable an extractor in a class.

See Also

- If you're wondering about the name `unapply`, it's used because this “deconstruction” process is basically the opposite of writing an `apply` method in a companion class. The `apply` methods in companion objects are used as factory methods to construct new instances, and they're discussed in [Recipe 5.15, “Defining Auxiliary Constructors for Case Classes”](#).

- See the [official Scala page on extractor objects](#) for more details on writing `unapply` methods.

¹

The previous version of this book covered *package objects*, but they'll be deprecated after Scala 3.0, so they're not discussed in this book.

Chapter 8. Methods

This final chapter on domain modeling covers *methods*, which can be defined inside classes, case classes, traits, enums, and objects. An important note—and a big change in Scala 3—is that methods can also be defined outside of those constructs. As a result, a complete Scala 3 application can look like this:

```
def printHello(name: String) = println(s"Hello, $name")
def printString(s: String) = println(s)

@main def hiMom =
  printHello("mom")
  printString("Look mom, no classes or objects")
```

Scala methods are similar to methods in other typed languages. They're defined with the `def` keyword, typically take one or more parameters, have an algorithm that they perform, and return some sort of result. A basic method—one that doesn't have generic types or `using` parameters—is defined like this:

```
def methodName(paramName1: type1, paramName2: type2)
  // the method body
  // goes here
```

Declaring the method return type is optional, but I find that for maintaining applications I haven't looked at in months or years, taking a few moments to declare the type now makes it easier to understand days, months, and years from now. When I don't add the type—or when I use other dynamically typed languages—I find that I have to take a fair amount of time in the future to look through the method body to determine what the return type is, and the longer the method, the longer that takes. So most developers agree that it's best to declare the return now, while it's fresh in your mind. And as I write in [“Scala/FP: Pure Function Signatures Tell All”](#), if you get into functional programming, you'll find that pure function signatures are extraordinarily meaningful.

There are several keywords that can be prepended to `def`. For example, methods can be declared to be `final` if you don't want inheriting classes to override them:

```
class Foo:  
    final def foo = "foo"                      // FINAL  
  
class FooFoo extends Foo:  
    override def foo = "foo foo"    // ERROR, won'
```

Other keywords like `protected` and `private` are demonstrated in this chapter to show how to control method scope.

Scala is considered to be an expression-oriented programming language, meaning that every line of code is an *expression*: it returns a value and typically doesn't have a side effect. As a result, methods can be extremely concise, because language constructs like `if`, `for/yield`, `match`, and `try` are all expressions that return values. Code that's both concise and readable is called *expressive*, and to demonstrate this, I'll show a small collection of expressive methods that use these constructs.

First, here are some examples that only use equality tests or `if` expressions as the method body:

```
// with return type
def isBetween(a: Int, x: Int, y: Int): Boolean =
  a >= x & a <= y

def max(a: Int, b: Int): Int = if a > b then a else b

// without return type
def isBetween(a: Int, x: Int, y: Int) = a >= x & a <= y
def max(a: Int, b: Int) = if a > b then a else b
```

You can also place the body of the method on a separate line, if that's more readable to you:

```
def isBetween(a: Int, x: Int, y: Int): Boolean =  
    a >= x && a <= y  
  
def max(a: Int, b: Int): Int =  
    if a > b then a else b
```

Next, here's a `match` expression as the body of a method:

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

A `for` expression—a combination of `for` and `yield`—can also be used as a method body:

```
def allThoseBetween3and10(xs: List[Int]): List[Int] =  
    for  
        x <- xs  
        if x >= 3  
        if x <= 10  
    yield  
        x
```

```
    println(allThoseBetween3and10(List(1, 3, 7, 11)))
```

You can use the same technique with other constructs, such as `try / catch` expressions.

While those introductory examples show several Scala method features, there's much more to know. The following recipes show how to:

- Specify method access control, i.e., the visibility of methods ([Recipe 8.1](#))
- Call methods on a superclass or trait ([Recipe 8.2](#))
- Specify the names of method parameters when calling a method ([Recipe 8.3](#))
- Set default values for method parameters ([Recipe 8.4](#))
- Use varargs fields in methods ([Recipe 8.5](#))
- Force callers to leave parentheses off certain methods ([Recipe 8.6](#))
- Declare the exceptions a method can throw ([Recipe 8.7](#))
- Use special techniques to support a fluent method programming style ([Recipe 8.8](#))
- Use the new Scala 3 extension method syntax ([Recipe 8.9](#))

Finally, in addition to defining *methods*, it's important to know that you can also define *functions* in Scala using the `val`

keyword. Functions aren't discussed in this chapter, but they're covered in several recipes in [Chapter 10](#), and in "[Scala: The Differences Between val and def When Creating Functions](#)" I write at length about those differences.

8.1 Controlling Method Scope (Access Modifiers)

Problem

Scala methods are public by default, and you want to control their scope.

Solution

Scala lets you control method visibility in a granular and powerful way. In order from “most restrictive” to “most open,” Scala provides these scope options:

- Private scope
- Protected scope
- Package scope
- Package-specific scope
- Public scope

These scopes are demonstrated in the examples that follow.

PRIVATE[THIS] AND PROTECTED[THIS]

Scala 2 has a notion of `private[this]` and `protected[this]` scope qualifiers, but those have been deprecated. See the [Scala 3 reference page](#) for a discussion of those features.

Private scope

The most restrictive access is to mark a method `private`, which makes the method available to (a) the current instance of a class and (b) other instances of the current class. This code shows how to mark a method as `private` and how it can be used by another instance of the same class:

```
class Cat:  
    private def isFriendlyCat = true  
  
    def sampleMethod(other: Cat) =  
        if other.isFriendlyCat then  
            println("Can access other.isFriendlyCat")  
            // ...  
        end if  
    end sampleMethod  
end Cat
```

When a method is marked `private` it's not available to subclasses. The following `Dog` class won't compile because the `heartBeat` method is private to the `Animal` class:

```
class Animal:
    private def heartBeat() = println("Animal heart beat")

class Dog extends Animal:
    heartBeat() // ERROR: Not found: heartBeat
```

To make the method available to the `Dog` class, use `protected` scope.

Protected scope

Marking a method `protected` modifies its scope so it (a) can be accessed by other instances of the same class, (b) is not visible in the current package, and (c) is available to subclasses. The following code demonstrates these points:

```
class Cat:
    protected def isFriendlyCat = true
    def catFoo(otherCat: Cat) =
        if otherCat.isFriendlyCat then // this
            println("Can access 'otherCat.isFriendlyCat")
        // ...
```

```
    end if

@main def catTests =
  val c1 = Cat()
  val c2 = Cat()
  c1.catFoo(c2)           // this works

  // this code can't access this method:
  // c1.isFriendlyCat // does not compile
```

In that code:

- The `if other.isFriendlyCat` expression in `catFoo` shows that one `Cat` instance can access `isFriendlyCat` in another instance.
- The `c1.catFoo(c2)` expression demonstrates that one `Cat` instance can call `catFoo` on another instance, and `catFoo` can invoke `isFriendlyCat` on that other instance.
- The commented-out `c1.isFriendlyCat` shows that one `Cat` instance can't directly invoke `isFriendlyCat` on another `Cat` instance; `protected` doesn't allow that, even though `CatHouse` is in the same package as `Cat`.

Because `protected` methods are available to subclasses, the following code also compiles:

```
class Animal:  
    protected def heartBeat() = println("Animal 1")  
  
class Dog extends Animal:  
    heartBeat() // this
```

Package scope

To make a method only available to all members of the current package, mark the method as being private to the current package with the `private[packageName]` syntax.

In the following example, the method `privateModelMethod` can be accessed by other classes in the same package—the `model` package—but `privateMethod` and `protectedMethod` can't be accessed:

```
package com.devdaily.coolapp.model:  
class Foo:  
    // this is in "package scope"  
    private[model] def privateModelMethod = ???  
  
    private def privateMethod = ???  
    protected def protectedMethod = ???
```

```
class Bar:  
    val f = Foo()  
    f.privateModelMethod // compiles  
    // f.privateMethod // won't compile  
    // f.protectedMethod // won't compile
```

Package-specific scope

Beyond making a method available to classes in the current package, Scala also allows a fine-grained level of access control that lets you make a method available at different levels in a class hierarchy. The following example demonstrates how you can make the methods `doUnderModel`, `doUnderCoolapp`, and `doUnderAcme` available to different package levels:

```
package com.devdaily.coolapp.model:  
class Foo:  
    // available under com.devdaily.coolapp.r  
    private[model] def doUnderModel = ???  
  
    // available under com.devdaily.coolapp  
    private[coolapp] def doUnderCoolapp = ???  
  
    // available under com.devdaily
```

```

private[devdaily] def doUnderAcme = ???


import com.devdaily.coolapp.model.Foo

package com.devdaily.coolapp.view:

class Bar:

    val f = Foo()
        // f.doUnderModel // won't compile
    f.doUnderCoolapp
    f.doUnderAcme


package com.devdaily.common:

class Bar:

    val f = Foo()
        // f.doUnderModel // won't compile
        // f.doUnderCoolapp // won't compile
    f.doUnderAcme

```

In this example, the methods can be seen as follows:

- The method `doUnderModel` can be seen by other classes in the `model` package (`com.devdaily.coolapp.model`).
- The method `doUnderCoolapp` can be seen by all classes under the `com.devdaily.coolapp` package level.
- The method `doUnderAcme` can be seen by all classes under the `com.devdaily` level.

Public scope

If no access modifier is added to a method declaration, the method is public, meaning that any piece of code in any package can access it. In the following example, any class in any package can access the `doPublic` method:

```
package com.devdaily.coolapp.model:  
  class Foo:  
    def doPublic = ???  
  
  package some.other.scope:  
    class Bar:  
      val f = com.devdaily.coolapp.model.Foo()  
      f.doPublic
```

Discussion

The Scala approach to access modifiers is different than Java. Methods are public by default, and then when you need flexibility in how you provide access control, Scala offers the features demonstrated in the Solution.

As a summary, [Table 8-1](#) describes the levels of access control that were demonstrated in the Solution.

Table 8-1. Descriptions of Scala's access control modifiers

Access modifier	Description
<code>private</code>	Available to the current instance and other instances of the class it's declared in.
<code>protected</code>	Available only to instances of the current class and subclasses of the current class.
<code>private[model]</code>	Available to all classes beneath the <code>com.devdaily.coolapp.model</code> package.
<code>private[coolapp]</code>	Available to all classes beneath the <code>com.devdaily.coolapp</code> package.
<code>private[devdaily]</code>	Available to all classes beneath the <code>com.devdaily</code> package.
(no modifier)	The method is public.

8.2 Calling a Method on a Superclass or Trait

Problem

To keep your code DRY (don't repeat yourself), you want to invoke a method that's already defined in a parent class or trait.

Solution

There are several possible situations that need to be accounted for in this recipe:

- A method in a class does not have the same name as a superclass method and wants to call that superclass method.
- A method in a class with the same name as a superclass method and needs to call that superclass method.
- A method in a class has the same name as multiple traits that it extends, and you want to choose which trait behavior to use.

The solutions for these problems are shown in the following sections.

walkThenRun calls walk and run

When a method in a class needs to invoke a method of a superclass, and the method name in the class is different than the name in the superclass, call the superclass method without using `super`:

```
class AnimalWithLegs:
    def walk() = println("I'm walking")
    def run() = println("I'm running")

class Dog extends AnimalWithLegs:
    def walkThenRun() =
        walk()
        run()
```

In this example the method `walkThenRun` in the `Dog` class calls the `walk` and `run` methods that are defined in `AnimalWithLegs`. Because the method names are different, there's no need to use a `super` reference. This is normal inheritance of methods in object-oriented programming.

While I show a superclass in this example, this discussion holds the same if `AnimalWithLegs` is a trait.

A walk method needs to call `super.walk`

When a method in a class has the same name as the method in the superclass, and you want to invoke the superclass method, define the class method with `override`, and then invoke the superclass method using `super`:

```
class AnimalWithLegs:
    // the superclass 'walk' method.
    def walk() = println("Animal is walking")

class Dog extends AnimalWithLegs:
    // the subclass 'walk' method.
    override def walk() =
        super.walk()                      // invoke the
        println("Dog is walking")         // add your code here
```

In this example, the `walk` method in `Dog` has the same name as the method in the superclass, so it's necessary to use `super.walk` to invoke the superclass `walk` method.

Now when you create a new `Dog` and invoke its `walk` method, you'll see that both lines are printed:

```
val d = Dog()
d.walk()
```

```
Animal is walking  
Dog is walking
```

In this situation, if you don't want the superclass `walk` behavior—you just want to override it—don't call the superclass method; just define your own method body:

```
class Dog extends AnimalWithLegs:  
    override def walk() =  
        println("Dog is walking")
```

Now when you create a new `Dog` instance and call its `walk` method, you'll only see this output:

```
Dog is walking
```

As with the previous example, this discussion is the same if `AnimalWithLegs` is a trait.

Controlling which trait you call a method from

If your class inherits from multiple traits, and those traits implement the same method, you can select not only a method name but also a trait name when invoking a method using `super`. For instance, given these traits:

```
trait Human:
    def yo = "Human"

trait Mother extends Human:
    override def yo = "Mother"

trait Father extends Human:
    override def yo = "Father"
```

The following code shows different ways to invoke the `hello` methods from the traits the `Child` class inherits from:

```
class Child extends Human, Mother, Father:
    def printSuper = super.yo
    def printMother = super[Mother].yo
    def printFather = super[Father].yo
    def printHuman = super[Human].yo
```

When you create a new `Child` instance and call its methods, you'll see this output:

```
val c = Child()
println(c.printSuper)      // Father
println(c.printMother)     // Mother
println(c.printFather)     // Father
println(c.printHuman)      // Human
```

As shown, when a class inherits from multiple traits, and those traits have a common method name, you can choose which trait to run the method from with the

`super[traitName].methodName` syntax. Also note that `c.printSuper` prints `Father`, because traits are constructed from left to right, and `Father` is the last trait mixed into `Child`:

```
class Child extends Human, Mother, Father:
```

When using this technique, you can't continue to reach up through the parent class hierarchy unless you directly extend the target class or trait using the `extends` keyword. For instance, the following code won't compile because this `Child` doesn't directly extend the `Human` trait:

```
class Child extends Mother, Father:           // remove this line
    def printSuper = super.yo
    def printMother = super[Mother].yo
    def printFather = super[Father].yo
    def printHuman = super[Human].yo      // won't compile
```

When you try to compile the code you get the error, “Human does not name a parent of class Child.”

8.3 Using Parameter Names When Calling a Method

Problem

You prefer a coding style where you specify the method parameter names when calling a method.

Solution

The general syntax for calling a method with named parameters is this:

```
methodName (param1=value1, param2=value2, ...)
```

This is demonstrated in the following example. Given this `Pizza` class definition:

```
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large
```

```
enum CrustType:  
    case Regular, Thin, Thick  
  
import CrustSize.*, CrustType.*  
  
class Pizza:  
    var crustSize = Medium  
    var crustType = Regular  
    def update(crustSize: CrustSize, crustType: (   
        this.crustSize = crustSize  
        this.crustType = crustType  
    override def toString = s"A $crustSize inch,
```

you can create a `Pizza`:

```
val p = Pizza()
```

You can then update the `Pizza`, specifying the parameter names and corresponding values when you call the `update` method:

```
p.update(crustSize = Large, crustType = Thick)
```

This approach has the added benefit that you can place the parameters in any order:

```
p.update(crustType = Thick, crustSize = Large)
```

Although this approach is more verbose than not using named parameters, it can also be more readable.

Discussion

This technique is especially useful when several parameters have the same type, such as having several `Boolean` or `String` parameters in a method. For instance, compare this method call, which does not use named parameters:

```
engage(true, true, true, false)
```

to this one, which does:

```
engage(  
    speedIsSet = true,  
    directionIsSet = true,  
    picardSaidMakeItSo = true,  
    turnedOffParkingBrake = false  
)
```

When a method specifies default values for its parameters, as demonstrated in [Recipe 8.4](#), you can use this approach to specify only the parameters you want to override. The combination of these two recipes makes for a flexible, powerful approach.

8.4 Setting Default Values for Method Parameters

Problem

You want to set default values for method parameters so the method can optionally be called without those parameters having to be assigned.

Solution

Specify the default value for parameters inside the method signature with this syntax:

```
parameterName: parameterType = defaultValue
```

For example, in the following code the `timeout` field is assigned a default value of `5_000` and the `protocol` field is

given a default value of "http":

```
class Connection:  
    def makeConnection(timeout: Int = 5_000, protocol: String = "http")  
        println(s"timeout = ${timeout}%d, protocol = $protocol")  
        // more code here
```

When you have a `Connection` instance `c`, this method can be called in the following ways, with the results shown in the comments:

```
val c = Connection()  
c.makeConnection()                      // timeout = 5000, protocol = http  
c.makeConnection(2_000)                  // timeout = 2000, protocol = http  
c.makeConnection(3_000, "http")          // timeout = 3000, protocol = http
```

If you like to call methods while supplying the names of the method parameters, `makeConnection` can also be called in these ways, as shown in [Recipe 8.3](#):

```
c.makeConnection(timeout=10_000)  
c.makeConnection(protocol="http")  
c.makeConnection(timeout=10_000, protocol="http")  
c.makeConnection(protocol="http", timeout=10_000)
```

As that shows, these two recipes can be used hand in hand to create readable code that can be useful in certain situations.

Discussion

Just as with constructor parameters, you can provide default values for method arguments. Because you've provided defaults, consumers of your method can either (a) supply an argument to override the default value, or (b) skip the argument, letting it use its default value.

Arguments are assigned from left to right, so the following call assigns no arguments and uses the default values for both

`timeout` and `protocol`:

```
c.makeConnection()
```

This call sets `timeout` to `2_000` and leaves `protocol` to its default:

```
c.makeConnection(2_000)
```

This call sets both `timeout` and `protocol`:

```
c.makeConnection(3_000, "ftp")
```

Note that you can't set `protocol` only with this approach—attempting to do so won't compile—but as shown in the Solution, you can use a named parameter:

```
c.makeConnection(protocol="http")
```

If your method provides a mix of some fields that offer default values and others that don't, list the fields that have default values last. This is because the default value fields can optionally be skipped, while the others can't. This example shows the correct approach, with the default value field listed last:

```
class Connection:
    // correct implementation, default value is 1000
    def makeConnection(timeout: Int, protocol: String): Unit = {
        println(s"timeout = ${timeout}%,d, protocol = $protocol")
    }

val c = Connection()
c.makeConnection(1_000)           // timeout = 1000, protocol = null
c.makeConnection(1_000, "http")   // timeout = 1000, protocol = http
```

Conversely, this code helps demonstrate the problem that's created when you list a default value field first:

```
class Connection:  
    // intentional error  
    def makeConnection(timeout: Int = 5_000, protocol: String) = {  
        println(s"timeout = ${timeout}%d, protocol = $protocol")  
    }
```

This code compiles, and you'll be able to create a new `Connection`, but you won't be able to take advantage of the default, as shown in these examples:

```
val c = Connection()  
c.makeConnection(1_000, "http")      // timeout = 1000  
c.makeConnection(2_000)                // compiler error  
c.makeConnection("https")             // compiler error  
  
// but this still works  
c.makeConnection(protocol = "http")   // timeout = 5000
```

8.5 Creating Methods That Take Variable-Argument Fields

Problem

To make a method more flexible, you want to define a method parameter that can take a variable number of arguments, i.e., a *varargs* field.

Solution

Define a varargs field in your method declaration by adding a

- * character after the field type:

```
def printAll(strings: String*) =  
    strings.foreach(println)
```

Given that declaration, `printAll` can now be called with zero or more parameters:

```
// these all work  
printAll()  
printAll("a")  
printAll("a", "b")  
printAll("a", "b", "c")
```

Use _* to adapt a sequence

By default you can't pass a sequence—`List`, `Seq`, `Vector`, etc.—into a varargs parameter, but you can use Scala's `_*` operator to *adapt* a sequence so it can be used as an argument for a varargs field:

```
val fruits = List("apple", "banana", "cherry")
printAll(fruits)          // fails (Found: List[String])
printAll(fruits: _*)      // works
```

THINKING OF `_*` AS “SPLAT”

If you come from a Unix background, it may be helpful to think of `_*` as a *splat* or `xargs` operator. This operator tells the compiler to pass each element of the sequence to `printAll` as a separate argument, instead of passing `fruits` as a single argument.

Discussion

When declaring that a method has a field that can contain a variable number of arguments, the varargs field must be the last field in the method signature. Attempting to define a field in a method signature *after* a varargs field returns an error:

```
// error: this won't compile
def printAll(strings: String*, i: Int) =
```

```
strings.foreach(println)
```

Fortunately, the compiler error message is very clear:

```
def printAll(strings: String*, i: Int) =  
    ^^^^^^  
    varargs parameter must come
```

As an implication of that rule, a method can have only one varargs field.

8.6 Forcing Callers to Leave Parentheses Off Accessor Methods

Problem

You want to enforce a coding style where accessor (getter) methods can't have parentheses when they're invoked.

Solution

Define your accessor method without parentheses after the method name:

```
class Pizza:  
    // no parentheses after 'crustSize'  
    def crustSize = 12
```

This forces consumers of your class to call `crustSize` without parentheses. Attempting to use parentheses results in a compiler error:

```
scala> val p = Pizza()  
p: Pizza = Pizza@3a3e8692  
  
// this fails because of the parentheses  
  
scala> p.crustSize()  
1 |p.crustSize()  
| ^^^^  
|method crustSize in class Pizza does not take  
  
// this works  
scala> p.crustSize  
res0: Int = 12
```

Discussion

The recommended strategy for calling accessor methods *that have no side effects* is to leave the parentheses off when calling

the method. As stated in the [Scala style guide](#):

Methods which act as accessors of any sort (either encapsulating a field or a logical property) should be declared without parentheses, except if they have side effects.

Because a simple accessor method like `crustSize` doesn't have side effects, it shouldn't be called with parentheses, and this recipe demonstrates how to enforce this convention. While this is only a convention, it's a good practice when followed rigorously. For instance, although I know that a method named `printStuff` is probably going to print some output, an extra little warning light goes off in my head when I see it called as `printStuff()` instead; I know that it's a method that has a side effect.

See Also

- [The Scala Style Guide on naming conventions and parentheses](#) has more details on accessors, mutators, and the use of parentheses.
- See [Chapter 10](#) and [Recipe 24.1, “Writing Pure Functions”](#), for discussions about side effects.

8.7 Declaring That a Method Can Throw an Exception

Problem

You want to declare that a method can throw an exception, either to alert callers to this fact or because your method will be called from Java code.

Solution

Use the `@throws` annotation to declare the exception(s) that can be thrown. You can declare that a method can throw one exception:

```
@throws(classOf[Exception])  
def play =  
    // exception throwing code here ...
```

or multiple exceptions:

```
@throws(classOf[IOException])  
@throws(classOf[FileNotFoundException])
```

```
def readFile(filename: String) =  
    // exception throwing code here ...
```

Discussion

In the two examples in the Solution, I declare that these methods can throw exceptions for two reasons. First, whether the consumers are using Scala or Java, if they're writing robust code, they'll want to know that an exception can be thrown.

Second, if they're using Java, the `@throws` annotation is the Scala equivalent of providing the `throws` method signature to Java consumers. It's just like declaring that a Java method throws an exception with this syntax:

```
// java  
public void play() throws Exception {  
    // code here ...  
}
```

it's important to note that Scala's philosophy regarding checked exceptions is different than Java's. Scala doesn't require that methods declare that exceptions can be thrown, and it also doesn't require calling methods to catch them. For example, given this method:

```
def shortCircuit() = throw Exception("HERE'S AN I
```

It's not necessary to declare that `except` throws an exception, and it's also not necessary to wrap it in a `try / catch` block. But if you don't, it will bring your application to a halt:

```
scala> shortCircuit()
java.lang.Exception: HERE'S AN EXCEPTION!
        at rs$line$8$.except(rs$line$8:1)
much more output ...
```

JAVA EXCEPTION TYPES

As a quick review, Java has (a) checked exceptions, (b) descendants of `Error`, and (c) descendants of `RuntimeException`. Like checked exceptions, `Error` and `RuntimeException` have many subclasses, such as `RuntimeException`'s famous offspring, `NullPointerException`.

According to the Java documentation for [the `Exception` class](#), “The class `Exception` and any subclasses that are not also subclasses of `RuntimeException` are checked exceptions. Checked exceptions need to be declared in a method or constructor’s throws clause if they can be thrown by the execution of the method or constructor and propagate outside the method or constructor boundary.”

The following links provide more information on Java exceptions and exception handling:

- [“The Catch or Specify Requirement” Java Tutorials page](#)
 - [“Unchecked Exceptions—The Controversy” Java Tutorials page](#)
 - Wikipedia discussion of checked exceptions in [the “Exception handling” entry](#)
 - [“Lesson: Exceptions” Java Tutorials page](#)
 - [The Java `Exception` class documentation](#)
-

See Also

- See [Recipe 22.7, “Adding Exception Annotations to Scala Methods”](#), for other examples of adding exception annotations to methods.
- See [Recipe 10.8, “Implementing Functional Error Handling”](#), for details on how to handle exceptions in

functional programming.

8.8 Supporting a Fluent Style of Programming

Problem

While creating classes in an OOP style, you want to design an API so developers can write code in a *fluent* programming style, also known as *method chaining*.

Solution

A fluent programming style lets users of your API write code by chaining method calls together, as in this example:

```
person.setFirstName("Frank")
    .setLastName("Jordan")
    .setAge(85)
    .setCity("Manassas")
    .setState("Virginia")
```

To support this style of programming:

- If your class can be extended, specify `this.type` as the return type of fluent-style methods.
- If your class can't be extended, you can return `this` or `this.type` from your fluent-style methods. (See the note in the Discussion about class modifiers and extending classes.)

The following code demonstrates how to specify `this.type` as the return type of the `set*` methods shown:

```
class Person:  
    protected var _firstName = ""  
    protected var _lastName = ""  
  
    def setFirstName(firstName: String): this.type  
        _firstName = firstName  
        this  
  
    def setLastName(lastName: String): this.type  
        _lastName = lastName  
        this  
end Person  
  
class Employee extends Person:  
    protected var employeeNumber = 0  
  
    def setEmployeeNumber(num: Int): this.type =
```

```
    this.employeeNumber = num
    this

    override def toString = s"${_firstName}, ${_lastName}"
end Employee
```

The following code demonstrates how these methods can be chained together:

```
val employee = Employee()

// use the fluent methods
employee.setFirstName("Maximillion")
    .setLastName("Alexander")
    .setEmployeeNumber(2)

println(employee) // prints "Maximillion, Alexander"
```

Discussion

If you're sure your class won't be extended, specifying `this.type` as the return type of your `set*` methods isn't necessary; you can just return the `this` reference at the end of each fluent-style method. This approach is shown in the `addTopping`, `setCrustSize`, and `setCrustType` methods

of the following `Pizza` class, which is declared to be `final`, which prevents the class from being extended:

```
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large  
  
enum CrustType:  
    case Regular, Thin, Thick  
  
enum Topping:  
    case Cheese, Pepperoni, Mushrooms  
  
import CrustSize.*, CrustType.* , Topping.*  
  
final class Pizza:  
    import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer  
  
    private val toppings = ArrayBuffer[Topping]()  
    private var crustSize = Medium  
    private var crustType = Regular  
  
    def addTopping(topping: Topping) =  
        toppings += topping  
        this  
  
    def setCrustSize(crustSize: CrustSize) =  
        this.crustSize = crustSize  
        this
```

```
def setCrustType(crustType: CrustType) =  
    this.crustType = crustType  
    this  
  
def print() =  
    println(s"crust size: $crustSize")  
    println(s"crust type: $crustType")  
    println(s"toppings:    $toppings")  
end Pizza
```

These methods are demonstrated with the following code:

```
val pizza = Pizza()  
pizza.setCrustSize(Large)  
    .setCrustType(Thin)  
    .addTopping(Cheese)  
    .addTopping(Mushrooms)  
    .print()
```

That code results in the following output:

```
crust size: Large  
crust type: Thin  
toppings:    ArrayBuffer(Cheese, Mushrooms)
```

CLASS MODIFIERS

Per [the documentation for the new `open` keyword](#), when creating a class in Scala 3, “there are three possible expectations of extensibility”:

- Declare the class as `open` to allow it to be extended.
- Declare the class as `final` to prohibit the class from being extended.
- Use no modifier if you haven’t made a firm decision either way.

In the third situation, the class can only be extended if one of these conditions is met:

- The extending class is in the same file as the original class.
- The language feature `adhocExtensions` is enabled for the extending class, such as by importing `scala.language.adhocExtensions` in the extending class source file.

The feature warning for `adhocExtensions` is not enabled for Scala 3.0, but it will be produced by default for Scala 3.1 and later versions.

See Also

- Wikipedia’s [definition of a fluent interface](#)
- Martin Fowler’s [discussion of a fluent interface](#)

8.9 Adding New Methods to Closed Classes with Extension Methods

Problem

You want to add new methods to closed classes, such as adding methods to `String`, `Int`, and other classes where you don't have access to their source code.

Solution

In Scala 3 you define *extension methods* to create the new behavior you want. As an example, imagine that you want to add a method named `hello` to the `String` class so you can write code that works like this:

```
println("joe".hello)    // prints "Hello, Joe"
```

To create this behavior, define `hello` as an extension method with the `extension` keyword:

```
extension (s: String)
  def hello: String = s"Hello, ${s.capitalize}"
```

The REPL shows that this works as desired:

```
scala> println("joe".hello)
Hello, Joe
```

Defining multiple extension methods

To define additional methods, put them all under the `extension` declaration:

```
extension (s: String)
  def hello: String = s"Hello, ${s.capitalize}"
  def increment: String = s.map(c => (c + 1).toChar)
  def hideAll: String = s.replaceAll(".", "*")
```

These examples show how those methods work:

```
"joe".hello          // Hello, Joe
"hal".increment      // ibm
"password".hideAll   // *****
```

Extension methods that take a parameter

When you need to create an extension method that takes a parameter in addition to the type it works on, use this approach:

```
extension (s: String)
  def makeInt(radix: Int): Int = Integer.parseInt(s, radix)
```

These examples show how `makeInt` works:

```
"1".makeInt(2)          // Int = 1
"10".makeInt(2)         // Int = 2
"100".makeInt(2)        // Int = 4

"1".makeInt(8)          // Int = 1
"10".makeInt(8)         // Int = 8
"100".makeInt(8)        // Int = 64

"foo".makeInt(2)         // java.lang.NumberFormatException: For input string: "foo"
```

I show that last example to be clear that, as written, this method doesn't properly handle bad string input.

Discussion

Here's a simplified description of how extension methods work in Scala 3, using the original `hello` example:

1. The compiler sees a `String` literal.
2. The compiler sees that you're attempting to invoke a method named `hello` on a `String`.
3. Because the `String` class has no method named `hello`, the compiler starts looking around the known scope for

methods named `hello` that take a single `String` parameter and return a `String`.

4. The compiler finds the extension method.

That's an oversimplification of what happens, but it gives you the general idea of how extension methods work.

See Also

- For more information on extension methods in Scala 3, read the [extension methods documentation](#).
- For a comparison of how this approach used to work in Scala 2, see my article [“Implicit Methods/Functions in Scala 2 and 3 \(Dotty Extension Methods\)”](#).

Chapter 9. Packaging and Imports

Packages are used to build related modules of code, and to help prevent namespace collisions. In their most common form, you create Scala packages using the same syntax as Java, so most Scala source code files begin with a `package` declaration, like this:

```
package com.alvinalexander.myapp.model

class Person ...
```

However, Scala is also more flexible. In addition to that approach you can use a curly brace packaging style, similar to C++ and C# namespaces. That syntax is shown in [Recipe 9.1](#).

The Scala approach to importing members is similar to Java, and more flexible. With Scala you can:

- Place import statements anywhere
- Import packages, classes, objects, and methods
- Hide and rename members when you import them

All of these approaches are demonstrated in this chapter.

Before jumping into those recipes, it helps to know that two packages are implicitly imported into the scope of all of your source code files:

- `java.lang.*`
- `scala.*`

In Scala 3 the `*` character in import statements is similar to the `*` character in Java, so these statements mean “import every member” in those packages.

The Predef object

In addition to those two packages, all members from the `scala.Predef` object are also implicitly imported into your source code files.

If you want to understand how Scala works, I highly recommend taking a little time to dig into the [Predef object](#) source code. The code isn’t too long, and it demonstrates many of the features of the Scala language.

As I discuss in [“Where do those methods come from?”](#), implicit conversions are brought into scope by the `Predef` object, and in the Scala 2.13 `Predef` object—which is still used by Scala 3.0—that code looks like this:

```
implicit def long2Long(x: Long): java.lang.Long =  
implicit def Long2long(x: java.lang.Long): Long =  
// more implicit conversions ...
```

Similarly, if you ever wondered why you can invoke code like `Map`, `Set`, and `println` without needing import statements, you'll find those in `Predef` as well:

```
type Map[A, +B] = immutable.Map[A, B]  
type Set[A]     = immutable.Set[A]  
  
def println(x: Any) = Console.println(x)  
def printf(text: String, xs: Any*) = Console.print(text, xs)  
def assert(assertion: Boolean) { ... }  
def require(requirement: Boolean) { ... }
```

9.1 Packaging with the Curly Braces Style Notation

Problem

You want to use a nested style package notation, similar to the namespace notation in C++ and C#.

Solution

Wrap one or more classes inside a set of curly braces while supplying a package name, as shown in this example:

```
package com.acme.store {  
    class Foo:  
        override def toString = "I am com.acme.sto  
    }  
}
```

The canonical name of that class is `com.acme.store.Foo`. It's the same as if you declared the code like this:

```
package com.acme.store  
  
class Foo:  
    override def toString = "I am com.acme.store  
    }
```

Benefits

With this approach you can place multiple packages in one file, and you can also create nested packages. To demonstrate both approaches, the following example creates three `Foo` classes, all of which are in different packages:

```
package orderentry {
    class Foo:
        override def toString = "I am orderentry"
}

package customers {
    class Foo:
        override def toString = "I am customers."
}

package database {
    class Foo:
        override def toString = "I am database."
}

// test/demonstrate the Foo classes.
// the output is shown after the comment tags.
@main def packageTests =
    println(orderentry.Foo())           // I am orderentry
    println(customers.Foo())           // I am customers.
    println(customers.database.Foo())   // I am database.
```

This demonstrates that each `Foo` class is in a different package, and that the `database` package is nested inside the `customers` package.

Discussion

I've looked at a lot of Scala code, and from what I've seen, declaring a package name at the top of a file is far and away the most popular packaging style:

```
package foo.bar.baz

class Foo:
    override def toString = "I'm foo.bar.baz.Foo"
```

However, because Scala code can be very concise, the alternative curly brace packaging syntax can be convenient when you want to declare multiple classes and packages in one file. For instance, you'll see that I often use this style in [the source code repository for this book](#).

Chained package clauses

Sometimes when you look at Scala programs you'll see multiple package declarations at the top of a source code file, like this:

```
package com.alvinalexander
package tests
...
```

That code is exactly the same as writing two nested packages, like this:

```
package com.alvinalexander {  
    package tests {  
        ...  
    }  
}
```

The reason the first form is used is because Scala programmers generally don't like to indent their code using the curly brace style, especially in large files. So they use the first form.

The reason two `package` clauses are used instead of one has to do with what becomes available in the current scope with each approach. If you only use this one `package` statement:

```
package com.alvinalexander.tests
```

then only the members of `com.alvinalexander.tests` are brought into scope. But if you use these two `package` declarations:

```
package com.alvinalexander  
package tests
```

...

members from both `com.alvinalexander` and
`com.alvinalexander.tests` are brought into scope.

The reason for this approach has to do with a situation that was discovered in Scala 2.7 and resolved in Scala 2.8. For details on that, see Martin Odersky's [article on chained package clauses](#).

9.2 Importing One or More Members

Problem

You want to import one or more members into the scope of your current code.

Solution

Use this syntax to import one class:

```
import java.io.File
```

You can import multiple classes like this:

```
import java.io.File  
import java.io.IOException  
import java.io.FileNotFoundException
```

Or more concisely, like this:

```
import java.io.{File, IOException, FileNotFoundException}
```

I refer to this as the *curly brace syntax*, but it's more formally known as the *import selector clause*.

This is how you import everything from the `java.io` package:

```
import java.io.*
```

Discussion

Scala is very flexible and lets you:

- Place `import` statements anywhere, including the top of a class, within a class or object, within a method, or within a block of code. That technique is demonstrated in [Recipe 9.6](#).
- Import packages, classes, objects, and methods.

- Hide and rename members when you import them. Those techniques are shown in Recipes [9.3](#) and [9.4](#).

9.3 Renaming Members on Import

Problem

You want to rename members when you import them to help avoid namespace collisions or confusion.

Solution

Give the class you're importing a new name when you import it with this syntax:

```
import java.awt.{List as AwtList}
```

Then, within your code, refer to the class by the alias you've given it:

```
scala> val alist = AwtList(1, false)
val alist: java.awt.List = java.awt.List[list0,0,
```

This lets you use the `java.awt.List` class by the name `AwtList`, while also using the Scala `List` class by its usual name:

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

You can rename multiple classes at one time during the import process:

```
import java.util.{Date as JDate, HashMap as JHash
```

You can also use the `*` character in the final import position to import everything else from that package (without renaming those other members):

```
import java.util.{Date as JDate, HashMap as JHash
```

Because I create these aliases during the import process, I can't use the original (real) name of the class in my code. For instance, after using that last import statement, the following code will fail because the compiler can't find the `java.util.HashMap` class, because I renamed it:

```
scala> val map = HashMap[String, String]()
<console>:12: error: not found: type HashMap
          val map =  HashMap[String, String]
                           ^

```

That fails as expected, but I can refer to this class with the alias I gave it:

```
scala> val map = JHashMap[String, String]()
map: java.util.HashMap[String, String] = { }
```

Because I imported everything else from the `java.util` package using the `*` at the end of the `import` statement, these lines of code that use other `java.util` classes also work:

```
scala> val x = ArrayList[String]()
x: java.util.ArrayList[String] = []

scala> val y = LinkedList[String]()
y: java.util.LinkedList[String] = []
```

Discussion

As shown, you can create a new name for a class when you import it and can then refer to it by the new name, or alias.

Programming in Scala refers to this as a *renaming clause*.

This is helpful when you need to avoid namespace collisions and confusion. Class names like `Listener`, `Message`, `Handler`, `Client`, `Server`, and many more are all very common, and it can be helpful to give them aliases when you import them.

The syntax for this has changed in Scala 3. The following code shows the differences from Scala 2:

```
// scala 2
import java.util.{Date => JDate, HashMap => JHashMap}

// scala 3
import java.util.{Date as JDate, HashMap as JHashMap}
```

At the time of this writing you can still use the Scala 2 syntax in Scala 3 code, but because this underscore syntax will eventually be deprecated, the new syntax is preferred.

As a fun combination of several recipes, not only can you rename *classes* on import, you can also rename *members* from objects and `static` members from Java classes. For example,

in shell scripts I tend to rename the `println` method to a shorter name, as shown in the REPL:

```
scala> import System.out.{println as p}  
  
scala> p("hello")  
hello
```

This works because `out` is a `static final` instance of a `PrintStream` in the `java.lang.System` class, and `println` is a `PrintStream` method. The end result is that `p` is an alias for the `println` method.

9.4 Hiding a Class During the Import Process

Problem

To avoid naming conflicts or confusion, you want to hide one or more classes while importing other members from the same package.

Solution

To hide a class during the import process, use the renaming syntax shown in [Recipe 9.3](#), but point the class name to the `_` character. The following example hides the `Random` class, while importing everything else from the `java.util` package:

```
import java.util.{Random => _, *}
```

This approach is confirmed in the REPL:

```
scala> import java.util.{Random => _, *}
import java.util.{Random=>_, _}

// can't access Random
scala> val r = Random()
1 |val r = Random()
|          ^
|          Not found: Random

// can access other members
scala> val x = ArrayList()
val x: java.util.ArrayList[Nothing] = []
```

Discussion

In that example, this portion of the code is what hides the Random class:

```
import java.util.{Random => _}
```

After that, the * character inside the curly braces is the same as stating that you want to import everything else in the package, like this:

```
import java.util.*
```

Note that the * import wildcard must be in the last position. It yields an error if you attempt to use it in other positions:

```
scala> import java.util.*, Random => _
1 | import java.util.*, Random => _
|           ^
|           named imports cannot fol
```

This is because you may want to hide multiple members during the import process, and to do so you need to list them first.

To hide multiple members, list them before using the final wildcard import:

```
import java.util.{List => _, Map => _, Set => _}
```

After that import statement, you can use other classes from

```
java.util:
```

```
scala> val x = ArrayList[String]()
val x: java.util.ArrayList[String] = []
```

You can also use the Scala `List`, `Set`, and `Map` classes without having a naming collision with the `java.util` classes that have the same names:

```
// these are all Scala classes

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

scala> val b = Set(1, 2, 3)
val b: Set[Int] = Set(1, 2, 3)

scala> val c = Map(1 -> 1, 2 -> 2)
val c: Map[Int, Int] = Map(1 -> 1, 2 -> 2)
```

This ability to hide members on import is useful when you need many members from one package—and therefore want to use

the `*` wildcard syntax—but you also want to hide one or more members during the import process, typically due to naming conflicts.

9.5 Importing Static Members

Problem

You want to import members in a way similar to the Java static import approach, so you can refer to member names directly, without having to prefix them with their package or class names.

Solution

Import the static members by name or with Scala's `*` wildcard character. For example, this is how you import the static `cos` method from the `scala.math` package:

```
import scala.math.cos
val x = cos(0)    // 1.0
```

This is how you import *all* members from the `scala.math` package:

```
import scala.math.*
```

With this syntax you can access all the static members of the `scala.math` package without having to precede them with the class name:

```
import scala.math.*  
val a = sin(0)      // Double = 0.0  
val b = cos(Pi)    // Double = -1.0
```

The Java `Color` class also demonstrates the usefulness of this technique:

```
import java.awt.Color.*  
println(RED)      // java.awt.Color[r=255,g=0,b=0]  
println(BLUE)     // java.awt.Color[r=0,g=0,b=255]
```

Discussion

Objects and enumerations are other great candidates for this technique. For instance, given this `StringUtils` object:

```
object StringUtils:  
  def truncate(s: String, length: Int): String
```

```
def leftTrim(s: String): String = s.replaceA
```

you can import and use its methods like this:

```
import StringUtils.*  
truncate("four score and seven ", 4)      // "four"  
leftTrim(" four score and ")                // "four s
```

Similarly, given a Scala 3 `enum`:

```
package days {  
  enum Day:  
    case Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday,  
         Thursday, Friday, Saturday  
}
```

you can import and use the enumeration values like this:

```
// a different package  
package bar {  
  import days.Day.*  
  
  @main def enumImportTest =  
    val date = Sunday
```

```
// more code here ...

if date == Saturday || date == Sunday then
    println("It's the weekend!")

}
```

Although some developers don't like static imports, I find that this approach makes enums more readable. In my opinion, even the simple act of specifying the name of a class or enum before the constant makes the code less readable:

```
if date == Day.Saturday || date == Day.Sunday then
    println("It's the weekend!")
```

With the static import approach there's no need for the leading "Day." in the code, and it's easier to read:

```
if date == Saturday || date == Sunday then ...
```

9.6 Using Import Statements Anywhere

Problem

You want to use an `import` statement somewhere other than at the top of a file, generally to limit the scope of the import or to make your code clearer.

Solution

You can place an `import` statement almost anywhere inside a program. In the most basic use, you import members at the top of a class definition—just like with Java and other languages—and then use the imported resources later in your code:

```
package foo

import scala.util.Random

class MyClass:

    def printRandom =
        val r = Random() //use the imported cla
```

For more control, you can import members inside a class:

```
package foo
```

```
class ClassA:  
    import scala.util.Random      //inside ClassA  
    def printRandom =  
        val r = Random()  
  
class ClassB:  
    // the import is not visible here  
    val r = Random()      //error: not found: Random
```

This limits the scope of the import to the code inside `ClassA` that comes after the `import` statement.

You can also use `import` statements inside a method:

```
def getPandoraItem(): Any =  
    import com.alvinalexander.pandorasbox.*  
    val p = Pandora()  
    p.getRandomItem
```

You can even place an `import` statement inside a block, limiting the scope of the import to only the code inside that block that follows the statement. In the following example, the field `r1` is declared correctly because it's within the block and after the `import` statement, but the declaration for field `r2`

won't compile because the `Random` class is not in scope at that point:

```
def printRandom =  
{  
    import scala.util.Random  
    val r1 = Random()    //this works, as expected  
}  
val r2 = Random()          //error: not found: type Random
```

Discussion

Import statements make imported members available after the point at which they are imported, which also limits their scope. The following code won't compile because I attempt to reference the `Random` class before the import statement is declared:

```
// this does not compile  
class ImportTests:  
    def printRandom =  
        val r = Random()    //error: not found: type Random  
  
    import scala.util.Random
```

When you want to include multiple classes and packages in one file, you can combine import statements and the curly brace packaging approach (shown in [Recipe 9.1](#)) to limit the scope of the import statements, as shown in these examples:

```
package orderentry {  
    import foo.*  
    // more code here ...  
}  
  
package customers {  
    import bar.*  
    // more code here ...  
  
    package database {  
        import baz.*  
        // more code here ...  
    }  
}
```

In this example, members can be accessed as follows:

- Code in the `orderentry` package can access members of `foo` but can't access members of `bar` or `baz`.
- Code in `customers` and `customers.database` can't access members of `foo`.

- Code in `customers` can access members of `bar`.
- Code in `customers.database` can access members in `bar` and `baz`.

The same concept applies when defining multiple classes in one file:

```
package foo

// available to all classes defined below
import java.io.File
import java.io.PrintWriter

class Foo:
    // only available inside this class
    import javax.swing.JFrame
    // ...

class Bar:
    // only available inside this class
    import scala.util.Random
    // ...
```

Although placing import statements at the top of a file or just before they're used can be a matter of style, I find this flexibility to be useful when I have multiple classes or packages in one

file. In these situations it's nice to keep the imports in the smallest scope possible to limit namespace conflicts, and to make the code easier to refactor as it grows.

9.7 Importing Givens

Problem

You need to import one or more `given` instances into the current scope, while possibly importing types from that same package at the same time.

Solution

A `given` instance, known more simply as a *given*, will typically be defined in a separate module, and it must be imported into the current scope with a special `import` statement. For example, when you have this `given` code in an object named `Adder`, in a package named `co.kbhr.givens`:

```
package co.kbhr.givens

object Adder:
  trait Adder[T]:
    def add(a: T, b: T): T
```

```
given intAdder: Adder[Int] with
    def add(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b
```

import it into the current scope with these two `import` statements:

```
@main def givenImports =
    import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.*          // imports Adder
    import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.given       // imports genericAdder

    def genericAdder[A](x: A, y: A) (using adder: Adder[A])
        println(genericAdder(1, 1))
```

You can also combine the two `import` statements into one:

```
import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.{given, *}
```

You can import anonymous `given` instances by their type, as shown in the second `import` statement in this example:

```
package co.kbhr.givens

object Adder:
    trait Adder[T]:
```

```
def add(a: T, b: T): T
given Adder[Int] with
  def add(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b
given Adder[String] with
  def add(a: String, b: String): String = a + b

@main def givenImports =
  // when put on separate lines, the order of imports matters
  // the second import statement imports the generic Adder trait
  import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.*
  import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.{given Adder[Int], given Adder[String]}

  def genericAdder[A](x: A, y: A)(using adder: Adder[A]): A =
    adder.add(x, y)
  println(genericAdder(1, 1))           // 2
  println(genericAdder("2", "2"))       // 4
```

In that example, these two lines of code show how the `Adder` trait and the givens are imported:

```
import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.*
import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.{given Adder[Int], given Adder[String]}
```

Depending on your needs, the givens can also be imported by their type, like this:

```
import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.*  
import co.kbhr.givens.Adder.{given Adder[?] }
```

That second line can be read as, “Import an `Adder` given of any type, such as `Adder[Int]` or `Adder[String]`.”

Discussion

Per the Scala 3 [documentation on importing.givens](#), there are two reasons and benefits for this new syntax:

- It makes clearer where givens in scope are coming from.
- It enables importing all givens without importing anything else.

Given instances replace implicits, which were used in Scala 2. As mentioned, a main goal of givens is to be clearer than implicits. One of the motivations for givens, and specifically for `given` import statements, is that in Scala 2 it wasn’t always clear how implicits were coming into the current scope.

In an effort to resolve this situation with givens in Scala 3, this new import given syntax was created. As you can see in these examples, it’s now very easy to look at a list of `import` statements to see where givens are coming from.

See Also

- See [Recipe 23.8, “Using Term Inference with `given` and `using`”](#), for more details on how to use givens.
- See the Scala 3 [documentation on given instances](#) for more details on givens.
- See the Scala 3 [documentation on importing givens](#) for more details on importing givens.
- The Scala 3 [documentation on contextual abstractions](#) details the motivations behind changing from implicits to given instances.

Chapter 10. Functional Programming

Scala supports both object-oriented programming and functional programming styles. Indeed, [as I recorded here on my website](#), at a presentation in 2018, Martin Odersky, the creator of the Scala language, stated that the essence of Scala is a “fusion of functional and object-oriented programming in a typed setting,” with “functions for the logic” and “objects for the modularity.” Many of the recipes in this book demonstrate that fusion, and this chapter focuses solely on functional programming techniques in Scala—what I’ll refer to as *Scala/FP* in this chapter.

FP is a big topic, and I wrote over seven hundred pages about it in my book *Functional Programming, Simplified*. While I can’t cover all of that material in this chapter, I’ll try to cover some of the main concepts. The initial recipes will show how to:

- Write and understand function literals
- Pass function literals (also known as anonymous functions) into methods
- Write methods that accept functions as variables

After that you’ll see some very specific functional programming techniques:

- Partially applied functions
- Writing methods that return functions
- Partial functions

The chapter finishes with two examples that help to demonstrate these techniques.

If you're not familiar with FP, it can be perplexing at first, so it will definitely help to understand its goals and motivations.

Therefore, in the next several pages I'll try to provide the best introduction to functional programming I can offer. *Functional Programming, Simplified* consists of 130 short chapters, and this introduction is an extremely condensed version of the first 21 chapters of that book.

What Is Functional Programming?

Finding a consistent definition of FP is surprisingly hard, but in the process of writing that book I came up with this:

Functional programming is a way of writing software applications using only pure functions and immutable values.

As you'll see in this chapter, pure functions are mathematical functions, just like writing algebraic equations.

Another nice definition comes from Mary Rose Cook, who states:

Functional code is characterised by one thing: the absence of side effects. It (a pure function) doesn't rely on data outside the current function, and it doesn't change data that exists outside the current function. Every other “functional” thing can be derived from this property.

I expand on these definitions in great detail in *Functional Programming, Simplified*, but for our purposes in this chapter, these definitions give us a solid starting point.

Pure Functions

To understand those definitions you also have to understand what a pure function is. In my world, a *pure function* is a function:

- Whose algorithm and output depend *only* on (a) the function's input parameters and (b) calling other pure functions
- That doesn't mutate the parameters it's given
- That doesn't mutate anything anywhere else in the application (i.e., any sort of global state)

- That doesn't interact with the outside world, such as interacting with files, databases, networks, or users

Because of that criteria you can also make these statements about pure functions:

- Their internal algorithm doesn't call other functions whose responses vary over time, such as date, time, and random number (random *anything*) functions.
- When called any number of times with the same input, a pure function always returns the same value.

Math functions are good examples of pure functions, including algorithms like min, max, sum, sin, cosine, tangent, etc. List-related functions like filter, map, and returning a sorted list from an existing list are also good examples. Called any number of times with the same input, they always return the same result.

Conversely, examples of *impure* functions are:

- Any sort of input/output (I/O) function (including input from a user, output to the user, and reading from and writing to files, databases, and networks)
- Functions that return different results at different times (date, time, and random functions)

- A function that modifies mutable state (such as a mutable field in a class) somewhere else in the application
- A function that receives a mutable type like `Array` or `ArrayBuffer`, and modifies its elements

A pure function gives you comfort that when you call it with a given set of inputs, you'll *always* get the exact same answer back, such as:

```
"zeus".length      // will always be `4`  
sum(2,2)          // will always be `4`  
List(4,5,6).max  // will always be `6`
```

Side Effects

It's said that a purely functional program has no side effects. So what is a *side effect*?

A function that has a side effect modifies state, mutates variables, and/or interacts with the outside world. This includes:

- Writing (or reading) data to (from) a file, database, or web service

- Mutating the state of a variable that was given as input, changing data in a data structure, or modifying the value of a mutable field in an object
- Throwing an exception, or stopping the application when an error occurs
- Calling other functions that have side effects

Pure functions are much easier to test. Imagine writing an addition function, such as `+`. Given the two numbers `1` and `2`, the result will always be `3`. A pure function like this is a simple matter of (a) immutable data coming in and (b) a result coming out; nothing else happens. Because a function like this has no side effects and doesn't rely on a mutable state somewhere outside of its scope, it's simple to test.

See [Recipe 24.1, “Writing Pure Functions”](#), for more details on writing pure functions.

Thinking in FP

Writing pure functions is relatively simple, and in fact, they tend to be a joy to write because you don't have to think about the entire state of an application when writing them. All you have to think about is what's coming in, and what's going out.

The more difficult parts of FP have to do with (a) handling I/O and (b) gluing your pure functions together. To succeed in FP, I found that you must have a strong desire to see your code as math. You need to have a burning desire to see each function as an algebraic equation, where data goes in, data comes out, there are no side effects, nothing is mutated, and nothing can go wrong.

What happens is that you write one pure function, then another, then another. When they're done, you create your application by combining your pure functions—algebraic equations—just like you're a mathematician writing a series of equations on a chalkboard. I can't stress the importance of this desire strongly enough. You must want to write code like this—like algebra.

For instance, in mathematics you might have a function like this:

$$f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$$

In Scala, that function is written like this:

```
def f(x: Int): Int = x*x + 2*x + 1
```

Notice a few things about this function:

- The function result depends only on the value of `x` and the function's algorithm.
- The function only relies on the `*` and `+` operators, which can be thought of as calling other pure functions.
- The function doesn't mutate `x`.

Furthermore:

- The function doesn't mutate anything else anywhere in the world:
 - — Its scope only deals with applying an algorithm to the input parameter `x`, and it doesn't mutate any variables outside of that scope.
 - — It doesn't read from or write to anything else in the world: no user input, no files, no database, no network, etc.
- If you call the function an infinite number of times with the same input (such as `2`), it will always return the same value (such as `9`).

The function is a pure function whose output only depends on its input. FP is about writing all of your functions like this, and then combining them together to create a complete application.

Referential Transparency and Substitution

Another important concept in FP is *referential transparency* (RT), which is the property that an expression can be replaced by its resulting value without changing the behavior of the program (and vice versa). Again, you can examine this by using algebra. For instance, if all of these symbols represent immutable values:

```
a = b + c  
d = e + f + b  
x = a + d
```

you can perform *substitution rules* to determine the value of `x`:

```
x = a + d  
x = (b + c) + d           // substitute for 'a'  
x = (b + c) + (e + f + b) // substitute for 'd'  
x = b + c + e + f + b    // remove unneeded parens  
x = 2b + c + e + f      // can't reduce the expression further
```

When functional programmers say that a program “evaluates to a result,” or that you run a program by performing substitution

rules, this is what they mean. Both you and the compiler can perform these substitutions. Conversely, if a value like `b` returns a random value or user input each time it's called, you can't reduce the equations.

While that example uses algebraic symbols, you can do the same thing with Scala code. For instance, in Scala/FP you write code that looks like this:

```
val a = f(x)
val b = g(a)
val c = h(y)
val d = i(b, c)
```

Assuming that `f`, `g`, `h` and `i` are pure functions—and assuming that all the fields are `val` fields—when you write simple expressions like this, both you and the compiler are free to rearrange the code. For instance, the first and third expressions can happen in any order—and can even run in parallel. The only requirement is that the first three expressions are evaluated before `i` is invoked.

Also, because the value `a` will always be *exactly* the same as `f(x)`, `f(x)` can always be replaced by `a`, and vice versa. The same is also true for `b`, `c`, and `d`.

For instance, this equation:

```
val b = g(a)
```

is exactly the same as this equation:

```
val b = g(f(x))
```

Because all the fields are immutable and the functions are pure, both you and the compiler can continue moving equations around and performing substitutions, to the point that all of these expressions are equivalent:

```
val d = i(b, c)
val d = i(g(a), h(y))
val d = i(g(f(x)), h(y))
```

As mentioned, one great benefit of functional programming is that pure functions are easier to test than functions that have side effects, and now you can see a second benefit: with referentially transparent code like this, `g(a)` and `h(y)` can be run on separate threads (or the more random *fibers*) to take advantage of multiple cores. Because all the fields are immutable and the functions are pure, you can safely make

these algebraic substitutions. But if the fields are mutable (`var` fields) and/or the functions are impure, the pieces can't be moved around safely.

Lisp—originally named *LISP*, which stands for LISt Processor—is a programming language that was originally specified in 1958 and pioneered many important concepts in high-level programming languages, included higher-order functions. When you write code in an algebraic/functional style, it naturally leads to a way of thinking that's described in the book *Land of Lisp* by Conrad Barski (No Starch Press):

Some advanced Lispers will cringe when someone says that a function “returns a value.” In the lambda calculus you “run” a program by performing substitution rules on the starting program to determine the result of a function. Hence, the result of a set of functions just sort of magically appears by performing substitutions; never does a function consciously “decide” to return a value. Because of this, Lisp purists prefer to say that a function “evaluates to a result.”

The previous examples demonstrate the meaning of that quote.

FP Is a Superset of Expression-Oriented Programming

For a language to support FP, it must first support *expression-oriented programming*. In EOP, every line of code is an expression, as opposed to a statement. An *expression* is a line of code that returns a result and doesn't have a side effect.

Conversely, *statements* are like calling `println`: they don't return a result and are called only for their side effect. (Technically, statements return a result, but it's a `Unit` result.)

A feature that makes Scala such a great FP language is that all of your code can be written as expressions, including `if` expressions:

```
val a = 1
val b = 2
val max = if a > b then a else b
```

`match` expressions:

```
val evenOrOdd: String = i match
  case 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 => "odd"
  case 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 => "even"
```

`for` expressions:

```
val xs = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
val ys = for
  x <- xs
  if x > 2
yield
  x * 10
```

Even `try/catch` blocks return a value:

```
def makeInt(s: String): Int =
  try
    s.toInt
  catch
    case _ : Throwable => 0
```

My Rules for Functional Programming in Scala

To help adopt the proper FP mindset, I developed these rules for writing Scala/FP code in my book *Functional Programming, Simplified*:

- Never use `null` values. Forget that Scala even has a `null` keyword.
- Write only pure functions.

- Use only immutable values (`val`) for all fields.
- Every line of code must be an algebraic expression.

Whenever you use an `if`, you must always also use an `else`.

- Pure functions should never throw exceptions; instead, they yield values like `Option`, `Try`, and `Either`.
- Don't create OOP "classes" that encapsulate data and behavior. Instead, create immutable data structures using `case` classes, and then write pure functions that operate on those data structures.

If you adopt these simple rules, you'll find that:

- Your brain will quit reaching for shortcuts to fight the system. (Throwing in the occasional `var` field or impure function will only slow down your learning process.)
- Your code will become like algebra.
- Over time you'll come to understand the Scala/FP thought process; you'll discover that one concept logically leads to another.

As an example of that last point, you'll see that using only immutable fields naturally leads to recursive algorithms. Then you'll see that you won't need recursion that often because of

all of the functional methods that are built into the immutable Scala collections classes.

Yes, FP Code Uses I/O

While there are different approaches to handling input/output (I/O), of course FP code uses I/O. This includes handling user I/O, and reading from and writing to files, databases, and across networks. No application would be useful without I/O, so Scala/FP (and all other functional languages) have facilities for working with I/O in a “functional” manner.

For example, Scala code that handles command-line I/O in a functional manner tends to look like this:

```
def mainLoop: IO[Unit] =
  for {
    _   <- putStrLn(prompt)
    cmd <- getLine.map(Command.parse _)
    _   <- if cmd == Quit then
              IO.unit
            else
              processCommand(cmd) >> mainLoop
  } yield
  ()

mainLoop.unsafeRunSync()
```

In that code, `putStr` is a functional replacement for `println`, and `getLine` is a functional method that lets you read user input. Also, notice that `mainLoop` calls itself recursively. This is how you create a loop with immutable variables.

Unfortunately, it takes a while to explain the techniques and philosophy behind these I/O functions—potentially one hundred pages or more, depending on your background—but I explain them in detail in my book *Functional Programming, Simplified*.

THE FUNCTIONAL CAKE AND IMPERATIVE ICING

As I wrote in the first edition of this book, until you use an FP library like [Cats](#), [ZIO](#), or [Monix](#), the best advice I can offer to people new to functional programming is to write the core of your applications using pure functions. This pure functional core can be thought of as the “cake,” and then the I/O functions that interact with the outside world can be thought of as the “icing” around that core. Depending on the application, you may end up with 80% cake (pure functions) and 20% icing (I/O functions), or it may be the opposite of that. Some developers describe this technique as having a “functional core and imperative shell.”

10.1 Using Function Literals (Anonymous Functions)

Problem

You want to use an anonymous function—also known as a *function literal*—so you can pass it into a method that takes a function, or assign it to a variable.

Solution

Given this `List`:

```
scala> val x = List.range(1, 10)
val x: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
```

you can pass an anonymous function to the list's `filter` method to create a new `List` that contains only even numbers:

```
val evens = x.filter((i: Int) => i % 2 == 0)
```

The anonymous function is underlined in that example. The REPL demonstrates that this expression yields a new `List` of even numbers:

```
scala> val evens = x.filter((i: Int) => i % 2 ==
```

```
evens: List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

In this solution, the following code is a function literal, and when it's passed into a method like this it's also known as an *anonymous function*, what some programming languages also refer to as a *lambda*:

```
(i: Int) => i % 2 == 0
```

Although that code works, it shows the most explicit form for defining a function literal. Thanks to several Scala shortcuts, the expression can be simplified to this:

```
val evens = x.filter(_ % 2 == 0)
```

The REPL shows that this returns the same result:

```
scala> val evens = x.filter(_ % 2 == 0)
evens: List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

Discussion

The first example in this recipe uses this function literal:

```
(i: Int) => i % 2 == 0
```

When you look at this code it helps to think of the `=>` symbol as a *transformer*, because the expression transforms the parameter list on the left side of the symbol (an `Int` named `i`) into a new result using the algorithm on the right side of the symbol (in this case, a modulus test that results in a `Boolean`).

As mentioned, this example shows the long form for defining an anonymous function, which can be simplified in several ways. The first example shows the most explicit form:

```
val evens = x.filter((i: Int) => i % 2 == 0)
```

And because Scala can determine from the list that it contains integer values, the type declaration for `i` isn't necessary:

```
val evens = x.filter((i) => i % 2 == 0)
```

When an anonymous function only has one parameter, the parentheses aren't needed:

```
val evens = x.filter(i => i % 2 == 0)
```

Because Scala lets you use the `_` symbol instead of a variable name when the parameter appears only once in your function, this code can be simplified even more:

```
val evens = x.filter(_ % 2 == 0)
```

In other situations you can simplify your anonymous functions further. For instance, beginning with the most explicit form, you can print each element in the list using this anonymous function with the `foreach` method:

```
x.foreach((i: Int) => println(i))
```

As before, the `Int` declaration isn't required:

```
x.foreach((i) => println(i))
```

Because there's only one argument, the parentheses around the `i` input parameter aren't needed:

```
x.foreach(i => println(i))
```

Because `i` is used only once in the function body, the expression can be further simplified with the `_` wildcard:

```
x.foreach(println(_))
```

Finally, if a function literal consists of one statement that takes a single argument, you don't need to explicitly name and specify the argument, so the statement can be reduced to this:

```
x.foreach(println)
```

Anonymous functions that have multiple parameters

A `Map` provides a good example of an anonymous function that takes multiple parameters. For instance, given this `Map`:

```
val map = Map(1 -> 10, 2 -> 20, 3 -> 30)
```

this example shows the syntax for using an anonymous function with the `transform` method on an immutable `Map` instance, where the key and value from each element is passed to the anonymous function:

```
val newMap = map.transform((k,v) => k + v)
```

The REPL shows how this works:

```
scala> val map = Map(1 -> 10, 2 -> 20, 3 -> 30)
val map: Map[Int, Int] = Map(1 -> 10, 2 -> 20, 3 -> 30)

scala> val newMap = map.transform((k,v) => k + v)
val newMap: Map[Int, Int] = Map(1 -> 11, 2 -> 22, 3 -> 31)
```

While that's not a particularly useful algorithm, the important part is that it shows the syntax for working with the key/value pairs your anonymous function receives from every `Map` entry:

```
(k, v) => k + v
```

CAN ALSO TREAT MAP ELEMENTS AS A TUPLE

Depending on the need, another potential approach is to treat each `Map` element as a two-element tuple:

```
scala> map.foreach(x => println(s"${x._1} --> ${x._2}"))
1 --> 10
2 --> 20
3 --> 30
```

See Also

- For much more detail on this topic, see my post [“Explaining Scala’s `val` Function Syntax”](#).

10.2 Passing Functions Around as Variables

Problem

You want to create a function as a variable and pass it around, just like you pass `String`, `Int`, and other variables around in an object-oriented programming language.

Solution

Use the syntax shown in [Recipe 10.1](#) to define a function literal, and then assign that literal to a variable. For instance, the following code defines a function literal that takes an `Int` parameter and returns a value that is twice the amount of the `Int` that's passed in:

```
(i: Int) => i * 2
```

As mentioned in [Recipe 10.1](#), you can think of the `=>` symbol as a *transformer*. In this case, the function transforms the `Int` value `i` into an `Int` value that's twice the value of `i`.

Now you can assign that function literal to a variable:

```
val double = (i: Int) => i * 2
```

When you paste that code into the REPL, you'll see that it recognizes `double` as a function that transforms an `Int` into another `Int`, as shown in this underlined code:

```
scala> val double = (i: Int) => i * 2
val double: Int => Int = Lambda ...
```

At this point the variable `double` is a variable instance, just like an instance of a `String`, `Int`, or other type, but in this case it's an instance of a function, known as a *function value*. You can now invoke `double` just like calling a method:

```
double(2)    // 4
double(3)    // 6
```

Beyond just invoking `double` like this, you can also pass it to any method that takes a function parameter that matches its signature. For instance, the `map` method on a sequence class like `List` takes a function parameter that transforms a type `A` into a type `B`, as shown by its signature:

```
def map[B](f: A => B): List[B]
```

Because of this, when you're working with a `List[Int]`, you can give `map` the `double` function, which transforms an `Int` into an `Int`:

```
scala> val list = List.range(1, 5)
list: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4)

scala> list.map(double)
res0: List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

In this example the generic type `A` is an `Int` and the generic type `B` also happens to be an `Int`, but in more complicated examples they can be other types. For instance, you can create a function that transforms a `String` to an `Int`:

```
val length = (s: String) => s.length
```

Then you can use that `String`-to-`Int` function with the `map` method on a list of strings:

```
scala> val lengths = List("Mercedes", "Hannah", "BMW")
val lengths: List[Int] = List(8, 6, 5)
```

Welcome to the world of functional programming.

FUNCTIONS AND METHODS ARE GENERALLY INTERCHANGEABLE

While the first example shows a `double function` created as a `val` variable, you can also define *methods* using `def` and generally use them the same way. See the Discussion for details.

Discussion

You can declare a function literal in at least two different ways. This modulus function value—which returns `true` if `i` is an even number—infers that the return type of the function literal is `Boolean`:

```
val f = (i: Int) => { i % 2 == 0 } // sometimes  
val f = (i: Int) => i % 2 == 0 // same funct
```

In this case, the Scala compiler is smart enough to look at the body of the function and determine that it returns a `Boolean` value.

However, if you prefer to explicitly declare the return type of a function literal, or want to do so because your function is more complex, the following examples show different forms you can use to explicitly declare that this `isEven` function returns a Boolean :

```
val isEven: (Int) => Boolean = i => { i % 2 == 0
val isEven: Int => Boolean = i => { i % 2 == 0 }
val isEven: Int => Boolean = i => i % 2 == 0
val isEven: Int => Boolean = _ % 2 == 0
```

A second example helps demonstrate the difference of these approaches. These functions all take two `Int` parameters and return a single `Int` value, which is the sum of the two input values:

```
// implicit approach
val add = (x: Int, y: Int) => { x + y }
val add = (x: Int, y: Int) => x + y

// explicit approach
val add: (Int, Int) => Int = (x,y) => { x + y }
val add: (Int, Int) => Int = (x,y) => x + y
```

I show the curly braces around the method body in some of these examples because I find that the code is more readable, especially if this is your first exposure to the function syntax. While I'm in this neighborhood, here's an example of a multiline function, without parentheses:

```
val addThenDouble: (Int, Int) => Int = (x, y) =>
    val a = x + y
    2 * a
```

Using a `def` method like a `val` function

Scala is very flexible, and thanks to a technology known as *Eta Expansion*, just like you can define a function and assign it to a `val`, you can also define a method using `def` and then pass it around as an instance variable. Again using a modulus algorithm, you can define a `def` method in any of these ways:

```
def isEvenMethod(i: Int) = i % 2 == 0
def isEvenMethod(i: Int) = { i % 2 == 0 }
def isEvenMethod(i: Int): Boolean = i % 2 == 0
def isEvenMethod(i: Int): Boolean = { i % 2 == 0 }
```

When a method is passed into another method that expects a function parameter, Eta Expansion transparently transforms that method into a function. Therefore, any of these `isEven` methods can be passed into another method that takes a function parameter that is defined to take an `Int` and return a `Boolean`. For instance, the `filter` method on sequence classes is defined to take a function that transforms a generic type `A` to a `Boolean`:

```
def filter(p: (A) => Boolean): List[A]
```

Because in this next example you have a `List[Int]`, you can pass `filter` the `isEvenMethod`, since it transforms an `Int` to a `Boolean`:

```
val list = List.range(1, 10)
list.filter(isEvenMethod)
```

Here's what that looks like in the REPL:

```
scala> def isEvenMethod(i: Int) = i % 2 == 0
def isEvenMethod(i: Int): Boolean

scala> val list = List.range(1, 10)
```

```
val list: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8)

scala> list.filter(isEvenMethod)
val res0: List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

As noted, this is similar to the process of defining a function literal and assigning it to a variable. For instance, here you can see that `isEvenFunction` works just like `isEvenMethod`:

```
val isEvenFunction = (i: Int) => i % 2 == 0
list.filter(isEvenFunction) // List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

From your programming standpoint, the obvious difference is that `isEvenMethod` is a *method*, whereas `isEvenFunction` is a *function* that's assigned to a variable. But as a programmer, it's great that both approaches work.

Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable

1. Continuing this exploration, you can also assign an existing method or function to a function variable. For instance, you can create a new function named `c` from the `scala.math.cos` method like this:

```
scala> val c = scala.math.cos  
val c: Double => Double = Lambda ...
```

The resulting function value `c` is called a *partially applied function*. It's partially applied because the `cos` method requires one argument, which you haven't yet supplied.

Now that you have `c` as a function value, you can use it just like you would have used `cos`:

```
scala> c(0)  
res0: Double = 1.0
```

IMPROVED ETA EXPANSION IN SCALA 3

In Scala 2 an underscore was required for this example:

```
val c = scala.math.cos _
```

But thanks to the improved Eta Expansion technology in Scala 3, this is no longer required.

This next example shows how to use this technique to create a `square` function from the `pow` method in `scala.math`. Note

that `pow` takes two parameters, where the second parameter is the power that should be applied to the first parameter:

```
scala> val square = scala.math.pow(_, 2)
val square: Double => Double = Lambda ...
```

Again, `square` is a partially applied function. I supply the power parameter, but not the value parameter, so now `square` is waiting to receive one additional parameter, the value to be squared:

```
scala> square(3)
val res0: Double = 9.0

scala> square(4)
val res1: Double = 16.0
```

This example shows a typical way of using this technique: you create a more specific function (`square`) from a more general method (`pow`). See [Recipe 10.5](#) for more information.

READING SQUARE'S REPL OUTPUT

Notice that when you create `square`, you can tell that it still requires a parameter, because the REPL output shows its type signature:

```
val square: Double => Double ...  
-----
```

This means that it's a function that takes a `Double` parameter and returns a `Double` value.

In summary, here are a few notes about function variables:

- Think of the `=>` symbol as a transformer. It transforms the input data on its left side to some new output data, using the algorithm on its right side.
- Use `def` to define a method, `val` to create a function.
- When assigning a function to a variable, a *function literal* is the code on the right side of the expression.

Storing functions in a Map

When I say that functions are variables, I mean that they can be used just like a `String` or `Int` variable in all ways. They can be used as function parameters, as shown in several recipes in this chapter. And as this example shows, you can also store functions (or methods) in a `Map`:

```

def add(i: Int, j: Int) = i + j
def multiply(i: Int, j: Int) = i * j

// store the functions in a Map
val functions = Map(
    "add" -> add,
    "multiply" -> multiply
)

// get a function out of the Map and use it
val f = functions("add")
f(2, 2)    // 4

```

Functions and methods truly are variables, in every sense of the word.

See Also

- For more information on Eta Expansion, see my article [“Using Scala Methods as If They Were Functions \(Eta Expansion\)”](#).
- For *much* more detail on `val` functions and `def` methods, see my blog post [“Scala: The Differences Between val and def When Creating Functions”](#).
- See [Recipe 10.5](#) for more examples and details about partially applied functions.

10.3 Defining a Method That Accepts a Simple Function Parameter

Problem

You want to create a method that takes a simple function as a method parameter.

Solution

This solution follows a three-step process:

1. Define your method, including the signature for the function you want to take as a method parameter.
2. Define one or more functions that match this signature.
3. Sometime later, pass the function(s) as a parameter to your method.

To demonstrate this, define a method named

`executeFunction`, which takes a function as a parameter. The method takes one parameter named `callback`, which is a function. That function must have no input parameters and must return nothing:

```
def executeFunction(callback: () => Unit) =  
  callback()
```

Two notes about this code:

- The `callback: ()` syntax specifies a function that has no input parameters. If the function had parameters, the types would be listed inside the parentheses.
- The `=> Unit` portion of the code indicates that this `callback` function returns nothing.

I'll discuss this syntax shortly.

Next, define a function or method that matches this signature.

For example, both `sayHelloF` and `sayHelloM` take no input parameters and return nothing:

```
val sayHelloF = () => println("Hello")      // fun  
def sayHelloM(): Unit = println("Hello")      // met
```

In the last step of the recipe, because both `sayHelloF` and `sayHelloM` match `callback`'s type signature, they can be passed to the `executeFunction` method:

```
executeFunction(sayHelloF)  
executeFunction(sayHelloM)
```

The REPL demonstrates how this works:

```
scala> val sayHelloF = () => println("Hello")  
val sayHelloF: () => Unit = Lambda ...  
  
scala> def sayHelloM(): Unit = println("Hello")  
def sayHelloM(): Unit  
  
scala> executeFunction(sayHelloF)  
Hello  
  
scala> executeFunction(sayHelloM)  
Hello
```

Discussion

In this recipe I create a method that takes a simple function so you can see how this process works with a function that takes no parameters and returns nothing (`Unit`). In the next recipe you'll see examples of more complicated function signatures.

There isn't anything special about the `callback` name used in this example. When I first learned how to pass functions to methods, I preferred the name `callback` because it made the meaning clear, but it's just the name of a method parameter. These days, just as I name an `Int` parameter `i`, I name a function parameter `f`:

```
def runAFunction(f: () => Unit) = f()
```

The part that is special is that any function you pass into the method must match the function parameter signature you define. In this case, I declare that a function that's passed in must take no arguments and must return nothing:

```
f: () => Unit
```

More generally, the syntax for defining a function as a method parameter is:

```
parameterName: (parameterType(s)) => returnType
```

In the `runAFunction` example, the `parameterName` is `f`, the `parameterType` area is empty because the function doesn't

take any parameters, and the return type is `Unit` because the function doesn't return anything:

```
runAFunction(f: () => Unit)
```

As another example, to define a function parameter that takes a `String` and returns an `Int`, use one of these two signatures:

```
executeFunction(f: String => Int)  
executeFunction(f: (String) => Int)
```

See the next recipe for more complicated function signature examples.

A NOTE ABOUT UNIT

The Scala `Unit` shown in these examples is similar to `Void` in Java and `None` in Python. It's used in situations like this to indicate that a function returns nothing.

See Also

The syntax for function parameters is similar to the syntax for by-name parameters, which are discussed in [“By-name parameters”](#).

10.4 Declaring More Complex Higher-Order Functions

Problem

You want to define a method that takes a function as a parameter, and that function may have one or more input parameters and may return a value other than `Unit`. Your method may also have additional parameters.

Solution

Following the approach described in [Recipe 10.3](#), define a method that takes a function as a parameter. Specify the function signature you expect to receive, and then execute that function inside the body of the method.

The following example defines a method named `exec` that takes a function as an input parameter. That function must take one `Int` as an input parameter and return nothing:

```
def exec(callback: Int => Unit) =  
    // invoke the function we were given, giving  
    callback(1)
```

Next, define a function that matches the expected signature.

Both this function and this method match `callback`'s signature because they take an `Int` argument and return nothing:

```
val plusOne = (i: Int) => println(i+1)  
def plusOne(i: Int) = println(i+1)
```

Now you can pass either version of `plusOne` into the `exec` function:

```
exec(plusOne)
```

Because `plusOne` is called inside the method, this code prints the number `2`.

Any function that matches this signature can be passed into the `exec` method. For instance, define a new function (or method) named `plusTen` that also takes an `Int` and returns nothing:

```
val plusTen = (i: Int) => println(i+10)  
def plusTen(i: Int) = println(i+10)
```

Now you can pass it into your `exec` function, and see that it also works:

```
exec(plusTen)    // prints 11
```

Although these examples are simple, you can see the power of the technique: you can easily swap in interchangeable algorithms. As long as the signature of the function or method that's passed in matches what your method expects, your algorithms can do anything you want. This is comparable to swapping out algorithms in the OOP Strategy design pattern.

Discussion

Not including other features like *givens* (see [Recipe 23.8, “Using Term Inference with given and using”](#)), the general syntax for describing a function as a method parameter is this:

```
parameterName: (parameterType(s)) => returnType
```

Therefore, to define a function that takes a `String` and returns an `Int`, use one of these two signatures:

```
exec(f: (String) => Int)
exec(f: String => Int)
```

The second example works because the parentheses are optional when a function is declared to have only one input parameter. As an example of something more complicated, here's the signature of a function that takes two `Int` values and returns a `Boolean`:

```
exec(f: (Int, Int) => Boolean)
```

Finally, this `exec` method expects a function that takes `String`, `Int`, and `Double` parameters and returns a `Seq[String]`:

```
exec(f: (String, Int, Double) => Seq[String])
```

Passing in a function with other parameters

A function parameter is just like any other method parameter, so a method can accept other parameters in addition to a function, and indeed, this is often the case.

The following code demonstrates this. First, define a method named `executeXTimes` that takes two parameters, a function and an `Int`:

```
def executeXTimes(callback: () => Unit, numTimes:  
    for i <- 1 to numTimes do callback()
```

As its name implies, `executeXTimes` calls the `callback` function `numTimes` times, so if you pass in a `3`, `callback` will be called three times.

Next, define a function or method that matches `callback`'s signature:

```
val sayHello = () => println("Hello")  
def sayHello() = println("Hello")
```

Now pass either version of `sayHello` and an `Int` into `executeXTimes`:

```
scala> executeXTimes(sayHello, 3)  
Hello  
Hello  
Hello
```

This demonstrates that you can use this technique to pass variables into a method, and those variables can then be used by the function inside the method body.

As another example, create this method named

`executeAndPrint` that takes a function and two `Int` parameters:

```
def executeAndPrint(f: (Int, Int) => Int, x: Int,  
                    val result = f(x, y)  
                    println(result)
```

In this case the function `f` takes two `Int` parameters and returns an `Int`. This `executeAndPrint` method is more interesting than the previous example because it takes the two `Int` parameters it's given and passes them to the function parameter it's given in this line of code:

```
val result = f(x, y)
```

To demonstrate this, create two functions that match the signature of the function that `executeAndPrint` expects, a `sum` function and a `multiply` function:

```
val sum = (x: Int, y: Int) => x + y
def sum(x: Int, y: Int) = x + y

val multiply = (x: Int, y: Int) => x * y
def multiply(x: Int, y: Int) = x * y
```

Now you can call `executeAndPrint` as follows, passing in the different functions, along with two `Int` parameters:

```
executeAndPrint(sum, 2, 9)           // prints 11
executeAndPrint(multiply, 3, 9)       // prints 27
```

This is cool because the `executeAndPrint` method doesn't know what algorithm is actually run. All it knows is that it passes the parameters `x` and `y` to the function it's given and then prints the result from that function. This is a little like defining an interface in OOP and then providing concrete implementations of that interface.

Here's one more example of this three-step process:

```
// 1 - define the method
def exec(callback: (Any, Any) => Unit, x: Any, y
        callback(x, y)
```

```
// 2 - define a function to pass in
def printTwoThings(a: Any, b: Any): Unit =
    println(a)
    println(b)

// 3 - pass the function and some parameters to the exec command
case class Person(name: String)
exec(printTwoThings, "Hello", Person("Dave"))
```

The output from that last line of code looks like this in the REPL:

```
scala> exec(printTwoThings, "Hello", Person("Dave"))
Hello
Person(Dave)
```

See Also

The syntax for function parameters is similar to the syntax for by-name parameters, which are discussed in [“By-name parameters”](#).

10.5 Using Partially Applied Functions

Problem

You want to eliminate repetitively passing variables into a function by (a) passing common variables into the function to (b) create a new function that is preloaded with those values, and then (c) use the new function, passing it only the unique variables it needs.

Solution

The classic example of a partially applied function begins with a `sum` function:

```
val sum = (a: Int, b: Int, c: Int) => a + b + c
```

There's nothing special about `sum`, it's just a function that sums three `Int` values. But things get interesting when you supply two of the parameters when calling `sum` but don't provide the third parameter:

```
val addTo3 = sum(1, 2, _)
```

Because you haven't provided a value for the third parameter, the resulting variable `addTo3` is a partially applied function.

You can see this in the REPL. First, paste in the `sum` function:

```
scala> val sum = (a: Int, b: Int, c: Int) => a +  
val sum: (Int, Int, Int) => Int = Lambda ...
```

The REPL result shows this output:

```
val sum: (Int, Int, Int) => Int = Lambda ...  
----- ---
```

This output verifies that `sum` is a function that takes three `Int` input parameters and returns an `Int`. Next, give `sum` only two of the three input parameters it wants, while assigning the result to `addTo3`:

```
scala> val addTo3 = sum(1, 2, _)  
val addTo3: Int => Int = Lambda ...  
-----
```

The underlined portion of the REPL result shows that `addTo3` is a function that transforms a single `Int` input parameter into an output `Int` parameter. `addTo3` is created by giving `sum` the input parameters `1` and `2`, and now `addTo3` is a function that can take one more input parameter. So now when you give

`addTo3` an `Int`, such as the number `10`, you magically get the sum of the three numbers that have been passed into the two functions:

```
scala> addTo3(10)
res0: Int = 13
```

Here's a summary of what just happened:

- The first two numbers (`1` and `2`) were passed into the original `sum` function.
- That process creates the new function named `addTo3`, which is a partially applied function.
- Sometime later in the code, the third number (`10`) is passed into `addTo3`.

Note that in this example I create `sum` as a `val` function, but it can also be defined as a `def` method, and it will work exactly the same:

```
scala> def sum(a: Int, b: Int, c: Int) = a + b +
def sum(a: Int, b: Int, c: Int): Int

scala> val addTo3 = sum(1, 2, _)
val addTo3: Int => Int = Lambda ...
```

```
scala> addTo3(10)
val res0: Int = 13
```

Discussion

In functional programming languages, when you call a function that has parameters, you are said to be *applying the function to the parameters*. When all the parameters are passed to the function—something you always do with languages like Java—you have *fully applied* the function to all the parameters. But when you give only a subset of the parameters to the function, the result of the expression is a partially applied function.

As demonstrated in the example, the resulting partially applied function is a variable that you can pass around. For instance, this code shows how the partially applied function `addTo3` can be passed into a wormhole, through the wormhole, and out the other side before it's executed:

```
def sum(a: Int, b: Int, c: Int) = a + b + c
val addTo3 = sum(1, 2, _)

def intoTheWormhole(f: Int => Int) = throughTheWormhole(f)
def throughTheWormhole(f: Int => Int) = otherSide(f)

// sumNow 10 to whatever function you receive.
```

```
// Supply to the wrapped function you receive.
def otherSideOfWormhole(f: Int => Int) = f(10)

intoTheWormhole(addTo3)    // 13
```

As the comment in the last line shows, the result of calling

`intoTheWormhole` will be `13` when `addTo3` is finally executed by `otherSideOfWormhole`.

Function variables are also called *function values*, and as shown, when you later provide all the parameters needed to *fully apply* the function value, a result is yielded.

Real-world use

One use of this technique is to create a more-specific version of a general function. For instance, when working with HTML, you may have a method that adds a prefix and a suffix to an HTML snippet:

```
def wrap(prefix: String, html: String, suffix: String)
  prefix + html + suffix
```

If at a certain point in your code you know that you always want to add the same prefix and suffix to different HTML

strings, you can apply those two parameters to the method, without applying the `html` parameter:

```
val wrapWithDiv = wrap("<div>", _, "</div>")
```

Now you can call the resulting `wrapWithDiv` function, just passing it the HTML you want to wrap:

```
scala> wrapWithDiv("<p>Hello, world</p>")
res0: String = <div><p>Hello, world</p></div>

scala> wrapWithDiv("""
```

The `wrapWithDiv` function is preloaded with the `<div>` and `</div>` tags you applied, so it can be called with just one argument, the HTML you want to wrap.

As a nice benefit, you can still call the original `wrap` function if you want:

```
wrap("<pre>", "val x = 1", "</pre>")
```

In general, you can use partially applied functions to make programming easier by binding some arguments to an existing method (or function) and leaving the others to be filled in.

IMPROVED TYPE INFERENCE IN SCALA 3

In Scala 2 it was often necessary to specify the type of an omitted parameter, such as specifying the `String` type for the previous example:

```
val wrapWithDiv = wrap("<div>", _: String, "</div>")  
-----
```

But so far with Scala 3 I haven't needed that. I just declare the missing field with the `_` character, as shown in the examples:

```
val wrapWithDiv = wrap("<div>", _, "</div>")
```

10.6 Creating a Method That Returns a Function

Problem

You want to return a function (algorithm) from a function or method.

Solution

Define an anonymous function, and return that from your method. Then assign that to a function variable, and later invoke that function variable as needed.

For example, assuming that a variable named `prefix` exists in the current scope, this code declares an anonymous function that takes a `String` argument named `str` and returns that string with `prefix` prepended to it:

```
(str: String) => s"$prefix $str"
```

Now you can return that anonymous function from the body of another function as follows:

```
// single line syntax
def saySomething(prefix: String) = (str: String)

// multiline syntax, which might be easier to read
def saySomething(prefix: String) = (str: String)
  s"$prefix $str"
```

That example doesn't show `saySomething`'s return type, but you can declare it as `(String => String)` if you prefer:

```
def saySomething(prefix: String): (String => String) =  
  s"$prefix $str"
```

Because `saySomething` returns a function that transforms one `String` to another `String`, you can assign that resulting function to a variable. `saySomething` also takes the `String` parameter named `prefix`, so give it that parameter as you create a new function named `sayHello`:

```
val sayHello = saySomething("Hello")
```

When you paste that code into the REPL, you can see that `sayHello` is a function that transforms a `String` to a `String`:

```
scala> val sayHello = saySomething("Hello")  
val sayHello: String => String = Lambda ...  
-----
```

`sayHello` is essentially the same as `saySomething`, but with `prefix` preloaded to the value `"Hello"`. Looking back at the anonymous function, you see that it takes a `String` parameter `s` and returns a `String`, so you pass it a `String`:

```
sayHello("Al")
```

Here's what these steps look like in the REPL:

```
scala> def saySomething(prefix: String) = (str: String) =>
|   s"$prefix $str"
def saySomething(prefix: String): String => String

// assign "Hello" to prefix
scala> val sayHello = saySomething("Hello")
val sayHello: String => String = Lambda ...

// assign "Al" to str
scala> sayHello("Al")
res0: String = Hello Al
```

Discussion

You can use this approach any time you want to encapsulate an algorithm inside a method. A bit like the object-oriented Factory or Strategy patterns, the function your method returns can be based on the input parameter it receives. For example, create a `greeting` method that returns an appropriate greeting based on the language specified:

```
def greeting(language: String) = (name: String) =  
  language match  
    case "english" => s"Hello, $name"  
    case "spanish" => s"Buenos dias, $name"
```

If it doesn't seem clear that `greeting` is returning a `String => String` function, you can make the code more explicit by (a) specifying the method return type and (b) creating function values inside the method:

```
// [a] declare the 'String => String' return type  
def greeting(language: String): (String => String)  
  // [b] create the function values here, then  
  // match expression  
  val englishFunc = () => s"Hello, $name"  
  val spanishFunc = () => s"Buenos dias, $name"  
  language match  
    case "english" => println("returning the  
                                englishFunc())  
    case "spanish" => println("returning the  
                                spanishFunc())
```

Here's what this second method looks like when it's invoked in the REPL:

```
scala> val hello = greeting("english")
val hello: String => String = Lambda ...
 
scala> val buenosDias = greeting("spanish")
val buenosDias: String => String = Lambda ...
 
scala> hello("Al")
returning english function
val res0: String = Hello, Al

scala> buenosDias("Lorenzo")
returning spanish function
val res1: String = Buenos dias, Lorenzo
```

You can use this recipe any time you want to encapsulate one or more functions behind a method.

Returning methods from a method

Also, if you prefer, thanks to Scala's Eta Expansion technology, you can also declare and return *methods* from inside a method:

```
def greeting(language: String): (String => String) = {
    def englishMethod = s"Hello, $name"
    def spanishMethod = s"Buenos dias, $name"
    language match
```

```
case "english" => println("returning the  
                           englishMethod  
case "spanish" => println("returning the  
                           spanishMethod
```

The only change to `greeting` is that this version declares and returns `englishMethod` and `spanishMethod`. I find that the method syntax is easier to read, so I prefer this approach, and to callers of `greeting`, everything else looks exactly the same.

SAME TECHNIQUE, DIFFERENT USES

In the first example, `prefix` was used to preload a value in the resulting function. In the second example, the `language` parameter was used to select which algorithm to return, something like the object-oriented programming Strategy or Template patterns.

10.7 Creating Partial Functions

Problem

You want to define a function that only works for a subset of possible input values, or you want to define a series of functions that only work for a subset of input values and then combine those functions to completely solve a problem.

Solution

A *partial function* is a function that does not provide an answer for every possible input value it can be given. It provides an answer only for a subset of possible data and defines the data it can handle. In Scala, a partial function can also be queried to determine if it can handle a particular value.

For example, imagine a normal function that divides one number by another:

```
val divide = (x: Int) => 42 / x
```

As defined, this function blows up when the input parameter is zero:

```
scala> divide(0)
java.lang.ArithmetricException: / by zero
```

Although you could handle this particular situation by catching and throwing an exception, Scala lets you define the `divide` function as a `PartialFunction`. When doing so, you also explicitly state that the function is defined when the input parameter is not zero:

```
val divide = new PartialFunction[Int, Int] {  
    def apply(x: Int) = 42 / x  
    def isDefinedAt(x: Int) = x != 0  
}
```

In this approach, the `apply` method defines the function signature and body. Now you can do several nice things. One thing is to test the function before you attempt to use it:

```
scala> divide.isDefinedAt(0)  
res0: Boolean = false  
  
scala> divide.isDefinedAt(1)  
res1: Boolean = true  
  
scala> val x = if divide.isDefinedAt(1) then Some(42)  
val x: Option[Int] = Some(42)
```

In addition to this, you'll see shortly that other code can take advantage of partial functions to provide elegant and concise solutions.

Whereas that `divide` function is explicit about what data it handles, partial functions can also be written using `case` statements:

```
val divide2: PartialFunction[Int, Int] =  
  case d if d != 0 => 42 / d
```

With this approach, Scala can infer that `divide2` takes an `Int` input parameter based on this part of the code:

```
PartialFunction[Int, Int]  
---
```

Although this code doesn't explicitly implement the `isDefinedAt` method, it works the same as the previous `divide` function definition:

```
scala> divide2.isDefinedAt(0)  
res0: Boolean = false  
  
scala> divide2.isDefinedAt(1)  
res1: Boolean = true
```

Discussion

The [PartialFunction Scaladoc](#) describes partial functions like this:

A partial function of type `PartialFunction[A, B]` is a unary function where the domain does not necessarily include all values of type `A`. The function `isDefinedAt` allows [you] to test dynamically if a value is in the domain of the function.

This helps to explain why the last example with the `case` statement works: the `isDefinedAt` method dynamically tests to see if the given value is in the domain of the function, i.e., whether it is handled or accounted for. The signature of the `PartialFunction` trait looks like this:

```
trait PartialFunction[-A, +B] extends (A) => B
```

As discussed in other recipes, the `=>` symbol can be thought of as a transformer, and in this case, the `(A) => B` can be interpreted as a function that transforms a type `A` into a resulting type `B`.

The `divide2` method transforms an input `Int` into an output `Int`, so its signature looks like this:

```
val divide2: PartialFunction[Int, Int] = ...
```

But if it returned a `String` instead, it would be declared like this:

```
val divide2: PartialFunction[Int, String] = ...  
-----
```

As an example, the following method uses this signature:

```
// converts 1 to "one", etc., up to 5  
val convertLowNumToString = new PartialFunction[  
  
    val nums = Array("one", "two", "three", "four", "five", "six")  
    def apply(i: Int) = nums(i-1)  
    def isDefinedAt(i: Int) = i > 0 && i < 6  
}
```

Chaining partial functions with `orElse` and `andThen`

A terrific feature of partial functions is that you can chain them together. For instance, one method may only work with even numbers, and another method may only work with odd numbers, and together they can solve all integer problems.

To demonstrate this approach, the following example shows two functions that can each handle a small number of `Int`

inputs and convert them to `String` results:

```
// converts 1 to "one", etc., up to 5
val convert1to5 = new PartialFunction[Int, String] {
    val nums = Array("one", "two", "three", "four", "five")
    def apply(i: Int) = nums(i-1)
    def isDefinedAt(i: Int) = i > 0 && i < 6
}

// converts 6 to "six", etc., up to 10
val convert6to10 = new PartialFunction[Int, String] {
    val nums = Array("six", "seven", "eight", "nine", "ten")
    def apply(i: Int) = nums(i-6)
    def isDefinedAt(i: Int) = i > 5 && i < 11
}
```

Taken separately, they can each handle only five numbers. But combined with `orElse`, the resulting function can handle 10:

```
scala> val handle1to10 = convert1to5 orElse convert6to10
handle1to10: PartialFunction[Int,String] = <function>

scala> handle1to10(3)
res0: String = three

scala> handle1to10(8)
res1: String = eight
```

The `orElse` method comes from the `PartialFunction` trait, which also includes the `andThen` method to further help chain partial functions together.

Partial functions in the collections classes

It's important to know about partial functions, not just to have another tool in your toolbox but also because they are used in the APIs of some libraries, including the Scala collections library.

One example of where you'll run into partial functions is with the `collect` method on collections classes. The `collect` method takes a partial function as input, and as its Scaladoc describes, `collect` "builds a new collection by applying a partial function to all elements of this list on which the function is defined."

For instance, the `divide` function shown earlier is a partial function that is not defined at the `Int` value zero. Here's that function again:

```
val divide: PartialFunction[Int, Int] =
  case d: Int if d != 0 => 42 / d
```

If you attempt to use this partial function with the `map` method and a list that contains `0`, it will explode with a `MatchError`:

```
scala> List(0,1,2).map(divide)
scala.MatchError: 0 (of class java.lang.Integer)
stack trace continues ...
```

However, if you use the same function with the `collect` method, it won't throw an exception:

```
scala> List(0,1,2).collect(divide)
res0: List[Int] = List(42, 21)
```

This is because the `collect` method is written to test the `isDefinedAt` method for each element it's given. Conceptually, it's similar to this:

```
List(0,1,2).filter(divide.isDefinedAt(_))
    .map(divide)
```

As a result, `collect` doesn't run the `divide` algorithm when the input value is `0` but does run it for every other element.

You can see the `collect` method work in other situations, such as passing it a `List` that contains a mix of data types, with a function that works only with `Int` values:

```
scala> List(42, "cat").collect { case i: Int => i }
res0: List[Int] = List(42)
```

Because it checks the `isDefinedAt` method under the covers, `collect` can handle the fact that your anonymous function can't work with a `String` as input.

Another use of `collect` is when a list contains a series of `Some` and `None` values and you want to extract all the `Some` values:

```
scala> val possibleNums = List(Some(1), None, Some(3))
val possibleNums: List[Option[Int]] = List(Some(1), None, Some(3))

scala> possibleNums.collect{case Some(i) => i}
val res1: List[Int] = List(1, 3)
```

OR USE FLATTEN

Another approach to reducing a `Seq[Option]` to only the values inside its `Some` elements is to call `flatten` on the list:

```
scala> possibleNums.flatten  
val res0: List[Int] = List(1, 3)
```

This works because `Option` is like a list that contains zero or one value, and `flatten`'s purpose in life is to convert a “list of lists” down to a single list. See [Recipe 13.6, “Flattening a List of Lists with flatten”](#), for more details.

See Also

- Portions of this recipe were inspired by Erik Bruchez's blog post [“Scala Partial Functions \(Without a PhD\)”](#).
- See the [PartialFunction Scaladoc](#) for more details.

10.8 Implementing Functional Error Handling

Problem

You've started to write code in a functional programming style, but you're not sure how to handle exceptions and other errors when writing pure functions.

Solution

Because writing functional code is like writing algebraic equations—and because algebraic equations always return a value and never throw an exception—your pure functions don’t throw exceptions. Instead, you handle errors with Scala’s *error handling types*:

- Option / Some / None
- Try / Success / Failure
- Either / Left / Right

My canonical example for this is writing a `makeInt` method. Imagine for a moment that Scala doesn’t include a `makeInt` method on a `String`, so you want to write your own method. A correct solution looks like this:

```
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] =  
  try  
    Some(Integer.parseInt(s))  
  catch  
    case e: NumberFormatException => None
```

This code returns a `Some[Int]` if `makeInt` can convert the `String` to an `Int`, otherwise it returns a `None`. Callers of this

method use it like this:

```
makeInt("1")    // Option[Int] = Some(1)
makeInt("a")     // Option[Int] = None

makeInt(aString) match
  case Some(i) => println(s"i = $i")
  case None => println("Could not create an Int")
```

Given a list of strings `listOfStrings` that may or may not convert to integers, you can also use `makeInt` like this:

```
val optionalListOfInts: Seq[Option[Int]] =
  for s <- listOfStrings yield makeInt(s)
```

This is great because `makeInt` doesn't throw an exception and blow up that `for` expression. Instead, the `for` expression returns a `Seq` that contains `Option[Int]` values. For instance, if `listOfStrings` contains these values:

```
val listOfStrings = List("a", "1", "b", "2")
```

then `optionalListOfInts` will contain these values:

```
List(None, Some(1), None, Some(2))
```

To create a list that contains only the values that were successfully converted to integers, just flatten that list like this:

```
val ints = optionalListOfInts.flatten // List()
```

In addition to using the `Option` types for this solution, you can also use the `Try` and `Either` types. Much shorter versions of the `makeInt` method that use these three error-handling types look like this:

```
import scala.util.control.Exception.*  
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}  
  
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = allCatch.opt[Int](s)  
def makeInt(s: String): Try[Int] = Try(Integer.parseInt(s))  
def makeInt(s: String): Either[Throwable, Int] =  
  allCatch.either(Integer.parseInt(s))
```

These examples show the success and error cases for those three approaches:

```
// Option
```

```

makeInt("1")      // Some(1)

makeInt("a")      // None

// Try
makeInt("1")      // util.Try[Int] = Success(1)
makeInt("a")      // util.Try[Int] = Failure(java.lang
                           //                                         For input strin

// Either
makeInt("1")      // Either[Throwable, Int] = Right
makeInt("a")      // Either[Throwable, Int] = Left(:)
                           //                                         For in

```

The key to all of these approaches is that you don't throw exceptions; instead, you return these error-handling types.

USING EITHER GETS YOU READY FOR FP LIBRARIES LIKE ZIO

Hermann Hueck, one of the reviewers of this book, made the point that two benefits of using `Either` are that (a) it's more flexible than `Try`, because you can control the error type, and (b) it gets you ready to use FP libraries like [ZIO](#), which use `Either` and similar approaches extensively.

Discussion

A bad (non-FP) approach to this problem is to write the method like this to throw an exception:

```
// don't write code like this!
@throws(classOf[NumberFormatException])
def makeInt(s: String): Int =
  try
    Integer.parseInt(s)
  catch
    case e: NumberFormatException => throw e
```

You don't write code like this in FP because when other people use your method, it will blow up their equations when an exception occurs. For instance, imagine that someone writes this `for` expression that uses this version of `makeInt`:

```
val possibleListOfInts: Seq[Int] =
  for s <- listOfStrings yield makeInt(s)
```

If `listOfStrings` contains the same values that were shown in the Solution:

```
val listOfStrings = List("a", "1", "b", "2")
```

their `for` expression—which they want to be an algebraic equation—will blow up on the first element, the “`a`” in the list.

Again, because algebraic equations don’t throw exceptions, pure functions don’t throw them either.

See Also

- See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(`Option`, `Try`, and `Either`\)”](#), for more details on using the `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` error-handling types.

10.9 Real-World Example: Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm

As a bit of a real-world example, in this lesson I’ll show how to pass methods and functions around as part of an algorithm that I used back in my aerospace engineering days.

[Newton’s Method](#) is a mathematical method that can be used to solve the roots of equations. For instance, this example will find a possible value of `x` for this equation:

$$3x + \sin(x) - e^x = 0$$

As you can see in the following code, the method named newtonsMethod takes functions as its first two parameters. It also takes two other Double parameters and returns a Double:

```
/**  
 * Newton's Method for solving equations.  
 * @param fx The equation to solve.  
 * @param fxPrime The derivative of `fx`.  
 * @param x An initial "guess" for the value of  
 * @param tolerance Stop iterating when the iteration  
 *                 is within this tolerance.  
 * @todo Check that `f(xNext)` is greater than a  
 * @todo Check that `f'(x) != 0`  
 */  
  
def newtonsMethod(  
    fx: Double => Double,  
    fxPrime: Double => Double,  
    x: Double,  
    tolerance: Double  
): Double =  
    /**  
     * most FP approaches don't use a `var` field  
     * but some people believe that `var` fields  
     * when they are contained within the scope of  
     * a function are safe to use.  
     */  
    var xNext = x  
    while (Math.abs(fx(xNext)) > tolerance) {  
        xNext = x - fx(x) / fxPrime(x)  
    }  
    xNext
```

```

        */

    var x1 = x
    var xNext = newtonsMethodHelper(fx, fxPrime,
        while math.abs(xNext - x1) > tolerance do
            x1 = xNext
            println(xNext) // debugging (intermediate)
            xNext = newtonsMethodHelper(fx, fxPrime,
        end while

        // return xNext:
        xNext

    end newtonsMethod

/**
 * This is the `x2 = x1 - f(x1)/f'(x1)` calculation
 */
def newtonsMethodHelper(
    fx: Double => Double,
    fxPrime: Double => Double,
    x: Double
): Double =
    x - fx(x) / fxPrime(x)

```

The two functions that are passed into `newtonsMethod` should be the original equation (`fx`) and the derivative of that equation (`fxPrime`). Don't worry too much about the details

inside the two methods: I'm only interested in focusing on how functions are passed around in a real-world algorithm like this.

The method `newtonsMethodHelper` also takes two functions as parameters, so you can see how the functions are passed from `newtonsMethod` to `newtonsMethodHelper`.

Here's an `@main` driver method that shows how to use Newton's Method to find the roots of the `fx` equation:

```
/**  
 * A "driver" function to test Newton's method.  
 * - the desired `f(x)` and `f'(x)` equations  
 * - an initial guess, and  
 * - a tolerance value  
 */  
  
@main def driver =  
    // The `f(x)` and `f'(x)` functions. Both fun  
    // parameter named `x` and return a `Double`  
    def fx(x: Double): Double = 3*x + math.sin(x)  
    def fxPrime(x: Double): Double = 3 + math.cos(x)  
  
    val initialGuess = 0.0  
    val tolerance = 0.00005  
  
    // pass `f(x)` and `f'(x)` to the Newton's Me  
    // the initial guess and tolerance.  
    val answer = newtonsMethod(fx, fxPrime, initia
```

```
// note: this is not an FP approach to print:  
println(answer)
```

The output from this example is:

```
0.3333333333333333  
0.3601707135776337  
0.36042168047601975  
0.3604217029603242
```

As you can see, the majority of this code involves defining methods and functions, passing functions into methods, and then invoking the functions from within the methods. This gives you an idea of how FP works, especially when writing code for an algorithm like this.

The method named `newtonsMethod` works for any two functions `fx` and `fxPrime`, where `fxPrime` is the derivative of `fx`, within the limits of the `@todo` items that are not implemented. To experiment with this example, try changing the functions `fx` and `fxPrime`, or implement the `@todo` items.

SOURCE OF THE ALGORITHM

The algorithm shown comes from a 1980s version of the college textbook *Applied Numerical Analysis* by Curtis Gerald and Patrick Wheatley (Pearson), where the approach was demonstrated in pseudocode.

10.10 Real-World Example: Functional Domain Modeling

As something of a real-world example, let's look at how to organize an FP-style order-entry application for a pizza store. The code in this example will only focus on pizzas—no breadsticks, cheesesticks, soft drinks, or salads—but it will model customers, addresses, and orders, and the operations (pure functions) on those data types.

The Data Model

To get started, here are some enums a pizza class will need. To be clear about what we're doing, place this code in a file named *Nouns.scala*:

```
enum Topping:
    case Cheese, Pepperoni, Sausage, Mushrooms, (
```

```
enum CrustSize:  
    case Small, Medium, Large  
  
enum CrustType:  
    case Regular, Thin, Thick
```

Next, those enums are used to define a `Pizza` class. Add this case class to *Nouns.scala*:

```
case class Pizza(  
    crustSize: CrustSize,  
    crustType: CrustType,  
    toppings: Seq[Topping]  
)
```

Finally, these classes are used to model the concepts of customers and orders:

```
case class Customer(  
    name: String,  
    phone: String,  
    address: Address  
)  
  
case class Address(  
    street1: String,
```

```
    street2: Option[String],  
    city: String,  
    state: String,  
    postalCode: String  
)  
  
case class Order(  
  pizzas: Seq[Pizza],  
  customer: Customer  
)
```

Add that code to *Nouns.scala* as well.

That's all there is to the data model. Notice that the classes are simple, immutable data structures, defined with enums and case classes. Unlike OOP classes, you don't encapsulate the behaviors (methods) inside the classes. As a result, this approach feels a lot like defining a database schema.

SKINNY DOMAIN OBJECTS

In his book, *Functional and Reactive Domain Modeling* (Manning), Debasish Ghosh states that where OOP practitioners describe their classes as “rich domain models” that encapsulate data and behaviors, FP data models can be thought of as “skinny domain objects.” That’s because, as this lesson shows, the data models are defined using enums and `case` classes with attributes, but no behaviors.

Functions That Operate on That Model

Now all you have to do is create a series of pure functions to operate on those immutable data structures. A good way to do this is to first sketch out the desired interface using one or more traits. For the functions that operate on a `Pizza` I'll define one trait. Place this code in a file named `Verbs.scala`:

```
trait PizzaServiceInterface:
    def addTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza
    def removeTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza
    def removeAllToppings(p: Pizza): Pizza

    def updateCrustSize(p: Pizza, cs: CrustSize)
    def updateCrustType(p: Pizza, ct: CrustType)
```

Once you create a concrete implementation of that trait—which you'll do in a few moments—you can write code like this:

```
import Topping.* , CrustSize.* , CrustType.*

@main def pizzaServiceMain =
    // PizzaService is a trait that extend Pizza
    import PizzaService.*
    object PizzaService extends PizzaService
```

```
// an initial pizza
val p = Pizza(Medium, Regular, Seq(Cheese))

// demonstrating the PizzaService functions
val p1 = addTopping(p, Pepperoni)
val p2 = addTopping(p1, Mushrooms)
val p3 = updateCrustType(p2, Thick)
val p4 = updateCrustSize(p3, Large)

// this is *not* a functional approach to pr:
// result:
// Pizza(LargeCrustSize, ThickCrustType, List(
println(p4)
```

Place that code in a file named *Driver.scala*.

Because I'm satisfied with how that API looks, I then create a concrete implementation of the `PizzaServiceInterface` trait. To do so, add this code to the *Verbs.scala* file:

```
import ListUtils.dropFirstMatch

trait PizzaService extends PizzaServiceInterface {
  def addTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza =
    val newToppings = p.toppings :+ t
    p.copy(toppings = newToppings)
```

```

def removeTopping(p: Pizza, t: Topping): Pizza =
  val newToppings = dropFirstMatch(p.toppings, t)
  p.copy(toppings = newToppings)

def removeAllToppings(p: Pizza): Pizza =
  val newToppings = Seq[Topping]()
  p.copy(toppings = newToppings)

def updateCrustSize(p: Pizza, cs: CrustSize): Pizza =
  p.copy(crustSize = cs)

def updateCrustType(p: Pizza, ct: CrustType): Pizza =
  p.copy(crustType = ct)

end PizzaService

```

That code requires a method named `dropFirstMatch` that drops the first matching element in a list, which I put in a `ListUtils` object:

```

object ListUtils:

  /**
   * Drops the first matching element in a list
   */
  def dropFirstMatch(xs: List[Int], target: Int): List[Int] = {
    xs match {
      case x :: xs if x == target => xs
      case _ :: xs => xs
    }
  }

```

```
* } } }

*/
def dropFirstMatch[A] (xs: Seq[A], value: A):
    val idx = xs.indexOf(value)
    for
        (x, i) <- xs.zipWithIndex
        if i != idx
    yield
        x
```

For our purposes, this method works to drop the first occurrence of a `Topping` that's found in a list of toppings:

```
val a = List(Pepperoni, Mushrooms, Pepperoni)
val b = dropFirstMatch(a, Pepperoni)
// result: b == List(Mushrooms, Pepperoni)    // :)
```

As shown with `PizzaServiceInterface` and `PizzaService`, the implementation of the functions (the verbs) is often a two-step process. In the first step, you sketch the contract of your API as an *interface*. In the second step you create a concrete *implementation* of that interface. This gives you the flexibility of being able to create multiple concrete implementations of the base interface.

At this point you have a complete, working small application. Experiment with the application to see if you like the API as it is, or if you want to modify it.

NOUNS AND VERBS

I specifically use the filenames *Nouns.scala* and *Verbs.scala* to emphasize this FP approach to writing code. As shown, your data model just consists of the nouns in your application, and the functions are where the action is, i.e., the verbs.

Use Traits To Create a Dependency Injection Framework

One benefit of using a trait as an interface and then implementing it in another trait (or object) is that you can use the design to create a *dependency injection framework*. For example, imagine that you want to write some code to calculate the price of a pizza, and that code requires access to a database. One approach to the problem is:

1. Create a data access object (DAO) interface named
`PizzaDaoInterface`.
2. Create different implementations of that DAO interface for your Development, Test, and Production environments.

3. Create a “pizza pricer” trait that references `PizzaDaoInterface`.
4. Create specific pizza pricer implementations for the Development, Test, and Production environments.
5. Create unit tests to test your code (or in our case, an `@main` driver application to demonstrate the solution).

These steps are shown in the following example.

1. Create a DAO interface

First, create a file named `Dao.scala`, and then place this interface in that file to declare what you want your DAO to look like:

```
trait PizzaDaoInterface:  
    def getToppingPrices(): Map[Topping, BigDecimal]  
    def getCrustSizePrices(): Map[CrustSize, BigDecimal]  
    def getCrustTypePrices(): Map[CrustType, BigDecimal]
```

In the real world, because accessing a database can fail, these methods will return a type like `Option`, `Try`, or `Either` wrapped around each `Map`, but I omit those to make the code a little simpler.

2. Create multiple implementations of that DAO

Next, create concrete implementations of that DAO interface for your Development, Test, and Production environments.

Normally you'll create one concrete implementation for each environment, but for our purposes I'll just create one "mock" DAO for the Development environment named `DevPizzaDao`. The purpose of this is to have a fast, simulated database during your local development (and testing) process. To do this, place this code in `Dao.scala` as well:

```
object DevPizzaDao extends PizzaDaoInterface {

    def getToppingPrices(): Map[Topping, BigDecimal] = {
        Map(
            Cheese      -> BigDecimal(1),    // simulate
            Pepperoni   -> BigDecimal(1),
            Sausage     -> BigDecimal(1),
            Mushrooms   -> BigDecimal(1)
        )
    }

    def getCrustSizePrices(): Map[CrustSize, BigDecimal] = {
        Map(
            Small      -> BigDecimal(0),
            Medium    -> BigDecimal(1),
            Large     -> BigDecimal(2)
        )
    }
}
```

```
def getCrustTypePrices(): Map[CrustType, BigDecimal] =  
  Map(  
    Regular -> BigDecimal(0),  
    Thick -> BigDecimal(1),  
    Thin -> BigDecimal(1)  
)  
  
end DevPizzaDao
```

In the real world you might use this DAO for development and testing, and use a `ProductionPizzaDao` for your Production environment. Or you might use a separate DAO for your Test environment, or wherever you test your code against a Test database.

3. Create a “pizza pricer” trait

Next, go back to the `Verbs.scala` file, and create a “pizza pricer” trait that references `PizzaDaoInterface`:

```
trait PizzaPricerTrait:  
  
  // this base trait references the DAO interface  
  def pizzaDao: PizzaDaoInterface
```

```

def calculatePizzaPrice(p: Pizza): BigDecimal
    // the key thing here is the use of `pizzaDao` as a parameter
    // rather than a local variable
    val crustSizePrice: BigDecimal =
        pizzaDao.getCrustSizePrices()(p.crustSize)
    val crustTypePrice: BigDecimal =
        pizzaDao.getCrustTypePrices()(p.crustType)
    val toppingPrices: Seq[BigDecimal] =
        for
            topping <- p.toppings
            toppingPrice = pizzaDao.getToppingPrice(topping)
        yield
            toppingPrice
    val totalToppingPrice: BigDecimal = toppingPrices.sum
    val totalPrice: BigDecimal =
        crustSizePrice + crustTypePrice + totalToppingPrice
    totalPrice

    // other price-related functions ...

end PizzaPricerTrait

```

Two keys of this part of the solution are:

- Declare the `pizzaDao` reference as a `def` of type `PizzaDaoInterface`. It will be replaced by `val` fields in the concrete objects that you'll develop next.

- As shown, `calculatePizzaPrice` can be implemented in this base trait. This way you only need to implement it in one place, and it will be available in the concrete objects that extend `PizzaPricerTrait`.

4. Create specific pricers for your environments

Next, in the final step of the recipe, create concrete pizza pricer objects for your Development, Test, and Production environments:

```
object DevPizzaPricerService extends PizzaPricer{
    val pizzaDao = DevPizzaDao          // dev env
}

object TestPizzaPricerService extends PizzaPricer{
    val pizzaDao = TestPizzaDao        // test env
}

object ProductionPizzaPricerService extends PizzaPricer{
    val pizzaDao = ProductionPizzaDao // production env
}
```

Because `PizzaPricerTrait` completely implements its `calculatePizzaPrice` method, all these objects need to do is connect to their respective data access objects, as shown.

In the source code for this project, you'll see that I created a `DevPizzaPricer` in the `Verbs.scala` file. (Note that in this example, `DevPizzaPricerService` compiles and runs because I implemented `DevPizzaDao`, but `TestPizzaPricerService` and `ProductionPizzaPricerService` will not compile because I haven't implemented `TestPizzaDao` and `ProductionPizzaDao`.)

THE UNIFORM ACCESS PRINCIPLE

In `PizzaPricerTrait`, `pizzaDao` is defined as a `def`:

```
def pizzaDao: PizzaDaoInterface
```

but in the concrete `DevPizzaPricerService` object I define that field as a `val`:

```
val pizzaDao = DevPizzaDao
```

This works because of the [Uniform Access Principle \(UAP\)](#) implementation in Scala. That link is from the Scala Glossary, which says “The uniform access principle states that variables and parameterless functions should be accessed using the same syntax. Scala supports this principle by not allowing parentheses to be placed at call sites of parameterless functions. As a result, a parameterless function definition can be changed to a `val`, or vice versa, without affecting client code.”

5. Create unit tests or a driver app

In the real world you'll create unit tests to test your code, but for our purposes here I'll create an `@main` application to demonstrate the solution. This `pizzaPricingMain` application shows how to access and use the pizza pricer algorithm in the Development environment by using the `DevPizzaPricerService` (which in turn uses the `DevPizzaDao`):

```
@main def pizzaPricingMain =  
  
    object PizzaService extends PizzaService  
        import PizzaService.*  
        import DevPizzaPricerService.*  
  
        // create a pizza  
        val p = Pizza(  
  
            Medium,  
            Regular,  
            Seq(Cheese, Pepperoni, Mushrooms)  
        )  
  
        // determine the pizza price  
        val pizzaPrice = calculatePizzaPrice(p)  
  
        // print the pizza and its price (in a nonfur  
        println(s"Pizza: $p")  
        println(s"Price: $pizzaPrice")
```

When you run that code you'll see this output:

```
Pizza: Pizza(Medium,Regular,List(Cheese, Pepperoni)
Price: 11.0
```

This “wiring” technique uses the concepts of *modules* in Scala, as described in [Recipe 6.11, “Using Traits to Create Modules”](#). A significant benefit of this approach is that you can use the `DevPizzaPricerService` in your Development environment, `TestPizzaPricerService` in Test, and `ProductionPizzaPricerService` in Production. This technique uses the features of the Scala language to create your own dependency-injection framework.

IMPROVE THIS CODE WITH OPAQUE TYPES

This code can be improved by using *opaque types* in at least two places:

- Where I use a `String` for a `postalCode` field
- Where I use `BigDecimal` for a field to represent currency

If you use opaque types, you can refer to those fields like this instead:

```
case class Address(  
    street1: String,  
    street2: Option[String],  
    city: String,  
    state: String,  
    postalCode: PostalCode    // use PostalCode  
                            // instead of String  
)  
  
// in the PizzaDaoInterface:  
def getToppingPrices(): Map[Topping, Money]
```

The advantages of creating custom types like this are that (a) everyone can more easily see what those fields are, and (b) you can add custom methods and extension methods to work with those types, such as validating postal code fields.

To keep this recipe relatively simple I didn't make these changes, but if you're interested in using this technique to create more meaningful types, see [Recipe 23.7, “Creating Meaningful Type Names with Opaque Types”](#).

See Also

- For more examples of the module technique shown in this recipe, see [Recipe 6.11, “Using Traits to Create Modules”](#), and [Recipe 7.7, “Reifying Traits as Objects”](#).
- The source code for this example is in the source code repository for this book, at github.com/alvinj/ScalaCookbook2Examples.

Chapter 11. Collections: Introduction

This is the first of five chapters that cover the Scala collections classes. Because collections are so important to any programming language, these chapters provide in-depth coverage of Scala's collections classes and methods.

Furthermore, these chapters have been completely reorganized in this second edition of the *Scala Cookbook* to make the recipes easier for you to find.

This first collections chapter provides an introduction to the collections *classes*. The intent of this chapter is to demonstrate how the classes are organized, and to help you choose a collections class for your needs. For example, if you want an indexed, immutable sequence, `Vector` is recommended as the go-to sequence, but if you want an indexed, mutable sequence, `ArrayBuffer` is recommended instead.

After this chapter, [Chapter 12](#) covers the most commonly used Scala sequence classes, including `Vector`, `ArrayBuffer`, `List`, and `Array`. Additional recipes cover `ListBuffer` and `LazyList`.

[Chapter 13](#) provides recipes for the most common *methods* that are available on the Scala sequence classes. The collections

classes are well known for the depth of the built-in methods that are available, and that chapter demonstrates those methods.

[Chapter 14](#) covers the `Map` types. Scala maps are like the Java `Map`, Ruby `Hash`, or Python dictionary, in that they consist of key/value pairs, where the key must be unique. Scala has both immutable and mutable maps, and they're both covered in this chapter.

Finally, [Chapter 15](#) covers other collection types, including the commonly used tuple and `Range` types, along with sets, queues, and stacks.

Scala Is Not Java

Scala's collections classes are rich, deep, and differ significantly from collections classes in other languages like Java. In the short term this might be a bit of a speed bump, but in the long term you'll come to appreciate their elegance and built-in methods.

Because of the depth of these methods, you'll very rarely have to write (or read) custom `for` loops. It turns out that many of those custom `for` loops developers have been writing for many years follow certain patterns, so those loops are

encapsulated in built-in collections methods like `filter`, `map`, `foreach`, etc. When the first edition of the *Scala Cookbook* was released in 2013, the wealth of the collections methods could be quite a shock to someone with a Java background, but now that the Java collections have more functional interfaces, the transition should be much easier.

However, when you begin working with Scala it's still best to forget the Java collections classes and focus on the Scala collections. For instance, when a Java developer first comes to Scala, they might think, "OK, I'll use lists and arrays, right?" Well, no, not really. The Scala `List` class is very different from the Java `List` classes—including the part where the Scala `List` is immutable. And while the Scala `Array` is a wrapper around the Java array type, and it provides many built-in methods for working with an array, it's not even recommended as a go-to sequential collections class.

In my own experience, I came to Scala from Java and kept trying to use the Java collections classes in my Scala applications. This was a big waste of time. While it's true that the Java collections work well in Scala, this functionality is really intended only for interoperating with Java code. In retrospect, trying to use the Java collections classes as the default collections in my Scala applications only slowed down

my learning curve. Rather than do what I did, I encourage you to dive right in and learn the Scala way! This chapter will help you find the classes you need.

The Scala 2.13 Collections Overhaul

As a final introductory note, the Scala 2.13 release—which concluded in 2018—was known for its major overhaul to the collections. While the “behind the scenes” implementation of the collections involved significant changes to traits and type inheritance, for the most part the changes are transparent to end users.

This is a good thing, because Scala developers enjoy the end result of the collections. Therefore, the external API—the classes you use, like `List`, `Vector`, `ArrayBuffer`, `Map`, and `Set`—remain largely the same. If anything, Scala 2.13 and Scala 3 have simplified these internal representations, so your code and types are simpler than ever before.

I mention this overhaul because Scala 3 quickly follows behind Scala 2.13, so with the exception of tuples—which have been significantly updated in Scala 3—many of the collections work just like they did in Scala 2.13. Again, this is a good thing.

If you're interested in the details of the Scala 2.13 overhaul, here are three great resources that tell the story behind the changes:

- [The Scala 3 page about Scala 2.13's collections](#)
- [The Scala 3 page about the architecture of Scala 2.13's collections](#)
- [An overview of the Scala 2.13 class hierarchy](#)

Understanding the Collections Hierarchy

A first thing to know about the collections is that they are all contained in the packages shown in [Table 11-1](#). In general, the collections in `scala.collection` are superclasses (or, more accurately, supertypes) of the collections in

`scala.collection.immutable` and
`scala.collection.mutable`. This means that the base operations are supplied to the types in `scala.collection`, and the immutable and mutable operations are added to the types in the other two packages.

Table 11-1. The packages that contain the Scala collections

Character sequence	Description
<code>scala.collection</code>	Collections here may be immutable or mutable.
<code>scala.collection.immutable</code>	The immutable collections. They never change after they're created.
<code>scala.collection.mutable</code>	The mutable collections. They have some (or many) methods that allow the collection's elements to be changed.

The Collections Are Deep and Wide

The Scala collections hierarchy is very rich—both deep and wide—and understanding how it's organized can be helpful when choosing a collections class or method to solve a problem.

[Figure 11-1](#) shows the traits inherited by the `Vector` class and demonstrates some of the complexity of the Scala collections hierarchy.

Linear Supertypes

```
DefaultSerializable, java.io.Serializable, StrictOptimizedSeqOps[A, Vector, Vector[A]],  
collection.StrictOptimizedSeqOps[A, Vector, Vector[A]], StrictOptimizedIterableOps[A, Vector,  
Vector[A]], IndexedSeq[A], IndexedSeqOps[A, Vector[_], Vector[A]], collection.IndexedSeq[A],  
collection.IndexedSeqOps[A, Vector[_], Vector[A]], AbstractSeq[A], Seq[A], SeqOps[A, Vector[_],  
Vector[A]], Iterable[A], collection.AbstractSeq[A], collection.Seq[A], Equals, collection.SeqOps[A,  
Vector[_], Vector[A]], PartialFunction[Int, A], (Int) => A, AbstractIterable[A], collection.Iterable[A],  
IterableFactoryDefaults[A, Vector[x]], IterableOps[A, Vector[_], Vector[A]], IterableOnceOps[A,  
Vector[_], Vector[A]], IterableOnce[A], AnyRef, Any
```

Figure 11-1. The traits inherited by the `Vector` class

Because (a) Scala classes can inherit from traits and (b) well-designed traits are granular, a class hierarchy can look like this. However, don't let [Figure 11-1](#) throw you for a loop: you don't need to know all those traits to use a `Vector`. In fact, using a `Vector` is straightforward:

```
val x = Vector(1, 2, 3)  
x.sum // 6  
x.filter(_ > 1) // Vector(2, 3)  
x.map(_ * 2) // Vector(2, 4, 6)  
x.takeWhile(_ < 3) // Vector(1, 2)
```

At a high level, Scala's collection classes begin with the `Iterable` trait and extend into the three main categories of sequences (`Seq`), sets (`Set`), and maps (`Map`). Sequences further branch off into *indexed* and *linear* sequences, as shown in [Figure 11-2](#).

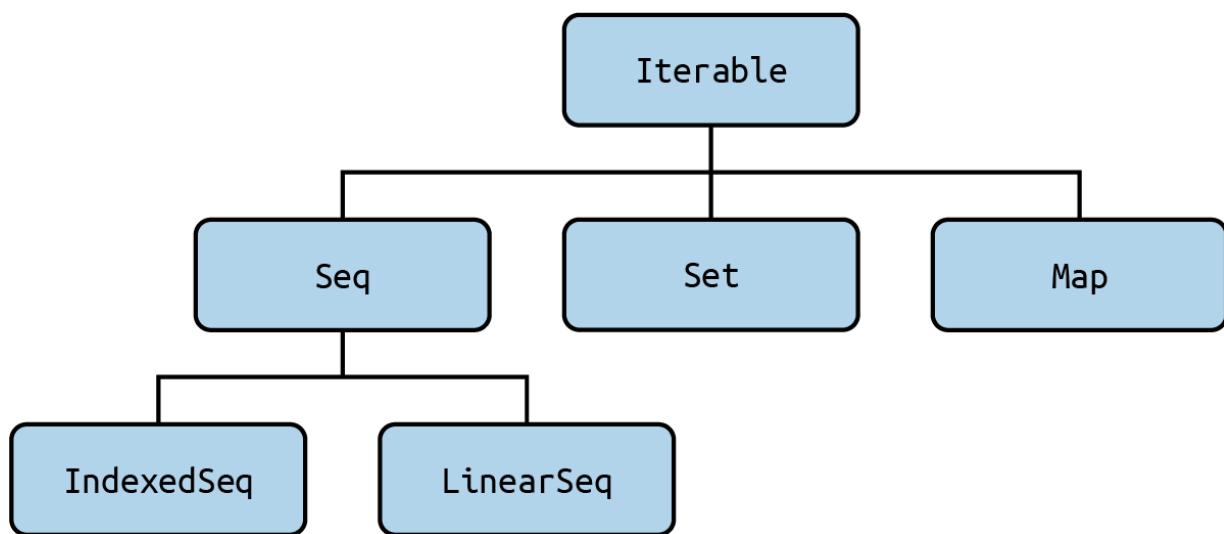


Figure 11-2. A high-level view of the Scala collections

The `Iterable` trait defines an *iterator*, which lets you loop through a collection's elements one at a time. But when using an iterator, the collection can be traversed only once, because each element is consumed during the iteration process.

Sequences

Digging a little deeper into the *sequence* hierarchy, Scala contains a large number of sequence types. The most common

immutable sequences are shown in [Figure 11-3](#), and the most common *mutable* sequences are shown in [Figure 11-4](#).

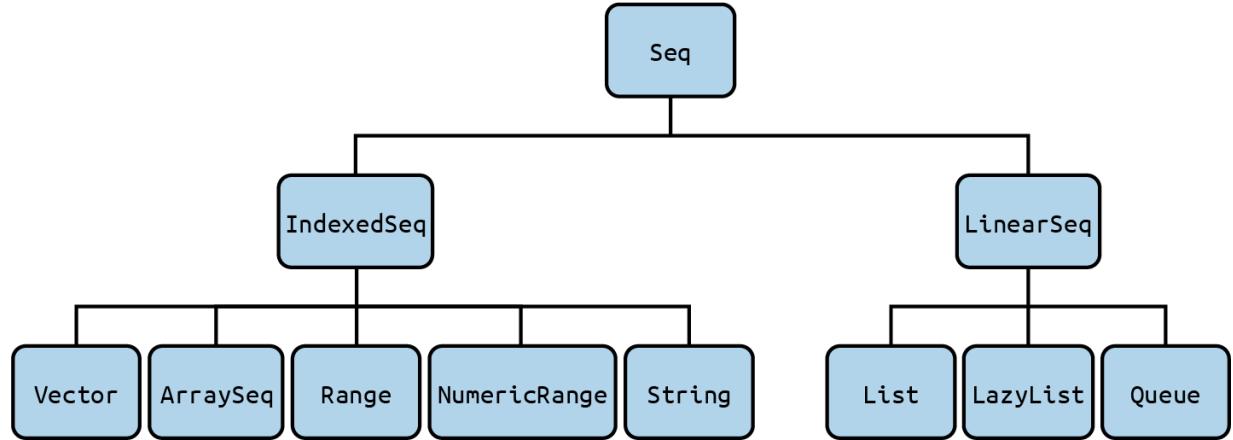


Figure 11-3. A portion of the Scala immutable sequence hierarchy

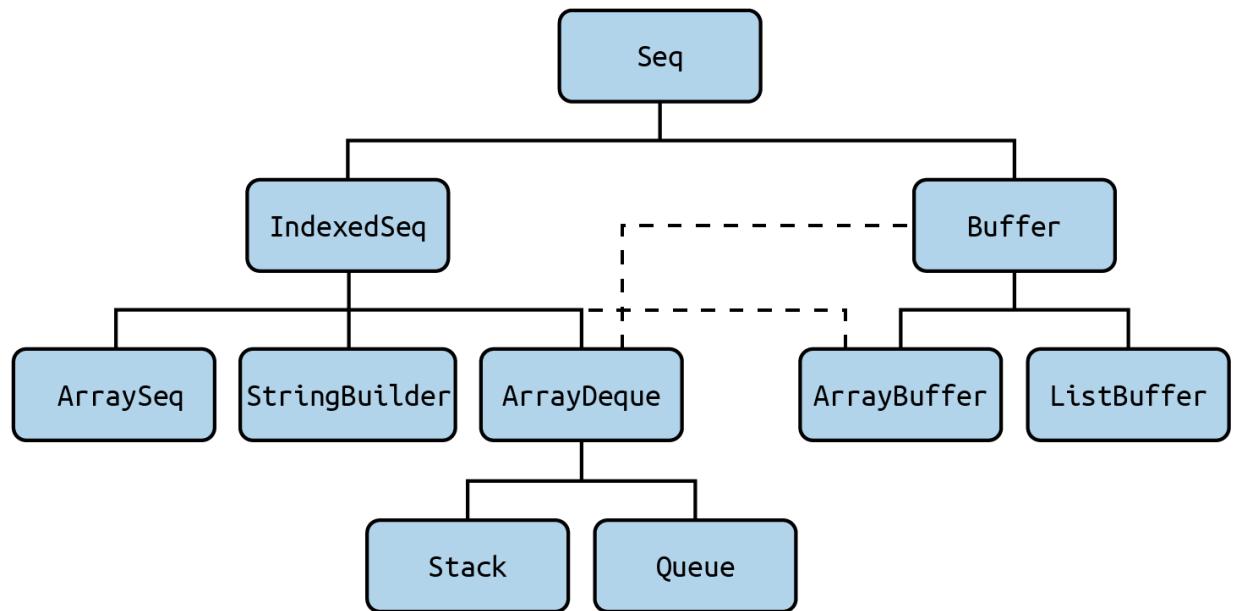


Figure 11-4. A portion of the Scala mutable sequence hierarchy

As shown in [Figure 11-3](#), the immutable sequences branch off into two main categories: *indexed sequences* and *linear sequences* (linked lists). An `IndexedSeq` indicates that random

access of elements is efficient, such as accessing a `Vector` element as `xs(1_000_000)`. By default, specifying that you want an `IndexedSeq` with Scala 3 creates a `Vector`:

```
scala> val x = IndexedSeq(1,2,3)
x: IndexedSeq[Int] = Vector(1, 2, 3)
```

A `LinearSeq` implies that a collection can be efficiently split into head and tail components, and it's common to work with them using the `head`, `tail`, and `isEmpty` methods. Note that creating a `LinearSeq` in Scala 3 creates a `List`, which is a singly linked list:

```
scala> val xs = scala.collection.immutable.LinearSeq(1,2,3)
xs: scala.collection.immutable.LinearSeq[Int] = List(1, 2, 3)
```

Of the mutable sequences shown in [Figure 11-4](#), `ArrayBuffer` is the most commonly used and is recommended when you need a mutable sequence. Here's a quick look at how to use `ArrayBuffer`:

```
scala> import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer

scala> val xs = ArrayBuffer(1,2,3)
```

```
val xs: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3)

scala> xs.addOne(4)
val res0: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4)

scala> xs.addAll(List(5,6,7))
val res1: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)
```

I show the `addOne` and `addAll` methods, but those are relatively new additions; historically it's been more common to use `+=` and `++=` for these purposes:

```
scala> xs += 8
val res2: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8)

scala> xs ++= List(9,10)
val res3: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)
```

Maps

Like a Java `Map`, Ruby `Hash`, or Python dictionary, a Scala `Map` is a collection of key/value pairs, where all the keys must be unique. The most common immutable and mutable `Map` classes are shown in Figures 11-5 and 11-6, respectively.

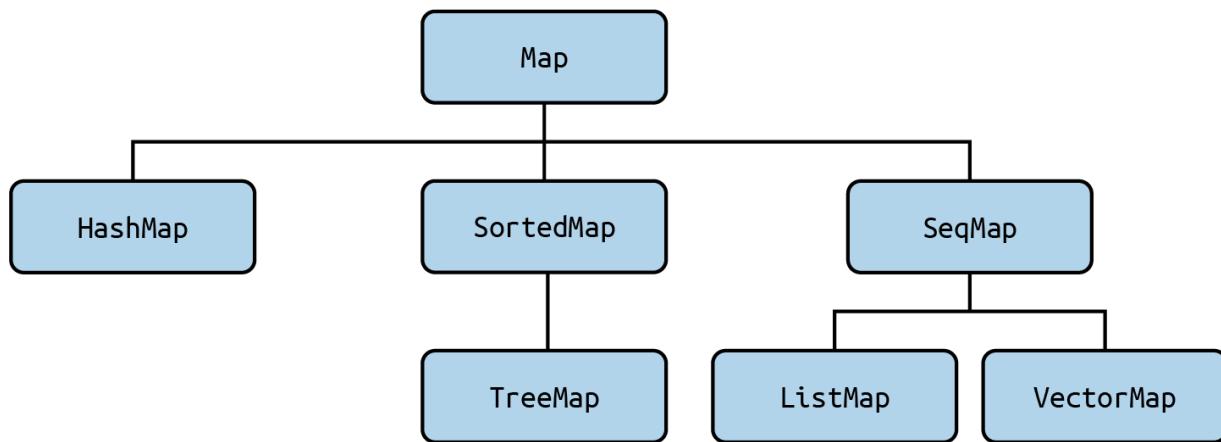


Figure 11-5. The most common immutable Map classes

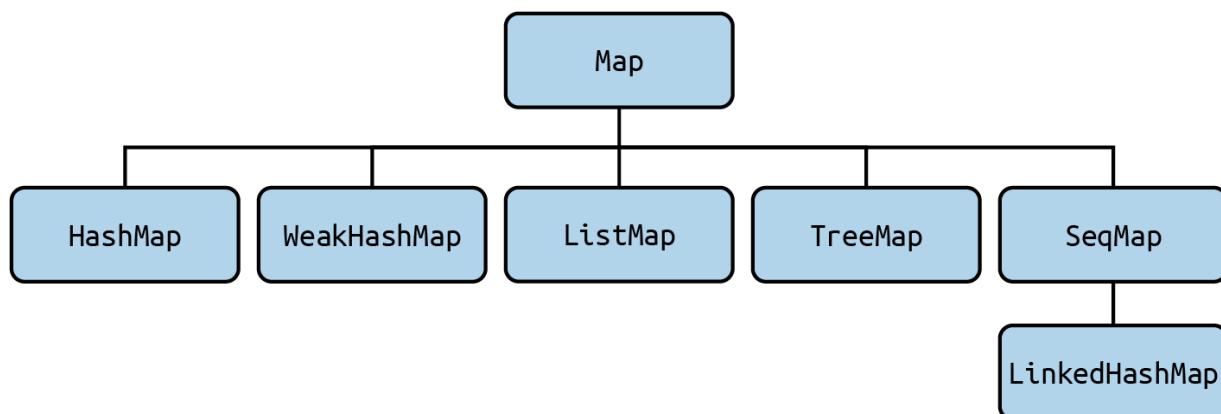


Figure 11-6. Common mutable Map classes

Map types are covered in [Recipe 14.1, “Creating and Using Maps”](#), but as a brief introduction, when you just need a simple *immutable* map, you can create one without requiring an import statement:

```

scala> val m = Map(1 -> "a", 2 -> "b")
val m: Map[Int, String] = Map(1 -> a, 2 -> b)
  
```

The *mutable* map is not in scope by default, so you must import it or specify its full path to use it:

```
scala> val mm = collection.mutable.Map(1 -> "a",
val mm: scala.collection.mutable.Map[Int, String]
```

Sets

Like a Java `Set`, a Scala `Set` is a collection of unique elements. The common immutable and mutable `Set` classes are shown in Figures [11-7](#) and [11-8](#), respectively.

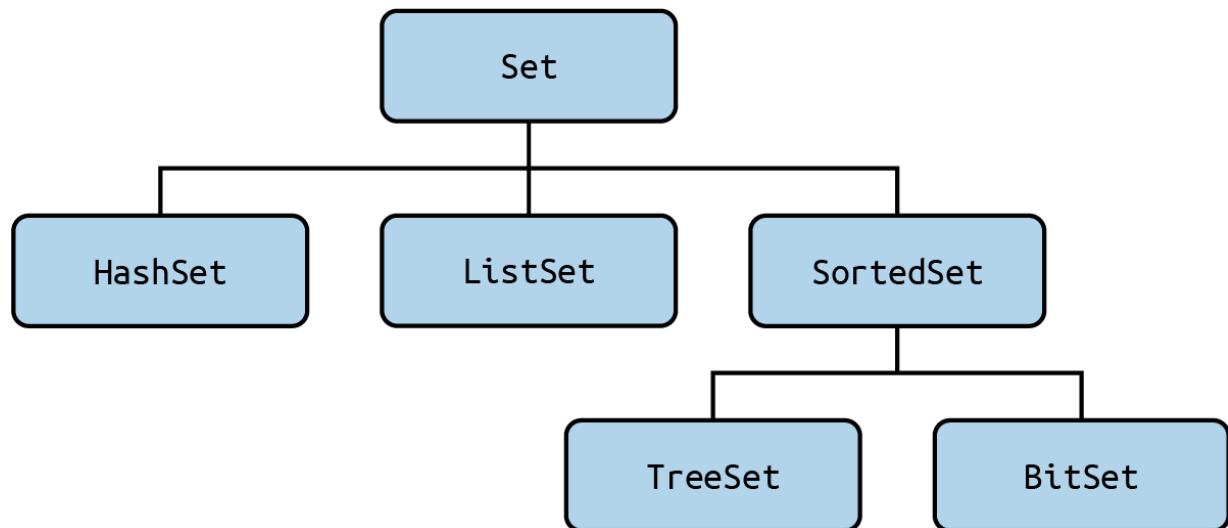


Figure 11-7. The most common immutable Set classes

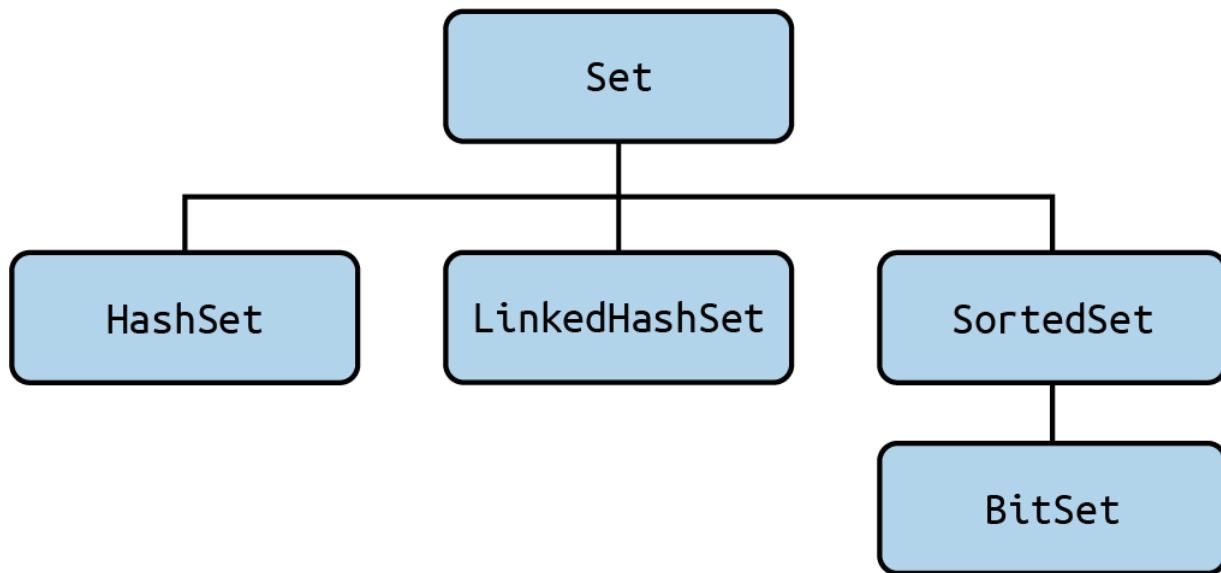


Figure 11-8. Common mutable Set classes

`Set` traits and classes are covered in [Recipe 15.3, “Creating a Set and Adding Elements to It”](#), but as a quick preview, if you just need an immutable set, you can create it like this, without needing an import statement:

```

scala> val set = Set(1, 2, 3)
val set: Set[Int] = Set(1, 2, 3)

```

Just like a map, if you want to use a mutable set, you must import it or specify its complete path:

```

scala> val mset = collection.mutable.Set(1, 2, 3)
val mset: scala.collection.mutable.Set[Int] = Has

```

In summary, this is an overview of the Scala collections hierarchy.

11.1 Choosing a Collections Class

Problem

You want to choose a Scala collections class to solve a particular problem.

Solution

There are three main categories of collections classes to choose from:

- Sequence
- Map
- Set

A *sequence* is a linear collection of elements and may be indexed or linear (a linked list). A *map* contains a collection of key/value pairs with unique keys, like a Java `Map`, Ruby `Hash`, or Python dictionary. A *set* is a sequence that contains no duplicate elements.

In addition to these three main categories, there are other useful collection types, including `Range`, `Stack`, and `Queue`. A few other classes act like collections, including tuples and the `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` error-handling classes.

Choosing a sequence

When choosing a *sequence*—a sequential collection of elements—you have two main decisions:

- Should the sequence be indexed, allowing rapid access to any elements, or should it be implemented as a linked list?
- Do you want a mutable or immutable collection?

Beginning with Scala 2.10 and continuing with Scala 3, the recommended general-purpose go-to sequential collections for the combinations of mutable/immutable and indexed/linear are shown in [Table 11-2](#).

Table 11-2. Scala's recommended general-purpose sequential collections

	Immutable	Mutable
Indexed	<code>Vector</code>	<code>ArrayBuffer</code>
Linear (Linked lists)	<code>List</code>	<code>ListBuffer</code>

As an example of reading that table, if you want an immutable, indexed collection, in general you should use a `Vector`; if you want a mutable, indexed collection, use an `ArrayBuffer` (and so on).

While those are the general-purpose recommendations, there are many more sequence alternatives. The most common *immutable* sequence choices are shown in [Table 11-3](#).

Table 11-3. Main immutable sequence choices

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Description

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Description
LazyList	✓		<p>Similar to <code>List</code>, it's a linked list, but it's lazy, and its elements are memoized.</p> <p>Good for large or infinite sequences.</p> <p>(Replaces the Scala 2 <code>Stream</code> class.)</p>

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Description
List		✓	The go-to immutable linear sequence, it is a singly linked list. Suited for prepending elements, and for recursive algorithms that work by operating on the list's head and tail.

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Description
Queue		✓	A first-in, first-out data structure. Available in immutable and mutable versions.
Range	✓		A range of evenly spaced whole numbers or characters.

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Description
Vector	✓		The go-to immutable indexed sequence. The Scaladoc states, “It provides random access and updates in effectively constant time, as well as very fast append and prepend.”

The most common *mutable* sequence choices are shown in [Table 11-4](#). Queue and Stack are also in this table because there are immutable and mutable versions of these classes. All quotes in the descriptions come from the Scaladoc for each class.

Table 11-4. Main mutable sequence choices

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Buffer
Array	✓		
ArrayBuffer	✓		✓
ArrayDeque	✓		

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Buffer
-------	------------	-----------	--------

ListBuffer	✓	✓
------------	---	---

Queue ✓

Stack	✓
-------	---

StringBuilder ✓

Class	IndexedSeq	LinearSeq	Buffer

Note that I list `ArrayBuffer` and `ListBuffer` under two columns. That's because while they are both descendants of `Buffer`—which is a `Seq` that can grow and shrink—`ArrayBuffer` behaves like an `IndexedSeq` and `ListBuffer` behaves like a `LinearSeq`.

In addition to the information shown in these tables, performance can be a consideration. See [Recipe 11.2](#) if performance is important to your selection process.

When creating an API for a library, you may want to refer to your sequences in terms of their superclasses. [Table 11-5](#) shows the traits that are often used when referring generically to a collection in an API. Note that all quotes in the descriptions come from the Scaladoc for each class.

Table 11-5. Traits commonly used in library APIs

Trait	Description

Trait	Description
IndexedSeq	A sequence that implies that random access of elements is efficient. “Have efficient <code>apply</code> and <code>length</code> .”
LinearSeq	A sequence that implies that linear access to elements is efficient. “Have efficient <code>head</code> and <code>tail</code> operations.”
Seq	The base trait for sequential collections. Use when it isn’t important to indicate that the sequence is indexed or linear in nature.
Iterable	The highest collection level. Use it when you want to be very generic about the type being returned. (It’s the rough equivalent of declaring that a Java method returns <code>Collection</code> .)

Choosing a Map

While you can often use the base immutable or mutable Map classes, there are many more types at your disposal. The Map class options are shown in [Table 11-6](#). Note that all quotes in the descriptions come from the Scaladoc for each class.

Table 11-6. Common Map choices

Class	Immutable	Mutable	Description
CollisionProofHashMap	✓		“Inheriting from this class is not recommended, as it is mutable.”
HashMap	✓	✓	The “immutable” version of the standard Java hash map has been removed in favor of using

LinkedHashMap

Immutable

Mutable

De

usi
ele
wh

ListMap

✓

✓

A r
list
ele
ord
ins
ele
hea

Map

✓

✓

The
mu
im]

SeqMap

✓

“A

Class	Immutable	Mutable	mutable Data
SortedMap	✓	✓	A key
TreeMap	✓	✓	A set as a Scan per
TreeSeqMap	✓		Pre ins but be
VectorMap	✓		User data pre “Ha cor

Class	Immutable	Mutable	exp De me
WeakHashMap	✓	A h ref arc ja	low oth

See [Recipe 14.1, “Creating and Using Maps”](#), for details about the basic `Map` classes, [Recipe 14.2, “Choosing a Map Implementation”](#), for more information about selecting `Map` classes, and [Recipe 14.10, “Sorting an Existing Map by Key or Value”](#), for details about sorting `Map` classes.

Choosing a Set

When choosing a set there are base mutable and immutable set classes, a `SortedSet` to return elements in sorted order by key, a `LinkedHashSet` to store elements in insertion order, and other sets for special purposes. The common classes are shown in [Table 11-7](#). Note that all quotes in the descriptions come from the Scaladoc for each class.

Table 11-7. Common Set choices

Class	Immutable	Mutable	Description
BitSet	✓	✓	A set of “non-negative integers represented as variable-size arrays of bits packed into 64-bit words.” Used to save memory when you have a set of small integers.
HashSet	✓	✓	The immutable version “implements hashCode” using a hash trie”; the mutable vers

Class	Immutable	Mutable	Description
LinkedHashSet		✓	<p>A mutable set implemented using a hashtable.</p> <p>Returns elements in the order in which they were inserted.</p>
ListSet	✓		<p>A set implemented using a list structure.</p> <p>“Suitable only for a small number of elements.”</p>

Class	Immutable	Mutable	Description
TreeSet	✓	✓	The immutable version “implements immutable sorted sets using a tree.” The mutable version is “implemented using a mutable red-black tree.”
Set	✓	✓	Generic base traits, with both mutable and immutable implementations.

<code>SortedSet</code>	Immutable	Mutable	The base trait for sorted set
------------------------	------------------	----------------	----------------------------------

See [Recipe 15.3, “Creating a Set and Adding Elements to It”](#), for details about the basic `Set` classes, and [Recipe 15.5, “Storing Values in a Set in Sorted Order”](#), for details about sortable sets.

Types that act like collections

Scala offers other collection types, and some types that act like collections because they have methods like `map`, `filter`, etc.

[Table 11-8](#) provides descriptions of several types that act somewhat like collections, even though they aren’t.

Table 11-8. Other collections classes (and types that act like collections)

Class/Trait	Description
-------------	-------------

Class/Trait	Description
Iterator	<p>Isn't a collection but instead gives you a way to access the elements in a collection. It does, however, define many of the methods you'll see in a normal collections class, including <code>foreach</code>, <code>map</code>, <code>flatMap</code>, etc. You can also convert an iterator to a collection when needed.</p>
Option	<p>Acts as a collection that contains zero or one element. The <code>Some</code> class and <code>None</code> object extend <code>Option</code>. <code>Some</code> is a container for one element, and <code>None</code> holds zero elements.</p>
Tuple	<p>Supports a heterogeneous collection of elements. Has some collection-like methods, including <code>drop</code>, <code>head</code>, <code>map</code>, <code>size</code>, <code>tail</code>, <code>take</code>, <code>splitAt</code>, and <code>toList</code>.</p>
<p>Because I mention <code>Option</code> in Table 11-8, it's worth noting that the <code>Either/Left/Right</code> and <code>Try/Success/Failure</code> classes also have a few collection-like methods such as <code>flatten</code> and <code>map</code>, but not nearly as many as <code>Option</code> offers.</p>	

Strict and lazy collections

Another way to think about collections is whether they are strict or nonstrict (also known as *lazy*). To understand strict and lazy collections, it helps to first understand the concept of a transformer method.

A *transformer method* constructs a new collection from an existing collection. This includes methods like `map`, `filter`, `reverse`, etc.—any method that transforms the input collection to a new output collection. Other methods that don't return a new collection—methods like `foreach`, `size`, `head`, etc.—are not transformers.

Given that definition, collections can also be thought of in terms of being strict or lazy. In a *strict* collection, memory for the elements is allocated immediately, and all of its elements are immediately evaluated when a transformer method is invoked. Conversely, in a *lazy* collection, memory for the elements is not allocated immediately, and transformer methods do not construct new elements until they are demanded.

In Scala, all collections are strict except for two situations:

- `LazyList` is a lazy version of `List`.

- When you create a *view* on a collection—such as calling `Vector(1, 2, 3).view`—the transformer methods of the resulting view are lazy.

See [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), for more details about views.

See Also

In addition to my own experience using the collections, most of the information used to create these tables comes from the Scaladoc of each type, and these Scala pages:

- [The Scala documentation on mutable and immutable collections](#)
- [“The Architecture of Scala Collections”](#)

11.2 Understanding the Performance of Collections

Problem

When choosing a collection for an application where performance is important, you want to choose the right

collection for the algorithm.

Solution

In many cases, you can reason about the performance of a collection by understanding its basic structure. For instance, a `List` is a singly linked list, and because it's not indexed, if you need to access an element like `list(1_000_000)`, that requires traversing one million elements. Therefore it's going to be much slower than accessing the one-millionth element of a `Vector`, because `Vector` is indexed.

In other cases, it can help to look at the tables. For instance, [Table 11-10](#) shows that the *append* operation on a `Vector` is eC, or *effectively constant time*. As a result, I can create a large `Vector` in the REPL on my computer in under a second like this:

```
var a = Vector[Int]()  
for i <- 1 to 50_000 do a = a :+ i
```

However, as the table shows, the append operation on a `List` requires linear time, so attempting to create a `List` of the same size takes a much longer time—over 15 seconds.

Note that neither of those approaches is recommended for real-world code. I only use them to demonstrate the performance difference between `Vector` and `List` for append operations.

Performance characteristic keys

Before looking at the performance tables, [Table 11-9](#) shows the performance characteristic keys that are used in the tables that follow it.

Table 11-9. Performance characteristic keys for the subsequent tables

Key	Description
Con	The operation takes (fast) constant time.
eC	The operation takes effectively constant time, but this might depend on some assumptions, such as maximum length of a vector, or distribution of hash keys.
aC	The operation takes amortized constant time. Some invocations of the operation might take longer, but if many operations are performed, on average only constant time per operation is taken.

Key	Description
Log	The operation takes time proportional to the logarithm of the collection size.
Lin	The operation is linear, so the time is proportional to the collection size.
-	The operation is not supported.

Performance characteristics for sequential collections

[Table 11-10](#) shows the performance characteristics for operations on immutable and mutable sequential collections.

Table 11-10. Performance characteristics for sequential collections

	head	tail	apply	update	prepend
Immutable	Con	Con	Lin	Lin	Con
Mutable	Con	Con	Con	Con	Con

Immutable

List	Con	Con	Lin	Lin	Con
ArrayList	Con	Con	Con	Con	Con

	head	tail	apply	update	pre
Con	Con	Lin	Lin	Lin	Con
LazyList	Con	Con	Lin	Lin	Con
ArraySeq	Con	Lin	Con	Lin	Lin
Vector	eC	eC	eC	eC	eC
Queue	aC	aC	Lin	Lin	Lin
Range	Con	Con	Con	-	-
String	Con	Lin	Con	Lin	Lin

Mutable

ArrayBuffer	Con	Lin	Con	Con	Lin
ListBuffer	Con	Lin	Lin	Lin	Con
StringBuilder	Con	Lin	Con	Con	Lin
Queue	Con	Lin	Lin	Lin	Con

	head	tail	apply	update	pre
Con	Lin	Con	Con	Con	-
ArraySeq	Con	Lin	Lin	Lin	Con
Stack	Con	Lin	Con	Con	-
Array	Con	Lin	Con	Con	-
ArrayDeque	Con	Lin	Con	Con	aC

[Table 11-11](#) describes the column headings used in [Table 11-10](#).

Table 11-11. Descriptions of the column headings used in [Table 11-10](#)

Operation	Description
head	Selecting the first element of the sequence.
tail	Producing a new sequence that consists of all elements of the sequence except the first one.
apply	Indexing.
update	Functional update for immutable sequences, side-effecting update for mutable sequences.

Operation	Description
prepend	Adding an element to the front of the sequence. For immutable sequences, this produces a new sequence. For mutable sequences, it modifies the existing sequence.
append	Adding an element at the end of the sequence. For immutable sequences, this produces a new sequence. For mutable sequences, it modifies the existing sequence.
insert	Inserting an element at an arbitrary position in the sequence. This is supported directly only for mutable sequences.

Map and Set performance characteristics

[Table 11-12](#) shows the performance characteristics for Scala's common map and set types, using the keys from [Table 11-9](#).

Table 11-12. The performance characteristics for maps and sets

	lookup	add	remove	min

	lookup	add	remove	min
--	---------------	------------	---------------	------------

Immutable

HashSet / HashMap	eC	eC	eC	Lin
-------------------	----	----	----	-----

TreeSet / TreeMap	Log	Log	Log	Log
-------------------	-----	-----	-----	-----

BitSet	Con	Lin	Lin	eC
--------	-----	-----	-----	----

VectorMap	eC	eC	aC	Lin
-----------	----	----	----	-----

ListMap	Lin	Lin	Lin	Lin
---------	-----	-----	-----	-----

Mutable

HashSet / HashMap	eC	eC	eC	Lin
-------------------	----	----	----	-----

WeakHashMap	eC	eC	eC	Lin
-------------	----	----	----	-----

BitSet	Con	aC	Con	eC
--------	-----	----	-----	----

TreeSet	Log	Log	Log	Log
---------	-----	-----	-----	-----

[**Table 11-13**](#) provides descriptions for the column headings (operations) used in [**Table 11-12**](#).

Table 11-13. Descriptions of the column headings used in [**Table 11-12**](#)

Operation	Description
lookup	Testing whether an element is contained in a set, or selecting a value associated with a map key.
add	Adding a new element to a set or key/value pair to a map.
remove	Removing an element from a set or a key from a map.
min	The smallest element of the set, or the smallest key of a map.

Discussion

As you can tell from the descriptions of the keys in [**Table 11-9**](#), when choosing a collection you'll generally want to look for the Con, eC, and aC keys to find your best performance.

For instance, because `List` is a singly linked list, accessing the head and tail elements are fast operations, as is the process of prepending elements, so those operations are shown with the `Con` key in [Table 11-10](#). But appending elements to a `List` is a very slow operation—linear in proportion to the size of the `List`—so the append operation is shown with the `Lin` key.

See Also

- With permission from [EPFL](#), the tables in this recipe have been reproduced from [the performance characteristics Scala documentation page](#).

11.3 Understanding Mutable Variables with Immutable Collections

Problem

You may have seen that mixing a mutable variable (`var`) with an immutable collection makes it appear that the collection is somehow mutable. For instance, when you create a `var` field with an immutable `Vector`, it appears you can somehow add new elements to the `Vector`:

```
var x = Vector(1)           // x: Vector(1)
x = x :+ 2                 // x: Vector(1, 2)
x = x ++ List(3, 4)        // x: Vector(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

How can this be?

Solution

Though it looks like you're mutating an immutable collection in that example, what's really happening is that the variable `x` points to a new sequence each time you add elements. The variable `x` is *mutable*—like a non-`final` field in Java—so what's going on is that it's being reassigned to a new sequence during each step. The end result is similar to these lines of code:

```
var x = Vector(1)
x = Vector(1, 2)           // reassign x
x = Vector(1, 2, 3, 4)     // reassign x again
```

In the second and third lines of code, the `x` reference is changed to point to a new sequence.

You can demonstrate that the vector itself is immutable. Attempting to mutate one of its elements—which doesn't involve reassigning the variable—results in an error:

```
scala> x(0) = 100
1 |x(0) = 100
| ^
|value update is not a member of Vector[Int] -
|Vector[Int].updated?
```

Discussion

This recipe is included among the first collection-related recipes because when you start working with Scala, the behavior of a mutable variable with an immutable collection can be surprising. To be clear about *variables*:

- A mutable variable (`var`) can be reassigned to point at new data.
- An immutable variable (`val`) is like a `final` variable in Java; it can never be reassigned.

To be clear about *collections*:

- The elements in a mutable collection (like `ArrayBuffer`) can be changed.
- The elements in an immutable collection (like `Vector` or `List`) cannot be changed.

In pure functional programming you will use immutable variables in combination with immutable collections, but in less strict programming styles you can use other combinations. For instance, these two combinations are also common:

- Immutable variables with mutable collections (e.g., `val` with `ArrayBuffer`)
- Mutable variables with immutable collections (e.g., `var` with `Vector`)

Many recipes in these collection chapters, as well as the domain-modeling chapters, demonstrate these techniques.

11.4 Creating a Lazy View on a Collection

Problem

You're working with a large collection and want to create a lazy version of it so it will only compute and return results as they are needed.

Solution

Create a *view* on the collection by calling its `view` method. That creates a new collection whose *transformer methods* are implemented in a nonstrict, or lazy, manner. For example, given a large list:

```
val xs = List.range(0, 3_000_000) // a list fr
```

imagine that you want to call several transformation methods on it, such as `map` and `filter`. This is a contrived example, but it demonstrates a problem:

```
val ys = xs.map(_ + 1)
          .map(_ * 10)
          .filter(_ > 1_000)
          .filter(_ < 10_000)
```

If you attempt to run that example in the REPL, you'll probably see this fatal "out of memory" error:

```
scala> val ys = xs.map(_ + 1)
java.lang.OutOfMemoryError: GC overhead limit ex
```

Conversely, this example returns almost immediately and doesn't throw an error because all it does is create a view and

then four lazy transformer methods:

```
val ys = xs.view
      .map(_ + 1)
      .map(_ * 10)
      .filter(_ > 1_000)
      .filter(_ < 10_000)

// result: ys: scala.collection.View[Int] = View
```

Now you can work with `ys` without running out of memory:

```
scala> ys.take(3).foreach(println)
1010
1020
1030
```

Calling `view` on a collection makes the resulting collection lazy. Now when transformer methods are called on the view, the elements will only be calculated as they are accessed, and not “eagerly,” as they normally would be with a strict collection.

Discussion

The Scala documentation states that a view “constructs only a proxy for the result collection, and its elements get constructed only as one demands them...a view is a special kind of collection that represents some base collection, but implements all transformers lazily.”

A *transformer* is a method that constructs a new collection from one or more existing collections. This includes methods like `map`, `filter`, `take`, and many more.

AN OFFICIAL DESCRIPTION OF TRANSFORMER METHODS

While there is some debate about whether methods like `filter` are transformer methods, the book *Programming in Scala* states, “We call such methods transformers because they take at least one collection as their receiver object and produce another collection in their result.” In that statement the authors are referring specifically to the `map`, `filter`, and `++` methods.

Other methods like `foreach` that don’t transform a collection are evaluated eagerly. This explains why transformer methods like these return a view:

```
val a = List.range(0, 1_000_000)
val b = a.view.map(_ + 1)      // SeqView[Int] = Seq
val c = b.take(3)             // SeqView[Int] = Seq
```

and why `foreach` causes action to happen:

```
scala> c.foreach(println)  
1  
2  
3
```

The use case for views

The main use case for using a view is performance, in terms of speed, memory, or both.

Regarding performance, the example in the Solution first demonstrates (a) a strict approach that runs out of memory, and then (b) a lazy approach that lets you work with the same dataset. The problem with the first solution is that it attempts to create new, intermediate collections each time a transformer method is called:

```
val b = a.map(_ + 1)           // 1st copy of the  
                           .map(_ * 10)        // 2nd copy of the  
                           .filter(_ > 1_000)   // 3rd copy of the  
                           .filter(_ < 10_000)  // 4th copy of the
```

If the initial collection `a` has one billion elements, the first `map` call creates a new intermediate collection with another billion elements. The second `map` call creates another collection, so now we're attempting to hold three billion elements in memory, and so on.

To drive that point home, that approach is the same as if you had written this:

```
val a = List.range(0, 1_000_000_000)      // 1B elem
val b = a.map(_ + 1)                      // 1st copy of the
val c = b.map(_ * 10)                     // 2nd copy of the
val d = c.filter(_ > 1_000)                // 3rd copy of the
val e = d.filter(_ < 10_000)               // 4th copy of the
```

Conversely, when you immediately create a view on the collection, everything after that essentially just creates an iterator:

```
val ys = a.view
      .map ...    // this DOES NOT create another
```

As usual with anything related to performance, be sure to test using a view versus not using a view in your application to find

what works best.

Another performance-related reason to understand views is that it's become very common to work with large datasets in a streaming manner, and views work very similar to streams. See the Spark recipes in this book, such as [Recipe 20.1, “Getting Started with Spark”](#), for examples of working with large datasets and streams.

Chapter 12. Collections: Common Sequence Classes

In this chapter on the Scala collections, we'll examine the most common sequence classes. As mentioned in [Recipe 11.1, “Choosing a Collections Class”](#), the general sequence class recommendations are to use:

- `Vector` as your go-to immutable indexed sequence
- `List` as your go-to immutable linear sequence
- `ArrayBuffer` as your go-to mutable indexed sequence
- `ListBuffer` as your go-to mutable linear sequence

Vector

As discussed in [Recipe 11.1, “Choosing a Collections Class”](#), `Vector` is the preferred immutable indexed sequence class because of its general performance characteristics. You'll use it all the time when you need an immutable sequence.

Because `Vector` is immutable, you apply filtering and transformation methods on one `Vector` to create another one. As a quick preview, these examples show how to create and use a `Vector`:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
val b = a.filter(_ > 2)      // Vector(3, 4, 5)
val c = a.map(_ * 10)        // Vector(10, 20, 30, 40)
```

List

If you're coming to Scala from Java, you'll quickly see that despite their names, the Scala `List` class is nothing like the Java `List` classes, such as the Java `ArrayList`. The Scala `List` class is immutable, so its size as well as the elements it contains can't change. It's implemented as a linked list, where the preferred approach is to *prepend* elements. Because it's a linked list, you typically traverse the list from head to tail, and indeed, it's often thought of in terms of its `head` and `tail` methods (along with `isEmpty`).

Like `Vector`, because a `List` is immutable, you apply filtering and transformation methods on one list to create another list. As a quick preview, these examples show how to create and use a `List`:

```
val a = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
val b = a.filter(_ > 2)      // List(3, 4, 5)
val c = a.map(_ * 10)        // List(10, 20, 30, 40)
```

LIST VERSUS VECTOR

You may wonder when you should use a `List` instead of a `Vector`. The performance characteristics detailed in [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#), provide the general rules about when to select one or the other.

In an interesting experiment, Martin Odersky, the creator of the Scala language, notes in [this thread on the Scala Contributors website](#) that Tiark Rompf once tried to replace every `List` in the Scala compiler with `Vector`, and the performance was about 10% slower. This is believed to be because `Vector` has a certain overhead that makes it less efficient with small sequences.

So `List` definitely has its uses, especially when you think of it as what it is, a simple singly linked list. (In the comment after Mr. Odersky’s, Viktor Klang—Java Champion and cocreator of Scala futures—notes that he thinks of `List` as being an excellent stack.)

ArrayBuffer

`ArrayBuffer` is the preferred mutable indexed sequence class. Because it’s mutable, you apply transformation methods directly on it to update its contents. For instance, where you use the `map` method with a `Vector` or `List` and assign the result to a new variable:

```
val x = Vector(1, 2, 3)
val y = x.map(_ * 2)    // y: ArrayBuffer(2, 4, 6)
```

with `ArrayBuffer` you use `mapInPlace` instead of `map`, and it modifies the value in place:

```
import collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
val ab = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3)
ab.mapInPlace(_ * 2)    // ab: ArrayBuffer(2, 4, 6)
```

BUFFERS

In Scala, a *buffer* is just a sequence that can grow and shrink.

Array

The Scala `Array` is unique: it's mutable in that its elements can be changed, but immutable in size—it can't grow or shrink. By comparison, other collections like `List` and `Vector` are completely immutable, and `ArrayBuffer` is completely mutable.

`Array` has the unique distinction of being backed by the Java array, so a Scala `Array[Int]` is backed by a Java `int[]`.

Although the `Array` may often be demonstrated in Scala examples, the recommendation is to use the `Vector` class as

your go-to *immutable* indexed sequence class, and `ArrayBuffer` as your *mutable* indexed sequence of choice. In keeping with this suggestion, in my real-world code, I use `Vector` and `ArrayBuffer` for those use cases, and then convert them to an `Array` when needed.

For some operations the `Array` can have better performance than other collections, so it's important to know how it works. See [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#), for those details.

12.1 Making Vector Your Go-To Immutable Sequence

Problem

You want a fast general-purpose immutable sequential collection type for your Scala applications.

Solution

The `Vector` class is considered the go-to general-purpose *indexed* immutable sequential collection. Use a `List` if you prefer working with a *linear* immutable sequential collection.

Creating Vectors

Create and use a `Vector` just like other immutable sequences. You can create a `Vector` with initial elements, and then access the elements efficiently by index:

```
val v = Vector("a", "b", "c")
v(0)    // "a"
v(1)    // "b"
```

Because `Vector` is indexed, this call to `x(9_999_999)` returns almost instantly:

```
val x = (1 to 10_000_000).toVector
x(9_999_999)    // 10000000
```

You can also create an empty `Vector` and add elements to it, remembering to assign the result to a new variable:

```
val a = Vector[String]()
val b = a ++ List("a", "b")
```

Adding, appending, and prepending elements

You can't modify a vector, so you add elements to an existing vector as you assign the result to a new variable:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3)
val b = a ++ List(4, 5)      // b: Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
val c = b ++ Seq(6)          // c: Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

You append and prepend elements to a `Vector` just like other immutable sequences, with the following methods:

- The `+:` method, which is an alias for `prepended`
- `++:` is an alias for `prependedAll`
- `:+` is an alias for `appended`
- `:++` is an alias for `appendedAll`

Here are some examples where I use a `var` variable and assign the results of each operation back to that variable:

```
// prepending
var a = Vector(6)

a = 5 +: a                      // a: Vector(5, 6)
a = a.prepended(4)                // a: Vector(4, 5, 6)

a = List(2,3) ++: a              // a: Vector(2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
a = a.prependedAll(Seq(0,1))     // a: Vector(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

```
// appending  
var b = Vector(1)  
  
b = b :+ 2 // b: Vector(1, 2)  
  
b = b.appended(3) // b: Vector(1, 2, 3)  
  
b = b :++ List(4, 5) // b: Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)  
b = b.appendedAll(List(6, 7)) // b: Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)
```

Modifying elements

To modify an element in a `Vector`, call the `updated` method to replace one element while assigning the result to a new variable, setting the `index` and `elem` parameters:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3)  
val b = a.updated(index=0, elem=10) // b: Vector(10, 2, 3)  
val c = b.updated(1, 20) // c: Vector(10, 20, 3)
```

Similarly, use the `patch` method to replace multiple elements at one time:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

```
// specify (a) the index to start at, (b) the new
// you want, and (c) the number of elements to re
val b = a.patch(0, List(10,20), 2)      // b: Vector[...]
val b = a.patch(0, List(10,20), 3)      // b: Vector[...]
val b = a.patch(0, List(10,20), 4)      // b: Vector[...]

val b = a.patch(2, List(30,40), 2)      // b: Vector[...]
val b = a.patch(2, List(30,40), 3)      // b: Vector[...]
val b = a.patch(2, List(30,40), 4)      // b: Vector[...]
```

With `patch` you can insert elements by specifying `0` for the number of elements to replace:

```
val a = Vector(10, 20, 30)
val b = a.patch(1, List(15), 0)          // b: Vector[...]
val b = a.patch(2, List(25), 0)          // b: Vector[...]
```

Discussion

The [Scala documentation on concrete immutable collection classes](#) states the following:

`Vector` is a collection type that addresses the inefficiency for random access on lists. Vectors allow accessing any element of the list in “effectively” constant time....Because vectors strike a good balance between fast random selections and fast random functional updates, they are currently the default implementation of immutable indexed sequences.

As noted in [“Understanding the Collections Hierarchy”](#), when you create an instance of an `IndexedSeq`, Scala returns a `Vector`:

```
scala> val x = IndexedSeq(1,2,3)
x: IndexedSeq[Int] = Vector(1, 2, 3)
```

As a result, I’ve seen some developers use an `IndexedSeq` in their code rather than a `Vector` to express their desire to create an indexed immutable sequence and leave the implementation details to the compiler.

12.2 Creating and Populating a List

Problem

You want to create and populate a `List`.

Solution

There are many ways to create and initially populate a `List`, and the following code shows six examples, starting with two basic, general use cases:

```
// (1) basic, general use cases
val xs = List(1, 2, 3)           // List(1, 2, 3)
val xs = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: Nil    // List(1, 2, 3)
val xs = 1 :: List(2, 3)

// (2) both of these create an empty list
val xs: List[String] = List()
val xs: List[String] = Nil
```

Next, these examples demonstrate how to let the compiler implicitly set the `List` type, and then how to explicitly control the type:

```
// (3a) implicit and explicit types, with mixed ...
val xs = List(1, 2.0, 33D, 4_000L) // implicit
val xs: List[Double] = List(1, 2.0, 33D, 4_000L)

// (3b) another example of explicitly setting the
```

```
// where the second example declares the type to
val xs = List(1, 2, 3)                      // List[Int]
val xs: List[Long] = List(1, 2, 3)      // List[Long]
```

These examples demonstrate a number of ways to create lists from ranges, including the `to` and `by` methods that are available on the `Int` and `Char` types (thanks to implicit conversions on those types):

```
// (4) using ranges
val xs = List.range(1, 10)          // List(1, 2, 3,
val xs = List.range(0, 10, 2)      // List(0, 2, 4,
                               // List(1, 3, 5,
                               // List(1, 4, 7,
                               // List(a, c, e)
```

These examples demonstrate a variety of ways to fill and populate lists:

```
// (5) different ways to fill lists
```


A `ListBuffer` is a `Buffer` that's backed by a linked list. It offers constant-time prepend and append operations, and most other operations are linear.

Discussion

It's important to know that the Scala `List` class is not at all like the Java `List` classes, such as the Java `ArrayList`. For example, [Recipe 22.1, “Using Java Collections in Scala”](#), shows that a `java.util.List` converts to a Scala `Buffer` or `Seq`, not a Scala `List`.

A `List` in Scala is simply a sequential collection of elements that ends with a `Nil` element:

```
// empty list
val xs: List[String] = Nil      // List[String] = []

// three elements that end with a Nil element
val xs = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: Nil    // List(1, 2, 3)

// this is an error, because it does not end with Nil
val xs = 1 :: 2 :: 3           // error

// prepending a `1` to a `List(2, 3)`
val xs = 1 :: List(2, 3)        // List(1, 2, 3)
```

As shown, the `::` method—called *cons*—takes two arguments:

- A *head* element, which is a single element
- A *tail*, which is either the remaining `List` or the `Nil` value

The `::` method and `Nil` value have their roots in the Lisp programming language, where lists like this are heavily used. An important thing about `List` is that when you add elements to it, it's intended to be used in a manner where you always *prepend* elements to it, like this:

```
val a = List(3)    // List(3)
val b = 2 :: a    // List(2, 3)
val c = 1 :: b    // List(1, 2, 3)
```

This quote from [the List class Scaladoc](#) discusses the important properties of the `List` class:

This class is optimal for last-in-first-out (LIFO), stack-like access patterns. If you need another access pattern, for example, random access or FIFO, consider using a collection more suited to this than List. List has $O(1)$ prepend and head/tail access. Most other operations are $O(n)$ on the number of elements in the list.

See Also

- [Recipe 4.14, “Working with a List in a Match Expression”](#), shows how to handle a List in a match expression, especially the Nil element.
- See [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#), for more information on the List performance characteristics.
- Adding elements to a List is discussed more in [Recipe 12.3](#).

12.3 Adding Elements to a List

Problem

You want to add elements to a List that you’re working with.

Solution

“How do I add elements to a `List`?” is a bit of a trick question, because a `List` is immutable, so you can’t actually add elements to it. If you want a `List` that’s constantly changing, consider using a `ListBuffer` (as described in [Recipe 12.5](#)), and then convert it to a `List` when necessary.

That advice holds true if you’re constantly modifying data in a list structure, but if you just want to add a few elements to a list—rather than continuously updating it—*prepend*ing elements to a `List` is a fast operation. The preferred approach is to prepend elements with the `::` method, while assigning the results to a new `List`:

```
val a = List(2)                                // a: List(2)

// prepend with ::

val b = 1 :: a                                // b: List(1, 2)
val c = 0 :: b                                // c: List(0, 1, 2)
```

You can also use the `::::` method to prepend one list in front of another:

```
val a = List(3, 4)           // a: List(3, 4)
val b = List(1, 2) :: a      // b: List(1, 2, 3,
```

Rather than continually reassigning the result of prepend operations to a new variable, you can declare your variable as a `var` and reassign the result to it:

```
var x = List(5)           // x: List[Int] = List(5)
x = 4 :: x               // x: List(4, 5)
x = 3 :: x               // x: List(3, 4, 5)
x = List(1, 2) :: x       // x: List(1, 2, 3,
```

As these examples illustrate, the `::` and `::::` methods are right-associative. This means that lists are constructed from right to left, which you can see more clearly in these examples:

```
val a = 3 :: Nil           // a: List(3)
val b = 2 :: a             // b: List(2, 3)
val c = 1 :: b             // c: List(1, 2, 3)
val d = 1 :: 2 :: Nil       // d: List(1, 2)
```

To be clear about how `::` and `::::` work, it can help to know that the Scala compiler converts the code in this first example to

the code shown in the second example:

```
List(1, 2) :: List(3, 4)      // what you type  
List(3, 4) .:::(List(1, 2)) // how the compiler
```

Both result in a `List(1, 2, 3, 4)`.

Discussion

This style of creating a list has its roots in the Lisp programming language:

```
val x = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: Nil    // x: List(1, 2, 3)
```

Amazingly, Lisp was first specified in 1958, and because this is such a direct way of creating a linked list, this style is still used today.

Other methods to prepend, append

Though using `::` and `:::` are the common methods with lists, there are additional methods that let you prepend or append single elements to a `List`:

```
val x = List(1)

// prepend
val y = 0 +: x    // y: List(0, 1)

// append
val y = x :+ 2    // y: List(1, 2)
```

But remember that appending to a `List` is a relatively slow operation, and it's not recommended to use this approach, especially with large lists. As the [List class Scaladoc](#) states, “This class is optimal for last-in-first-out (LIFO), stack-like access patterns. If you need another access pattern, for example, random access or FIFO, consider using a collection more suited to this than `List`.” See [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#), for a discussion of `List` class performance.

If you don't work with the `List` class a lot, another way to concatenate two lists into a new list is with the `++` or `concat` methods:

```
val a = List(1, 2, 3)
val b = List(4, 5, 6)
```

```
// '++' is an alias for 'concat', so they work the same
val c = a ++ b           // c: List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
val c = a.concat(b)      // c: List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

Because these methods are used consistently across immutable collections, they can be easier to remember.

METHODS THAT END IN :

Any Scala method that ends with a `:` character is evaluated from right to left. This means that the method is invoked on the right operand. You can see how this works by analyzing the following code, where both methods print the number `42`:

```
@main def rightAssociativeExample =
  val p = Printer()
  p >> 42      // prints "42"
  42 >>: p     // prints "42"

class Printer:
  def >>(i: Int) = println(s"$i")
  def >>:(i: Int) = println(s"$i")
```

In addition to using the methods as shown in that example, the two methods can also be invoked like this:

```
p.>>(42)
p.>>:(42)
```

In summary, by defining the second method to end in a colon, it can be used as a right-associative operator.

See Also

- You can also concatenate two lists to create a new list. See [Recipe 13.12, “Merging Sequential Collections”](#), for examples.

- If you want to use a mutable linear list, see [Recipe 12.5](#) for examples of how to use the `ListBuffer` class.

12.4 Deleting Elements from a List (or ListBuffer)

Problem

You want to delete elements from a `List` or `ListBuffer`.

Solution

Use methods like `filter`, `take`, and `drop` to filter the elements in a `List`, and methods like `--`, `---`, and `remove` to delete elements in a `ListBuffer`.

List

A `List` is immutable, so you can't delete elements from it, but you can filter out the elements you don't want while you assign the result to a new variable:

```
val a = List(5, 1, 4, 3, 2)
val b = a.filter(_ > 2)    // b: List(5, 4, 3)
val b = a.take(2)          // b: List(5, 1)
```

```
val b = a.drop(2)           // b: List(4, 3, 2)
val b = a diff List(1)      // b: List(5, 4, 3, 2)
```

Rather than continually assigning the result of operations like this to a new variable, you can declare your variable as a `var` and reassign the result of the operation back to itself:

```
var x = List(5, 1, 4, 3, 2)
x = x.filter(_ > 2)        // x: List(5, 4, 3)
```

See [Recipe 13.7, “Using filter to Filter a Collection”](#), for other ways to get subsets of a collection using methods like `filter`, `partition`, `splitAt`, and `take`.

ListBuffer

If you’re going to be modifying a list frequently, it can be better to use a `ListBuffer` instead of a `List`. A `ListBuffer` is mutable, so as with other mutable collections, use the `-=` and `--=` methods to delete elements. For example, assuming you’ve created a `ListBuffer` like this:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ListBuffer
val x = ListBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4)
// result: x: scala.collection.mutable.ListBu
```

```
// ListBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4)
```

You can delete one element at a time by value using `--=`:

```
x -= 2 // x: ListBuffer(1, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4)
```

Note that only the first occurrence of the number `2` is removed from the `x`.

You can delete two or more elements by value using `---=`:

```
val x = ListBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)

// 1, 2, and 3 are removed:
x ---= Seq(1, 2, 3) // x: ListBuffer(4, 5, 6)

// nothing matched, so nothing removed:
x ---= Seq(8, 9) // x: ListBuffer(4, 5, 6)
```

You can use `remove` to delete elements by index position.

Either supply the index, or the starting index and the number of elements to delete:

```
val x = ListBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

Discussion

When you first start using Scala, the wealth of methods whose names are only symbols (e.g., methods like `++`, `--`, and `---`) can seem daunting. But `++` and `--` are used consistently with *immutable* collections, and `=` and `---` are used consistently across *mutable* collections, so it quickly becomes second nature to use them.

See Also

Because *filtering* can be a form of deleting when working with immutable collections, see the filtering recipes in [Chapter 13](#).

12.5 Creating a Mutable List with ListBuffer

Problem

You want to use a mutable list—e.g., a `LinearSeq`, as opposed to an `IndexedSeq`—but a `List` isn't mutable.

Solution

To work with a mutable list, use a `ListBuffer` as long as the data is changing, and convert the `ListBuffer` to a `List` when needed.

The following examples demonstrate how to create a `ListBuffer`, then add and remove elements as desired, and finally convert it to a `List` when finished:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ListBuffer

// create an empty ListBuffer[String]
val b = new ListBuffer[String]()

// add one element at a time to the ListBuffer
b += "a"    // b: ListBuffer(a)
```

```

b += "b"      // b: ListBuffer(a, b)
b += "c"      // b: ListBuffer(a, b, c)

// add multiple elements (++= is an alias for addAll)
b ++= List("d", "e", "f")          // b: ListBuffer(a, b, c, d, e, f)
b.addAll(Vector("d", "e", "f"))    // b: ListBuffer(a, b, c, d, e, f)

// remove the first "d"
b --= "d"                      // b: ListBuffer(a, b, c, e, f)

// remove multiple elements specified by another sequence
b ---= Seq("e", "f")            // b: ListBuffer(a, b, c)

// convert the ListBuffer to a List when you need one
val xs = b.toList                  // xs: List(a, b, c)

```

Discussion

Because a `List` is immutable, if you need to create a list that is constantly changing, it can be better to use a `ListBuffer` while the list is being modified, then convert it to a `List` when a `List` is needed.

The [ListBuffer Scaladoc](#) states:

`ListBuffer` is “a `Buffer` implementation backed by a list. It provides constant-time prepend and append. Most other operations are linear.”

So, don’t use `ListBuffer` if you want to access elements arbitrarily, such as accessing items by index (like

`list(1_000_000)`); use `ArrayBuffer` instead. See [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#), for more information.

Small lists

Depending on your needs, it can be OK to create a new `List` from an existing `List`, especially if they’re small and you’re OK prepending elements as you create the new `List`:

```
val a = List(2)      // a: List(2)
val b = 1 :: a      // b: List(1, 2)
val c = 0 :: b      // c: List(0, 1, 2)
```

This technique is discussed more in [Recipe 12.3](#).

12.6 Using LazyList, a Lazy Version of a List

Problem

You want to use a collection that works like a `List` but invokes its transformer methods (`map`, `filter`, etc.) lazily.

Solution

A `LazyList` is like a `List`, except that its elements are computed lazily, in a manner similar to how a *view* creates a lazy version of a collection. Because `LazyList` elements are computed lazily, a `LazyList` can be long...infinitely long. Like a view, only the elements that are accessed are computed. Other than this behavior, a `LazyList` behaves similar to a `List`.

For instance, just like a `List` can be constructed with `:::`, a `LazyList` can be constructed with the `#:::` method, using `LazyList.empty` at the end of the expression instead of `Nil`:

```
scala> val xs = 1 #::: 2 #::: 3 #::: LazyList.empty
val xs: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>)
```

The REPL output shows that the `LazyList` has not been computed yet. This means that the `LazyList` has been created,

but no elements have been allocated yet. As another example, you can create a `LazyList` with a range:

```
scala> val xs = (1 to 100_000_000).to(LazyList)
val xs: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>)
```

Now you can attempt to access the head and tail of the `LazyList`. The head is returned immediately:

```
scala> xs.head
res0: Int = 1
```

but the tail isn't evaluated yet:

```
scala> xs.tail
val res1: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>)
```

The output still shows “not computed.” As discussed in [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), transformer methods are computed lazily, so when transformers are called, you see the “<not computed>” output in the REPL:

```
scala> xs.take(5)
val res2: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>

scala> xs.filter(_ < 200)
val res3: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>

scala> xs.filter(_ > 200)
val res4: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>

scala> xs.map { _ * 2 }
val res5: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>
```

However, be careful with methods that aren't transformers.

Calls to the following *strict* methods are evaluated immediately and can easily cause `java.lang.OutOfMemoryError` errors:

```
xs.max
xs.size
xs.sum
```

TRANSFORMER METHODS

Transformer methods are collection methods that convert a given input collection to a new output collection, based on an algorithm you provide to transform the data. This includes methods like `map`, `filter`, and `reverse`. When using these methods, you're transforming the input collection to a new output collection.

Methods like `max`, `size`, and `sum` don't fit that definition, so they attempt to operate on the `LazyList`, and if the `LazyList` requires more memory than you can allocate, you'll get an `java.lang.OutOfMemoryError`.

As a point of comparison, if I had attempted to use a `List` in these examples, I would have encountered a `java.lang.OutOfMemory` error as soon as I attempted to create the `List`:

```
val xs = (1 to 100_000_000).toList
// result: java.lang.OutOfMemoryError: Java heap
```

Conversely, a `LazyList` gives you a chance to specify a huge list and begin working with its elements:

```
val xs = (1 to 100_000_000).to(LazyList)
xs(0)    // returns 1
xs(1)    // returns 2
```

Discussion

In the Scala 2.13 collections redesign, `LazyList` replaced the `Stream` class, which has been deprecated. Per [the official blog post about the collections redesign](#), this was partially done within the overall effort to reduce confusion in the collections design. Also per that blog post, both the head and tail of a `LazyList` are accessed lazily, whereas in `Stream` only the tail was accessed lazily.

[The `LazyList` Scaladoc](#) contains several more key performance-related notes, including these:

- Elements are memoized, meaning that the value of each element is computed at most once.
- Elements are computed in order and never skipped.
- A `LazyList` can be infinite in length, in which case methods like `count`, `sum`, `max`, and `min` will not terminate.

See that Scaladoc page for more details and examples.

See Also

- [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), shows how to create views on collections, which work like `LazyList`.

12.7 Making ArrayBuffer Your Go-To Mutable Sequence

Problem

You want to create an array whose size can change, i.e., a completely mutable array.

Solution

An `Array` is mutable in that its elements can change, but its size can't change. To create a mutable indexed sequence whose size can change, use the `ArrayBuffer` class.

To use an `ArrayBuffer`, import it into scope and then create an instance. You can declare an `ArrayBuffer` without initial elements by specifying the type it contains, and then add elements later:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer  
val a = ArrayBuffer[String]()
```

```
val a = ArrayBuffer[String]()

a += "Ben"      // a: ArrayBuffer(Ben)
a += "Jerry"    // a: ArrayBuffer(Ben, Jerry)
a += "Dale"     // a: ArrayBuffer(Ben, Jerry, Dale)
```

`ArrayBuffer` has all the methods you'll find with other mutable sequences. These are some common ways to add elements to an `ArrayBuffer`:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer

// initialize with elements
val characters = ArrayBuffer("Ben", "Jerry")

// add one element
characters += "Dale"

// add multiple elements with any IterableOnce type
characters ++= List("Gordon", "Harry")
characters ++= Vector("Andy", "Big Ed")

// another way to add multiple elements
characters.appendAll(List("Laura", "Lucy"))

// `characters` now contains these strings:
ArrayBuffer(Ben, Jerry, Dale, Gordon, Harry, Andy)
```

Adding elements as shown in the previous examples is *appending*. The following examples show a few ways to *prepend* elements to an `ArrayBuffer`:

```
val a = ArrayBuffer(10)      // a: ArrayBuffer[Int]
a.prepend(9)                  // a: ArrayBuffer(9, 10)
a.prependAll(Seq(7, 8))       // a: ArrayBuffer(7, 8, 9, 10)

// `+=:` is an alias for `prepend`, `++=:` is an alias for `prependAll`
6 +=: a                      // a: ArrayBuffer(6, 7, 8, 9, 10)
List(4, 5) ++=: a            // a: ArrayBuffer(4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)
```

Discussion

Here are a few ways to update `ArrayBuffer` elements in place:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer

// creates an ArrayBuffer[Char]
val a = ArrayBuffer.range('A', 'F')      // a: ArrayBuffer[Char] = ArrayBuffer(A, B, C, D, E, F)

a.update(0, 'A')                        // a: ArrayBuffer[Char] = ArrayBuffer(A, B, C, D, E, F)
a(2) = 'C'                            // a: ArrayBuffer[Char] = ArrayBuffer(C, B, C, D, E, F)
```

```
a.patchInPlace(0, Seq('x', 'y'), 2)    // a: ArrayBuffer[Char]
a.patchInPlace(0, Seq('x', 'y'), 3)    // a: ArrayBuffer[Char]
a.patchInPlace(0, Seq('x', 'y'), 4)    // a: ArrayBuffer[Char]
```

When using `patchInPlace`:

- The first `Int` parameter is the element index where you want the replacing to start.
- The second `Int` is the number of elements you want to replace.

The first example shows how to replace two elements with two new elements. The last example shows how to replace four old elements with two new elements.

Notes about ArrayBuffer and ListBuffer

The [ArrayBuffer Scaladoc](#) provides these details about `ArrayBuffer` performance: “Append, update, and random access take constant time (amortized time). PrePENDs and removes are linear in the buffer size.”

If you need a mutable sequential collection that works more like a `List` (i.e., a linear sequence rather than an indexed sequence), use `ListBuffer` instead of `ArrayBuffer`. The

Scala documentation on the `ListBuffer` states, “A `Buffer` implementation backed by a list. It provides constant time prepend and append. Most other operations are linear.” See [Recipe 12.5](#) for more `ListBuffer` details.

12.8 Deleting Array and ArrayBuffer Elements

Problem

You want to delete elements from an `Array` or `ArrayBuffer`.

Solution

An `ArrayBuffer` is a mutable sequence, so you can delete elements with the usual `--=`, `---=`, `remove`, and `clear` methods.

With an `Array`, you can’t change its size, so you can’t directly delete elements. But you can reassign the elements in an `Array`, which has the effect of replacing them.

You can also apply other functional methods to both `ArrayBuffer` and `Array` while assigning the results to a new

variable.

Deleting ArrayBuffer elements

Given this ArrayBuffer:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
val x = ArrayBuffer('A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E')
```

you can remove one or more elements by value with `--=` and `-`
`--=`:

```
// remove one element
x --= 'A' // x: ArrayBuffer(b, c, d,
           //      ^

// remove multiple elements
x --- Seq('B', 'C') // x: ArrayBuffer(d, e)
```

As shown in that last example, use `---` to remove multiple
elements that are declared in any collection that extends
`IterableOnce`:

```
val x = ArrayBuffer.range('A', 'F') // ArrayBuffer(A, B, C, D, E, F)
```

```
x --- Seq('A', 'B')      // x: ArrayBuffer(c, d, e)
x --- Array('C')         // x: ArrayBuffer(d, e)
x --- Set('D')           // x: ArrayBuffer(e)
```

Use the `remove` method to delete one element by its index in the `ArrayBuffer`, or a series of elements beginning at a starting index:

```
val x = ArrayBuffer('A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F')

x.remove(0)                  // x: ArrayBuffer(b, c, d,
                            // delete three elements, starting at index 1 (re
x.remove(1, 3)              // x: ArrayBuffer(b, f)
```

The `clear` method removes all the elements from an `ArrayBuffer`:

```
val x = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
x.clear                      // x: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer()
```

`clearAndShrink` removes all elements from an `ArrayBuffer` and resizes its internal representation:

```
// create and populate an ArrayBuffer
```

```
// Create and populate an ArrayBuffer
val x = ArrayBuffer.range(1, 1_000_000)

// remove all elements and resize the internal representation
x.clearAndShrink(0) // x: ArrayBuffer[Int] = ArrayBuffer()
```

CLEAR AND CLEARANDSHRINK

Per [the ArrayBuffer Scaladoc](#), `clear` “does not actually resize the internal representation; see `clearAndShrink` if you want to also resize internally.” The `clearAndShrink` Scaladoc states, “Clears this buffer and shrinks to `@param size` (rounding up to the next natural size).”

Replacing elements in an Array

The size of an `Array` can't be changed, so you can't directly delete elements. But you can reassign the elements in an `Array`, which has the effect of replacing them:

```
val a = Array("apple", "banana", "cherry")
a(0) = ""      // a: Array("", banana, cherry)
a(1) = null    // a: Array("", null, cherry)
```

Discussion

With both `Array` and `ArrayBuffer` you can also use the usual functional filtering methods to filter out elements as you assign the result to a new sequence:

```
val a = Array(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)      // a: Array[Int] = Ar...
val b = a.filter(_ > 3)          // b: Array(4, 5)
val c = a.take(2)                // c: Array(1, 2)
val d = a.drop(2)                // d: Array(3, 4, 5)
val e = a.find(_ > 3)            // e: Some(4)
val f = a.slice(0, 3)            // f: Array(1, 2, 3)
```

Use other functional filtering methods as desired with both `Array` and `ArrayBuffer`.

12.9 Creating and Updating an Array

Problem

You want to create and optionally populate an `Array`.

Solution

There are several different ways to define and populate an `Array`. You can create an array with initial values, in which

case Scala can determine the array type implicitly:

```
val nums = Array(1, 2, 3)          // Array[Int]
val fruits = Array("a", "b", "c")   // Array[String]
```

If you don't like the type Scala determines, you can assign it manually:

```
val a = Array(1, 2)                // a: Array[Int]
val a = Array[Long](1, 2)           // a: Array[Long]
```

You can create an empty array and then add new elements to it while assigning the result to a new variable:

```
val a = Array[Int]()              // a: Array[Int] = []
// append one element or multiple elements
val b = a :+ 1                   // b: Array(1)
val c = b ++ Seq(2, 3)            // c: Array(1, 2, 3)

// prepend one element or multiple elements
val d = 10 +: c                 // d: Array(10, 1, 2, 3)
val e = Array(8, 9) ++: d        // e: Array(8, 9, 10, 11)
```

Similarly, you can define an array with an initial size and type and then populate it later. In the first step, this example creates an `Array[String]` with one thousand initial `null` elements, and then I start adding elements to it:

```
// create an array with an initial size
val babyNames = new Array[String](1_000)

// somewhere later in the code ...
babyNames(0) = "Alvin"           // Array(Alvin, null)
babyNames(1) = "Alexander"      // Array(Alvin, Alexander)
```

While we generally try to avoid `null` values in Scala, you can create a null `var` reference to an array, and then assign it later:

```
// this makes `fruits` a null value
var fruits: Array[String] = _           // fruits: Array[String] = null

// later in the code ...
fruits = Array("apple", "banana")       // fruits: Array[String] = Array(apple, banana)
```

The following examples show a handful of other ways to create and populate an `Array`:

```
val x = (1 to 5).toArray                  // x: Array[Int] = Array(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
```

```
val x = Array.range(1, 5)                      // x: Array[Int]
val x = Array.range(0, 10, 2)                    // x: Array[Int]
val x = List(1, 2, 3).toArray                  // x: Array[Int]
"Hello".toArray                                // x: Array[Char]
val x = Array.fill(3) ("foo")                   // x: Array[String]
val x = Array.tabulate(5)(n => n * n)         // x: Array[Int]
```

Discussion

The `Array` is an interesting creature:

- It's backed by a Java array, but Scala arrays can also be generic, so that you can have an `Array[A]`.
- Like the Java array, it's *mutable* in that its elements can be changed, but it's *immutable* in that its size cannot be changed.
- It's compatible with Scala sequences, so if a function expects a `Seq[A]` you can pass it an `Array[A]`.

Because arrays can be mutated, you definitely don't want to use them when writing code in a functional programming style.

In regard to being backed by a Java array, the [Scala 2.13 arrays page](#) states this about the `Array` type:

Scala arrays correspond one-to-one to Java arrays. That is, a Scala array `Array[Int]` is represented as a Java `int[]`, an `Array[Double]` is represented as a Java `double[]`, etc.

You can see that for yourself if you create a file named `Test.scala` with this code:

```
class Test:  
    val nums = Array(1, 2, 3)
```

If you compile that file with `scalac` and then decompile it with a tool like JAD, you'll see this Java code:

```
private final int nums[] = {  
    1, 2, 3  
};
```

Accessing and updating elements

The `Array` is an *indexed* sequential collection, so accessing and changing values by their index position is straightforward and fast. Once you've created an `Array`, access its elements by enclosing the desired element number in parentheses:

```
val a = Array('A', 'B', 'C')
val elem0 = a(0)    // elem0: a
val elem1 = a(1)    // elem1: b
```

Just as you access an array element by index, you update elements in a similar way:

```
a(0) = 'A'          // a: Array(A, b, c)
a(1) = 'B'          // a: Array(A, B, c)
```

Why use Array?

Because the `Array` type has a combination of immutable and mutable characteristics, you may wonder when it should be used. One reason is performance. Certain `Array` operations are faster than other collections. For instance, in tests on my current computer, running `b.sortInPlace` with an `Array` of five million randomized `Int` values consistently takes about 500 ms:

```
import scala.util.Random
val v: Vector[Int] = (1 to 5_000_000).toVector

// create a randomized Array[Int]
val a: Array[Int] = Random.shuffle(v).toArray
```

```
a.sortInPlace // takes ~500ms
```

Conversely, creating a randomized `Vector` in the same way and calling its `sorted` method consistently takes over three seconds:

```
randomVector.sorted // takes about 3,100ms
```

So in this example, sorting the `Array[Int]` with `sortInPlace` is about six times faster than sorting a `Vector[Int]` with `sorted`. As the saying goes, your mileage (performance) may vary, but it's important to know that in some situations an `Array` can be faster than other collection types. The See Also section has links related to sequence performance.

HOW DOES ARRAY WORK LIKE OTHER SEQUENCES?

When you realize that the Scala `Array` is backed by the Java array, you may wonder how `Array` can possibly work like other Scala sequences. The fourth edition of the book *Programming in Scala* states that “arrays are compatible with sequences, because there’s an implicit conversion from `Array` to `ArraySeq`.” Also, another implicit conversion related to `ArrayOps` “adds all sequence methods to arrays, but does not turn the array into a sequence.”

See Also

- [The official Scala website's page on arrays](#) has a thorough discussion of them including background on its implementation.
- [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#), discusses `Array` class performance.
- In his 2016 blog post, [“Benchmarking Scala Collections”](#), Li Haoyi describes running a series of performance benchmarks, showing where `Array` performs well. His benchmark code is available at github.com/lihaoyi/scala-bench.

12.10 Creating Multidimensional Arrays

Problem

You need to create a multidimensional array, i.e., an array with two or more dimensions.

Solution

There are two main solutions:

- Use `Array.ofDim` to create a multidimensional array. You can use this approach to create arrays of up to five dimensions. With this approach you need to know the number of rows and columns at creation time.
- Create arrays of arrays as needed.

Both approaches are shown in this solution.

Using `Array.ofDim`

Use the `Array.ofDim` method to create the array you need:

```
val rows = 2
val cols = 3

val a = Array.ofDim[String](rows, cols)

// `a` now looks like this:
Array[Array[String]] = Array(
    Array(null, null, null),
    Array(null, null, null)
)
```

After declaring the array, add elements to it:

```
a(0)(0) = "a"    // row 1
a(0)(1) = "b"
```

```
a(0)(2) = "c"  
a(1)(0) = "d"    // row 2  
a(1)(1) = "e"  
a(1)(2) = "f"
```

Access the elements using parentheses, similar to a one-dimensional array:

```
a(0)(0)    // a  
a(1)(2)    // f
```

Iterate over the array with a `for` loop:

```
scala> for  
|      i <- 0 until rows  
|      j <- 0 until cols  
|    do println(s"( $i ) ( $j ) = ${a(i)(j)}")  
(0)(0) = a  
(0)(1) = b  
(0)(2) = c  
(1)(0) = d  
(1)(1) = e  
(1)(2) = f
```

To create an array with more dimensions, just follow that same pattern. Here's the code for a three-dimensional array:

```

val x, y, z = 10
val a = Array.ofDim[Int] (x,y,z)
for
    i <- 0 until x
    j <- 0 until y
    k <- 0 until z
do
    println(s"( $i ) ( $j ) ( $k ) = ${a(i)(j)(k)}")

```

Using an array of arrays

Another approach is to create an array whose elements are arrays:

```

val a = Array(
    Array("a", "b", "c"),
    Array("d", "e", "f")
)

val x = a(0)           // x: Array(a, b, c)
val x = a(1)           // x: Array(d, e, f)
val x = a(0)(0)        // x: a

```

This gives you more control of the process and lets you create “ragged” arrays (where each contained array may be a different size):

```
val a = Array(  
    Array("a", "b", "c"),  
    Array("d", "e"),  
    Array("f")  
)
```

You can also declare your variable as a `var` and create the same array in multiple steps:

```
var arr = Array(Array("a", "b", "c"))  
arr ++= Array(Array("d", "e"))  
arr ++= Array(Array("f"))  
  
// result:  
Array(Array(a, b, c), Array(d, e), Array(f))
```

Discussion

Decompiling the `Array.ofDim` solution helps to understand how this works behind the scenes. If you create the following Scala class in a file named *Test.scala*:

```
class Test:  
    val arr = Array.ofDim[String](2, 3)
```

then compile that class with `scalac`, and then decompile it with a tool like JAD, you can see the Java code that's created:

```
private final String arr[][];
```

Similarly, creating a Scala three-dimensional `Array` like this:

```
val arr = Array.ofDim[String](2, 2, 2)
```

results in a Java array like this:

```
private final String arr[][][];
```

As you might expect, the code generated by using the “array of arrays” approach is more complicated.

The `Array.ofDim` approach is unique to the `Array` class; there is no `ofDim` method on a `List`, `Vector`, `ArrayBuffer`, etc. But the “array of arrays” solution is not unique to the `Array` class; you can have a “list of lists,” “vector of vectors,” and so on.

Finally, if you have an array of arrays, remember that if needed, you can convert it to a single array with `flatten`:

```
val a = Array.ofDim[Int](2, 3)      // a: Array[Arra
val b = a.flatten                      // b: Array(0,
```

12.11 Sorting Arrays

Problem

You want to sort the elements in an `Array` (or `ArrayBuffer`).

Solution

Use the sorting methods shown in [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#), (`sortBy`, `sorted`, `sortWith`, `sortInPlace`, `sortInPlaceBy`, and `sortInPlaceWith`), or use the special `scala.util.Sorting.quickSort` method. This solution demonstrates the `quickSort` method.

If you’re working with an `Array` that holds elements of a type that extends `scala.math.Ordered`, or that has an implicit or explicit `Ordering`, you can sort the `Array` in place using the `scala.util.Sorting.quickSort` method. For example, because the `String` class has an implicit `Ordering`, it can be used with `quickSort`:

```
val fruits = Array("cherry", "apple", "banana")
scala.util.Sorting.quickSort(fruits)
fruits // Array(apple, banana, cherry)
```

Notice that `quickSort` sorts the `Array` in place; there's no need to assign the result to a new variable. This example works because the `String` class (via `StringOps`) has an implicit `Ordering`.

Discussion

A simple class like this `Person` class won't work with `Sorting.quickSort` because it doesn't provide any information on how the data should be sorted:

```
class Person(val firstName: String, val lastName
override def toString = s"$firstName $lastName"

val peeps = Array(
  Person("Jessica", "Day"),
  Person("Nick", "Miller"),
  Person("Winston", "Bishop"),
  Person("", "Schmidt"),
  Person("Coach", ""),
)
```

Attempting to sort that `Array` results in an error:

```
// results in this error: "No implicit Ordering c  
scala.util.Sorting.quickSort(peeps)
```

The solution is to extend the `scala.math.Ordered` trait, as demonstrated in [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#), or provide an implicit or explicit `Ordering`. This solution demonstrates an explicit `Ordering`:

```
object LastNameOrdering extends Ordering[Person]  
  def compare(a: Person, b: Person) = a.lastName  
  
scala.util.Sorting.quickSort(peeps) (LastNameOrdering)  
// result: Array(Coach , Winston Bishop, Jess
```

This approach works because one of the overloaded `quickSort` methods accepts an (implicit) `Ordering` argument in its second parameter list, as shown in its type signature:

```
def quickSort[K] (a: Array[K]) (implicit arg0: math.Ordering[K]): A
```

Using a given ordering

As mentioned, `arg0` is marked as an *implicit* parameter. A parameter that's marked `implicit` is the Scala 2 equivalent of a Scala 3 `using` parameter. This means that when a `math.Ordering` `given` value is in the current scope, it will automatically be used as the `arg0` parameter in that parameter group; you don't even need to specify it.

For example, first define a `given` value that's an instance of `Ordering[Person]`:

```
given personOrdering: Ordering[Person] with
  def compare(a: Person, b: Person) = a.lastNa
```

Then when you call `quickSort` on the `peeps` array, the result is the same as the previous example:

```
import scala.util.Sorting.quickSort
quickSort(peeps)
// result: peeps: Array[Person] =
// Array(Coach , Winston Bishop, Jessica Day, Nic
```

Notice that when I call `quickSort`, it isn't necessary to pass in the `personOrdering` instance(!). Because `personOrdering` is defined as a `given` value, the compiler is nice enough to find it for us. It knows it needs an `Ordering[Person]` parameter, and `personOrdering` has that type, and it's marked as a `given` value.

This is what Scala 2 `implicit` parameters—and Scala 3 `using` parameters—do for us, in combination with `given` values. It's just as though we had written the `quickSort` code like this, manually passing the `personOrdering` parameter into the second parameter group:

```
quickSort(peeps)(personOrdering)
```

Note that because the `personOrdering` name really isn't needed in the code, the `given` parameter could have also been declared without a variable name, like this:

```
given Ordering[Person] with
    def compare(a: Person, b: Person) = a.lastNar
```

For more details on this approach, see [Recipe 23.8, “Using Term Inference with given and using”](#).

Performance

I demonstrate this solution because it's unique to the `Array` class, and it may also have better performance for an `Array` than the solutions shown in [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#).

For instance, my tests show that `quicksort` may be a little faster than `sortInPlace` for arrays of integers with a few million elements. But as with any performance discussion, be sure to test the alternatives in your own application.

See Also

The Scaladoc pages for the `Sorting`, `Ordered`, and `Ordering` types are very good, so see these pages for more examples and details:

- [scala.util.Sorting](#)
- [scala.math.Ordering](#)
- [scala.math.Ordered](#)

See [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#), for information about how to mix the `Ordered` trait into your own custom classes.

Chapter 13. Collections: Common Sequence Methods

Where the two previous chapters primarily focused on sequence *classes*, this chapter focuses on sequence *methods*, specifically the most commonly used sequence methods. But before digging into those recipes, there are a few important concepts to know when working with collections class methods:

- Predicates
- Anonymous functions
- Implied loops

Predicate

A *predicate* is simply a method, function, or anonymous function that takes one or more input parameters and returns a Boolean value. For instance, the following method returns either `true` or `false`, so it's a predicate:

```
def isEven(i: Int): Boolean =  
    i % 2 == 0
```

A predicate is a simple concept, but you'll hear the term so often when working with collection methods that it's important to mention it.

Anonymous Functions

The concept of an *anonymous function* is also important. It's described in depth in [Recipe 10.1, “Using Function Literals \(Anonymous Functions\)”](#), but as a quick example, this code shows the long form for an anonymous function that does the same work as the `isEven` method:

```
(i: Int) => i % 2 == 0
```

Here's the short form of the same function:

```
_ % 2 == 0
```

That doesn't look like much by itself, but when it's combined with the `filter` method on a collection, it makes for a lot of power in just a little bit of code:

```
scala> val list = List.range(1, 10)
list: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
```

```
scala> val events = list.filter(_ % 2 == 0)
events: List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6, 8)
```

Implied Loops

The `filter` method is a nice lead-in to the third topic: *implied loops*. As you can see from that example, `filter` contains a loop that applies your function to every element in the collection and returns a new collection. You *could* live without the `filter` method and write equivalent code like this:

```
for
  e <- list
  if e % 2 == 0
yield
  e
```

But I think you'll agree that the `filter` approach is both more concise and easier to read.

Collection methods like `filter`, `foreach`, `map`, `reduceLeft`, and many more have loops built into their algorithms. Because of these built-in methods, you'll write far

fewer custom `for` loops when writing Scala code than with many other languages.

Recipes in This Chapter

While sequence classes have over one hundred built-in methods, the recipes in this chapter focus on the most commonly used methods, including:

- `filter`, which lets you filter a collection with a given predicate
- `map`, which lets you apply a transformation function to each element in a collection
- Methods to extract sequences and subsets of an existing sequence
- Methods to find unique elements in a sequence
- Methods to merge and zip sequences together
- Methods to randomize and sort sequences
- Two methods you can use to convert sequences into strings

These capabilities—and several more—are demonstrated in the following recipes.

13.1 Choosing a Collection Method to Solve a Problem

Problem

There are a large number of methods available to Scala collections classes, and you need to choose a method to solve a problem.

Solution

The Scala collections classes provide a wealth of methods that can be used to manipulate data. Most methods take either a function or a predicate as an argument.

The methods that are available are listed in two ways in this recipe. In the next few paragraphs, the methods are grouped into categories to help you find what you need. Then in the tables that follow, a brief description and method signature are provided.

Methods organized by category

Filtering methods

Methods that can be used to filter a collection include

```
collect, diff, distinct, drop, dropRight,  
dropWhile, filter, filterNot, filterInPlace,  
find, foldLeft, foldRight, head, headOption,  
init, intersect, last, lastOption, slice, tail,  
take, takeRight, takeWhile, and union.
```

Transformer methods

Transformer methods take at least one input collection to create a new output collection, typically using an algorithm you provide. They include `+`, `++`, `+:`, `++:`, `appended`, `appendedAll`, `diff`, `distinct`, `collect`, `concat`, `flatMap`, `flatten`, `inits`, `map`, `mapInPlace`, `patch`, `reverse`, `sorted`, `sortBy`, `sortWith`, `sortInPlace`, `sortInPlaceWith`, `sortInPlaceBy`, `tails`, `takeWhile`, `updated`, `zip`, and `zipWithIndex`.

Grouping methods

These methods let you take an existing collection and create multiple groups from that one collection. They include `groupBy`, `grouped`, `groupMap`, `partition`, `sliding`, `span`, `splitAt`, and `unzip`.

Informational and mathematical methods

These methods provide information about a collection, and include `canEqual`, `contains`, `containsSlice`, `count`, `endsWith`, `exists`, `find`, `findLast`, `forAll`, `indexOf`, `indexOfSlice`, `indexWhere`, `isDefinedAt`, `isEmpty`, `last`, `lastOption`, `lastIndexOf`, `lastIndexOfSlice`, `lastIndexWhere`, `length`, `lengthIs`, `max`, `maxBy`, `maxOption`, `maxByOption`, `min`, `minBy`, `minOption`, `minByOption`, `nonEmpty`, `product`, `segmentLength`, `size`, `sizeIs`, `startsWith`, and `sum`. The methods `foldLeft`, `foldRight`, `reduceLeft`, and `reduceRight` can also be used with a function you supply to obtain information about a collection.

Others

A few other methods are hard to categorize, including `view`, `foreach`, `addString`, and `mkString`. `view` creates a lazy view on a collection (see [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#)); `foreach` is like a `for` loop, letting you iterate over the elements in a collection and perform a side effect on each element; `addString` and `mkString` let you build a `String` from a collection.

There are even more methods than those listed here. For instance, there's a collection of `to*` methods that let you convert the current collection (a `List`, for example) to other collection types (`toArray`, `toBuffer`, `toVector`, etc.). Check the Scaladoc for your collections class to find more built-in methods.

Common collection methods

The following tables list the most common collection methods. Note that all quotes in the descriptions come from the Scaladoc for each class.

[**Table 13-1**](#) lists methods that are common to all collections via `Iterable`. The following symbols are used in the first column of the table:

- `c` refers to a sequential collection.
- `f` refers to a function.
- `p` refers to a predicate.
- `n` refers to a number.

Additional methods for mutable and immutable collections are listed in Tables [13-2](#) and [13-3](#), respectively.

Table 13-1. Common methods on Iterable collections (`scala.collection.Iterable`)

Method	Description
c collect f	Builds a new collection by applying function to all elements of the collection for which the function is defined.
c count p	Counts the number of elements in the collection for which the predicate is satisfied.
c drop n	Returns all elements in the collection after the first n elements.
c dropWhile p	Returns a collection that contains the prefix of elements that satisfy the predicate p.
c exists p	Returns true if the predicate is true for at least one element in the collection.
c filter p	Returns all elements from the collection for which the predicate is true.
c filterNot p	Returns all elements from the collection for which the predicate is false.

Method	Description
c find p	Returns the first element that matches the predicate as <code>Option[A]</code> .
c flatMap f	Returns a new collection by applying the function <code>f</code> to all elements of the collection <code>c</code> (like <code>map</code>) and then flattening the elements of the resulting collections.
c flatten	Converts a collection of collections (e.g. of lists) to a single collection (single list).
c foldLeft(s)(f)	Applies the operation <code>f</code> to successive elements of the collection <code>c</code> , going from left to right (left associative), starting with the seed value <code>s</code> .
c foldRight(s)(f)	Applies the operation <code>f</code> to successive elements of the collection <code>c</code> , going from right to left (right associative), starting with the seed value <code>s</code> .
c forAll p	Returns <code>true</code> if the predicate is true for all elements, <code>false</code> otherwise.

Method	Description
c foreach f	Applies the function <code>f</code> to all elements of the collection (where <code>f</code> is typically a side-effecting function).
c groupBy f	Partitions the collection into a <code>Map</code> according to the function.
c head	Returns the first element of the collection. Throws a <code>NoSuchElementException</code> if the collection is empty.
c headOption	Returns the first element of the collection as <code>Some[A]</code> if the element exists, or <code>None</code> if the collection is empty.
c init	Selects all elements from the collection except the last one. Throws an <code>UnsupportedOperationException</code> if the collection is empty.
c initss	Iterates over the <code>initss</code> of this iterable.

Method	Description
<code>c isEmpty</code>	Returns <code>true</code> if the collection is empty, otherwise.
<code>c knownSize</code>	“The number of elements in the collection can be cheaply computed, -1 otherwise. This usually means: Not requiring a collection traversal.”
<code>c last</code>	Returns the last element from the collection. Throws a <code>NoSuchElementException</code> if the collection is empty.
<code>c lastOption</code>	Returns the last element of the collection as <code>Some [A]</code> if the element exists, or <code>None</code> if the collection is empty.
<code>c1 lazyZip c2</code>	A lazy version of the <code>zip</code> method.
<code>c map f</code>	Creates a new collection by applying a function <code>f</code> to all the elements of the collection.

Method	Description
<code>c max</code>	<p>Returns the largest element from the collection.</p> <p>Can throw <code>java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException</code>.</p>
<code>c maxOption</code>	<p>Returns the largest element from the collection as an <code>Option</code>.</p>
<code>c maxBy f</code>	<p>Returns the largest element as measured by the function <code>f</code>. Can throw <code>java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException</code>.</p>
<code>c maxByOption</code>	<p>Returns the largest element as an <code>Option</code> measured by the function <code>f</code>.</p>
<code>c min</code>	<p>Returns the smallest element from the collection.</p> <p>Can throw <code>java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException</code>.</p>
<code>c minOption</code>	<p>Returns the smallest element from the collection as an <code>Option</code>.</p>

Method	Description
<code>c minBy</code>	Returns the smallest element as measured by the function <code>f</code> . Can throw <code>java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException</code> .
<code>c minByOption</code>	Returns the smallest element as an Option measured by the function <code>f</code> .
<code>c mkString</code>	Several options to convert the sequence to a string.
<code>c nonEmpty</code>	Returns <code>true</code> if the collection contains at least one element, <code>false</code> otherwise.
<code>c partition p</code>	Returns two collections according to some algorithm.
<code>c product</code>	Returns the multiple of all elements in the collection.

Method	Description
<code>c reduceLeft op</code>	The same as <code>foldLeft</code> , but begins element of the collection. Can throw <code>java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException</code> .
<code>c reduceRight op</code>	The same as <code>foldRight</code> , but begins element of the collection. Can throw <code>java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException</code> .
<code>c scanLeft op</code>	Similar to <code>reduceLeft</code> , but returns <code>Iterable</code> .
<code>c scanRight op</code>	Similar to <code>reduceRight</code> , but returns <code>Iterable</code> .
<code>c size</code>	Returns the size of the collection.
<code>c1 sizeCompare(c2)</code>	Compare the size of <code>c1</code> to the size of <code>c2</code> . <0 if <code>c1</code> is smaller; 0 if they are the same; >0 if <code>c1</code> is larger.

Method	Description
<code>c.sizeIs n</code>	Compare the size of a collection to <code>n</code> while traversing as few elements as possible.
<code>c.slice(from, to)</code>	Returns the interval of elements between element <code>from</code> and ending at element <code>to</code> .
<code>c.sliding(size, step)</code>	Works by passing a sliding window sequence, returning sequences of a size <code>size</code> by <code>step</code> . The <code>step</code> parameter lets you skip elements.
<code>c.span p</code>	Returns a collection of two collections created by <code>c.takeWhile(p)</code> and the rest of the collection created by <code>c.dropWhile(p)</code> .
<code>c.splitAt n</code>	Returns a collection of two collections splitting the collection <code>c</code> at element <code>n</code> .
<code>c.sum</code>	Returns the sum of all elements in the collection.

Method	Description
<code>c tail</code>	Returns all elements from the collection after the first element.
<code>c tails</code>	Iterates over the tails of the sequence.
<code>c take n</code>	Returns the first <code>n</code> elements of the collection.
<code>c takeWhile p</code>	Returns elements from the collection while the predicate is <code>true</code> . Stops when the predicate becomes <code>false</code> .
<code>c tapEach f</code>	Applies a side-effecting function <code>f</code> to each element in <code>c</code> , while also returning the collection. Insert a side effect in a chain of methods such as logging.
<code>c unzip</code>	The opposite of <code>zip</code> , breaks a collection of pairs into two collections by dividing each element into two pieces, as in breaking up a collection of pairs into two collections of elements.

Method	Description
c view	Returns a nonstrict (lazy) view of the collection.
c1 zip c2	Creates a collection of pairs by matching element 0 of $c1$ with element 0 of $c2$, element 1 of $c1$ with element 1 of $c2$, etc.
c zipWithIndex	Zips the collection with its indices.

There are additional methods, but these are the most common.
See the Scaladoc for the collection you're working with for
more methods.

Mutable collection methods

Table 13-2 shows methods that are commonly available on mutable collections. (Although these are all methods, some of them look like built-in operators.)

Table 13-2. Common operators (methods) on mutable collections

Method	Description
--------	-------------

Method	Description
<code>c += x</code>	Adds the element <code>x</code> to the collection <code>c</code> . An alias for <code>addOne</code> .
<code>c1 += c2</code>	Adds the elements in the collection <code>c2</code> to the collection <code>c1</code> . An alias for <code>addAll</code> .
<code>c -= x</code>	Removes the element <code>x</code> from the collection <code>c</code> . An alias for <code>subtractOne</code> .
<code>c -= (x, y, z)</code>	Removes the elements <code>x</code> , <code>y</code> , and <code>z</code> from the collection <code>c</code> .
<code>c1 -= c2</code>	Removes the elements in the collection <code>c2</code> from the collection <code>c1</code> . An alias for <code>subtractAll</code> .

Method	Description
<code>c(n) = x</code>	Assigns the value <code>x</code> to the element <code>c(n)</code> .
<code>c.append(x)</code>	Appends the element <code>x</code> to the collection <code>c</code> .
<code>c1.appendAll(c2)</code>	Appends the elements in <code>c2</code> to the collection <code>c1</code> .
<code>c.clear()</code>	Removes all elements from the collection.
<code>c.filterInPlace(p)</code>	Retains all elements in the collection for which the predicate is <code>true</code> .

Method	Description
c flatMapInPlace f	Assuming that c is a list of lists, updates all elements by applying the function f to the elements. Works like map and then flatten.
c mapInPlace f	Updates all elements in the collection by applying the function to the elements.
c1.patchInPlace(i, c2, n)	Starting at index i, patch in the sequence c2, replacing the number of elements n. Set n to 0 to insert the new sequence at index i.
c prepend x	Prepends the element x to the collection c.

Method	Description
<code>c1 prependAll c2</code>	Prepends the elements in <code>c2</code> to the collection <code>c1</code> .
<code>c sortInPlace</code>	Sort the collection in place according to an <code>Ordering</code> .
<code>c sortInPlaceBy f</code>	Sorts the collection in place according to an implicitly given <code>Ordering</code> with the transformation function <code>f</code> .
<code>c sortInPlaceWith f</code>	Sorts the collection in place according to the comparison function <code>f</code> .
<code>c remove i</code>	Removes the element at index <code>i</code> .

Method	Description
<code>c.remove(i, len)</code>	Removes the elements beginning at index <code>i</code> and continuing for length <code>len</code> .
<code>c.update(i, e)</code>	Updates the element at index <code>i</code> with the new value <code>e</code> .

Note that symbolic method names like `+=` and `-=` are now aliases for named methods. For instance, `+=` is an alias for `addOne`. See the Scaladoc for the mutable collection you’re working with for more methods.

Immutable collection methods

[Table 13-3](#) shows the common methods for working with immutable collections. Note that immutable collections can’t be modified, so the result of each expression in the first column must be assigned to a new variable. (Also, see [Recipe 11.3](#), “[Understanding Mutable Variables with Immutable](#)

[Collections](#)”, for details on using a mutable variable with an immutable collection.)

Table 13-3. Methods that are unique to immutable collections

Method	Description
<code>c1 ++ c2</code>	Creates a new collection by appending the elements in the collection <code>c2</code> to the collection <code>c1</code> . An alias for <code>concat</code> .
<code>c :+ e</code>	Returns a new collection with the element <code>e</code> appended to the collection <code>c</code> . An alias for <code>appended</code> .
<code>c1 :++ c2</code>	Returns a new collection with the elements in <code>c2</code> appended to the elements in <code>c1</code> . An alias for <code>appendedAll</code> .
<code>e +: c</code>	Returns a new collection with the element <code>e</code> prepended to the collection <code>c</code> . An alias for <code>prepended</code> .

Method	Description
<code>c1 ++: c2</code>	Returns a new collection with the elements in <code>c1</code> prepended to the elements in <code>c2</code> . An alias for <code>prependedAll</code> .
<code>e :: list</code>	Returns a <code>List</code> with the element <code>e</code> prepended to the <code>List</code> named <code>list</code> . (<code>::</code> works only on <code>List</code> .)
<code>list1 ::: list2</code>	Returns a <code>List</code> with the elements in <code>list1</code> prepended to the elements in <code>list2</code> . (<code>:::</code> works only on <code>List</code> .)
<code>c updated(i, e)</code>	Returns a copy of <code>c</code> with the element at index <code>i</code> replaced by <code>e</code> .

Note that symbolic method names like `++` and `++=` are now aliases for named methods. For instance, `++` is an alias for `concat`. Also note that the two methods `-` and `--` were deprecated for most sequences several versions ago and are only available on sets currently, so use the filtering methods

listed in [Table 13-1](#) to return a new collection with the desired elements removed.

This table lists only the most common methods available on immutable collections. There are other methods available, such as the `-` and `--` methods being available on an immutable `Set`. See the Scaladoc for your current collection for even more methods.

Maps

Maps have additional methods, as shown in [Table 13-4](#). In this table, the following symbols are used in the first column:

- `m`, `m1`, and `m2` refer to a map.
- `mm` refers to a mutable map.
- `k`, `k1`, and `k2` refer to map keys.
- `p` refers to a predicate (a function that returns `true` or `false`).
- `v`, `v1`, and `v2` refer to map values.
- `c` refers to a collection.

Table 13-4. Table 13-4. Common methods for immutable and mutable maps

Map method	Description
------------	-------------

Map method	Description
Methods for immutable maps	
<code>m + (k->v)</code>	<p>Returns a map with a new key/value pair added. Can also be used to update the key/value pair with key <code>k</code>. An alias for <code>updated</code>.</p>
<code>m1 ++ m2</code>	<p>Returns the combination of maps <code>m1</code> and <code>m2</code>. Can also be used to update key/value pairs. An alias for <code>concat</code>.</p>
<code>m ++ Seq(k1->v1, k2->v2)</code>	<p>Returns the combination of map <code>m</code> and the elements in the <code>Seq</code>. Can also be used to update key/value pairs. An alias for <code>concat</code>.</p>

Map method	Description
<code>m - k</code>	Returns a map with the key <code>k</code> (and its corresponding value) removed. An alias for <code>removed</code> .
<code>m - Seq(k1, k2, k3)</code>	Returns a map with the keys <code>k1</code> , <code>k2</code> , and <code>k3</code> removed. An alias for <code>removed</code> .
<code>m -- k</code> <code>m --</code> <code>Seq(k1, k2)</code>	Returns a map with the key(s) removed. Although <code>Seq</code> is shown, this can be any <code>IterableOnce</code> . An alias for <code>removedAll</code> .
Methods for mutable maps	
<code>mm(k) = v</code>	Assigns the value <code>v</code> to the key <code>k</code> .
<code>mm += (k -> v)</code>	Adds the key/value pair(s) to the mutable map <code>mm</code> . An alias for <code>addOne</code> .

Map method	Description
<pre>mm += Map(k1 -> v1, k2 -> v2)</pre>	<p>Adds the key/value pair(s) to the mutable map <code>mm</code>. An alias for <code>addAll</code>.</p>
<pre>mm += List(k1 -> v1, k2 -> v2)</pre>	<p>Adds the elements in the collection <code>c</code> to the mutable map <code>mm</code>. An alias for <code>addAll</code>.</p>
<pre>mm -= k</pre>	<p>Removes map entries from the mutable map <code>mm</code> based on the given key. An alias for <code>subtractOne</code>.</p>
<pre>mm --- Seq(k1, k2, k3)</pre>	<p>Removes map entries from the mutable map <code>mm</code> based on the given key(s). An alias for <code>subtractAll</code>.</p>

Methods for both mutable and immutable maps

Map method	Description
<code>m(k)</code>	Returns the value associated with the key <code>k</code> .
<code>m contains k</code>	Returns <code>true</code> if the map <code>m</code> contains the key <code>k</code> .
<code>m filter p</code>	Returns a map whose keys and values match the condition of the predicate <code>p</code> .
<code>m get k</code>	Returns the value for the key <code>k</code> as <code>Some[A]</code> if the key is found, <code>None</code> otherwise.
<code>mgetOrElse(k, d)</code>	Returns the value for the key <code>k</code> if the key is found, otherwise returns the default value <code>d</code> .
<code>m.isDefinedAt k</code>	Returns <code>true</code> if the map contains the key <code>k</code> .

Map method	Description
<code>m.keys</code>	Returns the keys from the map as an <code>Iterable</code> .
<code>m.keySet</code>	Returns the keys from the map as a <code>Set</code> .
<code>m.values</code>	Returns the values from the map as an <code>Iterable</code> .
<code>m.valuesIterator</code>	Returns the values from the map as an <code>Iterator</code> .

You can also update `Map` values with the `updatedWith` and `updateWith` methods, which are available on immutable and mutable maps, respectively.

For additional methods, see the [mutable map class Scaladoc](#) and the [immutable map class Scaladoc](#).

Discussion

As you can see, Scala collection classes contain a wealth of methods (and methods that appear to be operators). Understanding these methods will help you become more productive, because as you understand them, you'll write less code and fewer loops and instead write short functions and predicates to work with these methods.

13.2 Looping Over a Collection with `foreach`

Problem

You want to iterate over the elements in a collection with the `foreach` method.

Solution

Supply the `foreach` method a function, anonymous function, or method that matches the signature `foreach` is looking for, while also solving your problem.

The `foreach` method on Scala sequences has this signature:

```
def foreach[U](f: (A) => U): Unit
```

That means that it takes a function as its only parameter, and the function takes a generic type `A` and returns nothing (`Unit`). As a practical matter, `A` is the type that's contained in your collection, such as `Int` and `String`.

The way `foreach` works is that it passes one element at a time from the collection to your function, starting with the first element and ending with the last element. The function you supply does whatever you want it to do with each element, though your function can't return anything. (If you want to return something, see the `map` method.)

As an example, a common use of `foreach` is to print information. Given a `Vector[Int]`:

```
val nums = Vector(1, 2, 3)
```

you can write a function that takes an `Int` parameter and returns nothing:

```
def printAnInt(i: Int): Unit = println(i)
```

Because `printAnInt` matches the signature `foreach` requires, you can use it with `nums` and `foreach`:

```
scala> nums.foreach(i => printAnInt(i))  
1  
2  
3
```

You can also write that expression like this:

```
nums.foreach(printAnInt(_))  
nums.foreach(printAnInt)      // most common
```

The last example shows the most commonly used form.

Similarly, you can also solve this problem by writing an anonymous function that you pass into `foreach`. These examples are all identical to using the `printAnInt` function:

```
nums.foreach(i => println(i))  
nums.foreach(println(_))  
nums.foreach(println)        // most common
```

foreach on Maps

`foreach` is also available on `Map` classes. The `Map` implementation of `foreach` has this signature:

```
def foreach[U](f: ((K, V)) => U): Unit
```

That means that it takes a function that expects two parameters (`K` and `V`, standing for *key* and *value*) and returns `U`, which stands for `Unit`. Therefore, `foreach` passes two parameters to your function. You can handle those parameters as a tuple:

```
val m = Map("first_name" -> "Nick", "last_name" -> "Doe")  
  
m.foreach(t => println(s"${t._1} -> ${t._2}"))
```

You can also use this approach:

```
m.foreach {  
    (fname, lname) => println(s"$fname -> $lname")  
}
```

See [Recipe 14.9, “Traversing a Map”](#), for other ways to iterate over a map.

SIDE EFFECTS

As shown, `foreach` applies your function to each element of the collection, but it requires that your function not return a value, and `foreach` also does not return a value. Because `foreach` doesn't return anything, it must logically be used for some other reason, such as printing output or mutating other variables. Therefore, it's said that `foreach`—and any other method that returns `Unit`—must be used for its side effect. Therefore, `foreach` is a *statement*, not an *expression*. See my blog post [“A Note About Expression-Oriented Programming”](#) for more details on statements and expressions.

Discussion

To use `foreach` with a multiline function, pass the function as a block enclosed in curly braces:

```
val longWords = StringBuilder()

"Hello world it's Al".split(" ").foreach { e =>
  if e.length > 4 then longWords.append(s"$e")
  else println("Not added: " + e)
}
```

When that code is run in the REPL, it produces this output:

```
Not added: it's
Not added: Al
```

```
val longWords: StringBuilder = Hello world
```

See Also

- You can iterate over the elements in a collection using `for` loops and `for` expressions, as detailed in [Chapter 4](#).

13.3 Using Iterators

Problem

You want (or need) to work with an iterator in a Scala application.

Solution

There are several important points to know about working with iterators in Scala:

- Unlike with Java `while` loops, Scala developers generally don't directly use the `hasNext` and `next` methods of an `Iterator`.
- Using iterators makes sense for performance reasons, such as reading large files.

- Iterators are exhausted after using them.
- While an iterator is not a collection, it has the usual collection methods.
- Iterator transformer methods are lazy.
- A subclass of `Iterator` named `BufferedIterator` provides `head` and `headOption` methods so you can peek at the value of the next element.

These points (and solutions) are covered in the following sections.

Scala developers don't directly access `hasNext` and `next`

Although using an iterator with `hasNext()` and `next()` has historically been a common way to loop over a collection in Java, Scala developers normally don't directly access those methods. Instead, we use collections methods like `map`, `filter`, and `foreach` to loop over collections, or `for` loops. To be clear, whenever I have an iterator in Scala, I've never directly written code like this:

```
val it = Iterator(1, 2, 3)

// we don't do this
```

```
val it = collection.iterator  
while (it.hasNext) ...
```

Conversely, I do write code like this:

```
val a = it.map(_ * 2)           // a: Iterator  
val b = it.filter(_ > 2)        // b: Iterator  
val c = for e <- it yield e*2  // c: Iterator
```

Iterators makes sense for performance reasons

While we don't directly call `hasNext()` and `next()`, iterators are an important concept in Scala. For example, when you read a file with the `io.Source.fromFile` method, it returns an iterator that lets you read one line at a time from the file. This makes sense, because it's not practical to read large data files into memory.

Iterators are also used in the transformer methods of *views*, which are lazy. For example, the book *Programming in Scala* demonstrates that a `lazyMap` function would be implemented with an iterator:

```
def lazyMap[T, U](coll: Iterable[T], f: T => U) =
```

```
new Iterable[U] {  
    def iterator = coll.iterator map f  
}
```

As shown in [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), using a view on a large collection can be an important performance-improving tip.

Iterators are exhausted after using them

An important part of using an iterator is knowing that it's exhausted (empty) after you use it. As you access each element, you mutate the iterator (see the Discussion) and the previous element is discarded. For instance, if you use `foreach` to print an iterator's elements, the call works the first time:

```
scala> val it = Iterator(1,2,3)  
it: Iterator[Int] = nonempty iterator  
  
scala> it.foreach(print)  
123
```

but when you attempt the same call a second time you won't get any output, because the iterator has been exhausted:

```
scala> it.foreach(print)  
(no output here)
```

An iterator behaves like a collection

Technically, an iterator isn't a collection; instead, it gives you a way to access the elements in a collection, one by one. But an iterator does define many of the methods you'll see in a normal collection class, including `foreach`, `map`, `filter`, etc. You can also convert an iterator to a collection when needed:

```
val i = Iterator(1,2,3)      // i: Iterator[Int] = ...  
val a = i.toVector          // a: Vector[Int] = Vector(1, 2, 3)  
  
val i = Iterator(1,2,3)      // i: Iterator[Int] = ...  
val b = i.toList            // b: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3)
```

Iterators are lazy

Another important point is that iterators are lazy, meaning that their transformer methods are evaluated in a nonstrict, or lazy, manner. For example, notice that the following `for` loop and the `map` and `filter` methods don't return a concrete result, they simply return an iterator:

```
val i = Iterator(1,2,3)          // i: Iterator[Int] =  
  
val a = for e <- i yield e*2    // a: Iterator[Int] =  
val b = i.map(_ * 2)            // b: Iterator[Int] =  
val c = i.filter(_ > 2)        // c: Iterator[Int] =
```

Like other lazy methods, they're only evaluated when they're forced to, such as by calling a strict method like `foreach`:

```
scala> i.map(_ + 10).foreach(println)  
11  
12  
13
```

BufferedIterator lets you peek ahead

A buffered iterator is an iterator that lets you peek at the next element without moving the iterator forward. You can create a `BufferedIterator` from an `Iterator` by calling its `buffered` method:

```
val it = Iterator(1,2)          // it: Iterator[Int] =  
val bi = it.buffered           // bi: BufferedIterator =
```

After that, you can call the `head` method on the `BufferedIterator`, and it won't affect the iterator:

```
// call 'head' as many times as desired
bi.head    // 1
bi.head    // 1
bi.head    // 1
```

On the other hand, notice what happens when you call `next` on an `Iterator` or `BufferedIterator`:

```
// 'next' advances the iterator
bi.next    // 1
bi.next    // 2
bi.next    // java.util.NoSuchElementException: ne
```

BEWARE CALLING HEAD

As discussed in [Recipe 13.1](#), you'll generally want to call `headOption` instead of `head`, because `head` will throw an exception if you call it on an empty list, or at the end of a list:

```
// create a one-element BufferedIterator
val bi = Iterator(1).buffered
    // result: BufferedIterator[Int] = <iterator>

// 'head' works fine
bi.head          // 1

// advance the iterator
bi.next          // 1
bi.headOption    // None  (headOption works as intended)

// 'head' blows up
bi.head
    // result: java.util.NoSuchElementException:
    //           next on empty iterator
```

Discussion

Conceptually, an iterator is like a pointer. When you create an iterator on a `List`, it initially points to the list's first element:

```
val x = 1 :: 2 :: Nil
      ^
```

Then when you call the iterator's `next` method, it points at the next element in the collection:

```
val x = 1 :: 2 :: Nil  
      ^
```

Finally, when the iterator gets to the end of the collection, it's considered to be exhausted. It doesn't go back to point at the first element:

```
val x = 1 :: 2 :: Nil  
      ^
```

As shown in the Solution, attempting to call `next` or `head` at this point will throw a

```
java.util.NoSuchElementException.
```

See Also

- [The iterators overview Scala documentation](#).
- [The iterator Scaladoc](#).
- [The BufferedIterator Scaladoc](#).
- [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), has more information on views, iterators, and performance.

13.4 Using zipWithIndex or zip to Create Loop Counters

Problem

You want to loop over a sequence with a `for` loop or `foreach` method, and you'd like to have access to a counter in the loop, without having to manually create a counter.

Solution

Use the `zipWithIndex` or `zip` method to create a counter. For example, assuming you have a list of characters:

```
val chars = List('A', 'B', 'C')
```

one way to print the elements in the list with a counter is by using `zipWithIndex`, `foreach`, and a `case` statement in curly braces:

```
chars.zipWithIndex.foreach {  
    case (c, i) => println(s"character '$c' has index $i")  
}
```

```
// output:  
character 'A' has index 0  
character 'B' has index 1  
character 'C' has index 2
```

As you'll see in the Discussion, this solution works because `zipWithIndex` returns a series of two-element tuples (*tuple-2*) in a sequence, like this:

```
List((a, 0), (b, 1), ...)
```

It also works because the `case` statement in the code block matches a tuple-2. Because `foreach` passes a tuple-2 to your algorithm, you can also write your code like this:

```
chars.zipWithIndex.foreach { t =>  
    println(s"character '${t._1}' has index ${t._2}")  
}
```

Finally, you can also use a `for` loop:

```
for  
(c, i) <- chars.zipWithIndex
```

```
do  
  println(s"character '$c' has index $i")
```

All the loops have the same output.

Control the starting value with zip

When you use `zipWithIndex`, the counter always starts at `0`. If you want to control the starting value, use `zip` instead:

```
for (c, i) <- chars.zip(LazyList from 1) do  
  println(s"${c} is #$${i}")
```

That loop's output is:

```
a is #1  
b is #2  
c is #3
```

Discussion

When called on a sequence, `zipWithIndex` returns a sequence of tuple-2 elements. For instance, given a `List[Char]`, you can see that `zipWithIndex` yields a list of tuple-2 values:

```
scala> val chars = List('a', 'b', 'c')
val chars: List[Char] = List(a, b, c)

scala> val zwi = chars.zipWithIndex
val zwi: List[(Char, Int)] = List((a,0), (b,1),
```

Using a case statement in curly braces

As shown in the Solution, you can use a `case` statement inside curly braces with `foreach`:

```
chars.zipWithIndex.foreach {
    case (c, i) => println(s"character '$c' has index $i")
```

This approach can be used anywhere a function literal is expected. In other situations, you can use as many `case` alternatives as needed.

Prior to Scala 2.13, that example could only be written with the `case` keyword, but with Scala 2.13 and newer that line of code can be written in any of these ways:

```
case (c, i) => println(s"character '$c' has index $i")
case (c -> i) => println(s"character '$c' has index $i")
```

```
(c, i) => println(s"character '$c' has index $i")
```

Using a lazy view

Because `zipWithIndex` creates a new sequence from an existing sequence, you may want to call `view` before invoking `zipWithIndex`, especially when working with large sequences:

```
scala> val zwi2 = chars.view.zipWithIndex
zwi2: scala.collection.View[(Char, Int)] = View(<
```

As discussed in [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), this creates a lazy view on `chars`, meaning:

- An intermediate sequence is *not* created.
- The tuple elements won’t be created until they’re needed, although in the case of loops they will generally always be needed, unless your algorithm contains a break or exception.

Because using `view` prevents an intermediate collection from being created, calling `view` before calling `zipWithIndex` can help when looping over large collections. As usual, when

performance is a concern, test your code with and without a view.

13.5 Transforming One Collection to Another with map

Problem

Like the previous recipe, you want to transform one collection into another by applying an algorithm to every element in the original collection.

Solution

Rather than using the `for / yield` combination as shown in [Recipe 4.4, “Creating a New Collection from an Existing Collection with for/yield”](#), call the `map` method on your collection, passing it a function, an anonymous function, or a method to transform each element. These examples show how to use anonymous functions:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3)

// add 1 to each element
++1 h -> map(+ 1) // h.map(+ 1)
```

```
val a = a.map(_ + 1)           // a: Vector(2, 3, 4)
val b = a.map(e => e + 1)     // b: Vector(2, 3, 4)

// double each element
val b = a.map(_ * 2)          // b: Vector(2, 4, 6)
val b = a.map(e => e * 2)    // b: Vector(2, 4, 6)
```

These examples show how to use a function (or method):

```
def plusOne(i: Int) = i + 1
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3)

// three ways to use plusOne with map
val b = a.map(plusOne)        // b: Vector(2,
val b = a.map(plusOne(_))    // b: Vector(2,
val b = a.map(e => plusOne(e)) // b: Vector(2,
```

Writing a method to work with map

When writing a method to work with `map`:

- Define the method to take a single input parameter that's the same type as the collection.
- The method return type can be whatever type you need.

For example, imagine that you have a list of strings that can potentially be converted to integers:

```
val strings = List("1", "2", "hi mom", "4", "yo")
```

You can use `map` to convert that list of strings to a list of integers. The first thing you need is a method that (a) takes a `String` and (b) returns an `Int`. For instance, as a first step to demonstrate the approach, if you want to determine the length of each string in the list, this `lengthOf` method works just fine:

```
def lengthOf(s: String): Int = s.length
val x = strings.map(lengthOf)    // x: List(1, 1,
```

However, because I really want to convert each string to an integer—and because some of the strings won't properly convert to integers—what I really need is a function that returns `Option[Int]`:

```
import scala.util.Try
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = Try(Integer.parseInt(s)).toOption
```

When given a "1" string, that method returns Some(1), and when given a string like "yo", it returns a None.

Now you can use makeInt with map to start converting each string in the list to an integer. A first attempt returns a List of Option[Int], i.e., the type List[Option[Int]]:

```
scala> val intOptions = strings.map(makeInt)  
val intOptions: List[Option[Int]] = List(Some(1),
```

But once you know the collection methods that are available to you, you'll know that you can flatten that List[Option[Int]] into a List[Int]:

```
scala> val ints = strings.map(makeInt).flatten  
val ints: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 4)
```

Discussion

When I first came to Scala my background was in Java, so I initially wrote for / yield loops. They were an imperative solution that I was more comfortable with. But eventually I realized that map is the same as a for / yield expression without any guards, and with only one generator:

```
val list = List("a", "b", "c")

// map
val caps1 = list.map(_.capitalize)

// for/yield
val caps2 = for e <- list yield e.capitalize
```

Once I understood this, I began using `map`.

This is a key concept about the dozens of functional methods you'll find on Scala collections classes: methods like `map`, `filter`, `take`, etc. are all replacements for custom `for` loops. There are many benefits to using these built-in functional methods, but two important benefits are:

- You don't have to write custom `for` loops.
- You don't have to read custom `for` loops written by other developers.

I don't mean those lines to be a snarky comment; instead, I mean it as a way of saying that `for` loops require a lot of boilerplate code that you have to read just to find the custom algorithm—*the intent*. Conversely, when you use Scala's built-in collections methods, it's much easier to see that intent.

As a small example, given a list like this:

```
val fruits = List("banana", "peach", "lime", "pear")
```

an imperative solution to (a) find all the strings that are more than two characters long and (b) less than six characters long, and then (c) capitalize those remaining strings, which looks like this:

```
val newFruits = for
  f <- fruits
  if f.length < 6
  if f.startsWith("p")
yield f.capitalize
```

Because of Scala's syntax that's not too hard to read, but notice at least two things:

- You have to explicitly write `f <- fruits`, i.e., “for each fruit in fruits.”
- Part of the algorithm is inside the `for` expression, and another part of it comes after the `yield` keyword.

Conversely, the idiomatic Scala solution to the same problem looks like this:

```
val newFruits = fruits.filter(_.length > 2)
                        .filter(_.startsWith("p"))
                        .map(_.capitalize)
```

Even in a small example like this you can see that you're writing (a) what you want instead of (b) a step-by-step imperative algorithm to get what you want. Once you understand how to use the Scala collections methods, you'll find that you can focus more on your intent than on writing the details of a custom `for` loop, and your code will become more concise but still very readable—what we call *expressive*.

THINK OF MAP AS TRANSFORM

When I was just starting to use Scala and the `map` method, I initially found it helpful to say *transform* every time I typed *map*. That is, I wished the method was named `transform` instead of `map`:

```
fruits.map(_.capitalize)           // what it's named
fruits.transform(_.capitalize)    // what i wish it was named
```

This is because `map` applies your function to each element in the initial list, and transforms those elements into a new list.

(As I explain in my blog post [“The ‘Great FP Terminology Barrier”](#), the name `map` comes from the field of mathematics.)

13.6 Flattening a List of Lists with flatten

Problem

You have a list of lists—or more generally a sequence of sequences—and want to create one list (sequence) from them.

Solution

Use the `flatten` method to convert a list of lists into a single list. To demonstrate this, first create a list of lists:

```
val lol = List(List(1,2), List(3,4))
```

Calling the `flatten` method on this list of lists creates one new list:

```
val x = lol.flatten // x: List(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

As shown, `flatten` does what its name implies, flattening the two lists held inside the outer list into one resulting list.

Though I use the term *list* here, the `flatten` method isn't limited to a `List`; it works with other sequences (`Array`, `ArrayBuffer`, `Vector`, etc.) as well:

```
val a = Vector(Vector(1,2), Vector(3,4))
val b = a.flatten    // b: Vector(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

Discussion

In a social-networking application, you might do the same thing with a list of your friends and their friends:

```
val myFriends = List("Adam", "David", "Frank")
val adamsFriends = List("Nick K", "Bill M")
val davidsFriends = List("Becca G", "Kenny D", "I
val franksFriends: List[String] = Nil
val friendsOfFriends = List(adamsFriends, davidsF
```

Because `friendsOfFriends` is a list of lists:

```
List(
  List("Nick K", "Bill M"),
  List("Becca G", "Kenny D", "Bill M"),
  List()
)
```

you can use `flatten` to accomplish many tasks with it, such as creating a unique list of the friends of your friends:

```
scala> val uniqueFriendsOfFriends = friendsOfFriends.flatten  
uniqueFriendsOfFriends: List[String] = List(Nick
```

flatten with Seq[Option]

`flatten` is particularly useful when you have a list of `Option` values. Because an `Option` can be thought of as a container that holds zero or one elements, `flatten` has a very useful effect on a sequence of `Some` and `None` elements. Because `Some` is like a list with one element, and `None` is like a list with no elements, `flatten` extracts the values out of the `Some` elements and drops the `None` elements as it creates a new list:

```
val x = Vector(Some(1), None, Some(3), None) //  
val y = x.flatten //
```

If you're new to `Option` / `Some` / `None` values, it can help to think of a list of `Some` and `None` values as being similar to a list of lists, where each list contains one or zero items:

```
List( Some(1), None, Some(2) ).flatten // List(1, 2)
List( List(1), List(), List(2) ).flatten // List(1)
```

See [Recipe 24.6, “Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types \(Option, Try, and Either\)”](#), for more information on working with Option values.

Combining map and flatten with flatMap

If you ever need to call map on a sequence followed by flatten, you can use flatMap instead. For instance, given this nums list and makeInt method, which returns an Option:

```
val nums = List("1", "2", "three", "4", "one hundre
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = Try(Integer.parseInt(s)).toOpt
```

you can calculate the sum of the strings in that list that properly convert to integers using map followed by flatten:

```
nums.map(makeInt).flatten // List(1, 2, 4)
```

However, whenever you're working with a list like this, you can use `flatMap` instead:

```
nums.flatMap(makeInt)    // List(1, 2, 4)
```

This always makes me think that this method should be called “map flat” instead, but the name `flatMap` has been around for a long time, and this is just one possible use of it.

13.7 Using filter to Filter a Collection

Problem

You want to filter the items in a collection to create a new collection that contains only the elements that match your filtering criteria.

Solution

To filter a sequence:

- Use the `filter` method on immutable collections.
- Use `filterInPlace` on mutable collections.

Depending on your needs, you can also use the other functional methods described in [Recipe 13.1](#) to filter a collection.

Use filter on immutable collections

This is the signature for the `filter` method on a `Seq`:

```
def filter(p: (A) => Boolean): Seq[A] // ge
```

Therefore, as a concrete example, this is what that signature looks like when you have a `Seq[Int]`:

```
def filter(p: (Int) => Boolean): Seq[Int] // sp
```

This means that `filter` takes a *predicate*—a function that returns `true` or `false`—and returns a sequence. The predicate you supply should take an input parameter of the type that's held in the sequence (such as `Int`) and return a `Boolean`. Your function should return `true` for the elements you want to retain in the new collection, and `false` for elements you want to drop. Remember to assign the results of the filtering operation to a new variable.

For instance, the following examples demonstrate how to use `filter` with a list of integers and two different algorithms:

```
val a = List.range(1, 10)                      // a: List(1,  
  
// create a new list of all elements that are less than 5  
val b = a.filter(_ < 5)                      // b: List(1,  
val b = a.filter(e => e < 5)                  // b: List(1,  
  
// create a list of all the even numbers in the list  
val evens = x.filter(_ % 2 == 0)               // evens: List[Int]
```

As shown, `filter` returns all elements from a sequence that return `true` when your function/predicate is called. There's also a `filterNot` method that returns all elements from a list for which your function returns `false`.

Use `filterInPlace` on mutable collections

When you have a mutable collection like `ArrayBuffer`, use `filterInPlace` rather than `filter`:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer  
val a = ArrayBuffer.range(1,10)      // ArrayBuffer[Int]  
  
a.filterInPlace(_ < 5)           // a: ArrayBuffer(1, 2,
```

```
a.filterInPlace(_ > 2) // a: ArrayBuffer(3, 4)
```

Because `ArrayBuffer` is mutable, you don't have to assign the result of `filterInPlace` to another variable; the contents of the variable `a` are directly changed.

Discussion

The main methods you can use to filter a collection are listed in [Recipe 13.1](#) and are repeated here for your convenience:

`collect`, `diff`, `distinct`, `drop`, `dropRight`, `dropWhile`,
`filter`, `filterNot`, `filterInPlace`, `find`, `foldLeft`,
`foldRight`, `head`, `headOption`, `init`, `intersect`, `last`,
`lastOption`, `slice`, `tail`, `take`, `takeRight`, `takeWhile`,
and `union`.

Unique characteristics of `filter` (and `filterInPlace`) compared to these other methods include:

- `filter` walks through *all* the elements in the collection; some of the other methods stop before reaching the end of the collection.
- `filter` lets you supply a *predicate* to filter the elements.

Your predicate controls the filtering

How you filter the elements in your collection is entirely up to your algorithm. Using an immutable collection and `filter`, the following examples show a few ways to filter a list of strings:

```
val fruits = List("orange", "peach", "apple", "ba  
val x = fruits.filter(f => f.startsWith("a"))  
val x = fruits.filter(_.startsWith("a"))  
val x = fruits.filter(_.length > 5)
```

Using the `collect` method to filter a collection

The `collect` method is an interesting filtering method. The `collect` method is defined in the `IterableOnceOps` trait, and per [the IterableOnceOps Scaladoc](#), `collect` builds a new list “by applying a partial function to all elements of this list on which the function is defined.” Because of this, it can be a nice way to filter lists with a single `case` statement, as shown in these REPL examples:

```
scala> val x = List(0,1,2)  
val x: List[Int] = List(0, 1, 2)  
  
scala> val y = x.collect{ case i: Int if i > 0 =>  
val y: List[Int] = List(1, 2)
```

```
scala> val x = List(Some(1), None, Some(3))
val x: List[Option[Int]] = List(Some(1), None, Some(3))

scala> val y = x.collect{ case Some(i) => i}
val y: List[Int] = List(1, 3)
```

These examples work because (a) as discussed in [Recipe 13.4](#), the `case` expression creates an anonymous function and (b) the `collect` method works with partial functions. Note that while these examples show how `collect` works, the second example with the `List[Option]` values is more easily reduced with `flatten`:

```
scala> x.flatten
val res0: List[Int] = List(1, 3)
```

On a related note, there's also a `collectFirst` method, which returns the first element it matches as an `Option`:

```
scala> val firstTen = (1 to 10).toList
val firstTen: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)

scala> firstTen.collectFirst{case x if x > 1 => x}
val res0: Option[Int] = Some(2)
```

```
scala> firstTen.collectFirst{case x if x > 99 =>
  val res1: Option[Int] = None
```

13.8 Extracting a Sequence of Elements from a Collection

Problem

You want to extract a sequence of contiguous elements from a collection, by specifying either a starting position and length, or a function.

Solution

There are quite a few collection methods you can use to extract a contiguous list of elements from a sequence, including `drop`, `dropWhile`, `head`, `headOption`, `init`, `last`, `lastOption`, `slice`, `tail`, `take`, and `takeWhile`.

Given the following `Vector`:

```
val x = (1 to 10).toVector
```

the `drop` method drops the number of elements you specify from the beginning of the sequence:

```
val y = x.drop(3) // y: Vector(4, 5, 6)
```

`dropRight` works like `drop` but starts at the end of the collection and works forward, dropping elements from the end of the sequence:

```
val y = x.dropRight(4) // y: Vector(1, 2, 3)
```

`dropWhile` drops elements as long as the predicate you supply returns `true`:

```
val y = x.dropWhile(_ < 6) // y: Vector(6, 7, 8)
```

`take` extracts the first `N` elements from the sequence:

```
val y = x.take(3) // y: Vector(1, 2, 3)
```

`takeRight` works the same way as `take`, but takes elements from the end of the sequence:

```
val y = x.takeRight(3)           // y: Vector(8, 9, 1)
```

`takeWhile` returns elements as long as the predicate you supply returns `true`:

```
val y = x.takeWhile(_ < 5)      // y: Vector(1, 2, 3)
```

PERFORMANCE NOTE

Because of the way the `List` class is constructed, methods like `dropRight` and `takeRight` will perform slowly on linear sequences like a `List`. If you need to use these methods with large sequences, use an indexed sequence like `Vector` instead.

`slice(from, until)` returns a sequence beginning at the index `from` until the index `until`, not including `until`, and assuming a zero-based index:

```
val chars = Vector('A', 'B', 'C', 'D')

chars.slice(0,1)    // Vector(a)
chars.slice(0,2)    // Vector(a, b)

chars.slice(1,1)    // Vector()
chars.slice(1,2)    // Vector(b)
```

```
chars.slice(1, 3)    // Vector(b, c)
```

```
chars.slice(2, 3)    // Vector(c)
```

```
chars.slice(2, 4)    // Vector(c, d)
```

All of these methods provide another way to filter sequences, with their distinguishing feature being that they return a contiguous sequence of elements.

Discussion

There are even more methods you can use. Given this list:

```
val nums = Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
```

the comments after the following expressions show the values that are returned by each method:

```
nums.head          // 1
```

```
nums.headOption   // Some(1)
```

```
nums.init         // Vector(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
nums.tail         // Vector(2, 3, 4, 5)
```

```
nums.last         // 5
```

```
nums.lastOption   // Some(5)
```

Generally the way those methods work is apparent from their name, but two that might need a little explanation are `init` and `tail`. The `init` method returns all elements from the sequence except for the last element. The `tail` method returns all of the elements except the first one.

As a word of caution, be aware that `head`, `init`, `tail`, and `last` will throw a

`java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException` on empty sequences. In functional programming, a pure function is *total*—meaning that it's defined for every input and doesn't throw exceptions—and because of this, pure functional programmers generally don't use these methods,. When they do, they're careful to check that their sequence isn't empty.

13.9 Splitting Sequences into Subsets

Problem

Based on an algorithm or location you define, you want to partition a sequence into two or more sequences that are subsets of the original sequence.

Solution

Use the `groupBy`, `splitAt`, `partition`, or `span` methods to partition a sequence into subsequences. These methods are demonstrated in the following examples.

groupBy

The `groupBy` method lets you split a sequence into subsets according to a predicate function you provide:

```
val xs = List(15, 10, 5, 8, 20, 12)
val groups = xs.groupBy(_ > 10)
// Map(false -> List(10, 5, 8), true -> List(15, 20))
```

`groupBy` partitions the collection into a `Map` of `N` sequences based on your function. In this example there are two resulting sequences, but depending on your algorithm you may end up with any number of sequences in a map.

In this particular example, the `true` key references the elements for which your predicate returns `true`, and the `false` key references the elements that return `false`. The sequences in the `Map` that `groupBy` creates can be accessed like this:

```
val listOfTrues = groups(true)           // List(15, 20)
val listOfFalses = groups(false)          // List(10, 5)
```

```
val xs = List(1, 3, 11, 12, 101, 102)
```

Here's another algorithm that demonstrates how many lists may be created by `groupBy`:

```
val xs = List(1, 3, 11, 12, 101, 102)

// you can also use 'scala.math.log10' for this
def groupBy10s(i: Int): Int =
    assert(i > 0)
    if i < 10 then 1
    else if i < 100 then 10
    else 100

xs.groupBy(groupBy10s) // result: HashMap(
                      //      1 -> List(1, 3),
                      //      10 -> List(11, 12),
                      //      100 -> List(101,
                      //                      ))
```

splitAt, partition, span

`splitAt` lets you create two subsequences from an initial sequence by supplying an index at which to split the original sequence:

```
val xs = List(15, 5, 20, 10)

val ys = xs.splitAt(1)    // ys: (List(15), List(5, 20, 10))
val ys = xs.splitAt(2)    // ys: (List(15, 5), List(20, 10))
```

`partition` and `span` let you split a sequence into two sequences held in a tuple-2, according to a predicate function:

```
val xs = List(15, 5, 25, 20, 10)

val ys = xs.partition(_ > 10)    // ys: (List(15, 25, 20), List(5))
val ys = xs.partition(_ < 25)    // ys: (List(15, 5), List(25, 20))

val ys = xs.span(_ < 20)        // ys: (List(15, 5), List(25, 20))
val ys = xs.span(_ > 10)        // ys: (List(15, 25, 20), List(5))
```

The `splitAt`, `partition`, and `span` methods create a tuple-2 of sequences that are of the same type as the original collection. This is how they work:

- `splitAt` splits the original list according to the element index value you supplied.
- `partition` creates two lists, one containing values for which your predicate returned `true`, and the other

containing the elements that returned `false`.

- `span` returns a tuple-2 based on your predicate `p`, consisting of “the longest prefix of this list whose elements all satisfy `p`, and the rest of this list.”¹

When a tuple-2 of sequences is returned, its two sequences can be accessed like this:

```
scala> val (a,b) = xs.partition(_ > 10)
val a: List[Int] = List(15, 20)
val b: List[Int] = List(5, 10)
```

Discussion

While those are the grouping methods I most commonly use, there are others, including `sliding` and `unzip`.

sliding

The `sliding(size, step)` method is an interesting creature that can be used to break a sequence into multiple groups. It can be called with just a `size`, or both a `size` and `step`:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
// size = 2
```

```
val b = a.sliding(2).toList      // b: List(Array
                                //           Array

// size = 2, step = 2
val b = a.sliding(2,2).toList    // b: List(Vector
                                //           Vector

// size = 2, step = 3
val b = a.sliding(2,3).toList    // b: List(Vector
```

As shown, `sliding` works by passing a “sliding window” over the original sequence, returning sequences of a length given by `size`. The `step` parameter lets you skip over elements, as shown in the last two examples.

unzip

The `unzip` method is also interesting. It can be used to take a sequence of tuple-2 values and create two resulting lists: one that contains the first element of each tuple, and another that contains the second element from each tuple:

```
val listOfTuples = List((1,2), ('A','B'))
val x = listOfTuples.unzip          // (List(1, a)
```

For instance, given a list of couples, you can `unzip` the list to create a list of women and a list of men:

```
val couples = List(("Wilma", "Fred"), ("Betty", "Elmer"))
val (women, men) = couples.unzip    // val men: List[String]
                                    // val women: List[String]
```

As you might guess from its name, `unzip` is the opposite of `zip`:

```
val couples = women zip men           // List((Wilma, "Fred"), ...)
```

See the Scaladoc for any sequence (`List`, `Vector`, etc.) for many more methods.

13.10 Walking Through a Collection with the reduce and fold Methods

Problem

You want to walk through all the elements in a sequence, applying an algorithm to all the neighboring elements to obtain

a single scalar result from the operations, such as a sum, product, max, min, etc.

Solution

Use the `reduceLeft`, `foldLeft`, `reduceRight`, and `foldRight` methods to walk through the elements in a sequence and apply your custom algorithm to the elements yielding a single scalar result. `reduceLeft` is demonstrated here in the Solution, and the other methods are shown in the Discussion (along with related methods, such as `scanLeft` and `scanRight`, which return a sequence as their final result).

For example, use `reduceLeft` to walk through a sequence from left to right, from the first element to the last. Per the [IterableOnceOps trait Scaladoc](#), where these methods are defined, you pass in an *associative binary operator*, and then `reduceLeft` starts by applying your operator (algorithm) to the first two elements in the sequence to create an intermediate result. Next, your algorithm is applied to that intermediate result and the third element, and that application yields a new result. This process continues until the end of the sequence is reached.

If you've never used these methods before, you'll see that they give you a surprising amount of power. The best way to show this is with some examples. First, create a sample sequence to experiment with:

```
val xs = Vector(12, 6, 15, 2, 20, 9)
```

Given that sequence, use `reduceLeft` to determine different properties about the sequence. This is how you calculate the sum of the elements in the sequence:

```
val sum = xs.reduceLeft(_ + _) // 64
```

Don't let the underscores throw you for a loop; they just stand for the two parameters that `reduceLeft` passes to your function. You can write your anonymous function like this, if you prefer:

```
xs.reduceLeft((x, y) => x + y)
```

These examples show how to use `reduceLeft` to get the product of all elements in the sequence, the smallest value in the sequence, and the largest value:

```
xs.reduceLeft(_ * _)      // 388800
xs.reduceLeft(_ min _)    // 2
xs.reduceLeft(_ max _)    // 20
```

Note that `reduceLeft` works if the element only contains one element:

```
List(1).reduceLeft(_ * _)      // 1
List(1).reduceLeft(_ min _)    // 1
List(1).reduceLeft(_ max _)    // 1
```

However, it throws an exception if the sequence it's given is empty:

```
val emptyVector = Vector[Int]()
val sum = emptyVector.reduceLeft(_ + _)
// result: java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException
```

Because of this exception behavior, you'll want to check the collection size before using `reduceLeft`, or use `foldLeft`, which lets you provide an initial seed value in a first parameter group, helping to avoid this problem:

```
val emptyVector = Vector[Int]()
emptyVector.foldLeft(0) (_ + _)    // 0
emptyVector.foldLeft(1) (_ * _)    // 1
```

Discussion

You can demonstrate how `reduceLeft` works by creating a method to work with it. The following method does a max comparison like the last example, but it has some extra debugging code so you can see how `reduceLeft` works as it marches through the sequence. Here's the function:

```
def findMax(x: Int, y: Int): Int =
  val winner = x max y
  println(s"compared $x to $y, $winner was larger")
  winner
```

Now call `reduceLeft` again on the sequence, this time giving it the `findMax` method:

```
scala> xs.reduceLeft(findMax)
compared 12 to 6, 12 was larger
compared 12 to 15, 15 was larger
compared 15 to 2, 15 was larger
```

```
compared 15 to 20, 20 was larger  
compared 20 to 9, 20 was larger  
res0: Int = 20
```

The output shows how `reduceLeft` marches through the elements in the sequence, and how it calls the method at each step. Here's how the process works:

- `reduceLeft` starts by calling `findMax` to test the first two elements in the sequence, `12` and `6`. `findMax` returns `12`, because `12` is larger than `6`.
- `reduceLeft` takes that result (`12`) and calls `findMax(12, 15)`. `12` is the result of the first comparison, and `15` is the next element in the collection. `15` is larger, so it becomes the new result.
- `reduceLeft` keeps taking the result from the method and comparing it to the next element in the sequence, until it marches through all the elements in the sequence, ending up with the result, `20`.

A subtraction algorithm

I've mentioned in this recipe that the "left" methods (`reduceLeft` and `foldLeft`) start from the beginning of the collection and move to the end, and the "right" methods start at the end of the collection and move to the beginning. A good way

to demonstrate this is with a subtraction algorithm, which is not commutative and therefore produces a different result when you traverse a list from left to right, or right to left.

For example, given this list and `subtract` algorithm:

```
val xs = List(1, 2, 3)

def subtract(a: Int, b: Int): Int =
  println(s"a: $a, b: $b")
  val result = a - b
  println(s"result: $result\n")
  result
```

the REPL demonstrates how `reduceLeft` and `reduceRight` work:

```
scala> xs.reduceLeft(subtract)
a: 1, b: 2
result: -1

a: -1, b: 3
result: -4

val res0: Int = -4

scala> xs.reduceRight(subtract)
```

```
a: 2, b: 3  
result: -1  
  
a: 1, b: -1  
result: 2  
  
val res1: Int = 2
```

As shown, `reduceLeft` and `reduceRight` produce different results with the `subtract` algorithm, because the first traverses the list from left to right and the second traverses the list from right to left.

WRITING REDUCE ALGORITHMS

One subtle but important note about the reduce methods: the custom function you supply must return the same data type that's stored in the collection. This is necessary so the reduce algorithms can compare the result of your function to the next element in the collection.

foldLeft, reduceRight, and foldRight

The `foldLeft` method works just like `reduceLeft`, but it lets you set a seed value to be used for the first element. The following examples demonstrate a sum algorithm, first with

`reduceLeft` and then with `foldLeft`, to demonstrate the difference:

```
val xs = List(1, 2, 3)

xs.reduceLeft(_ + _)          // 6
xs.foldLeft(20)(_ + _)       // 26
xs.foldLeft(100)(_ + _)      // 106
```

In the last two examples, `foldLeft` uses `20` and then `100` for its first element, which affects the resulting sum as shown.

If you haven't seen syntax like that before, `foldLeft` takes two parameter lists. The first parameter list takes one field, the seed value. The second parameter list is the block of code you want to run (your algorithm). [Recipe 4.17, “Creating Your Own Control Structures”](#), provides more information on the use of multiple parameter lists.

The `reduceRight` and `foldRight` methods work similarly to the `reduceLeft` and `foldLeft` methods, respectively, but they begin at the end of the collection and work from right to left, i.e., from the end of the collection back to the beginning.

fold algorithms and identity values

The fold algorithms are related to something known as an *identity* value for the type of a list and the operation you're performing on that list. For example:

- When operating on a `Seq[Int]`, the value `0` adds nothing to an addition or sum algorithm.
- Similarly, the value `1` adds nothing to a product algorithm.
- When operating on a `Seq[String]`, the empty string — `""` — adds nothing to an addition or product algorithm.

Therefore, you may see fold operations written like this:

```
listOfInts.foldLeft(0)(_ + _)
listOfInts.foldLeft(1)(_ * _)

// concatenate a list of strings:
listOfStrings.foldLeft("")(_ + _)
```

Using these values lets you use fold methods with empty lists. I write more about identity values in [“Tail-Recursive Algorithms in Scala”](#).

Summary of how the fold and reduce methods work

Here are the key points to know about the fold and reduce methods:

- They walk through the entire sequence.
- As shown in max and min algorithms, you compare neighboring elements in the sequence.
- As shown in the sum and product algorithms, you create an accumulator as you walk through the sequence.
- Fold and reduce algorithms are generally used to yield a single scalar value in the end (rather than another sequence).
- Your custom function must accept two parameters of the type contained in the collection, and it must return that same type.

scanLeft and scanRight

Two methods named `scanLeft` and `scanRight` walk through a sequence like `reduceLeft` and `reduceRight`, but they return a sequence instead of a single value. For instance, per its Scaladoc, `scanLeft` “produces a collection containing cumulative results of applying the operator going left to right.” To understand how it works, create another function with a little debug code in it:

```
def product(x: Int, y: Int): Int =
  val result = x * y
  println(s"multiplied $x by $y to yield $result")
  result +
```

Here's what `scanLeft` looks like when it's used with that function and a seed value:

```
scala> val xs = Vector(1, 2, 3)
xs: Vector[Int] = Vector(1, 2, 3)

scala> xs.scanLeft(10) (product)
multiplied 10 by 1 to yield 10
multiplied 10 by 2 to yield 20
multiplied 20 by 3 to yield 60
res0: Vector[Int] = Vector(10, 10, 20, 60)
```

As shown, like the `map` method, `scanLeft` returns a new sequence rather than a single value. The `scanRight` method works the same way but marches through the collection from right to left.

See the Scaladoc for your sequence for a few more related methods, including `reduce`, `reduceLeftOption`, and `reduceRightOption`.

See Also

- If you want even more details and illustrations, I dive deeper into the fold and reduce methods in “[Recursion Is Great, but Check out Scala’s fold and reduce!](#)”.

13.11 Finding the Unique Elements in a Sequence

Problem

You have a sequence that contains duplicate elements, and you want to remove the duplicates, leaving you with only the unique elements.

Solution

Either call the `distinct` method on the sequence or call `toSet`:

```
val x = Vector(1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4)
val y = x.distinct    // Vector(1, 2, 3, 4)
val z = x.toSet       // Set(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

Both approaches return a new sequence with the duplicate values removed, but `distinct` returns the same sequence

type that you started with, while `toSet` returns a `Set`.

Discussion

To use these approaches with your own classes, you'll need to implement the `equals` and `hashCode` methods. For instance, case classes implement those methods for you, so you can use this `Person` class with `distinct`:

```
case class Person(firstName: String, lastName: String)

val dale1 = Person("Dale", "Cooper")
val dale2 = Person("Dale", "Cooper")
val ed = Person("Ed", "Hurley")
val list = List(dale1, dale2, ed)

// correct solution: only one Dale Cooper appears
val uniques = list.distinct      // List(Person(Dale, Coop...
val uniques = list.toSet          // Set(Person(Dale, Coop...
```

If you don't want to use a case class, see [Recipe 5.9, “Defining an equals Method \(Object Equality\)”,](#) for a discussion of how to implement the `equals` and `hashCode` methods.

13.12 Merging Sequential Collections

Problem

You want to join two sequences into one sequence, either keeping all the original elements, finding the elements that are common to both collections, or finding the difference between the two sequences.

Solution

There are a variety of solutions to this problem, depending on your needs:

- Use the `++` or `concat` methods to merge all elements from two mutable or immutable sequences into a new sequence.
- Use the `++=` method to merge the elements of a sequence into an existing mutable sequence.
- Use `:::` to merge two Lists into a new `List`.
- Use the `intersect` method to find the intersection of two sequences.
- Use the `diff` method to find the difference of two sequences.

As shown in the following examples, you can also use `distinct` and `toSet` to reduce sequences down to their

unique elements.

The `++` or `concat` methods

The `++` method is an alias for the `concat` method, so use either one of them to merge two mutable or immutable sequences while assigning the result to a new variable:

```
val a = List(1,2,3)
val b = Vector(4,5,6)

val c = a ++ b          // c: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
val c = a.concat(b)     // c: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)

val d = b ++ a          // d: Vector[Int] = Vector(4, 5, 6, 1, 2, 3)
val d = b.concat(a)     // d: Vector[Int] = Vector(4, 5, 6, 1, 2, 3)
```

The `++=` method

Use the `++=` method to merge a sequence into an existing mutable sequence like an `ArrayBuffer`:

```
import collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer

// merge sequences into an ArrayBuffer
val a = ArrayBuffer(1,2,3)
a ++= Seq(4,5,6)      // a: ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

```
a ::= Seq(1, 2, 3) // a: ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4,  
a += List(7, 8) // a: ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4,
```

Use `:::` to merge two Lists

If you happen to be working with a `List`, use the `:::` method to prepend the elements of one list to another list, assigning the result to a new variable:

```
val a = List(1, 2, 3, 4)  
val b = List(4, 5, 6, 7)  
val c = a :: b // c: List(1, 2, 3, 4, 4, 5, 6,
```

intersect and diff

The `intersect` method finds the intersection of two sequences—the elements that are common to both sequences:

```
val a = Vector(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)  
val b = Vector(4, 5, 6, 7, 8)  
  
val c = a.intersect(b) // c: Vector(4, 5)  
val c = b.intersect(a) // c: Vector(4, 5)
```

The `diff` method provides the difference between two sequences—those elements that are in the first sequence but not in the second sequence. Because of that definition, its result depends on which sequence it's called on:

```
val a = List(1,2,3,4)
val b = List(3,4,5,6)
val c = a.diff(b)    // c: List(1, 2)
val c = b.diff(a)    // c: List(5, 6)

val a = List(1,2,3,4,1,2,3,4)
val b = List(3,4,5,6,3,4,5,6)
val c = a.diff(b)    // c: List(1, 2, 1, 2)
val c = b.diff(a)    // c: List(5, 6, 5, 6)
```

The Scaladoc for the `diff` method states that it returns “a new list which contains all elements of `this` list except some [occurrences of the] elements that also appear in `that`. If an element value `x` appears `n` times in `that`, then the first `n` occurrences of `x` will not form part of the result, but any following occurrences will.” Because of that behavior you may also need to use the `distinct` method to create lists of distinct elements:

```
val a = List(1,2,3,4,1,2,3,4)
val b = List(3,4,5,6,3,4,5,6)
```

```
val c = a.diff(b)          // c: List(1, 2, 1,  
val c = b.diff(a)          // c: List(5, 6, 5,  
  
val c = a.diff(b).distinct // c: List(1, 2)  
val c = b.diff(a).distinct // c: List(5, 6)
```

Discussion

You can use `diff` to get the *relative complement* of two sets. The relative complement of a set A with respect to a set B is the set of elements in B that are not in A.

On a recent project, I needed to find a list of unique elements in one sequence that *were not* in another sequence. I did this by first calling `distinct` on the two sequences and then using `diff` to compare them. For instance, given these two vectors:

```
val a = Vector(1,2,3,11,4,12,4,4,5)  
val b = Vector(6,7,4,4,5)
```

one way to find the relative complement of each vector is to first call `distinct` on that vector and then compare it to the other with `diff`:

```
// the elements in a that are not in b  
val uniqToA = a.distinct.diff(b) // Vector(1, 2)  
  
// the elements in b that are not in a  
val uniqToB = b.distinct.diff(a) // Vector(6, 7)
```

If desired, you can then sum those results to get the list of elements that are either in the first set or the second set, but not both sets:

```
val uniqs = uniqToA ++ uniqToB // Vector(1, 2, 6, 7)
```

While I'm examining this problem, here's another way to get that same result:

```
// create a list of unique elements that are common to both lists  
val i = a.intersect(b).toSet // Set(4, 5)  
  
// subtract those elements from the original lists  
val uniqToA = a.toSet -- i // HashSet(1, 3)  
val uniqToB = b.toSet -- i // Set(6, 7)  
  
val uniqs = uniqToA ++ uniqToB // HashSet(1, 3, 6, 7)
```

Note that I use `toSet` in this solution because it's another way to create a list of unique elements in a sequence.

13.13 Randomizing a Sequence

Problem

You want to randomize (shuffle) an existing sequence, or get a random element from a sequence.

Solution

To randomize a sequence, import `scala.util.Random`, then apply its `shuffle` method to an existing sequence while assigning the result to a new sequence:

```
import scala.util.Random

// List
val xs = List(1,2,3,4,5)
val ys = Random.shuffle(xs)      // 'ys' will be sh

// also works with other sequences
val x = Random.shuffle(Vector(1,2,3,4,5))    // x
val v = Random.shuffle(Array(1,2,3,4,5))       // v
```

```
val x = Random.shuffle(Array(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)) // x

import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
val x = Random.shuffle(ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5))
```

As usual with functional methods, a key to this solution is knowing that `shuffle` doesn't randomize the list it's given; instead it returns a new list that has been randomized (shuffled).

Discussion

That solution works great when you want to randomize an entire list. But if you just want to get a random element from a list, a method like this is much more efficient:

```
import scala.util.Random

// throws an IllegalArgumentException if `seq` is

def getRandomElement[A](seq: Seq[A]): A =
  seq(Random.nextInt(seq.length))
```

As long as the sequence you pass in contains at least one element, that function will work as desired. It works because

`nextInt` returns a value between `0` (inclusive) and `seq.length` (exclusive). So if the sequence contains 100 elements, `nextInt` returns a value between 0 and 99, which matches the possible indexes in the sequence.

Now whenever you have a sequence, you can use this function to get a random element from the sequence:

```
val randomNumber = getRandomElement(List(1,2,3))  
val randomString = getRandomElement(List("a", "b"))
```

13.14 Sorting a Collection

Problem

You want to (a) sort a sequential collection, (b) implement the `Ordered` trait in a custom class so you can use the `sorted` method or operators like `<`, `<=`, `>`, and `>=` to compare instances of your class, or (c) use an implicit or explicit `Ordering` when sorting.

Solution

See [Recipe 12.11, “Sorting Arrays”](#), for information on how to sort an `Array`. Otherwise, use the `sorted`, `sortWith`, or `sortBy` methods to sort *immutable* sequences, and `sortInPlace`, `sortInPlaceWith`, and `sortInPlaceBy` to sort *mutable* sequences. Implement the `Ordered` or `Ordering` traits as needed.

Using `sorted`, `sortWith`, and `sortBy` with immutable sequences

The `sorted` method on sequences can sort collections with type `Double`, `Int`, `String`, and any other type that has an implicit `scala.math.Ordering`:

```
List(10, 5, 8, 1, 7).sorted           // List(1, 5, 8, 10, 7)
List("dog", "mouse", "cat").sorted    // List(cat, dog, mouse)
```

The `sortWith` method lets you provide your own sorting algorithm. The following examples demonstrate how to sort a sequence of `String` or `Int` in both directions:

```
// short form: sorting algorithm uses '_' refers to the current element
Vector("dog", "mouse", "cat").sortWith(_ < _)
Vector("dog", "mouse", "cat").sortWith(_ > _)

// long form: sorting algorithm uses a tuple-2
```

```
// Long form: sorting algorithm uses a compare function
Vector(10, 5, 8, 1, 7).sortWith((a,b) => a < b)
Vector(10, 5, 8, 1, 7).sortWith((a,b) => a > b)
```

Your sorting function needs to take two parameters and can be as simple or complicated as it needs to be. If your sorting function gets longer, first declare it as a method:

```
def sortByLength(s1: String, s2: String): Boolean = {
    println(s"comparing $s1 & $s2")
    s1.length > s2.length
```

Then use it by passing it into the `sortWith` method:

```
scala> val a = List("dog", "mouse", "cat").sortWith(sortByLength)
comparing mouse & dog
comparing cat & mouse
comparing mouse & cat

comparing cat & dog
comparing dog & cat
a: List[String] = List(mouse, dog, cat)
```

Per the Scaladoc, the `sortBy` method “sorts a sequence according to the `Ordering` which results from transforming

an implicitly given `Ordering` with a transformation function.”
The `sortBy` signature for a `List` looks like this:

```
def sortBy[B](f: (A) => B)(implicit ord: Ordering[
```

Here are a few examples of how to sort with `sortBy`:

```
val a = List("peach", "apple", "pear", "fig")
val b = a.sortBy(s => s.length) // b

// the Scaladoc shows an example like this that will implicitly provide an Ordering[Tuple2[Int, String]]
val b = a.sortBy(s => (s.length, s.head)) // b

// a way to sort from the longest to the shortest by the string
val a = List("fin", "fit", "fig", "pear", "peas", "peach")
val b = a.sortBy(s => (-s.length, s))
// b: List(peach, pear, peas, peat, fig, fin,
```

Using `sortInPlace`, `sortInPlaceWith`, and `sortInPlaceBy` with mutable sequences

With mutable sequences like `ArrayBuffer` you can use the `sortInPlace`, `sortInPlaceWith`, and `sortInPlaceBy`

methods. If the data type in your sequence supports sorting with an implicit `Ordering` or by implementing `Ordered`, `sortInPlace` is a direct solution:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer

val a = ArrayBuffer(3, 5, 1)
a.sortInPlace // a: ArrayBuffer(1, 3, 5)

val b = ArrayBuffer("Mercedes", "Hannah", "Emily")
b.sortInPlace // b: ArrayBuffer(Emily, Hannah,
```

`sortInPlaceWith` is similar to `sortWith`:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
val a = ArrayBuffer(3, 5, 1)
a.sortInPlaceWith(_ < _) // a: ArrayBuffer(1, 3, 5)
a.sortInPlaceWith(_ > _) // a: ArrayBuffer(5, 3, 1)
```

`sortInPlaceBy` works like `sortBy`, letting you specify a function to sort with:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
val a = ArrayBuffer("Liam", "Emma", "Fin")
```

```
val a = ArrayBuffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
a.sortInPlaceBy(_.length) // a: ArrayBuffer[fi
```

Discussion

The following discussion demonstrates how to use `Ordering` and `Ordered` using *immutable* sequences, but the discussion also applies to *mutable* sequences.

Having an implicit Ordering

If the type that a sequence is holding doesn't have an implicit `Ordering`, you won't be able to sort it with `sorted`. For instance, given this `Person` class and `List[Person]`:

```
class Person(val name: String):
    override def toString = name

val dudes = List(
    Person("Bill"),
    Person("Al"),
    Person("Adam")
)
```

if you try to sort this list in the REPL, you'll see an error stating that the `Person` class doesn't have an implicit `Ordering`:

```
scala> dudes.sorted
1 |dudes.sorted
|           ^
|           No implicit Ordering defined for I
|           where:      B is a type variable wi
|           I found:
|           scala.math.Ordering.ordered[A]
|           */summon[scala.math.Ordering.I
|
|           But no implicit values were found
|           scala.math.Ordering.AsComparable[I
```

You can't use `sorted` with the `Person` class as it's written, so one solution is to write an anonymous function to sort the `Person` elements by the `name` field using `sortWith`:

```
dudes.sortWith(_.name < _.name)    // List(Adam, B
dudes.sortWith(_.name > _.name)    // List(Bill, A
```

Providing an explicit Ordering with sorted

If your class doesn't have an implicit `Ordering`, one solution is to provide an explicit `Ordering`. For example, by default this

`Person` class doesn't provide any information about how sorting should work:

```
class Person(val firstName: String, val lastName  
override def toString = s"$firstName $lastName")
```

Because of that, trying to sort a list of `Person` instances with `sorted` won't work, as just shown:

```
val peeps = List(  
    Person("Jessica", "Day"),  
    Person("Nick", "Miller"),  
    Person("Winston", "Bishop"))  
  
scala> peeps.sorted  
1 |peeps.sorted  
|  
| No implicit Ordering defined for B ... (long e
```

A solution to this problem is to create an explicit `Ordering` that works with `Person`:

```
object LastNameOrdering extends Ordering[Person]
```

```
def compare(a: Person, b: Person) = a.lastName < b.lastName
```

Now when you use `LastNameOrdering` with `sorted`, sorting works as desired:

```
scala> val sortedPeeps = peeps.sorted(LastNameOrdering)
val sortedPeeps: List[Person] = List(Winston Bish...
```

This solution works because (a) `sorted` is defined to take an implicit `Ordering` parameter:

```
def sorted[B >: A](implicit ord: Ordering[B]): List[B]
```

and (b) I provide that parameter explicitly:

```
val sortedPeeps = peeps.sorted(LastNameOrdering)
```

Another approach is to declare `LastNameOrdering` with the `implicit` keyword, and then call `sorted`:

```
implicit object LastNameOrdering extends Ordering[Person] { ... }
```

```
def compare(a: Person, b: Person) = a.lastNameOrdering.compare(b)

val sortedPeeps = peeps.sorted
// sortedPeeps: List(Winston Bishop, Jessica
```

In this solution, because `LastNameOrdering` is defined with the `implicit` keyword, it's magically pulled in and used as the implicit `Ordering` parameter that `sorted` is looking for.

Mix in the Ordered trait to use sorted

If you want to use the `Person` class with the `sorted` method, another solution is to mix the `Ordered` trait into `Person`, and then implement the `Ordered` trait's abstract `compare` method. This technique is shown in the following code:

```
class Person(var name: String) extends Ordered[Person] {
    override def toString = name

    // return 0 if the same, negative if this < that
    def compare(that: Person): Int =
        // depends on the definition of `==` for Person
        if this.name == that.name then
            0
        else if this.name > that.name then
            1
        else
            -1
}
```

```
  1  
else  
  -1
```

Now this new `Person` class can be used with `sorted`:

```
val dudes = List(  
  Person("Bill"),  
  Person("Al"),  
  Person("Adam"))  
  
val x = dudes.sorted // x: List(Adam, Al, Bill)
```

The `compare` method in `Ordered` is abstract, so you implement it in your class to provide the sorting capability. As shown in the comments, `compare` works like this:

- Return `0` if the two objects are the same (defining equality however you want to, but typically using the `equals` method of your class).
- Return a negative value if `this` is less than `that`.
- Return a positive value if `this` is greater than `that`.

How you determine whether one instance is greater than another instance is entirely up to your `compare` algorithm.

Note that because this `compare` algorithm only compares two `String` values, it could have been written like this:

```
def compare (that: Person) = this.name.compare(tl
```

However, I wrote it as shown in the first example to be clear about the approach.

An added benefit of mixing the `Ordered` trait into your class is that it lets you compare object instances directly in your code:

```
val bill = Person("Bill")
val al = Person("Al")
val adam = Person("Adam")

if adam > bill then println(adam) else println(bil
```

This works because the `Ordered` trait implements the `<=`, `<`, `>`, and `>=` methods, and they call your `compare` method to make those comparisons.

See Also

For more information, the `Ordered` and `Ordering` Scaladoc is excellent, with several good examples:

- [The `Ordering` trait](#)
- [The `Ordered` trait](#)

13.15 Converting a Collection to a String with `mkString` and `addString`

Problem

You want to convert elements of a collection to a `String`, possibly adding a field separator, prefix, and suffix.

Solution

Use the `mkString` or `addString` methods to print a collection as a `String`.

mkString

Given a simple collection:

```
val x = Vector("apple", "banana", "cherry")
```

you can convert the elements to a `String` using `mkString`:

```
x.mkString // "applebananacherry"
```

That doesn't look too useful, so add a separator:

```
x.mkString(" ") // "apple banana cherry"  
x.mkString(" | ") // "apple|banana|cherry"  
x.mkString(", ") // "apple, banana, cherry"
```

`mkString` is overloaded, so you can add a prefix and suffix when creating a string:

```
x.mkString("[", ", ", ", ", "]") // "[apple, banana,
```

There's also an `mkString` method on `Map` classes:

```
val a = Map(1 -> "one", 2 -> "two")  
a.mkString // "1 -> one2 ->  
a.mkString(" | ") // "1 -> one|2 ->  
a.mkString(" | ", " | ", " | ") // " | 1 -> one |
```

addString

Beginning with Scala 2.13, a new `addString` method is similar to `mkString`, but lets you fill a mutable `StringBuilder` with the contents of the sequence. As with `mkString`, you can use `addString` by itself, with a separator, and with start, end, and separator strings:

```
val x = Vector("a", "b", "c")

val sb = StringBuilder()
val y = x.addString(sb)           // y: StringBuilder

val sb = StringBuilder()
val y = x.addString(sb, ", ")    // y: StringBuilder

val sb = StringBuilder()
val y = x.addString(
    sb,           // StringBuilder
    "[" ,        // start
    ", " ,       // separator
    "]" )        // end

)

// result of the last expression:
y: StringBuilder = [a, b, c]
y(0)    // Char = '['
y(1)    // Char = 'a'
```

Because this technique uses a `StringBuilder` instead of a `String`, it should be faster with large datasets. (As usual, always test any performance-related concern.)

Discussion

The strings that are created with these techniques are based on the string representations of the elements in the sequence, i.e., what you would get by calling their `toString` methods. So the technique works well for types like strings and integers, but if you have a simple class like this `Person` class that doesn't implement a `toString` method, and then put a `Person` in a `List`, the resulting string won't be very useful:

```
class Person(val name: String)
val xs = List(Person("Schmidt"))
xs.mkString // Person@1b17b5cb (not a useful re
```

To solve that problem, properly implement the `toString` method in your class:

```
class Person(val name: String):  
    override def toString = name
```

```
List(Person("Schmidt")).mkString // "Schmidt"
```

Creating a string from a repeated character

In a slightly related note, you can fill a sequence with a `Char` or `String` using this technique:

```
val list = List.fill(5)('‐') // List(‐‐‐‐‐)
```

You can then convert that list to a `String`:

```
val list = List.fill(5)('‐').mkString // "‐‐‐‐‐"
```

I've used that approach to generate an underline for a sentence, such as creating 10 underline characters when I knew the length of a sentence was 10 characters. But a simpler technique is to multiply a desired string to create a resulting string, like this:

```
"\u2500" * 10 // String = _____
```

I write more about these techniques in [“Scala Functions to Repeat a Character n Times \(Blank Padding\)”](#).

¹

See the `span` method documentation on the [Scala List class Scaladoc page](#) for more information.

Chapter 14. Collections: Using Maps

Scala `Map` types are like the Java `Map`, Ruby `Hash`, or Python dictionary, in that they consist of key/value pairs, and the key values must be unique. [Recipe 14.1](#) provides an introduction to the basics of creating and using immutable and mutable maps.

After that introduction to maps, [Recipe 14.2](#) helps you choose a map implementation for the times you need to use special map features. Following that, Recipes [14.3](#) and [14.4](#) cover the processes of adding, updating, and removing elements in immutable and mutable maps, respectively.

If you're coming to Scala from Java, one big difference with maps is that the default `Map` in Scala is immutable, so if you're not used to working with immutable collections, this can be a big surprise when you attempt to add, delete, or change elements in the map.

In addition to adding, removing, and replacing map elements, other common map tasks are working with their keys and values (shown in Recipes [14.5](#) through [14.8](#)), as well as traversing ([Recipe 14.9](#)), sorting ([Recipe 14.10](#)), and filtering ([Recipe 14.11](#)) maps.

14.1 Creating and Using Maps

Problem

You want to create and use a `Map` in a Scala application, i.e., a data structure that contains key/value pairs, like a Java map, Python dictionary, or Ruby hash.

Solution

For the times when you need a key/value pair data structure, Scala lets you create both immutable and mutable `Map` types.

Immutable map

To create an immutable map, you don't need an `import` statement, just create a `Map`:

```
val a = Map(  
    "AL" -> "Alabama",  
    "AK" -> "Alaska"  
)
```

That example creates an immutable `Map` with type `[String, String]`, meaning that both the *key* and *value* have type

`String`. For the first element, the string `AL` is the key, and `Alabama` is the value.

Once you have an immutable `Map` you can specify elements to be added, updated, and removed, while assigning the resulting `Map` to a new variable, as shown in these examples:

```
// create a map
val a = Map(1 -> "a")

// adding elements
val b = a + (2 -> "b")
val c = b ++ Map(3 -> "c", 4 -> "d")
val d = c ++ List(5 -> "e", 6 -> "f")

// current result:
d: Map[Int, String] = HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> a, 6 -> f, 2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d)

// update where the key is 1
val e = d + (1 -> "AA")
// e: HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> AA, 6 -> f, 2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d)

// update multiple elements at one time
val f = e ++ Map(2 -> "BB", 3 -> "CC")
val g = f ++ List(2 -> "BB", 3 -> "CC")
// g: HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> AA, 6 -> f, 2 -> BB, 3 -> CC, 4 -> d)
```

```
// remove elements by specifying the keys to remove
val h = g - 1
val i = h -- List(1, 2, 3)
// i: HashMap(5 -> e, 6 -> f, 4 -> d)
```

When working with an immutable map you can create your variable as a `var` field, so you don't have to keep using different variable names:

```
// reassign each update to the 'map' variable
var map = Map(1 -> "a")
map = map + (2 -> "b")      // map: Map(1 -> a, 2 ->
map = map + (3 -> "c")      // map: Map(1 -> a, 2 ->
```

Mutable map

To create a *mutable* map, either use an import statement to bring it into scope, or specify the full path to the `scala.collection.mutable.Map` class when you create an instance. Once you have a mutable map in scope, you can use it as described in the following recipes. Here's a brief demonstration of some basic features:

```

// create an empty, mutable map
val m = scala.collection.mutable.Map[Int, String]

// adding by assignment
m(1) = "a"                                // m: HashMap(1

// adding with += and ++
m += (2 -> "b")                            // m: HashMap(1
m ++= Map(3 -> "c", 4 -> "d")            // m: HashMap(1
m ++= List(5 -> "e", 6 -> "f")           // m: HashMap(1
                                            //      5

// remove elements by specifying the keys to remove
m --= 1                                     // m: HashMap(2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d)
m ---= List(2, 3)                            // m: HashMap(4 -> d, 5 -> e, 6 -> f)

// updating
m(4) = "DD"                                // m: HashMap(4 -> DD, 5 -> e,

```

Discussion

Like maps in other programming languages, maps in Scala are a collection of key/value pairs. If you've used a map in Java, a dictionary in Python, or a hash in Ruby, Scala maps are straightforward. You only need to know a couple new things, including the methods available on map classes and the

specialty maps that can be useful in certain situations, such as using sorted maps.

Note that the syntax that's used inside parentheses in a map creates a tuple:

```
"AL" -> "Alabama"
```

Because you can also declare a tuple-2 as `("AL", "Alabama")`, you may see maps created like this:

```
val states = Map(  
    ("AL", "Alabama"),  
    ("AK", "Alaska")  
)
```

If you want to make it clear that you're using a mutable map, one technique is to give the mutable `Map` class an alias when you import it, and then refer to it using that alias, as shown here:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.{Map => MMap}  
  
// MMap is really scala.collection.mutable.Map
```

```
val m = MMap(1 -> 'A')      // m: Map[Int, Char] = H  
m += (2 -> 'B')           // m: HashMap(1 -> a, 2
```

This aliasing technique is described more in [Recipe 9.3, “Renaming Members on Import”](#).

14.2 Choosing a Map Implementation

Problem

You need to choose a `Map` class for a particular problem.

Solution

Scala has a wealth of `Map` types to choose from, and you can even use Java `Map` classes. The Discussion provides a comprehensive list of most of the classes, but some of the most popular ones are:

The immutable `Map`

A basic immutable map, with no guarantee about the order its keys are returned in

The mutable `Map`

A basic mutable map, with no guarantee about the order its keys are returned in

SortedMap

Returns its elements in sorted order by its keys

LinkedHashMap

Returns elements in the order they're inserted in

VectorMap

Preserves insertion order by storing elements in a vector/map-based data structure

WeakHashMap

Per its Scaladoc, “a map entry is removed if the key is no longer strongly referenced”

The basic immutable and mutable maps are covered in detail in several other recipes, so they’re not covered here. The

SortedMap and LinkedHashMap are covered in [Recipe 14.10](#), so they’re only touched on here.

Basic immutable and mutable maps

If you’re looking for a basic Map class, where sorting or insertion order doesn’t matter, you can either choose the

default immutable `Map`, or import the mutable `Map`, as shown in [Recipe 14.1](#).

SortedMap

If you want a `Map` that returns its elements in sorted order by keys, use a `SortedMap`:

```
import scala.collection.SortedMap
val x = SortedMap(
    2 -> "b",
    4 -> "d",
    3 -> "c",
    1 -> "a"
)
```

If you paste that code into the REPL, you'll see this result:

```
val x: scala.collection.SortedMap[Int, String]
= TreeMap(1 -> a, 2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d)
```

Remember the insertion order with LinkedHashMap, VectorMap, or ListMap

If you want a `Map` that remembers the insertion order of its elements, use a `LinkedHashMap`, `VectorMap`, or possibly a `ListMap`. The `LinkedHashMap` only comes in a mutable form, so first import it:

```
import collection.mutable.LinkedHashMap
```

Now when you create a `LinkedHashMap`, it stores the elements in the order in which they're inserted:

```
val x = LinkedHashMap(    // x: LinkedHashMap(1 ->
  1 -> "a",
  2 -> "b"
)
x += (3 -> "c")          // x: LinkedHashMap(1 ->
x += (4 -> "d")          // x: LinkedHashMap(1 ->
```

Per its Scaladoc, `VectorMap` “implements immutable maps using a vector/map-based data structure, which preserves insertion order... `VectorMap` has amortized effectively constant lookup at the expense of using extra memory and generally lower performance for other operations.” It works like the base immutable map but preserves the insertion order:

```
import collection.immutable.VectorMap

val a = VectorMap(          // a: VectorMap(10)
  10 -> "a"
)
val b = a ++ Map(7 -> "b") // b: VectorMap(10)
val c = b ++ Map(3 -> "c") // c: VectorMap(10)
```

You can also use an immutable `ListMap`, but it's a bit of an unusual creature. Internally, elements are stored like a `List`, with the most recent element stored in the head position. But per [the ListMap Scaladoc](#), “List map iterators and traversal methods visit key-value pairs *in the order they were first inserted*,” which is a tail-to-head walk. Because of this, performance can be poor, so `ListMap` is only suitable for small collections. See the immutable `ListMap` Scaladoc for more performance details.

Discussion

[Table 14-1](#) shows a summary of the basic Scala map classes and traits and provides a brief description of each. The text in quotes comes from the Scaladoc for each class.

Table 14-1. Basic map classes and traits

Class or trait Class or trait	Description Description
collection.immutable.Map	This is the default immutable map you can use if you don't implement anything.
collection.mutable.Map	A mutable version of the basic map.
collection.immutable.VectorMap	A vector/map-based data structure, which preserves insertion order.

Class or trait

order; has amortized constant time complexity for all operations.

Description
effectively constant time complexity for all operations. This is achieved by maintaining a linked list of nodes that remembers the insertion order; has amortized constant time complexity for all operations.

```
collection.mutable.LinkedHashMap
```

“The iterator and traversal methods return elements in the order they were inserted.”

```
collection.immutable.SortedMap
```

Keys of the map are returned in sorted order: “key-value pairs”.

Class or trait **are sorted according to their keys.** `scala.math.Ordered`

Although those are the most commonly used maps, Scala offers even more map types. They are summarized in [Table 14-2](#), where the text in quotes comes from the Scaladoc for each class.

Table 14-2. More map classes and traits

Class or trait	Description
collection.immutable.HashMap	“Implements immutable maps using a Compacting Hash-Array Mapped tree.”
collection.immutable.TreeMap	“This class is optimized for range queries will be performed, or where traversal in order of ordering is desired.”
collection.mutable.WeakHashMap	A wrapper around

Class or trait

`java.util.WeakHashMap`

Description
a map entry is rem

the key is no longer
strongly referenced

`collection.immutable.ListMap`

“Implements immutable maps using a list-based structure”; several operations are $O(n)$ “which makes this collection suitable for a small number of elements.”

There are a few more map classes in the [scala-collection-contrib](#) library, which “provides various additions to the Scala 2.13 standard collections.” Its `MultiDict` class replaces the old `MultiMap` class, and “can associate a set of values to a given

key.” There’s also a `SortedMultiDict`, which is a sorted version of `MultiDict`.

Parallel map classes

Starting with Scala 2.13, the [parallel collections library](#) was moved to a separate JAR file, and it’s now maintained on GitHub. That library includes parallel/concurrent map implementations such as

```
collection.parallel.immutable.ParMap,  
collection.parallel.immutable.ParHashMap,  
collection.parallel.mutable.ParHashMap, and others.
```

See that project for more details.

See Also

- When map performance is important, see [Recipe 11.2, “Understanding the Performance of Collections”](#).

14.3 Adding, Updating, and
Removing Immutable Map Elements

Problem

You want to add, update, or delete elements when working with an *immutable* map.

Solution

You can't update an immutable `Map` in place, so:

- Apply a functional method for each purpose.
- Remember to assign the result to a new variable.

To be clear about the approach, the following examples use an immutable map with a series of `val` variables. First, create an immutable map as a `val`:

```
val a = Map(1 -> "a")      // a: Map[Int, String] =
```

Adding elements

Add one key/value pair with the `+` method, assigning the result to a new variable during the process:

```
// add one element
val b = a + (2 -> "b")    // b: Map(1 -> a, 2 -> b)
```

Add two or more key/value pairs using `++` and a collection:

```
// add multiple elements
val c = b ++ Map(3 -> "c", 4 -> "d")
// c: Map(1 -> a, 2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d)

val d = c ++ List(5 -> "e", 6 -> "f")
// d: HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> a, 6 -> f, 2 -> b,
```

Updating elements

To update one key/value pair with an immutable map, reassign the key and value while using the `+` method, and the new values replace the old:

```
val e = d + (1 -> "AA")
// e: HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> AA, 6 -> f, 2 -> b,
```

To update multiple key/value pairs, supply the new values as a map or as a sequence of tuples:

```
// update multiple elements at once with a Map
val e = d ++ Map(2 -> "BB", 3 -> "CC")
// e: HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> a, 6 -> f, 2 -> BB,
```

```
// update multiple elements at once with a List
val e = d ++ List(2 -> "BB", 3 -> "CC")
// e: HashMap(5 -> e, 1 -> a, 6 -> f, 2 -> BB)
```

Removing elements

To remove one element, use the `-` method, specifying the key to remove:

```
val e = d - 1 // e: HashMap(5 -> e, 6 -> f, 2 -> BB)
```

To remove multiple elements, use the `--` method:

```
val e = d -- List(1, 2, 3) // e: HashMap(5 -> e, 6 -> f)
```

Discussion

You can also declare an immutable map as a `var`, and then reassign the result of each operation back to the same variable. Using a `var`, the previous examples look like this:

```
// declare the map variable as a `var`
var a = Map(1 -> "a")
```

```

// add one element
a = a + (2 -> "b")

// add multiple elements
a = a ++ Map(3 -> "c", 4 -> "d")
a = a ++ List(5 -> "e", 6 -> "f")

// update where the key is 1
a = a + (1 -> "AA")

// update multiple elements at one time
a = a ++ Map(2 -> "BB", 3 -> "CC")
a = a ++ List(4 -> "DD", 5 -> "EE")

// remove one element by specifying its key
a = a - 1

// remove multiple elements
a = a -- List(2, 3)

```

In these examples, because `a` is defined as a `var`, it's being reassigned during each step in the process.

14.4 Adding, Updating, and Removing Elements in Mutable Maps

Problem

You want to add, remove, or update elements in a mutable map.

Solution

Add elements to a mutable map by:

- Assigning them with this syntax: `map(key) = value`
- Using `+=`
- Using `++=`

Remove elements with:

- `-=`
- `---=`

Update elements by reassigning their keys to new values. The Discussion shows additional methods you can use, including `put`, `filterInPlace`, `remove`, and `clear`.

Given a new, mutable `Map`:

```
val m = scala.collection.mutable.Map[Int, String]
```

you can add an element to a map by assigning a key to a value:

```
m(1) = "a" // m: HashMap(1 -> a)
```

You can also add individual elements with the `+=` method:

```
m += (2 -> "b") // m: HashMap(1 -> a, 2 -> b)
```

Add multiple elements from another collection using `++=`:

```
m ++= Map(3 -> "c", 4 -> "d")
// m: HashMap(1 -> a, 2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d)
```

```
m ++= List(5 -> "e", 6 -> "f")
// m: HashMap(1 -> a, 2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d,
```

Remove a single element from a map by specifying its key with the `-=` method:

```
m -= 1 // m: HashMap(2 -> b, 3 -> c, 4 -> d, 5 -> e, 6 -> f)
```

Remove multiple elements by key with the `--=` method:

```
m --= List(2, 3) // m: HashMap(4 -> d, 5 -> e, 6 -> f)
```

Update elements by reassigning their key to a new value:

```
m(4) = "DD" // m: HashMap(4 -> DD, 5 -> e,
```

The Discussion shows more ways to modify mutable maps.

Discussion

The methods shown in the Solution demonstrate the most common approaches. You can also use:

- `put` to add a key/value pair, or replace an existing value
- `filterInPlace` to keep only the elements in the map that match the predicate you supply
- `remove` to remove an element by its key value
- `clear` to delete all elements in the map

For example, given this mutable `Map`:

```
val m = collection.mutable.Map(  
    "AK" -> "Alaska",  
    "IL" -> "Illinois",  
    "KY" -> "Kentucky"  
)
```

those methods are shown in the following examples:

```
// returns None if the key WAS NOT in the map
val x = m.put("CO", "Colorado")
    // x: Option[String] = None

// m: HashMap(AK -> Alaska, IL -> Illinois, (AK, IL) -> Map[State, State])

// returns Some if the key WAS in the map
val x = m.put("CO", "Colorado")
    // x: Option[String] = Some(Colorado)
    // m: HashMap(AK -> Alaska, IL -> Illinois, (AK, IL) -> Map[State, State])

m.filterInPlace((k,v) => k == "AK")
    // m: HashMap(AK -> Alaska)

// `remove` returns a Some if the key WAS in the map
val x = m.remove("AK")
    // x: Option[String] = Some(Alaska)
    // m: collection.mutable.Map[String, String]

// `remove` returns a None if the key WAS NOT in the map
val x = m.remove("FOO")
    // x: Option[String] = None
    // m: collection.mutable.Map[String, String]

m.clear    // m: HashMap()
```

The comments in the examples explain when methods like `put` and `remove` return `Some` and `None` values.

14.5 Accessing Map Values (Without Exceptions)

Problem

You want to access individual values stored in a map without throwing an exception. For example, given a little map:

```
val states = Map(  
    "AL" -> "Alabama",  
)
```

you can access the value associated with a key just like you access array elements:

```
val s = states("AL") // s: Alabama
```

However, a `java.util.NoSuchElementException` exception is thrown if the map doesn't contain the requested key:

```
val s = states("YO") // java.util.NoSuchElementException
```

Solution

To avoid exceptions, use:

- `withDefaultValue` when creating the map
- `getOrElse` when accessing elements
- `get` to return map values as a `Some` or `None`

For example, given a map:

```
val states = Map(  
    "AL" -> "Alabama",  
    "AK" -> "Alaska",  
    "AZ" -> "Arizona"  
)
```

one way to avoid this problem is to create the map with the `withDefaultValue` method:

```
val states = Map(  
    "AL" -> "Alabama"  
)  
.withDefaultValue("Not found")
```

As the name implies, this creates a default value that will be returned by the map whenever a key isn't found:

```
val x = states("AL")      // x: Alabama
val x = states("yo")      // x: Not found
```

Another solution is to use the `getOrElse` method when attempting to find a value. It returns the default value you specify if the key isn't found:

```
val s = states.getOrElse("yo", "No such state")
```

Yet another solution is to use the `get` method, which returns an `Option`:

```
val x = states.get("AZ")    // x: Some(Arizona)
val x = states.get("yo")    // x: None
```

Having these three options is nice because they give you different ways to work, depending on your preferred programming style.

14.6 Testing for the Existence of a Key or Value in a Map

Problem

You want to test whether a map contains a given key or value.

Solution

To test for the existence of a key in a map, use the `contains` or `get` methods. To test for the existence of a value in a map, use the `valuesIterator` method.

Testing for keys

To test for the existence of a *key* in a map, using the `contains` method is a straightforward solution:

```
val states = Map(  
    "AK" -> "Alaska",  
    "IL" -> "Illinois",  
    "KY" -> "Kentucky"  
)
```

```
states.contains("FOO")      // false
states.contains("AK")        // true
```

Depending on your needs, you can also call `get` on the map and see if it returns a `None` or a `Some`:

```
states.get("FOO")           // None
states.get("AK")             // Some(Alaska)
```

For instance, this approach can be used in a `match` expression:

```
states.get("AK") match
  case Some(state) => println(s"state = $state")
  case None => println("state not found")
```

As shown in the previous recipe, note that attempting to use a key that isn't in the map will throw an exception:

```
states("AL")                // java.util.NoSuchElement
```

Testing for values

To test whether a *value* exists in a map, use the `valuesIterator` method to search for the value using

contains:

```
states.valuesIterator.contains("Alaska")      // true  
states.valuesIterator.contains("Kentucky")    // true  
states.valuesIterator.contains("ucky")        // false
```

This works because (a) the `valuesIterator` method returns an `Iterator`:

```
states.valuesIterator      // Iterator[String] = iterator@123456789012345678
```

and (b) `contains` returns `true` if the element you supply is a value in the map. If you need to perform more of a search operation on your map values, you can also use these approaches:

```
states.valuesIterator.exists(_.contains("ucky"))  
states.valuesIterator.exists(_.matches("Ala.*"))
```

Because `exists` takes a function, you can use this technique with more complex key values and your own algorithm.

Discussion

When chaining methods like this together, be careful about intermediate results, especially with large collections. For this recipe I originally used the `values` methods to get the values from the map, but this produces a new intermediate collection. If you have a large map, this can consume a lot of memory. Conversely, the `valuesIterator` method returns a lightweight iterator.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.5](#) shows how to avoid an exception while accessing a map key.
- [Recipe 14.7](#) demonstrates the `values` and `valuesIterator` methods.

14.7 Getting the Keys or Values from a Map

Problem

You want to get all of the keys or values from a map.

Solution

Keys

To get the keys, use these methods:

- `keySet` to get the keys as a `Set`
- `keys` to get an `Iterable`
- `keysIterator` to get the keys as an iterator

These methods are shown in the following examples:

```
val states = Map("AK" -> "Alaska", "AL" -> "Alabama")
states.keySet          // Set[String] = Set(AK, AL)
states.keys            // Iterable[String] = Set(AK, AL)
states.keysIterator    // Iterator[String] = <iterator>
```

Values

To get the values from a map, use:

- the `values` method to get the values as an `Iterable`
- `valuesIterator` to get them as an `Iterator`

These methods are shown in the following examples:

```
states.values          // Iterable[String] = Iterable[Alaska, Alabama]
states.valuesIterator  // Iterator[String] = <iterator>
```

Discussion

As shown in these examples, `keysIterator` and `valuesIterator` return an iterator from the map data. You'll generally want to use these methods when you have a large map, because they don't create a new collection; they just provide an iterator to walk over the existing elements.

Also note that if you want to transform the map's values, use the `view.mapValues` or `transform` methods, as shown in [Recipe 14.9](#).

14.8 Finding the Largest (or Smallest) Key or Value in a Map

Problem

You want to find the largest or smallest key or value in a map.

Solution

Depending on your needs and the map data, use the `max` and `min` methods on the map, or use the map's `keysIterator` or

`valuesIterator` with other approaches.

Two approaches to finding the largest and smallest *keys* are shown here in the Solution, and approaches to finding the largest and smallest *values* are shown in the Discussion.

To demonstrate the approach to working with `Map` keys, first create a sample `Map`:

```
val grades = Map(  
    "Al" -> 80,  
    "Kim" -> 95,  
    "Teri" -> 85,  
    "Julia" -> 90  
)
```

In this map, the key has the type `String`, so which key is “largest” depends on your definition. You can find the largest or smallest key using the natural `String` sort order by calling the `max` and `min` methods on the map:

```
grades.max // (Teri, 85)  
grades.min // (Al, 80)
```

Because the *T* in *Teri* is furthest down the alphabet in the names, it’s returned as the max. *Al* is returned as the min for

the same reason.

You can also call `keysIterator`—which returns a `scala.collection.Iterator`—to get an iterator over the map keys and call its `max` and `min` methods:

```
grades.keysIterator.max    // Teri  
grades.keysIterator.min   // Al
```

Additionally, you can find the same max and min values by getting the `keysIterator` and using `reduceLeft`:

```
scala> grades.keysIterator.reduceLeft((x,y) => if x.length > y.length then x else y)  
val res2: String = Teri  
  
scala> grades.keysIterator.reduceLeft((x,y) => if x.length < y.length then y else x)  
val res3: String = Al
```

This approach is flexible, because if your definition of *largest* is the longest string, you can compare string lengths instead:

```
scala> grades.keysIterator.reduceLeft((x,y) => if x.length > y.length then x else y)  
res4: String = Julia
```

Discussion

When you need to find the largest and smallest *values* in a `Map`, use the `valuesIterator` method to iterate through the values, while calling the `max` or `min` method on the iterator:

```
grades.valuesIterator.max    // 95  
grades.valuesIterator.min   // 80
```

This works because the values in the `Map` are of the type `Int`, which has an implicit `Ordering`. Per the official documentation for [implicit conversions](#), an “implicit method `Int => Ordered[Int]` is provided automatically through `scala.Predef.intWrapper`.”

Conversely, if the type that’s used as the value in a `Map` doesn’t provide an `Ordering`, this approach won’t work. See [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#), and [Recipe 12.11, “Sorting Arrays”](#), for more details about implementing the `scala.math.Ordered` or `scala.math.Ordering` traits.

Similarly, you can also use `max` and `min` with `reduceLeft`, if you prefer:

```
grades.valuesIterator.reduceLeft(_ max _)    // 95  
grades.valuesIterator.reduceLeft(_ min _)    // 80
```

The benefit of using `reduceLeft` is that you can compare *any* type of value with your own custom algorithm, which is representative of what you may need to do with more complex data types. These examples demonstrate how to use `reduceLeft` with a slightly more complicated algorithm:

```
// max  
scala> grades.valuesIterator.reduceLeft((x,y) =>  
val res5: Int = 95  
  
// min  
scala> grades.valuesIterator.reduceLeft((x,y) =>  
val res6: Int = 80
```

Now that you've seen how to access those `x` and `y` values, you can create any algorithm necessary for your comparison.

See Also

- [Recipe 13.10, “Walking Through a Collection with the reduce and fold Methods”](#)

- [Recipe 14.10](#)

14.9 Traversing a Map

Problem

You want to iterate over the elements in a map.

Solution

There are several different ways to iterate over the elements in a map. Given a sample map:

```
val ratings = Map(  
    "Lady in the Water" -> 3.0,  
    "Snakes on a Plane" -> 4.0,  
    "You, Me and Dupree" -> 3.5  
)
```

a nice way to loop over all the map elements is with this `for` loop syntax:

```
for (k, v) <- ratings do println(s"key: $k, value
```

Using `foreach` with an anonymous function is also a very readable approach:

```
ratings.foreach {  
    case (movie, rating) => println(s"key: $movie,  
    value: $rating")  
}
```

This approach shows how to use the tuple syntax to access the key and value fields:

```
ratings.foreach(x => println(s"key: ${x._1}, value: ${x._2}"))
```

Note: Those are not my movie ratings. They are taken from the book, [Programming Collective Intelligence](#) by Toby Segaran (O'Reilly).

Discussion

Note that the `foreach` method with an anonymous function can be written three different ways with Scala 3:

```
ratings.foreach {  
    (movie, rating) => println(s"key: $movie, value: $rating")  
}
```

```
ratings.foreach {  
    case movie -> rating => println(s"key: $movie  
        value: $rating")  
}  
  
// works with Scala 2  
ratings.foreach {  
    case (movie, rating) => println(s"key: $movie,  
        value: $rating")  
}
```

In each of those examples, the code inside the curly braces serves as an anonymous function.

Depending on how you want to traverse the map, you may just want to access the map's keys or values.

Keys

If you just want to access the keys in the map, you can use

`keysIterator` to get all the keys as a lightweight `Iterator`:

```
val i = ratings.keysIterator  
  
// the iterator provides access to the map's keys  
i.toList // List(Lady in the Water, Snakes on a Plane, ...)
```

The `keys` method returns an `Iterable`, so it involves creating a new intermediate collection (which can be a performance issue if you have a large map), but it works easily:

```
scala> ratings.keys.foreach((m) => println(s"$m : " + ratings(m)))
Lady in the Water rating is 3.0
Snakes on a Plane rating is 4.0
You, Me and Dupree rating is 3.5
```

Values

If you want to traverse the map to perform an operation on its values, the `mapValues` method—which is defined in the `MapView` trait—may be what you need. First call `view` on your map to create a `MapView`, then call `mapValues`. It lets you apply a function to each map value and returns the modified map:

```
val a = Map(1 -> "ay", 2 -> "bee")
// a: Map[Int, String] = Map(1 -> ay, 2 -> bee)

val b = a.view.mapValues(_.toUpperCase).toMap
```

Because a view implements its transformer methods in a nonstrict or lazy manner, creating a view before calling `mapValues` only creates a lightweight iterator:

```
// `view` uses an iterator
a.view // MapView(<not cor
```

This approach can be especially beneficial if the map is very large. See [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), for more details on views.

Conversely, you can use the `values` method and `map` to solve this problem:

```
a.values.map(_.toUpperCase) // List(AY, BEE)
```

But be aware that the first step in this process creates an intermediate `Iterable`:

```
a.values // Iterable(ay, bee)
```

So for a large map, this approach can create a performance or memory problem because of that additional intermediate

collection.

If you need to transform the values

If you want to traverse a map to transform the map values, the `transform` method gives you another way to create a new map from an existing map. Unlike `mapValues`, you can use both the key and value to transform the values:

```
val map1 = Map(1 -> 10, 2 -> 20, 3 -> 30)

// use the map keys and values to create new values
val map2 = map1.transform((k,v) => k + v)
           // map2: Map(1 -> 11, 2 -> 22, 3 -> 33)
```

For more complicated situations you can also create a view on the initial `Map` and then call the `map` method on that `MapView`, which gives you access to the `Map` keys and values:

```
val map3 = map1.view.map((k,v) => (k, k + v)).toMap
```

14.10 Sorting an Existing Map by Key or Value

Problem

You have an unsorted map and want to sort the elements in the map by the key or value.

Solution

Given a basic immutable `Map`:

```
val grades = Map(  
    "Kim" -> 90,  
    "Al" -> 85,  
    "Melissa" -> 95,  
    "Emily" -> 91,  
    "Hannah" -> 92  
)
```

you can sort the map by key, from low to high, using `sortBy`, and then store the result in a mutable `LinkedHashMap` or immutable `VectorMap`. Two solutions are shown here:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.LinkedHashMap  
  
// Version 1: sorts by key by accessing each tuple  
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortBy((k,v) =>  
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Al -> 85, Emily -> 91, Ha  
    //
```

```
//           Melissa -> 95)

// Version 2: sorts by key using the tuple '_._1'
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortBy(_._1):_
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Al -> 85, Emily -> 91, Ha_
    //                   Melissa -> 95)
```

You can also sort the keys in ascending or descending order using `sortWith` and your own custom algorithm, again storing the result in a `LinkedHashMap`:

```
// sort by key, low to high
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortWith(_.._1 < _._1):_
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Al -> 85, Emily -> 91, Ha_
    //                   Melissa -> 95)

// sort by key, high to low
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortWith(_.._1 > _._1):_
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Melissa -> 95, Kim -> 90,_
    //                   Al -> 85)
```

This syntax is explained in the Discussion.

You can sort the map by value using `sortBy`:

```
// value, low to high, accessing elements as `(`(k,
```

```
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortBy((k,v) =>
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Al -> 85, Kim -> 90, Emily -> 95,
    //                               Melissa -> 95))

// value, low to high, using the tuple `_` syntax
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortBy(_._2):_*)

// x: LinkedHashMap(Al -> 85, Kim -> 90, Emily -> 95,
//                               Melissa -> 95)
```

You can also sort by value in ascending or descending order using `sortWith`:

```
// sort by value, low to high
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortWith(_._2 < _._2):
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Al -> 85, Kim -> 90, Emily -> 95,
    //                               Melissa -> 95)

// sort by value, high to low
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortWith(_._2 > _._2):
    // x: LinkedHashMap(Melissa -> 95, Hannah -> 90,
    //                               Al -> 85))
```

In addition to using a `LinkedHashMap`, you can also store the results in an immutable `VectorMap`. When performance is a

concern, be sure to test both map types to see which works best for your situation.

Discussion

To understand these solutions, it's helpful to break them down into smaller pieces. First, start with the basic immutable `Map`:

```
val grades = Map(  
    "Kim" -> 90,  
    "Al" -> 85,  
    "Melissa" -> 95,  
    "Emily" -> 91,  
    "Hannah" -> 92  
)
```

Next, you can see that `grades.toSeq` creates a sequence of two-element tuple values, i.e., `Seq[(String, Int)]`:

```
val x = grades.toSeq  
// x: ArrayBuffer((Hannah, 92), (Melissa, 95),
```

You make the conversion to a `Seq` because it has sorting methods you can use:

```
// sort by key
val x = grades.toSeq.sortBy(_._1)
  // x: Seq[(String, Int)] =
  // ArrayBuffer((Al,85), (Emily,91), (Hannah,92))

// sort by key
val x = grades.toSeq.sortWith(_.._1 < _.._1)
  // x: Seq[(String, Int)] =
  // ArrayBuffer((Al,85), (Emily,91), (Hannah,92))
```

In these examples, the `_._1` syntax refers to the first element of each tuple, which is the *key*. Similarly, `_._2` refers to the *value*.

Once you have the map data sorted as desired, store it in a `LinkedHashMap`, `VectorMap`, or `ListMap` to retain the sorted order:

```
val x = LinkedHashMap(grades.toSeq.sortBy(_._1) :_
  // x: scala.collection.mutable.LinkedHashMap
  // Map(Al -> 85, Emily -> 91, Hannah -> 92, I
```

`LinkedHashMap` is only available as a mutable class, and `VectorMap` is an immutable map. There's also an immutable

`ListMap`, but it's only recommended for small maps. Use whichever is best for your situation.

About that `_*`

The `_*` portion of the code takes a little getting used to. It's a special syntax used to convert the data so it will be passed as multiple parameters to `LinkedHashMap` (or `VectorMap` or `ListMap`). If you've ever used the `xargs` command on Unix systems, it works in a similar way, taking a sequence of elements as input and passing one element at a time to the next command.

You can see this by again breaking down the code into separate lines. The `sortBy` method returns a `Seq[(String, Int)]`, i.e., a sequence of tuples:

```
val seqOfTuples = grades.toSeq.sortBy(_._1)
// seqOfTuples: Seq[(String, Int)] =
// List((Al,85), (Emily,91), (Hannah,92), (K...
```

Unfortunately, you can't construct a `VectorMap`, `LinkedHashMap`, or `ListMap` with a sequence of tuples:

```
scala> VectorMap(seqOfTuples)
1 | VectorMap(seqOfTuples)
```

```
+ | VectorMap(seqOfTuples),
|   ^^^^
|   |
|       Found:      (seqOfTuples : Seq[(String,
|       Required: (Any, Any)
```

But because the `apply` method in the `VectorMap` companion object accepts a tuple-2 varargs parameter, you can adapt `seqOfTuples` to work with it by using `_*` to convert the sequence of tuple-2 elements into a series of individual tuple-2 values. This gives the `VectorMap`'s `apply` method what it wants:

```
val x = VectorMap(seqOfTuples: _*)
// x: scala.collection.immutable.VectorMap[St
// VectorMap(Al -> 85, Emily -> 91, Hannah ->
```

Another way to see how `_*` works is to define your own method that takes a varargs parameter. The following `printAll` method takes one parameter, a varargs field of type `String`:

```
def printAll(strings: String*): Unit = strings.foreach(
```

If you then create a `List` like this:

```
// a sequence of strings
val fruits = List("apple", "banana", "cherry")
```

you'll see that you can't pass that `List` into `printAll`; it fails like the previous example:

```
scala> printAll(fruits)
1 |printAll(fruits)
   |
   |          ^
   |          Found:      (fruits : List[String])
   |          Required: String
```

But you can use `_*` to adapt the `List` to work with `printAll`, like this:

```
// this works
scala> printAll(fruits: _*)
apple
banana
cherry
```

If you come from a Unix background, it may be helpful to think of `_*` as a *splat* operator. This operator tells the compiler to pass each element of the sequence to `printAll` as a separate

argument, instead of passing `fruits` as a single `List` argument.

14.11 Filtering a Map

Problem

You want to filter the elements contained in a map, either by directly modifying a mutable map or by applying a filtering algorithm on an immutable map to create a new map.

Solution

Use the `filterInPlace` method to define the elements to retain when using a mutable map, and use `filterKeys` or `filter` to filter the elements in a mutable or immutable map, remembering to assign the result to a new variable.

Mutable maps

You can filter the elements in a *mutable* map using the `filterInPlace` method to specify which elements should be retained:

```
val x = collection.mutable.Map(
```

```
1 -> 100,  
2 -> 200,  
3 -> 300  
)  
  
x.filterInPlace((k,v) => k > 1) // x: HashMap  
x.filterInPlace((k,v) => v > 200) // x: HashMap
```

As shown, `filterInPlace` modifies a mutable map in place. As implied by the anonymous function signature used in that example:

```
(k, v) => ...
```

your algorithm can test both the key and value of each element to decide which elements to retain in the map.

Depending on your definition of “filter,” you can also remove elements from a map using methods like `remove` and `clear`, which are shown in [Recipe 14.3](#).

Mutable and immutable maps

When working with a mutable or immutable map, you can use a predicate with the `filterKeys` method to define which map elements to retain. To use this method you’ll first need to call

the `view` method on your `Map` to create a `MapView`. Then remember to assign the filtered result to a new variable:

```
val x = Map(  
    1 -> "a",  
    2 -> "b",  
    3 -> "c"  
)  
  
val y = x.view.filterKeys(_ > 2).toMap // y: Ma
```

The predicate you supply should return `true` for the elements you want to keep in the new collection, and `false` for the elements you don't want.

Notice that with this approach, if you don't call `toMap` at the end, you'll see this result in the REPL:

```
scala> val y = x.view.filterKeys(_ > 2)  
val y: scala.collection.MapView[Int, String] = Ma
```

Here you see `MapView(<not computed>)` because calling `view` creates a lazy view on the initial map, and the calculation isn't actually performed until you force it to be performed by

calling a method such as `toMap`. (See [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#), for more details on how *views* work.)

If your algorithm is longer, you can define a function (or method) and then pass it to `filterKeys`, rather than using an anonymous function. For example, first define your method, such as this somewhat verbose (but clear) method, which returns `true` when the value the method is given is `1`:

```
def only1(i: Int) = if i == 1 then true else false
```

Then pass the method to the `filterKeys` method:

```
val x = Map(1 -> "a", 2 -> "b", 3 -> "c")
val y = x.view.filterKeys(only1).toMap // y: Map[Int, String]
```

You can also use a `Set` with `filterKeys` to define the elements to retain:

```
val x = Map(1 -> "a", 2 -> "b", 3 -> "c")
```

```
val y = x.view.filterKeys(Set(2,3)).toMap
// y: Map[Int, String] = Map(2 -> b, 3 -> c)
```

The Discussion demonstrates other filtering methods, such as how to filter a `Map` by its values.

Discussion

You can use all the filtering methods that are shown in [Recipe 13.7, “Using filter to Filter a Collection”](#). For instance, the `Map` version of the `filter` method lets you filter the map elements by key, value, or both. The `filter` method provides your predicate a tuple-2, so you can access the key and value as shown in these examples:

```
// an immutable map
val a = Map(1 -> "a", 2 -> "b", 3 -> "c")

// filter by the key
val b = a.filter((k,v) => k > 1)           // b: Map

// filter by the value
val c = a.filter((k,v) => v != "b")         // c: Map
```

Your filter algorithm can also use a tuple, if you prefer:

```
// filter by the key (t._1)
val b = a.filter((t) => t._1 > 1)           // b: Map

// filter by the value (t._2)
val b = a.filter((t) => t._2 != "b")          // b: Map
```

The `take` method lets you “take” (keep) the first `N` elements from the map:

```
val b = a.take(2)                                // b: Map
```

See the filtering recipes in [Recipe 13.7, “Using filter to Filter a Collection”](#), for examples of other methods that you can use, including `takeWhile`, `drop`, and `slice`.

Chapter 15. Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue

Compared to the previous collection chapters, this chapter covers collection classes that tend to be a little different than your standard sequence and map types.

A *tuple* is essentially a sequence, but like a class or trait, it can contain any number of different types, as shown in this REPL example:

```
scala> (1, 2.2, "a", 'a')
val res0: (Int, Double, String, Char) = (1, 2.2,
```

Tuples are convenient to use when you just want a container for a series of potentially mixed types like this. [Recipe 15.1](#) demonstrates the use of tuples.

A *range* is an evenly spaced sequence of whole numbers or characters and is often used in `for` loops and to populate other collections. Their use is covered in [Recipe 15.2](#).

A set is a collection that contains only unique elements, where uniqueness is determined by the `==` method of the type the set contains. Because a set only contains unique elements, if you attempt to add duplicate elements to it, the set ignores the request. Scala has both immutable and mutable versions of its base `Set` implementation and offers additional set classes for other needs, such as having sorted sets. Sets are covered in Recipes [15.3](#) through [15.5](#).

A *queue* is a first-in, first-out data structure, and a *stack* is a last-in, first-out structure. Scala has both mutable and immutable versions of each type, and they're demonstrated in Recipes [15.6](#) and [15.7](#), respectively.

15.1 Creating Heterogeneous Lists with Tuples

Problem

You want to create a small collection of heterogeneous elements, but without having to create a `List[Matchable]`, `List[Any]`, or a class-like structure.

Solution

Where collections like `Vector` and `ArrayBuffer` are generally intended to contain a sequence of *homogeneous* elements such as `Vector[Int]` or `ArrayBuffer[String]`, a tuple lets you create a collection of *heterogeneous* elements in a sequence.

To create a tuple, just put the values you want inside parentheses, separated by commas. For instance, these examples show how to create tuples that contain two, three, and four values of different types, as shown in the comments:

```
(1, 1.1)           // (Int, Double)
(1, 1.1, 'A')     // (Int, Double, Char)
(1, 1.1, 'A', "a") // (Int, Double, Char, String)
```

Tuples are great for those times where you want a little collection of miscellaneous heterogeneous elements. For example, here's a method that returns a two-element tuple:

```
// return the user name and age
def getUserInfo(): (String, Int) =
    // do whatever you need to do to get the data
    // return it as a tuple
    ("johndoe", 42)
```

The `(String, Int)` return type shows how to declare a tuple as a return type. Specifically, this is a two-element tuple composed of a `String` and an `Int`. You can also declare that return type as a `Tuple2`, like this:

```
def getUserInfo(): Tuple2[String, Int] = ("johndoe", 42)
```

With either approach, when you call that method, you create a tuple variable:

```
val userInfo = getUserInfo() // (String, Int)
```

With Scala 2 you could only access the tuple elements using this underscore syntax:

```
userInfo._1 // "johndoe"  
userInfo._2 // 42
```

But with Scala 3 you can also access the elements by their index number, just like using other sequences:

```
userInfo(0) // "johndoe"  
userInfo(1) // 42
```

Another common way to create variables from a tuple is to use pattern matching to deconstruct the tuple values into variables.

This example binds the "johndoe" and 42 values to the variables name and age, respectively:

```
val (name, age) = getUserInfo()
name // "johndoe"
age // 42
```

Because Scala 3 tuples are more like lists, they have several of the usual collections methods:

```
val t = (1, 2.2, "yo")
t.size // 3
t.head // Int = 1
t.tail // (Double, String) = (2.2, yo)
t.drop(1) // (Double, String) = (2.2, yo)
```

You can also concatenate two tuples:

```
val t = (1, "a") ++ (3.3, 'D') // (Int, String,
```

There's also a swap method that's available with two-element tuples:

```
val t = (1, 2.2)    // (Int, Double) = (1, 2.2)
t.swap              // (Double, Int) = (2.2, 1)
```

However, as you can imagine, it would be hard to implement all the standard collection methods on a tuple, because it can contain mixes types, like `Int`, `Double`, and `String` all in one tuple. So only a limited set of methods is available.

Discussion

Tuples in Scala 3 build on the *heterogeneous list* (`HList`) construct that was originally created by Miles Sabin in his [shapeless library](#) for Scala 2. The `HList` is a very interesting construct in that it's something of a cross between a sequence and a class (or at least a record type).

Tuples are like lists

In theory, you can create *sequences* of heterogeneous elements using implicit or explicit typing:

```
val xs = List(1, 2.2, "a", 'b')           // List[MyHList]
val xs: List[Any] = List(1, 2.2, "a", 'b') //
```

However, the problem with this is that you lose the type details.
By contrast, a tuple keeps those details:

```
(1, 2.2, "a", 'b') // (Int, Double, String, Char)
```

An important thing to know is that in Scala 3 you can also
create tuples with this `*:` syntax:

```
1 *: "a" *: 2.2 *: EmptyTuple // (Int, String,
```

This is similar to creating a `List` like this:

```
1 :: 2 :: Nil // List[Int] = List(1, 2)
```

It's important to know about the `*:` syntax because you'll also
see it in the REPL output when working with tuples:

```
scala> val z = (1,2).zip("a", "b")
val z: (Int, String) *:
      scala.Tuple.Zip[Int *: scala.Tuple$package.EmptyTuple.type, String *: scala.Tuple$package.EmptyTuple.type] = ((1,a),
                                                                 (2,b))

scala> z
val res0: (Int, String) *: (Int, String) *: EmptyTuple.type = ((1,a), (2,b))
```

That last line of output can be read as “`res0` is a tuple variable that consists of a `(Int, String)` tuple combined with another `(Int, String)` tuple.” You can tell that `res0` is a tuple because it consists of tuple types that are glued together with the `*:` symbol and ends with the `EmptyTuple`.

Tuples and classes

Tuples are nice because in some situations they can be a replacement for a class, as shown with the `getUserInfo` method, which returns a tuple instead of a class. Like other Scala features such as type inference and union and intersection types, tuples are a feature that makes Scala feel like a dynamic language.

Another use related to classes is that you can convert a simple `case` class to a tuple, as shown in this example:

```
// [1] create a case class and instance of it
case class Stock(symbol: String, price: Double)
val aapl = Stock("AAPL", 123.45)

// [2] create a tuple from the case class
val t = Tuple.fromProductTyped(aapl)    // (String,
```

The benefit of converting a `case` class to a tuple is that you can write generic methods like this one that accept *any* `(String, Double)` tuple:

```
def handleTuple(t: (String, Double)): Unit =  
    println(s"String: ${t(0)}, Double: ${t(1)}")
```

While this is a simple example, the technique has significant benefits when it comes to generic programming. See the blog post [“Tuples Bring Generic Programming to Scala 3”](#) for more details on converting between `case` classes and tuples.

Tuples and maps

Finally, you may also see two-element tuples used to create maps. This syntax isn't commonly used, but for the times you run into it, it helps to know that this possibility exists:

```
val m = Map(  
    (1, "a"),  
    (2, "b")  
)
```

In a related note, you can also create a two-element tuple using this arrow syntax:

```
1 -> "a"    // (Int, String) = (1,a)
```

This is the same arrow syntax that's typically used when creating a map:

```
val m = Map(  
  1 -> "a",  
  2 -> "b"  
)
```

See Also

- The blog post [“Tuples Bring Generic Programming to Scala 3”](#) has more details on tuples and generic programming.
- [The Type Astronaut’s Guide to Shapeless](#) is available for free in HTML and PDF formats and begins by describing uses of the original `HList` that was created by Miles Sabin.

15.2 Creating Ranges

Problem

You need to create a range of values, such as in a `for` loop, or create a sequence of numbers or characters from a range,

typically for testing purposes.

Solution

Use the `to` or `until` methods of the `Int` (or `Char`) class to create a `Range` with the desired elements. You can then convert that range to a sequence, if desired. To populate a sequence you can also use the `range` method of the desired sequence class (`List`, `Vector`, etc.).

Creating a range with `to`

A simple way to create a range is with the `to` method:

```
scala> val r = 1 to 5
r: scala.collection.immutable.Range.Inclusive = I
```

When using `to`, you can set an optional step with the `by` method:

```
val r = 1 to 10 by 2    // will contain Range(1, 3, 5, 7, 9)
val r = 1 to 10 by 3    // will contain Range(1, 4, 7)
```

Ranges are commonly used in `for` loops:

```
scala> for i <- 1 to 3 do println(i)
1
2
3
```

Ranges are created lazily, so when you create one in the REPL you'll see output like this:

```
scala> 1 to 10 by 2
val res0: Range = inexact Range 1 to 10 by 2
```

To verify the actual contents of a range, you can convert it to a sequence with methods like `toList`, `toVector`, etc.:

```
scala> (1 to 10 by 2).toList
val res1: List[Int] = List(1, 3, 5, 7, 9)
```

Creating a range with until

You can also create a range with `until` instead of `to`:

```
scala> for i <- 1 until 3 do println(i)
1
2
```

`until` doesn't include the last element you specify, so it's considered *exclusive*, while `to` is *inclusive*, as shown in these examples:

```
(1 to 3).toVector          // Vector(1, 2, 3)
(1 until 3).toVector        // Vector(1, 2)

(1 to 10 by 3).toList      // List(1, 4, 7, 10)
(1 until 10 by 3).toList    // List(1, 4, 7)
```

Populating sequences

As mentioned, once you have a `Range` you can convert it to other sequences. This is a common way to populate a sequence, such as for testing purposes:

```
(1 to 5).toList            // List[Int] = List(1, 2,
(1 until 5).toVector        // Vector[Int] = Vector(1,
(1 to 5).toBuffer          // mutable.Buffer[Int] = Buffer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

(1 to 5).toSeq              // immutable.Range = Range(1, 5)
(1 to 5).toSet                // Set[Int] = Set(5, 1, 2, 3, 4)
(1 to 5).to(LazyList)        // LazyList[Int] = LazyList(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
```

Notice from the results shown in the comments that most ranges are converted to actual sequences, while `toSeq` and `to(LazyList)` remain lazy (lazily evaluated).

Discussion

When you create a `Range`, the REPL output looks like this:

```
scala> val r = 1 to 5
r: scala.collection.immutable.Range.Inclusive = I
```

In this way a `Range` initially behaves like a lazy collection. Indeed, you can run this code in the REPL and you'll quickly see the REPL output, and not run out of memory:

```
scala> 1 to 999_999_999
res0: scala.collection.immutable.Range.Inclusive
```

However, as soon as you force the `Range` to become a sequence, such as a `Vector`, the elements are created and memory is consumed:

```
scala> (1 to 999_999_999).toVector
```

```
java.lang.OutOfMemoryError: GC overhead limit ex
```

Should you really need a list that large, you can create a range and convert it to a `LazyList`:

```
scala> (1 to 999_999_999).to(LazyList)
val res1: LazyList[Int] = LazyList(<not computed>
```

That approach returns almost immediately and doesn't allocate memory for its elements. You can also create a `LazyList` with its `range` method:

```
scala> LazyList.range(1, 999_999_999)
res1: scala.collection.immutable.LazyList[Int] =
```

Using the range method on sequences

As just shown in the `LazyList.range` example, you can create specific sequence types with their `range` methods:

```
Vector.range(1, 3)           // Vector(1, 2)
Array.range(1, 6, 2)          // Array(1, 3, 5)
List.range(1, 6, 2)           // List(1, 3, 5)
```

```
import collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer  
ArrayBuffer.range(1, 3)    // ArrayBuffer(1, 2)
```

The second parameter is not included in the result, so it works like the `until` method. The third parameter is the step size, which defaults to `1`:

```
List.range(1, 10)          // List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,  
List.range(1, 10, 2)       // List(1, 3, 5, 7, 9)  
List.range(1, 10, 3)       // List(1, 4, 7)  
List.range(1, 10, 4)       // List(1, 5, 9)
```

Char ranges

You can use the same approaches with `Char` values:

```
// 'to' and 'until' are lazy  
'A' to 'E'                  // NumericRange a to e  
'A' until 'E'                // NumericRange a until e  
  
// 'to' is inclusive, 'until' is not  
('A' to 'E').toList         // List(a, b, c, d, e)  
('A' until 'E').toList      // List(a, b, c, d)
```

```
// you can also use a step with Char
('A' to 'E' by 2).toList // List(a, c, e)
('A' to 'E').by(2).toList // List(a, c, e)
```

THE DETAILS

Behind the scenes, the `to` and `until` methods are available because of implicit conversions on the `Int` and `Char` classes. Per the Scaladoc of those classes:

- For the `Int` class, the `to` and `until` methods are “added by an implicit conversion from `Int` to `scala.runtime.RichInt`, performed by method `intWrapper` in `scala.LowPriorityImplicits`.”
- For `Char`, the `to` and `until` methods are “added by an implicit conversion from `Char` to `scala.runtime.RichChar`, performed by method `charWrapper` in `scala.LowPriorityImplicits`.”

For example, when you type the following portion of code, you’re invoking the `to` method of the `RichInt` class:

```
1 to
```

Therefore, these two pieces of code are equivalent:

```
1 to 5  
1.to(5)
```

Furthermore, you can clearly see that `to`, `by`, and `until` are methods in these examples:

```
(1 to 10 by 3).toVector      // Vector(1, 4, 7, 10)  
(1 to 10).by(3).toVector    // Vector(1, 4, 7, 10)  
1.to(10).by(3).toVector     // Vector(1, 4, 7, 10)  
1.until(10).by(3).toVector // Vector(1, 4, 7)
```

More ways to populate collections with ranges

By using the `map` method with a `Range`, you can create sequences with elements other than type `Int` or `Char`:

```
scala> val x = (1 to 5).map(_ * 2.0)
val x: IndexedSeq[Double] = Vector(2.0, 4.0, 6.0,
```

This can be a nice way to create sample data for testing. Using a similar approach, you can also return a sequence of `Tuple2` elements:

```
scala> val x = (1 to 5).map(e => (e, e))
val x: IndexedSeq[(Int, Int)] = Vector((1, 1), (2,
```

That sequence easily converts to a `Map`:

```
scala> val map = (1 to 5).map(e => (e, e)).toMap
val map: Map[Int, Int] = HashMap(5 -> 5, 1 -> 1,
```

On a note related to populating collections with data, you can also use the `tabulate` and `fill` methods:

```
List.tabulate(3)(_ + 1)      // List(1, 2, 3)
List.tabulate(3)(_ * 2)      // List(0, 2, 4)
List.tabulate(4)(_ * 2)      // List(0, 2, 4, 6)
Vector.fill(3)("a")         // Vector(a, a, a)
```

Those examples show the `Vector` and `List` classes, but they work with `ArrayBuffer`, `Array`, and other collections classes.

15.3 Creating a Set and Adding Elements to It

Problem

You want to create a new immutable or mutable set and add elements to it.

Solution

A *set* is a sequence that contains only unique elements. Immutable and mutable sets are handled differently, as demonstrated in the following examples.

Immutable Set

The following examples show how to create a new immutable set and then add elements to it. First, create an immutable set:

```
val s1 = Set(1, 2) // s1: Set[Int] = Set(1, 2)
```

Notice that there's no need to import the immutable `Set`; it's available by default.

As with other immutable collections, use the `+` and `++` methods to add new elements to an immutable `Set`, remembering to assign the result to a new variable:

```
// add one element
val s2 = s1 + 3 // s2: Set(1, 2, 3)

// add multiple elements from another sequence
val s3 = s2 ++ List(4, 5) // s3: Set(5, 1, 2, 3)
```

I show these examples with immutable variables—`val` fields—just to be clear about how the approach works. You can also declare your variable as a `var` and reassign the resulting set back to the same variable:

```
var s = Set(1, 2) // s: Set[Int] = Set(1, 2)
s = s + 3 // s: Set(1, 2, 3)
```

```
s += 4                      // s: Set(1, 2, 3, 4)
s = s ++ List(5, 6)          // s: HashSet(5, 1, 6, 2, 3)
```

See [Recipe 11.3, “Understanding Mutable Variables with Immutable Collections”](#), for more information on the difference between mutable/immutable *variables* and mutable/immutable *collections*.

Mutable Set

As with other mutable collections, add elements to a *mutable Set* with the `+=`, `++=`, and `add*` methods:

```
// declare that you want a set of Ints
val s = scala.collection.mutable.Set[Int]()
// s: Set[Int] = HashSet()

// add one element; += is an alias for addOne
s += 1                      // s: HashSet(1)
s.addOne(2)                  // s: HashSet(1, 2)

// add multiple elements; ++= is an alias for addAll
s ++= List(3, 4)             // s: HashSet(1, 2, 3, 4)
s.addAll(List(5, 6))         // s: HashSet(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)

// note that there is no error when you attempt to add a duplicate
```

```
s += 2                                // s: HashSet(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

// add elements from any sequence (any IterableOr
s ++= Vector(7, 8)      // s: HashSet(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8)

// the `add` method returns true if the element is
// false otherwise
val res = s.add(99)      // res=true,  s=HashSet(1,
val res = s.add(1)       // res=false, s=HashSet(1,
```

The last two examples demonstrate a unique characteristic of the `add` method on a mutable set: it returns `true` or `false` depending on whether or not the element was added. The other methods silently fail if you attempt to add an element that's already in the set. If necessary, you can test to see whether a set contains an element before adding it:

```
s.contains(5)          // true
```

Whereas the first example demonstrated how to create an empty set, you can also add elements to a mutable set when you declare it, just like other collections:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Set
val s = Set(1, 2, 3)
// s: scala.collection.mutable.Set[Tntl] = Has
```

15.4 Deleting Elements from Sets

Problem

You want to remove elements from a mutable or immutable set.

Solution

Immutable and mutable sets are handled differently, as demonstrated in the following examples.

Immutable Set

By definition, when using an *immutable set* you can't remove elements from it, but you can use the usual `-` and `--` methods to remove elements while assigning the result to a new variable:

```
// create an immutable set
val s1 = Set(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)    // s1: Set[Int]

// remove one element
val s2 = s1 - 1                    // s2 == HashSet
```

```
// remove multiple elements defined in another set
val s3 = s2 -- Seq(4, 5) // s3 == HashSet(1, 2, 3)
```

You can also use all the filtering methods shown in [Recipe 13.7, “Using filter to Filter a Collection”](#). For instance, you can use methods like `filter`, `take`, and `drop`:

```
val s1 = Set(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) // s1: Set[Int]
val s2 = s1.filter(_ > 3) // s2: HashSet(4, 5, 6)
val s3 = s1.take(2) // s3: HashSet(1, 2)
val s4 = s1.drop(2) // s4: HashSet(3, 4, 5, 6)
```

However, be aware that because the order in which elements are stored in a set depends on the value and number of its elements, methods like `take` and `drop` are rarely used with them:

```
val set = List.range(0, 1_000_000).toSet
set.take(3) // HashSet(769962, 348877, 864012)
```

In my experience they're mostly used when you want to extract a subset of a set for testing purposes.

Mutable Set

Remove elements from a *mutable set* using the `--=` and `---` methods, as shown in the following examples. First, create a mutable set:

```
val s = scala.collection.mutable.Set(1, 1, 1, 2,  
// s: scala.collection.mutable.Set[Int] = HashSet
```

Notice in the result of that example that the duplicate `1` values are dropped, because sets only contain unique elements.

Now you can remove one element using the `--=` method, or `subtractOne`:

```
// '--=' is an alias for 'subtractOne'  
s --= 1 // s: HashSet(2, 3, 4,  
s.subtractOne(2) // s: HashSet(3, 4, 5,
```

You can also remove multiple elements that are defined in another sequence using `---` or `subtractAll`:

```
// '---=' is an alias for 'subtractAll'  
s ---= List(3, 4, 5) // s: HashSet(6, 7, 8)  
s.subtractAll(List(6, 7)) // s: HashSet(8)
```

Notice that attempting to remove elements that don't exist doesn't throw an exception and doesn't report an error; use the `remove` method (which is shown in a few moments) to obtain that information:

```
s == 99 // s: HashSet(8)
```

With a mutable set you can use other methods like `filterInPlace`, `clear`, and `remove`, depending on your needs. These examples demonstrate the first two methods:

```
val s = scala.collection.mutable.Set(1, 2, 3, 4,  
s.filterInPlace(_ > 2)      // s: HashSet(3, 4, 5)  
s.clear                    // s: HashSet()
```

These examples demonstrate that `remove` returns `true` if an element is removed, and `false` otherwise:

```
val s = scala.collection.mutable.Set(1, 2, 3, 4,  
val res = s.remove(2)        // res=true,  s=HashSet(3, 4, 5)  
val res = s.remove(99)       // res=false, s=HashSet(3, 4, 5)
```

15.5 Storing Values in a Set in Sorted Order

Problem

You want to be able to store elements in a set in a sorted order.

Solution

To store elements in a set in sorted order, use a `SortedSet`, which comes in both immutable and mutable versions. To store elements in a set in the order in which elements were inserted, use a `LinkedHashSet`.

SortedSet

A `SortedSet` returns elements in a sorted order. Here are two examples with an immutable `SortedSet`:

```
import scala.collection.immutable.SortedSet
val s = SortedSet(10, 4, 8, 2)           // s: TreeSet[Int]
val s = SortedSet('B', 'A', 'D', 'C')    // s: TreeSet[Char]
```

As with other immutable collections, you can use methods like `+` and `++` to add elements, and `-` and `--` to remove elements:

```
val s1 = SortedSet(10)          // s1: TreeSet(10)
val s2 = s1 + 4                // s2: TreeSet(4, 10)
val s3 = s2 ++ List(8, 2)      // s3: TreeSet(2, 4, 8)
val s4 = s3 - 8                // s4: TreeSet(2, 4)
val s5 = s4 -- List(2, 10)     // s5: TreeSet(4)
```

LinkedHashSet

A `LinkedHashSet` is a mutable set that saves elements in the order in which they were inserted:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.LinkedHashSet
val s = LinkedHashSet(10, 4, 8, 2)    // s: Linked
```

As with other mutable collections, you can use methods like `+=` and `++=` to add elements, and `--=` and `---=` to remove elements:

```
val s = LinkedHashSet(10)    // s: LinkedHashSet(10)
s += 4                      // s: LinkedHashSet(10, 4)
```

```
s += List(8, 2) // s: LinkedHashSet(8, 2)
s -= 4          // s: LinkedHashSet(8)
s --= List(8, 10) // s: LinkedHashSet(8)

// attempting to add an element that's already in
// is quietly rejected
val s = LinkedHashSet(2) // s: LinkedHashSet(2)
s += 2          // s: LinkedHashSet(2)
s ++= List(2, 2, 2) // s: LinkedHashSet(2, 2, 2)
```

Discussion

The examples shown in the Solution work because the types used in the sets have an implicit `Ordering`. Custom types won't work unless you provide an implicit `Ordering`. See [Recipe 12.11, “Sorting Arrays”](#), and [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#), for details on how to extend the `scala.math.Ordered` trait, or provide an implicit or explicit `Ordering` when sorting.

See Also

- For more information about the `Ordered` and `Ordering` traits, see [Recipe 12.11, “Sorting Arrays”](#), and [Recipe 13.14, “Sorting a Collection”](#).

- See the base [SortedSet trait Scaladoc](#) for other subclasses.

15.6 Creating and Using a Stack

Problem

You want to use a last-in, first-out (LIFO) data structure in a Scala application.

Solution

A stack is a LIFO data structure. In most programming languages you add elements to a stack using a `push` method and take elements off the stack with `pop`, and Scala is no different.

Scala has both immutable and mutable versions of a stack; the following examples demonstrate how to use the *mutable* `Stack` class.

You can create an empty mutable stack:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Stack  
val ints = Stack[Int]()
```

```
val strings = Stack[String]()
```

You can also populate a stack with elements when you create it:

```
val chars = Stack('A', 'B', 'C')           // Stack[Char]
val ints = Stack(1, 2, 3)                   // Stack[Int]

val ints: Stack[Int] = Stack(1, 2, 3)      // Stack[Int]
```

Once you have a mutable stack, push elements onto it with

push :

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Stack
val s = Stack[String]()    // s: Stack[String] = Stack()

// add one element at a time
s.push("a")                // s: Stack(a)
s.push("b")                // s: Stack(b, a)

// add multiple elements
s.push("c", "d")           // s: Stack(d, c, b, a)
```

To take elements off the stack, pop them off the top of the stack:

```
val next = s.pop           // next=d, s=Stack(c, b)
```

You can peek at the next element on the stack without removing it, using `top`:

```
val top = s.top           // top=c, s=Stack(c, b)
```

But be careful with `pop` and `top`, because they will throw a `java.util.NoSuchElementException` if the stack is empty.

You can empty a mutable stack with `clear` or `clearAndShrink`:

```
// creates a stack from 0 to 999_999
val nums = Stack.range(0, 1_000_000)
nums.clear           // nums: Stack[String]
nums.clearAndShrink(0) // nums: Stack[String]
```

`clear` removes all elements, but does not resize the internal representation of the stack. `clearAndShrink` reduces the size of the internal representation to the value you specify.

Discussion

I've seen several people recommend using a `List` instead of an immutable stack for this use case. A `List` has at least one less layer of code, and you can push elements onto the `List` with `::` and access the first element with methods like `head` and `headOption`.

Other methods

Like other collections classes, `Stack` has dozens of other methods, including these:

```
val s = Stack("apple", "banana", "kiwi")
s.size                      // 3
s.isEmpty                   // false
s.count(_.length > 4)       // 2
s.filter(_.length > 4)      // Stack(apple, banana)
```

In any programming language, stack constructs typically have push and pop methods, and [Table 15-1](#) shows some of the push/pop methods that are available in the Scala `Stack`.

Table 15-1. Push and pop methods in the Scala Stack

Method	Description
--------	-------------

Method	Description
pop	Remove the top element and return it
popAll	Remove all elements and return them as a Seq
popWhile	Remove all elements while the predicate is true
push	Push one or multiple elements onto the stack
pushAll	Push all elements in a traversable onto the stack

These examples show how those methods work:

```

val s = Stack[Int] ()           // s: collection.mutable.Stack[Int]
s.push(1)                      // s: Stack(1)
s.push(2, 3)                   // s: Stack(3, 2, 1)
s.pushAll(List(4, 5))          // s: Stack(5, 4, 3, 2, 1)
val a = s.pop                  // a=5, s=Stack(4, 3, 2, 1)
val b = s.popWhile(_ > 2)      // b=List(4, 3), s=Stack(2, 1)
val c = s.popAll               // c=List(1, 2), s=Stack()

```

STACK EXTENDS ARRAYDEQUE

Starting with Scala 2.13, the mutable `Stack` class is based on [the `ArrayDeque` class](#), whose Scaladoc states, “Append, prepend, `removeFirst`, `removeLast` and random-access (indexed-lookup and indexed-replacement) take amortized constant time. In general, removals and insertions at `i`-th index are $O(\min(i, n-i))$ and thus insertions and removals from end/beginning are fast.”

15.7 Creating and Using a Queue

Problem

You want to create and use a first-in, first-out (FIFO) data structure in a Scala application.

Solution

A queue is a FIFO data structure, and Scala offers both immutable and mutable queues. This solution demonstrates the *mutable queue*. The *immutable queue* is briefly demonstrated in the Discussion.

You can create an empty mutable queue:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Queue  
val q = Queue[Int]()
```

```
val q = Queue[String]()
```

You can also create a queue with initial elements:

```
val q = Queue(1, 2, 3)           // q: Queue[Int] =
```

Once you have a mutable queue, add elements to it using `+=`, `++=`, `enqueue`, and `enqueueAll`, as shown in the following examples:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Queue
val q = new Queue[String]           // q: collection.r

// add elements to the queue
q += "a"                           // q: Queue(a)
q ++= List("b", "c")                // q: Queue(a, b,
q.enqueue("d")                     // q: Queue(a, b,
q.enqueue("e", "f")                // q: Queue(a, b,
q.enqueueAll(List("g", "h"))       // q: Queue(a, b,
```

Notice that new elements are added to the end of the queue. Because a queue is a FIFO, you typically remove elements from the head of the queue, one element at a time, using `dequeue`:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Queue
```

```
val q = Queue(1, 2, 3)      // q: mutable.Queue[Int]

// take an element from the head of the queue
val next = q.dequeue        // next=1, q=Queue(2, 3)
val next = q.dequeue        // next=2, q=Queue(3)
val next = q.dequeue        // next=3, q=Queue()

// `q` is now empty; beware calling dequeue on an empty queue
val next = q.dequeue
    // result: java.util.NoSuchElementException
```

You can also use the `dequeueFirst` and `dequeueAll` methods to remove elements from the queue by specifying a predicate:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Queue
val q = Queue(1,2,3,4,5)          // q: Queue(1,2,3,4,5)

// found the number 3, so remove it from the queue
val res = q.dequeueFirst(_ > 2)    // res=Some(3), q=Queue(1,2,4,5)

// no matches
val res = q.dequeueFirst(_ > 5)    // res=None, q=Queue(1,2,3,4,5)

// match three elements, remove them from the queue
val res = q.dequeueAll(_ > 1)      // res=List(2,3,4), q=Queue(5)
```

```
// no matches
val res = q.dequeueAll(_ > 1)           // res>List()
```

Discussion

Like other collections classes, the queue classes have dozens of other methods, including these:

```
import scala.collection.mutable.Queue
val q = Queue(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
q.size                      // 5
q.isEmpty                    // false
q.count(_ > 3)              // 2
q.filter(_ > 3)             // Queue(4, 5)
```

Immutable queues

When working with the immutable `Queue` class, you generally add elements with `enqueue` and `enqueueAll`, and remove elements with `dequeue`:

```
import scala.collection.immutable.Queue

val q1 = Queue[Int]()                  // q1: Queue
val q2 = q1.enqueue(1)                 // q2: Queue
```

```
val q3 = q2.enqueueAll(List(2,3))      // q3: Queue[Int]

val (a, q4) = q3.dequeue                // a=1, q4=Queue(3)
val (b, q5) = q4.dequeue                // b=2, q5=Queue()
val (c, q6) = q5.dequeue                // c=3, q6=Queue()

// `q6` is now empty; beware calling dequeue on an empty queue
val (d, q7) = q6.dequeue
// result: java.util.NoSuchElementException:
```

As shown in those examples, remember to assign the result to a new variable, because the data in the queue can't be mutated.

Chapter 16. Files and Processes

When it comes to working with files, many of the solutions in this chapter use Java classes, but for some situations the

`scala.io.Source` class and its companion object offer some nice simplifications compared to Java. Not only does `Source` make it easy to open and read text files, but it also makes it easy to accomplish other tasks, such as downloading content from URLs or substituting a `String` for a `File`.

File recipes in this chapter will demonstrate how to:

- Read and write text and binary files
- Use the *Loan Pattern* with `scala.util.Using` to automatically close resources
- Process every character in a file
- Treat a `String` as a `File`, typically for the purpose of testing
- Serialize and deserialize objects to files
- List files and directories

Next, when it comes to working with processes, the Scala *process* classes are written as a DSL so you can execute external system commands in a way that feels similar to Unix. The

ability to run system commands is useful for applications, and it's terrific for scripts.

The classes and methods of the `scala.sys.process` package let you run external system commands from Scala, with code that looks like this:

```
val result: String = "ls -al".!!!
val result = Seq("ls", "-al").!!!
val rootProcs = ("ps aux" #| "grep root").!!!.trim
val contents: LazyList[String] =
  sys.process.Process("find /Users -print").lazyLines
```

The Scala process DSL provides five primary ways to execute *external commands*:

- Use the `run` method to run an external command asynchronously, retrieving its exit status when it finishes running.
- Use the `!` method to execute a command, and block while waiting for it to return its exit status.
- Use the `!!` method to execute a command, and block while waiting for it to return its output.
- Use the `lazyLines` method to execute the command asynchronously, and return its results as a

```
LazyList[String].
```

- `lazyLines` will throw an exception if the exit status is nonzero, so use the `lazyLines_!` if you don't want that behavior.

The process recipes in this chapter will demonstrate how to:

- Execute external commands and access their exit status and output
- Run those commands synchronously and asynchronously
- Access the STDOUT and STDERR from those commands
- Execute command pipelines and use wildcard characters
- Execute commands in different directories, and configure environment variables for them

BOUNDARIES ON WHAT IS POSSIBLE

Conceptually, one important point to know about the limitations of these classes is made in the [process library Scala documentation](#):

The underlying basis for the whole package is Java's `Process` and `ProcessBuilder` classes. While there's no need to use these Java classes, they impose boundaries on what is possible. One cannot, for instance, retrieve a process ID for whatever is executing.

If you wonder why certain things are the way they are, it's important to remember this point.

16.1 Reading Text Files

Problem

You want to open a text file and process the lines in that file.

Solution

There are many ways to open and read text files in Scala, with many of those approaches using Java libraries, but the solutions shown in this recipe focus on ways to open and read text files using `scala.io.Source`.

The two `Source` solutions in this recipe demonstrate how to use:

- A concise, one-line syntax. This has the side effect of leaving the file open but can be useful in short-lived programs, like shell scripts.
- A longer approach that properly closes the file.

Using the concise syntax

In Scala shell scripts, where the JVM is started and stopped in a relatively short period of time, it may not matter that the file is

closed, so you can use the Scala `scala.io.Source.fromFile` method. For instance, to handle each line in the file as it's read, use this approach:

```
import scala.io.Source
for line <- Source.fromFile("/etc/passwd").getLines {
    // do whatever you need to do with each line
    println(line)
```

As a variation of this, use the following approaches to get all the lines from the file as a `List` or `String`:

```
val linesAsList = Source.fromFile("/etc/passwd")
val linesAsString = Source.fromFile("/etc/passwd")
```

The `fromFile` method returns a `scala.io.BufferedSource`, and its Scaladoc says its `getLines` method treats “any of `\r\n`, `\r`, or `\n` as a line separator (longest match),” so in the case of the `List`, each element in the sequence is a line from the file.

This approach has the side effect of leaving the file open as long as the JVM is running, but for short-lived shell scripts this

shouldn't be an issue; the file is closed when the JVM shuts down.

Properly closing the file and handling exceptions

To properly close the file and handle exceptions, use the `scala.util.Using` object, which automatically closes the resources for you. If you want to read a file into a sequence, use one of these approaches:

```
import scala.util.Using
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}

def readFileAsSeq(filename: String): Try[Seq[String]] = Using(io.Source.fromFile(filename)) { bufferedSource =>
  bufferedSource.getLines.toList
}

def readFileAsSeq(filename: String): Try[Seq[String]] = Using(io.Source.fromFile(filename)) { _.getLines.toList }
```

To work with each line as you read the file, use this approach:

```
def readFileAsSeq(filename: String): Try[Seq[String]] = Using(io.Source.fromFile(filename)) { bufferedSource =>
  val ucLines = for (line <- bufferedSource.getLines) yield line.toUpperCase
  ucLines.toList
}
```

```
        line <- bufferedSource.getLines
        // 'line' is a String. can work with
        // if desired, like this:
        // char <- line
    yield
        // work with each 'line' as a String
        line.toUpperCase

    ucLines.toSeq
}
```

As shown in the first comment in that code, work with `line` inside the `for` loop if you want to process each character in the file.

The benefit of using `scala.util.Using` is that it handles closing the resource for you automatically. The `Using` object implements the Loan Pattern, whose basic approach is:

- Create a resource that can be used
- “Loan” that resource to other code
- Automatically close/destroy the resource when that other code is finished with it, such as by automatically calling `close` on a `BufferedSource`

Per the [Using object Scaladoc](#), it “can be used to perform an operation using resources, after which it releases the resources

in reverse order of their creation.” For the approach needed to open and close multiple resources, see that Scaladoc.

Discussion

As mentioned, the first solution leaves the file open as long as the JVM is running:

```
// leaves the file open
for (line <- io.Source.fromFile("/etc/passwd").getLines)
    println(line)

// also leaves the file open
val contents = io.Source.fromFile("/etc/passwd")
```

On Unix systems you can show whether a file is left open by running an `lsof` (list open files) command in another terminal while your app is running. For example, here are three `lsof` commands you can use:

```
lsof -c java | grep '/etc/passwd'
sudo lsof /etc/passwd
sudo lsof -u Al | grep '/etc/passwd'
```

The first command lists all the open files for processes whose command begins with the string `java` and then searches its output for the `/etc/passwd` file. If this filename is in the output, it means that it's open, so you'll see something like this:

```
java 17148 A1 40r REG 14,2 1475 174214161 ,
```

Then, when you shut down the REPL—thereby stopping the JVM process—you'll see that the file no longer appears in the `lsof` output.

Automatically closing the resource

When working with files and other resources that need to be properly closed, it's best to use the Loan Pattern, as shown in the second Solution example.

In Scala, this can be ensured with a `try / finally` clause. In the early Scala 2 days I first saw this solution implemented in a `using` method in the first edition of *Beginning Scala* (Apress):

```
// a Scala 2 approach (circa 2009)
import scala.language.reflectiveCalls

object Control:
    def using[A <: { def close(): Unit }, B](resc
```

```
try
    fun(resource)
finally
    resource.close()
```

As shown, `resource` is defined as a parameter that must have a `close()` method (otherwise the code won't compile). That `close()` method is then called in the `finally` clause of the `try` block.

Many `io.Source` methods

The [`scala.io.Source` object](#) has many methods for reading from different types of sources, including:

- Eight `fromFile` methods
- `fromInputStream` methods, to read from `java.io.InputStream` resources
- `fromIterable`, to create a `Source` from an `Iterable`
- `fromString`, to create a `Source` from a `String`
- `fromURI`, to read from a `java.net.URI`
- Four `fromURL` methods, to read from `java.net.URL` sources
- `stdin`, to create a `Source` from `System.in`

As just one example, if you want to read from a file while specifying an encoding, use this syntax:

```
Source.fromFile("example.txt", "UTF-8")
```

TERRIFIC JAVA INTEGRATION

Because Scala works so well with Java, you can use the Java `FileReader` and `BufferedReader` classes, as well as other Java libraries, like the Apache Commons `FileUtils` class, to read files.

See Also

- The [`scala.util.Using` object Scaladoc](#).
- The [`scala.io.Source` Scaladoc](#).
- You can also read text files with the Java `BufferedReader` and `FileReader` classes. I wrote a blog post where I demonstrate [“Five Good Ways \(and Two Bad Ways\) to Read Large Text Files with Scala”](#).

16.2 Writing Text Files

Problem

You want to write plain text to a file, such as a text data file or other plain-text document.

Solution

Scala doesn't offer any special file-writing capability, so fall back and use the usual Java approaches. Ignoring possible exceptions, this is a simple approach that uses a `FileWriter` and `BufferedWriter`:

```
import java.io.{BufferedWriter, File, FileWriter}

// FileWriter
val file = File("hello.txt")
val bw = BufferedWriter(FileWriter(file))
bw.write("Hello, world\n")
bw.write("It's Al")
bw.close()
```

If you need to append data to a text file, add the `true` parameter when creating the `FileWriter`:

```
val bw = BufferedWriter(FileWriter("notes.txt", true))
```

You can also use the `java.nio` classes. This example shows how to write a string to a file using the `Paths` and `Files` classes:

```
import java.nio.file.{Files, Paths}
val text = "Hello, world"
val filepath = Paths.get("nio_paths_files.txt")
Files.write(filepath, text.getBytes)
```

That's a useful approach if you have one string that you want to write to a file, because it writes the entire string and then closes the file. This example shows how to write and then append a `Seq[String]` to a text file using NIO classes, while also showing how to work with character sets:

```
import java.nio.file.{Files, Paths, StandardOpenOption}
import java.nio.charset.StandardCharsets
import scala.collection.JavaConverters._

// WRITE
val seq1 = Seq("Hello", "world")
val filepath = Paths.get("paths_seq.txt")
Files.write(filepath, seq1.asJava)

// APPEND
val seq2 = Seq("It's", "Al")
```

```
Files.write(  
    filepath,  
    seq2.asJava,  
    StandardCharsets.UTF_8,  
    StandardOpenOption.APPEND  
)
```

This approach adds a newline character after every string in your sequence, so the resulting file has these contents:

```
Hello  
world  
It's  
Al
```

EXCEPTIONS

All file-reading and file-writing code can throw exceptions. See [Recipe 16.1](#) for code that shows how to handle exceptions.

Discussion

If you don't specify a character set with `FileWriter`, it uses the platform default `Charset`. To control the `Charset`, use these `FileWriter` constructors:

```
FileWriter(File file, Charset charset)
FileWriter(File file, Charset charset, boolean autoFlush)
FileWriter(String fileName, Charset charset)
FileWriter(String fileName, Charset charset, boolean autoFlush)
```

See the [FileWriter](#) and [Charset](#) Javadoc pages for more details on the available options.

If you want to control the character encoding when using a `BufferedWriter`, create it using an `OutputStreamWriter` and `FileOutputStream`, as shown in this solution:

```
import java.io.*
import java.nio.charset.StandardCharsets
val bw = BufferedWriter(
    OutputStreamWriter(
        FileOutputStream("file.txt"),
        StandardCharsets.UTF_8
    )
)

bw.write("Hello, world\n")
bw.write("It's Al")
bw.close()
```

Using macOS, you can confirm the file's character encoding with the `-I` option of the `file` command:

```
$ file -I file.txt
file.txt: text/plain; charset=utf-8
```

See Also

See these Javadoc pages for more details:

- [java.nio.file.Files](#)
- [java.io.FileWriter](#)
- [java.nio.charset.Charset](#)

16.3 Reading and Writing Binary Files

Problem

You want to read data from a binary file or write data to a binary file.

Solution

Scala doesn't offer any special conveniences for reading or writing binary files, so use the Java `FileInputStream` and `FileOutputStream` classes and their buffered wrapper classes.

Reading binary files

Ignoring exceptions, this code demonstrates how to read a file using `FileInputStream` and `BufferedInputStream`:

```
import java.io.{FileInputStream, BufferedInputStream}

val bis = new BufferedInputStream(FileInputStream(
  Iterator.continually(bis.read())
    .takeWhile(_ != -1)
    .foreach(b => print(b.toChar)) // print the
  bis.close
```

This solution is intended for reading binary files, but I read a plain text file here to create an example you can easily experiment with.

A key to this solution is knowing that the `Iterator object` has a `continually` method that simplifies this process. Per its Scaladoc, `continually` “creates an infinite-length iterator returning the results of evaluating an expression. The

expression is recomputed for every element.” If you prefer, you can also use the `continually` method of the [LazyList object](#), which has the same effect.

Writing binary files

To write a binary file, use the `FileOutputStream` and `BufferedOutputStream` classes, as shown in this example:

```
import java.io.{FileOutputStream, BufferedOutputS

val bos = new BufferedOutputStream(FileOutputStream(
  "hello.out"))
val bytes = "Hello, world".getBytes
bytes.foreach(b => bos.write(b))
bos.close
```

Discussion

There are *many* more ways to read and write binary files, but because all the solutions use Java classes, search the internet for different approaches, or check the *Java Cookbook* by Ian F. Darwin (O'Reilly).

A CAVEAT

Many solutions you'll find on the internet don't use buffering. If you're going to read and write large files, always use buffering. For example, when I read an Apache access log file on my computer that's 650,000 lines long with only a `FileInputStream`, it takes 181 seconds to read the file. By wrapping that `FileInputStream` with a `BufferedInputStream`—as shown in the Solution—that same file is read in just 1.6 seconds.

See Also

- The Apache Commons [FileUtils class](#) has many methods for reading and writing files.

16.4 Pretending That a String Is a File

Problem

Typically for the purposes of making code testable, you want to pretend that a `String` is a file.

Solution

Because `Scala.fromFile` and `Scala.fromString` both extend `scala.io.Source`, they are easily interchangeable. As long as your method takes a `Source` reference, you can pass it

the `BufferedSource` you get from calling `Source.fromFile`, or the `Source` you get from calling `Source.fromString`.

For example, the following function takes a `Source` object and prints the lines it contains:

```
import io.Source

def printLines(source: Source) =
    for line <- source.getLines do
        println(line)
```

It can be called when the source is constructed from a `String`:

```
val source = Source.fromString("foo\nbar\n")
printLines(source)
```

It can also be called when the source is a file:

```
val source = Source.fromFile("/Users/Al/.bash_pro
printLines(source)
```

Discussion

When writing unit tests, you might have a method like this that you'd like to test:

```
object FileUtils:  
    def getLinesUppercased(source: io.Source): List[String] =  
        source.getLines.map(_.toUpperCase).toList
```

In unit tests you can test the `getLinesUppercased` method by passing it either a `Source` from a `File` or a `String`:

```
import scala.io.Source  
var source: Source = null  
  
// test with a File  
source = Source.fromFile("foo.txt")      // a file on disk  
val lines = FileUtils.getLinesUppercased(source)  
assert(lines(0) == "FOO")  
  
// test with a String  
source = Source.fromString("foo\n")  
val lines = FileUtils.getLinesUppercased(source)  
assert(lines(0) == "FOO")
```

In summary, if you're interested in making your function easily testable with a `String` instead of a file, define it to take a `Source` instance.

16.5 Serializing and Deserializing Objects to Files

Problem

You want to serialize an instance of a Scala class and save it as a file, or send it across a network.

Solution

The general approach is the same as Java, but the syntax to make a Scala class serializable is different. To make a Scala class serializable, extend the `Serializable` type and add the `@SerialVersionUID` annotation to the class:

```
@SerialVersionUID(1L)
class Stock(var symbol: String, var price: BigDecimal)
  override def toString = s"symbol: $symbol, Price: $price"
```

Because `Serializable` is a type—technically a type alias for `java.io.Serializable`—you can mix it into a class even if the class already extends another class:

```
@SerialVersionUID(1L)
class Employee extends Person with Serializable
```

After marking the class serializable, use the same techniques to write and read the objects as you did in Java, including the Java *deep clone* technique that uses serialization, which I discuss in my blog post [“A Java Deep Clone \(Deep Copy\) Example”](#).

Discussion

Ignoring possible exceptions, the following code demonstrates the complete deep clone approach. The comments in the code explain the process:

```
import java.io.*

// create a serializable Stock class
@SerialVersionUID(1L)
class Stock(var symbol: String, var price: BigDecimal)
    override def toString = f"$symbol%$ is ${price}%"
```

```
@main def serializationDemo =  
  val filename = "nflx.obj"  
  
  // (1) create a Stock instance  
  val nflx = Stock("NFLX", BigDecimal(300.15))  
  
  // (2) write the object instance out to a file  
  val oos = ObjectOutputStream(FileOutputStream(filename))  
  oos.writeObject(nflx)  
  oos.close  
  
  // (3) read the object back in  
  val ois = ObjectInputStream(FileInputStream(filename))  
  val stock = ois.readObject.asInstanceOf[Stock]  
  ois.close  
  
  // (4) print the object that was read back in  
  println(stock)
```

This code prints the following output when run:

```
NFLX is 300.15
```

SERIALIZATION IS GOING AWAY (AT SOME POINT)

Note that the current form of serialization in Java may be going away at some point in the future. This is discussed in a 2018 article from ADTmag, [“Removing Serialization from Java Is a *Long-Term Goal* at Oracle”](#).

16.6 Listing Files in a Directory

Problem

You want to create a list of files or directories in a directory, potentially limiting the list with a filtering algorithm.

Solution

Scala doesn't offer any special methods for working with directories, so use the `listFiles` method of the Java `File` class. For instance, this function creates a list of all files in a directory:

```
// assumes that `dir` is a directory known to exist
def getListOfFiles(dir: File): Seq[String] =
  dir.listFiles
    .filter(_.isFile)      // list only files
    .map(_.getName)
    .toList
```

This algorithm does the following:

- Uses the `listFiles` method of the `File` class to list all the files in `dir` as an `Array[File]`
- Uses `filter` to trim that list to contain only files
- Uses `map` to call `getName` on each file to return an array of file names (instead of `File` instances)
- Uses `toList` to convert that to a `List[String]`

This function returns an empty list—`List()`—if there are no files in the directory, and a `List[File]` if the directory has one or more files. The REPL demonstrates this:

```
scala> getListOfFiles(File("/tmp/empty"))
val res0: List[String] = List()

scala> getListOfFiles(File("/tmp"))
val res1: List[String] = List(/tmp/foo.log, /tmp,
```

Similarly, this approach creates a list of all directories under `dir`:

```
def getListOfSubDirectories(dir: File): Seq[String]
  dir.listFiles
```

```
.filter(_.isDirectory) // list only directories
.map(_.getName)
.toList
```

To list all files and directories, remove the `filter(_.isFile)` line from the code:

```
def getListOfSubDirectories(dir: File): Seq[String] = {
    dir.listFiles
        .map(_.getName)
        .toList
}
```

Discussion

If you want to limit the list of files that are returned based on their filename extension, in Java you'd implement a `FileFilter` with an `accept` method to filter the filenames that are returned.

In Scala, you can write the equivalent code without requiring a `FileFilter`. Assuming that the `File` you're given represents a directory that's known to exist, the following function shows how to filter a set of files based on the filename extensions that should be returned:

```
import java.io.File

def getListOfFiles(dir: File, extensions: Seq[String]): Seq[File] = {
    dir.listFiles
        .filter(_.isFile)
        .filter(file => extensions.exists(file.getName.endsWith))
        .toList
}
```

As an example, you can call this function as follows to list all *.wav* and *.mp3* files in a given directory:

```
val okFileExtensions = Seq("wav", "mp3")
val files = getListOfFiles(File("/tmp"), okFileExtensions)
```

For many other file and directory tasks, a great solution is to use the [FileUtils class](#) of [the Apache Commons IO library](#). It has dozens of methods for working with files and directories.

See Also

If you want to go deeper and traverse an entire directory tree, and process every file and directory in that tree, check out the details in my blog post [“Scala: How to Search a Directory Tree”](#).

[with SimpleFileVisitor and Files.walkFileTree](#)”. I wrote my [Scala FileFind command-line utility](#) using that approach.

16.7 Executing External Commands

Problem

You want to execute an *external* (system) command from within a Scala application. You’re not concerned about the output from the command, but you are interested in its exit code.

Solution

There are two possible approaches:

- Use the `!` method to execute the command, and block while waiting for it to return its exit status.
- Use the `run` method to run an external command asynchronously, retrieving its exit status when it finishes running.

Using the `!` method

To execute a command and wait (block) to get its exit status, import the necessary members, put the desired command in a

string, and then run it with the `!` method:

```
// necessary import
scala> import sys.process.*

// run a system command
scala> val exitStatus = "ls -al".!
total 32
drwxr-xr-x    3 al  staff      96 Feb 17 20:34 .
drwxr-xr-x   22 al  staff     704 Feb 17 20:34 ..
-rw-r--r--    1 al  staff  13112 Feb 17 20:34 simplefile
val exitStatus: Int = 0

scala> println(exitStatus)
0
```

On Unix systems, an exit status of `0` means that the command executed successfully, and a nonzero exit status means there was some sort of problem. For instance, you get an exit status of `1` if you try to use the `ls` command on a file that doesn't exist:

```
scala> val exitStatus = "ls -l noSuchFile.txt".!
ls: noSuchFile.txt: No such file or directory
val exitStatus: Int = 1
```

The output shows that the `exitStatus` is `1` after that command is run.

As you saw in these examples, you can invoke the `!` method after a decimal:

```
"ls -al".!
```

You can also invoke it after a blank space by including this `import` statement:

```
import scala.language.postfixOps  
"ls -al" !
```

All of those commands assume that you have imported `import sys.process.*`.

Be aware that if your command fails, it can throw an exception:

```
scala> "foo".!  
java.io.IOException: Cannot run program "foo": e  
or directory at java.lang.ProcessBuilder.start
```

Therefore, be sure to wrap it with an error-handling type like

Try:

```
scala> val result = Try(Seq(
|   "/bin/sh",
|   "-c",
|   "ls -l foo.bar"
| ).!!)
ls: foo.bar: No such file or directory
val result: scala.util.Try[String] =
Failure(java.lang.RuntimeException: Nonzero e
```

As will be shown in the Discussion, you can also run system commands using a `Seq`:

```
val exitStatus = Seq("ls", "-a", "-l", "/tmp") .!
```

Run an external command asynchronously

You can run an external command *asynchronously* by using the `run` method:

```
// necessary imports
scala> import sys.process.*

scala> val process = "ls -al".run
```

```
val process: scala.sys.process.Process = scala.sys.  
  
total 32  
drwxr-xr-x 3 al staff 96 Feb 17 20:34 .  
drwxr-xr-x 22 al staff 704 Feb 17 20:34 ..  
-rw-r--r-- 1 al staff 13112 Feb 17 20:34 simple
```

With this approach the external command immediately begins running, and you can call these methods on the resulting `process` object:

- `isAlive` returns `true` if the process is still running, `false` otherwise
- `destroy` lets you kill a running process
- `exitStatus` lets you get the exit status of the command

A long-running example in the REPL shows how this works:

```
# start the process  
scala> val process = "sleep 20".run  
val process: scala.sys.process.Process = scala.sys.  
  
# 10 seconds later, it's still alive  
scala> process.isAlive  
val res1: Boolean = true  
  
# 21 seconds later
```

```
W 41 seconds later  
scala> process.isAlive  
val res2: Boolean = false  
  
scala> process.exitValue  
val res3: Int = 0
```

When using this approach, don't call `exitValue` until `isAlive` is `false`. If you call `exitValue` while the process is still running, it will block until the process is finished.

Discussion

In addition to calling `!` after a `String`, you can also invoke `!` after a `Seq`. This is especially useful when you have a variable number of command arguments.

When using a `Seq`, the first element should be the name of the command you want to run, and subsequent elements are considered to be arguments to it, as shown in these examples:

```
import sys.process.*  
val exitStatus = Seq("ls", "-al") .!  
val exitStatus = Seq("ls", "-a", "-l") .!  
val exitStatus = Seq("ls", "-a", "-l", "/tmp") .!
```

I've omitted the output from those examples, but each command provides the same `ls` directory listing you'd get at the Unix command line.

Using a Process

If you don't like using implicit conversions with a `String` or `Seq`, you can create a `Process` object to execute external commands:

```
import sys.process.*  
val status = sys.process.Process("ls -al") .!  
val status = sys.process.Process(Seq("ls", "-al"))
```

Beware whitespace

When running these commands, be aware of whitespace around your command and arguments. All the following examples fail because of extra whitespace:

```
" ls" .!          // java.io.IOException: Ca  
Seq(" ls ", "-al") .!    // java.io.IOException: Ca  
Seq("ls", " -al ") .!    // ls:  -al : No such file
```

If you type the strings yourself, leave the whitespace out, and if you get the strings from user input, be sure to trim them.

External commands versus built-in commands

As a final note, you can run any external command from Scala that you can run from the Unix command line. However, there's a big difference between an external command and a shell built-in command. The `ls` command is an external command that's available on all Unix systems and can be found as a file in the `/bin` directory:

```
$ which ls  
/bin/ls
```

Some other commands that can be used at a Unix command line—such as the `cd` or `for` commands—are actually built into your shell, such as the Bash shell; you won't find them as files on the filesystem. Therefore, these commands can't be executed unless they're executed from within a shell. See [Recipe 16.10](#) for an example of how to execute a shell built-in command.

16.8 Executing External Commands and Reading Their STDOUT

Problem

You want to run an external command and then use the standard output (STDOUT) from that process in your Scala program.

Solution

Use either of these methods to access the STDOUT from your command:

- Use the `!!` method to execute the command synchronously, and block while waiting to receive its output as a `String`.
- Use the `lazyLines` method to execute the command asynchronously, and return its results as a `LazyList[String]`.
- If your command's exit status is nonzero, `lazyLines` can throw an exception when you try to use its result, so use `lazyLines_!` (optionally with a `ProcessLogger`) if you want to avoid that.

Synchronous solution with !!

Just like the `!` command in the previous recipe, you can use `!!` after a `String` to execute a command, and it returns the STDOUT from the command rather than the command's exit code. The result is a multiline string, which you can process in your application.

Ignoring exception handling, this example shows how to use `!!` with a `String`:

```
import sys.process.*  
val result: String = "ls -al".!!  
println(result)
```

The output of that command is a multiline string, which begins like this:

```
total 64  
drwxr-xr-x 10 Al staff 340 May 18 18:00 .  
drwxr-xr-x 3 Al staff 102 Apr 4 17:58 ..  
more output here ...
```

For more complicated situations where you want to add error handling, use the `Try / Success / Failure` classes:

```
import sys.process.*  
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}  
  
val result: Try[String] = Try("ls -al fred".!!)  
result match  
  case Success(out) => println(s"OUTPUT:\n$out")  
  case Failure(f)    => println("Exception happened")
```

Assuming that you don't have a file named *fred* in the current directory, the output of that code will be:

```
ls: fred: No such file or directory  
Exception happened:  
val result: util.Try[String] =  
  Failure(java.lang.RuntimeException: Nonzero exit code: 1)
```

In addition to using `!!` with a `String`, you can use it with a `Seq`:

```
val result: String = Seq("ls", "-al").!!
```

Asynchronous solution with lazyLines

Use the `lazyLines` method to run a command asynchronously and access its STDOUT as a `LazyList[String]`. For example, this command may run for a long time on Unix systems and can result in thousands of lines of output:

```
val contents: LazyList[String] =  
  sys.process.Process("find /Users/al -print")
```

As soon as you issue that line of code in the REPL, the Unix `find` command begins running. You won't see any output in the REPL, but you can see that it's running by opening another terminal window and running the Unix `top` command, or a `ps` command like this:

```
$ ps a | grep 'find /Users'  
19837 s004 S+ 0:00.14 find /Users/al -print
```

As that output shows, your `find` command is indeed running, in this case as process ID (PID) 19837.

Back in the REPL you can read from the `LazyList` and process the command output as desired, such as with `foreach`:

```
scala> contents.foreach(println)
```

Asynchronous solution with `lazyLines_!`

If the exit status of your command is nonzero, `lazyLines` will throw an exception if you try to use the resulting `LazyList`. For instance, this command with `lazyLines` initially writes its “No such file” output to STDERR:

```
scala> val x = "ls no_such_file".lazyLines
ls: no_such_file: No such file or directory
val x: LazyList[String] = LazyList(<not computed>)
```

If you then try to access the contents of `x`, you’ll throw an exception:

```
scala> x.foreach(println)
java.lang.RuntimeException: Nonzero exit code: 1
scala.sys.process.BasicIO$LazilyListed$ ...
much more exception output here ...
```

By using `lazyLines_!` instead of `lazyLines`, you can eliminate the exception when you use `x`:

```
scala> val x = "ls no_such_file".lazyLines_!
val x: LazyList[String] = LazyList(<not computed>
  ls: no_such_file: No such file or directory

scala> x.foreach(println)
(no output here)
```

If desired, you can also suppress the STDERR output with this technique:

```
scala> val x = "ls no_such_file" lazyLines_! Proc
val x: LazyList[String] = LazyList(<not computed>
  (there is no STDERR output here)
```

Seq and Process

If you don't like working with implicit methods on a `String` or `Seq`, you can work with a `Process`:

```
import sys.process._

val result: String = sys.process.Process("ls -al")
val result: String = sys.process.Process(Seq("ls"))
val result: LazyList[String] =
  sys.process.Process("find /Users/al -print")
```

16.9 Handling Both STDOUT and STDERR of Commands

Problem

You want to run an external command and get access to both its standard output (STDOUT) and standard error (STDERR).

Solution

The simplest way to do this is to run your commands as shown in previous recipes and then capture the output with a `ProcessLogger`. This code demonstrates the approach:

```
import sys.process.*  
  
val stdout = StringBuilder()  
val stderr = StringBuilder()  
  
val status = "ls -al . cookie" ! ProcessLogger(stdout, stderr)  
println(s"status: '$status'")  
println(s"stdout: '$stdout'")  
println(s"stderr: '$stderr'")
```

Because I have a few files in the current directory, but none of them are named *cookie*, I see output like this when I run that script:

```
status: '1'  
stdout: '(a lot of output from the 'ls .' command)  
stderr: 'ls: cookies: No such file or directory'
```

Because I use the `!` method, when this script is run the `status` variable contains the exit status of the command, which is `1` because the file *cookie* doesn't exist. The `stdout` variable contains the STDOUT of the command, and in this example it contains output thanks to the `ls .` portion of the command. The `stderr` variable contains the STDERR from the command if there are problems. If, as in the case of this command, the command you run writes to both STDOUT and STDERR, both `stdout` and `stderr` will contain data.

MAKE SURE YOU UNDERSTAND THE EXIT STATUS CODES

Note that when the `find` command runs but doesn't find a file, it can still return an exit status of `0`. This status just means that the `find` command ran as desired and there were no exceptions. Always check the exit status of your system commands at the command line to be sure about how their status codes work:

```
# [1] no files found, but no errors
$ find . -name NonExistentFile.txt
$ echo $?
0

# [2] a non-zero exit status because the directory doesn't exist
$ find NonExistentDirectory
find: NonExistentDirectory: No such file or directory
$ echo $?
1
```

Discussion

Here's another example that uses a `Seq` and writes to STDOUT and STDERR:

```
val status = Seq(
    "find",
    "/usr",
    "-name",
```

```
"make"  
) ! ProcessLogger(stdout append _, stderr append _
```

When you look at either of these examples, it can be surprising that this code works:

```
String ! ProcessLogger(stdout append _, stderr append _)  
Seq ! ProcessLogger(stdout append _, stderr append _)
```

The reason this works is that the `scala.sys.process` authors have created a little DSL for you. In the first example shown, this code:

```
"ls -al . cookie" ! ProcessLogger(stdout append _)
```

is turned into this code by the compiler:

```
"ls -al . cookie".! (ProcessLogger(stdout append _))
```

The way this works is:

- The `!` method is added to a `String` as an implicit conversion.
- The `!` method has an overloaded constructor whose signature is `!(log: ProcessLogger): Int`.

While this can be a little hard to grok when symbols are used, if the `!` method had been named `exec` instead, that code would look like this:

```
// if '!' was named 'exec' instead
"ls -al . cookie".exec(ProcessLogger(stdout appen
```

I find that spelling out the method calls is another way to make this code more readable, and therefore more maintainable:

```
val exitStatus = "ls -al . cookie"!.(
  ProcessLogger(
    arg1 => stdout.append(arg1),
    arg2 => stdout.append(arg2)
  )
)
```

Also note that depending on your needs, writing to STDOUT and STDERR can get more complicated very quickly. The Scaladoc states, “If one desires full control over input and output, then a

`ProcessIO` can be used with `run`.” See the `scala.sys.process` API documentation for the `ProcessLogger` and `ProcessIO` classes for more examples.

See Also

- See the [ProcessBuilder Scaladoc](#) for more details on methods like `!`, `!!`, and `run`.

16.10 Building a Pipeline of External Commands

Problem

You want to execute a series of external commands, redirecting the output from one command to the input of another command, i.e., you want to *pipe* the commands together.

Solution

Use the `#|` method to pipe the output from one command into the input stream of another command. When doing this, use the `run`, `!`, `!!`, `lazyLines`, or `lazyLines_!` methods at the

end of the pipeline to run the complete series of external commands.

The `!!` approach is shown in the following example, where the output from the `ps` command is piped as the input to the `wc` command:

```
import sys.process.*  
val numRootProcs = ("ps aux" #| "grep root" #| "wc -l")  
  .mkString  
  .println(s"# root procs: $numRootProcs")
```

Because the output from the `ps` command is piped into `grep` and then into a line-count command (`wc -l`), that code prints the number of processes running on a Unix system that have the string `root` in their `ps` output. Similarly, the following commands create a list of all processes running that contain the string `root`:

```
val rootProcs: String = ("ps auxw" #| "grep root" #| "wc -l")  
  .mkString
```

Discussion

If you come from a Unix background, the `# |` method makes sense because it's just like the Unix pipe symbol (`|`), but preceded by a `#` character. In fact, with the exception of the `###` operator (which is used instead of the Unix `;` symbol), the Scala process library is generally consistent with the equivalent Unix commands.

Piping in a string won't work without a shell

Note that attempting to pipe commands together inside a `String` and then executing them with `!` or `!!` won't work:

```
// won't work
scala> val result = ("ls -al | grep Foo").!!
ls: Foo: No such file or directory
ls: grep: No such file or directory
ls: |: No such file or directory
java.lang.RuntimeException: Nonzero exit value: 1
        at scala.sys.process.ProcessBuilderImpl ...
        more exception output here ...
```

This doesn't work because the piping capability comes from a shell (Bourne shell, Bash, etc.), and when you run a command like this, you don't have a shell.

To execute a series of commands in a shell, such as the Bourne shell, use a `Seq` with multiple parameters, like this:

```
// this works as desired, piping the 'ps' output
val result = Seq(
    "/bin/sh",
    "-c",
    "ps aux | grep root"
) .!!
```

As described in that recipe, this approach runs the `ps aux | grep root` command inside a Bourne shell instance.

Chapter 17. Building Projects with sbt

Although you can use tools like Ant, Maven, and Gradle to build your Scala projects, *sbt*—originally named *Simple Build Tool*—is the de facto build tool for Scala applications. sbt makes the basic build and dependency management tasks simple and lets you use the Scala language itself to conquer more difficult tasks.

sbt uses the same directory structure as Maven, and like Maven, it uses a “convention over configuration” approach that makes the build process incredibly easy for basic projects. Because it provides a well-known, standard build process, if you work on one Scala project that’s built with sbt, it’s easy to move to another project that also uses sbt. The project’s directory structure will be the same, and you’ll know that you should look at the *build.sbt* file and the optional *project/*.sbt* files to see how the build process is configured.

Starting with version 1.3.0, sbt began using [Coursier](#) for library management, a task the Coursier website refers to as *artifact fetching*. Prior to 1.3.0, sbt used Apache Ivy for this task, but Coursier aims to be a faster alternative. When you specify *managed dependencies* in your *build.sbt* file, Coursier is the tool that retrieves the JAR files for you.

In addition to handling managed dependencies, you can also place *unmanaged dependencies*—plain old JAR files—in your project’s *lib* folder, and sbt will automatically find them.

As a result of all these features, with very little effort on your part, sbt lets you build projects that contain both Scala and Java code, unit tests, and both managed and unmanaged dependencies.

sbt’s features

As a brief summary, sbt’s main features are:

- It uses Maven’s standard directory structure, so it’s easy to build standard Scala projects, and easy to move between different sbt projects.
- Small projects require very little configuration.
- Build definition files use a Scala DSL, so you use Scala code to build Scala projects.
- sbt supports compiling Scala and Java source code files in the same project.
- It supports both managed and unmanaged dependencies.
- You can use multiple testing frameworks, including [ScalaTest](#), [ScalaCheck](#), and [MUnit](#), and JUnit is supported with a plugin.

- Source code can be compiled in interactive or batch modes.
- Support for continuous compilation and testing.
- Support for incremental compilation and testing (only changed source code files are recompiled).
- Support for multiple subprojects.
- The ability to package and publish JAR files.
- Generating and packaging project documentation.
- Simple integration with IntelliJ IDEA and VS Code.
- You can start a Scala REPL from within sbt, and all project classes and dependencies are automatically available on the classpath.
- Parallel task and test execution.

Understanding the sbt Philosophy

To use sbt it helps to understand its key concepts. The first thing to know is that sbt is a build tool—it's used to build Scala projects. You can use other tools like Ant, Maven, Gradle, and [Mill](#) to build Scala projects, but sbt was the first Scala build tool, and it remains widely used.

Directory Structure

A second thing to know is that sbt uses the same directory structure that Maven uses, so a simple project with one

unmanaged dependency (a JAR file), one source code file, and one test file has this directory structure:

```
.  
| -- build.sbt  
| -- lib  
|   | -- my-library.jar  
| -- project  
|   `-- build.properties  
`-- src  
    | -- main  
    |   `-- scala  
    |       | -- example  
    |       |   | -- Hello.scala  
    `-- test  
        | -- scala  
        |   | -- example  
        |   |   | -- HelloTest.scala
```

As shown, Scala source code files go under *src/main/scala*, and test files go under *src/test/scala*. If you want to include Java source code files in your project, they go under *src/main/java* and *src/test/java*. As mentioned, JAR files in the *lib* directory will automatically be used as a dependency when you compile, test, and build your project.

CONFIGURATION FILES AREN'T NECESSARY, BUT...

Strictly speaking, for an extremely simple project, the *build.properties* and even the *build.sbt* file aren't necessary, but as a practical matter you'll find them on every serious project.

build.sbt

The next thing to know is that most—if not all—of your project's configuration information goes in a file named *build.sbt* that belongs in the root directory of your project. Things to know about *build.sbt* include:

- It consists of settings, in a form of key/value pairs (`name := MyProject`), and Scala code written with sbt's custom DSL.
- Most projects start with at least three settings: the project name, the project version, and the Scala version that's used to compile the project. These are specified with keys named `name`, `version`, and `scalaVersion`.
- Small projects may consist of just a few settings, while large projects may consist of dozens of lines of settings and Scala code.
- Managed dependencies are also specified in this file using the `libraryDependencies` key.

As a preview of that last point, the `libraryDependencies` setting looks like this:

```
libraryDependencies ++= Seq(  
    "org.typelevel" %% "cats-core" % "2.6.0",  
    "org.typelevel" %% "cats-effect" % "3.1.0"  
)
```

Notice how this is just normal Scala code.

Other Notes

A few other things to know about sbt are:

- You can include multiple projects inside one sbt project. I demonstrate this in my blog post [“How to Create an sbt Project with Subprojects”](#).
- You can add your own import statements to the `build.sbt` file to use your own classes in the build. These packages are imported by default:
 - — `sbt.*`
 - — `sbt.Keys.*`
 - — `Process.*`

As a final note, all the recipes in this chapter were tested with sbt version 1.5.1.

17.1 Creating a Project Directory Structure for sbt

Problem

You want to create the initial files and directories that are needed for a new Scala/sbt project.

Solution

Use either a shell script or the `sbt new` command to create new projects. Both approaches are shown here.

Option 1: Use a shell script

sbt uses the same directory structure as Maven, so if you're on a Unix system you can generate a compatible structure using a shell script. For example, the following shell script creates the initial set of files and directories you'll want for most projects:

```
#!/bin/sh  
mkdir -p src/{main,test}/{java,resources,scala}
```

```
mkdir project

# create an initial build.sbt file
echo 'name := "MyProject"
version := "0.1"
scalaVersion := "3.0.0"

// libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
//   "org.scalatest" %% "scalatest" % "3.2.3" %
// )
' > build.sbt

# create a project/build.properties file with the
echo 'sbt.version=1.5.1' > project/build.properties
```

Just save that code as a shell script on Unix systems, make it executable, and run it inside a new project directory to create all the subdirectories and files sbt needs. For example, assuming this script is on your path and is named *mkdirs4sbt*, the process looks like this:

```
/Users/Al/Projects> mkdir MyNewProject
/Users/Al/Projects> cd MyNewProject
/Users/Al/Projects/MyNewProject> mkdirs4sbt
```

If you have the `tree` command installed on your system and run it from the current directory, you'll see that those commands create these files and directories:

```
$ tree .
.
├── build.sbt
└── project
    └── build.properties
└── src
    ├── main
    │   ├── java
    │   ├── resources
    │   └── scala
    └── test
        ├── java
        ├── resources
        └── scala
```

As implied by the shell script, the *build.sbt* file has these contents:

```
name := "MyProject"
version := "0.1"
scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
```

```
// libraryDependencies ++= Seq(  
//   "org.scalatest" %% "scalatest" % "3.2.3"  
// )
```

The first three lines set key/value pairs that you'll want in every sbt project:

- `name` declares the name of your project.
- `version` sets the project's version level.
- `scalaVersion` sets the version of Scala used for compilation.

After that the `libraryDependencies` line declares any dependencies your project has. Because I use ScalaTest on most projects, I include it here.

I also declare `libraryDependencies` as a `Seq` because I usually have more than one dependency in my projects. If you're only adding one dependency you can declare that line like this instead:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" %% "scalat
```

Notice that in the first case I use `++=` and in the second example I use `+=`. In both cases this is because I'm adding this dependency to any other dependencies that may be previously defined. Contrast this with the first three parameters, which are set with `:=`. In those lines I'm setting a single value, but `libraryDependencies` lets you add multiple dependencies.

With this shell script, the *project/build.properties* file is created with these contents:

```
sbt.version=1.5.1
```

This tells the sbt launcher that I want to use version 1.5.1 of sbt on this project.

This is just a simple starter script, and I show it first to demonstrate how easy it is to create an sbt project. For a more complete shell script, `sbtmkdirs`, see my blog post [sbtmkdirs: A Shell Script to Create a Scala SBT Project Directory Structure](#).

CONTROLLING SCALAC

In my projects I typically add a series of options to control how the `scalac` compiler works with sbt. These are a few of the options I use with Scala 3:

```
scalacOptions +== Seq(  
    "-deprecation",  
    "-explain",  
    "-explain-types",  
    "-new-syntax",  
    "-unchecked",  
    "-Xfatal-warnings",  
    "-Xmigration"  
)
```

You can add those options to the end of the `build.sbt` file, or inside the `settings` method you'll see in the `sbt new` section that follows.

Option 2: Use sbt new

While that script shows how simple it is to stub out an initial sbt project, you can also use the `sbt new` command to create new projects from prebuilt templates. These templates are open source and created by other sbt users, and they're used to create skeleton sbt projects that are preconfigured to use one or more Scala tools, such as ScalaTest, Akka, and others. I've found that the templates also use different coding styles, which can be helpful when you want to see different sbt configuration features.

To demonstrate how it works, this `sbt new` command is the approximate equivalent of the shell script that I just showed:

```
$ sbt new scala/scala3.g8
```

This is what the process looks like from your operating system command line:

```
$ sbt new scala/scala3.g8
// some initial output here ...

A template to demonstrate a minimal Scala 3 applicat
name [Scala 3 Project Template]: My New Project

Template applied in ./my-new-project
```

The *my-new-project* directory now contains a *build.sbt* file and other directories and files so you can use it for a new Scala/sbt project.

Discussion

The `sbt new` approach differs significantly from using a shell script, so it warrants some further discussion. First, a few notes

about how `sbt new` works:

- There are several templates available, but the `sbt new scala/scala3.g8` command finds and runs a template named `scala3.g8` using a tool named [Giter8](#).
- In this example, the `scala3.g8` template can be found [at this GitHub page](#).
- Per the Giter8 website, “Giter8 is a command line tool to generate files and directories from templates published on GitHub or any other Git repository.”
- Because this command pulls a template from GitHub, it may take a few moments to run.
- The command converts the project name “My New Project” into a directory named *my-new-project*.

Because of the template approach, the directory structure and files this command creates may change over time, but the structure created from the `scala3.g8` template at the time of this writing looks like this:

```
$ tree .
.
├── README.md
├── build.sbt
└── project
    └── build.properties
```

```
└── src
    ├── main
    │   └── scala
    │       └── Main.scala
    └── test
        └── scala
            └── Test1.scala
```

Files created by the template

The template's *build.sbt* file looks like this:

```
val scala3Version = "3.0.0"

lazy val root = project
  .in(file("."))
  .settings(
    name := "scala3-simple",
    version := "0.1.0",
    scalaVersion := scala3Version,
    libraryDependencies += "com.novocode" % "junit"
  )
```

As usual, the *project/build.properties* file contains the latest sbt version:

```
sbt.version=1.5.1
```

The *build.sbt* syntax is different than what I use in my shell script. While I find the style in my shell script is easier to read when you're first learning sbt, this second style is preferred as your project gets larger, in part because it looks more like Scala code, so it's more like controlling your Scala project configuration with Scala code.

As your needs grow you'll see additional *build.sbt* variables. For instance, if you're publishing a library to a public repository and want to control what goes in the *pom.xml* file, you'll want to specify organization-related parameters:

```
organization := "com.alvinalexander"  
organizationName := "Alvin Alexander"  
organizationHomepage := Some(url("https://alvinalexa..."))
```

Other parameters you might want to configure for this use case are shown on the [sbt project metadata page](#), including:

```
homepage := Some(url("https://www.scala-sbt.org"))  
startYear := Some(2008)  
description := "A build tool for Scala."  
licenses += "GPLv2" -> url("https://www.gnu.org/...")
```

In summary, the main benefits of using the `sbt new` command are:

- Templates have been created to help you get started with ScalaTest, Akka, the Play Framework, Lagom, Scala Native, and more.
- The templates currently generate *build.sbt* files that are all a little different, so you can see different configuration approaches, i.e., what other users prefer.

You can find a list of templates that work with `sbt new` at [the sbt website](#).

FILES AND DIRECTORIES IN .GITIGNORE

Assuming that you're keeping your code in a Git repository, you'll also want to create a *.gitignore* file to tell Git which sbt files and directories it should ignore. These are two initial directories that you'll want to tell Git to ignore:

```
target/  
project/target/
```

My [sbtmkdirs script](#) adds many other entries to account for tools like IntelliJ IDEA, VS Code, [Bloop](#), and [Metals](#).

17.2 Building Projects with the sbt Command

Problem

You need to see how to compile, test, and run your projects with sbt commands.

Solution

Use the `sbt` command to build, compile, test, and package your projects. For instance, this command compiles your project:

```
$ sbt compile
```

If you have a testing framework like [ScalaTest](#) configured in your project, this command runs your project tests:

```
$ sbt test
```

And this command runs the `main` method in your project:

```
$ sbt run
```

Creating a JAR file from an sbt project is covered in detail in Recipes [17.4](#) and [17.11](#), but as a quick introduction, you use the `package` command to package a simple project into a JAR file:

```
$ sbt package
```

MULTIPLE @MAIN METHODS

If your project has multiple `@main` methods, see [Recipe 17.10](#) for information about how to work with them when using the `run` and `package` commands.

Discussion

An important point to understand is that the `sbt` command on your system is just a *launcher*. It starts the overall sbt process, but because sbt is capable of using different versions of Scala and sbt, the `sbt` command just starts the process. When it starts, it downloads any resources it needs, including the versions of Scala and sbt you want to use in your project. (In fact, when you run sbt you're actually running a Bash script on Unix systems and a batch file on Windows.)

Because of this, it's recommended that you put a setting like this in your project's *project/build.properties* file:

```
sbt.version=1.5.1
```

This tells the sbt launcher that you want to use sbt version 1.5.1 when running commands on this project. This is done to make sure that in a team environment, everyone is using the same version of sbt for the build process. If you don't set that value, sbt will set it to its latest version the first time it runs.

Batch and interactive modes

One other note about the `sbt` command is that it can be run in batch mode or interactively. The commands I showed previously are *batch mode* commands:

```
$ sbt compile  
$ sbt test  
$ sbt run  
$ sbt package
```

They're run from your operating system command line. They start the `sbt` launcher and then run whatever command(s) you specify. Because they're run from your operating system command line, it takes sbt a little while to start up, so this is not the preferred way to run sbt, unless you're running it from a

script, such as in a Unix cron process. (The cron system in Unix is a way of scheduling jobs to be run at certain dates and times.)

The preferred way is to run sbt in *interactive* mode. In this mode you start sbt once from the operating system command line:

```
$ sbt
```

Then you run commands from inside the sbt shell:

```
> compile  
> test  
> run  
> package
```

These commands run significantly faster because sbt is already running, warmed up, and ready to go. You can also continuously run the `compile` and `test` commands, as shown in [Recipe 17.6](#). In this use, these commands are run every time you change a file in your project.

SBT ONLY REQUIRES JAVA

You don't need to have Scala installed to run sbt. It only requires that you have the Java JDK installed.

17.3 Understanding build.sbt Syntax Styles

Problem

You need to write a *build.sbt* file in a more complicated style in order to take advantage of more powerful sbt features.

Solution

In [Recipe 17.1](#) I showed that you can use this syntax for a simple project:

```
name := "MyProject"  
version := "0.1"  
scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
```

It's also important to know that because of the power and flexibility of sbt, you can also write that configuration in more

of a Scala style, like this:

```
// define the "subproject" located in the current directory
lazy val root = (project in file("."))
  .settings(
    name := "MyProject",
    version := "0.1",
    scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
  )
```

or this bare style:

```
ThisBuild / scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
ThisBuild / version     := "0.1"
ThisBuild / name        := "MyProject"
```

THESE STYLES ARE PREFERRED

At the time of this writing in mid-2021, these styles are now preferred. It's also important to know about them because you'll see them if you use the `sbt new` templates, and you'll want to be comfortable with them when your builds get more complicated.

You can also combine these styles. Here's a combination of the last two examples with added dependencies:

```
ThisBuild / scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
ThisBuild / version       := "0.1"

val catsCore = "org.typelevel" %% "cats-core" % ' 
val catsEffect = "org.typelevel" %% "cats-effect" %

lazy val root = (project in file(".")) 
  .settings(
    name := "MyProject",
    libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
      catsCore,
      catsEffect
    )
  )
)
```

When your projects get more complicated to build, it's nice to know that you can build them with a combination of the sbt DSL and plain Scala code.

Discussion

An important thing to know is that in these examples, this syntax:

```
(project in file("."))
```

creates an instance of an sbt `Project`. Therefore, the `.settings` code that follows it is a method that you're calling on a `Project` object.

Another important thing to know is that this `project in file` line of code refers to an sbt project that can be found in the current directory, where the `.` syntax refers to the current directory. See my [“How to Create an sbt Project with Subprojects” blog post](#) for more details on this syntax.

17.4 Compiling, Running, and Packaging a Scala Project

Problem

You want to use sbt to compile and run a Scala project, and package the project as a JAR file.

Solution

Create an sbt directory structure, add your code, then run `sbt compile` to compile your project, `sbt run` to run your project, and `sbt package` to package your project as a JAR

file. Use these commands in either batch mode or interactive mode.

To demonstrate this, create a new sbt project as shown in [Recipe 17.1](#), and then create a file named *Hello.scala* in the *src/main/scala* directory with these contents:

```
package foo.bar.baz
@main def main = println("Hello, world")
```

As shown, in Scala the file's package name doesn't have to match the name of the directory it's in. In fact, for simple tests like this, you can place this file in the root directory of your sbt project, if you prefer.

From the root directory of the project, this is how you compile the project:

```
$ sbt compile
```

run the project:

```
$ sbt run
```

and package the project:

```
$ sbt package
```

Those commands show sbt's batch mode. When you're working on a project, it's generally faster to run the same commands from inside the sbt shell in interactive mode:

```
$ sbt  
sbt> compile  
sbt> run  
sbt> package
```

Note that the `package` command doesn't show the name of the output JAR file it creates. To see that name, run `show package` instead:

```
sbt> show package  
// the output file name and location is shown here
```

Discussion

The first time you run sbt it may take a while to download everything it needs, but after that first run it only downloads new dependencies as needed.

When you create a JAR file with the `package` command, it creates a normal JAR file, whose contents you can show with the `jar tvf` command:

```
$ jar tvf ./target/scala-3.0.0/my-project_3.0.0-0.jar  
288 Thu Jan 01 00:00:00 MST 1970 META-INF/MANIFEST.MF  
969 Thu Jan 01 00:00:00 MST 1970 Main$.class  
350 Thu Jan 01 00:00:00 MST 1970 Main.class  
649 Thu Jan 01 00:00:00 MST 1970 Main.tasty
```

Interactive mode

Running sbt in interactive mode is preferred because it's much faster; the JVM is already loaded into memory, so there's no initial startup lag time. Here's the output from running the `clean`, `compile`, and `run` commands from within the sbt interpreter:

```
$ sbt  
  
sbt> clean  
[success] Total time: 0 s  
  
sbt> compile  
[info] compiling 1 Scala source ...  
[success] Total time: 2 s
```

```
sbt> run
[info] Running foo.bar.baz.main
Hello, world
[success] Total time: 1 s
```

You can also run one command after the other in sbt. This is how you run the `clean` command before the `compile` command:

```
sbt> clean; compile
```

Passing arguments to sbt at the command line

While I almost always run sbt in interactive mode, when you run sbt from your operating system command line and need to pass arguments to your application, you'll need to put sbt's `run` command in quotes along with the arguments. For example, given this little application that prints its command-line arguments:

```
@main def hello(args: String*) =
  print(s"Hello, ")
  for a <- args do print(s"$a ")
```

to pass command-line arguments to this application when running it with sbt, enclose the `run` command and the arguments in quotes, like this:

```
$ sbt "run Charles Carmichael"
// omitted sbt output here ...
Hello, Charles Carmichael
```

Whether you're running an application in sbt with this technique or starting sbt to run it in interactive mode, you can pass JVM options to sbt. For instance, this example shows how to use sbt's `-J` and `-D` options to pass arguments to the JVM while running the same application:

```
$ sbt -v -J-Xmx2048m -Duser.timezone=America/Denver
[process_args] java_version = 11
# Executing command line:
java
-Dfile.encoding=UTF-8
-Xmx2048m
-Duser.timezone=America/Denver
-jar
/Users/al/bin/sbt/bin/sbt-launch.jar
"run Charles Carmichael"

// omitted sbt output here ...
```

Hello, Charles Carmichael

The `-v` option stands for *verbose*, so in addition to seeing the output from my application at the very end, the earlier verbose output demonstrates that the `-J` and `-D` arguments are successfully passed into sbt.

RUNNING IN A DIFFERENT JVM

Per [the sbt page on forking](#), “the `run` task runs in the same JVM as sbt.” I’ve found that at times—such as when creating a JavaFX or other multithreaded application—this can be a problem. To fork a new JVM when running your application from the sbt prompt, add a line like this to your *build.sbt* file:

```
fork := true
```

There are several other options that let you control the forking process. See that documentation page for more details.

17.5 Understanding Other sbt Commands

Problem

You need to know what other common sbt commands are available, including how to list all the commands and tasks that are available.

Solution

There are *many* sbt commands available to you in addition to the `clean`, `compile`, `run`, and `package` commands. You can list the available commands in at least three ways:

- `help` prints a list of high-level commands.
- `tasks` shows a list of tasks that are defined for the current project (including `clean`, `compile`, and `run`).
- You can also press the Tab key twice at the sbt prompt and it will show all the commands that can be run—over three hundred commands with sbt 1.5.1.

You can get additional help on each command by typing `help <command>` or `inspect <command>`. For example:

- `help package` provides help on the `package` command.
- `inspect package` provides in-depth details on how the `package` command runs.

[Table 17-1](#) contains descriptions of the most common sbt commands.

Table 17-1. Common sbt commands

Command	Description
<code>clean</code>	Removes files produced by the build, including compiled classes, task caches, and generated sources.
<code>compile</code>	Compiles source code files in <i>src/main/scala</i> , <i>src/main/java</i> , and the root directory of the project.
<code>~ compile</code>	Automatically recompiles source code files while you're running sbt in interactive mode.
<code>console</code>	Compiles the source code files in the project, puts them on the classpath, and starts the Scala interpreter (REPL).
<code>consoleQuick</code>	Starts the Scala REPL with the project dependencies on the classpath, but without compiling project source code files.

Command	Description
doc	Generates API documentation from your Scala source code.
help [arg]	Issued by itself, it lists the common commands that are currently available. When given an argument, it provides a description of that task or key.
inspect [arg]	Displays details about how a given setting or task works (such as inspect package).
package	Creates a JAR file containing the files in <i>src/main/scala</i> , <i>src/main/java</i> , and resources in <i>src/main/resources</i> .
packageDoc	Creates a JAR file containing API documentation generated from your Scala source code.

Command	Description
publish	Publishes your project to a remote repository. See Recipe 17.12 .
publishLocal	Publishes project artifacts to a local Ivy repository.
reload	Reloads the build definition files. Needed in interactive mode if you change any of these files.
run	Compiles your code, and runs the main class from your project. If your project has multiple main methods, you'll be prompted to select one to run.
settings [arg]	Displays the settings defined for the current project. <code>-v</code> displays more settings, <code>--v</code> displays even more, and <code>-V</code> displays all settings.

Command	Description
show [setting]	Displays the value of a setting, such as <code>show sbtVersion.</code>
show [task]	Evaluates the task and displays the value returned by it.
test	Compiles and runs all tests.
testQuick [test*]	Runs the tests that have not been run yet, failed the last time they were run, or had any transitive dependencies recompiled since the last successful run
~ test	Automatically recompiles and reruns tests when project source code files change.

Command	Description
---------	-------------

<code>test:console</code>	Compiles the source code files in the project, puts them on the classpath, and starts the Scala REPL in test mode (so you can use ScalaTest, MUnit, ScalaCheck, etc.).
---------------------------	--

In addition to the built-in commands, when you use plugins they can also make their own tasks available. For instance, the Scala.js plugin adds a `fastLinkJS` command to sbt.

Discussion

As just one example of these commands, the `console` command starts a Scala REPL session from your sbt command prompt:

```
sbt:MyProject> console
[info] Compiling 10 Scala sources to target/scal
[info] Done compiling.
[info] Starting scala interpreter...

scala> _
```

At this point you can use this just like a normal Scala REPL, with the added benefit that all of your project's classes are available to you.

See Also

- [The sbt command-line reference](#) provides more examples and discussion of the available commands.

17.6 Continuous Compiling and Testing

Problem

You want to have sbt continuously compile and test your application's source code while you're making changes to it.

Solution

You can *continuously* compile and test your code by running these commands from sbt's interactive mode, i.e., inside the sbt shell:

- `~compile`
- `~test`
- `~testQuick`

When you run any of these commands, sbt watches your source code files and automatically recompiles them whenever it sees a file change. The `~compile` command simply recompiles your code when a file change is detected, while the test commands additionally run your tests, as described in [Table 17-2](#).

To demonstrate this, start the sbt shell from the root directory of an sbt project:

```
$ sbt
```

Then issue the `~compile` command:

```
sbt:Packaging> ~ compile
[success] Total time: 0 s
[info] 1. Monitoring source files for root/compil
[info]     Press <enter> to interrupt or ? for mo
```

Now, any time you change and save a source code file, sbt automatically recompiles it. You'll see new lines of output like these when sbt recompiles the code:

```
[info] Build triggered by src/main/scala/Foo.scala  
[info] compiling 1 Scala source to target/scala-  
[success] Total time: 0 s  
[info] 2. Monitoring source files for root/compil  
[info]     Press <enter> to interrupt or '?' for r
```

Similarly, you can use these sbt commands to automatically run your project's tests whenever a change is made:

```
~ test  
~ testQuick
```

Notice that with all of these commands, spacing after the `~` character is optional.

[Table 17-2](#) provides descriptions of these commands.

Table 17-2. sbt's continuous compile/test commands

Command	Description
<code>~ compile</code>	Automatically recompiles source code files while you're running sbt in interactive mode

Command	Description
<code>~ test</code>	Automatically recompiles and reruns tests when project source code files change

<code>~ testQuick</code>	Automatically recompiles and reruns the tests that have not been run yet, failed the last time they were run, or had any transitive dependencies recompiled since the last successful run
--------------------------	---

Using these commands is a little like using a continuous integration server on your local system, albeit with your own code.

17.7 Managing Dependencies with sbt

Problem

You want to use one or more external libraries (dependencies) in your Scala/sbt projects.

Solution

You can use both managed and unmanaged dependencies in your sbt projects, as described in the following sections.

Unmanaged dependencies

If you have JAR files—unmanaged dependencies, or, more accurately, *manage-it-yourself* dependencies—that you want to use in your project, just put them in the *lib* folder under the root directory of your sbt project, and sbt will find them automatically. (You'll need to run `reload` if you're already in an sbt session.) If those JARs depend on other JAR files, you'll have to manually download those other JAR files and copy them to the *lib* directory as well.

Managed dependencies

If you have a single managed dependency that you want to use in your project, such as the [Cats core library](#), add a `libraryDependencies` line like this to your *build.sbt* file:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.typelevel" %% "cats-core" % "2.2.0"
```

A simple but complete *build.sbt* file with one dependency looks like this:

```
name := "MyCatsProject"
version := "0.1"
scalaVersion := "3.0.0"
libraryDependencies += "org.typelevel" %% "cats-core" % "2.6.0"
```

To add multiple managed dependencies to your project, add them using a `Seq` in your *build.sbt* file:

```
libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
  "org.typelevel" %% "cats-core" % "2.6.0",
  "org.typelevel" %% "cats-effect" % "3.1.0"
)
```

Using Scala 2.13 dependencies in Scala 3 builds

When you want to use a Scala 2.13 dependency in a Scala 3 *build.sbt* file, use this `cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)` syntax:

```
libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
  ("org.scala-js" %% "scalajs-dom" % "1.1.0").cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)
```

```
( "org.querki" %% "jquery-facade" % "2.0" ) .cross
```

This technique is demonstrated in [Recipe 21.2, “Responding to Events with Scala.js”](#), and [Recipe 21.3, “Building Single-Page Applications with Scala.js”](#), where I include Scala 2.13 dependencies into a Scala 3 sbt build file.

You can use Scala 2.13 dependencies in a Scala 3 build, unless those dependencies use Scala 2 macros. See the [Scala 3 Migration Guide](#) for the latest integration details.

Discussion

A *managed dependency* is a dependency that's managed by your build tool, in this case sbt. In this situation, if library *a.jar* depends on *b.jar*, and that library depends on *c.jar*, and those JAR files are kept in a Maven repository along with this relationship information, then all you have to do is add a line to your *build.sbt* file like this:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.typelevel" %% "cats-core" % "3.2.0"
```

Through the magic of sbt, Coursier, and other tools in the ecosystem, the other JAR files will be downloaded and included in your project automatically.

When using a standalone JAR file as an *unmanaged dependency*, you have to manage this yourself. Given the same situation as the previous paragraph, if you want to use the library *a.jar* in your project, you must manually download *a.jar*, and then you have to know about the dependency on *b.jar* and the *transitive dependency* on *c.jar*, then download all those files yourself and place them in your project's *lib* directory.

MOST PROJECTS USE MANAGED DEPENDENCIES

Manually managing JAR files in the *lib* directory can work for very small projects, but quickly becomes much harder when transitive dependencies creep in.

As mentioned in [Chapter 17](#), under the hood, sbt uses Coursier for library management. As a result, sbt lets you easily use the wealth of Java libraries that have been created over the years in your Scala projects.

The libraryDependencies syntax

There are two general forms for adding a managed dependency to a *build.sbt* file. In the first form, you specify the `groupId`,

`artifactID`, and `revision`:

```
libraryDependencies += groupID % artifactID % rev
```

In the second form, you add an optional `configuration` parameter:

```
libraryDependencies += groupID % artifactID % rev
```

The `groupID`, `artifactID`, and `revision` strings correspond to what tools like Coursier and Apache Ivy require to retrieve the library you want:

- `groupID` is typically a Java/Scala-style package name, such as `"org.typelevel"`.
- `artifactID` states what specific product you want, such as `"cats-core"`.
- `revision` declares the version/revision of the artifact (module) you want, such as `"2.6.0"`.

Typically, the module developer states this information in their documentation. For instance, at the time of this writing, the [MUnit GitHub page](#) has a *maven-central* link on it, and when you click that you're taken to an [index.scala-lang.org.page](#). The

Version Matrix on that page shows that when using Scala 3.0.0, the latest MUnit version is 0.7.25, and it provides this

libraryDependencies string for you:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalameta" %% "munit"
```

To show the relationship between this string and the Maven information for this artifact, you can also use that same web page and click on the Maven tab, where you'll see this information:

```
<dependency>
  <groupId>org.scalameta</groupId>
  <artifactId>munit_3.0.0</artifactId>
  <version>0.7.25</version>
</dependency>
```

That shows the correspondence between the sbt configuration strings and the parameter names in a Maven XML file.

Methods used to build libraryDependencies

The symbols `+=`, `%`, and `%%` used in *build.sbt* are part of sbt's DSL. They're described in [Table 17-3](#).

Table 17-3. Methods used to build libraryDependencies strings

Method	Description
<code>+ =</code>	Appends to the key's value. The <code>build.sbt</code> file works with settings defined as key/value pairs. In the examples shown, <code>libraryDependencies</code> is a key, and it's shown with several different values.
<code>%</code>	A method used to construct an Apache Ivy “Module ID” from the strings you supply.
<code>%%</code>	When used after the <code>groupId</code> , it automatically adds your project's Scala version to the end of the artifact name.
<code>%%%</code>	Use this instead of <code>%%</code> when using artifacts for Scala.js and Scala Native.
You can specify <code>%</code> , <code>%%</code> , or <code>%%%</code> after the <code>groupId</code> . This Scala 2.13 example shows the <code>%</code> method:	
<pre>libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" *%* "scalatest_2.13.4" % "test" %> { ... }</pre>	

I always declare the Scala version I'm using in my project with the `scalaVersion` parameter—2.13, in this case—so redeclaring it here can be error-prone. Therefore, the `%%` method is almost always used:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" *%%* "scalatest_2.13"
```

When your Scala version is 2.13.x, those two examples are equivalent. The `%%` method adds your project's major Scala version to the end of the artifact name. Adding the Scala version to the `artifactID` is required because modules may be compiled for different Scala versions.

Dependencies for Scala.js and Scala Native

When specifying dependencies that have been specifically packaged for Scala.js and Scala Native, use three percent symbols between the `groupId` and `artifactID` fields, as shown here:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.querki" %% "jquery-ui" % "1.12.1"
```

As just shown in the previous "org.scalatest" example, you use `%%` to include libraries that are compiled for Scala, but when a library is compiled for Scala.js or Scala Native, use `%%%` instead. As explained in ["Simple Command Line Tools with Scala Native,"](#) just as two percent symbols tell sbt to use the right *version* of a dependency, three percent symbols tell sbt to use the correct target environment, currently either Scala.js or Scala Native.

The configuration field

Note that in some of the examples, the value `Test` or the string `"test"` is added after the revision:

```
libraryDependencies += "com.typesafe.akka" %% "akka-actor" % "2.5.10"
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" %% "scalatest" % "3.0.5" % "test"
```

These examples specify the configuration field for adding a dependency:

```
libraryDependencies += groupID % artifactID % revision % "test"
```

This `configuration` parameter is typically used for testing dependencies, and you declare them with `"test"` or `Test`, as

shown. Dependencies declared like this will only be added to the classpath for sbt's *test* configuration. This is useful for adding dependencies like ScalaTest, MUnit, and Mockito, which are used when you test your application but not when you compile and run the application.

Where are the dependencies?

You may wonder where your project's JAR files are located after they're downloaded. Per [the Coursier cache documentation](#), its cache location is platform-dependent, and the files it downloads are kept in these locations:

- On macOS: *~/Library/Caches/Coursier*
- On Linux, *~/.cache/coursier/v1* (this also applies to Linux-based CI environments, and FreeBSD too)
- On Windows: *%LOCALAPPDATA%|Coursier|Cache|v1*, which, for user Alex, typically corresponds to *C:\Users\Alex\AppData\Local\Coursier\Cache\v1*

For instance, when you're using macOS and have a dependency like this in your *build.sbt* file while using Scala 2.13:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" %% "scalat
```

the resulting JAR file will be found in a directory like this:

```
/Users/al/Library/Caches/Coursier/v1/https/repol  
scala-lang/scala-library/2.13.3/scala-library-2
```

USE DEBUG MODE WHEN CURIOUS

When you're curious about how things work inside the sbt shell, issue its `debug` command before running your other commands:

```
sbt> debug
```

Now when you run sbt commands like this, you'll see dozens of lines of output, maybe hundreds:

```
sbt> clean; compile
```

After you've seen what you wanted to see, you can switch back to other logging modes, such as `error`, `warning`, or `info`.

Repositories

sbt uses the standard Maven Central repository by default, so it can locate most libraries when you add a `libraryDependencies` line to a *build.sbt* file. In these cases, there's no need for you to tell sbt where to look for the file.

However, when a library is *not* in a standard repository, you can tell sbt how to find the file on the internet. This process is referred to as adding a *resolver*, and you can learn more about it in the [sbt resolvers documentation](#).

17.8 Controlling Which Version of a Managed Dependency Is Used

Problem

In a Scala/sbt project you want to make sure you always have the desired version of a managed dependency, including the latest integration release, the milestone release, or other versions.

Solution

The `revision` field in the `libraryDependencies` setting isn't limited to specifying a single, fixed version. According to [the Apache Ivy dependency documentation](#) you can specify strings such as `latest.integration`, `latest.milestone`, and other terms.

As an example of this flexibility, rather than specifying version 1.8 of a `foobar` module, as shown here:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.foobar" %% "foobar" %
```

you can request the `latest.integration` version like this:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.foobar" %% "foobar" %
```

The module developer documentation often tells you what versions are available and should be used, depending on your desires. You can also find all the module versions on Maven Central, such as all the ScalaTest versions from [MvnRepository](#).

Revision field options

Once you know what version(s) you want, you can specify tags to control the version of the module that will be downloaded and used. Although as of version 1.3, sbt now uses Coursier for artifact fetching (rather than Ivy), sbt still supports the Ivy syntax, and the Ivy dependency documentation states that the following tags can be used:

- `latest.integration`.

- `latest.[any status]`, such as `latest.milestone`.
- You can end the revision with a `+` character. This selects the latest subrevision of the dependency module. For instance, if the dependency module exists in revisions 1.0.3, 1.0.7, and 1.1.2, specifying `1.0.+` as your dependency will result in 1.0.7 being selected.
- You can use version ranges, as shown in the following examples:
 - — `[1.0,2.0]` matches all versions greater or equal to 1.0 and lower or equal to 2.0
 - — `[1.0,2.0[` matches all versions greater or equal to 1.0 and lower than 2.0
 - — `]1.0,2.0]` matches all versions greater than 1.0 and lower or equal to 2.0
 - — `]1.0,2.0[` matches all versions greater than 1.0 and lower than 2.0
 - — `[1.0,)` matches all versions greater or equal to 1.0
 - — `]1.0,)` matches all versions greater than 1.0
 - — `(,2.0]` matches all versions lower or equal to 2.0
 - — `(,2.0[` matches all versions lower than 2.0

These configuration examples are courtesy of [the Apache Ivy dependency documentation](#).

Discussion

To demonstrate a couple of these revision field options, this example shows the `latest.integration` tag used with ScalaTest:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" %% "scalatest"  
    % "test"
```

At the time of this writing that configuration retrieves 15 ScalaTest JAR files with names like these:

```
scalatest_2.13-3.3.0-SNAP3.jar  
scalatest-core_2.13-3.3.0-SNAP3.jar  
scalatest-funspec_2.13-3.3.0-SNAP3.jar
```

You can see that output by putting that configuration line in a `build.sbt` file, running `reload` if you're in sbt interactive mode, and then running commands like `update` or `compile`.

As a second example, this is how you use the `+` tag:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" %% "scalatest"  
    % "+"
```

When I run the `update` command after adding that configuration line, I see that it retrieves these JAR files:

```
scalactic_2.13-3.0.9.jar  
scalatest_2.13-3.0.9.jar
```

See Also

For more information on managing sbt dependency versions, see these scala-sbt.org pages:

- [Library dependencies](#)
- [Library management](#)

17.9 Generating Project API Documentation

Problem

In an sbt project, you've marked up your Scala source code with Scaladoc comments and want to generate the API documentation for your project.

Solution

Depending on your documentation needs, use any of the sbt commands listed in [Table 17-4](#).

Table 17-4. sbt commands related to project documentation

sbt Command	Description
doc	Creates Scaladoc API documentation from the Scala source code files located in <i>src/main/scala</i>
Test / doc	Creates Scaladoc API documentation from the Scala source code files located in <i>src/test/scala</i>
packageDoc	Creates a JAR file containing the API documentation created from the Scala source code in <i>src/main/scala</i>
Test / packageDoc	Creates a JAR file containing the API documentation created from the Scala source code in <i>src/test/scala</i>
publish	Publishes artifacts to the repository defined by the <code>publish-to</code> setting

sbt Command	Description
publishLocal	Publishes artifacts to the local Ivy repository as described

For example, to generate API documentation, use the `doc` command:

```
$ sbt doc
```

When you run this command, its output is written under the `target/scala-3.0.0/api` directory, where the `3.0.0` portion represents the Scala version you're using in your project, in this case Scala 3.0.0. Similarly, `Test/doc` output is written to the `target/scala-3.0.0/test-api/` subdirectory, and output from `publishLocal` is written under a `$HOME/.ivy2/local/ProjectName` directory on your system, where `ProjectName` is the name of your sbt project. The other commands also show where their output is written.

Discussion

Some sbt commands don't show the output files they generate, so if you want to see those filenames, precede commands like

`doc` or `package` with `show`, like this:

```
sbt> show doc
target/scala-3.0.0/api
```

```
sbt> show Test/doc
[info] target/scala-3.0.0/test-api
```

```
sbt> show package
target/scala-3.0.0/stringutils_3.0.0-1.0.jar
```

The commands run as usual and then show their output files when they finish.

See Also

- [The sbt command line reference](#) has more information on these commands.
- The Scaladoc tags (`@see`, `@param`, etc.) are listed on this [Scaladoc for library authors page](#).
- See [Recipe 17.12](#) for examples of using `publish` and `publishLocal`.

17.10 Specifying a Main Class to Run with sbt

Problem

You have multiple main methods in a Scala/sbt project and you want to specify (a) which main method should be run when you type `sbt run`, or (b) the main method that should be invoked when your project is packaged as a JAR file.

Solution

There are slightly different solutions depending on whether you want to run a main method with `sbt run`, or your application is packaged as a JAR file.

Specifying a main method for sbt run

If you have multiple main methods in your project and want to specify which main method to run when typing `sbt run`, add a line like this to your `build.sbt` file:

```
// set the main class for the 'sbt run' task
Compile / run / mainClass := Some("com.alvinalexander
```

In this example, `Main1` is an `@main` method in the `com.alvinalexander` package.

Another option is to use sbt's `run-main` command to specify the class to run. This is how it works from your operating system command line:

```
$ sbt "runMain com.alvinalexander.Main1"  
[info] Running com.alvinalexander.Main1  
hello  
[success] Total time: 1 s
```

This is how it works inside the sbt shell:

```
$ sbt  
  
sbt> runMain com.alvinalexander.Main1  
[info] Running com.alvinalexander.Main1  
hello  
[success] Total time: 1 s
```

Specifying a main method for a packaged JAR file

To specify the class that will be added to the manifest when your application is packaged as a JAR file, add this line to your `build.sbt` file:

```
Compile / packageBin / mainClass := Some("com.alvinalexander.Main2")
```

Now when you create a JAR file for your application using the `package` or `show package` commands:

```
sbt> show package
[info] target/scala-3.0.0/myapp_3.0.0-1.0.jar
```

The resulting *META-INF/MANIFEST.MF* file inside the JAR file that's created contains the main class you specified:

```
Main-Class: com.alvinalexander.Main2
```

Discussion

If you have only one `@main` method in your application, sbt automatically runs that method. In this case, these configuration lines aren't necessary.

If you have multiple `@main` methods in your project and don't use any of the approaches shown in the Solution, sbt will prompt you with a list of `@main` methods it finds when you execute `sbt run`:

```
Multiple main classes detected, select one to run  
[1] com.alvinalexander.myproject.Foo  
[2] com.alvinalexander.myproject.Bar
```

The following code shows what a `build.sbt` file with both of the `mainClass` settings looks like:

```
name := "MyProject"  
version := "0.1"  
scalaVersion := "3.0.0"  
  
// set the main class for the 'sbt run' task  
Compile / run / mainClass := Some("com.alvinalexander.myproject.Foo")  
  
// set the main class for the 'sbt package' task  
Compile / packageBin / mainClass := Some("com.alvinalexander.myproject.Foo")
```

Those `mainClass` settings are for an `@main` method named `Foo` in the package `com.alvinalexander.myproject`.

See Also

See [Recipe 1.4, “Compiling with scalac and Running with scala”](#), for more details on `@main` methods and `main` methods in

objects.

17.11 Deploying a Single Executable JAR File

Problem

You're building a Scala application with sbt that has multiple dependencies, and you want to deploy a single executable JAR file.

Solution

The sbt `package` command creates a JAR file that includes the class files it compiles from your source code, along with the resources in your project in `src/main/resources`, but it doesn't include your project dependencies or the libraries from the Scala distribution that are needed to execute the JAR file with the `java` command. Therefore, use the [sbt-assembly plugin](#) to create a single JAR file that includes *all* of these resources.

Using sbt-assembly

The installation instructions for sbt-assembly may change, but at the time of this writing all you have to do is create a *project/assembly.sbt* file under your project's root directory that contains this line:

```
addSbtPlugin("com.eed3si9n" % "sbt-assembly" % "(
```

After that, just reload your sbt project and sbt-assembly is ready to use.

Now—assuming that your project has a single `@main` method—run the sbt `assembly` command to create a single executable JAR file:

```
sbt> assembly
```

To see the location of the output JAR file when running `assembly`, prepend that command with `show`:

```
sbt> show assembly
[info] compiling 1 Scala source to target/scala-1
[info] target/scala-3.0.0/MyApp.jar
```

As a more concrete example, I've written a "Knowledge Browser" with Scala and JavaFX, and when I build it with sbt-assembly I can see all the dependencies it's including, as well as the location of the final JAR file:

```
[info] Including from cache: rome-1.8.1.jar
[info] Including from cache: scala-xml_2.12-1.0.6
// more ooutput here ...
[info] Including from cache: jsoup-1.11.2.jar
[info] Including from cache: jfxrt.jar
[info] Packaging target/scala-2.12/Knol-assembly-
[info] Done packaging.
```

The sbt-assembly plugin works by copying the class files from your source code, your dependencies, and the Scala library into one single JAR file that can be executed with the `java` interpreter.

Discussion

You can customize how sbt-assembly works in a variety of ways. First, if your project has multiple `@main` methods, add this setting to your `build.sbt` file to specify the `@main` method for your assembled JAR file:

```
assembly / mainClass := Some("com.alvinalexander
```

That setting is for an `@main` method named `Foo` in the package `com.alvinalexander.myproject`.

To set the name of the generated JAR file, use this setting:

```
assembly / assemblyJarName := "MyApp.jar"
```

To skip running the tests during assembly, use this setting:

```
assembly / test := {}
```

You can verify that the `assemblyJarName` setting works when you run the `show assembly` command. To verify the `mainClass` setting, `cd` into the directory where your JAR file is located, extract the *META-INF/MANIFEST.MF* file from that JAR file, and then examine its contents:

```
$ cd target/scala-3.0.0  
  
$ jar xvf MyApp.jar META-INF/MANIFEST.MF  
inflated: META-INF/MANIFEST.MF  
  
$ cat META-INF/MANIFEST.MF
```

```
Manifest-Version: 1.0
Main-Class: com.alvinalexander.myproject.Foo
// more output ...
```

As shown, the `Main-Class` setting in that file matches the `mainClass` setting in the *build.sbt* file.

See Also

- [The sbt-assembly project](#).
- Currently, it's easiest to see the latest assembly version and other information on [this index.scala-lang.org page](#).

17.12 Publishing Your Library

Problem

You've created a Scala project or library with sbt that you want to share with other users, creating all the files you need for a Maven/Ivy repository.

Solution

There are just a couple steps for this solution:

1. Define your repository information.
2. Publish your project with `sbt publish` or `sbt publishLocal`.

For my [StringUtils library](#) I create a `build.sbt` file that contains the usual project `name`, `version`, and `scalaVersion` settings. Then I add a `publishTo` configuration line that configures the location for where the `publish` task should send its output:

```
lazy val root = (project in file("."))  
  .settings(  
    name := "StringUtils",  
    version := "1.0",  
    scalaVersion := "3.0.0"  
  )  
  
// for the 'publish' task; tells sbt to write its  
// "out" subdirectory  
publishTo := Some(Resolver.file("file", new File
```

Now when I run `sbt publish`, I see sbt output that looks like this:

```
sbt> publish
[info] published sutils_3.0.0 to
      out/sutils/sutils_3.0.0/1.0.part/sutils_
```

In that output I changed the actual *out/stringutils* output directory name to *out/sutils* so it would fit in the width allowed (i.e., the actual directory name is *out/stringutils*).

Next, without doing anything to define a local Ivy repository, I get the following results when running the `publishLocal` task:

```
sbt> publishLocal
[info] Main Scala API documentation successful.
[info] :: delivering :: sutils#sutils_3.0.0;1.0
[info] delivering ivy file to target/scala-3.0.0
[info] published sutils_3.0.0 to
      ~/.ivy2/local/sutils/sutils_3.0.0/1.0/part
[info] published sutils_3.0.0 to
      ~/.ivy2/local/sutils/sutils_3.0.0/1.0/jar
[info] published sutils_3.0.0 to
```

```
[info] Publishing Sutils_3.0.0 ...
  ~./ivy2/local/sutils/sutils_3.0.0/1.0/src
[info] published sutils_3.0.0 to
  ~./ivy2/local/sutils/sutils_3.0.0/1.0/out
[info] published ivy to ~./ivy2/local/sutils/sut
```

Again, in that output I changed the name of my library from `stringutils` to `sutils` so the output would fit without wrapping.

Discussion

The [sbt publishing documentation](#) says publishing “consists of uploading a descriptor, such as an Ivy file or Maven POM, and artifacts, such as a jar or war, to a repository so that other projects can specify your project as a dependency.”

It further provides these descriptions of the `publish` and `publishLocal` tasks:

- The `publish` action is used to publish your project to a remote repository. To use publishing, you need to specify the repository to publish to and the credentials to use. Once these are set up, you can run `publish`.
- The `publishLocal` action is used to publish your project to a local Ivy repository. You can then use this project from

other projects on the same machine.

In my example I use `publish` to publish my project to a local directory. The [sbt publishing page](#) discusses the steps necessary to publish your artifacts to a remote repository.

See Also

- The [sbt artifacts page](#) describes how to control what artifacts should be created during a build.
- The [sbt cross building.page](#) shows how to “build and publish your project against multiple versions of Scala.”

Chapter 18. Concurrency with Scala Futures and Akka Actors

In Scala, you can still use Java threads:

```
val thread = new Thread {  
    override def run =  
        // put your long-running code here ...  
        Thread.sleep(100)  
        println("Hello, world")  
    }  
thread.start
```

However, futures and the *Actor model* are the preferred approaches for concurrency:

Futures

Are good for one-shot, “handle this relatively slow and potentially long-running computation, and call me back with a result when you’re done” processing.

Actors

Are good for processes that run in parallel, live for a long time, and may respond to many requests during their

lifetime.

Both futures and actors let you write code at a much higher level of abstraction than threads, and once you’re comfortable with them, they let you focus on solving the problem at hand, rather than having to worry about the low-level problems of threads, locks, and shared data.

AKKA AND SCALA 3

At the time of this writing, Akka has not been ported to Scala 3. Therefore, all the examples in this chapter use the latest version of Scala 2.

Futures

The [Future Scaladoc](#) states, “A `Future` represents a value which may or may not *currently* be available, but will be available at some point, or an exception if that value could not be made available.”

The Scala `Future` is a nice improvement over the Java `Thread` in several ways:

- Like the typical use of a `Thread`, a `Future` is used when you want to create a little “pocket of concurrency” to run a relatively short-lived task in parallel.

- When a `Future` is finished it's said to be *completed*, and when it's completed you can process its result using many different callback and transformation methods, including `onComplete`, `andThen`, `foreach`, `map`, and `recoverWith`.

Several of these methods are demonstrated in this chapter.

Akka and the Actor Model

[Akka](#) is an Actor model library for Scala and Java programmers. The first edition of this book covered what is now known as *Akka Classic* actors. Classic uses untyped actors, and I found them very easy to get started with back in 2013, and they're still supported today.

These days the new approach is called *Akka Typed*, and as the name implies, these actors are much more type-safe than the Classic actors, helping to eliminate errors at compile time. This edition of the book covers Akka Typed.

The Actor model

Before digging into the Akka recipes in this chapter, it will help to understand the Actor model. The first thing to understand about it is the concept of an *actor*:

- An actor is the smallest unit when building an actor-based system, like a class in an OOP system.
- Like a class, an actor encapsulates state and behavior.
- You can't peek inside an actor to get its state. You can send an actor a message requesting state information—like asking a person how they're feeling—but you can't reach in and execute one of its methods, or access its fields.
- An actor has a mailbox—an inbox—and its purpose in life is to process the messages in its inbox.
- You communicate with an actor by sending it an immutable message. Like sending someone an email message, these messages go into the actor's mailbox.
- When an actor receives a message, it's like taking a letter out of its mailbox. It opens the letter, processes the message using one of its algorithms, then moves on to the next letter in the mailbox. If there are no more messages, the actor waits until it receives one.

In an application, actors form hierarchies, like a family or a business organization. [Lightbend](#)—the company that created and is the lead maintainer of Akka—recommends thinking of an actor as being like a person, such as a person in a business organization:

- An actor has one parent (supervisor): the actor that created it.
- An actor may have children. Thinking of this as a business, a president may have a number of vice presidents (VPs). Those VPs will have many subordinates, and so on.
- An actor may have siblings. For instance, there may be 10 VPs directly under the president in an organization.

A best practice of developing actor systems is to delegate, delegate, delegate, especially if behavior will block. In a business, the president may want something done, so he delegates that work to a VP. That VP delegates work to a manager, and so on, until the work is eventually performed by one or more subordinates.

Delegation is important. Imagine that the work takes several person-years. If the president had to handle that work himself, he couldn't respond to other needs—while the VPs and other employees would all be idle.

In addition to those general statements about actors, there are a few important things to know about Akka's implementation of the Actor model:

- You can't reach into an Akka actor to get information about its state. When you instantiate an `Actor` in your code, Akka gives you an `ActorRef`, which is essentially a façade between you and the actor.
- Behind the scenes, Akka actors run on real threads; many actors may share one thread.
- There are [different mailbox implementations to choose from](#), and you can also create your own mailbox type.
- When an actor terminates (intentionally or unintentionally), messages in its mailbox go into the system's “dead letter mailbox,” as discussed in [Recipe 18.8](#).

Benefits of actors

In general, the Actor model—which has been implemented in other languages such as [Erlang](#) and [Dart](#)—gives you the benefit of offering a high level of abstraction for achieving long-running concurrency and parallelism. Beyond that, the Akka actor library adds these benefits:

Lightweight, event-driven processes

The documentation states that there can be approximately 2.5 million actors per gigabyte of RAM, and they can process up to 50 million messages per second.

Fault tolerance

Akka actors can be used to create “self-healing systems.”

Location transparency

Akka actors can span multiple JVMs and servers; they’re designed to work in a distributed environment using pure message-passing.

A “high level of abstraction” can also be read as “ease of use.” It doesn’t take very long to understand the Actor model, and once you do, you’ll be able to write complex concurrent applications much more easily than you can with the basic Java libraries.

Writing actors is like modeling the real world, so for a pizza store you can write one actor to make the pizza, another to take orders, another one to deliver orders, etc.

While I generally think of actors as being like humans that act independent of other humans, I also like to think of them as being like a web service on someone else’s servers that I can’t control. I can send messages to that web service to ask it for information, but I can’t reach into the web service to modify its state or access its resources; I can only work through its API, which is just like sending immutable messages with actors.

Hopefully, these notes about the Actor model in general, and the Akka implementation specifically, will be helpful in understanding the recipes in this chapter.

One More Thing: Parallel Collections Classes

The [Scala parallel collections classes](#) used to be integrated with the main Scala release, but they are now available as a separate project.

This example from the first edition of this book gives you an idea of how parallel collections classes work:

```
import scala.collection.parallel.immutable.ParVector
val v = ParVector.range(0, 10)           /
v.foreach{ e => Thread.sleep(10); print(e) } /
```

As shown in the `foreach` output, because collections like `ParVector` are truly implemented in a parallel manner, output from their methods—even a simple method like

`foreach`—is indeterminate. For more information, see my blog post [“Examples of How to Use Parallel Collections in Scala”](#).

PARALLEL VERSUS CONCURRENT

There are interesting debates about what the terms *concurrent* and *parallel* mean. I tend to use them interchangeably, but for one interesting discussion of their differences—such as concurrency being one vending machine with two lines and parallelism being two vending machines and two lines—see the blog post [“Parallelism and Concurrency Need Different Tools”](#) by Yossi Kreinin.

18.1 Creating a Future

Problem

You want a simple way to run a task concurrently with `Future` and are willing to block your application thread until the task is finished.

Solution

A *future* gives you a simple way to run an algorithm concurrently. A future starts running concurrently when you create it and returns a result at some point, well...in the future. In Scala, it's said that a future returns *eventually*.

The following example shows how to create a future and then block to wait for its result. Blocking when writing parallel algorithms is not a good thing—you should only block if you really, really have to. But this is useful as an initial example, first because it's a little easier to reason about and second because it gets the bad stuff out of the way early.

This code performs the calculation `1 + 1` at some time in the future. When it's finished with the calculation, it returns its result:

```
// 1 - the necessary imports
import scala.concurrent.{Await, Future}
import scala.concurrent.duration._
import scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext.Implicits.global
import scala.util.Random
import Thread.sleep

@main def futures1 =
  // 1: create a Future that runs in a separate thread
  // returns "eventually"
  val f = Future {
    // this could be any long-running algorithm
    sleep(Random.nextInt(500))
    1 + 1
  }
  Await.result(f, Duration.Inf)
```

```
// 2: this is blocking, i.e., pausing the cu
// result from another thread
val result = Await.result(f, 1.second)
println(result)

sleep(1_000)
```

Here's how this code works:

- The `import` statements bring the code into scope that's needed.
- The `ExecutionContext.Implicits.global import` statement imports the “default global execution context.” You can think of an *execution context* as being a thread pool, and this is a simple way to get access to a thread pool.
- A `Future` is created after the first comment. As shown, creating a future is simple; just pass it a block of code you want to run. This is the code that will be executed concurrently, and it will return at some point in the future.
- The `Await.result` method call declares that it will wait for up to one second for the `Future` to return. If the `Future` doesn't return within that time, it throws a `java.util.concurrent.TimeoutException`.

- The `sleep` statement at the end of the code is used so the program will keep running while the `Future` is off being calculated. You won't need this in real-world programs, but in small example programs like this, you have to keep the main JVM thread running.

It's worth repeating that blocking is bad; you shouldn't write code like this unless you have to. The examples in the recipes that follow show much better approaches.

If your future takes longer than the wait time you specify, you'll get an exception that looks like this:

```
java.util.concurrent.TimeoutException: Future tir
```

You can demonstrate this for yourself by changing the `Random.nextInt(500)` in the code to a value like `2_000`.

Discussion

Although using a future is straightforward, there are many concepts behind it. The following statements describe the basic concepts of a future, as well as the `ExecutionContext` that a future relies on:

- The [futures and promises page on the official Scala website](#) defines a future “as a type of read-only placeholder object created for a result which doesn’t yet exist.”
- Similar to the way an `Option[A]` is a container that holds either a `Some[A]` or a `None`, a `Future[A]` is a container that runs a computation concurrently and at some future time may return either (a) a result of type `A` or (b) an exception.
- Your algorithm starts running at some nondeterministic time after the future is created, running on a thread assigned to it by the execution context.
- The result of the computation becomes available once the future completes.
- When it returns a result, a future is said to be *completed*. It may be either *successfully completed* or *failed*.
- As shown in the next several recipes, a future provides an API for reading the value that has been computed. This includes callback and transformation methods such as `foreach`, `onComplete`, `map`, etc. A `for` comprehension can also be used and is shown in [Recipe 18.4](#).
- An `ExecutionContext` executes a task it’s given. You can think of it as being like a thread pool.

In my code I provide the default global execution context using this `ExecutionContext` import statement:

```
import scala.concurrentExecutionContext.Implicits._
```

In reviewing this book, Hermann Hueck noted that there are many ways to import and use an `ExecutionContext`. For example, given this initial `import` statement:

```
import scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext
```

these are different ways you can provide an `ExecutionContext` to your code:

```
// define a given with name 'ec'  
given ec: ExecutionContext = ExecutionContext.global
```

```
// for this example we just need the type; the name 'ec' is unused  
given ExecutionContext = ExecutionContext.global
```

```
// imports all givens in Implicits  
import ExecutionContext.Implicits.given
```

```
// imports the given of the type ExecutionContext  
import ExecutionContext.Implicits.{given ExecutionContext}
```

When you need flexibility in working with an `ExecutionContext`, it's helpful to know all of these approaches.

See Also

- The [futures and promises page on the official Scala website](#) covers futures (and promises, which I don't cover) in depth, with many examples.
- The [scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext Scaladoc](#).

18.2 Using Callback and Transformation Methods with Futures

Problem

You want to run a task concurrently, including having different ways to handle its result when the task finishes.

Solution

The previous recipe showed a simple way to use a `Future`, but because it blocks, that technique should only be used very rarely. Much better approaches are shown in this recipe.

Common code

To simplify the following code, please note that all the following examples depend on these import statements:

```
import scala.concurrent.Future
import scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext.Implicits.global
import scala.util.{Failure, Success, Random}
import Thread.sleep
```

Solution 1: Use `onComplete`

The `Future` class has three callback methods: `onComplete`, `andThen`, and `foreach`. The following example demonstrates `onComplete`:

```
def getMeaningOfLife() =
  sleep(Random.nextInt(500))
  42

@main def callbacks1 =
```

```

    println("starting calculation ...")
    val f = Future {
        getMeaningOfLife()
    }

    println("before onComplete")
    f.onComplete {
        case Success(value) => println(s"Got the
        case Failure(e) => e.printStackTrace
    }

    // do the rest of your work
    println("A ..."); sleep(100)
    println("B ..."); sleep(100)
    println("C ..."); sleep(100)
    println("D ..."); sleep(100)
    println("E ..."); sleep(100)
    println("F ..."); sleep(100)

    sleep(2_000)

```

This example returns the meaning of life (42) after a random delay. The important part of this example is the `f.onComplete` method call and the code that follows it. Here's how that code works:

- The future `f` is ready to be run as soon as it's created (though the actual time it starts running is nondeterministic).
- The type of `f` is `Future[Int]`.
- The `f.onComplete` method call sets up the callback, i.e., what should happen when the future completes.
- The type signature of `onComplete` shows that it takes a function that transforms a `Try` input parameter into a `Unit` result. Therefore, in the `f.onComplete` code block, your code handles the future result as a `Success` or `Failure`.
- The `println` statements with the slight delays represent other work your code may be doing on the main thread while the future is off and running on a parallel thread.

Because the `Future` is running concurrently on some other thread, and you don't know exactly when the result will be computed, the output from this code is nondeterministic, but it can look like this:

```
starting calculation ...
before onComplete
A ...
B ...
C ...
```

```
D ...
E ...
Got the callback, meaning = 42
F ...
```

Because the `Future` returns eventually—at some nondeterministic time—the “Got the callback” message may appear anywhere in that output.

As mentioned, the `onComplete` type signature shows that it takes a function that transforms a `Try` parameter:

```
def onComplete[U](f: (Try[T]) => U) (implicit exec: ExecutionContext)
```

As a result, another approach you can use here is to replace the previous `f.onComplete` code with a `fold` call on the `Try` parameter:

```
f.onComplete(_.fold(
    _.printStackTrace,
    value => println(s"Got the callback, meaning = $value"))
)
```

In this case, `fold` takes two parameters:

- The first parameter is a function to apply if `Try` is a `Failure`.
- The second parameter is a function to apply if `Try` is a `Success`.

See [the `Try` class Scaladoc](#) for more details on this approach.

Solution 2: Use `andThen` or `foreach`

There may be times when `onComplete` isn't exactly what you want, and in those situations you can use the `andThen` and `foreach` callback methods instead. Here's an example of how to use `andThen`:

```
@main def callbacks2 =  
  
    println("Creating the future")  
  
    val f: Future[Int] = Future {  
        // sleep for a random time before returning  
        val sleepTime = Random.nextInt(500)  
        sleep(sleepTime)  
        println("Leaving the future")  
        if sleepTime > 250 then throw new Except:  
        42
```

```

}

// handle the result of f with andThen
println("Before andThen")
f andThen {
  case Success(x) =>
    val y = x * 2
    println(s"andThen: $y")
  case Failure(t) =>
    println(s"andThen: ${t.getMessage}")
}

println("After andThen")
sleep(1_000)

```

This code is similar to the `onComplete` example but has these changes:

- The `Future` block is wired to throw an exception about half the time. If it doesn't throw an exception, it eventually yields the value `42`.
- `andThen` block is run after the `Future` completes.
- `andThen` blocks are implemented with partial functions. If you don't want to implement the `Failure` portion of the `case` statement, you don't have to.

When an exception is thrown, the output from this app is:

```
Creating the future
Before andThen
After andThen
Leaving the future
andThen: Ka-boom
```

When it doesn't throw an exception, the output is:

```
Creating the future
Before andThen
After andThen
Leaving the future
andThen: 84
```

Next, here's a shorter version of the previous example, using `foreach` instead of `andThen`:

```
@main def callbacks3 =
  val f: Future[Int] = Future {
    val sleepTime = Random.nextInt(500)
    sleep(sleepTime)
    if sleepTime > 250 then throw new Exception("42")
  }
```

```
f.foreach(println)  
  
sleep(1_000)
```

In this case, this example prints 42 when an exception is not thrown and prints nothing at all when an exception is thrown. The Future class Scaladoc tells us why nothing is printed: “WARNING: (foreach) will not be called if this future is never completed or if it is completed with a failure. Since this method executes asynchronously and does not produce a return value, any nonfatal exceptions thrown will be reported to the ExecutionContext.”

Future has many more callback methods that are categorized as *transformation methods*, including transform, collect, fallbackTo, map, recover, and recoverWith. Here’s a short example of using fallbackTo:

```
def getMeaningOfLife() = Future {  
    sleep(Random.nextInt(500))  
    42  
}  
  
val meaning = getMeaningOfLife() fallbackTo Future {  
    meaning.foreach(println)
```

The [Future class Scaladoc](#) has good examples for other transformation methods.

Discussion

The following statements describe the use of the callback and transformation methods that can be used with futures:

- Callback and transformation methods are called asynchronously when a future completes.
- `onComplete`, `andThen`, `foreach`, and `fallbackTo` are demonstrated in this recipe.
- A callback method is executed by some thread, some time after the future is completed. From [the futures and promises page on the official Scala website](#), “There is no guarantee that it will be called by the thread that completed the future or the thread that created the callback.”
- The order in which callbacks are executed is not guaranteed.
- `onComplete` takes a callback function of type `Try[A] => B`.

- `andThen` takes a partial function. You only need to handle the desired case. (See [Recipe 10.7, “Creating Partial Functions”](#), for more information on partial functions.)
- `onComplete` and `foreach` have the result type `Unit`, so they can't be chained together.

18.3 Writing Methods That Return Futures

Problem

You want to write a method or function that returns a Future.

Solution

In the real world you'll want to create methods that return futures. The following example defines a method named

`longRunningComputation` that returns a `Future[Int]`:

```
import scala.concurrent.Future
import scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext.Implicitly
import scala.util.{Failure, Success, Random}
import Thread.sleep

@main def futuresFunction =
```

```
// a function that returns a Future
def longRunningComputation(i: Int): Future[Int] = {
    sleep(100)
    i + 1
}

// this does not block
longRunningComputation(11).onComplete {
    case Success(result) => println(s"result = $result")
    case Failure(e) => e.printStackTrace
}

// keep the jvm from shutting down
sleep(1_000)
```

In this example I create the body of the method

longRunningComputation as a code block wrapped in a Future. The code block is passed into the apply method of the Future object. This starts the computation asynchronously and returns a Future[A] —a Future[Int] in this case—that will hold the result of the computation. This is a common way to define methods that return a future.

Discussion

In a similar technique, because `Future` takes a block of code as its input parameter, you can wrap existing methods that don't run concurrently inside a `Future` like this:

```
// some existing function that does not run concurrently
def getMeaningOfLife() = ???  
  
// wrap that existing function in a Future
val meaning = Future { getMeaningOfLife() }
```

Again, this approach works because:

- The method is passed to the `apply` method in the `scala.concurrent.Future` object (the `Future object`, not the `Future class`).
- That `apply` method takes a call-by-name block of code as a parameter, as you can tell from its signature on the [Future object Scaladoc page](#):

```
final def apply[T] (body: => T) (implicit executor
```

- Because a method (or function) is equivalent to a call-by-name block, you can wrap nonconcurrent methods with a

`Future` as shown.

18.4 Running Multiple Futures in Parallel

Problem

Futures generally start running as soon as they're created, and you want to see how to run multiple futures in parallel, and join their results together when they have all completed.

Solution

If you want to create multiple Scala futures and merge their results together to get a result in a `for` expression, the correct approach is:

1. Create the futures.
2. Merge their results in a `for` expression.
3. Extract the merged result using `onComplete` or a similar technique.

The correct approach (simplified)

I show the correct approach to using multiple futures in a `for` expression in the following code. The important point is to create your futures as shown in Step A, prior to using them in the `for` expression in Step B:

```
import scala.concurrent.Future
import scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext.Implicits.global
import scala.util.{Failure, Success}
import Thread.sleep

@main def multipleFutures1 = {

    // (a) create the futures
    val f1 = Future { sleep(800); 1 }
    val f2 = Future { sleep(200); 2 }
    val f3 = Future { sleep(400); 3 }

    // (b) run them simultaneously in a for-comprehension
    val result = for {
        r1 <- f1
        r2 <- f2
        r3 <- f3
    } yield (r1 + r2 + r3)

    // (c) process the result
    result.onComplete {
        case Success(x) => println(s"result = $x")
        case Failure(e) => e.printStackTrace
    }
}
```

```
    }

    // important for a little parallel demo: keep
    sleep(3_000)
```

A thorough example for verification

There's no way to tell from reading that code that this is the correct approach, so I also created this next example to show how it works:

```
import scala.concurrent.Future
import scala.concurrent.ExecutionContext.Implicitly
import scala.util.{Failure, Success}
import Thread.sleep

def slowlyDouble(
    x: Int,
    startTime: Long,
    delay: Int,
    name: String
): Future[Int] = Future {
    println(s"entered $name: ${delta(startTime)}")
    sleep(delay)
    println(s"leaving $name: ${delta(startTime)}")
    x * 2
}
```

```
}

// time-related functions that are used in the code examples
def delta(t: Long) = System.currentTimeMillis - t
def time() = System.currentTimeMillis

@main def multipleFutures2 = {
    val t0 = System.currentTimeMillis

    // Future #1
    println(s"creating f1: ${delta(t0)}")
    val f1 = slowlyDouble(x=1, t0, delay=1500, narrow=false)

    // Future #2
    sleep(100)
    println(s"\ncreating f2: ${delta(t0)}")
    val f2 = slowlyDouble(x=2, t0, delay=250, narrow=false)

    // Future #3
    sleep(100)
    println(s"\ncreating f3: ${delta(t0)}")

    val f3 = slowlyDouble(x=3, t0, delay=500, narrow=false)

    println(s"\nentering `for`: ${delta(t0)}")
    val result = for {
        r1 <- f1
        r2 <- f2
    } yield r1 + r2
}
```

```
    r3 <- f3
    yield (r1 + r2 + r3)

    println("nBEFORE onComplete")
    result.onComplete {
        case Success(x) => {
            println(s"\nresult = $x (delta = ${delta} ms)")
            println("note: you don't get the result immediately")
        }
        case Failure(e) => e.printStackTrace()
    }
    println("AFTER onComplete\n")

    // important for a little parallel demo: keep
    sleep(3_000)
```

If you run that code you'll see output that looks like this:

```
creating f1: 0
entered f1: 0

creating f2: 105
entered f2: 105

creating f3: 210

entering `for`: 211
entered f3: 211
```

```
BEFORE onComplete
AFTER onComplete

leaving f2: 359
leaving f3: 713
leaving f1: 1501

result = 12 (delta = 1502)
note: you don't get the result until the last fut
```

The output shows several interesting points:

- `f1`, `f2`, and `f3` begin running immediately. You can't tell it from this code, but they immediately begin running on new threads.
- The output rapidly passes over the `onComplete` statement.
- After a short pause, the leaving statements are printed, followed quickly by the result.
- Notice that the `delta` printed with the result is just a little larger than the `delta` for `f1`. That's because `f1` has the longest sleep time. It makes sense that the total run time of three futures running in parallel is just a little larger than the future with the longest run time.

I encourage you to play with that code and make it your own until you're completely satisfied that you understand how Scala futures work with a `for` expression.

Discussion

You can also confirm that the previous approach is correct by doing the wrong thing. Given the same imports and

`slowlyDouble`, `delta`, and `time` methods as the previous example, the following code shows the *wrong* way to use futures in a `for` expression:

```
@main def multipleFuturesWrong =  
  
    val t0 = System.currentTimeMillis  
  
    // WARNING: THIS IS THE INTENTIONALLY WRONG WAY  
    println(s"\nentering `for`: ${delta(t0)}")  
    val result = for  
        r1 <- slowlyDouble(x=1, t0, delay=1500, n=1)  
        r2 <- slowlyDouble(x=2, t0, delay=250, n=2)  
        r3 <- slowlyDouble(x=3, t0, delay=500, n=3)  
    yield (r1 + r2 + r3)  
  
    println("\nBEFORE onComplete")  
    result.onComplete {  
        case Success(x) => {  
            ...  
        }  
        case Failure(exception) => {  
            ...  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
        println(s"\nresult = $x (delta = ${delta}\n")
        println("note that you don't get the same result every time\n")
    }
    case Failure(e) => e.printStackTrace()
}
println("AFTER onComplete\n")

// important for a little parallel demo: keep the thread alive
sleep(3_000)
```

When you run that code you'll see output similar to this:

```
entering `for`: 0
entered f1: 1

BEFORE onComplete
AFTER onComplete

leaving f1: 1503
entered f2: 1503
leaving f2: 1758
entered f3: 1758
leaving f3: 2260

result = 12 (delta = 2261)
```

That output shows:

- The `f1` future is quickly entered (at delta = 1).
- The `f1` future is exited about 1,500 ms later.
- `f2` is entered at that time—after `f1` finishes—and does not exit for more than 250 ms
- After `f2` finishes, `f3` is entered, and the code pauses for another 500+ ms.

This shows that `f1`, `f2`, and `f3` are not run in parallel but are instead run serially, one after the other. To be clear, this is wrong and not what you want.

A warning: Future is not referentially transparent

If you're interested in functional programming, it's important to know that the Scala `Future` is not referentially transparent, and therefore it's not suitable for FP. Because `Future` is eager and begins running immediately, you can't refactor your code by replacing an expression with its result (or vice versa).

If you're interested in functional ways of writing future-like code, see the [ZIO library](#), the Cats Effect IO monad—discussed in the Typelevel Scala blog post [“Concurrency in Cats Effect 3”](#)—and the [Monix task](#) for their approaches to writing functional, lazy, asynchronous code.

18.5 Creating OOP-Style Actors

Problem

From the introduction to this chapter, you know that you can create Akka Typed actors in an OOP or FP style and you want to see and understand the OOP style.

Solution

The OOP solution is a combination of a class and companion object:

- In the object you define (a) the messages your actor can handle and (b) an `apply` factory method.
- The class extends the Akka `AbstractBehavior` class and implements the `onMessage` method.
- The class is defined to be `private` so that no one else can access its constructor, and callers must use the object's `apply` method.

Here's an example of an `object` named `Tom`, based on the Tom character in the movie *50 First Dates*. It defines a `Message` trait, and a `Hello` case object that extends that trait.

Based on these definitions and the match expression shown in the class, `Hello` is the only message this actor can handle.

A NOTE ABOUT SEALED TRAITS

The sealed trait isn't necessary for this simple example; you could just use a single case object for the message. But because this is the pattern you'll follow in the real world, I show it like this in this example.

The object also defines an `apply` method that others will use to construct this actor. As I mentioned in [Recipe 5.4, “Defining Auxiliary Constructors for Classes”](#), an `apply` method in an object works like a *factory method*, letting you construct instances of a class.

Note that the `apply` method uses the Akka `Behaviors.setup` method to create a new instance of the `Tom` class:

```
object Tom {  
  
    // "messages" that Tom can handle  
    sealed trait Message  
    case object Hello extends Message  
  
    // the factory/constructor method  
    def apply(): Behavior[Message] =  
        Behaviors.setup(context => new Tom(context))  
}
```

```
}
```

Per its Scaladoc, `Behaviors.setup` “is a factory for a behavior. Creation of the behavior instance is deferred until the actor is started....The factory function passes the `ActorContext` as parameter and that can be used for spawning child actors. `setup` is typically used as the outermost behavior when spawning an actor.”

After creating that object, I define the `Tom` class like this:

```
import Tom.{Message, Hello}

private class Tom(context: ActorContext[Message])
  extends AbstractBehavior[Message](context) {
    override def onMessage(message: Message): Behavior =
      message match {
        case Hello =>
          println("Hi, I'm Tom.")
          this // return the current behavior
          // Behaviors.same

      }
}
```

A few points about this class:

- I first import the messages from the `Tom` object to make the remainder of the class easier to read.
- I make the class constructor private, so only the companion object can access it.
- The constructor receives an `ActorContext` instance, typed with the `Message` that's defined in the companion object.
- The class extends the Akka `AbstractBehavior` class, and implements its abstract `onMessage` method.
- `onMessage` receives an instance of a `Message`.
- `onMessage` has a return type of `Behavior[Message]`, so I return `Behavior.same`. Although this feels like overkill in this small example, the `Behavior` Scaladoc states that this “advises the system to reuse the previous behavior.” This makes more sense when you work with complicated actors that have multiple behaviors, and you can use this return value to change behaviors as needed. See [Recipe 18.8](#) for details on changing states.

In this example I also handle the `Message` in a match expression. This isn't needed for this small example, but it's a common way to handle messages, so I show it right away.

Now that we have the `Tom` class and companion object, this example `App` shows how it works:

```
import akka.actor.typed.Behavior
import akka.actor.typed.ActorSystem

import akka.actor.typed.scaladsl.ActorContext
import akka.actor.typed.scaladsl.Behaviors
import akka.actor.typed.scaladsl.AbstractBehavior

object HiImTomOop extends App {
    val actorSystem: ActorSystem[Tom.Message] =
        ActorSystem.create(Tom(), "50FirstDatesSystem")

    actorSystem ! Tom.Hello
    actorSystem ! Tom.Hello
    actorSystem ! Tom.Hello

    Thread.sleep(500)
    actorSystem.terminate()
}
```

A few notes about this code:

- `HiImTomOop` is a normal Scala 2 application that's created with an `App` object.

- An `ActorSystem` is created with the type `Tom.Message`. I could have imported `Tom.Message` and `Tom.Hello` as I did earlier, but I thought I'd show what this code looks like without those imports.
- The code `Tom()` calls the `apply` method in the `Tom` companion object, constructing an instance of the `Tom` class.
- `"50FirstDatesSystem"` is a name I gave to the `ActorSystem` instance. The name can be anything, but if you've seen the movie *50 First Dates*, you'll understand why I chose the name Tom for this actor.

At the end of the `App` I call this line of code three times:

```
actorSystem ! Tom.Hello
```

That results in this output at the sbt prompt:

```
Hi, I'm Tom.  
Hi, I'm Tom.  
Hi, I'm Tom.
```

CREATING THE ACTOR AND ACTORSYSTEM AT THE SAME TIME

In this code I create the `Tom` actor and the actor system at the same time:

```
val actorSystem: ActorSystem[Tom.Message] =  
    ActorSystem.create(Tom(), "50FirstDatesSystem")
```

This is a little unusual, but what happens here is that because `ActorSystem` extends `ActorRef`, the `actorSystem` variable is both an `ActorSystem` and an `ActorRef`. That is, `actorSystem` is essentially an instance of `Tom`, and it would have been just as valid to name the variable `tom` instead of `actorSystem`.

I took this approach in this recipe to try to write as little code as possible here, and I show the more common technique in later recipes when I create the `ActorSystem` as a `Supervisor` or `Guardian`.

Discussion

As a brief reminder of what I mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, at the time of this writing Akka has not been ported to Scala 3, so the examples in this chapter use the latest version of Scala 2.

Behaviors

If you're familiar with Akka Classic, the first thing you'll probably notice about this example is the lack of an `Actor` class. In Akka Typed the concept of an *actor* is replaced by the

concept of *behaviors*. I found this confusing at first, until I saw this quote in the book, *Learn Scala Programming*, by Slava Schmidt (Packt):

“Any well-defined behavior is a computational entity, and thus can be an actor.”

So, a main concept to know is that in Akka Typed you'll focus on behaviors rather than actors.

A repetitive pattern

A second thing to know about Akka Typed OOP-style behaviors is that creating them follows a consistent pattern. OOP-style behaviors have this template:

```
object OopActor {  
    // "messages" that OopActor can handle  
    sealed trait Message  
    final case object Message1 extends Message  
    final case class Message2(param: SomeType) ex  
  
    // the factory/constructor method  
    def apply(): Behavior[Message] =  
        Behaviors.setup(context => new OopActor()  
    }  
}
```

```
private class OopActor(context: ActorContext[OopActor])
  extends AbstractBehavior[OopActor.Message](context)
  override def onMessage(msg: OopActor.Message) = {
    msg match
      case Message1 =>
        // handle this message here
        Behaviors.same
      case Message2(param) =>
        // handle this message here
        Behaviors.same
  }
```

Behaviors.same

Because `onMessage` is an overridden method that has a `Behavior` return type, for a simple example like this, each case of the match expression will return `Behaviors.same`. This indicates that the next behavior will be the same as the current one. Because an actor can potentially have many behaviors, you'll see alternatives to this in [Recipe 18.8](#). Also, in the OOP style you can also return `this` rather than `Behaviors.same`, so you may see both styles.

18.6 Creating FP-Style Actors

Problem

From the introduction to this chapter, you know that you can create Akka Typed actors in an OOP or FP style, and you want to learn and understand the FP style.

Solution

The FP-style solution is shorter than the OOP solution shown in the previous recipe, only requiring the creation of an object with an `apply` method that's implemented with `Behavior.setup`, and the same messages I used with the OOP style:

```
object Tom {  
    // the "messages" this actor can respond to  
    sealed trait Message  
  
    final case object Hello extends Message  
  
    // the factory method  
    def apply(): Behavior[Message] = Behaviors.setup {  
        context: ActorContext[Message] =>  
            Behaviors.receiveMessage { message: Message =>  
                message match {  
                    case Hello =>  
                        println("Hi, I'm Tom.")  
                }  
            }  
    }  
}
```

```
    Behaviors.same  
  }  
}  
}  
}
```

A few notes about the code:

- As with the previous recipe, this object defines the messages that `Tom` can handle, in this case the `Hello` message.
- The body of the `apply` method is implemented with the help of the Akka `Behavior.setup` method.
- That method passes an `ActorContext` —typed with `Message` —to the `Behaviors.receiveMessage` helper method.
- Inside the `receiveMessage` block of code, the `Message` that is received is handled in a match expression.
- As with the OOP style in the previous recipe, the match expression is overkill for this example, but since it's what you typically use in the real world, I show it here.
- As I explain in [“Creating the Actor and ActorSystem at the Same Time”](#), an `ActorSystem` is an `ActorRef`, so `actorSystem` is essentially an actor, and it would be equally valid to name it `tom`.

A NOTE ABOUT SEALED TRAITS

The sealed trait isn't necessary for this simple example; you could just use a single case object for the message. But because this is the pattern you'll follow in the real world, I show it like this in this example.

I'll discuss `Behaviors.setup` and `Behaviors.receiveMessage` in the Discussion, but for now, this `App` lets me test the `Tom` FP-style actor:

```
import akka.actor.typed.{ActorRef, ActorSystem, ...
import akka.actor.typed.scaladsl.{ActorContext, ...

object HiImTomFp extends App {
    import Tom.{Message, Hello}
    val actorSystem: ActorSystem[Message] = ActorSystem(
        Tom(),
        "50FirstDatesSystem"
    )
    actorSystem ! Hello
    actorSystem ! Hello
    actorSystem ! Hello

    Thread.sleep(500)

    actorSystem.terminate()
}
```

In this code:

- I import the `Message` and `Hello` messages from the `Tom` object to make the rest of the code easier to read.
- I create an `ActorSystem` with the type `Message` (i.e., `Tom.Message`).
- The `Tom()` reference calls the `apply` method in the `Tom` object to create a new instance of `Tom`.
- The string `"50FirstDatesSystem"` can be any legal string, but since this example is modeled after the actor Tom in the movie *50 First Dates*, I use this name.
- I send three `Hello` messages to the `Tom` actor with the `!` syntax.

Those last three lines of code result in this output at the sbt prompt:

```
Hi, I'm Tom.  
Hi, I'm Tom.  
Hi, I'm Tom.
```

Discussion

As I discussed in the previous recipe, a big concept here is that Akka Typed does not use the word “actor,” but instead uses the

words `Behavior` and `Behaviors`. So, again, an important concept to know is that in Akka Typed you'll focus on behaviors rather than actors.

The `Behaviors` Scaladoc states that `setup` is a factory for a behavior, i.e., for the definition of a behavior. It's used in both the FP and OOP styles.

`Behaviors.receiveMessage` is one of several ways you can define the body of an actor/behavior. `receiveMessage` is used in places where you already have an `ActorContext` —which you receive through `Behaviors.setup` —and only want to implement the body of the actor by accessing the message it receives.

Common methods you'll use in this place are shown in [Table 18-1](#).

Table 18-1. Behaviors methods you'll use to create Akka Typed actors

Method	Description
<code>Behaviors.receiveMessage</code>	Shown in this recipe, you receive a message and handle it, typically <code>with a match</code>

Method	Description
Behaviors.receiveMessagePartial	The same as <code>receiveMessage</code> but implement the body of the method with a <code>PartialFunction</code> typically implementing only a subset of the messages an actor can handle.
Behaviors.receive	Receive both an <code>ActorContext</code> and the message.

Method	Description
Behaviors.receivePartial	The same as <code>receive</code> , but implement the body of the method with a <code>PartialFunction</code> typically implementing only a subset of the messages an actor can handle.

See the [Behaviors object Scaladoc](#) for detailed descriptions of the different methods that are available.

A nice thing about Akka Typed is that its developers let you create actors (behaviors) in either an OOP style or FP style, and

you can use both styles in the same application. Use whichever style you're comfortable with.

18.7 Sending Messages to Actors

Problem

You want to see how to send messages to Akka Typed actors.

Solution

The solution to send a message to an Akka Typed actor is the same as the solution for an Akka Classic actor. First, you need a reference to its `ActorRef`. Once you have that, send asynchronous messages to it using the `!` method:

```
anActorRef ! "Hello"
```

You can also send synchronous messages to it using the `ask` method, but that should be used very rarely, because `ask` blocks until it gets a reply, and blocking is bad in asynchronous code.

Import statements

These import statements are required by the code that follows:

```
import akka.actor.typed.{ActorRef, ActorSystem, ...}
import akka.actor.typed.scaladsl.{AbstractBehavior, ...}
```

Modeling the messages

The following example shows how to send messages to Akka Typed actors, and how to receive them in the actor. It uses an example of a smart thermostat and also uses the FP-style actors that are shown in [Recipe 18.6](#).

The first two thoughts I normally have when designing Akka actors are:

- What does the actor do?
- What messages should the actor receive?

In the case of a smart thermostat, three of the things it does is to allow querying the current temperature, increasing the temperature, and decreasing the temperature. This corresponds to the messages it should be able to receive and handle:

- What is the current temperature setting?
`(CurrentTemperature)`

- Increase the temperature X degrees.
`(IncreaseTemperature)`
- Decrease the temperature X degrees.
`(DecreaseTemperature)`

Assuming that the smart thermostat receives these messages from an actor with the type `ActorRef[SystemMessage]` — more on this in a moment—with Akka Typed you model those messages like this:

```
object ThermostatActor {
    import ThermostatSupervisor.{SystemMessage, _}

    // our API, i.e., the messages we can respond to
    sealed trait MessageToThermostat {
        def sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage]
    }

    final case class CurrentTemperature(sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage])
        extends MessageToThermostat

    final case class IncreaseTemperature(
        sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage],
        amount: Int
    ) extends MessageToThermostat

    final case class DecreaseTemperature(
        sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage],
        amount: Int
    ) extends MessageToThermostat
}
```

```
    sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage],  
    amount: Int  
  ) extends MessageToThermostat  
  
  // more code here ...
```

If you're coming to Akka Typed from Akka Classic, the most unusual thing about this code is that the messages the `ThermostatActor` can receive also include information about a `sender`:

```
sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage]
```

With Akka Typed messages, it's common to include a reference to the `ActorRef` that sent the message to you. In this case I think of myself as being the `ThermostatActor`, and actors that contact me should have the type shown, `ActorRef[SystemMessage]`.

Programmers typically give this field names like `replyTo` or `sender`. The `SystemMessage` type refers to the type of message the sender is capable of receiving when you send a message back to it, as you'll see shortly in the `Supervisor` portion of the code.

The rest of the `ThermostatActor` code is similar to what I showed in [Recipe 18.6](#): an `apply` method implemented with `Behaviors.setup`, `Behaviors.receiveMessage`, and a `match` expression:

```
object ThermostatActor {

    // our API, i.e., the messages we can respond to
    // enumerated here ...

    var currentTemp = 72

    // we respond to `MessageToThermostat` queries
    def apply(): Behavior[MessageToThermostat] =
        context: ActorContext[MessageToThermostat] =>
            Behaviors.receiveMessage { message => message match {
                case CurrentTemperature(sender) =>
                    sendReply(sender)
                    Behaviors.same
                case IncreaseTemperature(sender, amount) =>
                    currentTemp += amount
                    sendReply(sender)
                    Behaviors.same
                case DecreaseTemperature(sender, amount) =>
                    currentTemp -= amount
                    sendReply(sender)
                    Behaviors.same
            } }
}
```

```
    } // Behaviors.setup/apply

    private def sendReply(sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage]): Unit = {
      val msg = s"Thermostat: Temperature is ${thermometer.temperature}"
      println(msg)
      sender ! StringMessage(msg)
    }

  }
}
```

This is standard Scala and Akka Typed code that was explained in [Recipe 18.6](#), so I won't cover it in detail here. The important part is that the `match` expression enables the `ThermostatActor` to respond to all of its messages.

Unless you have an actual thermostat you can connect to, that's all you have to do to implement a `ThermostatActor`. Now we just need to write some code to test it.

Creating a supervisor

Next, we'll create a *supervisor* actor. This supervisor will create the `ThermostatActor`, send messages to it, and receive messages back from it. I've added comments to the source code that explain how it works:

```
// import the "messages" from the ThermostatActor
import ThermostatActor.*

object ThermostatSupervisor {

    // these are the messages we can receive. some come from the
    // App, which you'll see shortly. others are sent by
    // ThermostatActor.

    sealed trait SystemMessage
    case object StartSendingMessages extends SystemMessage
    case object StopSendingMessages extends SystemMessage
    case class StringMessage(msg: String) extends SystemMessage

    // this is the usual `apply` template.
    def apply(): Behavior[SystemMessage] = Behavior {
        actorContext =>

        // when we're created, the first thing we do is
        // create a ThermostatActor. technically, it is a
        val thermostat = actorContext.spawn(
            ThermostatActor(),
            "ThermostatActor"
        )

        // this is where we set up the handling of the
        // messages that will be sent to us.
        Behaviors.receiveMessage {
            // when we receive the message StartSendin

```

```

    // send three messages to the Thermostat
    case StartSendingMessages =>
      thermostat ! CurrentTemperature(a)
      thermostat ! IncreaseTemperature
      thermostat ! DecreaseTemperature
      Behaviors.same
    case StopSendingMessages =>
      Behaviors.stopped
    case StringMessage(msg) =>
      println(s"MSG: $msg")
      Behaviors.same
  }
}

}

```

A test application

With those two pieces in place, all we need now is an `App` to test our system:

```

object ThermostatApp extends App {
  import ThermostatSupervisor._

  SystemMessage, StartSendingMessages, StopSendingMessages
}

val actorSystem: ActorSystem[SystemMessage] =
  ThermostatSupervisor(),
  "ThermostatSupervisor"

```

```

    )
    actorSystem ! StartSendingMessages
    Thread.sleep(1_000)
    actorSystem ! StopSendingMessages

    Thread.sleep(500)
    actorSystem.terminate()
}

```

This App does the following things:

- Imports the messages from the ThermostatSupervisor to make the rest of the code easier to read
- Creates an ActorSystem by creating an instance of ThermostatSupervisor and giving the system a name
- Sends a StartSendingMessages message to the ThermostatSupervisor
- Sleeps for 100 ms, then sends a StopSendingMessages message to the ThermostatSupervisor

Note that when the ThermostatSupervisor receives the StartSendingMessages message, it responds by sending three messages to the ThermostatActor:

```

case StartSendingMessages =>
    thermostat ! CurrentTemperature(actorContext

```

```
thermostat ! IncreaseTemperature(actorContext)
thermostat ! DecreaseTemperature(actorContext)
Behaviors.same
```

The output of the App looks like this:

```
Thermostat: Temperature is 72 degrees
Thermostat: Temperature is 73 degrees
Thermostat: Temperature is 71 degrees
MSG: Thermostat: Temperature is 72 degrees
MSG: Thermostat: Temperature is 73 degrees
MSG: Thermostat: Temperature is 71 degrees
```

Although the order in which messages are delivered in a concurrent system isn't guaranteed, [Figure 18-1](#) gives you an idea of how the initial messages are sent and replied to in this App.

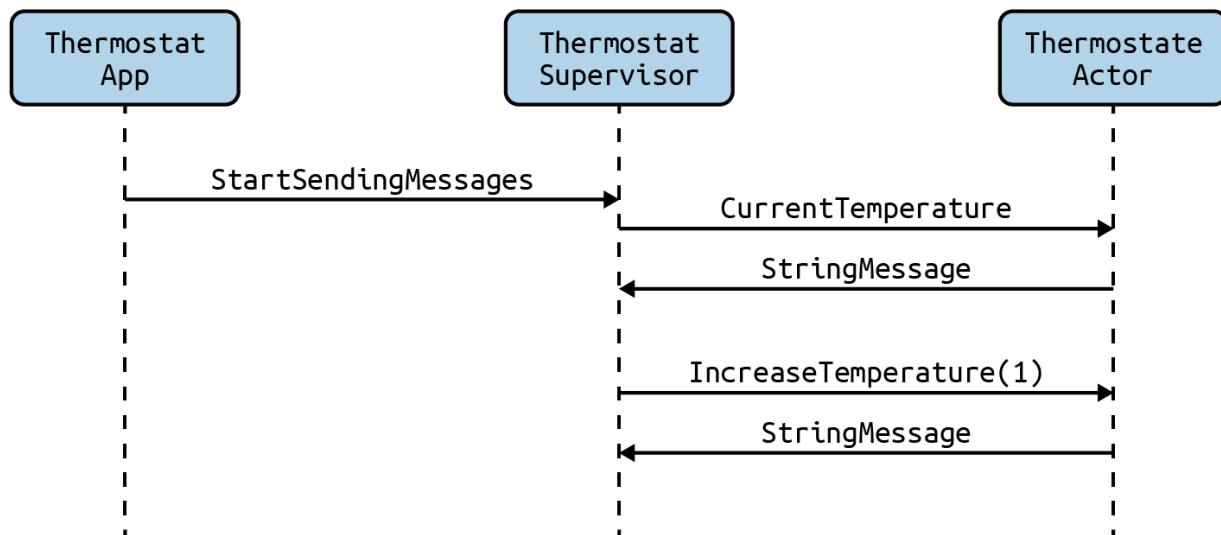


Figure 18-1. A simplified UML Sequence Diagram that shows the initial messages between the actors

Discussion

In this app, notice that the `ThermostatSupervisor` sends its own `ActorRef` to the `ThermostatActor` using `actorContext.self` and the `ThermostatActor` messages:

```
thermostat ! CurrentTemperature(actorContext.self)
```

Those messages are then received in the `match` expression of the `ThermostatActor` as the `sender` variable, as in this case:

```
case CurrentTemperature(sender) =>
  sendReply(sender)
```

Sending ActorRefs

Sending an `ActorRef` as part of a message is a common pattern with Akka Typed. As shown in my blog post [“Akka Typed: Finding Actors with the Receptionist”](#), you can also look up actor references, but it's significantly easier if the actor that contacts you gives you a way to respond back to it. This is like putting the return address on an envelope when you send someone a letter, or your email address when you send someone an email.

Messages as being an actor's API

I find it helpful to think of these messages as being the actor's API. They are your way of declaring the types of messages an actor can receive. In the OOP world, it's the equivalent of declaring a class that has these methods:

```
def currentTemperature(): Int = ???  
def increaseTemperature(amount: Int) = ???  
def decreaseTemperature(amount: Int) = ???
```

Or, more accurately:

```
def currentTemperature(sender: ActorRef[SystemMes  
def increaseTemperature(sender: ActorRef[SystemMes
```

```
def decreaseTemperature(sender: ActorRef[SystemMessage])
```

See Also

There are times when you won't be able to pass an `ActorRef` to another actor. In that situation you'll need to look up the other actor via the Akka `Receptionist`. I wrote a long blog post about this, [“Akka Typed: Finding Actors with the Receptionist”](#).

18.8 Creating Actors That Have Multiple States (FSM)

Problem

You want to create an actor that can have different behaviors (or states) over time, i.e., you want to implement a [finite-state machine \(FSM\)](#) with Akka Typed.

Solution

With Akka Classic we use a *become* approach to implement an actor that can have multiple states, but with Akka Typed the

approach is different. The solution is to:

- Define a function for each state the actor can be in.
- Define a unique set of messages that should be handled by each state.

For example, imagine modeling Clark Kent and Superman. They are the same actor, but they can be in two different states at different times, and each state handles different messages. With Akka Typed, you model the messages like this:

```
sealed trait BaseBehaviors

// clark kent actions
sealed trait ClarkKentBehaviors extends BaseBehaviors
final case object WorkAtNewspaper extends ClarkKentBehaviors
final case object PutOnGlasses extends ClarkKentBehaviors
final case object BecomeSuperman extends ClarkKentBehaviors

// superman actions
sealed trait SupermanBehaviors extends BaseBehaviors
final case object Fly extends SupermanBehaviors
final case object SavePeople extends SupermanBehaviors
final case object BecomeClarkKent extends SupermanBehaviors
```

Notice that the behaviors are distinct: Clark Kent works at the newspaper, puts on his glasses so nobody will recognize him, and can become Superman. But he doesn't `Fly`, `SavePeople`, or `BecomeClarkKent`. Each state has its own behaviors.

Given those messages, and these `import` statements:

```
import akka.actor.typed.{ActorRef, ActorSystem, ...}
import akka.actor.typed.scaladsl.{AbstractBehavior, ...}
```

The rest of the solution is to define an actor that has two functions, one for each state:

- `clarkKentState`
- `supermanState`

Here's the source code:

```
object ClarkKent {

    // initial state
    def apply(): Behavior[BaseBehaviors] = clarkKentState()

    private def clarkKentState(): Behavior[BaseBehaviors] = Behaviors.receiveMessagePartial[BaseBehaviors] {
        message match {
            ... ...
        }
    }

    private def supermanState(): Behavior[BaseBehaviors] = Behaviors.receiveMessagePartial[BaseBehaviors] {
        message match {
            ... ...
        }
    }
}
```

```
        case WorkAtNewspaper =>
            println("normalState: WorkAtNewspaper")
            Behaviors.same
        case PutOnGlasses =>
            println("normalState: PutOnGlasses")
            Behaviors.same
        case BecomeSuperman =>
            println("normalState: BecomeSuperman")
            supermanState()
    }
}

/** 
 * `Behaviors.receiveMessagePartial`: Constructor for a partial message handler which treats undefined messages as Behaviors.same
 */
private def supermanState(): Behavior[BaseBehavior.type] = Behaviors.receiveMessagePartial[BaseBehavior.type] {
    message match {
        case Fly =>
            println("angryState: Fly")
            // supermanState()
            Behaviors.same
        case SavePeople =>
            println("angryState: SavePeople")
            // supermanState()
            Behaviors.same
        case BecomeClarkKent =>
            println("normalState: BecomeClarkKent")
            Behaviors.same
    }
}
```

```
        clarkKentState()  
    }  
}  
  
}
```

The pattern of that code should be familiar from the previous recipes. The first change is that rather than put all the behavior inside the `apply` method, `apply` simply declares the initial behavior:

```
def apply(): Behavior[BaseBehaviors] = clarkKentS
```

Then, when the `clarkKentState` receives a `BecomeSuperman` message, it switches the state to `supermanState`:

```
case BecomeSuperman =>  
    println("normalState: BecomeSuperman")  
    supermanState()
```

Some time later `supermanState` may receive a `BecomeClarkKent` message, and it responds by switching to

```
the clarkKentState:
```

```
case BecomeClarkKent =>
    println("normalState: BecomeClarkKent")
    clarkKentState()
```

The second change is that I use the `receiveMessagePartial` method rather than `receiveMessage` to implement each function. I go over this in the Discussion.

A test App

At this point all we need is a test `App` to demonstrate the system. If you've read the previous recipes, this pattern will look familiar:

```
object ClarkKentApp extends App {
    val actorSystem: ActorSystem[BaseBehaviors] =
        ClarkKent(),
        "SupermanSystem"
    )
    actorSystem ! WorkAtNewspaper
    // these will fail because the system is in t
    actorSystem ! Fly
```

```
    actorSystem ! SavePeople
    actorSystem ! BecomeClarkKent

    // this will work
    actorSystem ! WorkAtNewspaper

    // now these will work
    actorSystem ! BecomeSuperman
    actorSystem ! Fly
    actorSystem ! SavePeople
    actorSystem ! BecomeClarkKent

    Thread.sleep(500)
    actorSystem.terminate()

}
```

I added some comments to the code to explain what happens when you send messages to an actor that has multiple states. I wrote this code this way to demonstrate that when you send `SupermanBehaviors` messages to the actor when the `clarkKentState` is responding to messages, you'll generate errors, and when you send `ClarkKentBehaviors` to the actor when `supermanState` is handling the messages, you'll also generate errors.

As a result, the output of this App looks like this:

```
normalState: WorkAtNewspaper
normalState: WorkAtNewspaper
normalState: BecomeSuperman
angryState: Fly
angryState: SavePeople
normalState: BecomeClarkKent

[date time] [INFO] [akka.actor.LocalActorRef]
[SupermanSystem-akka.actor.default-dispatcher-3]
- Message [clark_kent.Fly$] to Actor[akka://SupermanSystem-akka.actor.default-dispatcher-3#12345]
unhandled. [1] dead letters encountered. This log level was adjusted with configuration settings 'akka.log-dead-letter-on-unhandled' and 'akka.log-dead-letters-during-shutdown'.

more "dead letter" logging here ...
```

Discussion

As I mentioned in [Recipe 18.6](#), with

`Behaviors.receiveMessagePartial` you implement the body of the method with a `PartialFunction`, implementing only a subset of the messages an actor can handle. Messages that you don't handle in your match expression are considered

unhandled messages, and if they are sent to your actor, they'll end up in the dead letter system.

In this code I take an approach of defining `BaseBehaviors` as the root of all behaviors this actor can handle. Then I handle `ClarkKentBehaviors` in the `clarkKentState` method and handle the `SupermanBehaviors` in the `supermanState` method. Because I use a sealed trait and final case objects, the Scala compiler is able to determine that I handle a subset of all the messages in each method, and it treats those `match` expressions as partial functions.

Dead letters

In a post office system in the physical world, such as in the United States, a dead letter is a letter that cannot be delivered for a variety of reasons, such as a bad address, so that letter is sent to a dead letter office. (I have no idea what happens to the letter there.)

Similarly, as described in [this Akka reference page](#), “Messages which cannot be delivered (and for which this can be ascertained) will be delivered to a synthetic actor called `/deadLetters`. This delivery happens on a best-effort basis; it may fail even within the local JVM....The main use of this facility is for debugging.”

In my example I don't make any attempt to monitor these dead letters, I just let the logging facility print them to the console. If you want to monitor dead letters on the local system, create an actor that subscribes to the `akka.actor.DeadLetter` class. This process is described on this [Akka event bus page](#), and the process of subscribing is similar to the process of finding actors and listening to them, which I demonstrate in my blog post ["Akka Typed: Finding Actors with the Receptionist"](#).

Note that per the documentation, “dead letters are not propagated over the network,” so if you have a distributed system and want to collect them all in one place, “you will have to subscribe one actor per network node and forward them manually.”

Chapter 19. Play Framework and Web Services

This chapter demonstrates recipes for working with web services in Scala, including how to handle server-side HTTP requests, how to convert between JSON and Scala objects, and how to write client-side HTTP requests.

In 2021 there are several great libraries for server-side development with Scala, which you can find on the [Awesome Scala list](#). This chapter focuses on [the Play Framework](#) (Play) because it's popular, well supported, and relatively easy to get started with, especially if you've used a framework like Ruby on Rails previously.

One important note is that at the time this book was being produced, Play was not yet updated to work with Scala 3. Therefore, the Play examples you'll see in this chapter use the Scala 2 syntax. That being said, the Play API has been fairly stable going back to 2013 and the release of the first edition of the *Scala Cookbook*, so these examples are expected to translate well to Play when it's available for Scala 3.

The initial recipes in this chapter focus on server-side development with Play. These recipes include:

- [Recipe 19.1](#), creating a first Play project
- [Recipe 19.2](#), creating a new endpoint, i.e., a URL for a server-side REST service
- [Recipe 19.3](#), returning JSON from a Play GET request
- [Recipe 19.4](#), converting a Scala object to JSON
- [Recipe 19.5](#), converting JSON to a Scala object

Then the last recipes demonstrate techniques that can work with server- or client-side development:

- [Recipe 19.6](#), using the Play JSON library without the Play Framework
- [Recipe 19.7](#), using the `sttp` HTTP client

19.1 Creating a Play Framework Project

Problem

Most recipes in this chapter use the Play Framework (Play), and if you haven't used Play before, you need to know how to create a new Play project.

Solution

The easiest way to create a new Play project is with the sbt seed template:

```
$ sbt new playframework/play-scala-seed.g8
```

When that command runs, you just need to give it a project name and organization name, then `cd` into the new directory, as shown in this interaction:

```
$ sbt new playframework/play-scala-seed.g8
[info] Set current project to play ...
This template generates a Play Scala project

name [play-scala-seed]: hello-world
organization [com.example]: com.alvinalexander

Template applied in hello-world

$ cd hello-world
```

Then inside that project directory, run the `sbt run` command:

```
$ sbt run
```

```
// a LOT of output here ...

[info] loading settings for project hello-world-k
[info] loading settings for project root from bu
[info] set current project to hello-world ...

--- (Running the application, auto-reloading is e
[info] p.c.s.AkkaHttpServer - Listening for HTTP
(Server started, use Enter to stop and go back to
```

The first time you run that command there will be a *lot* of output, hopefully ending with those last three lines, which indicate that the Play server is running on port 9000.

Now when you open the `http://localhost:9000` URL in a browser, you'll see a “Welcome to Play” web page that looks like the one in [Figure 19-1](#).



Figure 19-1. The “Welcome to Play!” greeting

If you need to run Play on a port other than 9000, use this command at your operating system command line:

```
$ sbt "run 8080"
```

Or use this command from inside the sbt shell:

```
sbt> run 8080
```

Discussion

A Play application consists of the following components:

- The sbt *build.sbt* file that contains application dependencies and other configuration information.
- Controllers that are placed in the *app/controllers* folder.
- Models in the *app/models* folder. This folder is usually not automatically created.
- Templates that contain HTML, JavaScript, CSS, and Scala code snippets are placed in the *app/views* folder.
- A *conf/routes* file that maps URIs and HTTP methods to controller methods.

Other important files include:

- Application configuration information in the *conf/application.conf* file. This includes information on how to access databases.
- Database evolution scripts in the *conf/evolutions* folder.

- Design assets for the template files are placed in the *public/images*, *public/javascripts*, and *public/stylesheets* folders.

Because this chapter is about building web services—and not Web 1.0 applications—the primary focus is on these directories and files:

- The *conf/routes* routing file
- Your custom controllers in *app/controllers*

The *conf/routes* file

To understand the files in the project, first look at the *conf/routes* file. The current Play 2.8 template creates a file with these contents:

```
# Routes
# This file defines all application routes (Higher → Lower)
# https://www.playframework.com/documentation/latest/en/routing.html

# An example controller showing a sample home page
GET / controllers.HomeController.index

# Map static resources from the /public folder to
GET /assets/*file controllers.Assets.versioned
```

To understand how the welcome page is displayed, this is the important line in that file:

```
GET / controllers.HomeController.index
```

This line can be read as, “When the HTTP GET method is called on the / URI, call the `index` method defined in the `HomeController` class that’s in the *controllers* package.” If you’ve used other frameworks like Ruby on Rails, you’ve seen this sort of thing before. It binds a specific HTTP method—such as GET or POST—and a URI to a method in a class.

Two important things to know about routing are:

- The `conf/routes` file is compiled, so you’ll see routing errors directly in your browser.
- As you’re about to see in the controller class code, it uses dependency injection. Per the Play documentation, “Play’s default routes generator creates a router class that accepts controller instances in an `@Inject`-annotated constructor. That means the class is suitable for use with dependency injection and can also be instantiated manually using the constructor.”

The controller

Next, open the `app/controllers/HomeController.scala` file and look at its `index` method:

```
package controllers

import javax.inject._
import play.api._
import play.api.mvc._

/***
 * This controller creates an `Action` to handle
 * application's home page.
 */
@Singleton
class HomeController @Inject()(val controllerComponents: ControllerComponents)
  extends BaseController {

  /***
   * Create an Action to render an HTML page.
   *
   * The configuration in the `routes` file means
   * will be called when the application receives
   * a path of `/`.
   */
  def index() = Action { implicit request: Request[JsValue] =>
    Ok(views.html.index())
  }
}
```

This is a normal Scala source code file, with one method named `index`. This method implements a Play `Action` by calling a method named `Ok`, and passing in the content shown. The code `views.html.index` is the Play way of referring to the `app/views/index.scala.html` template file. A terrific thing about the Play architecture is that Play templates are compiled to Scala functions, so what you're seeing in this code is a normal function call:

```
Ok(views.html.index())
```

This code essentially calls a function named `index` in the `views.html` package.

The view templates

Knowing that a template compiles to a normal Scala function, open the `app/views/index.scala.html` template file, where you see the following contents:

```
@()  
  
@main("Welcome to Play") {
```

```
<h1>Welcome to Play!</h1>
}
```

Notice the first line of code:

```
@()
```

If you think of the template as a function, this is the parameter list of the function. In this example the parameter list is empty, but if this template took one string parameter that you named `message`, that line would look like this:

```
@(message: String)
```

The `@` symbol in this file is a special character in a Play template file. It indicates that what follows after it is a Scala expression. For instance, in the line of code shown, the `@` character precedes the function parameter list. In the third line of code, the `@` character precedes a call to a function named `main`. Notice in that line of code, the string “Welcome to Play” is passed to the `main` method.

As you might have guessed, though `main` looks like a function, it’s also a template file. When the code calls `main`, it actually

invokes the `app/views/main.scala.html` template. Here's the default source code for `main.scala.html`:

```
@(title: String)(content: Html)

<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
  <head>
    /* Here's where we render the page title
    <title>@title</title>
    <link rel="stylesheet" media="screen"
          href="@routes.Assets.versioned("sty
    <link rel="shortcut icon" type="image/png"
          href="@routes.Assets.versioned("ima

  </head>
  <body>
    /* And here's where we render the `Html` *
       * the page content. *@
    @content

    <script src="@routes.Assets.versioned("java
          type="text/javascript")"></script>
  </body>
</html>
```

This file is the default wrapper template file for the project. If every other template file calls `main` the same way the `index.scala.html` file calls it, you can be assured that those templates will be wrapped with this same HTML, CSS, and JavaScript. As a result, all of your pages will have the same look and feel.

For the purposes of the lessons in this chapter you won't need to know these details, but I wanted to show you these two initial files to give you a flavor of what web applications look like in Play.

SINGLE-PAGE APPLICATIONS

When I say “web applications,” I mean applications written in HTML—or in this case, a templating system that supports a mix of HTML and Scala snippets—with JavaScript and CSS added into the HTML. For [single-page applications \(SPAs\)](#) written in JavaScript, where you want to use Play on the server side, you don’t need to know much more about Scala’s templating system.

The sbt/Play console

While you’re developing an application, start sbt in the root directory of your project:

```
$ sbt
```

From there you can run all the usual sbt commands, and you can also start your application. As shown in the Solution, this command starts the application on the default 9000 port:

```
[play01] $ run

(lots of output here ...)
--- (Running the application, auto-reloading is e
[info] p.c.s.AkkaHttpServer - Listening for HTTP
(Server started, use Enter to stop and go back to
```

The last line of the sbt output shows that you press Enter to stop the server and return to the sbt prompt.

As you'll see in some of the following recipes, you can also issue a `console` command inside sbt:

```
sbt> console
[info] Starting scala interpreter...
Welcome to Scala 2.13
Type in expressions for evaluation. Or try :help

scala> _
```

This starts a Scala REPL with all of your project dependencies loaded. From here you test Play JSON code and other Play code, including using your custom classes, models, etc.

See Also

- For more “getting started” information see [the Play Framework website](#).
- Although it was written for an earlier version of Play, my [Play Framework Recipes booklet](#) is free to download.
- See [Chapter 17](#) for many examples of how to use sbt.
- See [Recipe 21.3, “Building Single-Page Applications with Scala.js”](#) for details about how to create single-page applications with Scala.js.

19.2 Creating a New Play Framework Endpoint

Problem

When using Play as a RESTful server for a [single-page application](#), you want to create a new endpoint (a term that’s also referred to as a URL, URI, or route when talking about REST services).

Solution

Creating a new endpoint in a Play application involves creating a new route, a controller method, and typically a new model or adding to an existing model. The specific steps are:

1. Create a new route in the *conf/routes* file.
2. The new route points to a controller method, so create that controller method; also create the controller class if it doesn't already exist.
3. The controller method typically requires a model class, so create that class as needed.
4. Test your new service.

To demonstrate this process, you'll add on to the skeleton project created in the previous recipe. In this solution you'll create new code that responds to a GET request at a */hello* URI. When that request is received, your controller method returns a string as a *text/plain* response.

1. Create a new route

To begin, you know you want to handle a new URI at */hello*, so add a new route to the *conf/routes* file. You also know this will be an HTTP GET request, so map the URI by adding these lines to the end of the file:

```
# our app
GET /hello    controllers.HelloController.sayHello
```

This can be read as, “When a GET request is made at the */hello* URI, invoke the `sayHello` method of the `HelloController` class in the `controllers` package.”

2. Create a new controller method

Next, create the `HelloController` class in a `HelloController.scala` file in the `app/controllers` directory. Add the following code to that class:

```
package controllers

import javax.inject._
import play.api._
import play.api.mvc._
import models._

@Singleton
class HelloController @Inject()(val controllerComponents: ControllerComponents) extends BaseController {

    def sayHello() = Action {
        Ok("Hello, world")
    }
}
```

```
    }  
  
}
```

When the `sayHello` method in this class is invoked, it returns an instance of an `Action`, with the `Ok` method implemented as shown. This code is explained in the Discussion.

3. Create a model

In most situations in the real world you'll create a model class and database-related code, but for a small example like this, that isn't needed.

4. Test your service

With the parts in place—and because this is a simple GET request that doesn't pass cookies or header information to the server—you can test this in your browser. Go to the `http://localhost:9000/hello` URI in your browser, where you should see the words `Hello, world` printed.

You can also test this with a command-line tool like `curl`:

```
$ curl --request GET http://localhost:9000/hello  
Hello, world
```

If you want to see the headers that Play returns, use the `curl --head` command:

```
$ curl --head http://localhost:9000/hello
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Date: (the date and time are shown here)
Content-Type: text/plain; charset=UTF-8
Content-Length: 12
(other headers have been omitted)
```

Notice that when a `String` is passed into `Ok`, the content type is automatically set to `text/plain`.

Discussion

When you examine the `sayHello` method, you'll see that it returns a Play `Action`:

```
def sayHello() = Action {
    Ok("Hello, world")
}
```

An `Action` is a function that handles a request and creates a result that is sent to the client. More specifically, `Action` is a

function that takes a `Request` and returns a `Result`. Its signature is defined like this:

```
play.api.mvc.Request => play.api.mvc.Result
```

In this example I don't deal with the `Request`, and the `Result` is the value that's returned to the client. It represents the HTTP response that you create.

Explaining the `Ok` method

The `Ok` method used as the last line of the `sayHello` method constructs a “200 OK” response. Using `Ok` inside `Action` is equivalent to writing this much longer code:

```
def sayHello = Action {  
    Result(  
        header = ResponseHeader(200, Map.empty),  
        body = HttpEntity.Strict(  
            ByteString("Hello, world"),  
            Some("text/plain"))  
    )  
}
```

In addition to `Ok`, other common response methods include `Forbidden`, `NotFound`, `BadRequest`, `MethodNotAllowed`, and `Redirect`. You can also set the status code manually like this:

```
Status(5150) ("Van Halen status")
```

When you access the endpoint, that method results in output that looks like this:

```
$ curl http://localhost:9000/hello
Van Halen status

$ curl --head http://localhost:9000/hello
HTTP/1.1 5150
(other output not shown)
```

All the available helper methods can be found in the `play.api.mvc.Results` Scaladoc.

This code responds to a simple GET request

It's important to note that the code that's shown responds to a simple GET request—it expects no parameters from the client.

For instance, if you call the URL with query parameters, they're happily ignored by Play:

```
$ curl --request GET "http://localhost:9000/hello?name=world"
Hello, world
```

You configure what parameters your service can handle in the *conf/routes* file, and since I didn't declare that the */hello* URI takes any parameters, ones that are passed to it are ignored.

Additionally, Play will throw an error if you attempt to use another method to call this URI, such as PUT, POST, DELETE, or other non-GET methods:

```
$ curl --request POST http://localhost:9000/hello
(long error message here ...)
```

Handling query parameters

To handle query parameters with a GET request, follow the same steps:

1. Create a new route

Add a new line for the new service at the end of the `conf/routes` file, defining it to take a parameter named `name`:

```
GET /hi/:name controllers.HelloController.sayHi
```

This can be read as, “When a GET request is made at the `/hi` URI with the `name` parameter, pass that `name` to the `sayHi` method of the `HelloController`.”

2. Create a new controller method

Next, update the `HelloController` class. Add this new `sayHi` method after the original `sayHello` method:

```
def sayHi(theName: String) = Action {
    Ok(s"Hi, $theName")
}
```

Notice that this method takes a `String` parameter, and also that it doesn’t need to have the same name that’s used in the `routes` file.

3. Create a model

In this case you don’t need a model, so skip this step.

4. Test your service

Test this new service by going to this URL in your browser or by using `curl`:

```
$ curl --request GET http://localhost:9000/hi/Darja
Hi, Darja
```

There are several more ways to handle routes and query parameters with Play. See the Play [Scala HTTP Routing page](#) for more details.

See Also

- See the [Play Framework page on actions, controllers, and results](#) for more details on creating actions and controllers.
- See Play's [Scala HTTP Routing page](#) for more details on defining routes.

19.3 Returning JSON from a GET Request with Play

Problem

You want to know how to write a Play Framework controller method that returns JSON in response to a GET request.

Solution

The general solution is:

1. Add an entry to the `conf/routes` file to define your new endpoint.
2. Create a controller class and method that matches the description in that file.
3. Create the necessary model, and code to serialize that model to JSON.
4. Test your new service with your browser, or a tool like `curl`.

Depending on your preferred coding approach, the first three steps can happen in any order. Typically you want to work either from the endpoint back to the model as shown, or from the model forward to the endpoint.

In this solution you'll follow the order in the list to create a REST service that returns information about movies in response to a GET request.

1. Add an entry to the routes file

Following the steps shown, this solution creates the endpoint first and then creates everything that's needed to fulfill that service. The first step is to add this code to your *conf/routes* file to create that endpoint:

```
GET /movies controllers.MovieController.getMovies
```

This can be read as “When a GET request is called at the */movies* URI, invoke the `getMovies` method in the `MovieController` class in the `controllers` package.”

2. Create a controller and method

Next, create the `getMovies` method in the `MovieController` class. To keep this as simple as possible initially, the code will convert a list of strings—the names of movies—into JSON and then return that JSON. The list of movies and the JSON conversion process are shown in this controller code:

```
package controllers

import javax.inject._
import play.api.mvc._
import play.api.libs.json._
import models.Movie
```

```
@Singleton
class MovieController @Inject()(val controllerCor
extends BaseController {

    /**
     * Let Play convert the `List[String]` to JSON
     */
    def getMovies = Action {
        // these three steps are shown explicitly
        // can see the types:
        val goodMovies: Seq[String] = Movie.goodMovies
        val json: JsValue = Json.toJson(goodMovies)
        Ok(json)
    }
}
```

A few notes about this code:

- It's a new controller, just like the ones created in the previous recipes.
- The `Json.toJson` method knows how to convert a `Seq[String]` into JSON.
- The `Ok` method constructs a “200 OK response.”

The last two points are detailed in the Discussion.

3. Create a model

Now all you have to do is create a model to match that code:

```
package models

object Movie {
    def goodMovies(): Seq[String] = List(
        "The Princess Bride",
        "The Matrix",
        "Firefly"
    )
}
```

In the real world—and in the following recipes—a model will be more complicated. But to keep this example as simple as possible, `goodMovies` is defined as a method that returns a `List[String]`. (In the real world, `goodMovies` retrieves that data from a database or other data store.)

4. Access the endpoint with your browser or curl

For a GET request like this that doesn't pass any custom header information to the server, you can test your code with a browser. Just access the `http://localhost:9000/movies` URL in your browser, and you should see this JSON output:

```
["The Princess Bride", "The Matrix", "Firefly"]
```

You can also use a command-line tool like `curl`:

```
$ curl --request GET http://localhost:9000/movies  
["The Princess Bride", "The Matrix", "Firefly"]
```

Assuming you see that—congratulations—you created a Play Framework action that responds to a GET request and returns JSON output.

Discussion

Let's look at how the controller code works.

Json.toJson

This step in the code works because the `Json.toJson` method knows how to convert a list of strings—our movies—into JSON:

```
val json: JsValue = Json.toJson(goodMovies)
```

The way this works in Scala 2 is that the `toJson` method is defined like this:

```
Json.toJson[T](T)(implicit writes: Writes[T])
```

As shown in [Recipe 19.4](#), a `Writes` value is a converter that knows how to convert a Scala type into JSON. Play comes with prebuilt `Writes` converters for basic types like `Int`, `Double`, `String`, etc. These converters are brought into scope when you import the types in the `play.api.libs.json._` package.

It also has implicit `Writes` implementations for *collections*, so if a type `A` has a `Writes[A]` converter, the `Json.toJson` method can convert a collection that contains that type `A`. In this example Play supplies a `Writes[String]` converter for us, so it can also convert a `Seq[String]`.

The Ok method

The `Ok` method used as the last line of the `getMovies` method constructs a “200 OK” response. It’s equivalent to writing this longer code:

```
def index = Action {
    Result(
        header = ResponseHeader(200, Map.empty),
        body = HttpEntity.Strict(
            //JSON here ...
    )
}
```

```
        Some("application/json")
    )
}
}
```

As shown, when `Ok` returns a `JsValue` object, it sets the content type to `"application/json"`. You can confirm this in the output of this `curl` command:

```
$ curl -I http://localhost:9000/movies
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: application/json
Content-Length: 45
(other output not shown)
```

The Play JSON types

Like other JSON frameworks, Play has implementations of types that correspond to the JSON types:

- `JsString`
- `JsNumber`
- `JsObject`
- `JsNull`
- `JsBoolean`
- `JsArray`

- `JsUndefined`

Each of those types is a subtype of `JsValue`. Note that `JsArray` is a sequence, and can contain a heterogeneous or homogeneous collection of the other `JsValue` types.

These types are in the `play.api.libs.json` package, and you can use them in your code by importing
`play.api.libs.json._`.

How to use Play/JSON in the Scala REPL

You can see how those types work in the Play/sbt REPL. To see this, first start `sbt` in the root directory of your Play project:

```
$ sbt
```

Then inside the sbt shell, issue its `console` command:

```
sbt> console
```

This starts a Scala REPL. In addition to being a normal REPL, you also have access to all of your project's classes on the classpath. So you can import the JSON types:

```
scala> import play.api.libs.json._
```

Then you can run any experiment you like. These examples show some expressions you can execute, and their resulting types:

```
JsString("hi")                      // JsString = "hi"
JsNumber(100)                        // JsNumber = 100
JsNumber(1.23)                       // JsNumber = 1.23
JsNumber(BigDecimal(1.23))           // JsNumber = 1.23
JsBoolean(true)                      // JsBoolean = true

val x = Json.toJson(4)                // JsValue = 4
val x = Json.toJson(false)           // JsValue = false

// Sequences
Json.toJson(Seq("A", "B", "C"))      // JsValue = ['A', 'B', 'C']
JsArray(Array(Json.toJson(1)))        // JsArray = [1]
JsArray(Seq(Json.toJson("Hi")))       // JsArray = ['Hi']
JsArray(Array(1))                   // does not compile

// Map
val map = Map("1" -> "a", "2" -> "b")
Json.toJson(map)                     // JsValue = {"1": "a", "2": "b"}

// Some
val number = Json.toJson(Some(100))   // JsValue = Some(100)
```

```
val number = Json.toJson(Some("Hi")) // JsValue  
  
// None  
  
val x: Option[Int] = None  
val number = Json.toJson(x) // JsValue
```

See Also

- [The Scaladoc for the `play.api.libs.json` package](#)

19.4 Serializing a Scala Object to a JSON String

Problem

You want to convert a Scala object to a JSON string using the Play Framework.

Solution

The preferred approach is to create an implicit `Writes` converter for your class and then use the `Json.toJson` method to convert (serialize) your class to a JSON string value.

For example, given this `Movie` class:

```
case class Movie(title: String, year: Int, rating: Double)
```

create an implicit `Writes` value for `Movie` like this:

```
import play.api.libs.json._

implicit val movieWrites = new Writes[Movie] {
    def writes(m: Movie) = Json.obj(
        "title" -> m.title,
        "year" -> m.year,
        "rating" -> m.rating
    )
}
```

Now you can create an instance of your class:

```
val pb = Movie("The Princess Bride", 1987, 8.5)
```

and then convert it to JSON using `Json.toJson`:

```
scala> val json = Json.toJson(pb)
val json: play.api.libs.json.JsValue =
```

```
{"title": "The Princess Bride", "year": 1987, "rating": 8.5}
```

A sequence of objects

A great thing about this approach is that it also works for collections of objects. Just create your collection:

```
val goodMovies = List(  
    Movie("The Princess Bride", 1987, 8.5),  
    Movie("The Matrix", 1999, 8.8),  
    Movie("Firefly", 2002, 9.2)  
)
```

then serialize it to JSON:

```
scala> val json = Json.toJson(goodMovies)  
val json: play.api.libs.json.JsValue = [  
    {"title": "The Princess Bride", "year": 1987, "rating": 8.5},  
    {"title": "The Matrix", "year": 1999, "rating": 8.8},  
    {"title": "Firefly", "year": 2002, "rating": 9.2}]
```

As you'll see in the Discussion, the approach also works for nested objects.

Discussion

This approach works because `Json.toJson` is designed to use an implicit `Writes` value that's available in the current scope:

```
Json.toJson[T](T)(implicit writes: Writes[T])
```

`Writes` is a trait in the `play.api.libs.json` package, and when you define an implicit `Writes` instance for your class, like this:

```
implicit val movieWrites = new Writes[Movie] ...
```

and then import it into the current scope, the `Json.toJson` method can then process the conversion. As shown in the Solution, it works for a single instance of a class as well as a collection of that type.

Nested objects

The same `Writes` technique also supports nested objects. For instance, given these two case classes:

```
case class Address(  
  street: String,
```

```
    city: String,  
    state: String,  
    postalCode: String  
)  
  
case class Person(name: String, address: Address)
```

you create implicit `Writes` converters for them:

```
object WritesConverters {  
  import play.api.libs.json._  
  
  implicit val addressWrites = new Writes[Address] {  
    def writes(a: Address) = Json.obj(  
      "street" -> a.street,  
      "city" -> a.city,  
      "state" -> a.state,  
      "postalCode" -> a.postalCode,  
    )  
  }  
  
  implicit val personWrites = new Writes[Person] {  
    def writes(p: Person) = Json.obj(  
      "name" -> p.name,  
      "address" -> p.address  
    )  
  }  
}
```

```
    }  
}
```

Then, after you import them into scope, you can create a `Person` instance that contains an `Address` and convert the `Person` to JSON. This process is shown in this Scala 2 App :

```
object JsonWrites2AddressPerson extends App {  
  
  import WritesConverters._  
  
  val stubbs = Person(  
    "Stubbs",  
    Address(  
      "123 Main Street",  
      "Talkeetna",  
      "Alaska",  
      "99676"  
    )  
  )  
  
  val jsValue = Json.toJson(stubbs)  
  println(jsValue)  
}
```

When that code runs you'll see that `jsValue` has this type and data:

```
jsValue: JsValue = {  
    "name": "Stubbs",  
    "address": {  
        "street": "123 Main Street",  
        "city": "Talkeetna",  
        "state": "Alaska", "postalCode": "99676"  
    }  
}
```

Other approaches you can use

With Play you can use other approaches to serialize Scala objects into JSON, but the `Writes` approach is straightforward, so there doesn't seem to be a huge advantage to using other approaches.

As a quick look at one alternative technique, this code shows another way to convert a `Movie` instance named `m` into a `JsValue`:

```
import play.api.libs.json._  
  
val json: JsValue = JsObject(
```

```
Seq(  
    "title" -> JsString(m.title),  
    "year" -> JsNumber(m.year),  
    "rating" -> JsNumber(m.rating)  
)  
)
```

See the [Play page on JSON basics](#) for details on other conversion approaches.

19.5 Deserializing JSON into a Scala Object

Problem

Your Play Framework code is going to receive a JSON that corresponds to a Scala class, and you need to know how to convert the JSON to a single Scala object, or potentially to a sequence of Scala objects.

Solution

Handling JSON for a single Scala object is shown in this Solution. Handling JSON that represents a sequence of objects is

shown in the Discussion.

To convert a JSON string to a single Scala object, follow these steps:

1. Create a class to match the JSON.
2. Create a Play `Reads` converter.
3. Receive the JSON in a Play controller method.
4. Convert the JSON string to your Scala object, validating the JSON during the process.

This is essentially the reverse of the previous recipe, with the additional validation step. Where the previous recipe used an implicit `Writes` value, this approach uses an implicit `Reads` value.

1. Create a Scala class to match the JSON

For example, given a JSON string that represents a `Movie` class:

```
val jsonString = """{"title": "The Princess Bride"}"""
```

create a case class that corresponds to the JSON:

```
case class Movie(title: String, year: Int, rating: Double)
```

2. Create a Reads converter

Then create an implicit `Reads` converter for the `Movie` type:

```
import play.api.libs.json._  
import play.api.libs.functional.syntax._  
  
// conversion without validation  
implicit val movieReads: Reads[Movie] = (  
    (JsPath \ "title").read[String] and  
    (JsPath \ "year").read[Int] and  
    (JsPath \ "rating").read[Double]  
) (Movie.apply _)
```

Without using validation, you can transform the JSON string into a Scala `Movie` object using `Json.fromJson`:

```
val json: JsValue = Json.parse(jsonString)  
  
val movie = Json.fromJson(json)  
// JsResult[Movie] = JsSuccess(Movie(The Princess
```

However, you'll always want to validate any external data coming into your application, so a more real-world approach is to add validation to each value:

```
// conversion with validation.  
// minLength, min, and max are validation methods  
// the Reads object.  
import play.api.libs.json._  
import play.api.libs.functional.syntax._  
import play.api.libs.json.Reads._  
  
implicit val movieReads: Reads[Movie] = (  
    (JsPath \ "title").read[String](minLength[String](1))  
    (JsPath \ "year").read[Int](min(1920).keepAndThen(max(2016).map(_ - 1920)))  
    (JsPath \ "rating").read[Double](min(0d).keepAndThen(max(10d).map(_ / 2)))  
) (Movie.apply _)
```

Functions like `min`, `minLength`, and `max` are helper validation methods that come with [the `Reads` object](#), and those examples show how to apply them to the three incoming fields.

READABILITY

If your code gets too difficult to read when you add validators, consider working with one `JsPath` field at a time.

3. Receive the JSON in a controller method

This step isn't used in this recipe, but you'll want to use a controller method. See the Discussion for more details.

4. Convert the JSON to a Scala object

Now you can attempt to parse and validate the JSON to construct a Scala object:

```
val json: JsValue = Json.parse(jsonString)
val jsResult = json.validate[Movie]
```

When the validation works, `jsResult` will have this type and data:

```
jsResult: JsResult[Movie] = JsSuccess(Movie(The Shawshank
```

One way to handle the `jsResult` value—which is either a `JsSuccess` or a `JsError`—is to use a `match` expression:

```
jsResult match {
  case JsSuccess(movie, _) => println(movie)
  case e: JsError          => println(s"error: $e")
}
```

That's a common approach, and the `JsResult` type also has other methods you can use, including `asOpt`, `fold`, `foreach`, and `getOrElse`.

Discussion

This solution is similar to the last recipe, but instead of going from a Scala object to a JSON string, this recipe does the opposite, going from a JSON string to a Scala object. Where the last recipe uses an implicit `Writes` converter and `Json.toJson` method, this recipe uses an implicit `Reads` converter with the `Json.fromJson` and `json.validate` methods.

JSON and controller methods

Controller methods aren't shown in this recipe, but they are shown in Recipes [19.1](#) and [19.2](#).

When working with JSON in a controller method, you'll work with the `request` object, using code like this:

```
// one option
def yourMethod = Action { request: Request[AnyContent] =>
  val json: Option[JsValue] = request.body.asJson
  // more the json here ...
}
```

```
}

// another option ("body parser")
def yourMethod = Action(parse.json) { request: Re
    // work with 'request' as JSON here
    val name = request.body \ "username").as[String]
}
```

See the Play Framework documentation for more details on using `Action`, `JSON`, and a topic known as *body parsers*.

Using JsPath

The pattern shown in the solution is known as the *combinator pattern*:

```
(JsPath \ "title").read[String] and
(JsPath \ "year").read[Int] and
(JsPath \ "rating").read[Double]
```

In this code, `JsPath` is a class that represents a path to a `JsValue`—i.e., its location in a `JsValue` structure. Its use is meant to be analogous to using XPath for working with XML, and it traverses `JsValue` structures for the search pattern you provide.

For nested objects, use a search path like this:

```
val city = JsPath \ "address" \ "city"
```

For sequences of objects, access sequence elements like this:

```
val friend0 = (JsPath \ "friends")(0)
```

See [the “Reads” section of the Play documentation on Reads/Writes/Format combinators](#) for more `JsPath` details.

Handling bad data

When the data you receive doesn’t pass the validation process, the `validate` step returns a `JsError`. For example, this JSON string uses the incorrect key `name` instead of the correct key `title`:

```
// intentional mistake here (using 'name' instead of 'title')
val jsonString = """{"name": "The Princess Bride",
```

So when you run the `validate` method, it returns a `JsError`:

```
scala> json.validate[Movie]
```

```
val res0: play.api.libs.json.JsResult[Movie] =  
  JsError(List((/title, List(JsonValidationError()  
    ArraySeq())))))
```

Now when you use a `match` expression, the `JsError` case is triggered:

```
jsResult match {  
  case JsSuccess(movie, _) => println(movie)  
  case e: JsError          => println(s"error: $e")  
}
```

```
// output:  
JsError(List(  
  (/title, List(JsonValidationError(List(error.path
```

Validators

As shown in the validation example, Play has several validation helpers built in. They're contained in the `Reads` object and are imported like this:

```
import play.api.libs.json.Reads._
```

The current built-in validators are:

- `email` validates that a string has the proper email format.
- `minLength` validates the minimum length of a collection or string.
- `min` validates that a value is greater than a minimum.
- `max` validates that a value is less than a maximum.

It also has the `keepAnd`, `andKeep`, and `or` methods, which work as operators. See the Play [JSON documentation on Reads/Writes/Format combinators](#) for details on these combinator methods.

Handling a sequence of JSON data

The same approach works when your method receives a *sequence* of JSON data for a model. The only thing you have to do is change `Movie` in this line of code:

```
val jsResult = json.validate[Movie]
```

to `Seq[Movie]`:

```
val jsResult = json.validate[Seq[Movie]]
```

You can demonstrate this by starting the sbt console in the root directory of a Play project:

```
$ sbt  
play> console  
scala> _
```

Then when you paste this code into the REPL:

```
import play.api.libs.json._  
import play.api.libs.json.Reads._  
import play.api.libs.functional.syntax._  
  
case class Movie(title: String, year: Int, rating: Double)  
  
val jsonString = """[  
    {"title": "The Princess Bride", "year": 1987, "rating": 8.8},  
    {"title": "The Matrix", "year": 1999, "rating": 8.5},  
    {"title": "Firefly", "year": 2002, "rating": 9.2}  
]"""  
  
implicit val movieReads: Reads[Movie] = (  
    (JsPath \ "title").read[String](minLength[String](1)).keepAnd  
    (JsPath \ "year").read[Int](min(1920)).keepAnd  
    (JsPath \ "rating").read[Double](min(0d)).keepAnd  
) (Movie.apply _)
```

```
val json: JsValue = JSON.parse(jsonString)
val jsResult = json.validate[Seq[Movie]]
```

you'll see that `jsResult` contains the list of movies inside a `JsSuccess` value:

```
jsResult: play.api.libs.json.JsResult[Seq[Movie]]
JsSuccess(List(Movie(The Princess Bride, 1987, 8.5))

scala> jsResult.get.foreach(println)
Movie(The Princess Bride, 1987, 8.5)
Movie(The Matrix, 1999, 8.8)
Movie(Firefly, 2002, 9.2)
```

See Also

- The Scaladoc for [the Play Reads object](#) provides more details on the helper methods that are available.

19.6 Using the Play JSON Library Outside of the Play Framework

Problem

Because you're comfortable using the Play JSON library inside the Play Framework, you want to be able to use it outside of the Framework as well.

Solution

Play JSON exists as [a standalone library](#), so you can use it in your Scala projects outside of the Play environment. For instance, when using sbt, just add its dependency to your *build.sbt* file:

```
"com.typesafe.play" %% "play-json" % "2.9.1"
```

A complete *build.sbt* file that uses Play JSON and sttp looks like this:

```
name := "PlayJsonWithoutPlay"
version := "0.1"
scalaVersion := "2.13.5"

libraryDependencies += Seq(
    "com.typesafe.play" %% "play-json" % "2.9.1",
    "com.softwaremill.sttp.client3" %% "core" % "
```

Once you've added the dependency, write your JSON application code just as though you are writing code using the Play Framework.

From a Scala object to JSON

This example shows how to go from a Scala object to JSON with a `Writes` converter:

```
import play.api.libs.json._

case class Movie(title: String, year: Int, rating: Double)

object JsonWithoutPlay_WritesExample extends App {

    implicit val movieWrites = new Writes[Movie] {
        def writes(m: Movie) = Json.obj(
            "title" -> m.title,
            "year" -> m.year,
            "rating" -> m.rating
        )
    }

    val pb = Movie("The Princess Bride", 1987, 8.5)
    println(Json.toJson(pb))
}
```

```
}
```

From JSON to a Scala object

This example shows how to use sttp to access a REST API, and then convert the JSON it receives into a Scala object using Play JSON. Because all of this code is shown in other recipes, the comments describe how it works:

```
import play.api.libs.json._  
import play.api.libs.functional.syntax._  
import play.api.libs.json.Reads._  
import sttp.client3._  
  
// a case class to model the data received from the API  
case class ToDo(  
    userId: Int,  
    id: Int,  
    title: String,  
    completed: Boolean  
)  
  
object JsonWithoutPlay_ReadsExample extends App  
  
    // the Reads implementation that matches the JSON  
    // the first three fields are also validated
```

```
implicit val todoReads: Reads[ToDo] = (
  (JsPath \ "userId").read[Int](min(0)) and
  (JsPath \ "id").read[Int](min(0)) and
  (JsPath \ "title").read[String](minLength(1))
  (JsPath \ "completed").read[Boolean]
) (ToDo.apply _)

// make the GET request with sttp
val response = basicRequest
  .get(uri"https://jsonplaceholder.typicode.com/todos/1")
  .send(HttpURLConnectionBackend()))

// get the JSON from the response, then convert it
// to a Scala `ToDo` instance
response.body match {
  case Left(e)  => println(s"Response error: $e")
  case Right(jsonString) =>
    val json: JsValue = Json.parse(jsonString)
    val jsResult = json.validate[ToDo]
    jsResult match {
      case JsSuccess(todo, _) => println(s"Success: $todo")
      case e: JsError        => println(s"Validation error: ${e.message}")
    }
}
```

[JSONPlaceholder](#) is a popular service used for testing REST calls and currently serves about 900 million test requests per month. When you access the URL shown in the code with `curl`, you see this JSON result:

```
$ curl https://jsonplaceholder.typicode.com/todos  
{  
  "userId": 1,  
  "id": 1,  
  "title": "delectus aut autem",  
  "completed": false  
}
```

This JSON is transformed into the values you see in the `jsResult` and `todo` variables:

```
jsResult: JsSuccess(ToDo(1,1,delectus aut autem,:  
ToDo(1,1,delectus aut autem,false))
```

Discussion

The [sttp HTTP client library](#) is used in this example; it's explained in detail in [Recipe 19.7](#). The important things to know for this example are:

- It makes an HTTP GET request to the URL shown.
- It returns an HTTP response, whose type is
`Either[String, String]`.
- The JSON `String` is extracted in the `Right` case of the
`response.body match` expression.

Other Scala JSON libraries

There are several other Scala libraries for working with JSON. [Circe](#) is one of the most popular alternatives. As described in its documentation, Circe is a fork of the Java [Argonaut library](#) and relies on the [Cats functional programming library](#).

[uJson](#), which includes the [uPickle project](#), is another popular JSON library. Its value is that its API attempts to be similar to JSON libraries in languages like Python, Ruby, and JavaScript. Also, while most Scala JSON libraries treat JSON as being immutable, uJson lets you mutate the JSON representation.

19.7 Using the sttp HTTP Client

Problem

You need a Scala HTTP client for your applications and want to learn how to use the popular [sttp client library](#).

Solution

sttp can handle all of your HTTP client needs, including GET, POST, and PUT requests; request headers, cookies, redirects, and setting timeouts; and using synchronous and asynchronous backend libraries for making HTTP connections.

In this solution I demonstrate several of sttp's capabilities.

Basic GET request

This example shows how to make a synchronous `GET` request with sttp, using the default backend engine. It doesn't use any query parameters, headers, or cookies.

First, create an sbt project with the necessary sttp client3 dependency in the `build.sbt` file:

```
lazy val root = project
  .in(file("."))
  .settings(
    name := "Sttp",
    version := "0.1.0",
    scalaVersion := "3.0.0",
    libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
      "com.softwaremill.sttp.client3" %% "core" % "0.1.0"
    )
  )
```

```
)  
)
```

It's assumed that this *build.sbt* file is used in the remainder of this recipe.

Given that configuration, make a GET request to a URL like this:

```
import sttp.client3.*  
  
@main def basicGet =  
    val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend()  
    val response = basicRequest  
        .get(uri"http://httpbin.org")  
        .send(backend)  
    println(response)
```

The resulting `response` looks like this:

```
Response(Right({  
    "args": {},  
    "headers": {  
        "Accept": "text/html, image/gif, image/jpeg,  
        "Accept-Encoding": "gzip, deflate",  
        "Host": "httpbin.org",  
        "User-Agent": "Java/11.0.9",
```

```
"X-Amzn-Trace-Id": "Root=1-6068ea23-1354da230  
},  
"origin": "148.69.71.19",  
"url": "http://httpbin.org/get"  
}  
, 200, OK,  
Vector( much more output here ...
```

While `response` has the nested type

`Response(Right(...))`, it's surprisingly easy to work with.

You can use various methods to check the status code, headers, and see if the request was redirected:

```
response.code                                // sttp.model.Status  
response.is200                               // true  
response.isClientError                      // false  
response.statusText                         // "OK"  
response.headers                            // Seq[sttp.request.Header]  
response.header("Content-Length")           // Some("344")  
response.isRedirect                          // false
```

When you access the `response` body, the type is an `Either`, which is a `Right` when accessing the URL is successful:

```
response.body    // Either[String, String] = Right(...)
```

The use of `Either` lets you work with both successful and unsuccessful outcomes. For instance, you can use a `match` expression to handle the result:

```
response.body match
  case Left(error)    => println(s"LEFT: $error")
  case Right(result)  => println(s"RIGHT: $result")
```

Because `response.body` has the type `Either[String, String]`, you can also use methods like `foreach`, `getOrElse`, `isRight`, `map`, etc. to work with the result.

Backends

It's important to understand that `sttp` consists of a frontend, which is the API you just saw, and a backend. For example, you saw in the previous code that a backend is referenced:

```
// create a backend
val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend()

// send the Request to the backend
val response = basicRequest
```

```
.get(uri "http://httpbin.org/get")
  .send(backend)
```

This portion of that code creates a `Request`:

```
val request = basicRequest.get(uri "http://httpbin.org/get")
```

The important pieces in the `request` are the *method* (GET, in this case), the `uri` string, and whether or not there is a body in the request. The output is a little long, so for more details, run that code on your system.

When the `send` method is called, this request is sent to the configured backend. The backend is an instance of an `SttpBackend`, and per [the sttp documentation](#), it's where most of the work happens:

- The request is translated to a backend-specific form.
- A connection is opened, data is sent and received.
- The backend-specific response is translated to sttp's `Response`.

Backends can be synchronous or asynchronous, and they manage the connection pool, thread pools for handling

responses, and have configuration options. According to [the sttp documentation](#), sttp currently supports at least five backends, including, “ones based on akka-http, async-http-client, http4s, OkHttp, and HTTP clients which ship with Java.” These backends integrate with Akka, Monix, fs2, cats-effect, scalaz, and ZIO.

See the [sttp backends documentation](#) for more details on how to configure and use different backends.

Discussion

This discussion demonstrates a few more sttp capabilities.

A GET request with a header

When you make a request to the GitHub REST API v3, [you’re encouraged to send this header](#) with your request:

```
Accept: application/vnd.github.v3+json
```

To do that with sttp, just add a `header` method to your query. A complete Scala 3 application looks like this:

```
import sttp.client3.*
```

```
@main def basicGetHeader =  
    val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend()  
    // note: all data is sent and received as json  
    val response = basicRequest  
        .header("Accept", "application/json")  
        .get(uri"https://api.github.com")  
        .send(backend)  
    println(response.body)
```

That query returns a long JSON response from GitHub that begins like this:

```
{"current_user_url": "https://api.github.com/user"
```

A GET request with query parameters

The sttp documentation shows how to create a GET request with query parameters, using the current GitHub API:

```
import sttp.client3.*  
  
@main def getWithQueryParameters =  
    val query = "http language:scala"
```

```
val request = basicRequest.get(  
    uri"https://api.github.com/search/repositories"  
)  
  
val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend()  
val response = request.send(backend)  
println(s"URL: ${request.toCurl}") // prints  
println(response.body)
```

When you look at the result of the first `println` statement to see the URL that's created, you'll see output like this:

```
URL: curl -L --max-redirs 32 -X GET  
'https://api.github.com/search/repositories?q=https://github.com/sttp/sttp'
```

That output shows how sttp translates the `query` parameters into a GET URL that you can also test with the `curl` command that's shown. Also note that the `query` parameter is automatically URL-encoded.

A POST example

With sttp you can create queries using any HTTP method, including the POST method. Here's an example that sends a POST query to the <httpbin.org> test service:

```
import sttp.client3.*\n\n@main def post =\n    val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend()\n    val response = basicRequest\n        .body("Hello, world!")\n        .post(uri"https://httpbin.org/post?hello")\n        .send(backend)\n    println(response)
```

That query returns a JSON response of over five hundred characters, including a set of headers, and this `data`:

```
"data": "Hello, world!"
```

Cookies

You can also set and access cookies with `sttp`. This example shows how to set two cookies when calling a `httpbin.org` URL:

```
import sttp.client3.*\n\n@main def cookies =\n    val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend()
```

```
val response = basicRequest
  .get(uri"https://httpbin.org/cookies")
  .cookie("first_name", "sam")
  .cookie("last_name", "weiss")
  .send(backend)
println(response)
```

The `response` looks like this:

```
Response(Right({
  "cookies": {
    "first_name": "sam",
    "last_name": "weiss"
  }
}), 200, OK,
more output omitted ...
```

Setting timeout values

In production code I always set a timeout on HTTP queries. This code shows how to set timeout values on both the connection and read attempts:

```
import sttp.client3.*
import scala.concurrent.duration.*
```

```
@main def timeout =  
    // specify backend options, like a connection timeout  
    val backend = HttpURLConnectionBackend(  
        options = SttpBackendOptions.connectionTimeout(5.seconds)  
  
    )  
  
    // can also set a read timeout  
    val request = basicRequest  
        .get(uri"https://httpbin.org/get")  
        .readTimeout(5.seconds)  
  
    val response = request.send(backend)  
    println(response)
```

Note that this code can throw an

`SttpClientException.ConnectException` or
`SttpClientException.ReadException`, so be sure to handle
those in your code.

Chapter 20. Apache Spark

This chapter demonstrates recipes for [Apache Spark](#), a unified data analytics engine for large-scale data processing.

The Spark website describes Spark as a “unified analytics engine for large-scale data processing.” This means that it’s a big data framework that lets you analyze your data with different techniques—such as treating the data as a spreadsheet or as a database—and runs on distributed clusters. You can use Spark to analyze datasets that are so large that they span thousands of computers.

While Spark is designed to work with enormous datasets on clusters of computers, a great thing about it is that you can learn how to use Spark on your own computer with just a few example files.

SPARK 3.1.1

The examples in this chapter use Spark 3.1.1, which was released in March 2021 and is the latest release at the time of this writing. Spark currently works only with Scala 2.12, so the examples in this chapter also use Scala 2.12. However, because working with Spark generally involves using collections methods like `map` and `filter`, or SQL queries, you’ll barely notice the difference between Scala 2 and Scala 3 in these examples.

The recipes in this chapter show how to work with Spark on your own computer, while demonstrating the key concepts that work on datasets that span thousands of computers. [Recipe 20.1](#) demonstrates how to get started with Spark and digs into one of its fundamental concepts, the *Resilient Distributed Dataset*, or RDD. An RDD lets you treat your data like a large distributed spreadsheet.

That first recipe shows how to create an RDD from a collection inside the REPL, and then [Recipe 20.2](#) demonstrates how to read a data file into an RDD. It shows several ways to read data files, manipulate that data using Scala and Spark methods, and write data to other files.

Next, using a sample dataset from [MovieLens](#), [Recipe 20.3](#) shows how to model a row in a CSV file with a Scala `case` class, and then read the data in that file into an RDD and work with it as desired.

[Recipe 20.4](#) then shows how to convert an RDD into a `DataFrame`. This process lets you query your data using a SQL-like API. The examples show how to use that query syntax, as well as how to define a schema to represent your data.

[Recipe 20.5](#) picks up from there, showing how to read a MovieLens CSV file into a `DataFrame` and again query that data. This recipe takes the process a step further and shows how to create a SQL view on that data, which lets you use a regular SQL query string to query your data.

As the examples continue to use the MovieLens dataset, [Recipe 20.6](#) shows how to read multiple CSV files into `DataFrame`s, create views on those, and then query the data with traditional SQL queries—including joins—like this:

```
val query = """
    select * from movies, ratings
    where movies.movieId == ratings.movieId
    and rating == 5.0
"""
```

Finally, [Recipe 20.7](#) shows the complete process of creating a Spark application that can be packaged as a JAR file using sbt and run from the command line.

Spark is a huge topic, and thick books have been written about it. The goal of the recipes in this chapter is to get you quickly up and running with some of its main techniques. For more details,

see the book *Spark: The Definitive Guide* by Bill Chambers and Matei Zaharia (O'Reilly).

THE MOVIELENS DATASET

The examples in this chapter use [the MovieLens dataset](#). That dataset includes real-world movie ratings in the form of CSV files that are hundreds of megabytes in size and contain ratings and details from over 62,000 movies. For details on that dataset, see the seminal paper by F. Maxwell Harper and Joseph A. Konstan, “The MovieLens Datasets: History and Context,” ACM Transactions on Interactive Intelligent Systems 5, no. 4 (2016): 1–19, <https://doi.org/10.1145/2827872>.

20.1 Getting Started with Spark

Problem

You've never used Spark before and want to get started with it.

Solution

When you use Spark professionally, your data will probably be spread across multiple computers—maybe thousands of computers—but to get started with Spark, you can do all of your work on one computer system in local mode. The easiest way to do this is to start the Spark shell, create an array, and go from there.

The Spark installation instructions may vary over time, but currently you just download Spark from [its download page](#). The download is a *tgz* file, so just unpack that and move it to your *bin* directory, just like you manually install other downloaded applications. For example, I install Spark under my */Users/al/bin* directory.

Once you have Spark installed, start the Scala Spark shell like this:

```
$ spark-shell
```

The Spark shell is a modified version of the normal Scala shell you get with the `scala` command, so anything you can do in the Scala shell you can also do in the Spark shell, such as creating an array:

```
val nums = Array.range(0, 100)
```

Once you have something like an array or map, you can create a Spark Resilient Distributed Dataset (RDD) by calling the Spark Context's `parallelize` method:

```
scala> val rdd = spark.sparkContext.parallelize(  
rdd: org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[Int] = ParallelCol
```

```
at <console>:25
```

Notice from the output that `rdd` has the type `RDD[Int]`. As you'll see in the Discussion, an RDD is one of Spark's basic building blocks. For now you can think of it as being a collections class like a list or array, but its data can be spread across all the computers in a cluster. It also has additional methods that can be called. Here are some examples of methods that look familiar from the Scala collections classes:

```
rdd.count                                // Long = 100
rdd.first                                 // Int = 0
rdd.min                                    // Int = 0
rdd.max                                    // Int = 99
rdd.take(3)                                // Array[Int] = A
rdd.take(2).foreach(println)    // prints 0 and 1
```

Here are a few RDD methods that may not look familiar:

```
// "sample" methods return random values from the
rdd.sample(false, 0.05).collect    // Array[Int] =
rdd.takeSample(false, 5)           // Array[Int] =

rdd.mean                                // Double = 49
rdd stdDev                                // Double = 28
```

```
rdd.stats // Double - 20  
rdd.getNumPartitions // Int = 8  
  
rdd.stats // StatCounter  
// stdev: 28.86  
// min: 0.00000
```

You can also use familiar collection methods like `map` and `filter`:

```
scala> rdd.map(_ + 5).filter(_ < 8)  
res0: org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[Int] = MapPartitions  
<console>:26  
  
scala> rdd.filter(_ > 10).filter(_ < 20)  
res1: org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[Int] = MapPartitions  
<console>:26
```

However, notice that these methods don't return a result, at least not the result you were expecting. In Spark, transformation methods like these are evaluated lazily, so we refer to them as lazy or nonstrict. To get a result from them, you have to add an action method. An RDD has a `collect` method, which is an action method that forces all previous transformation methods to be run, and then it brings the result

back to the computer your code is being run on. In these examples, adding `collect` causes a result to be calculated:

```
scala> rdd.map(_ + 5).filter(_ < 8).collect
res0: Array[Int] = Array(5, 6, 7)

scala> rdd.filter(_ > 10).filter(_ < 20).collect
res1: Array[Int] = Array(11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16,
```

Discussion

In production situations Spark will work with data that's spread across clusters of computers, but as shown, in Spark's *local mode* all the processing is done on your local computer.

The spark object and spark context

In the Solution I created an RDD in the Spark shell with these two lines of code:

```
val nums = Array.range(0, 100)
val rdd = spark.sparkContext.parallelize(nums)
```

As you might guess, `spark` is a prebuilt object that's available in the shell. You can see the type of `spark` and `spark.sparkContext` using the shell's `:type` command:

```
scala> :type spark
org.apache.spark.sql.SparkSession
```

```
scala> :type spark.sparkContext
org.apache.spark.SparkContext
```

You'll use these two objects quite a bit in your Spark programming. Because you use the `SparkContext` so often, there's a shortcut available for it in the shell named `sc`, so instead of typing this:

```
val rdd = spark.sparkContext.parallelize(nums)
```

you can just type this:

```
val rdd = sc.parallelize(nums)
```

RDD

While there are higher-level ways to work with data in Spark—which you’ll see in the following recipes—the RDD is a fundamental data structure. [The Spark RDD Programming Guide](#) describes it as “a collection of elements partitioned across the nodes of the cluster that can be operated on in parallel.” The Spark creators recommend thinking of an RDD as a large distributed spreadsheet.

Technically, an RDD is an immutable, fault-tolerant, parallel data structure. The book *Beginning Apache Spark 2* by Hien Luu (Apress) states that an RDD is represented by five pieces of information:

- A set of partitions, which are the chunks that make up the dataset.
- A set of dependencies on parent RDDs.
- A function for computing all the rows in the dataset.
- Metadata about the partitioning scheme (optional).
- Where the data lives on the cluster (optional). If the data lives on the HDFS, then it would be where the block locations are located.

When we say that an RDD is a parallel data structure, this means that a single large file can be split across many computers. In typical use cases, a dataset is so large that it can’t

fit onto a single node, so it ends up being partitioned across multiple nodes in a cluster. Some basic things to know about partitions are:

- The partition is the main unit of parallelism in Spark.
- Every node in a Spark cluster contains one or more partitions.
- The number of partitions is configurable.
- Spark provides a default value, but you can tune it.
- Partitions do not span multiple nodes.
- Spark runs one task for each partition of the cluster.

When you use an RDD, each row in the data is typically represented as a Java/Scala object. The structure of this object is unknown to Spark, so it can't help you with your processing, other than providing methods like `filter` and `map`, which know how to work with an RDD created from a file (as discussed in [Recipe 20.2](#)) that's broken into chunks and spread across many computers.

When I say that Spark can't help with your processing, what this means is that Spark also provides higher-level techniques that you'll see in later recipes that demonstrate the Spark `DataFrame` and `Dataset`. When you use these data structures

you'll be able to use SQL queries, and Spark has an optimization engine that can help with the execution of your queries.

Three ways to create an RDD

There are three ways to create an RDD:

- Call `parallelize` on a collection.
- Read the data from one or more files into an RDD (as you'll see in the next recipe).
- Call a transformation method on an existing RDD to create a new RDD.

The `parallelize` method is shown in the Solution. This method is generally only used for testing, and per the [“Parallelized Collections” section of the RDD Programming Guide](#), it copies the contents of a collection “to create a distributed dataset that can be operated on in parallel.”

The `parallelize` method takes an optional parameter that lets you specify the number of partitions the dataset can be broken into:

```
val rdd = spark.sparkContext.parallelize(nums, 20)
rdd.getNumPartitions // Int = 20
```

RDD methods

There are dozens of methods available on an RDD. You can see these in the REPL as usual by creating an RDD, then typing a decimal and pressing the Tab key after the decimal. This includes implementations of the usual Scala collections methods like `distinct`, `filter`, `foreach`, `map`, and `take`, as well as other methods unique to Spark. There are dozens of methods, so see the [RDD class Scaladoc](#) and [RDD Programming Guide](#) for more details on the available methods.

See Also

- [The `spark.apache.org` page on Spark's standalone mode](#)
- [The Spark RDD Programming Guide](#)

These articles provide more details on Spark partitions:

- [“How Data Partitioning in Spark Helps Achieve More Parallelism?”](#)
- [“An Intro to Apache Spark Partitioning”](#)
- [“Spark Partitions”](#)

20.2 Reading a File into a Spark RDD

Problem

You want to start reading data files into a Spark RDD.

Solution

The canonical example for showing how to read a data file into an RDD is a word count application, so not to disappoint, this recipe shows how to read the text of the Gettysburg Address by Abraham Lincoln and find out how many times each word in the text is used.

After starting the Spark shell, the first step in the process is to read a file named *Gettysburg-Address.txt* using the `textFile` method of the `SparkContext` variable `sc` that was introduced in the previous recipe:

```
scala> val fileRdd = sc.textFile("Gettysburg-Address.txt")
fileRdd: org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[String] = Gettysburg-Address.txt MapPartitionsRDD[1] at textFile at <console>
```

This example assumes that *Gettysburg-Address.txt* is in the current directory.

The `textFile` method is used to read plain text files, and it returns an object of type `RDD[String]`. It's also lazy, which means that nothing happens yet. In fact, if you spell the filename incorrectly, you won't find out until some time later when you call a nonlazy action method.

The rest of the word count solution is pure Scala code. You just call a series of transformation methods on the RDD to get the solution you want:

```
val counts = fileRdd.map(_.replaceAll("[.,]", ""))
                     .map(_.replace("-", " "))
                     .flatMap(line => line.split(' '))
                     .map(word => (word, 1))
                     .reduceByKey(_ + _)
                     .sortBy(_.._2)
                     .collect
```

The only things unique to Spark in this solution are:

- Calling a `map` method on `fileRdd` (which has the type `RDD[String]`)
- Calling the `collect` method at the end

As mentioned in the previous recipe, because all the Spark transformation methods are lazy, you have to call an eager action method like `collect` to get the action started.

PASTING MULTILINE EXPRESSIONS

With Spark 3.1, when you have a multiline expression like this, you have to paste it into the Spark shell using its `:paste` command. The steps are:

1. Type `:paste` in the shell
2. Copy your expression from a text editor and paste it into the REPL using Command+V or similar
3. Type Control+D to end the past operation

The shell will then interpret your expression.

Discussion

Here's an explanation of how that code works. First, I create `fileRdd` as an `RDD[String]` with this code:

```
val fileRdd = sc.textFile("Gettysburg-Address.txt")
```

Because `textFile` is lazy, nothing actually happens yet.

Next, because I want to count words, I get rid of decimals, commas, and hyphens in the text using these two `map` transformation calls:

```
.map(_.replaceAll("[.,]", ""))
.map(_.replace("-", " "))
```

Then, I use this `flatMap` expression to convert the text into an array of words:

```
.flatMap(line => line.split(" "))
```

If you look at the result of the two `map` expressions and this `flatMap` expression, you'd see an `Array[String]`:

```
Array(Four, score, and, seven, years, ago, our, ...)
```

To get from this `Array[String]` to a solution that has a set of all words and the number of times they occur—a `Map[String, Int]`—the next step is to turn each word into a tuple:

```
.map(word => (word, 1))
```

At this point the intermediate data looks like this:

```
Array[ (String, Int) ] = Array((Four,1), (score,1),
```

Next, I use `reduceByKey`:

```
.reduceByKey(_ + _)
```

This transforms the intermediate data into this data structure:

```
Array[ (String, Int) ] = Array((nobly,1), (under,1))
```

As shown, this is an array of tuples, where the first value of each tuple is a word from the speech and the second value is a count of how many times that word occurs. This is what `reduceByKey` does for us.

Next, you can sort that data by the second tuple element:

```
.sortBy(_. _2)
```

Finally, you invoke the `collect` method to force all the transformations to be run:

```
.collect
```

Because the data structure has the type `Array[(String, Int)]`, you can call `counts.foreach(println)` on it. The end of its output shows the most common words in the speech:

```
scala> counts.foreach(println)
[data omitted here]
(here,8)
(we,8)
(to,8)
(the,9)
(that,13)
```

Methods to read text files into an RDD

There are two main methods to read text files into an RDD:

- `sparkContext.textFile`
- `sparkContext.wholeTextFiles`

The `textFile` method reads a file as a collection of lines. It can read a file from the local filesystem, or from a Hadoop or Amazon S3 filesystem using "`hdfs://`" and "`s3a://`" URLs, respectively.

Per [the RDD Programming Guide](#), `textFile` “takes an optional second argument for controlling the number of partitions of the

file. By default, Spark creates one partition for each block of the file (blocks being 128 MB by default in HDFS), but you can also ask for a higher number of partitions by passing a larger value.”

Here are some examples of how to use `textFile`:

```
textFile("/foo/file.txt")          // reads a single file  
textFile("/foo/file.txt", 8)        // reads a single file with 8 partitions  
textFile("/foo/bar.txt", "/foo/baz.txt") // reads two files from different locations  
textFile("/foo/ba*.txt")           // reads all files starting with "ba"  
textFile("/foo/*")                 // reads all files in the directory  
textFile("/a/1.txt", "/b/2.txt")     // reads multiple files from different directories  
textFile("hdfs://.../myfile.csv")    // uses the HDFS connector  
textFile("s3a://.../myfile.csv")      // uses the S3 connector
```

Note that the `s3a` URL prefix is the name of the Hadoop S3 connector and was previously named `s3` and `s3n`, so you may see those uses in older documentation.

The `wholeTextFiles` method reads the entire file into a single `String` and returns an RDD that contains a tuple, so its return type is `RDD[(String, String)]`. The first string in the tuple

is the filename that was read, and the second string is the entire contents of the file. This example shows how that works:

```
scala> val rdd = sc.wholeTextFiles("Gettysburg-Address.txt")
rdd: org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[(String, String)] =
MapPartitionsRDD[5] at wholeTextFiles at <console>:1

scala> rdd.foreach(t => println(s"${t._1} | ${t._2}")
file:/Users/al/Projects/Books/ScalaCookbook2Examples/SparkApp1/Gettysburg-Address.txt | Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.
```

The output from the second expression shows that the tuple contains the filename and file content.

Spark also contains other methods for reading files into a

`DataFrame` or `Dataset`:

- `spark.read.text()` is used to read a text file into `DataFrame`.
- `spark.read.textFile()` is used to read a text file into a `Dataset[String]`.
- `spark.read.csv()` and `spark.read.format("csv").load("<path>")` are used to read a CSV file into a `DataFrame`.

These methods are demonstrated in the following recipes.

Saving an RDD to disk

When you obtain your final result using RDD transformation and action methods, you may want to save your results. You can save an RDD to disk using its `saveAsTextFile` method. This command saves an RDD to a directory named *MyRddOutput* under the `/tmp` directory:

```
myRdd.saveAsTextFile("/tmp/MyRddOutput")
```

After you do this you'll find a series of files under `/tmp/MyRddOutput` that represent the RDD named `myRdd`. Note that if the directory already exists, this operation will fail with an exception.

Reading more complicated text file formats

On a macOS system, the `/etc/passwd` file contains seven fields that are delimited by the `:` character, but it also contains initial lines of comments, with each comment line beginning with the `#` character. To read this file into an RDD you need to skip those initial comment lines.

One way to do this is to read the file into an RDD as usual:

```
val fileRdd = spark.sparkContext.textFile("/etc/...")
```

Next, create a case class to model the seven-column format:

```
case class PasswordRecord (
    username: String,
    password: String,
    userId: Int,
    groupId: Int,
    comment: String,
    homeDirectory: String,
    shell: String
)
```

Now you can convert `fileRdd` into a new RDD by first filtering out all records that start with the `#` character and then converting the remaining seven-column fields into a `PasswordRecord`:

```
val rdd = fileRdd
    .filter(!_startsWith("#"))
    .map { line =>
```

```
    val row = line.split(":")
    PasswordRecord(
        row(0), row(1), row(2).toInt, row(3)
    )
}
```

After doing this, you'll see that `rdd` only contains the colon-separated rows from the file:

```
scala> rdd.take(3)
res1: Array[PasswordRecord] = Array(
  PasswordRecord(nobody,*, -2, -2, Unprivileged User, /),
  PasswordRecord(root, *, 0, 0, System Administrator, /),
  PasswordRecord(daemon, *, 1, 1, System Services, /var,
)
```

Now you can work with this RDD as shown previously.

See Also

- [The *SparkByExamples.com* page on reading text files](#) is an excellent resource.

20.3 Reading a CSV File into a Spark RDD

Problem

You want to read a CSV file into an RDD.

Solution

To read a well-formatted CSV file into an RDD:

1. Create a case class to model the file data.
2. Read the file using `sc.textFile`.
3. Create an RDD by mapping each row in the data to an instance of your `case` class.
4. Manipulate the data as desired.

The following example demonstrates those steps, using a file named *TomHanksMoviesNoHeader.csv*, which has these contents:

```
1995, Toy Story,     8.3
2000, Cast Away,    7.8
2006, The Da Vinci Code, 6.6
```

```
2012, Cloud Atlas,      7.4  
1994, Forrest Gump,    8.8
```

1. Create a case class to model the file data

First, create a `case` class that matches the data in the file:

```
case class Movie(year: Int, name: String, rating
```

2. Read the file

Next, read the file into an initial RDD:

```
val fileRdd = sc.textFile("TomHanksMoviesNoHeader")
```

3. Create an RDD by mapping each row to the case class

Then call `map` on the `fileRdd` to create a new RDD named `movies`:

```
val movies = fileRdd.map{ row =>  
    val fields = row.split(",").map(_.trim)  
    Movie(fields(0).toInt, fields(1), fields(2).t  
}
```

The first line in the block splits each row on the comma character and then trims each resulting field in the row. When the block completes, `movies` has the type

```
org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[Movie].
```

4. Manipulate the data as desired

Now you can work with the `movies` RDD as desired, using the transformation and action methods demonstrated in the previous recipes:

```
scala> :type movies
org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD[Movie]

scala> movies.first
res0: Movie = Movie(1995,Toy Story,8.3)

scala> movies.take(2)
res1: Array[Movie] = Array(Movie(1995,Toy Story,8.3),
                            Movie(1997,Jurassic Park,8.4))

scala> movies.filter(_.rating > 7).filter(_.year < 2012)
res2: Array[Movie] = Array(Movie(2012,Cloud Atlas,8.7))
```

Discussion

This recipe shows how to read a CSV file into an RDD. You can also work with CSV files using SQL—from the Spark SQL module—and that’s demonstrated in Recipes [20.5](#) and [20.6](#).

Working with a CSV file without using a case class

You can read a CSV file into an RDD without using a `case` class, but the process is a little more cumbersome. If you want to use this approach, start by reading the file as before:

```
// RDD[String]
val fileRdd = sc.textFile("TomHanksMoviesNoHeader.csv")
```

Then split each row on the comma character, and trim each resulting field:

```
// movies: RDD[Array[String]]
val movies = rdd.map(row => row.split(","))
               .map(field => field.trim)
```

As shown in the comment, `movies` has the type `RDD[Array[String]]`. Now you can work with the data as desired, but you’ll have to treat each row as an array of strings:

```
scala> movies.take(2)
Array[Array[String]] = Array(Array(Year, Name, IMDB_Rating),
                           Array(1995, Toy Story, 8.2))

scala> movies.filter(row => row(0).toInt > 2000)
res0: Array[Array[String]] = Array(
  Array(2006, The Da Vinci Code, 6.6),
  Array(2012, Cloud Atlas, 7.4))
)
```

20.4 Using Spark Like a Database with DataFrames

Problem

Rather than using RDDs, you want to use Spark like a SQL database so you can query your data with SQL commands.

Solution

To begin using Spark like a database, use a `DataFrame` rather than an RDD. A `DataFrame` is the rough equivalent of a database table, though of course in Spark the `DataFrame` may be spread out over thousands of computers.

To begin, create an array, and then create an RDD from the array, just like you did in [Recipe 20.1](#):

```
val nums = Array.range(1, 10)      // Array[Int] =  
val rdd = sc.parallelize(nums)    // RDD[Int]
```

Next, convert that RDD to a `DataFrame` using the RDD's `toDF` method. When using an array, the resulting dataset only has one column of data, and this command gives that column the name "num" as it creates a `DataFrame`:

```
val df = rdd.toDF("num")          // org.apache.s
```

As shown in the comment, the variable `df` has the type `org.apache.spark.sql.DataFrame`. Now you can begin using some SQL-like capabilities of the `DataFrame`. First, here are some database-like metadata methods:

```
scala> df.printSchema  
root  
| -- num: integer (nullable = false)  
  
scala> df.show(2)  
+---+
```

```
| num |
+---+
| 1 |
| 2 |
+---+
only showing top 2 rows

scala> df.columns
res0: Array[String] = Array(num)

scala> df.describe("num").show
+-----+-----+
| summary |          num |
+-----+-----+
| count |          9 |
| mean |          5.0 |
| stddev | 2.7386127875258306 |
| min |          1 |
| max |          9 |
+-----+-----+
```

Once again, transformation methods are evaluated lazily, so I use the `show` method to see a result in the Spark shell.

Once you have a `DataFrame`, you can perform SQL-like queries with the Spark SQL API:

```
scala> df.select('num).show(2)
+---+
| num |
+---+
| 1 |
| 2 |
+---+
only showing top 2 rows
```

```
scala> df.select('num).where("num > 6").show
+---+
| num |
+---+
| 7 |
| 8 |
| 9 |
+---+
```

```
scala> df.select('num)
      .where("num > 6")
      .orderBy(col("num").desc)
      .show
+---+
| num |
+---+
| 9 |
| 8 |
```

```
|    7 |  
+---+
```

Those examples show that there are several different ways to refer to column names. The following queries show the different approaches, and they all return the same result:

```
df.select('num')  
df.select(col("num"))  
df.select(column("num"))  
df.select($"num")  
df.select(expr("num"))
```

As you can see, working with `DataFrame` queries is similar to working with SQL queries and a database, although with Spark you use its [Spark SQL API](#) to make your queries.

Discussion

In the example shown in the Solution, I let the data source—my array—implicitly define the schema. By converting that array to an RDD and then to a `DataFrame` with `toDF`, Spark was able to infer the type of my data. This approach where you let Spark infer the data types is called *schema-on-read*, and it can often be useful.

Explicitly defining the schema

Like a spreadsheet or database table, a `DataFrame` consists of a series of records, and those records are modeled by a Spark SQL `Row`. Using `Row` and `StructType` and `StructField` types, you can also *explicitly* define the schema, similar to the way you work with a traditional SQL database and schema.

To demonstrate this, first create a new RDD with five columns:

```
import org.apache.spark.sql.Row

val rdd = sc.parallelize(
  Array(
    Row(1L, 0L, "zero", "cero", "zéro"),
    Row(2L, 1L, "one", "uno", "un"),
    Row(3L, 2L, "two", "dos", "deux"),
    Row(4L, 3L, "three", "tres", "trois"),
    Row(5L, 4L, "four", "cuatro", "quatre")
  )
)
```

As shown, each row in the data has five columns. Next, you define a schema that describes those columns using the Spark SQL `StructType` and `StructField` classes:

```
import org.apache.spark.sql.types._

// 'schema' has the type org.apache.spark.sql.types.StructType
val schema = StructType(
    Array(
        StructField("id", LongType, false),
        StructField("value", LongType, false),
        StructField("name", StringType, true),
        StructField("nombre", StringType, true),
        StructField("nom", StringType, true)
    )
)
```

That code declares that the data consists of five columns with these names and attributes:

- `id` is a long number and is not nullable.
- `value` is a long number and is not nullable.
- `name` is a string and can contain null values (these are the English names of the numbers).
- `nombre` is also a string and can contain null values (these are the Spanish names).
- `nom` is also a string and can contain null values (these are the French names).

With everything in place, you can create a `DataFrame` using the `RDD` and the `schema`:

```
scala> val df = spark.createDataFrame(rdd, schema)
df: org.apache.spark.sql.DataFrame = [id: bigint,
                                         name: string, nombre: string, nom: string]
                                         |-- id: long (nullable = false)
                                         |-- value: long (nullable = false)
                                         |-- name: string (nullable = true)
                                         |-- nombre: string (nullable = true)
                                         |-- nom: string (nullable = true)
```

Querying the DataFrame

Now you can query the `DataFrame` as before:

```
scala> df.select('id, 'name, 'nombre)
           .limit(2)
           .show
+---+---+---+
| id|name|nombre|
+---+---+---+
|  1|zero|  cero|
|  2| one|    uno|
```

```

+----+----+-----+
| id|value| name|nombre| nom|
+----+----+-----+
|  3|    2|  two|    dos|  deux|
|  4|    3|three|    tres|trois|
+----+----+-----+
only showing top 2 rows

scala> df.select('value, 'name, 'nombre, 'nom)
      .where("id > 1")
      .where("id < 4")
      .show
+----+----+-----+
|value|name|nombre| nom|
+----+----+-----+
|    1| one|    uno|   un|
|    2| two|    dos|deux|
+----+----+-----+


scala> df.where('id > 1)
      .orderBy('name)

      .show
+----+----+-----+
| id|value| name|nombre| nom|
+----+----+-----+

```

```

| 5 | 4 | four|cuatro|quatre|
| 2 | 1 | one| uno| un|
| 4 | 3 | three| tres| trois|
| 3 | 2 | two| dos| deux|
+---+---+---+---+---+

```

```

scala> df.select('name, 'nombre, 'nom)
      .where("name = 'two'")
      .show

```

```

+---+---+---+
| name|nombre| nom|
+---+---+---+
| two| dos|deux|
+---+---+---+

```

```

scala> df.filter('nom.like("tro%")) .show

```

```

+---+---+---+---+---+
| id|value| name|nombre| nom|
+---+---+---+---+---+
| 4 | 3 |three| tres|trois|
+---+---+---+---+---+

```

In addition to SQL-like queries, when you're working with huge datasets it can help to look at a small subset of the data. Spark SQL has a `sample` method to help this situation. `sample` takes three parameters:

```
val withReplacement = false
val fraction = 0.2
val seed = 31
```

When you call `sample` it returns a subset of the data, with the number of rows roughly corresponding to the `fraction` parameter:

```
scala> df.sample(withReplacement, fraction, seed)
+---+---+---+---+
| id|value| name|nombre| nom|
+---+---+---+---+
|  3|    2|  two|    dos|  deux|
|  4|    3|three|    tres|trois|
+---+---+---+---+
```

For more `sample` details, see [the Spark Dataset documentation](#).

WHY SEARCH FOR “DATASET”?

When you need to search for `DataFrame` methods like `sample` in the Spark documentation, it can help to search for `"Dataset"` rather than `"DataFrame"`. This is because a `DataFrame` is just a special instance of a `Dataset`. Specifically, a `DataFrame` is a `Dataset` of `Row` types.

select and selectExpr

While I tend to use `'foo` or `col("foo")` to refer to a column named `"foo"`, another approach is to refer to it as `expr("foo")`. Using this syntax, queries look like this:

```
df.select(expr("value")).show  
df.select(expr("value"), expr("value")).show
```

Because this is such a common programming pattern, there's also a method named `selectExpr` that combines `select` and `expr` into one method. Here are a few examples of its usage:

```
scala> df.selectExpr("value").show(2)  
+---+  
| value |  
+---+  
| 0 |  
| 1 |  
+---+  
only showing top 2 rows
```

```
scala> df.selectExpr("avg(value)").show  
+-----+  
| avg(value) |  
+-----+
```

```
|      2.0 |
+-----+
scala> df.selectExpr("count(distinct(value))").show
+-----+
| count (DISTINCT value) |
+-----+
|      5 |
+-----+
scala> df.selectExpr("count(distinct(nombre))").show
+-----+
| count (DISTINCT nombre) |
+-----+
|      5 |
+-----+
```

See Also

- There are performance considerations when using schema-on-read and its counterpart, schema-on-write. Search for those terms for the best up-to-date articles on performance issues.
- [The Spark `DataType` Javadoc](#) shows the different `DataType` values that are available when defining a `StructField`. Those types are: `BinaryType`,

`BooleanType`, `ByteType`, `CalendarIntervalType`,
`DateType`, `DoubleType`, `FloatType`, `IntegerType`,
`LongType`, `NullType`, `ShortType`, `StringType`, and
`TimestampType`.

- [The Spark Dataset Javadoc](#) shows all the methods that can be called on a `DataFrame` (or `Dataset`).

20.5 Reading Data Files into a Spark DataFrame

Problem

You want to read a CSV file into a `DataFrame`.

Solution

Given a file named *TomHanksMoviesNoHeader.csv*:

1995, Toy Story,	8.3
2000, Cast Away,	7.8
2006, The Da Vinci Code,	6.6
2012, Cloud Atlas,	7.4
1994, Forrest Gump,	8.8

specify a schema to read the file using either of these two options:

```
import org.apache.spark.sql.types._

// syntax option 1
val schema = StructType(
    Array(
        StructField("year", IntegerType, false),
        StructField("name", StringType, false),
        StructField("rating", DoubleType, false)
    )
)

// syntax option 2
val schema = new StructType()
    .add("year", IntegerType, false)
    .add("name", StringType, false)
    .add("rating", DoubleType, false)
```

Then read the file into a `DataFrame` like this:

```
// paste this into the spark shell with ":paste"
val df = spark.read
    .format("csv")
    .schema(schema)
    .option("delimiter", " ")
```

```
.option("delimiter", ",")  
.load("TomHanksMoviesNoHeader.csv")
```

For a true CSV file like this one, the `delimiter` setting isn't necessary, but I demonstrate it for when your files have different separators like a tab, `|`, or other character.

Once you've loaded the file like that, you can work with it as shown in the previous recipe:

```
scala> df.printSchema  
root  
|-- year: long (nullable = true)  
|-- name: string (nullable = true)  
|-- rating: double (nullable = true)  
  
scala> df.show(2)  
+---+-----+---+  
|year|      name|rating|  
+---+-----+---+  
|1995| Toy Story|   8.3|  
|2000| Cast Away|   7.8|  
+---+-----+---+  
only showing top 2 rows  
  
scala> df.select('year, 'name, 'rating).limit(2)  
+---+-----+---+  
|year|      name|rating|
```

```
year | name | rating |
+---+-----+-----+
|1995| Toy Story| 8.3|
|2000| Cast Away| 7.8|
+---+-----+-----+
```

```
scala> df.where('year > 1998).where('rating > 7.5)
+---+-----+-----+
| year | name | rating |
+---+-----+-----+
|2000| Cast Away| 7.8|
+---+-----+-----+
```

```
scala> df.where('rating > 7.5).orderBy('rating.de
+---+-----+-----+
| year | name | rating |
+---+-----+-----+
|1994| Forrest Gump| 8.8|
|1995| Toy Story| 8.3|
|2000| Cast Away| 7.8|
+---+-----+-----+
```

```
scala> df.filter('name.like("%T%")).show
+---+-----+-----+
| year | name | rating |
+---+-----+-----+
|1995| Toy Story| 8.3|
|2006| The Da Vinci Code| 6.6|
+---+-----+-----+
```

Discussion

Per [the Spark DataTypes Javadoc](#), you can use the following data types when creating a `StructField`: `BinaryType`, `BooleanType`, `ByteType`, `CalendarIntervalType`, `DateType`, `DoubleType`, `FloatType`, `IntegerType`, `LongType`, `NullType`, `ShortType`, `StringType`, and `TimestampType`. Most of those type names are self-explanatory, but see that Javadoc page for more details, and see this [MungingData article](#), for many more details on handling null values.

When reading a CSV file you can specify the options as a `Map`, if you prefer:

```
val df = spark.read
    .options(
        Map(
            "header" -> "true",
            "inferSchema" -> "true",
            "delimiter" -> ", "
        )
    )
    .csv("TomHanksMoviesNoHeader.csv")
```

Also, as discussed in [Recipe 20.1](#), the `spark` variable is an instance of `SparkSession`. Its `read` method returns a [`DataFrameReader`](#), which is described as an “interface used to load a `Dataset` from external storage systems.” That Javadoc page shows over two dozen options for working with CSV files.

Writing a DataFrame to a file

Once you have the results you want in a `DataFrame`, you can write them out to a directory. The example writes the results to a directory named *DataFrameResults* in the current directory:

```
df.write  
  .option("header", "true")  
  .csv("DataFrameResults")
```

That directory has a CSV file that contains the results contained in the `DataFrame`.

Creating a SQL view on a DataFrame

The next recipe shows how to use a `DataFrame` even more like a database table, but as a preview, when you call the `DataFrame` method `createOrReplaceTempView`, you create a database-like view:

```
val df = spark.read
    .format("csv")
    .schema(schema)
    .option("delimiter", ", ", ",")
    .load("TomHanksMoviesNoHeader.csv")
df.createOrReplaceTempView("movies")
```

`createOrReplaceTempView` creates a local temporary view—like a lazy view, as detailed in [Recipe 11.4, “Creating a Lazy View on a Collection”](#)—and once you have that, you can use normal SQL to query your data:

```
val query = "select * from movies where rating >
  scala> spark.sql(query).show
+---+-----+---+
| year |          name | rating |
+---+-----+---+
| 1994 | Forrest Gump | 8.8 |
| 1995 | Toy Story   | 8.3 |
| 2000 | Cast Away   | 7.8 |
+---+-----+---+
```

More examples of this syntax are shown in the next recipe.

20.6 Using Spark SQL Queries Against Multiple Files

Problem

You'd like to see how to use real SQL queries against a dataset, including the use of joins on multiple files.

Solution

This recipe uses [the MovieLens dataset](#), which contains data from over 62,000 movies. To follow along with this recipe, see that link for information on how to download the dataset.

After you've downloaded that data, you can look at the first lines of the CSV files to see their format. These Unix `head` commands show the first lines of the three files used in this recipe, including the header rows at the top of each file:

```
$ head -3 movies.csv
movieId,title,genres
1,Toy Story (1995),Adventure|Animation|Children|Comedy
2,Jumanji (1995),Adventure|Children|Fantasy

$ head -3 ratings.csv
```

```
userId,movieId,rating,timestamp  
1,296,5.0,1147880044  
1,306,3.5,1147868817
```

```
$ head -3 tags.csv  
userId,movieId,tag,timestamp  
3,260,classic,1439472355  
3,260,sci-fi,1439472256
```

With those data files in the current directory, start the Spark shell with the `spark-shell` command. Then read each file into a `DataFrame`, as shown in the previous recipe:

```
// paste these into the REPL with ":paste"  
val moviesDF = spark.read  
    .option("header", "true")  
    .option("inferSchema", "true")  
    .csv("movies.csv")  
  
val ratingsDF = spark.read  
    .option("header", "true")  
    .option("inferSchema", "true")  
    .csv("ratings.csv")  
  
val tagsDF = spark.read  
    .option("header", "true")  
    .option("inferSchema", "true")  
    .csv("tags.csv")
```

It will take a few moments for that data to be read in. Next, create temporary views on each file, giving the views the names shown in each method call:

```
moviesDf.createOrReplaceTempView("movies")
ratingsDf.createOrReplaceTempView("ratings")
tagsDf.createOrReplaceTempView("tags")
```

Now you can use real SQL queries as desired to work with the data. For example, to see all movies and their ratings, join the `movies` and `ratings` views:

```
val query = """
    select * from movies, ratings
    where movies.movieId == ratings.movieId
    and rating == 5.0
"""

spark.sql(query).limit(4).show
```

Without the `limit`, that query will return over 3.6 million rows, but with the `limit`, the output looks like this:

```
+-----+-----+-----+
| movieId |          title |      genres | us
+-----+-----+-----+
```

```
+-----+-----+-----+
| 296 | Pulp Fiction (1994) | Comedy | Crime | Drama |
| 307 | Three Colors: Blu... |           Drama |
| 665 | Underground (1995) | Comedy | Drama | War |
| 1237 | Seventh Seal, The... |           Drama |
+-----+-----+-----+
```

As another example, this query shows one way to find all five-star-rated comedy/romance movies:

```
val query = """
    select distinct(m.title), r.rating, m.genres
    from movies m, ratings r
    where m.movieId == r.movieId
    and m.genres like '\%Comedy\%Romance\%'
    and r.rating == 5.0
    order by m.title"""
```

```
scala> spark.sql(query).show
+-----+-----+-----+
|       title|rating|genres|
+-----+-----+-----+
| (500) Days of Sum...| 5.0 | Comedy | Drama | Romance |
| (Girl) Friend (2018)| 5.0 | Comedy | Romance |
|          10 (1979)| 5.0 | Comedy | Romance |
```

```
|10 Items or Less ...|      5.0 |Comedy|Drama|Romance  
output continues ...
```

When you know SQL and the organization of the data, you can run other queries like this one, which provides a sorted count of all five-star ratings for all comedy/romance movies:

```
val query = """  
    select m.title, count(1) as the_count  
    from movies m, ratings r  
    where m.movieId == r.movieId  
    and m.genres like '\%Comedy%\%Romance%\'  
    and r.rating == 5.0  
    group by m.title  
    order by the_count desc  
"""
```

```
// using 'false' in 'show' tells spark to print +  
spark> spark.sql(query).show(100, false)  
+-----  
|title  
+-----  
|Forrest Gump (1994)  
|Princess Bride, The (1987)  
|Amelie (Fabuleux destin d'Amélie Poulain, Le) (2
```

```
|Life Is Beautiful (La Vita è bella) (1997)  
(the output continues ...)
```

Discussion

As shown, views are created by calling

```
createOrReplaceTempView on a DataFrame or Dataset:
```

```
moviesDf.createOrReplaceTempView("movies")
```

This command creates (or replaces) a temporary table with the name `movies`. The lifetime of this view is tied to the `SparkSession` that was used to create the `DataFrame`. Use this command if you want to drop the view:

```
spark.catalog.dropTempView("movies")
```

Performance

Spark performance is a huge topic, but one important concept to know is the difference between narrow transformations and wide transformations. A *narrow transformation* (also called a *narrow dependency*) is one where all the data that's required to calculate the results of a single partition lives in that partition.

In a *wide transformation* (or wide dependency), all the elements that are required to calculate a result may reside in multiple different partitions.

A wide transformation leads to a *shuffle*, which occurs when data has to be rearranged between partitions. Moving data around significantly slows down processing speed, so shuffling is bad for performance. Narrow transformations tend to involve methods like `filter` and `map`, while wide transformations involve methods like `groupByKey` and `reduceByKey`.

For narrow transformations, Spark can *pipeline* multiple transformations, meaning that they'll all be performed in memory. The same cannot happen for wide transformations, and when a shuffle has to be performed, results are written to disk.

Google currently returns several hundred thousand results for the search phrase “spark minimize data shuffling,” so you know this is a big topic.

Using `explain` to understand queries

As you learn more about Spark SQL, it can sometimes help to use its `explain` method to understand how queries work. You

call `explain` on a `DataFrame`, and when you do so, you'll see output like this:

```
scala> moviesDf.where('movieId > 100).explain
== Physical Plan ==
*(1) Project [movieId#16, title#17, genres#18]
+- *(1) Filter (isnotnull(movieId#16) AND (movieId#16 > 100))
   +- FileScan csv [movieId#16,title#17,genres#18]
     DataFilters: [isnotnull(movieId#16), (movieId#16 > 100)]
     Format: CSV, Location: InMemoryFileIndex[file:/tmp/movies.csv]
     PushedFilters: [IsNotNull(movieId), GreaterThan(movieId, 100)]
     ReadSchema: struct<movieId:int,title:string,genres:int>
```

and this:

```
scala> moviesDf.sort("title").explain
== Physical Plan ==
*(1) Sort [title#17 ASC NULLS FIRST], true, 0
+- Exchange rangepartitioning(title#17 ASC NULLS FIRST)
   +- FileScan csv [movieId#16,title#17,genres#18]
     DataFilters: [], Format: CSV, Location: InMemoryFileIndex[file:/tmp/movies.csv]
     PartitionFilters: [], PushedFilters: [],
     ReadSchema: struct<movieId:int,title:string,genres:int>
```

A few notes about the `explain` output:

- The first part of the output shows the final result.
- Other portions of the output explain the data sources.
- The keywords at the beginning of each line tend to be important, and in these examples you see words like `Filter`, `FileScan`, `Sort`, and `Exchange`.

For more details on the `explain` operator, this [Medium article on mastering query plans](#) by David Vrba is a good resource, and his video “[Physical Plans in Spark SQL](#)” is too.

Handling timestamps

Spark SQL includes several methods for working with timestamps. The `from_unixtime` shows one way to display timestamp fields:

```
val query = """
    select userId,movieId,tag,from_unixtime(times)
    from tags
    limit 3
"""
```

```
scala> spark.sql(query).show
+-----+-----+-----+
|userId|movieId|      tag|
+-----+-----+-----+
```

	3	260	classic 2015-08-13
	3	260	sci-fi 2015-08-13
	4	1732	dark comedy 2019-11-16

See Also

- If you want to use a schema when reading data files, see how Recipes [20.4](#) and [20.5](#) use [the MovieLens dataset](#). For details on that dataset, see [the seminal paper by F. Maxwell Harper and Joseph A. Konstan](#).

20.7 Creating a Spark Batch Application

Problem

You want to write a Spark application that will be run periodically in a batch mode.

Solution

While all the previous recipes show how to use Spark from its command-line shell (REPL), in this recipe you'll create a batch command-line version of the word count application that was shown in [Recipe 20.2](#).

You create a Spark application just like you create other Scala applications, using a build tool like sbt and importing the Spark dependencies you require.

Start by creating a *build.sbt* file:

```
name := "SparkApp1"
version := "0.1"
scalaVersion := "2.12.12"

libraryDependencies += Seq(
  "org.apache.spark" %% "spark-sql" % "3.1.1"
)
```

At the time of this writing, Spark 3.1 currently works with Scala 2.12, which is why I specify that Scala version.

Next, create your application. For a little one-file application like this, you can put the following code in a file named

WordCount.scala in the root directory of your sbt project:

```
import org.apache.spark.sql.SparkSession
import org.apache.spark.rdd.RDD

object WordCount {
    def main(args: Array[String]) {
        val file = "Gettysburg-Address.txt"
        val spark: SparkSession = SparkSession.builder()
            .appName("Word Count")
            .config("spark.master", "local")
            .getOrCreate()

        val fileRdd: RDD[String] = spark.sparkContext.textFile(file)
        val counts = fileRdd.map(_.replaceAll("[^a-zA-Z ]"))
            .map(_.toLowerCase())
            .flatMap(line => line.split(" "))
            .map(word => (word, 1))
            .reduceByKey(_ + _)
            .sortBy(_._2)
            .collect

        println("-----")
        counts.foreach(println)
        println("-----")

        spark.stop()
    }
}
```

```
}
```

The keys to this solution are knowing how to create a `SparkSession` with `SparkSession.builder`, how to configure that session, and how to read a file as an `RDD`. The rest of the application is normal Scala code.

Now build the JAR file for your application:

```
$ sbt package
```

Once that JAR file is created, run it with the `spark-submit` command:

```
$ spark-submit --class WordCount target/scala-2.11/wordcount_2.11.jar
```

You'll see a *lot* of output, and if everything goes well, you'll see the output from the `counts.foreach` statement.

Discussion

For larger real-world applications you'll need to use an sbt plugin like [sbt-assembly](#) to create a single JAR file that contains

all of your application code and dependencies. See [Recipe 17.11](#), [“Deploying a Single Executable JAR File”](#), for a discussion of `sbt-assembly`.

When your application uses different Spark features, you’ll also need to include other Spark dependencies. The latest Spark JAR files, including the Spark machine learning library and Streaming library can be found in [the org.apache.spark Maven listings](#). At the time of this writing, the current dependency URLs look like this:

```
"org.apache.spark" %% "spark-mllib" % "3.1.1" % Provided  
"org.apache.spark" %% "spark-streaming" % "3.1.1" % Provided
```

Also, the `Provided` keyword at the end of those dependencies is the sbt way of stating that they are only needed for tasks like compiling and testing, and that they will be provided by some other means later. In this case the dependencies aren’t needed in production because the Spark runtime environment already includes them.

In the real world you’ll also need to include the `-master` option to specify the master URL for your cluster. In addition to that, there are many other `spark-submit` options that can be

specified. This example command comes from [the Spark “Submitting Applications” page](#), which shows examples of real-world options for `spark-submit`:

```
spark-submit \
    --class org.apache.spark.examples.SparkPi \
    --master mesos://207.184.161.138:7077 \
    --deploy-mode cluster \
    --supervise \
    --executor-memory 20G \
    --total-executor-cores 100 \
    http://path/to/examples.jar \
    1000
```

See Also

- The Spark [“Submitting Applications” page](#) shows how to run applications with `spark-submit`.
- The Spark [“Getting Started” page](#) shows how to create and configure a `SparkSession`.
- Spark is a big topic, and it’s hard to do it justice in one chapter. For much deeper coverage, see *Spark: The Definitive Guide*.

Chapter 21. Scala.js, GraalVM, and jpackage

The [Scala.js project](#) lets you write Scala code as a powerful, type-safe replacement for JavaScript. In short, when you need to write JavaScript, use Scala.js instead, and use sbt and the Scala.js plugin to compile your Scala.js code into JavaScript. Just like `scalac` compiles your code into `.class` files that work with the JVM, the Scala.js plugin compiles your Scala code into JavaScript code that runs in the browser.

The Scala.js website describes Scala.js as “a safer way to build robust front-end web applications.” With benefits like being able to use classes, modules, a strong type system, a huge collection of libraries, and IDE support for easy refactoring, code completion, and much more, Scala.js is a strong alternative to JavaScript and other JavaScript replacements like CoffeeScript, Dart, and TypeScript. Scala.js lets you use the same tools you use for server-side development to write client-side code.

The benefits of Scala.js compared to other browser technologies are summarized in [Figure 21-1](#), which is reproduced here courtesy of the Scala.js website.

This chapter includes three Scala.js recipes to help you get started:

- [Recipe 21.1](#) demonstrates how to get the Scala.js environment up and running.
- With your environment set up, [Recipe 21.2](#) shows how to write Scala/Scala.js code to respond to events like button clicks.
- [Recipe 21.3](#) then shows how to get started writing single-page web applications.

Feature	Javascript ES6	TypeScript	Scala.js
Interoperability			
Fully EcmaScript5 compatible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
No compilation required	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use existing JS libraries	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Language features			
Classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Modules	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support for types	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Strong type system	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Extensive standard libraries	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Optimizing compiler	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Macros, to extend the language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
IDE support			
Catch most errors in IDE	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Easy and reliable refactoring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reliable code completion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Figure 21-1. The advantages of Scala.js (courtesy of scala-js.org)

After that, [Recipe 21.4](#) demonstrates [GraalVM](#) and its `native-image` command. As its name implies, this command lets you turn your Scala application into a native image. By creating a native executable—e.g., an `.exe` file on Microsoft Windows—your application will start up immediately, without the initial lag you feel when a JVM application initially starts.

Finally, a great tool that comes with the Java 14 JDK is the `jpackage` command. It lets you package your JVM applications as native applications for the macOS, Windows, and Linux platforms. `jpackage` works with any language that generates `class` files for the JVM, so [Recipe 21.5](#) shows how to use it to bundle Scala applications as native applications.

21.1 Getting Started with Scala.js

Problem

You want to start using Scala.js and need to know how to install it and create a “Hello, world” example.

Solution

This recipe demonstrates how to get started with Scala.js, and assumes that you are familiar with JavaScript, HTML, and the

Document Object Model (DOM).

Getting started with Scala.js is a multistep process:

1. Handle the prerequisites
2. Create a new sbt project that uses the Scala.js plugin
3. Create a Scala/Scala.js file
4. Compile and run the Scala code

1. Prerequisites

To get started you'll need to have these tools installed on your system:

- [Scala 3](#)
- [sbt \(1.5.0 or newer\)](#)
- [Node.js](#)

On a macOS system, I installed Node.js with the `brew install node` command, but you can also follow that link to install it with the provided installers.

2. Create a new sbt project

Create a new sbt project directory structure, as shown in [Recipe 17.1, “Creating a Project Directory Structure for sbt”](#). Then edit the *build.sbt* file to have these contents:

```
ThisBuild / scalaVersion := "3.0.0"

// enable the plugin that's in 'project/plugins.sbt'
enablePlugins(ScalaJSPlugin)

// this states that this is an application with a main module
scalaJSUseMainModuleInitializer := true

lazy val root = project
  .in(file("."))
  .settings(
    name := "ScalaJS Hello World",
    version := "0.1.0"
  )
```

If you're following along on your computer, I strongly recommend that you use the exact contents that are shown, because they affect the filename that's created when your Scala code is compiled to a JavaScript file.

Finally, add this line to your *project/plugins.sbt* file:

```
addSbtPlugin("org.scala-js" % "sbt-scalajs" % "1.0.0")
```

That line tells sbt how to download the Scala.js library.

3. Create a Scala/Scala.js file

With sbt set up, create a simple Scala “Hello, world” application.

To do this, create a Scala source code file named

src/main/scala/hello/Hello1.scala with these contents:

```
package hello

@main def hello() = println("Hello, world")
```

This code doesn’t do anything specific to Scala.js, but when you compile and run it, you’ll see how the compilation process works with sbt and the Scala.js plugin.

4. Compile and run the Scala code

To run the *Hello1.scala* code, first start the sbt shell:

```
$ sbt
```

Now issue the `run` command inside the sbt shell, where you may see a lot of initial output, eventually finishing with the output from your program:

```
sbt> run
// possibly more output here ...
```

```
[info] compiling 1 Scala source to target/scala-3.0.0/compile/classes  
[info] Fast optimizing target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt.js  
[info] Running hello.hello. Hit any key to interrupt.  
Hello, world
```

As shown, `Hello, world` is printed out after your Scala code is compiled to JavaScript. After that, as noted in [the scala-js.org basic tutorial](#), “this code is actually run by a JavaScript interpreter, namely Node.”

An important thing to notice is that the `sbt run` command creates this directory:

```
target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt
```

A few notes about this directory:

- The directory name is based on the `sbt` project name (“Scala.js Hello World”). This is why I recommended earlier that you use my project name in your `build.sbt` file—so our resulting directory names would be the same.
- The Scala.js file-naming process adds `-fastopt` to the end of that directory name.

- Inside that directory you'll find two files, `main.js` and `main.js.map`.
- If you look at the resulting `target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt/main.js` file with `cat`, `more`, or another tool, you'll see that it contains over two thousand lines of some hard-to-read JavaScript source code.

At the end of that file you'll see a line of code that looks like this:

```
$s_Lhello_hello_main_AT_V(new ($d_T.getArrayO:
```

While it's hard to read, the `hello` and `main` references are an indication that this code results from your Scala `@main` method.

Congratulations, you just compiled your first Scala code to JavaScript.

Discussion

That's a great first step in getting started with Scala.js. Of course, you want to see your code running in a browser, and you can do this with just a few more steps:

5. Update `build.sbt`.

6. Create an HTML file.
7. Update your Scala code.
8. Run the application with `fastLinkJS`.
9. Open the HTML file in a browser.

5. Update build.sbt

For the next step, add this line to the end of your `build.sbt` file:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scala-js" %% "scalajs-dom" % "0.9.3"
```

This lets us use a [Scala.js DOM library](#) in our Scala code, which we'll do in a few moments. Note that this particular DOM library is just one of [many JavaScript facade libraries for Scala.js](#).

If you're still in the sbt shell, reload the configuration files:

```
sbt> reload
```

6. Create hello1.html

Next, create an HTML file named `hello1.html` in the root directory of your sbt project with these contents:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
  <head>
    <meta charset="UTF-8">
    <title>Scala.js Hello, World</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <!-- include the Scala.js compiled code -->
    <script type="text/javascript"
           src=".//target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt.js">
    </script>
  </body>
</html>
```

Notice that the `script` tag includes the `target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt.js` JavaScript file you're going to generate from your Scala code in a few moments. Also notice that this filename is different than the name that was generated by the code in the Solution.

7. Update Hello1.scala

Now update the `Hello1.scala` file to have these contents:

```
package hello

import org.scalajs.dom
```

```
import dom.document

@main def hello1() =
  val parNode = document.createElement("p")
  val textNode = document.createTextNode("Hello world!")
  parNode.appendChild(textNode)
  document.body.appendChild(parNode)
```

In the example shown in the Solution, this file contained plain Scala code, but now it uses the DOM library to create code that looks a lot like JavaScript code. This code creates a paragraph tag, puts some text inside of it, and then adds the paragraph node to the document body.

8. Compile the code with `fastLinkJS`

Next, generate the JavaScript file from your Scala source code file. You do this with the `sbt fastLinkJS` command:

```
sbt> fastLinkJS
```

This command generates the `target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt.js` file that you just included in the HTML file.

SHOWING THE GENERATED FILENAME

To see the filename that's generated by `fastLinkJS`, prepend `show` to the `fastLinkJS` command:

```
sbt> show fastLinkJS  
[info] target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs-hello-world-fastopt.js
```

9. Open hello1.html in a browser

Now open the HTML file in a browser. On macOS you can do this from the command line with this command:

```
$ open hello1.html
```

You can also open the file with a `file:` URL that depends on your project path in the filesystem. It will look something like `file:///Users/al/ScalaJSHelloWorld/hello1.html`.

Assuming that works, you should see the “Hello, world” text in the browser.

Have a little fun

As a bonus, if you want to have a little fun, feel free to experiment with this code. I recommend putting these two lines

of code anywhere inside the `@main` method in the *Hello1.scala* file:

```
println("foo")
System.err.println("bar")
```

After adding those lines, run the `fastLinkJS` command again, reload your web page, and look at your browser *console*, such as with these steps:

- Chrome and Firefox: Right-click → Inspect → Console

In the browser console you should see that *foo* is printed in a normal color and *bar* is printed in red. This can be a simple way to help debug your Scala.js apps.

See Also

- [The Scala.js home page](#).
- This initial recipe is based heavily on the [basic Scala.js tutorial](#).

21.2 Responding to Events with Scala.js

Problem

You want to learn how to respond to events using Scala.js, such as handling a button click.

Solution

In the previous recipe I showed how to set up a Scala.js working environment. This solution builds on that recipe by showing how to respond to the click on an HTML button using Scala/Scala.js code. As with the previous recipe, this recipe assumes that you're familiar with HTML, JavaScript, and the DOM.

This is a multistep solution that builds on the sbt project created in the previous recipe:

1. Create a new HTML page.
2. Make the sbt updates that are needed to use jQuery.
3. Write the new Scala/Scala.js code.
4. Set the `main` class in sbt.
5. Run the code.

These steps are demonstrated in the following sections.

1. Create a new HTML page

Assuming that you're using the sbt project created in [Recipe 21.1](#), the first step is to create a new HTML web page. Name this file *hello2.html*, and place it in the root directory of your project with these contents:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
    <meta charset="UTF-8">
    <title>Scala.js, Hello World 2</title>
</head>
<body>
    <button type="button" id="hello-button">
        Click me!
    </button>

    <!-- the 'jsdeps' file must be first -->
    <script type="text/javascript"
           src=".//target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs2-j
    <script type="text/javascript"

           src=".//target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs2-fa
</body>
</html>
```

The important changes to this file compared to the HTML file in the previous recipe are:

- This page has a `<button>` element.
- This page includes a new file named `scalajs2-jsdeps.js`. As the name jsdeps implies, this file contains dependencies for our code, specifically dependencies that `scalajs2-fastopt.js` relies on. You'll learn more about these dependencies in a few moments.
- The new file our Scala/Scala.js code is generating is named `scalajs2-fastopt.js`. As mentioned in the previous recipe, this name is based on the project name specified in `build.sbt`.

2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery

To update our sbt configuration, first update the `project/plugins.sbt` file so it has these contents:

```
addSbtPlugin("org.scala-js" % "sbt-scalajs" % "1  
  
// for adding webjars  
addSbtPlugin("org.scala-js" % "sbt-javascriptdependencies" % "0.1.0")
```

The first line was used in the previous recipe, and it adds the Scala.js sbt plugin to the project. The last configuration line is new for this recipe, and it's the first step in letting us use the WebJars library in our code. (More on this shortly.)

Next, the easiest way to handle an HTML button click from Scala.js code is to use a Scala.js jQuery facade library along with Scala.js. There are multiple facade libraries available, and to use the library named [jquery-facade](#) in this project, add this line to the `libraryDependencies` in the *build.sbt* file:

```
( "org.querki" %% "jquery-facade" % "2.0" ) .cross
```

(You'll see the complete *build.sbt* file in a few moments.)

The jquery-facade library is written in Scala, and adding that line in the *build.sbt* file adds it as a dependency for this project. An important point about this line is that the

`cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)` setting is the magic incantation that lets you use a Scala 2.13 library in a Scala 3 project.

Next, you also need to include the actual jQuery library—written in JavaScript—in the HTML file. You could just include a line of code like this in the HTML file:

```
<script src="https://ajax.googleapis.com/ajax/libs/jquery/2.2.1/jquery.min.js">
```

But, sbt gives you another way to bring the jQuery JavaScript library into the project. To use the sbt approach, add this line to the *build.sbt* file:

```
jsDependencies += "org.webjars" % "jquery" % "2.2.1" "jquery.min.js"
```

This line lets you use the [WebJars](#) “client-side web libraries as packaged JAR files” in the project. It specifically brings in version 2.2.1 of the [jQuery JavaScript library](#)—the actual JavaScript library, not the Scala facade—and then when you run the `fastLinkJS` command in sbt, that JavaScript code is written to the local `target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs2-jsdeps.js` file. This step isn’t necessary—you can include jQuery using the `<script>` tag as shown previously—but this demonstrates a possible way to add JavaScript libraries/dependencies to Scala.js/sbt projects.

At this point, these two lines in the `hello2.html` file should now make sense:

```
<!-- the 'jsdeps' file must be first -->
<script type="text/javascript"
        src="../target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs2-jsdeps.js">
<script type="text/javascript"
        src="../target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs2-fastopt.js">
```

The first line brings our JavaScript dependencies into our HTML file (jQuery, in this case), and the second line contains the JavaScript that's generated from the custom Scala/Scala.js code you're writing in *src/main/scala/hello/Hello2.scala*.

Finally, because the Scala code you're about to write depends on the jQuery dependency, the jsdeps file needs to be included first in the HTML file.

3. Write the new Scala/Scala.js code

Now that you have the new HTML file and jQuery is ready to be used in the project, the main thing that's left to do is write some Scala/Scala.js code to respond to the `<button>` click. Before doing this, an important point to notice is that the `<button>` in *hello2.html* has an `id` of `hello-button`:

```
<button type="button" id="hello-button">
```

You'll refer to this `id` in the Scala code that follows.

The Scala code to respond to a button click and display a JavaScript window with the jQuery facade library is surprisingly simple. Save this code to a file named `src/main/scala/hello/Hello2.scala`:

```
import org.scalajs.dom
import org.querki.jquery._

@main def hello2 =
  // handle the login button click
  $("#hello-button").click{ () =>
    dom.window.alert("Hello, world")
}
```

If you've used jQuery before, this code will look familiar. It can be read as, "Find the HTML element with the `id` value `hello-button`, and when it's clicked, run this little algorithm to display a JavaScript alert window with the text `Hello, world`." It's nice that you can use the `$` symbol in your Scala code, because that's consistent with using jQuery in JavaScript.

4. Set the main class in sbt

Before running this example, you need to do one more thing: update the `build.sbt` file to account for the fact that there are now two `main` methods in the project—one in `Hello1.scala` from [Recipe 21.1](#) and a new one in `Hello2.scala`. To do this, add this line to the `build.sbt` file, just below the

```
scalaJSUseMainModuleInitializer setting:
```

```
Compile/mainClass := Some("hello.Hello2")
```

With all the changes in this recipe, your complete `build.sbt` file should now have these contents:

```
ThisBuild / scalaVersion := "3.0.0"

// enable the plugin that's in 'project/plugins.s
enablePlugins(ScalaJSPlugin)

// this states that this is an application with a
scalaJSUseMainModuleInitializer := true
Compile/mainClass := Some("hello.Hello2")

lazy val root = project
  .in(file("."))
  .settings(
    name := "ScalaJs2",
    version := "0.1",
    libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
```

```

libraryDependencies ++= Seq(
  ("org.scala-js" %% "scalajs-dom" % "1.0.0"
    .cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13),
  ("org.querki" %% "jquery-facade" % "2.1.4"
    .cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)
  ),
)

// this includes jquery with webjars.
// see: https://github.com/scala-js/jsdependencies
enablePlugins(JSDependenciesPlugin)

jsDependencies += "org.webjars" % "jquery" % "2.1.4"
  minified "jquery.min.js"

```

Other notes about this file:

- The `enablePlugins(ScalaJSPlugin)` line is part of the recipe to use Scala.js in an sbt project.
- The `scalaJSUseMainModuleInitializer` says that this is an application with a `main` method.
- The `Compile/mainClass` setting declares that the `main` method for the build is `hello.Hello2` (a `Hello2` main method in the `hello` package).
- I changed the project name to `"ScalaJs2"`.

- When you include dependencies compiled for Scala.js, use `%%` to reference them (instead of `%` for regular Scala dependencies).

Lastly, the `cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)` syntax lets you use Scala 2.13 dependencies in a Scala 3 project. If the two `libraryDependencies` entries were Scala 3 libraries, you'd refer to them like this:

```
// if this was a Scala 3 library
libraryDependencies += "org.scala-js" %% "scalajs-dom" % "1.1.0"
```

But when you need to use a Scala 2.13 library in a Scala 3 project, you use this syntax instead:

```
// using a Scala 2.13 library in a Scala 3 build
("org.scala-js" %% "scalajs-dom" % "1.1.0").cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)
```

5. Run the code

Now you're ready to run this example. Assuming that you're still in the sbt console, run the `reload` command to read in the configuration file changes:

```
sbt> reload
```

After that, run the `fastLinkJS` command to compile the *Hello2.scala* code to JavaScript:

```
sbt> fastLinkJS
```

Now open the *hello2.html* file in your browser. On macOS you can do this with the `open` command at the Terminal command line:

```
$ open hello2.html
```

You can also open the file with a file URL that depends on your project path in the filesystem. It will look something like `file:///Users/al/ScalaJSHelloWorld/hello2.html`.

When the file opens in your browser you should see a “Click me” button like the one shown in [Figure 21-2](#).



Figure 21-2. The “Hello, world” button in the HTML page

When you click that button you should then see an alert dialog like the one shown in [Figure 21-3](#).

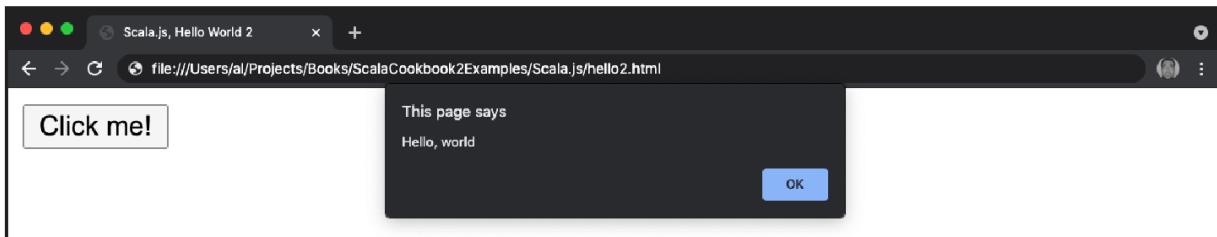


Figure 21-3. The JavaScript alert window that's displayed when the button is clicked

Assuming that everything worked, congratulations—you've just written some Scala.js code to respond to an HTML button click, thanks to Scala, sbt, Scala.js, jQuery, and the jQuery facade library (and the Scala.JS DOM library, Node.js, etc.).

Discussion

It's worth noting again that when you add dependencies that are built for Scala.js to the *build.sbt* file, you use three percent symbols:

```
( "org.querki" %% "jquery-facade" % "2.0" ) .cross
```

```
---
```

The way this works is that you use `%%` to include libraries that are compiled for Scala, but if a library has been compiled for Scala.js, you use `%%%`. As it's explained in "[Simple Command Line Tools with Scala Native](#)", just as two percent symbols tell sbt to use the right version of a dependency and three percent symbols tell sbt to use the correct target environment, currently either Scala Native, or in this case, Scala.js.

Continuously compile with fastLinkJS

In the Solution I show the `fastLinkJS` command in the sbt shell, but as you're developing code in the real world, a better solution is to run it like this:

```
sbt> ~ fastLinkJS
```

Just like continuously compiling your code with `~compile` or testing it with `~test`, this command tells sbt to watch the files in your project and rerun the `fastLinkJS` command any time a source code file changes. When you first issue this command you should see some output like this:

```
sbt:ScalaJs2> ~ fastLinkJS
[success] Total time: 0 s, completed Apr 30, 2021
[info] 1. Monitoring source files
[info]     Press <enter> to interrupt or ? for mo...
```

Then when you make a change to your code, you'll see this output get updated. As a developer this is great, because all you need to do now is refresh your page in the browser when you make code changes.

See Also

- [The jquery-facade library](#).
- You can find a list of other facades on [the Scala.js JavaScript library facades page](#).
- [The WebJars project](#).

21.3 Building Single-Page Applications with Scala.js

Problem

You want to learn how to build single-page web applications with Scala.js.

Solution

This solution demonstrates how to start building single-page applications (SPA) with Scala.js. In the previous two recipes I showed how to set up a Scala.js working environment, and this recipe builds on the sbt project created in those two recipes. As with the previous projects, this recipe assumes that you're familiar with HTML, JavaScript, and the DOM.

The steps in this recipe are:

1. Update *build.sbt*.
2. Create a new HTML file.
3. Create a new Scala/Scala.js file.
4. Run the code.

These steps are demonstrated in the following sections.

1. Update build.sbt

This recipe uses [the Scalatags library](#), so the first step is to add it as a dependency to your *build.sbt* file. If this was a Scala 3 library you'd use this entry:

```
libraryDependencies += "com.lihaoyi" %% "scalatags" % "0.9.3"
```

But because it's a Scala 2.13 library, and you're using it in a Scala 3 project, you use this syntax instead:

```
("com.lihaoyi" %% "scalatags" % "0.9.4").cross(
```

Also, because you'll be creating a new *Hello3.scala* file for this recipe, change the `mainClass` setting in *build.sbt* to reference that file (which you'll create shortly):

```
Compile/mainClass := Some("hello.Hello3")
```

With the changes to the *build.sbt* file made in this recipe and the previous two recipes, your *build.sbt* file should look like this:

```
ThisBuild / scalaVersion := "3.0.0"

// enable the plugin that's in 'project/plugins.s
enablePlugins(ScalaJSPlugin)

// this states that this is an application with a
scalaJSUseMainModuleInitializer := true
Compile/mainClass := Some("hello.Hello3")

lazy val root = project
  .in(file("."))
  .settings(
```

```
-----  
      name := "ScalaJs3",  
      version := "0.1",  
      libraryDependencies ++= Seq(  
        ("org.scala-js" %% "scalajs-dom" % "1  
          .cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13),  
        ("org.querki" %% "jquery-facade" % "2  
          .cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13),  
        ("com.lihaoyi" %% "scalatags" % "0.9..  
          .cross(CrossVersion.for3Use2_13)  
    ),  
  )  
  
  enablePlugins(JSDependenciesPlugin)  
  jsDependencies += "org.webjars" % "jquery" % "  
    jquery.min.js"
```

The jQuery dependencies aren't necessary for this tutorial, but I added them during the last tutorial, and you'll generally want them if you decide to build your own SPAs using Scala.js. (Also, if you're not going to use jQuery, then it's not necessary to import the `jsdeps` JavaScript file into your HTML page.)

2. Create a new HTML file

Next, create a `hello3.html` file in the project's root directory with these contents:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>

<head>
    <meta charset="UTF-8">
    <title>Scala.js-Hello, world, Part 3</title>
</head>

<body>
    <div id="root"></div>

    <!-- "jsdeps" must be listed first -->
    <script type="text/javascript"
        src=".//target/scala-3.0.0/scala-js-hel
    <script type="text/javascript"
        src=".//target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs3-fa
</body>
</html>
```

The big change from *hello2.html* in the last recipe to *hello3.html* is the removal of the HTML button and the addition of this code:

```
<div id="root"></div>
```

You'll use this `root` id in the Scala code we'll create next. Also, if you're new to SPAs, notice how little HTML is in this "HTML" file(!).

3. Create Hello3.scala

Next, create a Scala source code file named `Hello3.scala` in the `src/main/scala/hello` directory with these contents:

```
package hello

import org.scalajs.dom
import dom.document
import scalatags.JsDom.all._

@main def hello3 =
    // create an html button with scalatags
    val btn = button(
        "Click me",
        onclick := { () =>
            dom.window.alert("Hello, world")
        }
    )
    // this is intentional overkill to demonstrate
    // the most important thing is that the button
```

```
val content =  
    div(id := "foo",  
        div(id := "bar",  
            h2("Hello"),  
            btn  
        )  
    )  
  
val root = dom.document.getElementById("root")  
root.innerHTML = ""  
root.appendChild(content.render)
```

Here's a quick description of this code. First, I create a Scalatags `button`. The button label is `"Click me"`, and when it's clicked I show a JavaScript alert window, similar to what I did in the previous recipe:

```
val btn = button(  
    "Click me",  
    onclick := { () =>  
        dom.window.alert("Hello, world")  
    }  
)
```

Next, just to demonstrate how Scalatags works, I create a `div` with the class name `foo`, then put another `div` inside it with

the class name `bar`, then put an `h2` element and the button inside those two divs. The most important thing to notice is that this is where the button object `btn` is added to the DOM:

```
val content =  
  div(id := "foo",  
    div(id := "bar",  
      h2("Hello"),  
      btn  
    )  
  )
```

The extra `div` tags aren't necessary—I just added them to demonstrate how Scalatags works. One thing I like about Scalatags is how this Scala code corresponds so well to the HTML code it's going to emit. Another great thing is that Scalatags is supported by your IDE, so the code-completion feature of your IDE is a great help in figuring out how to use Scalatags features.

Finally, I connect my Scala code to the `root` element of my HTML web page with this code:

```
val root = dom.documentElement.getElementById("root")  
root.innerHTML = ""  
root.appendChild(content.render)
```

If you're familiar with working with the DOM when writing JavaScript, this code should look familiar. One important note is that you need to remember to call the `render` method on your Scalatags code to make this work:

```
root.appendChild(content.render)
```

In my code I tend to forget that part, so it's worth mentioning it.

4. Run the code

With everything in place you can now compile this Scala code to JavaScript. Go back to the sbt console, and assuming that it's still running the `~fastLinkJS` command from the last recipe, hit the Enter key to stop it. Then issue the `reload` command to bring in the *build.sbt* changes:

```
sbt> reload
```

Then restart `~fastLinkJS`:

```
sbt> ~fastLinkJS
```

SHOWING THE FILES GENERATED BY FASTLINKJS

If you need to know what files are generated when you run `fastLinkJS`, run the command as `show fastLinkJS` instead. It shows the names of any files that are generated:

```
sbt:ScalaJs3> show fastLinkJS  
[info] Attributed(target/scala-3.0.0/scalajs3-fastojs.js)
```

Now open the `hello3.html` file in your browser. On macOS you can do this with the `open` command:

```
$ open hello3.html
```

Otherwise, the URL for your file will be something like `file:///Users/al/ScalaJSHelloWorld/hello3.html`.

When you open this file you should see the result shown in [Figure 21-4](#) in your browser.



Figure 21-4. The “Click me” button in the HTML page

Now click the “Click me” button, and you should see the result shown in [Figure 21-5](#).

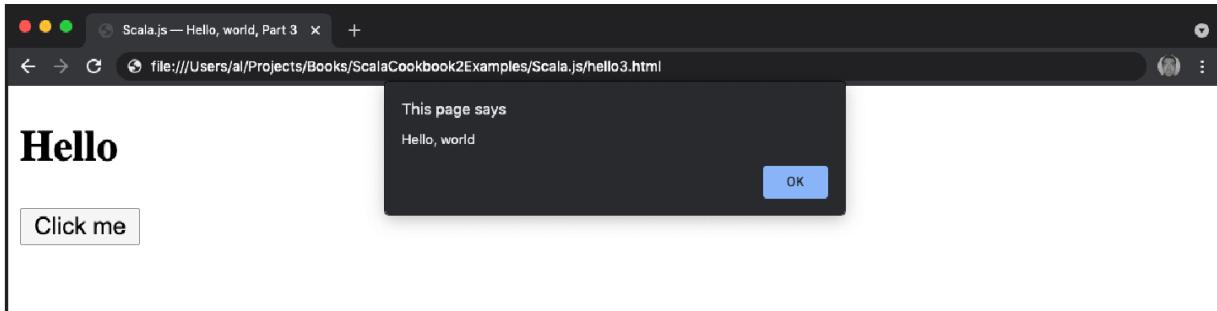


Figure 21-5. The JavaScript alert window that's displayed when the button is clicked

If you followed along, congratulations, you just created a single-page web application with Scala.js!

Discussion

If you've created SPAs before, hopefully you can see the potential of this approach: it lets you create single-page web apps using the power of the Scala programming language.

The next step in the process of writing SPAs is to handle HTTP requests. [This scala-js.org page](#) shows that creating and using an `XMLHttpRequest` is almost identical in JavaScript ES6 and Scala.js.

[The scala-js-dom website](#) shows how similar (and easy) it is to use an `XMLHttpRequest` in Scala.js:

```
def main(pre: html.Pre) = {
    val xhr = new dom.XMLHttpRequest()
    xhr.open(
        "GET",
        "http://api.openweathermap.org/data/2.5/onecall?lat=40&lon=-3&exclude=minutely,hourly&appid=12345678901234567890123456789012"
    )
    xhr.onload = { (e: dom.Event) =>
        if (xhr.status == 200) {
            pre.textContent = xhr.responseText
        }
    }
    xhr.send()
}
```

That page also shows how to use a WebSocket and how to use the `dom.ext.Ajax` object's `get` and `post` methods as a simpler alternative to `XmlHttpRequests`.

See Also

For more information on creating SPAs with Scala.js, see these resources:

- [The Scala.js website.](#)
- [The Scalatags library.](#)

- This [Scala.js for JavaScript developers page](#) provides an introduction to using XMLHttpRequest.
- If you want to try writing a Scala.js WebSocket application, I created this [Play Framework and WebSocket example](#) that includes some JavaScript code that can be converted to Scala.js.

21.4 Building Native Executables with GraalVM

Problem

You want to build a native executable from your Scala code, so your application will start up faster and potentially run faster and consume less memory.

Solution

Build a standalone JAR file as usual, such as with `sbt package` or `sbt assembly`, and then use the [GraalVM sbt-native-image plugin](#) to build your native image—a native binary executable for your operating system platform.

For example, I created a little command-line Scala application named `sbtmkdirs` to generate new sbt project directory structures. To make `sbtmkdirs` start almost instantly, I compile it to a native executable with the sbt-native-image plugin. The steps are:

1. Configure your sbt project to use the sbt-native-image plugin.
2. Create the native executable with the sbt `nativeImage` command (which is available via the plugin).

1. Configure your sbt project

At the time of this writing, the sbt-native-image plugin is at version 0.3.0, and the configuration steps are as follows. First, create an sbt project as described in [Recipe 17.1, “Creating a Project Directory Structure for sbt”](#). Then add this line to your `project/plugins.sbt` file:

```
addSbtPlugin("org.scalameta" % "sbt-native-image"
```

Next, update your `build.sbt` file to look like this:

```
lazy val root = (project in file("."))  
  .enablePlugins(NativeImagePlugin)  
  .settings(...)
```

```
.settings(  
    name := "Sbtmkdirs",  
    version := "0.2",  
    scalaVersion := "3.0.0",  
    Compile / mainClass := Some("sbtmkdirs.Sbtmkdirs")
```

Then change the `name`, `version`, `scalaVersion`, and `mainClass` values as needed for your project.

For this recipe, the key lines in that file are:

- The `enablePlugins` line tells sbt to use the plugin.
- The `mainClass` line tells sbt that my `@main` application is named `Sbtmkdirs`, and it's in the `sbtmkdirs` package.

The other lines are commonly used in a standard sbt *build.sbt* file.

2. Create the native executable

Given that setup, just run the `nativeImage` command inside the sbt shell, or at your operating system command line:

```
$ sbt nativeImage
```

This command compiles your code and builds the native image. The first time it runs, it may need to download many artifacts, including GraalVM and its `native-image` command. Once it finishes you should see a result like this:

```
[info] Native image ready!
[info] target/native-image/Sbtmkdirs
[success] Total time: 42 s
```

Now you can test the native image by moving into the `target/native-image` directory and running your new command:

```
$ cd target/native-image
$ ./Sbtmkdirs
```

You can also use this plugin command to generate the native image and run it as soon as it's built:

```
$ sbt nativeImageRun
```

Discussion

Per the [native-image documentation](#):

GraalVM Native Image allows you to ahead-of-time compile Java code to a standalone executable, called a native image. This executable includes the application classes, classes from its dependencies, runtime library classes from JDK and statically linked native code from JDK. It does not run on the Java VM, but includes necessary components like memory management and thread scheduling from a different virtual machine, called ‘Substrate VM.’ The resulting program has faster startup time and lower runtime memory overhead compared to a Java VM.

Note that some other features, such as using Java’s `java.net` network libraries, require the use of command-line flags to work:

```
--enable-http      enable http support in the generated native image  
--enable-https    enable https support in the generated native image
```

Running native-image separately

You can also run the `native-image` command yourself, but this requires quite a bit more work. If you’re interested in trying this, the first step is to download and install GraalVM, and use it as your Java library. Set your `JAVA_HOME` and `PATH` on Unix systems like this:

```
$ export JAVA_HOME=~/bin/graalvm-ce-java11-21.1.0
$ export PATH=~/bin/graalvm-ce-java11-21.1.0/Cont
```

Then you need to install the GraalVM `native-image` command separately, as described on [this GraalVM page](#).

You'll also need to have Scala installed, as usual. After that, create a shell script like this one that I used with Scala 2.13:

```
# SCALA_HOME needs to be set
export SCALA_HOME=~/bin/scala-2.13.3

# this script assumes that this file was already
# in this directory with `sbt package` or `sbt as
JAR_FILE=sbtmkdirs_2.13-0.2.jar
JAR_DIR=../target/scala-2.13

echo "deleting old JAR file ..."
rm $JAR_FILE 2> /dev/null

echo "copying JAR file to current dir ..."
cp ${JAR_DIR}/${JAR_FILE} .

echo "running 'native-image' command on ${JAR_FI
# create a native image from the jar file and name
# the resulting executable 'sbtmkdirs'
native-image -cp .:${SCALA_HOME}/lib/scala-libra
```

```
--no-server \
--no-fallback \
--initialize-at-build-time \
-jar ${JAR_FILE} sbtmkdirs
```

That script assumes that your JAR file has the name shown and is in the target directory shown. It uses that JAR file as input to create the native image.

See Also

- At the time of this writing, GraalVM native-image features are still changing rapidly. See [the GraalVM Native Image documentation](#) for the most up-to-date information.

21.5 Bundling Your Application with jpackage

Problem

You want to package a Scala application to make it look and feel like a native application, such as creating an “.app” distribution that works as a native macOS application (“App”).

Solution

Build your Scala application as desired, typically using sbt-assembly or a similar tool to create one JAR file. Then use the `jpackage` utility that comes with JDK 14 and newer releases to package your application for the macOS, Linux, or Windows platforms.

For example, imagine that you've created this Scala/Swing text editor application and want to bundle it as a macOS App:

```
package com.alvinalexander.myapp

import java.awt.{BorderLayout, Dimension}
import javax.swing.*

@main def mySwingApp =
    val frame = JFrame("My App")
    val textArea = JTextArea("Hello, Scala 3 world!")
    val scrollPane = JScrollPane(textArea)
    SwingUtilities.invokeLater(new Runnable {
        def run =
            frame.getContentPane.add(scrollPane,
                frame.setSize(Dimension(400, 300)))
            frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null)
            frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(WindowConstants.EXIT_ON_CLOSE)
            frame.setVisible(true)
    })
}
```

```
} )
```

The first thing you'll want to do is package your application as a single JAR file, using the sbt-assembly techniques shown in [Recipe 17.11, “Deploying a Single Executable JAR File”](#). At the time of this writing, configuring sbt-assembly only requires adding this line to a *project/plugins.sbt* configuration file in your sbt build:

```
// note: the version number changes several times:  
addSbtPlugin("com.eed3si9n" % "sbt-assembly" % "(
```

After that, create the output JAR file using the `assembly` command at the sbt shell prompt:

```
sbt:MySwingApp> assembly
```

Because I can never remember where `assembly` writes its output file, I usually use this command instead:

```
sbt:MySwingApp> show assembly  
[info] target/scala-3.0.0-RC1/MySwingApp-assembly
```

As shown, the output of that command prints the location where the output JAR file is written.

Now that I have a single JAR file, the next step is to create a subdirectory where I build the App, so I create a subdirectory named *jpackage* and move into that directory:

```
$ mkdir jpackage  
$ cd jpackage
```

Inside that directory I create two subdirectories named *Input* and *Output*:

```
$ mkdir Input  
$ mkdir Output
```

The *Input* directory is where I put resources that are used to build the App, and the *Output* directory is where the resulting App will be built.

Now I create a shell script to build the App. I'll name this file *BuildApp.sh*:

```
# this requires JDK 14+  
# the jar file must be built with sbt-assembly or
```

```
JAR_FILE=MySwingApp-assembly-0.1.0.jar
MAIN_CLASS=com.alvinalexander.myapp.mySwingApp

APP_NAME=MyApp
TARGET_DIR=../target/scala-3.0.0-RC1

rm Input/${JAR_FILE}           2> /dev/null
rm -rf Output/${APP_NAME}.app  2> /dev/null

# get the latest sbt-assembly jar file
cp ${TARGET_DIR}/${JAR_FILE} Input

# creates Output/MyApp.app (a MacOS app)
echo "Creating a macOS app with jpackage ..."
jpackage \
  --name $APP_NAME \
  --type app-image \
  --input Input \
  --dest Output \
  --main-jar ${JAR_FILE} \
  --main-class ${MAIN_CLASS}

# optional: specify an app icon
# --icon Input/MyApp.icns \

echo "Created Output/MyApp.app (hopefully)"
```

That script:

- Deletes old artifacts in the *Input* and *Output* directories
- Copies the latest sbt-assembly JAR file into the *Input* directory
- Runs the `jpackage` command to create a macOS App

If you're not familiar with what a macOS App is, it's just a collection of files and directories underneath a directory whose name ends with the `.app` extension. The files and directory under `.app` must be in a proper format and include certain configuration files, and `jpackage` does that work for you.

Next, I make that script executable and then run it:

```
$ chmod +x BuildApp.sh
$ ./BuildApp.sh
Creating a macOS app with jpackage ...
Created Output/MyApp.app (hopefully)
```

The script doesn't account for errors, but assuming that everything works, it creates a macOS App named `MyApp.app` under the *Output* directory. On a macOS system you can run your App with the `open` command:

```
$ open Output/MyApp.app
```

Assuming that everything works, that opens the Scala/Swing text editor application, as shown in [Figure 21-6](#).

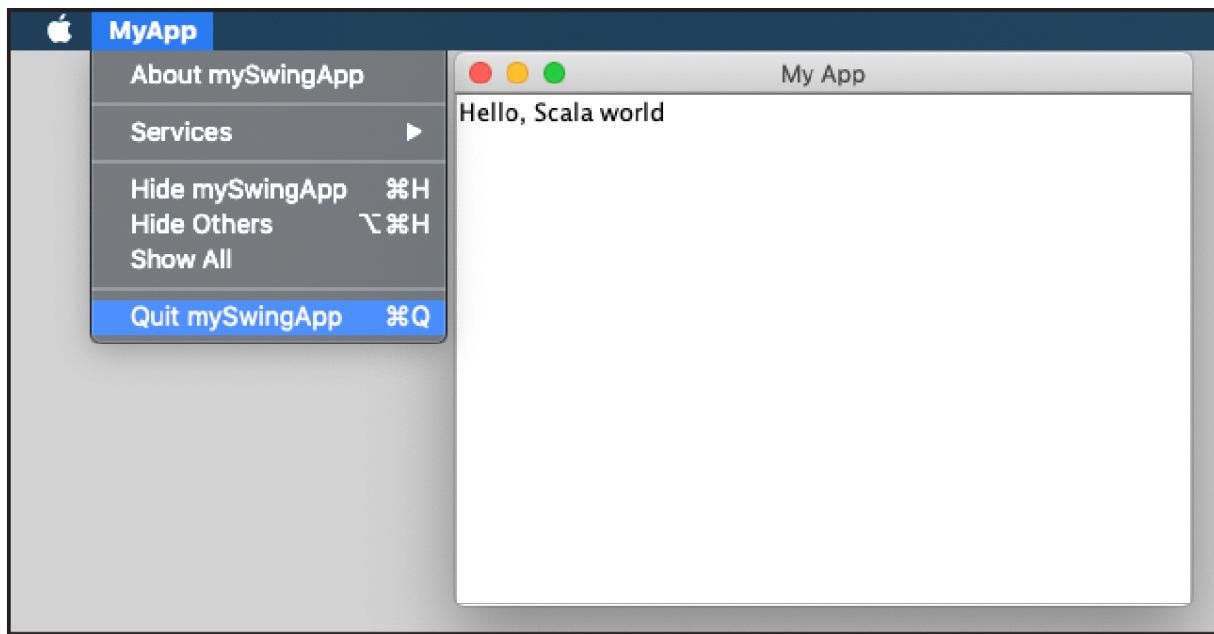


Figure 21-6. The Scala/Swing application, shown next to its macOS menu

Discussion

In the example I use this `jpackage` argument to build a macOS App:

```
--type app-image
```

In addition to specifying `app-image` for the type, the `jpackage` help text shows that you can also build other types

of packages:

```
--type -t <type>
The type of package to create
Valid values are: {"app-image", "dmg", "pkg"}
If this option is not specified a platform dependent
default type will be created.
```

"dmg" and "pkg" represent two types of installers for the macOS platform. `jpackage` can also create packages on Linux and Windows systems.

The solution shows only a minimum set of `jpackage` options. This example shows the options I use to build a real-world Scala/JavaFX application for macOS:

```
APP_DIR_NAME=CliffsNotesFx.app
APP_NAME=CliffsNotesFx
APP_MAIN=com.alvinalexander.cliffsnotes.CliffsNotesFx
INPUT_JAR_FILE=${ASSEMBLY_JAR_FILENAME}
ICON_FILE=AlsNotes.icns

jpackage \
--type app-image \
--verbose \
--input input \
```

```
  --input $INPUT_JAR_FILE \
  --dest release \
  --name $APP_NAME \
  --main-jar $INPUT_JAR_FILE \
  --main-class $APP_MAIN \
  --icon $ICON_FILE \
  --module-path ~/bin/adopt@1.14.0-1/Contents/Modules \
  --add-modules java.base,javafx.controls,javafx.fxml \
  --mac-package-name $APP_NAME \
  --mac-package-identifier $APP_MAIN \
  --app-version 1.1 \
  --description "A CliffsNotes browser" \
  --vendor "Alvin J. Alexander" \
  --java-options -Dapple.laf.useScreenMenuBar=true \
  --java-options '--add-opens javafx.base/com.sun.javafx.scene.control.skin=ALL-TRANSITIVE' \
  --java-options -Xmx2048m
```

If you want to distribute your application on the Apple App Store, you'll also need to sign your App. The `jpackage` command includes these options for that process:

```
--mac-sign
--mac-signing-keychain <file path>
--mac-signing-key-user-name <team name>
```

What `jpackage` creates

As mentioned, the `jpackage` command does a lot of work for you when creating a macOS App. To help demonstrate what it does, here's the pruned output of the `tree` command on the `MyApp.app` directory:

```
$ tree MyApp.app
MyApp.app
└── Contents
    ├── Info.plist
    ├── MacOS
    │   └── MyApp
    │       └── libapplauncher.dylib
    ├── PkgInfo
    ├── Resources
    │   └── MyApp.icns
    ├── app
    │   ├── MyApp.cfg
    │   ├── MyApp.icns
    │   └── MySwingApp-assembly-0.1.0.jar
    └── runtime
        └── Contents
            ┌── a copy of the JVM is under here
            └── ...
82 directories
```

Notice that your JAR file is copied into this directory structure. I also used an icon file named *MyApp.icns* for my build, and notice that it's copied under *MyApp.app* as well. A copy of the JVM is also added here, so users of your app won't need to have Java installed on their system. The JVM is started with the launcher that's provided by `jpackage`.

See Also

- “[Packaging Tool User’s Guide](#)” is Oracle’s documentation for packaging applications.
- [The `jpackage` command help page](#) shows all the options that are available.

Chapter 22. Integrating Scala with Java

This book was completed in 2021, so this chapter focuses on the integration of Scala 3 and Java 11, which is Oracle's current Long-Term-Support release. This is important to mention because there are currently two major Java version releases planned for every year.

In general, the ability to mix Scala and Java code is pretty seamless. In most cases, you can create an sbt project, put your Scala code in *src/main/scala*, put your Java code in *src/main/java*, and it just works.

The recipes in this chapter cover issues with converters, traits and interfaces, exceptions, the conversion of numeric types, and more.

In my Scala/Java interactions, the biggest issues I've run into deal with the differences between their collections libraries. However, I've always been able to work through those problems with Scala's `CollectionConverters` objects. Starting with Scala 2.13, there are now two `CollectionConverters` objects:

- Extension methods for use in Scala code are in
`scala.jdk.CollectionConverters`
- Conversion methods for your Java code are in
`scala.jdk.javaapi.CollectionConverters`

Similarly, conversion methods between Scala's `Option` and Java's `Optional` are handled by these conversion objects:

- Extension methods for Scala are in
`scala.jdk.OptionConverters`
- Conversion methods for Java are in
`scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters`

These conversion methods are shown in this chapter's initial recipes.

After the conversion recipes, Recipes [22.5](#) and [22.6](#) dig into the relationship between Scala traits and Java interfaces. Thanks to the features of interfaces in Java 8 and newer, traits and interfaces are more closely aligned than they were in the first edition of the *Scala Cookbook*.

Other integration points between Scala and Java require the use of annotations, and these are covered in the recipes on exceptions (`@throws`), varargs parameters (`@varargs`), and serialization (`@SerialVersionUID`).

Finally, if you're familiar with Java but new to Scala, it's important to mention that everything in Scala is an object. Specifically this means that Scala doesn't have primitive numeric data types. This is shown in [Figure 22-1](#), where I type the number `1` into the Scala REPL, followed by a decimal and then the Tab key, and the REPL shows all the methods that are available on an `Int` instance.



The screenshot shows a Mac OS X window titled "SCALA 3". Inside, the Scala REPL is running. The user has typed `1.` and then pressed the Tab key to see a list of methods. The list includes standard arithmetic operators like `!=`, `==`, `>=`, etc., as well as various conversion and utility methods for integers like `floatValue`, `isValidChar`, `shortValue`, `toOctalString`, etc.

```
/Users/al> scala
scala> 1.
!=      >=
#>      >>
%>      >>>
&      ^
*      abs
+      asInstanceOf
-      byteValue
->      ceil
/      compare
<      compareTo
<<      doubleValue
<=      ensuring
==      eq
>      equals
      floatValue
      floor
      formatted
      getClass
      hashCode
      intValue
      isFinite
      isInfinite
      isInfinity
      isInstanceOf
      isNaN
      isNegInfinity
      isPosInfinity
      isValidByte
      isValidChar
      isValidInt
      isValidLong
      isValidShort
      isWhole
      longValue
      max
      min
      ne
      nn
      notify
      notifyAll
      round
      self
      sign
      signum
      synchronized
      to
      toBinaryString
      toByte
      toChar
      toDegrees
      toDouble
      toFloat
      toHexString
      toInt
      toLong
```

Figure 22-1. In Scala everything is an object, even an integer

22.1 Using Java Collections in Scala

Problem

You're using Java classes in a Scala application, and those classes either return Java collections or require Java collections

in their method calls, and you need to integrate those with your use of Scala collections.

Solution

Use the extension methods of the

`scala.jdk.CollectionConverters` object in your Scala code to make the conversions work. For example, if you have a method named `getNumbers` in a public Java class named `JavaCollections`:

```
// java
public static List<Integer> getNumbers() {
    return new ArrayList<Integer>(List.of(1, 2, 3))
}
```

you can convert that Java list to a Scala `Seq` in your Scala code like this:

```
// scala
import scala.jdk.CollectionConverters./*
import java.util.List

def testList =
    println("Using a Java List in Scala")
    val ilist: java.util.List[Int] = JavaCol
```

```
// jlist.getClass is "class java.util.ArrayList<java.lang.Integer>"  
  
// note that this is `Seq[Integer]` and not  
val slist: Seq[Integer] = jlist.asScala.toSeq  
slist.foreach(println)
```

Similarly, if you have a Java method that returns a `Map`:

```
// java  
public static Map<String, String> getPeeps() {  
    return new HashMap<String, String>(Map.of(  
        "Captain", "Kirk",  
        "Mr.", "Spock"  
    ));  
}
```

you can convert that to a Scala `Map` like this:

```
// scala  
import scala.jdk.CollectionConverters.*  
import java.util.{Map => JavaMap}  
import scala.collection.mutable.{Map => ScalaMap}  
  
@main def testMap =  
    println("use a Java Map in Scala")  
    val jmap: JavaMap[String, String] = JavaCollec
```

```
val smap: ScalaMap[String, String] = jmap.asScala
for (k, v) <- smap do println(s"key: '$k', val
```

Similarly, this example shows how to convert a Java Properties object to a Scala Map:

```
// [1] create and populate a Java Properties object
val javaProps = new java.util.Properties
javaProps.put("first_name", "Charles")
javaProps.put("last_name", "Carmichael")

// [2] convert Java Properties to Scala Map
import scala.jdk.CollectionConverters./*
val scalaProps = javaProps.asScala
println(scalaProps)
```

The `println` statement in that code prints output like this:

```
Map(last_name -> Carmichael, first_name -> Charles)
```

Discussion

This recipe shows how to perform collection conversions in Scala. To perform conversions in your Java code, see the next

recipe.

Type conversions

The first example in the Solution shows how to create a Scala

`Seq[Integer]` from a Java `java.util.List<Integer>`:

```
val slist: Seq[Integer] = jlist.asScala.toSeq
```

Assuming that you really want a `Seq[Int]` —and not `Seq[Integer]` —you'll need to add an `Integer`-to-`Int` conversion process to your code:

```
def integer2Int(i: Integer): Int = i

val jlist2: java.util.List[Integer] = MyJavaClass...
val slist2: Seq[Int] = jlist2.asScala.map(i => i
```

That code does the following:

- Creates `jlist2` as a `java.util.List[Integer]`
- Converts that code to a Scala `Buffer[Integer]` using `asScala`
- Converts that `Buffer[Integer]` to a `Buffer[Int]` with the `map` method and `integer2Int` function

- Creates the final `Seq[Int]` with the `toSeq` call

Conversion methods

Code like this works because of conversion methods in the `CollectionConverters` object. [Table 22-1](#) shows the two-way conversions that are possible using the `asScala` and `asJava` methods.

Table 22-1. The two-way conversions provided by the `scala.jdk.CollectionConve`

Scala collection	Java collection
<code>scala.collection.Iterable</code>	<code>java.lang.Iterable</code>
<code>scala.collection.Iterator</code>	<code>java.util.Iterator</code>
<code>scala.collection.mutable.Buffer</code>	<code>java.util.List</code>
<code>scala.collection.mutable.Set</code>	<code>java.util.Set</code>
<code>scala.collection.mutable.Map</code>	<code>java.util.Map</code>

`scala.collection.concurrent.Map`

`java.util.conc`

For example, you can convert a Scala `Buffer` to a Java `List` using `asJava`, and perform the opposite conversion using `asScala`.

[Table 22-2](#) shows additional two-way conversions. The conversions to Scala are supported with `asScala`, and the specially named extension methods let you convert the Scala collections to Java collections.

Table 22-2. Additional two-way conversions, including specially named methods

Scala collection

Java collection

`scala.collection.Iterable`

`java.util.Collect`
(via `asJavaCollecti`)

`scala.collection.Iterator`

`java.util.Enumera`
(via `asJavaEnumerat`)

`scala.collection.mutable.Map`

`java.util.Diction`

Scala collection

via `asJava`

Table 22-3 lists one-way conversions that are possible with `asJava`.

Table 22-3. One-way conversions (Scala to Java) that are provided by the `CollectionConverters` class

Scala collection

Java collection

`scala.collection.Seq`

`java.util.List`

`scala.collection.mutable.Seq`

`java.util.List`

`scala.collection.Set`

`java.util.Set`

`scala.collection.Map`

`java.util.Map`

Table 22-4 lists one-way conversions that are possible with `asScala`.

Table 22-4. One-way conversions that are provided with `asScala`

Scala collection

Java collection

`java.util.Properties`

`scala.collection.mutable.`

See Also

- `scala.jdk.CollectionConverters` for converting from Java to Scala
- `scala.javaapi.CollectionConverters` for converting from Scala to Java
- `scala.jdk.javaapi.StreamConverters` for creating Java streams that work with Scala collections

22.2 Using Scala Collections in Java

Problem

You need to access Scala collections classes in a Java application, converting those Scala classes into Java classes.

Solution

In your Java code, use the methods of Scala's `scala.javaapi.CollectionConverters` object to make the conversions work. For example, if you have a `List[String]` like this in a Scala class:

```
// scala  
class ScalaClass:  
    val strings = List("a", "b")
```

you can access that Scala `List` in your Java code like this:

```
// java  
import scala.jdk.javaapi.CollectionConverters;  
  
ScalaClass sc = new ScalaClass();  
  
// access the `strings` field as `sc.strings()`  
scala.collection.immutable.List<String> xs = sc.s  
  
// create a Java List<String>  
java.util.List<String> listOfStrings = CollectionC
```

A few points to notice about that code:

- In your Java code you create an instance of `ScalaClass` just like an instance of a Java class.
- `ScalaClass` has a field named `strings`, but from Java you access that field as a method, for example, as `sc.strings()`.

I wrote that code in a long form to help emphasize those points, but you can also perform the conversion in one step like this:

```
java.util.List<String> listOfStrings2 = Collection<String>
  (new ScalaClass()).strings()
;
```

Discussion

This recipe shows how to perform collections conversions in Java. To perform conversions in your Scala code, see the previous recipe.

In some cases you can run into an issue with type erasure. For instance, given this `ints` field in a Scala class:

```
class ScalaClass:
  val ints = Seq(1, 2, 3)
```

you have to access that Scala `Seq` as a `List<Object>` in Java:

```
// java
ScalaClass sc = new ScalaClass();
java.util.List<Object> listInt = CollectionConver
```

```
// this also works  
java.util.List listInt = CollectionConverters.as
```

You can see the type erasure problem when you compile the Scala class with `scalac`, then disassemble it with `javap`, where you see this:

```
public scala.collection.immutable.Seq<java.lang.O
```

As shown, the class file only knows that there's an `ints()` method that returns `Seq<java.lang.Object>`.

If you have access to the Scala source code, you can make a `Seq[Int]` easier to access from Java by first converting it to a `Seq[Integer]`:

```
// in a scala class  
val jIntegers: Seq[java.lang.Integer] = Seq(1,2,3)
```

Now you can access that as a `List<Integer>` in a Java class like this:

```
// java  
java.util.List<Integer> listIntegers =
```

```
CollectionConverters.asJava(sc.jIntegers()));
```

If you can't modify the Scala code, you may have to perform other casting-related work to handle the `java.util.List<Object>`, depending on your needs.

See Also

The `scala.jdk.javaapi.CollectionConverters` object supports the same two-way conversions as the `scala.jdk.CollectionConverters` object shown in the previous recipe. See that recipe for those conversions, and these links for more details:

- [scala.jdk.CollectionConverters](#) for converting from Java to Scala
- [scala.javaapi.CollectionConverters](#) for converting from Scala to Java
- [scala.jdk.javaapi.StreamConverters](#) for creating Java streams that work with Scala collections

22.3 Using Java Optional Values in Scala

Problem

You need to use a Java `Optional` value in your Scala code.

Solution

When writing Scala code, import the

`scala.jdk.OptionConverters` object and then use the `toScala` extension method to convert a Java `Optional` value to a Scala `Option`.

To demonstrate this, create a Java class with two

`Optional<String>` values, one containing a string and the other one empty:

```
// java
import java.util.Optional;

public class JavaClass {
    static Optional<String> oString = Optional.of("Hello");
    static Optional<String> oEmptyString = Optional.empty();
}
```

Then in your Scala code you can access those fields. If you just access them directly, they will both be `Optional` values:

```
// scala  
import java.util.Optional  
  
  
val optionalString = JavaClass.oString      //  
val eOptionalString = JavaClass.oEmptyString //
```

But by using the `scala.jdk.OptionConverters` methods,
you can convert them to Scala `Option` values:

```
import java.util.Optional  
import scala.jdk.OptionConverters.*  
  
  
val optionalString = JavaClass.oString      //  
val optionString = optionalString.toScala    //  
  
  
val eOptionalString = JavaClass.oEmptyString //  
val eOptionString = eOptionalString.toScala   //
```

This syntax works because `toScala` is defined as an extension
method, so it can be used on an `Optional` instance.

Numeric values

Numeric values also convert well from Java to Scala. Given this Java code:

```
// java
import java.util.Optional;
import java.util.OptionalInt;

public class JOptionalNumericToScala {
    static Optional<Integer> oInt = Optional.of(1);
    static Optional<Integer> oEmptyInt = Optional.empty();
    static OptionalInt optionalInt = OptionalInt.of(1);
}
```

you can work with these `Optional<Integer>` and `OptionalInt` fields in your Scala code, as shown previously:

```
// scala
import java.util.Optional

// Optional[Int]
val optionalInt = JOptionalNumericToScala.oInt
val optionInt = optionalInt.toScala

// Optional[Int] (empty)
val eOptionalInt = JOptionalNumericToScala.oEmptyInt
val eOptionInt = eOptionalInt.toScala
```

```
// OptionalInt
val optionalInt2 = JOptionalNumericToScala.optionalInt("2")
val sOptionalInt2 = optionalInt2.toScala
```

Discussion

If you have access to the Java source code, you can also use the conversion methods from

`scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters` to convert `Optional` values to `Option` values in your Java code rather than in your Scala code. Notice that this object is also named `OptionConverters`, but the two objects are used to convert `Optional` values in different places:

- Use `scala.jdk.OptionConverters` in your Scala code
- Use `scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters` in your Java code

Convert Optional to Option on the Java side

This example shows how to convert `Optional` fields to `Option` values in your Java code, using the methods of the `scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters` object:

```
// java
```

```
import java.util.Optional;
import java.util.OptionalInt;
import scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters;
import scala.Option;

public class JOptionalNumericToScala {
    static Option<Integer> oInt1 = OptionConverters
        .fromJavaOptionalInt(oInt1);
    static Option<Integer> oInt2 = OptionConverters
        .fromJavaOptionalInt(oInt2);
}
```

Notice that the first example uses `Optional` and the second example uses `OptionalInt`, and both convert to a Scala `Option`. When they're converted like this in the Java code, they appear as `Option` values in your Scala code:

```
// scala
val oInt1 = JOptionalNumericToScala.oInt1      // Scala Option[Int]
val oInt2 = JOptionalNumericToScala.oInt2      // Scala Option[Int]
```

See Also

The two Scala objects for converting `Optional` and `Option` values are:

- `scala.jdk.OptionConverters` for use in your Scala code
- `scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters` for use in your Java code

22.4 Using Scala Option Values in Java

Problem

You want to access a Scala `Option` value in your Java code.

Solution

You can convert a Scala `Option` value to a Java `Optional` value in your Scala code or in your Java code. The Scala solution is shown here, and the Java solution is shown in the Discussion.

In your Scala code, use the `toJava` extension method to convert a Scala `Option` to a Java `Optional` value, after importing `scala.jdk.OptionConverters`.

To demonstrate this, create a Scala class with two `Option[String]` values, one containing a string and the other one empty, and convert those `Option[String]` values into `java.util.Optional[String]` using `toJava`:

```
// scala
import scala.jdk.OptionConverters.*

// create java.util.Optional[String] values
object Scala:
    // convert a Some to Optional
    val scalaStringSome = Option("foo").toJava

    // convert a None to Optional
    val scalaStringNone = Option.empty[String].toJava
```

Then in your Java code, access those fields directly as

`Optional` values:

```
// java
import java.util.Optional;

Optional<String> stringSome = Scala.scalaStringSome;
Optional<String> stringNone = Scala.scalaStringNone;
```

The two fields are available as `Optional` values, and the only difference you see in your Java code is that Scala fields like `scalaStringSome` appear as methods in your Java code—`scalaStringSome()` rather than as fields.

Options containing numeric values

Converting numeric values that are wrapped in a Scala `Option` can take a little more work, but they can also be converted to Java `Optional` values. The `scala.jdk.OptionConverters` object provides several methods for these situations. For example, given this Scala code, which creates `Optional` and `OptionalInt` values:

```
// scala
import scala.jdk.OptionConverters.*

object Scala:
    val intOptional1 = Option(1).toJava

    val optionalInt = Option(1).toJavaPrimitive
    val optionalInt2 = optionalInt.toJavaGeneric
```

those fields can be accessed in your Java code like this:

```
// java  
import java.util.Optional;  
import java.util.OptionalInt;  
  
Optional intOptional1 = Scala.intOptional1();  
  
OptionalInt optionalInt = Scala.optionalInt();  
Optional optionalInt2 = Scala.optionalInt2();
```

A key to this solution is that the `Optional` fields in your Java code need to be declared in one of these ways:

```
Optional x = ...  
Optional<Object> x = ...  
OptionalInt x = ...
```

Because of type erasure, attempting to declare the field type like this will result in a compile-time error:

```
Optional<Integer> intOptional1 = ... // error
```

Discussion

If you're working on the Java side and the Scala code only offers you an `Option` value, you can convert it into an `Optional` value on the Java side. Just use the `toJava*` methods in the [`scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters` object](#).

SAME NAME, DIFFERENT PACKAGE

Note that while this object has the same name as the object shown in the Solution (`OptionConverters`), they're in different packages, and this object is meant to be used in Java code.

To demonstrate converting an `Option` into an `Optional` value in Java, first create an `Option[String]` in your Scala code:

```
// scala
object Scala:
    val optionString = Option("foo")
```

Now you can convert that to an `Optional<String>` in your Java code using the `toJava` method from `OptionConverters`:

```
// java
import scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters.toJava,
Optional<String> strinOptional = toJava(Scala.or
```

In addition to `toJava`, other conversion methods you can use in your Java code are:

- `toJavaOptionalDouble`
- `toJavaOptionalInt`
- `toJavaOptionalLong`

See Also

The two Scala objects for converting `Optional` and `Option` values are:

- [`scala.jdk.OptionConverters`](#) for use in your Scala code
- [`scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters`](#) for use in your Java code

22.5 Using Scala Traits in Java

Problem

You've written a Scala trait with implemented methods and want to use those methods in a Java application.

Solution

This book was tested with Java 11, and with Java 11 you can use a Scala trait just like a Java interface, even if the trait has implemented methods. For example, given these two Scala traits, one with an implemented method and one with only an interface:

```
// scala
trait SAddTrait:
    def sum(x: Int, y: Int) = x + y      // implemented

trait SMultiplyTrait:
    def multiply(x: Int, y: Int): Int      // abstract
```

a Java class can implement both of those interfaces, and implement the `multiply` method:

```
// java
class JMath implements SAddTrait, SMultiplyTrait
    public int multiply(int a, int b) {
        return a * b;
    }

JMath jm = new JMath();
```

```
System.out.println(jm.sum(3, 4));           // 7  
System.out.println(jm.multiply(3, 4));        // 12
```

Discussion

This solution used to require wrapping the Scala trait in a class so the Java application could use it, but these days the solution is to use the Scala trait just as though it was a Java interface.

22.6 Using Java Interfaces in Scala

Problem

You want to implement a Java interface in a Scala application.

Solution

In your Scala application, use the `extends` keyword and commas to implement your Java interfaces, just as though they were Scala traits.

For example, given these three Java interfaces:

```
// java
interface Animal {
    void speak();
}

interface Wagging {
    void wag();
}

interface Running {
    // an implemented method
    default void run() {
        System.out.println("I'm running");
    }
}
```

you can create a `Dog` class in Scala with the usual `extends` keyword, just as though you were using traits. All you have to do is implement the `speak` and `wag` methods:

```
// scala
class Dog extends Animal, Wagging, Running:
    def speak() = println("Woof")
    def wag() = println("Tail is wagging")
```

Discussion

Notice that the Java `Running` interface declares a default method named `run`. As shown, default methods in Java interfaces are easily used in Scala.

Static methods in Java interfaces are also easily used in Scala:

```
// java
interface Mathy {
    static int add(int a, int b) {
        return a + b;
    }
}

// scala
println(Mathy.add(1,1)) // prints "2"
```

22.7 Adding Exception Annotations to Scala Methods

Problem

You want to let Java users know that a Scala method can throw one or more exceptions, so they can handle those exceptions with `try/catch` blocks.

Solution

Add the `@throws` annotation to your Scala methods so Java consumers will know the exceptions they can throw.

For example, this Scala `exceptionThrower` method is annotated to declare that it throws an `Exception`:

```
// scala
object SExceptionThrower:
    @throws(classOf[Exception])
    def exceptionThrower = throw new Exception("I
```

As a result, this Java code won't compile because I don't handle the exception:

```
// java: won't compile
public class ScalaExceptionsInJava {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        SExceptionThrower.exceptionThrower();
    }
}
```

The compiler gives this error:

```
[error] ScalaExceptionsInJava: unreported exception
           must be caught or declared to be thrown
[error] SExceptionThrower.exceptionThrower()
```

This is good—it's what you want: the annotation tells the Java compiler that `exceptionThrower` can throw an exception.

Now when you're writing Java code you must handle the exception with a `try` block or declare that your Java method throws an exception:

```
public static void main(String[] args) throws Exe-----
```

Conversely, if you leave the annotation off the Scala `exceptionThrower` method, the Java code will compile. This is probably not what you want, because the Java code may not account for the Scala method throwing the exception.

Discussion

To declare that a Scala method can throw multiple exceptions, use multiple `throws` annotations before declaring your method:

```
// scala  
@throws(classOf[FooException])  
@throws(classOf[BarException])  
def baz() = ...
```

Then in your Java code, catch those exceptions as usual:

```
try {  
    baz();  
} catch(FooException e) {  
    // handle the exception  
} catch(BarException e) {  
    // handle the exception  
} finally {  
    // code here as needed  
}
```

See Also

While this recipe shows how to annotate exception-throwing methods to work with Java, the “Scala way” is that your methods should never throw an exception. See [Recipe 10.8, “Implementing Functional Error Handling”](#), for details on the preferred approach to working with possible errors.

22.8 Annotating varargs Methods to Work with Java

Problem

You've created a Scala method with a varargs field, and would like to be able to call that method from Java code.

Solution

Mark the Scala method with the `@varargs` annotation. For example, the `printAll` method in this Scala class declares a varargs field—`String*`—and is marked with `@varargs`:

```
// scala
import annotation.varargs

object VarargsPrinter:
    @varargs def printAll(args: String*): Unit =
```

Because `printAll` is declared with the `@varargs` annotation, it can be called from a Java program with a variable number of parameters, as shown in this example:

```
// java
public class JVarargs {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        VarargsPrinter.printAll("Hello", "world")
    }
}
```

When this code is run, it results in the following output:

```
Hello
world
```

Discussion

If the `@varargs` annotation isn't used on the `printAll` method, the Java code shown won't even compile, failing with the following compiler errors:

```
[error] JVarargs.java: method printAll in class VarargsPrinter
          applied to given types;
[error]   required: scala.collection.immutable.Seq<String>
[error]   found:   java.lang.String,java.lang.String
[error]   reason: actual and formal argument lists differ
[error] VarargsPrinter.printAll
```

From a Java perspective, without the `@varargs` annotation, the `printAll` method appears to take a `scala.collection.immutable.Seq<java.lang.String>` as its argument.

Calling a Java varargs method

Calling a Java varargs method from Scala generally just works. For instance, this Java method:

```
// java
public class JVarargs {
    // a java method with a varargs parameter
    static void jPrintAll(String... args) {
        for (String s: args) {
            System.out.println(s);
        }
    }
}
```

can be called from this Scala code, and it works as expected:

```
// scala
@main def jVarargs =
    JVarargs.jPrintAll()
    JVarargs.jPrintAll("foo")
    JVarargs.jPrintAll("foo", "bar")
```

22.9 Using `@SerialVersionUID` and Other Annotations

Problem

You want to specify that a Scala class is serializable and set the `serialVersionUID`.

Solution

Use the Scala `@SerialVersionUID` annotation while also having your class extend the `Serializable` type:

```
@SerialVersionUID(123L)
class Sheep(val name: String) extends Serializable {
    override def toString = name
    @transient val greet: String = s"Hello, $name"
```

Given that class and this `deepClone` function:

```
// this code ignores possible exceptions
def deepClone(obj: Object): Object =
    import java.io.*
```

```
val baos = ByteArrayOutputStream()
val oos = ObjectOutputStream(baos)
oos.writeObject(obj)
val bais = ByteArrayInputStream(baos.toByteArray)
val ois = ObjectInputStream(bais)
ois.readObject()
```

you can clone a Sheep :

```
// the original sheep
val d = Sheep("Dotty")
println(d)          // Dotty
println(d.greet)   // Hello, Dotty

// the cloned sheep
val d2 = deepClone(d).asInstanceOf[Sheep]

println(d2)          // Dotty
println(d2.greet)   // null
```

Cloning the Sheep succeeds as expected, but because the greet field has the @transient annotation, it's null in the cloned sheep. A solution to this problem is shown in the Discussion.

@TRANSIENT

The `@transient` annotation means this field should not be serialized.

That code succeeds, but if you attempt to do the same thing with this plain `Cat` class, it will throw an exception when you call `deepClone`:

```
class Cat(val name: String):  
    override def toString = name  
  
val c = Cat("Morris")  
val c2 = deepClone(c)      // error: java.io.NotSe
```

This code fails because it does not use `@SerialVersionUID` and `Serializable`.

Discussion

The `Sheep` class shown in the Solution works as expected, but as shown, after the serialization/deserialization process the `greet` field ends up null. A solution to this problem is to make the `greet` field a transient `lazy val`:

```
@SerialVersionUID(123L)
```

```
class Sleep(val name: String) extends Serializable {
    override def toString = name
    @transient lazy val greet: String = s"Hello,
```

By using `@transient` and `lazy val` together:

- As before, the `greet` field is not serialized.
- After the `deepClone` serialization/deserialization process, the `greet` field is recalculated when it's accessed as `d2.greet`.

The result is that `greet` won't be null.

Other annotations

[Table 22-5](#) shows other Scala annotations and their Java equivalents. Several of these annotations are demonstrated in this chapter.

Table 22-5. Scala annotations and their Java equivalents

Scala	Java
<code>scala.deprecated</code>	Used to mark a member as deprecated (shown in an example below).

Scala`scala.serializable`**Java**`java.io.Serializable`

(shown in this recipe).

`scala.SerialVersionUID``serialVersionUID` field

(shown in this recipe).

`scala.throws``throws` keyword (shown

in [Recipe 22.7](#)).

`scala.transient``transient` keyword

(shown in this recipe).

`scala.annotation.varargs`

Used on a field in a
method, function, or
constructor, it instructs

Scala

the compiler to generate a **Java** Java varargs-style parameter (shown in [Recipe 22.8](#)).

@threadUnsafe

When used on a **lazy val** field, the field will be initialized faster, but in a manner that is not thread-safe.

@targetName

Define an alternative name for a member. The defined method name is used in Scala, and the **targetName** is accessed from another language like Java.

These examples demonstrate a few of those annotations:

```
@deprecated("wow this method is old", "Version 0
def veryOldMethod(s: String) = ???
```

```
@throws(classOf[Exception])
def exceptionThrower = throw new Exception("Exception")
```



```
import annotation.varargs
@varargs def printAll(args: String*): Unit = args
```

This example shows the Scala and Java code necessary to use the `@targetName` annotation:

```
// scala: define a '++' method with the target name plus1
object TargetNameDemo:
    import scala.annotation.targetName
    @targetName("plus1")
    def ++(i: Int): Int = i + 1

// use '++' in scala code
@main def usePlusPlus =
    import TargetNameDemo.++
    println(++(1))

// java
// use 'plus1' in java code
int i = TargetNameDemo.plus1(1);
System.out.println(i);
```

This is a nice new way to provide easily usable names in Java code.

See Also

- [Recipe 22.7](#) demonstrates the `@throws` annotation.
- [Recipe 22.8](#) demonstrates the `@varargs` annotation.
- [The Scala 3 `@targetName` documentation](#) provides more details on its use.

Chapter 23. Types

As you can tell from one look at the Scaladoc for the collections classes, Scala has a powerful type system. However, unless you’re the creator of a library, you can go a long way in Scala without having to go too far down into the depths of Scala types. But once you start creating libraries for other users, you will need to learn them.

This chapter provides recipes for the most common type-related problems you’ll encounter, but when you need to go deeper, I highly recommend the book *Programming in Scala* (Artima). Martin Odersky, one of its authors, is the creator of the Scala programming language, and I think of that book as “the reference” for Scala.

Scala’s type system uses a set of symbols to express different generic type concepts, including the concepts of *bounds*, *variance*, and *constraints*. Before jumping into the recipes, the most common of these symbols are summarized in the following sections.

A NOTE ABOUT PROGRAMMING LEVELS AND TYPES

Way back in January 2011, Martin Odersky defined [six levels of knowledge that are needed for different types of Scala programmers](#). He uses the levels A1-A3 for application programmers, and L1-L3 for library designers. The type-related techniques that are demonstrated in this chapter correspond to his levels L1 through L3.

Generic Type Parameters

When you first begin writing Scala code, you'll use types like `Int`, `String`, and custom types you create, like `Person`, `Employee`, and `Pizza`. Then you'll create traits, classes, and methods that use those types. Here's an example of a method that uses the `Int` type, as well as a `Seq[Int]`:

```
// ignore possible errors that can occur
def first(xs: Seq[Int]): Int = xs(0)
```

`Seq[Int]` is a situation where one type is a container of another type. `List[String]` and `Option[Int]` are also examples of types that contain another type.

As you become more experienced in working with types, when you look at the `first` method you'll see that its return type has no dependency at all on what's inside the `Seq` container.

The `Seq` can contain types like `Int`, `String`, `Fish`, `Bird`, and so on, and the body of the method would never change. As a result, you can rewrite that method using a generic type, like this:

```
def first[A] (xs: Seq[A]): A = xs(0)
```

— — —

The underlined portions of the code show how a generic type is specified. Reading from right to left in the code:

- As noted, the type is not referenced in the method body; there's only `xs(0)`.
- `A` is used as the method return type, instead of `Int`.
- `A` is used inside the `Seq`, instead of `Int`.
- `A` is specified in brackets, just prior to the method declaration.

Regarding the last point, specifying the generic type in brackets just before the method signature is the way that you tell the compiler—and readers of the code—that the generic type may be used in the (a) method signature, (b) return type, or (c) method body, or any combination of those three locations.

Writing generic code like this makes your code more useful to more people. Instead of just working for a `Seq[Int]`, the method now works for a `Seq[Fish]`, `Seq[Bird]`, and in general—hence the word *generic*—a `Seq` of any type.

By convention, when you declare generic types in Scala, the first generic type that's specified uses the letter `A`, the second generic type is `B`, and so on. For instance, if Scala didn't include tuples and you wanted to declare your own class that can contain two different types, you'd declare it like this:

```
class Pair[A,B] (val a: A, val b: B)
```

Here are a few examples of how to use that class:

```
Pair(1, 2)          // A and B are both Int
Pair(1, "1")        // A is Int, B is String
Pair("1", 2.2)      // A is String, B is Double
```

In the first example, `A` and `B` happen to have the same type, and in the last two examples, `A` and `B` have different types.

Finally, to round out our first generic type examples, let's create a trait that uses generic parameters, and then a class that

implements that trait. First, let's create two little classes that the example will need, along with our previous `Pair` class:

```
class Cat
class Dog
class Pair[A,B] (val a: A, val b: B)
```

Given that as background, this is how you create a parameterized trait with two generic type parameters:

```
trait Foo[A,B]:
    def pair(): Pair[A, B]
```

Notice that you declare the types you need after the trait name, then reference those types inside the trait.

Next, here's a class that implements that trait for dogs and cats:

```
class Bar extends Foo[Cat, Dog]:
    def pair(): Pair[Cat, Dog] = Pair(Cat(), Dog
```

This first line of code declares that `Bar` works for `Cat` and `Dog` types, with `Cat` being a specific replacement for `A` and `Dog` being a replacement for `B`:

```
class Bar extends Foo[Cat, Dog]:
```

If you want to create another class that extends `Foo` and works with a `String` and `Int`, you'd write it like this:

```
class Baz extends Foo[String, Int]:  
    def pair(): Pair[String, Int] = Pair("1", 2)
```

These examples demonstrate how generic type parameters are used in different situations.

As you work more with generic types, you'll find that you want to define certain expectations and limits on those types. To handle those situations you'll use bounds, variance, and type constraints, which are discussed next.

Bounds

Bounds let you place restrictions on type parameters. For instance, imagine that you want to write a method that returns the uppercase version of the `name` field of a type:

```
// this code won't compile  
def upperName[A](a: A) = a.name.toUpperCase
```

That code is in the ballpark of what you want, but it won't work because there's no guarantee that the type `A` has a `name` field. As a solution to this problem, if you have a type like `SentientBeing`, which declares a `name` field:

```
trait SentientBeing:  
    def name: String
```

you can correctly implement the `upperName` method by using a bound, as shown in this underlined code:

```
def upperName[A <: SentientBeing](a: A) = a.name  
-----
```

This tells the compiler that whatever type `A` is, it must be a subclass of `SentientBeing`, which is guaranteed to have a `name` field. So if you have classes like these that are subclasses of `SentientBeing`:

```
case class Dog(name: String) extends SentientBeing  
case class Person(name: String, age: Int) extends SentientBeing  
case class Snake(name: String) extends SentientBeing
```

the `upperName` method will work as desired with all of those:

```

upperName(Dog("rover"))           // "ROVER"
upperName(Person("joe", 25))      // "JOE"
upperName(Snake("Noodles"))       // "NOODLES"

```

This is the essence of working with bounds. They give you a way to define limits—bounds, or boundaries—on the possibilities of a generic type. [Table 23-1](#) provides descriptions of the common bounds symbols.

Table 23-1. Descriptions of Scala's bounds symbols

Bound	Description
<code>A <: B</code>	Upper bound A must be a subtype of B. See Recipe 23.5 .
<code>A >: B</code>	Lower bound A must be a supertype of B.
<code>A <: Upper >: Lower</code>	Lower and upper bounds used together The type A has both an upper and lower bound.

Lower bounds are demonstrated in several methods of the collections classes. To find examples of them, search the

Scaladoc of classes like `List` for the `>:` symbol.

Variance

As its name implies, variance is a concept that's related to how generic type parameters can vary when subclasses of your type are created. Scala uses what's known as *declaration-site variance*, which means that you—the library creator—declare variance annotations on your generic type parameters when you create new types like traits and classes. (This is the opposite of Java, which uses *use-site variance*, meaning that clients of your library are responsible for understanding these annotations.)

Because we use collections like `List` and `ArrayBuffer` all the time, I find that it's easiest to demonstrate variance when creating new types like those. So as an example, I'll create a new type named `Container` that contains one element. When I define `Container`, variance has to do with whether I define its generic type parameter `A` as `A`, `+A`, or `-A`:

```
class Container[A] (a: A) ... // invariant
class Container[+A] (a: A) ... // covariant
class Container[-A] (a: A) ... // contravariant
```

How I declare `A` now affects how `Container` instances can be used *later*. For example, variance comes into play in discussions like this:

When I define a new `Container` type using one of those annotations and if I also define a class `Dog` that is a subtype of `Animal`, is `Container[Dog]` a subtype of `Container[Animal]`?

In concrete terms, what this means is that if you have a method like this that's defined to accept a parameter of type

`Container[Animal]`:

```
def foo(c: Container[Animal]) = ???
```

can you pass a `Container[Dog]` into `foo`?

Two ways to simplify variance

Variance can take a few steps to explain because you have to talk about both (a) how the generic parameter is initially declared and (b) how instances of your container are later used, but I've found that there are two ways to simplify the topic.

1. If everything is immutable

The first way to simplify variance is to know that if everything in Scala was immutable, there would be little need for variance. Specifically, in a totally immutable world where all fields are `val` and all collections are immutable (like `List`), if `Dog` is a subclass of `Animal`, `Container[Dog]` will definitely be a subclass of `Container[Animal]`.

IN AN IMMUTABLE WORLD, INVARIANCE ISN'T NEEDED

In the following discussion, in a completely immutable world, the need for invariance goes away.

This is demonstrated in the following code. First I create an `Animal` trait and then a `Dog` case class that extends `Animal`:

```
sealed trait Animal:  
    def name: String  
case class Dog(name: String) extends Animal
```

Now I define my `Container` class, declaring its generic type parameter as `+A`, making it *covariant*. While that's a fancy mathematical term, it just means that when a method is declared to take a `Container[Animal]`, you can pass it a `Container[Dog]`. Because the type is covariant, it's flexible

and is allowed to vary in this direction (i.e., allowed to accept a subtype):

```
class Container[+A] (a: A) :  
    def get: A = a
```

Then I create an instance of a `Dog` as well as a `Container[Dog]` and then verify that the `get` method in the `Container` works as desired:

```
val d = Dog("Fido")  
val h = Container[Dog](d)  
h.get // Dog(Fido)
```

To finish the example, I define a method that takes a `Container[Animal]` parameter:

```
def printName(c: Container[Animal]) = println(c.name)
```

Finally, I pass that method a `Container[Dog]` variable, and the method works as desired:

```
printName(h) // "Fido"
```

To recap, all of that code works because everything is immutable, and I define `Container` with the generic parameter `+A`.

Note that if I defined that parameter as just `A` or as `-A`, that code would not compile. (For more information on this, read on.)

2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions

There's also a second way to simplify the concept of variance, which I summarize in the following three paragraphs:

As you just saw, the `get` method in the `Container` class only uses the type `A` as its return type. This is no coincidence: whenever you declare a parameter as `+A`, it can only ever be used as the return type of `Container` methods. You can think of this as being an *out* position, and your container is said to be a *producer*: methods like `get` produce the type `A`. In addition to the `Container[+A]` class just shown, other producer examples are the Scala `List[+A]` and `Vector[+A]` classes. With these classes, once an instance of them is created, you can never add more `A` values to them. Instead, they're immutable and read-only, and you can only access their `A` values with the methods that are built into them. You can think of `List` and

`Vector` as being producers of elements of type `A` (and derivations of `A`).

Conversely, if the generic type parameter you specify is only used as input parameters to methods in your container, declare the parameter to be *contravariant* using `-A`. This declaration tells the compiler that values of type `A` will only ever be passed into your container's methods—the “in” position—and will never be returned by them. Therefore, your container is said to be a *consumer*. (Note that this situation is rare compared to the other two possibilities, but in the producer/consumer discussion, it's easiest to mention it second.)

Finally, if the generic parameter is used both in the method return type position and as a method parameter inside your container, define the type to be *invariant* by declaring it with the symbol `A`. Using this type declares that your class is both a producer and a consumer of the `A` type, and as a side effect of this flexibility, the type is invariant—meaning that it cannot vary. When a method is declared to accept a `Container[Dog]`, it can only accept a `Container[Dog]`. This type is used when defining mutable containers, such as the `ArrayBuffer[A]` class, to which you can add new elements, edit elements, and access elements.

Here are examples of these three producer/consumer situations.

In the first case, when a generic type is only used as a method return type, the container is a producer, and you mark the type as covariant with `+A`:

```
// covariant: A is only ever used in the "out" position
trait Producer[+A]:
    def get: A
```

Note that for this use case, the C# and Kotlin languages—which also use declaration-site variance—use the keyword `out` when defining `A`. If Scala used `out` instead of `+`, the code would look like this:

```
trait Producer[out A]: // if Scala used 'out' instead of '+'
    def get: A
```

For the second situation, if the generic type parameter is only used as the input parameter to your container methods, the container can be thought of as a *consumer*. Mark the generic type as contravariant using `-A`:

```
// contravariant: A is only ever used in the "in"  
trait Consumer[-A]:  
    def consume(a: A): Unit
```

In this case, C# and Kotlin use the keyword `in` to indicate that `A` is only used as a method input parameter (the “in” position). If Scala had that keyword, your code would look like this:

```
trait Consumer[in A]: // if Scala used 'in' instead  
    def consume(a: A): Unit
```

Finally, when a generic type parameter is used as both method input parameters and method return parameters, it’s considered invariant—not allowed to vary—and designated as `A :`

```
// invariant: A is used in the "in" and "out" positions  
trait ProducerConsumer[A]:  
    def consume(a: A): Unit  
    def produce(): A
```

ONE WAY TO REMEMBER THE VARIANCE SYMBOLS

While I generally prefer the keywords `out` and `in` to declare the variance of generic parameters—at least in simple, one-parameter declarations—I’ve found that I can remember the Scala symbols this way:

- `+` means that variance is allowed in the positive (subtype) direction.
- `-` means that variance is allowed in the negative (supertype) direction.
- No additional symbol means that no variance is allowed.

Because the subtype direction is far more common than the supertype direction, it’s easy to think of this as being the “positive” direction.

[Table 23-2](#) provides a summary of this terminology, including examples of each from the Scala standard library.

Table 23-2. Descriptions and examples of Scala type variance

Variance	Symbol	In or Out	Producer/Consumer
----------	--------	-----------------	-------------------

Covariant `+A` Out Producer

Variance	Symbol	In	Producer/Consumer
Contravariant	-A	or In Out	Consumer
Invariant	A	Both	Both

It's actually hard to find a consistent definition of these variance terms, but this [Microsoft “Covariance and Contravariance in Generics” page](#) provides good definitions, which I'll rephrase slightly here:

Covariance (+A in Scala)

Lets you use a “more derived” type than what is specified. This means that you can use a subtype where a parent type is declared. In my example this means that you can pass a `Container[Dog]` where a `Container[Animal]` method parameter is declared.

Contravariance (-A)

Essentially the opposite of covariance, you can use a more generic (less derived) type than what is specified. For instance, you can use a `Container[Animal]` where a `Container[Dog]` is specified.

Invariance (A)

This means that the type can't vary—you can only use the type that's specified. If a method requires a parameter of the type `Container[Dog]`, you can only give it a `Container[Dog]`; it won't compile if you try to give it a `Container[Animal]`.

Testing variance with an implicitly trick

As demonstrated in [this Stack Overflow post](#), and in the book *Zionomicon* by John De Goes and Adam Fraser (Ziverge), you can use the `implicitly` method—which is defined in [the Predef object Scaladoc](#) and automatically in the scope of all your code—to test variance definitions.

For instance, using this code from my initial variance example:

```
sealed trait Animal:  
    def name: String  
case class Dog(name: String) extends Animal
```

```
class Container[+A] (a: A) :  
    def get: A = a
```

These REPL examples show that by using `implicitly`, the Scala compiler confirms that a `Container[Dog]` is a subtype of a `Container[Animal]`:

```
scala> implicitly[Dog <:< Animal]  
val res0: Dog <:< Animal = generalized constraint  
  
scala> implicitly[Container[Dog] <:< Container[Ani  
val res1: Container[Dog] <:< Container[Animal] =
```

You can tell that these examples work because the code compiles without error. Conversely, if you define `Container` with `-A` or `A`, as in this example:

```
class Container[A] (a: A) :  
    def get: A = a
```

the `implicitly` code will fail to compile:

```
scala> implicitly[Container[Dog] <:< Container[Ani  
1 | implicitly[Container[Dog] <:< Container[Animal]  
|
```

```
| Cannot prove that Containe
```

This turns out to be a nice trick/technique you can use to test your variance code.

Note that in this example, the expression `A <:< B` means that when working with implicit parameters, `A` must be a subtype of `B`. This *type relation* symbol isn't discussed in this book, but see Twitter's Scala School [page on advanced types](#) for good examples of when and where it is needed.

Contravariance is rarely used

To keep things consistent, I've mentioned contravariance second in the preceding discussions, but as a practical matter, contravariant types are rarely used. For instance, the [Scala Function1 class](#) is one of the few classes in the standard library that declares a generic parameter to be contravariant, the `T1` parameter in this case:

```
Function1[-T1, +R]
```

Because it's not used that often, contravariance isn't covered in this book, but there's a good example of it in the free [Scala 3 Book's "Variance" section](#).

MULTIPLE GENERIC TYPE PARAMETERS WITH VARIANCE

Also note from the `Function1` example that a class can accept multiple generic parameters that are declared with variance. `-T1` is a parameter that's only ever consumed in the `Function1` class, and `+R` is a type that's only ever produced in `Function1`.

Given all this background information, two solutions to common variance problems are shown in Recipes [23.3](#) and [23.4](#).

Type Constraints

In addition to bounds and variance, Scala lets you specify additional type constraints. These are written with these symbols:

```
A =:= B    // A must be equal to B
A <:< B    // A must be a subtype of B
```

These symbols are not covered in this book. See *Programming in Scala* for details and examples. Twitter's Scala School [Advanced Types page](#) also shows brief examples of their use, where they are referred to as *type relation operators*.

SEVERAL OTHER TYPE EXAMPLES

For the first edition of the *Scala Cookbook* I wrote about [how to create a timer and how to create your own Try classes](#). (I excerpted it for my website). That code uses types heavily and is still relevant for Scala 3.

23.1 Creating a Method That Takes a Simple Generic Type

Problem

You're not concerned about type variance and want to create a method (or function) that takes a generic type, such as a method that accepts a `Seq[A]` parameter.

Solution

Specify the generic type parameter in brackets, such as `[A]`. For example, when creating a lottery-style application to draw a random name from a list of names, you might follow the “do the simplest thing that could possibly work” credo and initially create a method without using generics:

```
def randomName(names: Seq[String]): String =  
  val randomNum = util.Random.nextInt(names.length)
```

```
names(randomNum)
```

As written, this works with a sequence of `String` values:

```
val names = Seq("Aleka", "Christina", "Emily", "I  
val winner = randomName(names)
```

Then at some point in the future, you realize that you could really use a general-purpose method that returns a random element from a sequence of any type. So, you modify the method to use a generic type parameter, like this:

```
def randomElement[A] (seq: Seq[A]): A =  
  val randomNum = util.Random.nextInt(seq.length)  
  seq(randomNum)
```

With this change, the method can now be called with a variety of types in immutable sequences:

```
randomElement(Seq("Emily", "Hannah", "Aleka", "Chi  
randomElement(List(1,2,3))  
randomElement(List(1.0,2.0,3.0))  
randomElement(Vector.range('A','z'))
```

Discussion

This is a relatively simple example that shows how to pass a generic collection to a method that doesn't attempt to mutate the collection. See Recipes [23.3](#) and [23.4](#) for more complicated situations you can run into.

23.2 Creating Classes That Use Simple Generic Types

Problem

You want to create a class (and associated methods) that uses a simple generic type.

Solution

As a library writer, you'll define generic types when declaring your classes. For instance, here's a small linked-list class that's written so that you can add new elements to it. It's mutable in that way, like an `ArrayBuffer`:

```
class LinkedList[A] :
```

```

private class Node[A] (elem: A):
    var next: Node[A] = _
    override def toString = elem.toString

private var head: Node[A] = _

def add(elem: A): Unit =
    val n = new Node(elem)
    n.next = head
    head = n

private def printNodes(n: Node[A]): Unit =
    if n != null then
        println(n)
        printNodes(n.next)

def printAll() = printNodes(head)

```

Notice how the generic type `A` is sprinkled throughout the class definition. This generic type is a placeholder for actual types like `Int` and `String`, which the user of your class can specify.

For example, to create a list of integers with this class, first create an instance of it, declaring the type that it will contain to be the type `Int`:

```
val ints = LinkedList[Int]()
```

Then populate it with `Int` values:

```
ints.add(1)  
ints.add(2)
```

Because the class uses a generic type, you can also create a `LinkedList` of type `String`:

```
val strings = LinkedList[String]()  
strings.add("Emily")  
strings.add("Hannah")  
strings.printAll()
```

or any other type you want to use:

```
val doubles = LinkedList[Double]()  
doubles.add(1.1)  
doubles.add(2.2)
```

This demonstrates the basic use of a generic type when creating a class.

Discussion

When you use a simple generic parameter like `A` when defining a class, you can also define methods inside and outside of that class that use exactly that type. To explain what this means, start with this type hierarchy:

```
trait Person { def name: String }
class Employee(val name: String) extends Person
class StoreEmployee(name: String) extends Employee
```

You might use this type hierarchy when modeling a point-of-sales application for a pizza store chain, where a `StoreEmployee` is someone who works at a store location. (You might then also have an `OfficeEmployee` type for people who work in the corporate office.)

The relationship is expressed visually in the class diagram in [Figure 23-1](#).

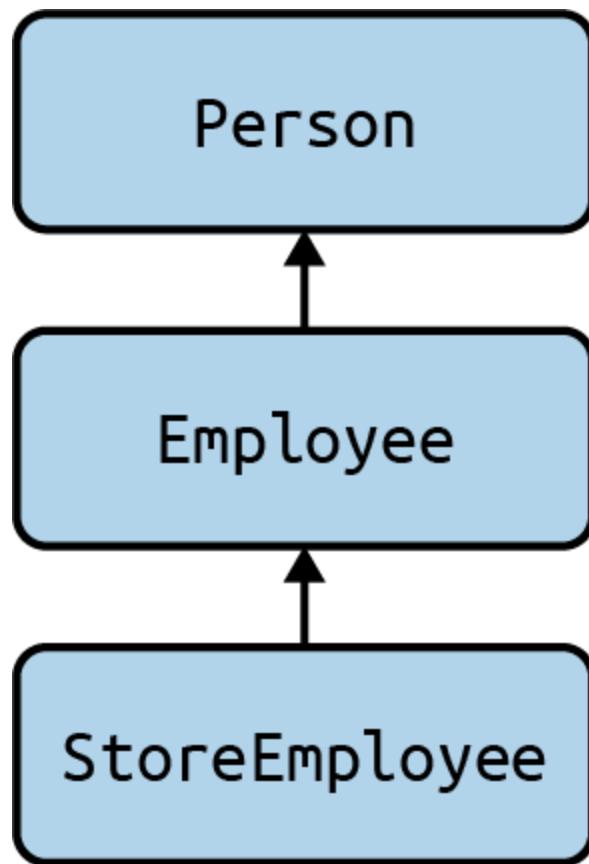


Figure 23-1. A class diagram for the Person and Employee classes

Given this type hierarchy, you can create a method to print a `LinkedList[Employee]`, like this:

```
def printEmps(es: LinkedList[Employee]) = es.print
```

Now you can give `printEmps` a `LinkedList[Employee]`, and it will work as desired:

```
// works
val emps = LinkedList[Employee]()
```

```
emps.add(Employee("Al"))
printEmps(emps)
```

So far, so good; this works as desired.

The limits of this approach

Where this simple approach doesn't work is if you try to give

```
printEmps a LinkedList[StoreEmployee]():
```

```
val storeEmps = LinkedList[StoreEmployee]()
storeEmps.add(StoreEmployee("Fred"))

// this line won't compile
printEmps(storeEmps)
```

This is the error you get when you try to write that code:

```
printEmps(storeEmps)
^~~~~~
Found:      (storeEmps : LinkedList[StoreEmployee])
Required:  LinkedList[Employee]
```

The last line won't compile because:

- `printEmps` expects a `LinkedList[Employee]`.

- `storeEmps` is a `LinkedList[StoreEmployee]`.
- `LinkedList` elements are mutable.
- If the compiler allowed this, `printEmps` could add plain old `Employee` elements to the `StoreEmployee` elements in `storeEmps`. This can't be allowed.

As discussed in [“Variance”](#), the problem here is that when a generic parameter is declared as `A` in a class like `LinkedList`, that parameter is *invariant*, which means that the type is not allowed to vary when used in methods like `printEmps`. A detailed solution to this problem is shown in [Recipe 23.3](#).

Type parameter symbols

If a class requires more than one type parameter, use the symbols shown in [Table 23-3](#). For instance, in the [official Java documentation on generic types](#), Oracle shows an interface named `Pair`, which takes two types:

```
public interface Pair<K, V> {
    public K getKey();
    public V getValue();
}
```

You can port that interface to a Scala trait as follows:

```
trait Pair[K, V] :  
    def getKey: K  
    def getValue: V
```

If you were to take this further and implement the body of a `Pair` class (or trait), the type parameters `K` and `V` would be spread throughout your class, just as the symbol `A` was used in the `LinkedList` example.

GENERIC SYMBOL STANDARDS

I generally prefer using the symbols `A` and `B` for the first two generic type declarations in a class, but in a case like this where the types clearly refer to *key* and *value*—such as in a `Map` class—I prefer `K` and `V`. But use whatever makes sense to you.

The documentation mentioned also lists the Java type parameter naming conventions. These are similar in Scala, except that Java starts naming simple type parameters with the letter `T`, and then uses the characters `U` and `V` for subsequent types. The Scala standard is that the first type should be declared as `A`, the next with `B`, and so on, as shown in [Table 23-3](#).

Table 23-3. Standard symbols for generic type parameters in Scala

Symbol	Description
A	Refers to a simple type, such as <code>List[A]</code> .
B, C, D	Used for the second, third, fourth types, etc. For example:
	<pre>class List[A]: def map[B](f: A => B): List[B] = ?</pre>
K	Typically refers to a key in a Java map. (I also prefer this situation.)
N	Refers to a numeric value.
V	Typically refers to a value in a Java map. (I also prefer this situation.)

See Also

- Oracle's [Java documentation on generic types](#).

- You can find a little more information on Scala's generic type naming conventions at the Scala Style Guide's [page on naming conventions](#).

23.3 Making Immutable Generic Parameters Covariant

Problem

You want to create a class whose generic parameters can't be changed (they're immutable) and want to understand how to specify it.

Solution

To declare that generic type parameter elements can't be changed, declare them to be *covariant* by defining them with a leading `+` symbol, such as `+A`. As an example of this, immutable collections classes like `List`, `Vector`, and `Seq` are all defined to use covariant generic type parameters:

```
class List[+T]
class Vector[+A]
trait Seq[+A]
```

By making the type parameter covariant, the generic parameter can't be mutated, but the benefit is that the class can later be used in a more flexible manner.

To demonstrate the usefulness of this, modify the example from the previous recipe slightly. First, define the class hierarchy:

```
trait Animal:
    def speak(): Unit

class Dog(var name: String) extends Animal:
    def speak() = println("Dog says woof")

class SuperDog(name: String) extends Dog(name):
    override def speak() = println("I'm a SuperD
```

Next, define a `makeDogsSpeak` method, but instead of accepting a *mutable* `ArrayBuffer[Dog]` as in the previous recipe, accept an *immutable* `Seq[Dog]`:

```
def makeDogsSpeak(dogs: Seq[Dog]): Unit = dogs.foreach(_
```

As with the `ArrayBuffer` in the previous recipe, you can pass a `Seq[Dog]` into `makeDogsSpeak` without a problem:

```
// this works
val dogs = Seq(Dog("Nansen"), Dog("Joshu"))
makeDogsSpeak(dogs)
```

However, in this case, you can also pass a `Seq[SuperDog]` into the `makeDogsSpeak` method successfully:

```
// this works too
val superDogs = Seq(
    SuperDog("Wonder Dog"),
    SuperDog("Scooby")
)
makeDogsSpeak(superDogs)
```

Because `Seq` is immutable and defined with a covariant generic type parameter as `Seq[+A]`, `makeDogsSpeak` can accept both `Seq[Dog]` and `Seq[SuperDog]`, without the conflict that was built up in [Recipe 23.4](#).

Discussion

You can further demonstrate this by creating your own custom class with a covariant generic type parameter. To do this—and to keep things simple—create a collections class that can hold one element. Because you don't want the collection element to

be mutated, define the parameter as a `val`, and make it covariant with `+A`:

```
class Container[+A] (val elem: A)
```

Using the same type hierarchy that's shown in the Solution, modify the `makeDogsSpeak` method to accept a `Container[Dog]`:

```
def makeDogsSpeak(dogHouse: Container[Dog]): Unit
```

With this setup, you can pass a `Container[Dog]` into `makeDogsSpeak`:

```
val dogHouse = Container(Dog("Xena"))
makeDogsSpeak(dogHouse)
```

Finally, because you declared the element to be covariant with the `+` symbol, you can also pass a `Container[SuperDog]` into `makeDogsSpeak`:

```
val superDogHouse = Container(SuperDog("Wonder Dog"))
makeDogsSpeak(superDogHouse)
```

Because the `Container` element is immutable and its generic type parameter is marked as covariant, all of this code works successfully. Note that if you change the `Container`'s type parameter from `+A` to `A`, the last line of code won't compile.

As discussed in [“Variance”](#) and demonstrated in these examples, defining a container type class with an immutable generic type parameter makes the collection more flexible and useful throughout your code. As shown in this example, you can pass a `Container[SuperDog]` into a method that expects to receive a `Container[Dog]`.

+A REFERS TO THE “OUT” POSITION

“[Variance](#)” also notes that the +A symbol is your way of telling the compiler that the generic parameter A will only be used as the return type of methods in this class (i.e., the “out” position). For instance, in this example, this code is valid:

```
class Container[+A] (val elem: A):  
    // 'A' is correctly used in the "out" position  
    def getElemAsTuple: (A) = (elem)
```

But any attempt to use an element of type A as a method input parameter inside the class will fail with this error:

```
class Container[+A] (val elem: A):  
    def foo(a: A) = ???  
        ^^^^^
```

```
error: covariant type A occurs in contravariant position  
in type A of parameter a
```

As that code shows, even though I don’t even try to implement the body of the `foo` method, the compiler states that the A type can’t be used in the “in” position.

23.4 Creating a Class Whose Generic Elements Can Be Mutated

Problem

You want to create a collection-like class whose elements can be mutated and want to know how to specify the generic type parameter for its elements.

Solution

When defining a parameter that can be changed (mutated), its generic type parameter should be declared as `[A]`, making it invariant. Therefore, this recipe is similar to the example shown in [Recipe 23.2](#).

An example of this is that elements in a Scala `Array` or `ArrayBuffer` can be mutated, and their signatures are declared like this:

```
class Array[A] ...
class ArrayBuffer[A] ...
```

Discussion

Declaring a type as invariant has two main effects:

- The container can hold the specified type as well as subtypes of that type.

- There are later restrictions on how methods can use the container.

To create an example of the first point, the following class hierarchy states that the `Dog` and `SuperDog` classes both extend the `Animal` trait:

```
trait Animal:  
    def speak(): Unit  
  
class Dog(var name: String) extends Animal:  
    def speak() = println("woof")  
    override def toString = name  
  
class SuperDog(name: String) extends Dog(name):  
    def useSuperPower() = println("Using my super power")
```

Given these classes, you can create a `Dog` and a `SuperDog`:

```
val fido = Dog("Fido")  
val wonderDog = SuperDog("Wonder Dog")
```

When you later declare an `ArrayBuffer[Dog]`, you can add both `Dog` and `SuperDog` instances to it:

```
import collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer

val dogs = ArrayBuffer[Dog]()
dogs += fido
dogs += wonderDog
```

So a collection with an invariant type parameter can contain (a) elements of the base type and (b) subtypes of the base type.

The second effect of declaring an invariant type is that there are restrictions on how the type can later be used. Given that same code, you can define a method as follows to accept an `ArrayBuffer[Dog]` and then have each `Dog` speak:

```
import collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
def makeDogsSpeak(dogs: ArrayBuffer[Dog]) =
  dogs.foreach(_.speak())
```

This works fine when you pass it an `ArrayBuffer[Dog]`:

```
val dogs = ArrayBuffer[Dog]()
dogs += fido
makeDogsSpeak(dogs)
```

However, the `makeDogsSpeak` call won't compile if you attempt to pass it an `ArrayBuffer[SuperDog]`:

```
val superDogs = ArrayBuffer[SuperDog]()
superDogs += wonderDog
makeDogsSpeak(superDogs) // ERROR: won't compile
```

This code won't compile because of the conflict built up in this situation:

- Elements in an `ArrayBuffer` can be mutated.
- `makeDogsSpeak` is defined to accept a parameter of type `ArrayBuffer[Dog]`.
- You're attempting to pass in `superDogs`, whose type is `ArrayBuffer[SuperDog]`.
- If the compiler allowed this, `makeDogsSpeak` could replace `SuperDog` elements in `superDogs` with plain old `Dog` elements. This can't be allowed.

In summary, a main reason this conflict is created is because `ArrayBuffer` elements can be mutated. If you want to write a method to make all `Dog` types and subtypes speak, define it to accept a collection of immutable elements by specifying the type as `+A`, which is what is done in immutable classes such as

`List`, `Seq`, and `Vector`. See [Recipe 23.3](#) for details on that approach.

Examples in the standard library

The elements of mutable collections classes like `Array`, `ArrayBuffer`, and `ListBuffer` are defined with invariant type parameters:

```
class Array[T]
class ArrayBuffer[A]
class ListBuffer[A]
```

Conversely, immutable collections classes identify their generic type parameters with the `+` symbol, as shown here:

```
class List[+T]
class Vector[+A]
trait Seq[+A]
```

The `+` symbol used on the type parameters of the immutable collections defines their parameters to be covariant. Because their elements can't be mutated, they can be used more flexibly, as discussed in [Recipe 23.3](#).

See Also

- You can find the source code for Scala classes by following the “Source code” links in their Scaladoc.
- To see a good example of an invariant type parameter in a class, the source code for [the ArrayBuffer class](#) isn’t too long, and it shows how the type parameter `A` ends up sprinkled throughout the class.

23.5 Creating a Class Whose Parameters Implement a Base Type

Problem

You want to specify that a class has a generic type parameter, and that parameter is limited so it can only be (a) a base type or (b) a subtype of that base type.

Solution

Define the class or method by specifying the type parameter with an *upper bound*. For example, given this type hierarchy:

```
sealed trait CrewMember
class Officer extends CrewMember
class RedShirt extends CrewMember
trait Captain
trait FirstOfficer
trait ShipsDoctor
trait StarfleetTrained
```

this is how you create a class named `Crew` that is parameterized so it will only ever store instances that are either a `CrewMember` or subtype of `CrewMember`:

```
class Crew[A <: CrewMember] :
    import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer
    private val list = ArrayBuffer[A]()
    def add(a: A): Unit = list += a
    def printAll(): Unit = list.foreach(println)
```

To demonstrate how this works, first create some objects that extend `Officer`:

```
val kirk = new Officer with Captain
val spock = new Officer with FirstOfficer
val bones = new Officer with ShipsDoctor
```

Given this setup, you can create a `Crew` that contains only instances of `Officer`:

```
val officers = Crew[Officer]()
officers.add(kirk)
officers.add(spock)
officers.add(bones)
```

The first line lets you create `officers` as a collection that can only contain types that are an `Officer` or subtype of an `Officer`. A benefit of this approach is that instances that are of type `RedShirt` won't be allowed in the collection because they don't extend `Officer`:

```
val redShirt = RedShirt()
officers.add(redShirt) // error: this won't compile
                      // Found: (redShirt), RedShirt
```

A key to this solution is the way the parameter `A` is defined:

```
class Crew[A <: CrewMember] ...
```

This states that any instance of `Crew` can only ever have elements that are of type `CrewMember` or one of its subtypes. Then when I create a concrete instance of `Crew`, I declare that I only want this instance to take types that implement `Officer`:

```
val officers = Crew[Officer]()
```

It also prevents you from writing code like this, because

`StarTrekFan` does not extend `CrewMember`:

```
class StarTrekFan
val officers = Crew[StarTrekFan]() // error: w
// error message:
// Type argument StarTrekFan does not conform to
```

Note that in addition to creating a `Crew[Officer]`, you can also create a `Crew[RedShirt]`, if desired:

```
val redshirts = Crew[RedShirt]()
val redShirt = RedShirt()
redshirts.add(redShirt)
```

Discussion

Typically, you'll define a class like `Crew` so you can create specific instances like `Crew[Officer]` and `Crew[RedShirt]`. The class you create will also typically have methods like `add` that are specific to the parameter type you declare, such as `CrewMember` in this example. By controlling what types are added to `Crew`, you can be assured that your methods will work as desired. For instance, `Crew` could have methods like `beamUp`, `beamDown`, `goWhereNoOneElseHasGone`, etc.—any method that makes sense for a `CrewMember`.

Extending multiple traits

Use the same technique when you need to limit your class to take a type that extends multiple traits. For example, to create a `Crew` that only allows types that extend `CrewMember` and `StarfleetTrained`, declare the first line of the `Crew` class like this:

```
class Crew[A <: CrewMember & StarfleetTrained]:
```

Now when you adapt the officer instances to work with this new trait:

```
val kirk = new Officer with Captain with StarfleetTrained
val spock = new Officer with FirstOfficer with StarfleetTrained
val bones = new Officer with ShipsDoctor with StarfleetTrained
```

you can still construct a list of officers:

```
class Crew[A <: CrewMember & StarfleetTrained]:  
    import scala.collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer  
    private val list = new ArrayBuffer[A]()  
    def add(a: A): Unit = list += a  
    def printAll(): Unit = list foreach println  
  
val officers = Crew[Officer & StarfleetTrained]()  
officers.add(kirk)  
officers.add(spock)  
officers.add(bones)
```

This approach works as long as the instances `kirk`, `spock`, and `bones` have the `Officer` and `StarfleetTrained` types somewhere in their type hierarchy.

23.6 Using Duck Typing (Structural Types)

Problem

You're used to *duck typing* (structural types) from another language like Python or Ruby and want to use this feature in your Scala code.

Solution

Scala's version of duck typing is known as using a structural type. As an example of this approach, the following Scala 3 code shows how a `callSpeak` method can require that its `obj` type parameter have a `speak()` method:

```
import reflect.Selectable.reflectiveSelectable

def callSpeak[A <: {def speak(): Unit}](obj: A):  
  obj.speak()
```

Given that definition—including the required `import` statement—an instance of any class that has a `speak` method that takes no parameters and returns nothing can be passed as a parameter to `callSpeak`. For example, the following code demonstrates how to invoke `callSpeak` on both a `Dog` and a `Klingon`:

```
import reflect.Selectable.reflectiveSelectable
def callSpeak[A <: {def speak(): Unit}](obj: A):

  class Dog:
    def speak() = println("woof")

  class Klingon:
    def speak() = println("Qapla!")

  callSpeak(Dog())
  callSpeak(Klingon())
```

Running this code in the REPL prints the following output:

```
woof
Qapla!
```

The class hierarchy of the instance that's passed in doesn't matter at all: the only requirement for the parameter `obj` is that it's an instance of a class that has a `speak():Unit` method.

Discussion

The structural type syntax is necessary in this example because the `callSpeak` function invokes a `speak` method on the object that's passed in. In a statically typed language, there must be some guarantee that the object that's passed in will have this method, and this recipe shows the syntax for that situation.

Had the method been written with only the generic type `A`, it wouldn't compile, because the compiler can't guarantee that the type `A` has a `speak` method:

```
import reflect.Selectable.reflectiveSelectable

// won't compile
def callSpeak[A] (obj: A): Unit = obj.speak()
```

This is one of the great benefits of type safety in Scala.

Understanding the solution

To understand how this works, it may help to break down the structural type syntax. First, here's the entire method:

```
def callSpeak[A <: {def speak(): Unit}] (obj: A):
```

The type parameter `A` that precedes the list of method parameters is defined as a structural type like this:

```
[A <: { def speak(): Unit }]
```

The `<:` symbol in the code is used to define an upper bound. This is described in detail in [Recipe 23.3](#). As shown in that recipe, an upper bound is usually defined like this:

```
class Stack[A <: Animal] (val elem: A)
```

This states that the type parameter `A` must be a subtype of `Animal`.

However, in this recipe I use a variation of that syntax to state that `A` must be a subtype of a type that has a `speak():Unit` method. Specifically, this code can be read as, “`A` must be a subtype of a type that has a `speak` method. The `speak` method can’t take any parameters and must not return anything.”

To be clear, the underlined portion of this code states that the type passed in must have a `speak` method that takes no input parameters:

```
[A <: { def speak(): Unit } ]
```

And this underlined code states that `speak` must return `Unit` (i.e., nothing):

```
[A <: { def speak(): Unit } ]
```

To demonstrate another example of the structural type signature, if you wanted to state that the `speak` method must take a `String` parameter and return a `Boolean`, the structural type signature would look like this:

```
[A <: {def speak(s: String): Boolean} ]
```

STRUCTURAL TYPES REQUIRE REFLECTION

As a word of caution, at the time of this writing this technique only works with Scala on the Java virtual machine (JVM) and requires Java reflection.

23.7 Creating Meaningful Type Names with Opaque Types

Problem

In keeping with practices like domain-driven design (DDD), you want to give values that have simple types like `String` and `Int` more meaningful type names to make your code safer.

Solution

In Scala 3, use opaque types to create meaningful type names. For an example of the problem, when a customer orders something on an ecommerce website, you may add it to a cart using the `customerId` and the `productId`:

```
def addToCart(customerId: Int, productId: Int) =
```

Because both types are `Int`, it's possible to confuse them. For instance, developers will call this method with integers like this:

```
addToCart(1001, 1002)
```

And because both fields are integers, it's possible to confuse them again later in the code:

```
// are you sure you have the right id here?  
if (id == 1000) ...
```

The solution to this problem is to create custom types as opaque types. A complete solution looks like this:

```
object DomainObjects:  
  
    opaque type CustomerId = Int  
    object CustomerId:  
        def apply(i: Int): CustomerId = i  
        given CanEqual[CustomerId, CustomerId] = CanEqual.derive  
  
    opaque type ProductId = Int  
    object ProductId:  
        def apply(i: Int): ProductId = i  
        given CanEqual[ProductId, ProductId] = CanEqual.derive
```

This lets you write code like this:

```
@main def opaqueTypes =  
    // import the types  
    import DomainObjects.*  
  
    // use the `apply` methods  
    val customerId = CustomerId(101)
```

```
val productId = ProductId(101)

// use the types
def addToCart(customerId: CustomerId, productId: ProductId): Unit = {
    // pass the types to the function
    addToCart(customerId, productId)
}
```

The `given CanEqual` portion of the solution also creates a compiler error if you attempt incorrect type comparisons at some future time:

```
// error: values of types DomainObjects.CustomerId
// cannot be compared with == or !=
if customerId == 1000

// also an error: this code will not compile
if customerId == productId ...
```

Discussion

When you work in a DDD style, one of the goals is that the names you use for your types should match the names used in the business domain. For example, when it comes to variable types you can say:

- A domain expert thinks about things like `CustomerId`,
`ProductId`, `Username`, `Password`,
`SocialSecurityNumber`, `CreditCardNumber`, etc.
- Conversely, they don't think about things like `Int`,
`String`, and `Double`.

Beyond DDD, an even more important consideration is functional programming. One of the benefits of writing code in a functional style is that other programmers should be able to look at our function signatures and quickly see what our function does. For example, take this function signature:

```
def f(s: String): Int
```

Assuming the function is pure, we see that it takes a `String` and returns an `Int`. Given only those facts we can quickly deduce that the function probably does one of these things:

- Determines the string length
- Does something like calculating the checksum of the string

We also know that the function doesn't attempt to convert the string to an int, because that process can fail, so a pure function that converts a string to an int will return the possible result in an error-handling type, like this:

```
def f(s: String): Option[Int]
def f(s: String): Try[Int]
def f(s: String): Either[Throwable, Int]
```

Given that pure function signatures are so important, we also don't want to write types like this:

```
def validate(
    username: String,
    email: String,
    password: String
)
```

Instead, our code will be easier to read and much more type-safe if we create our types like this:

```
def validate(
    username: Username,
    email: EmailAddress,
    password: Password
)
```

This second approach—using opaque types—improves our code in several ways:

- In the first example, all three parameters are strings, so it can be easy to call `validate` with the parameters in the wrong order. Conversely, it will be much more difficult to pass the parameters into the second `validate` method in the wrong order.
- The `validate` type signature will be much more meaningful to other programmers in their IDEs and in the Scaladoc.
- We can add validators to our custom types, so we can validate the `username`, `email` address, and `password` fields when they are created.
- By deriving `CanEqual` when creating opaque types, you can make it impossible for two different types to be compared using `==` and `!=`. (See [Recipe 23.12](#) for more details on using `CanEqual`.)
- Your code more accurately reflects the verbiage of the domain.

As shown in the Solution, opaque types are a terrific way to create types like `Username`, `EmailAddress`, and `Password`.

Benefits of the three-step solution

The code in the solution looks like this:

```
opaque type CustomerId = Int
```

```
object CustomerId:  
    def apply(i: Int): CustomerId = i  
given CanEqual[CustomerId, CustomerId] = CanEqual
```

While it's possible to create an opaque type with this one line of code:

```
opaque type CustomerId = Int
```

each step in the three-step solution serves a purpose:

- The `opaque type` declaration creates a new type named `CustomerId`. (Behind the scenes, a `CustomerId` is an `Int`.)
- The `object` with the `apply` method creates a factory method (constructor) for new `CustomerId` instances.
- The `given CanEqual` declaration states that a `CustomerId` can only be compared to another `CustomerId`. Attempting to compare a `CustomerId` to a `ProductId` or `Int` will create a compiler error; it's impossible to compare them. (See [Recipe 23.12](#) for more details on using `CanEqual`.)

History

There were several attempts to try to achieve a similar solution in Scala 2:

- Type aliases
- Value classes
- Case classes

Unfortunately, all of these approaches had weaknesses, as described in the [Scala Improvement Process \(SIP\) page for opaque types](#). The goal of opaque types, as described in that SIP, is that “operations on these wrapper types must not create any extra overhead at runtime while still providing a type safe use at compile time.” Opaque types in Scala 3 have achieved that goal.

Rules

There are a few rules to know about opaque types:

- They must be defined within the scope of an object, trait, or class.
- The type alias definition is visible only within that scope.
(Within that scope, your code can see that a `CustomerId` is really an `Int`.)
- Outside the scope, only the defined alias is visible. (Outside that scope, other code can't tell that `CustomerId` is really

```
an Int.)
```

As an important note for high-performance situations, the SIP also states “opaque type aliases are compiled away and have no runtime overhead.”

23.8 Using Term Inference with given and using

Problem

You have a value that’s passed into a series of function calls, such as using an `ExecutionContext` when you’re working with futures or Akka actors:

```
doX(a, ExecutionContext)
doY(b, c, ExecutionContext)
doZ(d, ExecutionContext)
```

Because this type of code is repetitive and makes the code harder to read, you’d prefer to write it like this instead:

```
doX(a)
doY(b, c)
```

doZ (d)

Therefore, you want to know how to use Scala 3 *term inference*, what used to be known in Scala 2 as *implicits*.

Solution

This solution involves multiple steps:

1. Define your `given` instances using the Scala 3 `given` keyword.
This typically involves the use of a base trait and multiple `given` instances that implement that trait.
2. When declaring the implicit parameter your function will use, put it in a separate parameter group and define it with the `using` keyword.
3. Make sure your `given` value is in the current context when your function is called.

In the following example I'll demonstrate the use of an `Adder` trait and two `given` values that implement the `Adder` trait's `add` method.

1. Define your given instances

In the first step you'll typically create a parameterized trait like this:

```
trait Adder[T] :  
    def add(a: T, b: T) : T
```

Then you'll implement the trait using one or more `given` instances, which you define like this:

```
given intAdder: Adder[Int] with  
    def add(a: Int, b: Int) : Int = a + b  
  
given stringAdder: Adder[String] with  
    def add(a: String, b: String) : String = s"${a}
```

In this example, `intAdder` is an instance of `Adder[Int]`, and defines an `add` method that works with `Int` values. Similarly, `stringAdder` is an instance of `Adder[String]` and provides an `add` method that takes two strings, converts them to `Int` values, adds them together, and returns the sum as a `String`. (To keep things simple I don't account for errors in this code.)

If you're familiar with creating implicits in Scala 2, this new approach is similar to that process. The idea is the same, it's just that the syntax has changed.

2. Declare the parameter your function will use with the `using` keyword

Next, declare your functions that use the `Adder` instances.

When doing this, specify the `Adder` parameter with the `using` keyword. Put the parameter in a separate parameter group, as shown here:

```
def genericAdder[T](x: T, y: T)(using adder: Adder)
    adder.add(x, y)
```

The keys here are that the `adder` parameter is defined with the `using` keyword in that separate parameter group:

```
def genericAdder[A](x: A, y: A)(using adder: Adder)
```

Also notice that `genericAdder` declares the generic type `A`. This function doesn't know if it will be used to add two integers

or two strings; it just calls the `add` method of the `adder` parameter.

CONTEXT PARAMETERS

In Scala 2, parameters like this were declared using the `implicit` keyword, but now, as the entire programming industry has various implementations of this concept, it is known as a *context parameter*, and it's declared with the `using` keyword as shown.

3. Make sure everything is in the current context

Finally, assuming that `intAdder`, `stringAdder`, and `genericAdder` are all in scope, your code can call the `genericAdder` function with `Int` and `String` values, without having to pass instances of `intAdder` and `stringAdder` into `genericAdder`:

```
println(genericAdder(1, 1))           // 2
println(genericAdder("2", "2"))        // 4
```

The Scala compiler is smart enough to know that `intAdder` should be used in the first instance, and `stringAdder` should be used in the second instance. This is because the first example uses two `Int` parameters and the second example uses two `String` values.

Anonymous givens and unnamed parameters

There's often no reason to give a `given` a name, so you can also use this “anonymous given” syntax instead of the previous syntax:

```
given Adder[Int] with
  def add(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b

given Adder[String] with
  def add(a: String, b: String): String = "" +
```

If you don't reference a context parameter inside your method, it doesn't require a name, so if `genericAdder` didn't reference the `adder` parameter, this line:

```
def genericAdder[A](x: A, y: A)(using adder: Adder[A]): A =
```

could be changed to this:

```
def genericAdder[A](x: A, y: A)(using Adder[A]): A =
```

Discussion

In the example shown in the Solution you could have passed the `intAdder` and `stringAdder` values in manually:

```
println(genericAdder(1, 1) (using intAdder))
println(genericAdder("2", "2") (using stringAdder))
```

But the point of using `given` values in Scala 3 is to avoid this repetitive code.

The reason for the significant syntax change in Scala 3 is that the Scala creators felt that the `implicit` keyword was overused in Scala 2: it could be used in several different places, with different meanings in each place.

Conversely, the new `given` and `using` syntax is more consistent and more obvious. For example, you might read the earlier code as, “Given an `intAdder` and a `stringAdder`, use those values as the `adder` parameter in the `genericAdder` method.”

Create your own API with extension methods

You can combine this technique with extension methods—which are demonstrated in [Recipe 8.9](#)—to create your APIs. For example, given this trait that has two extension methods:

```
trait Math[T]:  
    def add(a: T, b: T): T  
    def subtract(a: T, b: T): T  
    // extension methods: create your own api  
    extension (a: T)  
        def + (b: T) = add(a, b)  
        def - (b: T) = subtract(a, b)
```

you can create two given instances as before:

```
given intMath: Math[Int] with  
    def add(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b  
    def subtract(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a - b  
  
given stringMath: Math[String] with  
    def add(a: String, b: String): String = "" +  
    def subtract(a: String, b: String): String =
```

Then you can create genericAdd and genericSubtract functions:

```
// `+` here refers to the extension method  
def genericAdd[T](x: T, y: T)(using Math: Math[T])  
    x + y
```

```
// ` - ` here refers to the extension method
def genericSubtract[T](x: T, y: T)(using Math: MathOps[T])
  = x - y
```

Now you can use the `genericAdd` and `genericSubtract` functions without manually passing them the `intMath` and `stringMath` instances:

```
println("add ints: " + genericAdd(1, 1))
println("subtract ints: " + genericSubtract(1, 1))

println("add strings: " + genericAdd("2", "2"))
println("subtract strings: " + genericSubtract("2", "2"))
```

Once again the compiler can determine that the first two examples need the `intMath` instance, and the last two examples need the `stringMath` instance.

Alias givens

The `given` documentation states “an alias can be used to define a `given` instance that is equal to some expression.” To demonstrate this, imagine that you’re creating a search engine that understands different contexts. This might be a search

engine like Google, or a tool like Siri and Alexa, where you want your algorithm to participate in an ongoing conversation with a human.

For example, when someone performs a series of searches, they may be interested in a particular context like “food” or “life”:

```
enum Context:  
    case Food, Life
```

Given those possible contexts, you can write a `search` function to look up word definitions based on the context:

```
import Context.*  
  
// imagine some large decision-tree that uses the  
// to determine the meaning of the word that's pa  
def search(s: String)(using ctx: Context): String  
    case Food =>  
        s.toUpperCase match  
            case "DATE" => "like a big raisin"  
            case "FOIL" => "wrap food in foil be:  
            case _         => "something else"  
    case Life =>  
        s.toUpperCase match  
            case "DATE" => "like going out to din  
            case "FOIL" => "argh, foiled again!"
```

```
case _ => "something else"
```

In an ongoing conversation between a human and your algorithm, if the current context is `Food`, you'll have a `given` like this:

```
given foodContext: Context = Food
```

That syntax is known as an *alias given*, and `foodContext` is a `given` of type `Context`. Now when you call the `search` function, that context is magically pulled in:

```
val date = search("date")
```

This results in `date` being assigned the value “looks like a big raisin.” Note that you can still pass in the `Context` explicitly, if you prefer:

```
val date = search("date") (using Food) // "looks  
val date = search("date") (using Life) // "like
```

But again, the assumption here is that a function like `search` may be called many times, and the desire is to avoid having to

manually declare the `context` parameter.

Importing givens

When a `given` is defined in a separate module, which it usually will be, it must be imported into scope with a special import statement. That syntax is demonstrated in [Recipe 9.7](#), and this example also shows the technique:

```
object Adder:
    trait Adder[T]:
        def add(a: T, b: T): T
    given intAdder: Adder[Int] with
        def add(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b

    @main def givenImports =
        import Adder.*          // import all nongiven ...
        import Adder.given       // import the `given` de

    def genericAdder[A](x: A, y: A) (using adder:
        println(genericAdder(1, 1))
```

Per the [documentation on importing.givens](#), there are two benefits to this new import syntax:

- Compared to Scala 2, it's more clear where givens in scope are coming from.
- It enables importing all givens without importing anything else.

Note that the two `import` statements can be combined into one:

```
import Adder.{given, *}
```

It's also possible to import `given` values by their type:

```
object Adder:
    trait Adder[T]:
        def add(a: T, b: T): T

        given Adder[Int] with
            def add(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b
        given Adder[String] with
            def add(a: String, b: String): String =
                s"${a.toInt + b.toInt}"

    @main def givenImports =
        // when put on separate lines, the order of imports matters
        import Adder.*
        import Adder.{given Adder[Int], given Adder[String]}
```

```
def genericAdder[A] (x: A, y: A) (using adder:  
  println(genericAdder(1, 1))           // 2  
  println(genericAdder("2", "2"))       // 4
```

In this example the `given` imports can also be specified like this:

```
import Adder.{given Adder[?] }
```

or this:

```
import Adder.{given Adder[_] }
```

See the [Importing Givens documentation](#) for all up-to-date import usages.

See Also

- See the [Scala 3 documentation on given instances](#) for more details on givens.
- See the [Scala 3 documentation on importing.givens](#) for more details on importing givens.
- This [Scala 3 page on contextual abstractions](#) details the motivations behind changing from implicits to given

instances.

23.9 Simulating Dynamic Typing with Union Types

Problem

You have a situation where it would be helpful if a value could represent one of several different types, without requiring those types to be part of a class hierarchy. Because the types aren't part of a class hierarchy, you're essentially declaring them in a dynamic way, even though Scala is a statically typed language.

Solution

In Scala 3, a *union type* is a value that can be one of several different types. Union types can be used in a few ways.

In one use, union types let us write functions where a parameter can potentially be one of several different types. For example, this function, which implements the Perl definition of *true* and *false*, takes a parameter that can be either an `Int` or a `String`:

```
// Perl version of "true"  
  
def isTrue(a: Int | String): Boolean = a match  
  case 0 => false  
  case "0" => false  
  case "" => false  
  case _ => true
```

Even though `Int` and `String` don't share any direct parent types—at least not until you go up the class hierarchy to `Matchable` and `Any`—this is a type-safe solution. The compiler is smart enough to know that if I attempt to add a case that tests the parameter against a `Double`, it will be flagged as an error:

```
case 1.0 = > false // ERROR: this line won'
```

In this example, stating that the parameter `a` is either an `Int` or a `String` is a way of *dynamic typing* in a statically typed language. If you wanted to match additional types, you could just list them all, even if they don't share a common type hierarchy (besides `Matchable` and `Any`):

```
class Person  
class Planet
```

```
class BeachBall

// the type parameter:
a: Int | String | Person | Planet | BeachBall
```

AN IMPROVEMENT IN SCALA 3

The only way to write that function prior to Scala 3 was to make the function parameter have the type `Any`, and then match the `Int` and `String` cases in the match expression. (In Scala 2 you would use the type `Any`, and in Scala 3 you would use the type `Matchable`.)

In other uses, a function can return a union type, and a variable can be a union type. For example, this function returns a union type:

```
def aFunction(): Int | String =
  val x = scala.util.Random.nextInt(100)
  if (x < 50) then x else s"string: $x"
```

You can then assign the result of that function to a variable:

```
val x = aFunction()
val x: Int | String = aFunction()
```

In either of those uses, `x` will have the type `Int | String`, and will contain an `Int` or `String` value.

Discussion

A union type is a value that can be one of several different types. As shown, it's a way to create function parameters, function return values, and variables that can be one of many types, without requiring traditional forms of inheritance for that type. Union types provide an ad hoc way of combining types.

Combining union types with literal types

In another use, you can combine union types with *literal types* to create code like this:

```
// create a union type from two literal types
type Bool = "True" | "False"

// a function to use the union type

def handle(b: Bool): Unit = b match
  case "True"  => println("true")
  case "False" => println("false")

handle("True")
```

```
handle("False")
handle("Fudge") // error, won't compile

// this also works
val t: Bool = "True"
val f: Bool = "False"
val x: Bool = "Fudge" // error, won't compile
```

The ability to create your own types using the combined power of literal types and union types gives you more flexibility to craft your own APIs.

See Also

- [The SIP for literal-based singleton types](#)

23.10 Declaring That a Value Is a Combination of Types

Problem

You want a way to state that a value consists of a combination of types.

Solution

Similar to the way that union types let you state that a value can be one of many possible types, *intersection types* provide an ad hoc way of saying that a value is a combination of types.

For example, given these traits:

```
trait A:  
    def a = "a"  
trait B:  
    def b = "b"  
trait C:  
    def c = "c"
```

you can define a method that requires its parameter's type to be a combination of those types:

```
def handleABC(x: A & B & C): Unit =  
    println(x.a)  
    println(x.b)  
    println(x.c)
```

Now you can create a variable that matches that type and pass it into `handleABC`:

```
class D extends A, B, C
val d = D()
handleABC(d)
```

A terrific thing about intersection types is that the order in which the class you're creating implements the other types doesn't matter, so other examples like these also work:

```
class BCA extends B, C, A
class CAB extends C, A, B

// i use 'new' here to make this code easier to ...
handleABC(new BCA)
handleABC(new CAB)
```

Discussion

An intersection type lets you declare that a value is a combination of multiple types. As shown in the examples, intersection types are commutative, so the order in which the types are declared doesn't affect the match. The intent with Scala 3 is that `A & B` will replace `A with B`.

Here's another example that demonstrates the difference between union types and intersection types:

```
trait HasLegs:
    def run(): Unit
trait HasWings:
    def flapWings(): Unit

class Pterodactyl extends HasLegs, HasWings:
    def flapWings() = println("Flapping my wings")
    def run() = println("I'm trying to run")
    override def toString = "Pterodactyl"

class Dog extends HasLegs:
    def run() = println("I'm running")
    override def toString = "Dog"

// returns a union type
def getThingWithLegsOrWings(i: Int): HasLegs | HasWings =
    if i == 1 then Pterodactyl() else Dog()

// returns an intersection type
def getThingWithLegsAndWings(): HasLegs & HasWings =
    Pterodactyl()

@main def unionAndIntersection =
```

```

// union type
val d1 = getThingWithLegsOrWings(0)
val p1: HasLegs | HasWings = getThingWithLegsAndWings(1)

// intersection type
val p2 = getThingWithLegsAndWings()
val p3: HasLegs & HasWings = getThingWithLegsAndWings()

// these True/NotTrue tests use my SimpleTest trait
// they all evaluate to 'true'.
True(d1.isInstanceOf[Dog])
NotTrue(d1.isInstanceOf[Pterodactyl])

True(p1.isInstanceOf[Pterodactyl])

True(p1.isInstanceOf[HasLegs])
True(p1.isInstanceOf[HasWings])
NotTrue(p1.isInstanceOf[Dog])

// p2 and p3 are the same, so the p3 tests are omitted
True(p2.isInstanceOf[Pterodactyl])
True(p2.isInstanceOf[HasLegs])
True(p2.isInstanceOf[HasWings])
True(p2.isInstanceOf[HasLegs & HasWings])

```

As mentioned in the comments in the source code, all of those tests in the `@main` method evaluate to `true`, confirming that

the types work as expected. And as these examples show, the ad hoc use of union and intersection types makes Scala feel even more like a dynamic programming language.

See Also

- The tests shown in the last example use my [SimpleTest testing library](#).

23.11 Controlling How Classes Can Be Compared with Multiversal Equality

Problem

In Scala 2, and by default in Scala 3, any custom object can be compared to any other object:

```
class Person(var name: String)
class Customer(var name: String)

val p = Person("Kim")          // `new` is required because
val c = Customer("Kim")       // `Customer` in Scala
p == c
```

You may get a warning message to the effect that “this comparison will always be false,” but code like this will still compile.

To prevent potential errors in situations like this, you want to limit how objects can be compared to each other in Scala 3.

Solution

To completely disallow different types from being compared to each other, enable the Scala 3 *strict equality* feature in one of two ways:

- Import `scala.language.strictEqual` in files where you want to control equality comparisons.
- Use the `-language:strictEquality` command-line option to enable strict equality comparisons in all code.

After that, use the Scala 3 `CanEqual` typeclass to control what instances can be compared.

Import `scala.language.strictEqual`

This example shows how to disable comparisons of objects created from different classes by importing the `strictEquality` setting:

```
import scala.language.strictEquality

case class Dog(name: String)
case class Cat(name: String)

val d = Dog("Fido")
val c = Cat("Morris")

// this line will not compile with.strictEquality
println(d == c)
```

The last line of that code results in the compiler error “Values of types Dog and Cat cannot be compared with `==` or `!=`. ”

Note that this setting is extremely limiting. With `strictEquality` enabled, you can’t even compare two instances of the same custom type:

```
case class Person(name: String)

scala> Person("Ken") == Person("Ken")
1 |Person("Ken") == Person("Ken")
|Values of types Person and Person cannot be co
```

You must enable equality comparisons

With `strictEquality` enabled, you can only compare two instances of the same class by making sure your custom class derives the Scala 3 `CanEqual` typeclass:

```
import scala.language.strictEqualness
case class Person(name: String) derives CanEqual

// this now works, and results in `true`
Person("Ken") == Person("Ken")
```

See the next recipe for more details about using `CanEqual`.

Discussion

This recipe and the next recipe are all about type safety. Because Scala is a type-safe language, the goal of these recipes is to use that type safety to eliminate potential errors at compile-time.

23.12 Limiting Equality Comparisons with the `CanEqual` Typeclass

Problem

The previous recipe shows how to disable comparisons between different types. Now you want to enable comparisons between two instances of a custom type, or between two instances of different types.

Solution

When you use the `strictEquality` settings described in the previous recipe, you can't even compare two instances of the same class:

```
import scala.language.strictEquality
case class Person(name: String)

Person("Al") == Person("Al")
// error: Values of types Person and Person cannot be compared
```

Assuming that you've disabled comparisons of custom types with the `strictEquality` setting, to enable instances of your custom classes to be compared to each other, there are two possible solutions:

- Have the class derive the `CanEqual` typeclass.
- Use a `given` approach with `CanEqual` that accomplishes the same thing.

Derive CanEqual

The first solution is simple: just add `derives CanEqual` to the end of your class definition:

```
case class Person(name: String) derives CanEqual
```

Now `Person` comparisons will work:

```
import scala.language.strictEquality
Person("Al") == Person("Al")           // this works,
Person("Joe") == Person("Fred")        // false
```

The given+CanEqual approach

A second approach is to use the `given` syntax to accomplish the same result:

```
case class Person(name: String)
given CanEqual[Person, Person] = CanEqual.derived
```

The `given` code states that you want to allow two `Person` types to be compared to each other, so once again this code compiles:

```
import scala.language.strictEquality
Person("Al") == Person("Al") // this works, and
```

This approach is more flexible than the first approach because you can apply it to objects as well as classes, and you can also use it to declare that you want to be able to compare two different types.

For example, imagine a situation where you have a `Customer` class and an `Employee` class. If you're an enormous store, you may want to know if a customer is also an employee so you can give them a discount. Therefore, you'll want to allow `Customer` instances to be compared to `Employee` instances, so you'll write some code like this:

```
import scala.language.strictEquality

case class Customer(name: String):
  def canEqual(a: Any) = a.isInstanceOf[Customer]
  override def equals(that: Any): Boolean =
    if !canEqual(that) then return false
    that match
      case c: Customer => this.name == c.name
      case e: Employee => this.name == e.name
      case _ => false
```

```

case class Employee(name: String) :
    def canEqual(a: Any) = a.isInstanceOf[Employee]
    override def equals(that: Any): Boolean =
        if !canEqual(that) then return false
        that match
            case c: Customer => this.name == c.name
            case e: Employee => this.name == e.name
            case _ => false

given CanEqual[Customer, Customer] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[Employee, Employee] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[Customer, Employee] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[Employee, Customer] = CanEqual.derived

val c = Customer("Barb S.")
val e = Employee("Barb S.")
c == c // true
e == e // true
c == e // true
e == c // true
Customer("Cheryl") == Employee("Barb") // false

```

I took some shortcuts in writing that code, but the keys are:

- The `strictEquality` setting limits what types can be compared.

- The `equals` methods in the `Customer` and `Employee` classes allow themselves to be compared.
- The first two `given` lines allow customers to be compared to customers, and employees to be compared to employees.
- The second two `given` lines allow customers to be compared to employees, and employees to be compared to customers.
- The rest of the code demonstrates a few equality comparisons.

Note that if you want to compare a customer to an employee (`c == e`) and an employee to a customer (`e == c`), you must include both of the last two `CanEqual` expressions:

```
given CanEqual[Customer, Employee] = CanEqual.de...
given CanEqual[Employee, Customer] = CanEqual.de...
```

For a proper way to write `equals` methods, see [Recipe 5.9, “Defining an equals Method \(Object Equality\)”](#).

REFLEXIVE AND SYMMETRIC COMPARISONS

When we say that a type `Customer` can be compared to another `Customer`, this is a *reflexive* property (e.g., `a == a`). When we say that a `Customer` can be compared to an `Employee`, and an `Employee` can be compared to a `Customer`, this is a *symmetric* property (e.g., `a == b and b == a`).

Discussion

As with the previous recipe, this approach is all about type safety. First you enable `strictEquality`, as shown in the previous recipe, and then you enable only type comparisons between the types you want to compare. This approach creates compile-time errors, so it's impossible to compare types that you don't enable.

Note that with the `given` approach you can enable comparisons between types you don't control. For example, initially this comparison is not allowed:

```
2 == "2"    // error: Values of types Int and String cannot be compared with == or !=
```

But when you declare that you want to allow `String` to be compared to `Int`, the comparison is allowed:

```
given CanEqual[String, Int] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[Int, String] = CanEqual.derived

2 == "2"      // false, but the comparison is allowed
"2" == 2     // also false
```

Chapter 24. Best Practices

When I first came to Scala from Java in 2010, I was happy with the small things, such as eliminating a lot of `;`, `()`, and `{ }` characters, and working with a less verbose language that reminded me of Ruby. Not knowing much about the history of programming languages, I thought of Scala as being “Ruby with types,” and all of these were nice little wins that made for “a better Java.”

Over time, I wanted to add more to my repertoire and use Scala the way it’s intended to be used. As Ward Cunningham is quoted in the book *Clean Code* by Robert C. Martin (Prentice Hall), I wanted to write code that “makes it look like the language was made for the problem,” so I learned the collections classes and their methods, `for` expressions, `match` expressions, and modular development. That’s what this chapter is about: trying to share some of the best practices of Scala programming so you can write code in the “Scala way.”

Before jumping into the recipes in this chapter, here’s a short summary of the best Scala practices I know.

At the application level:

- As Martin Odersky has stated, write functions for the logic, and create objects for the modularity.
- When you write functions, try to write as many of them as you can as pure functions. Following the 80/20 rule, this is like writing 80% of your application as pure functions, with a thin layer of other code on top of those functions for things like I/O. As someone once wrote, it's like putting a thin layer of impure icing on a pure FP cake (though there are also ways of handling that "impure" code).
- Move behavior from classes into granular traits. I describe this approach in [Chapter 6](#).
- Use the Scala `Future` class and [Akka](#) library to implement concurrency.
- As you move more into FP, use libraries like [Cats](#), [Monix](#), and [ZIO](#) (which also provide support for concurrency).

At the daily coding level:

- Learn how to write pure functions ([Recipe 24.1](#)). At the very least, they simplify what you have to think about.
- Related to the first point, don't write functions that throw exceptions. Return types like `Option`, `Try`, or `Either` instead.
- Similarly, don't use methods like `head`, `tail`, and `last` that throw exceptions.

- Learn how to pass functions around as variables (see [Chapter 10](#)).
- Learn how to use the Scala collections API. Know the most common classes and methods. Knowing the methods will keep you from writing more verbose custom `for` loops.
- Prefer immutable code. Use `val` fields and immutable collections first ([Recipe 24.2](#)).
- Learn expression-oriented programming ([Recipe 24.3](#)).
- Functional programming languages are pattern-matching languages, so become an expert on `match` expressions ([Recipe 24.4](#)).
- Drop the `null` keyword from your vocabulary ([Recipe 24.5](#)). Use the `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` types instead ([Recipe 24.6](#)).
- Organize your code in modules ([Recipe 24.7](#)).
- Use test-driven development and/or behavior-driven development testing tools like [ScalaTest](#) and [MUnit](#), and a property-based testing tool like [ScalaCheck](#).
- As you become more proficient with Scala, learn how to use higher-order functions as a replacement for `match` expressions when handling the `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` types [Recipe 24.8](#).

Outside the code:

- Learn how to use sbt (as covered in [Chapter 17](#)) or other automated build tools.
- Keep a REPL session open while you’re coding so you can run small tests as needed ([Recipe 1.1, “Getting Started with the Scala REPL”](#)), or use online tools like [Scastie](#) or [ScalaFiddle](#).

Other Resources

In addition to the practices shared in this chapter, Twitter’s [“Effective Scala” page](#) remains a good resource. The Twitter team has been a big user and proponent of Scala, and this document summarizes its experiences.

The [Scala Style Guide](#) is also a good resource that shares examples of how to write code in the Scala style.

24.1 Writing Pure Functions

Problem

You want to write pure functions and also understand the benefits of writing them.

Solution

It's surprisingly hard to find a consistent definition of a pure function, so I'll give you the summary definition that I use in my book *Functional Programming, Simplified*:

A pure function is a function that depends only on its declared input parameters and its algorithm to produce its output. It doesn't read any other values from “the outside world”—the world outside of the function's scope—and it doesn't modify any values in the outside world. A pure function is total, meaning that its result is defined for every possible input, and it's deterministic, meaning that it always returns the same value for a given input.

To show how to write pure functions and their benefits, in this recipe I'll convert the methods in an object-oriented programming style class into pure functions.

The OOP approach

To simplify this solution, the following OOP-style class intentionally has a few flaws. It not only has the ability to store information about a `Stock` but also can access the internet to get the current stock price, and it further maintains a list of historical prices for the stock:

```
// a poorly written OOP-style class
```

```

class Stock (
    var symbol: String,
    var company: String,
    var price: BigDecimal,
    var volume: Long
) {
    var html: String = _ // null
    // create a url based on the stock symbol
    def buildUrl(stockSymbol: String): String =
        // this method calls out to the internet to ...
        // such as getting a page from yahoo finance
    def getUrlContent(url: String): String = ...
    def setPriceFromHtml(html: String): Unit =
        this.price = ...
    def setVolumeFromHtml(html: String): Unit =
        this.volume = ...
    def setHighFromHtml(html: String): Unit =
        this.high = ...
    def setLowFromHtml(html: String): Unit =
        this.low = ...

    // some DAO-like functionality
    private val _history: ArrayBuffer[Stock] = ...
    def getHistory = _history
}

```

Besides attempting to do too many things, from an FP perspective, it has these other problems:

- All the fields are mutable.
- All the `set*` methods mutate the class fields.
- The `getHistory` method returns a mutable data structure.

The `getHistory` method is easily fixed by converting the `ArrayBuffer` to an immutable sequence like `Vector` before sharing it, but this class has deeper problems. Let's fix them.

Fixing the problems

The first fix is to separate two concepts that are buried in the class. First, there should be a concept of a `Stock`, where a `Stock` consists only of a `symbol` and `company` name. You can make this a case class:

```
case class Stock(symbol: String, company: String)
```

Examples of this are `Stock("AAPL", "Apple")` and `Stock("GOOG", "Google")`.

Second, at any moment in time there is information related to a stock's performance on the stock market. You can call this data structure a `StockInstance` and also define it as a case class:

```
case class StockInstance(  
    symbol: String,  
    datetime: String,  
    price: BigDecimal,  
    volume: Long  
)
```

A `StockInstance` example looks like this:

```
StockInstance("AAPL", "Mar. 1, 2021 5:00pm", 127
```

That covers the data portion of the solution. Now let's look at how to handle the behaviors.

Behaviors

Going back to the original class, the `getUrlContent` method isn't specific to a stock and should be moved to a different object, such as a general-purpose `NetworkUtils` object:

```
object NetworkUtils:  
    def getUrlContent(url: String): String = ???
```

This method takes a URL as a parameter and returns the HTML content from that URL.

Similarly, the ability to build a URL from a stock symbol should be moved to an object. Because this behavior is specific to a stock, put it in an object named `StockUtils`:

```
object StockUtils:  
    def buildUrl(stockSymbol: String): String =
```

The ability to extract the stock price from the HTML (i.e., *screen scraping*) can also be written as a pure function and should be moved into the same object:

```
object StockUtils:  
    def buildUrl(stockSymbol: String): String =  
    def getPrice(html: String): String = ???
```

In fact, all of the methods named `set*` in the previous class should be `get*` methods in `StockUtils`:

```
object StockUtils:  
    def buildUrl(stockSymbol: String): String =
```

```
def getPrice(symbol: String, html: String): $  
def getVolume(symbol: String, html: String): $  
def getHigh(symbol: String, html: String): St  
def getLow(symbol: String, html: String): St
```

The methods `getPrice`, `getVolume`, `getHigh`, and `getLow` are all pure functions: given the same HTML string and stock symbol, they always return the same values, and they don't have side effects.

Following this thought process, the code will require date and time functions, so I put them in a `DateUtils` object:

```
object DateUtils:  
  def currentDate: String = ???  
  def currentTime: String = ???
```

These aren't pure functions, but at least they're in a logical location.

With this new design, you create an instance of a `Stock` for the current date and time as a simple series of expressions. First, retrieve the HTML that describes the stock from a web page:

```
val stock = Stock("AAPL", "Apple")
val url = StockUtils.buildUrl(stock.symbol)
val html = NetworkUtils.getUrlContent(url)
```

Once you have the HTML, extract the desired stock information, get the date, and create the `Stock` instance:

```
val price = StockUtils.getPrice(html)
val volume = StockUtils.getVolume(html)
val high = StockUtils.getHigh(html)
val low = StockUtils.getLow(html)
val date = DateUtils.currentDate
val stockInstance = StockInstance(symbol, date, p
```

Notice that all the variables are immutable, and each line is an expression. In fact, the code is now so simple that you can eliminate all the intermediate variables, if desired:

```
val html = NetworkUtils.getUrlContent(url)
val stockInstance = StockInstance(
    symbol,
    DateUtils.currentDate,
    StockUtils.getPrice(html),
    StockUtils.getVolume(html),
    StockUtils.getHigh(html),
```

```
    StockUtils.getLow(html)
)}
```

This simplicity is a great benefit of using pure functions.
“Output depends only on input, no side effects” is a simple mantra for pure functions.

As mentioned earlier, the methods `getPrice`, `getVolume`, `getHigh`, and `getLow` are all pure functions. But what about methods like `getDate`? It’s not a pure function, but the fact is, you need the date and time to solve the problem. This is part of what’s meant by having a healthy, balanced attitude about pure functions.

OTHER APPROACHES TO HANDLE IMPURE FUNCTIONS

There are more powerful ways to handle impure functions, and those approaches will return `Option`, `Try`, or `Either` or use external libraries like [Cats](#) or [ZIO](#). However, those approaches take a long time to introduce. Please see *Functional Programming, Simplified* for more details on some of those approaches.

As a final note about this example, there’s no need for the `Stock` class to maintain a mutable list of stock instances. Assuming that the stock information is stored in a database, you can create a `StockDao` (“data access object”) to retrieve the data:

```
object StockDao:  
    def getStockInstances(symbol: String): Seq[St  
    // other code ...
```

Though `getStockInstances` isn't a pure function, the resulting `Seq` class is immutable, so you can feel free to share it without worrying that it might be modified somewhere else in your application.

GET AND SET AREN'T NECESSARY

Although I use the prefix `get` in many of those method names, it's not necessary (or common) to follow a JavaBeans-like naming convention. In fact, partly because you write setter methods in Scala without beginning their names with `set` and partly to follow the [uniform access principle](#), many Scala APIs don't use `get` or `set` at all.

For example, think of Scala classes. Their accessors and mutators don't use `get` or `set`:

```
class Person(var name: String)  
val p = Person("William")  
p.name          // accessor  
p.name = "Bill" // mutator
```

StockUtils or Stock object?

The methods that were moved to the `StockUtils` class in the previous examples can also be placed in the companion object of the `Stock` class. That is, you could have placed the `Stock` class and object in a file named `Stock.scala`:

```
case class Stock(symbol: String, company: String)

object Stock:
    def buildUrl(stockSymbol: String): String = ...
    def getPrice(symbol: String, html: String): ...
    def getVolume(symbol: String, html: String): ...
    def getHigh(symbol: String, html: String): ...
    def getLow(symbol: String, html: String): ...
```

For the purposes of this example, I put these methods in a `StockUtils` class to be clear about separating the concerns of the `Stock` class and object. In your own practice, use whichever approach you prefer. See [Recipe 7.5](#) for more details on companion objects.

Discussion

If you're coming to Scala from a pure OOP background, it can be surprisingly difficult to write pure functions. Speaking for myself, prior to 2010 my code had followed the OOP paradigm

of encapsulating data and behavior in classes, and as a result, my methods almost always mutated the internal state of objects. Switching to pure functions and immutable values took a while to get comfortable with.

But a major benefit of writing pure functions is that it naturally leads you into a functional programming style, where you write your code as algebraic expressions and then combine those expressions to solve larger problems. A benefit of this coding style is that pure functions are easier to test.

For instance, attempting to test the `set` methods in the original code is harder than it needs to be. For each field (`price`, `volume`, `high`, and `low`), you have to follow these steps:

1. Set the `html` field in the object.
2. Call the current `set` method, such as
`setPriceFromHtml`.
3. Internally, this method reads the private `html` class field.
4. When the method runs, it mutates a field in the class
(`price`).
5. You have to get that field to verify that it was changed.
6. In more complicated classes, it's possible that the `html` and `price` fields may be mutated by other methods in the class.

The test code for the original class looks like this:

```
val stock = Stock("AAPL", "Apple", 0, 0)
stock.buildUrl
val html = stock.getUrlContent
stock.getPriceFromHtml(html)
assert(stock.getPrice == 200.0)
```

This is a simple example of testing one method that has side effects, but of course this can get much more complicated in a large application.

By contrast, testing a pure function is easier:

1. Call the function, passing in a known value.
2. Get a result back from the function.
3. Verify that the result is what you expected.

The functional approach results in test code like this:

```
val url = NetworkUtils.buildUrl("AAPL")
val html = NetworkUtils.getUrlContent(url)
val price = StockUtils.getPrice(html)
assert(price == 200.0)
```

Although the code shown isn't much shorter, it is much simpler. And as shown in other examples in this book, because pure functions are expressions, they can be reduced to this form, if you prefer:

```
val price = getPrice(getUrlContent(buildUrl("AAPL"))
assert(price == 200.0)
```

In many other situations where you have a series of pure expressions that don't depend on being run in a specific order, both you and the compiler are free to run them in parallel.

24.2 Using Immutable Variables and Collections

Problem

To make your code easier to write, read, test, and use in parallel/concurrent situations, you want to reduce the use of mutable objects and data structures in your code.

Solution

Begin with this simple philosophy, stated in the book *Programming in Scala*: “Prefer `val` fields, immutable objects, and methods without side effects. Reach for them first.” Then use other approaches with justification.

There are two components to “prefer immutability”:

- Prefer immutable collections. For instance, use immutable sequences like `List` and `Vector` before reaching for the mutable `ArrayBuffer`.
- Prefer immutable variables. That is, prefer `val` to `var`.

In Java, mutability is the default, and it can lead to unnecessarily dangerous code and hidden bugs. In the following example, even though the `List` parameter taken by the `trustMeMuHaHa` method is marked as `final`, the method can still mutate the collection:

```
// java
class EvilMutator {

    // trust me ... mu ha ha (evil laughter)
    public static void trustMeMuHaHa(final List<String> people) {
        people.clear();
    }
}
```

Although Scala treats method arguments as `val` fields, you leave yourself open to the exact same problem by passing around a mutable collection, like an `ArrayBuffer`:

```
def evilMutator(people: ArrayBuffer[Person]) =  
    people.clear()
```

Just as with the Java code, the `evilMutator` method can call `clear` because the contents of an `ArrayBuffer` are mutable.

Though nobody would write malicious code like this intentionally, accidents do happen. To make your code safe from this problem, if there's no reason for a sequence to be changed, don't use a mutable sequence class. By changing the sequence to a `Seq`, `List`, or `Vector`, you eliminate the possibility of this problem. In fact, the following code won't even compile:

```
def evilMutator(people: Seq[Person]) =  
    // ERROR - won't compile  
    people.clear()
```

Because `Seq`, `List`, and `Vector` are immutable sequences, any attempt to add or remove elements will fail.

Discussion

There are at least two major benefits to using immutable variables (`val`) and immutable collections:

- They represent a form of defensive coding; you don't have to worry about your data being accidentally changed.
- They're easier to reason about.

The examples shown in the Solution demonstrate the first benefit: if there's no need for other code to mutate your reference or collection, don't let them do it. Scala makes this easy.

The second benefit can be thought of in many ways, but I like to think about it when using actors and concurrency: If I'm using immutable collections, I can pass them around freely. There's no concern that another thread will modify my collection.

Using `val + mutable`, and `var + immutable`

When you write pure FP code everything is immutable, but if you're not writing pure FP code you can combine these tools.

For instance, some developers like to use these combinations:

- A mutable collection field declared as a `val`
- An immutable collection field declared as a `var`

These approaches generally seem to be used as follows:

- A mutable collection field declared as a `val` is typically made private to its class (or method).
- An immutable collection field declared as a `var` in a class is more often made publicly visible, that is, it's made available to other classes.

As an example of the first approach, the current Akka `FSM` class (`scala.akka.actor.FSM`) defines several mutable collection fields as private `val` fields, like this:

```
private val timers = mutable.Map[String, Timer]()

// some time later ...
timers -= name
timers.clear()
```

This is safe to do because the `timers` field is private to the class, so its mutable collection isn't shared with others.

An approach I used on a teaching project is a variation of this theme:

```
enum Topping { case Cheese, Pepperoni, Mushrooms

class Pizza:
    private val _toppings = collection.mutable.ArrayBuffer[Topping]
    def toppings = _toppings.toSeq
    def addTopping(t: Topping): Unit = _toppings += t
    def removeTopping(t: Topping): Unit = _toppings -= t
```

This code defines `_toppings` as a mutable `ArrayBuffer` but makes it a `val` that's private to the `Pizza` class. Here's my rationale for this approach:

- I made `_toppings` an `ArrayBuffer` because I knew that elements (`toppings`) would often be added and removed.
- I made `_toppings` a `val` because there was no need for it to ever be reassigned.
- I made it `private` so its accessor wouldn't be visible outside of my class.
- I created the methods `toppings`, `addTopping`, and `removeTopping` to let other code manipulate the collection.

- When other code calls the `toppings` method, I can give it an immutable copy of the toppings.

The more you learn about functional programming the more you'll find that mutable code like this isn't necessary. But until you become proficient with libraries like Cats, Monix, or ZIO, this can be a useful compromise.

In summary, always begin with the “prefer immutability” approach and only relax that philosophy when it makes sense for the current situation, that is, when you can properly rationalize your decision. The further you get into functional programming, the less you'll need to reach for mutable tools.

24.3 Writing Expressions (Instead of Statements)

Problem

You're used to writing statements in another programming language and want to learn how to write expressions in Scala, as well as the benefits of the expression-oriented programming philosophy.

Solution

To understand EOP, you have to understand the difference between a statement and an expression. [Wikipedia's EOP page](#) provides a concise distinction between the two:

Statements do not return results and are executed solely for their side effects, while expressions always return a result and often do not have side effects at all.

So statements are like this:

```
order.calculateTaxes()  
order.updatePrices()  
println(s"The product $name costs $price.")
```

and expressions are like this:

```
val tax = calculateTax(order)  
val price = calculatePrice(order)  
val s = s"The product $name costs $price."
```

Wikipedia's EOP page also states:

An expression-oriented programming language is a programming language where every (or nearly every) construction is an expression, and thus yields a value.

Because purely functional programs are written entirely with expressions, it further states that all pure FP languages are expression-oriented.

An example

The following example helps to demonstrate EOP. This recipe is similar to [Recipe 24.1](#), so it reuses the class from that recipe to show an initial OOP-style design:

```
// an intentionally poor design
class Stock(
    var symbol: String,
    var company: String,
    var price: String,
    var volume: String,
    var high: String,
    var low: String
):
    var html: String = _
    def buildUrl(stockSymbol: String): String =
    def getUrlContent(url: String): String = ???
    def setPriceUsingHtml(): Unit = this.price =
```

```
def setVolumeUsingHtml(): Unit = this.volume
def setHighUsingHtml(): Unit = this.high = ?
def setLowUsingHtml(): Unit = this.low = ???
```

Using this class results in code like this:

```
val stock = Stock("GOOG", "Google", "", "", "", ""
val url = stock.buildUrl(stock.symbol)
stock.html = stock.getUrlContent(url)

// a series of calls on an object (i.e., "statements")
stock.setPriceUsingHtml()
stock.setVolumeUsingHtml()
stock.setHighUsingHtml()
stock.setLowUsingHtml()
```

Although the implementation code isn't shown, all of these set methods extract data from the HTML that was downloaded from a Yahoo Finance page for a given stock, and then they update the fields in the current object.

After the first two lines, this code is not expression-oriented at all; it's a series of calls on an object to populate (mutate) the class fields, based on other internal data. These are statements,

not expressions; they don't yield values, and they do mutate state.

[Recipe 24.1](#) shows that by refactoring this class into several different components with mostly pure functions, you'll end up with the following code:

```
// a series of expressions
val url = StockUtils.buildUrl(symbol)
val html = NetworkUtils.getUrlContent(url)
val price = StockUtils.getPrice(html)
val volume = StockUtils.getVolume(html)
val high = StockUtils.getHigh(html)
val low = StockUtils.getLow(html)
val date = DateUtils.getDate()
val stockInstance = StockInstance(symbol, date, ...)
```

This code is expression-oriented. It consists of a series of simple expressions that pass values into pure functions (except for `getDate`), and each function returns a value that's assigned to a variable. The functions don't mutate the data they're given, and they don't have side effects, so they're easy to read, easy to reason about, and easy to test. Because they are simple expressions, most of them can be run in any order, and even run in parallel.

Discussion

In Scala, most expressions are obvious. For instance, the following two expressions both return results, which you expect:

```
val x = 2 + 2 // 4
val xs = List(1,2,3,4,5).filter(_ > 2) // List
```

However, for anyone coming from an OOP-style language, it can be more of a surprise that an `if/else` expression returns a value:

```
val max = if a > b then a else b
```

Match expressions also return a result:

```
val evenOrOdd = i match
  case 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 => "odd"
  case 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 => "even"
```

Even a `try/catch` block returns a value:

```
val result = try
    "1".toInt
  catch
    case _ => 0
```

Writing expressions like this is a feature of functional programming languages, and Scala makes using them feel natural and intuitive, and they also result in concise, expressive code.

Benefits

Because expressions always return a result and generally don't have side effects, there are several benefits to EOP:

- Pure functions are easier to reason about. Inputs go in, a result is returned, and there are no side effects. You don't have to worry that you just mutated state somewhere else in the application.
- As I demonstrate in [Recipe 24.1](#), pure functions are easier to test.
- Combined with Scala's syntax, EOP results in concise, expressive code.
- Although it has only been hinted at in these examples, expressions can often be executed in any order. This subtle

feature lets you execute expressions in parallel, which can be a big help when you’re trying to take advantage of multiple multicore CPUs.

See Also

- [The Wikipedia definition of a *statement*, and the difference between a statement and an expression](#)
- [The Wikipedia expression-oriented programming language \(EOP\) page](#)

24.4 Using Match Expressions and Pattern Matching

Problem

Pattern matching is a major feature of the Scala programming language, and you want to see examples of how to use it in different situations.

Solution

Match expressions—`match / case` statements—and pattern matching are used all the time in Scala code. If you’re coming to

Scala from Java, the most obvious uses of `match` expressions are:

- As a replacement for the Java `switch` statement
- To replace unwieldy `if / then` statements

However, pattern matching is so common, you'll find that `match` expressions are used in many more situations:

- As the body of a function
- Handling `Option` variables

Case statements are also used in:

- `try / catch` expressions
- The `receive` method of Akka Classic actors

The following examples demonstrate these techniques.

Replacement for the Java switch statement and unwieldy if/then statements

[Recipe 4.7, “Matching Multiple Conditions with One Case Statement”](#), shows that a `match` expression can be used like a Java `switch` statement:

```
val month = i match  
  case 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12
```

```
case 1    => "January"  
// the rest of the months here ...  
case 12   => "December"  
case _    => "Invalid month" // the default,
```

It can be used in the same way to replace unwieldy

`if/then/else` statements:

```
val evenOrOdd = i match  
  case 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 => "odd"  
  case 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 => "even"
```

These are simple uses of `match` expressions, but they're a good start.

As the body of a function or method

As you get comfortable with `match` expressions, you'll use them as the body of your functions, such as this function that determines whether the value it's given is `true`, using the Perl definition of “true”:

```
def isTrue(a: Matchable): Boolean = a match  
  case false | 0 | "" => false  
  case _   => true
```

See [Recipe 4.8, “Assigning the Result of a Match Expression to a Variable”](#), for more examples of using `match` expressions like this.

Use with Option variables

Match expressions work well with the `Option` / `Some` / `None` types. For instance, given this method `makeInt` that returns an `Option`:

```
import scala.util.control.Exception.allCatch
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = allCatch.op
```

you can handle the result from `makeInt` with a `match` expression:

```
makeInt(aString) match
  case Some(i) => println(i)
  case None => println("Error: Could not convert")
```

In a similar way, `match` expressions are a popular way of handling form verifications with the [Play Framework](#):

```
verifying("If age is given, it must be greater than zero")
  model =>
```

```
    model.age match {
      case Some(age) => age > 0
      case None => false
    }
)
```

You can also use the `fold` method on `Option` values to handle situations like this. For instance, those two examples can be written like this:

```
// first example
makeInt(aString).fold(println("Error..."))(print)

// second example
makeInt(aString).fold(false)(_ > 0)
```

See [Recipe 24.6](#) for more details and other ways to handle these situations.

In try/catch expressions

Case statements are also used in `try/catch` expressions. The following example shows how to write a `try/catch` expression that returns an `Option` when lines are successfully

read from a file and returns `None` if an exception is thrown during the file-reading process:

```
def readTextFile(filename: String): Option[List[String]] = {
    try
        Some(Source.fromFile(filename).getLines().mkString("\n"))
    catch
        case ioe: IOException =>
            None
        case fnf: FileNotFoundException =>
            None
}
```

Note that if the specific error is important in a situation like this, use the `Either / Left / Right` or `Try / Success / Failure` classes so you can return the failure information to the caller. See [Recipe 24.6](#) for more details.

In Akka actors

If you use the original Akka Classic “untyped” library, it helps to get comfortable with the use of `case` statements because they’re used with Akka actors as the primary way to handle incoming messages:

```
class SarahsBrain extends Actor {
    def receive = {
```

```
    case StartMessage => handleStartMessage()
    case StopMessage => handleStopMessage()
    case _ => log.info("Got something unexpected")
}

// other code here ...
}
```

See Also

- `match` expressions are demonstrated in many examples in [Chapter 4](#).
- As detailed in [Recipe 24.8](#), you can use higher-order functions to work with `Option`, `Either`, and `Try` values.

24.5 Eliminating null Values from Your Code

Problem

In keeping with modern best practices, you want to eliminate `null` values from your code.

Solution

David Pollak, author of the first edition of the book *Beginning Scala* and creator of the [Lift Framework](#), offers a wonderfully simple rule about `null` values:

Ban null from any of your code. Period.

Although I've used `null` values in this book to make some examples easier, in my own practice I no longer use them. I just imagine that there is no such thing as a `null` and write my code in other ways.

There are several common situations where you may be tempted to use `null` values, so this recipe demonstrates how *not* to use `null` values in those situations:

- When a `var` field in a class or method doesn't have an initial default value, declare it as an `Option`.
- When a function doesn't produce the intended result, you may be tempted to return `null`. Use `Option`, `Try`, or `Either` instead.
- If you're working with a Java library that returns `null`, convert it to an `Option` or something else.

Let's look at each of these techniques.

Initialize var fields with Option, not null

Possibly the most tempting time to use a `null` value is when a field in a class or method won't be initialized immediately. For instance, imagine that you're writing code for the next great social network app. To encourage people to sign up, during the registration process, the only information you ask for is an email address and a password. Because everything else is initially optional, when you write code in an OOP style, you might be tempted to write some code like this:

```
case class Address(city: String, state: String, ...)

class User(var email: String, var password: String,
          var firstName: String = _,
          var lastName: String = _,
          var address: Address = _)
```

The `User` class is bad news because `firstName`, `lastName`, and `address` are all declared to be `null` and can cause problems in your application if they're not assigned before they're accessed. The preferred approach is to define each optional field as an `Option`:

```
class User(var email: String, var password: String)
  var firstName = None: Option[String]
  var lastName = None: Option[String]
  var address = None: Option[Address]
```

Now you can create a `User` like this:

```
val u = User("al@example.com", "secret")
```

Then at some point later you can assign the other values like this:

```
u.firstName = Some("Al")
u.lastName = Some("Alexander")
u.address = Some(Address("Talkeetna", "AK", "996"))
```

Later in your code, you can access the fields like this:

```
u.address.foreach { a =>
  println(a.city)
  println(a.state)
  println(a.zip)
}
```

or this:

```
println(firstName.getOrElse("<not assigned>"))
```

In both cases, if the values are assigned, they'll be printed. In the first example, if `address` is `None`, the `foreach` loop won't be executed, so the print statements are never reached. This is because an `Option` can be thought of as a collection with zero or one element: if the value is `None`, it has zero elements, and if it's a `Some`, it has one element—the value it contains. With the `getOrElse` example, if the value isn't assigned, the string `<not assigned>` is printed.

On a related note, you should also use an `Option` in a constructor when a field is optional:

```
case class Address(
    street1: String,
    street2: Option[String],
    city: String,
    state: String,
    zip: String
)
```

Don't return null from methods

Because you should never use `null` in your code, the rule for returning `null` values from functions is easy: *don't do it.*

If you can't return `null`, what can you do? Return an `Option`. Or, if you need to know about an error that may have occurred in the method, use `Try` or `Either` instead of `Option`.

With an `Option`, your function signatures should look like this:

```
def doSomething: Option[String] = ???  
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = ???  
def lookupPerson(name: String): Option[Person] =
```

For instance, when reading a file, a function could return `null` if the process fails, but this code shows how to read a file and return an `Option` instead:

```
def readTextFile(filename: String): Option[List[String]] =  
  try  
    Some(io.Source.fromFile(filename).getLines)  
  catch  
    case e: Exception => None
```

This method returns a `List[String]` wrapped in a `Some` if the file can be found and read, or `None` if an exception occurs.

If you want the error information, use the

`Try / Success / Failure` classes (or `Either / Right / Left`) instead of `Option / Some / None`:

```
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}

def readTextFile(filename: String): Try[List[String]] = Try(io.Source.fromFile(filename).getLines.toList)
```

This code returns the lines of the file as a `List[String]` wrapped in a `Success` if the file can be read, or it returns an exception wrapped in a `Failure` if something goes wrong:

```
java.io.FileNotFoundException: Foo.bar (No such file or directory)
```

As a word of caution (and balance), the Twitter *Effective Scala* page recommends not overusing `Option`, and using the [null object pattern](#) where it makes sense. As usual, use your own judgment, but try to eliminate all `null` values with one of these approaches.

NULL OBJECTS

A *null object* is an object that extends a base type with a null or neutral behavior.

Here's a Scala implementation of [Wikipedia's Java example of a null object](#):

```
trait Animal:
    def makeSound(): Unit

class Dog extends Animal:
    def makeSound(): Unit = println("woof")

class NullAnimal extends Animal:
    def makeSound(): Unit = () // just returns Unit
```

The `makeSound` method in the `NullAnimal` class has a neutral, “do nothing” behavior. Using this approach, a method defined to return an `Animal` can return `NullAnimal` rather than `null`.

For more details on why you should never return `null` from a function, see my blog post [“Pure Function Signatures Tell All”](#).

Converting a null into an Option, or something else

The third major place you'll run into `null` values is in working with legacy Java code. There is no magic formula here, other than to capture the `null` value and return something else from your code. That may be an `Option`, a null object, an empty list, or whatever else is appropriate for the problem at hand.

For instance, the following `getName` method converts a result from a Java method that may be `null` and returns an `Option[String]` instead:

```
def getName(): Option[String] =  
    val name = javaPerson.getName()  
    if name == null then None else Some(name)
```

Discussion

Tony Hoare, inventor of the *null reference* for the ALGOL W programming language way back in 1965, refers to the creation of the `null` value as his [“billion-dollar mistake”](#). Languages like Java initially dealt with `null` references and `NullPointerException`'s with the use of `try / catch` constructs, but modern languages like Scala use other techniques to eliminate them entirely.

Eliminating null values in your code leads to these benefits:

- You completely eliminate an entire class of errors: null pointer exceptions.
- You'll never have to wonder, “Does this method return `null` if something goes wrong?”

- You won't have to write `if` statements to check for `null` values.
- Adding an `Option[T]` return type declaration to a method is a terrific way to indicate that something is happening in the method such that the caller may receive a `None` instead of a `Some[T]`. Using `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` is a much better approach than returning `null` from a method that is expected to return an object.
- You'll become more comfortable using `Option`, `Try`, and `Either`, and as a result, you'll be able to take advantage of how they're used in the collection libraries and other frameworks.

EXPLICIT NULLS IN SCALA 3

At the time of this writing, Scala 3.0.0 includes an opt-in compiler feature named *Explicit Nulls*. When you enable this feature, it changes the Scala type hierarchy so that `Null` is only a subtype of `Any`, instead of being a subtype of every reference type. Therefore, all the reference types—i.e., any type that extends `AnyRef`, such as `String`, `List`, and your custom types like `User`—are non-nullable.

You enable this feature with this `scalac` option:

```
-Yexplicit-nulls
```

When you enable this option, code like this no longer compiles:

```
val s: String = null
```

For more details on how this works, see the [Explicit Nulls page](#).

See Also

- [Tony Hoare’s “billion-dollar mistake” quote on Wikipedia](#)
- [Wikipedia’s page on null object patterns](#)
- The Scala 3 [explicit nulls documentation](#)

24.6 Using Scala’s Error-Handling Types (Option, Try, and Either)

Problem

For a variety of reasons, including removing `null` values from your code, you want to effectively use the

`Option` / `Some` / `None`, `Try` / `Success` / `Failure`, and `Either` / `Left` / `Right` classes.

Solution

There is some overlap between this recipe and [Recipe 24.5](#). That recipe shows how to use `Option` instead of `null` in the following situations:

- Using `Option` in function and constructor parameters
- Using `Option` to initialize class fields (instead of using `null`)
- Converting `null` results from other code (such as Java code) into an `Option`
- Returning `Option` from methods

See [Recipe 24.5](#) for examples of how to use `Option` in those situations. This recipe adds these solutions:

- Extracting the value from an `Option`
- Using `Option` with collections

- Using `Option` with frameworks
- Using `Try / Success / Failure` when you need the error message
- Using `Either / Left / Right` when you need the error message

Extracting the value from an Option

Here are two ways to define a `makeInt` function that catches the exceptions that can be thrown by `toInt` and return an `Option`:

```
import scala.util.control.Exception.allCatch
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = allCatch.op

import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}
def makeInt(s: String): Option[Int] = Try(s.trim
```

As a consumer of a method that returns an `Option`, there are several good ways to call it and access its result:

- Use a `match` expression
- Use `foreach`
- Use `getOrElse`
- Use other higher-order functions (HOFs)

Depending on your needs, a good way to access the `makeInt` result is with a `match` expression. You can return a value from a `match` expression:

```
val result = makeInt(aString) match
  case Some(i) => i
  case None => 0
```

You can also use a `match` expression to produce a side effect, such as printing to the outside world:

```
makeInt(aString) match
  case Some(i) => println(i)
  case None => println(0)
```

Because you can think of an `Option` as a collection with zero or one element, the `foreach` method can be used in situations where you handle the result as a side effect:

```
makeInt(aString).foreach{ i =>
  println(s"Got an int: $i")
}
```

That example prints the value if `makeInt` returns a `Some`, but it bypasses the `println` statement if `makeInt` returns a

`None`.

To (a) extract the value if the method succeeds or (b) use a default value if the method fails, use `getOrElse`:

```
val x = makeInt("1").getOrElse(0)    // 1
val y = makeInt("A").getOrElse(0)    // 0
```

You can also use the HOFs that are available on `Option`, as shown in [Recipe 24.8](#).

Using Option with Scala collections

Another great feature of `Option` is that it's used often in the Scala collections. For instance, starting with a list of strings like this:

```
val possibleNums = List("1", "2", "foo", "3", "ba
```

imagine that you want a list of all the integers that can be converted from that list of strings. By passing the `makeInt` method into the `map` method, you can convert every element in the collection into a `Some` or `None` value:

```
scala> possibleNums.map(makeInt)
```

```
res0: List[Option[Int]] = List(Some(1), Some(2),
```

This is a good start. As shown in [“flatten with Seq\[Option\]”](#), because an `Option` can be thought of as a collection of zero or one element, you can convert this `List[Option[Int]]` values into a `List[Int]` by adding `flatten` after `map`:

```
val a = possibleNums.map(makeInt).flatten // a
```

As shown in [Recipe 13.6, “Flattening a List of Lists with flatten”](#), this is the same as calling `flatMap`:

```
val a = possibleNums.flatMap(makeInt) // a: List
```

The `collect` method provides another way to achieve the same result:

```
scala> possibleNums.map(makeInt).collect{case Some(i) => i}
res0: List[Int] = List(1, 2, 3)
```

That example works because the `collect` method takes a partial function, and in this case the anonymous function that I

pass in is only defined for `Some` values; it ignores the `None` values. (See [Recipe 10.7, “Creating Partial Functions”](#), for more details on the `collect` method.)

All of these examples work for several reasons:

- `makeInt` is defined to return an `Option`, specifically an `Option[Int]`.
- Collections methods like `flatten`, `flatMap`, and `collect` are built to work with `Option` values.
- You can pass methods, functions, and anonymous functions into the methods of collections classes.

Using Option with other frameworks

When you use third-party Scala libraries, you’ll find that `Option` is used to handle situations where a variable is optional. For instance, they’re baked into the [Play Framework’s Anorm database library](#), where you use `Option` values for database table fields that can be `null`. The following example shows how to write a SQL `SELECT` statement with Anorm. Here, the third field may be `null` in the database, so I use pattern matching with `Some` and `None` values in a `collect` method:

```
def getAll() : List[Stock] =
```

```
-  
DB.withConnection { implicit connection =>  
    sqlQuery().collect {  
  
        // use Some when the 'company' field  
        case Row(id: Int, symbol: String, Some(company)) =>  
            Stock(id, symbol, Some(company))  
  
        // use None when the 'company' field  
        case Row(id: Int, symbol: String, None) =>  
            Stock(id, symbol, None)  
  
    }.toList  
}
```

`Option` is also used extensively in Play Framework validation methods. In this example, `model.age` is an `Option[Int]`:

```
verifying("If age is given, it must be greater than zero") {  
    model => model.age match  
        case Some(age) => age < 0  
        case None => true  
    }  
}
```

SCALA.UTIL.CONTROL.EXCEPTION.ALLCATCH

The `scala.util.control.Exception` object gives you another way to use `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` values. For instance, you can remove `try/catch` blocks from functions and replace them with `allCatch`:

```
import scala.util.control.Exception.allCatch
import scala.io.Source

def readTextFile(f: String): Option[List[String]] =
  allCatch.opt(Source.fromFile(f).getLines.toList)
```

`allCatch` is a `Catch` object that catches everything. The `opt` method returns `None` if an exception is caught—such as a `FileNotFoundException`—and a `Some` if the block of code succeeds. Other `allCatch` methods support the `Try` and `Either` approaches.

Use Try or Either when you want access to the failure reason

When you want to use the `Option`/`Some`/`None` approach but also want to write a method that returns error information in the failure case, there are two similar sets of error-handling classes:

- `Try`, `Success`, and `Failure`
- `Either`, `Left`, and `Right`

In this section I'll demonstrate the `Try` / `Success` / `Failure` classes.

`Try` is similar to `Option`, but it returns exception information in a `Failure` object, as opposed to `None`, which doesn't give you this information. The result of a computation wrapped in a `Try` will be one of its subclasses:

- `Success` (which is like `Some`)
- `Failure` (which is similar to `None`)

If the computation succeeds, a `Success` instance is returned and contains the desired result; if an exception was thrown, a `Failure` is returned and holds information about what failed.

To demonstrate this, first import the classes and create a test function:

```
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}
def divideXByY(x: Int, y: Int): Try[Int] = Try(x / y)
```

This function returns a successful result as long as `y` is not zero. When `y` is zero, an `ArithmaticException` is thrown. However, the exception isn't thrown out of the method—it's caught by the `Try`, and `Try` returns a `Failure` object from

the method. The REPL demonstrates how the Success and Failure cases work:

```
scala> divideXByY(1,1)
res0: scala.util.Try[Int] = Success(1)

scala> divideXByY(1,0)
res1: scala.util.Try[Int] = Failure(java.lang.Arithme
```

As with Option, you access the Try result using a match expression, foreach, getOrElse, or the HOFs shown in [Recipe 24.8](#). For instance, one way to access the information in the Failure message is with a match expression:

```
divideXByY(1, 1) match
  case Success(i) => println(s"Success, value: $i")
  case Failure(s) => println(s"Failed, message: $s")
```

As with Option, foreach works well for side effects like printing:

```
divideXByY(1, 1).foreach(println)      // prints 1
divideXByY(1, 0).foreach(println)      // no output
```

If you don't care about the error message and just want a result, use `getOrElse`:

```
val x = divideXByY(1, 1).getOrElse(0)    // x: 1
val y = divideXByY(1, 0).getOrElse(0)    // y: 0
```

With the `Try` class you can chain operations together, catching exceptions as you go. For example, the following code won't throw an exception, regardless of what the actual values of `x` and `y` are:

```
// 'x' and 'y' are String values
val z = for
  a <- Try(x.toInt)
  b <- Try(y.toInt)
yield
  a * b

val answer = z.getOrElse(0) * 2
```

If `x` and `y` are `String` values like `"1"` and `"2"`, this code works as expected, with `answer` resulting in an `Int` value. If either `x` or `y` is a `String` that can't be converted to an `Int`, `z` will have a `Failure` value:

```
z: scala.util.Try[Int] =  
Failure(java.lang.NumberFormatException: For
```

If `x` or `y` is `null`, `z` will have this value:

```
z: scala.util.Try[Int] = Failure(java.lang.NumberFormatException: For
```

In either `Failure` case, the code handles the cases gracefully.

Discussion

You can also use the `Either`, `Left`, and `Right` classes instead of `Option` or `Try`. This code shows two ways to write `divideXByY` while returning an `Either` type:

```
// 1st approach  
import scala.util.control.Exception.allCatch  
def divideXByY(x: Int, y: Int): Either[Throwable,  
  
// 2nd approach  
import scala.util.{Try, Success, Failure}  
def divideXByY(x: Int, y: Int): Either[Throwable,
```

As shown in `Either`'s type signature, you declare both types that can be returned by your method. By convention, the `Left` type contains the failure information you want to return, and the `Right` type contains the success value.

`Either` is more flexible than `Try` in that it's more general; it's really just a value that contains one of two possible types (technically known as a *disjoint union*). You can see from its type signature that it's a container of two possible types, `A` or `B`:

```
Either[+A, +B]
```

When used in error handling, `Left` typically contains a `Throwable` or `String` that represents the error, but because `Either` is really just a container of two types, it can be used for anything. This code shows one way to write the `makeInt` method using `Either`, where the left value is now a `String`:

```
def makeInt(s: String): Either[String, Int] =  
  try  
    Right(s.trim.toInt)  
  catch  
    case e: Exception => Left(e.getMessage)
```

These examples show two possible results from calling

```
makeInt :
```

```
makeInt("1")      // Right(1)
makeInt("a")      // Left(For input string: "a")
```

Either is *right-biased*, which means that Right is the default case to operate on, so methods like map work on the default case:

```
makeInt("1").map(_ * 2)      // Right(2)
makeInt("a").map(_ * 2)      // Left(For input strin
```

Because of this, Either works well in for expressions:

```
val x =
  for
    a <- makeInt("1")
    b <- makeInt("2")
  yield
    a + b

// result: x == Right(3)
```

match expressions work just like Option and Try:

```
makeInt(aString) match
  case Right(x) => println(s"Success, x = $x")
  case Left(s)   => println(s"Failure, message = $s")
```

USING EITHER IS PREPARATION FOR WORKING WITH FP LIBRARIES

While reviewing this chapter, Hermann Hueck made the point that two benefits of using `Either` are that (a) it's more flexible than `Try`, because you can control the error type, and (b) using it gets you ready to use FP libraries like [Cats](#) and [ZIO](#), which use `Either` and similar approaches extensively.

Don't use the get method

When you first come to Scala you may be tempted to use the `get` method to access the result:

```
val x = makeInt("5").get // x: 5
```

But don't do this. It isn't any better than a `NullPointerException`:

```
val x = makeInt("foo").get // java.util.NoSuchElementException: No value present
```

It's a best practice to never call `get` on an `Option`. The preferred approaches are to use a `match` expression, `foreach`, `getOrElse`, or the HOFs shown in [Recipe 24.8](#). As with `null` values, I find it best to imagine that `get` doesn't exist.

Other methods

Another distinguishing feature of these types is the methods they support. For instance, `Option`, `Try`, and `Either` have these common methods:

- Collections-like methods in `flatMap`, `flatten`, `fold`, `foreach`, and `map`
- Methods to access the enclosed value like `getOrElse` and `orElse`

`Option` and `Try` have these additional common methods:

- `collect`, `filter`

`Option` has these additional collection-like methods:

- `contains`, `empty`, `exists`, `forall`, `isDefined`, `isEmpty`, `nonEmpty`, `reduce`, `take`, and `takeWhile`

`Try` has additional methods to help you recover from errors:

- `recover`, `recoverWith`, and `transform`, which let you gracefully handle `Success` and `Failure` results

`Either` has these additional methods:

- `contains`, `filterOrElse`, `forall`, and more generally, additional left/right manipulation methods like `joinLeft`, `joinRight`, `left`, and `swap`

See Also

- See the Scaladoc for the [Option](#), [Try](#), and [Either](#) classes for more information.

24.7 Building Modular Systems

Problem

You’re familiar with Martin Odersky’s statement that Scala developers should use “functions for the logic, and objects for the modularity,” so you want to know how to build modules in Scala.

Solution

To understand this solution, you have to understand the concept of a *module*. The book *Programming in Scala* describes a module as “a ‘smaller program piece’ with a well defined interface and a hidden implementation.” More importantly, it adds this discussion:

Any technique that aims to facilitate this kind of modularity needs to provide a few essentials. First, there should be a module construct that provides a good separation of interface and implementation. Second, there should be a way to replace one module with another that has the same interface without changing or recompiling the modules that depend on the replaced one. Lastly, there should be a way to wire modules together. This wiring task can be thought of as configuring the system.

Regarding these three points, Scala provides these solutions:

- Inheritance and mixins with traits, classes, and objects provide a good separation of interface and implementation.
- Inheritance also provides a mechanism for one module to be replaced by another.
- Creating objects (reifying them) from traits provides a way to wire modules together.

With a modular approach you write code like this:

```
trait Database { ... }
object MockDatabase extends Database { ... }
object TestDatabase extends Database { ... }
object ProductionDatabase extends Database { ... }
```

Using this approach you define the desired method signatures—the interface—in the base `Database` trait, and potentially you implement some behavior there as well. Then you create the three objects for your Dev, Test, and Production environments. The actual implementation may be a little more complicated than this, but that's the basic idea.

Programming with modules in Scala goes like this:

- Think about your problem, and create one or more base traits to model the interface for the problem.
- Implement your interfaces with pure functions in more traits that extend the base trait.
- Combine (compose) the traits together as needed to create other traits.
- When necessary and desirable, create an object from those traits.

An example

Here's an example of this technique. Imagine that you want to define the behaviors for a dog, let's say an Irish setter. One way to do this is to jump right in and create an `IrishSetter` class:

```
class IrishSetter { ... }
```

This is generally a bad idea. A better idea is to think about the interfaces for different types of dog behaviors and then build a specific implementation of an Irish setter when you're ready.

For example, an initial thought is that a dog is an animal:

```
trait Animal
```

More specifically, a dog is an animal with a tail, and that tail has a color:

```
import java.awt.Color
abstract class AnimalWithTail(tailColor: Color) <
```

Next, you might think, "Since a dog has a tail, what kind of behaviors can a tail have?" With that thought, you'll sketch a

trait like this:

```
trait DogTailServices:  
    def wagTail = ???  
    def lowerTail = ???  
    def raiseTail = ???
```

Next, because you know that you only want this trait to be mixed into classes that extend `AnimalWithTail`, you'll add a self-type to the trait:

```
trait DogTailServices:  
    // implementers must be a sub-type of AnimalWithTail  
    this: AnimalWithTail =>  
  
    def wagTail = ???  
    def lowerTail = ???  
    def raiseTail = ???
```

As shown in [Recipe 6.6, “Marking Traits So They Can Only Be Used by Subclasses of a Certain Type”](#), this peculiar looking line declares a self-type:

```
this: AnimalWithTail =>
```

This self-type means, “This trait can only be mixed into other traits, classes, and objects that extend `AnimalWithTail`.”

Trying to mix it into other types results in a compiler error.

To keep this example simple, I’ll go ahead and implement the functions (*services*) in the `DogTailServices` trait like this:

```
trait DogTailServices:  
    this: AnimalWithTail =>  
        def wagTail() = println("wagging tail")  
        def lowerTail() = println("lowering tail")  
        def raiseTail() = println("raising tail")
```

Next, as I think more about a dog, I know that it has a mouth, so I sketch another trait like this:

```
trait DogMouthServices:  
    this: AnimalWithTail =>  
        def bark() = println("bark!")  
        def lick() = println("licking")
```

I could keep going on like this, but I hope you see the idea: you think about the services—the behaviors or functions—that are associated with a domain object (like a dog), and then you

sketch those services as pure functions in logically organized traits.

DON'T GET BOGGED DOWN

When it comes to designing traits, just start with your best ideas, then reorganize them as your thinking becomes more clear. As an example, the Scala collections classes have been redesigned several times as the designers understood the problems better.

Now I'll stop defining new dog-related behaviors and will create a module as an implementation of an Irish setter with the services I've defined so far:

```
object IrishSetter extends
    AnimalWithTail(Color.red),
    DogTailServices,
    DogMouthServices
```

If you start the REPL and import the necessary `Color` class:

```
scala> import java.awt.Color
import java.awt.Color
```

and then import all of those traits into the REPL (not shown here), you'll see that you can call the functions/services on your

```
IrishSetter:
```

```
scala> IrishSetter.wagTail()  
wagging tail  
  
scala> IrishSetter.bark()  
bark!
```

While this is a relatively simple example, it shows the general process of programming with modules in Scala.

About service

The name *service* comes from the fact that these functions provide a series of public services that are essentially available to other programmers. Although you're welcome to use any name, I find that this name makes sense when you imagine that these functions are implemented as a series of web service calls. For instance, when you use Twitter's REST API to write a Twitter client, the functions made available to you in that API are considered to be a series of web services.

Discussion

The reasons for adopting a modular programming approach are described in *Programming in Scala*:

As a program grows in size, it becomes increasingly important to organize it in a modular way. First, being able to compile different modules that make up the system separately helps different teams work independently. In addition, being able to unplug one implementation of a module and plug in another is useful, because it allows different configurations of a system to be used in different contexts, such as unit testing on a developer's desktop, integration testing, staging, and deployment.

Regarding the first point, in functional programming it's nice to be able to say, "Hey, Team A, how about if you work on the Order functions and Team B works on the Pizza functions?"

Regarding the second point, a good example is that you might use a mock database in your Dev environment and then use real databases in the Test and Production environments. In this case you'll create traits like these:

```
trait Database { ... }
object MockDatabase extends Database { ... }
object TestDatabase extends Database { ... }
object ProductionDatabase extends Database { ... }
```

A detailed variation of this example is shown in [Chapter 27 of Programming in Scala](#).

24.8 Handling Option Values with Higher-Order Functions

Problem

Using `match` expressions to handle `Option` values works well but is somewhat verbose, and you want to use higher-order functions as a more advanced and concise way to handle `Option` values.

Solution

This recipe shows advanced ways to work with `Option` values in different circumstances, specifically how to use higher-order functions as alternatives to `match` expressions, which are very readable but can be verbose. Some of the examples also apply to the `Try` and `Either` types.

Sample data

The advanced HOF techniques are demonstrated in [Table 24-1](#).

The idea of this table is that rather than use the `match` expressions shown in the second column, you can use the more concise HOF solutions shown in the third column.

The table is sorted by the result type of each `match` expression, which is what you're thinking about when trying to solve a problem, e.g., “I need to print the value in a `Some`, and I know this is a side effect that returns `Unit`, how do I do that?” In this case you look into the table knowing this and find the solution in the first row. Therefore, you can use the `match` expression in the second column, or the other options shown in the third column. Similarly, use the solutions shown in the second and third rows when you want to extract the value out of the `Some`, or use the `default` value; in both solutions the result has the type `A`.

As a setup for those solutions, here are some functions and values that will be used in the table:

```
// functions
def p(i: Int): Boolean = i == 1          // type A
def f(i: Int): Int = i * 2                // type A
def fo(i: Int): Option[Int] = Some(i * 2) // type Option[A]

// values
```

```

val option: Option[Int] = Some(1)
val none: Option[Int] = None

val default = 0

val defaultSome = Some(0)
val stringOption = Option("foo")

```

In that code:

- `p` is a predicate of type `Int => Boolean` (or more generally, `A => Boolean`)
- `f` is a function of type `Int => Int` (or more generally, `A => A`)
- `fo` is a function that returns an `Option` (so `fo`'s type signature is `A => Option[A]`)

Regarding the examples in [Table 24-1](#):

- Because you know what result type you want when working with an `Option` in a specific situation, the table is sorted by the expression return type, which is shown in the first column.
- While my code uses `Int` values, in all but one example you can think of the expressions as using a generic type `A`.

Given that background, [Table 24-1](#) shows the examples, with the relatively long `match` expressions and their equivalent HOFs.

Table 24-1. Match expressions and their equivalent HOFs

Result Type	Match Expression	HOF
Unit	<pre>// use match for a side effect effect option match case Some(i) => println(i) case None => ()</pre>	<pre>option.foreach(println) // or this: for o <- option do println(o)</pre>
A	<pre>option match case Some(i) => i case None => => default</pre>	<pre>option.getOrElse(default) option.fold(default)(x => x)</pre>
A	<pre>// apply a function to the // option value option match case Some(i) => f(i) case None => default</pre>	<pre>option.map(f) .getOrElse(default) option.fold(default)(f)</pre>

Result Type	Match Expression	HOF
Option[A]	<pre>option match case Some(i) => fo(i) case None => None</pre>	<pre>option.map(f) option.flatMap(i => fo(i)) for i <- option yield f(i)</pre>
Option[A]	<pre>option match case Some(x) => Some(x) case None => defaultSome</pre>	<pre>option.orElse(defaultSome)</pre>
Option[A]	<pre>option match case Some(x) if p(x) => Some(x) case _ => None</pre>	<pre>option.filter(p) option.find(p)</pre>
Option[A]	<pre>option match case Some(x) if !p(x) => Some(x) case None => None</pre>	<pre>option.filterNot(p)</pre>
Boolean	<pre>option match case Some(x) => p(x) case None => true</pre>	<pre>option.forall(p)</pre>

Result Type Match Expression HOF

Boolean

```
option match      case  
  Some(x) => p(x)      case  
  None => false
```

```
option.exists(p)
```

Boolean

```
option match      case  
  Some(a) => false      case  
  None => true
```

```
option.isEmpty
```

Boolean

```
option match      case  
  Some(x) => true      case  
  None => false
```

```
option.isDefined
```

```
option.nonEmpty
```

Boolean

```
// the example uses 'x ==  
1' // because I use  
Option[Int] option match  
  case Some(x) => x == 1  
  case None => false
```

```
option.contains(1)
```

Int

```
option match      case  
  Some(x) => 1      case None  
  => 0
```

```
option.size
```

Result Type Match Expression HOF

Int

```
option match    case
Some(x) if p(x) => 1
case _ => 0
```

```
option.count(p)
```

Seq, List, etc.

```
option match    case
Some(x) => Seq(x)    case
None => Nil
```

```
option.toSeq option.toList
(also toVector, toArray,
toSet, etc.)
```

Either[Int, Int]

```
= Right
Some(x) => Right(x)
case None =>
Left(default)
```

```
option.toRight(default)
```

Either[Int, Int]

```
= Left
Some(x) => Left(x)    case
None => Right(default)
```

```
option.toLeft(default)
```

A OR null

```
stringOption match    case
Some(x) => x    case None
=> null
```

```
// only use this for Java APIs // that need it
stringOption.orNull
```

Note that I put the `null` example in the last row because you should never use that, unless you're interacting with a Java API that needs it.

Discussion

Here are some examples to show how the HOFs in the third column of [Table 24-1](#) work:

```
option.fold(default)(f)          // 2
none.fold(default)(f)           // 0

option.map(f).getOrElse(default) // 2
none.map(f).getOrElse(default)  // 0

option.flatMap(i => fo(i))     // Some(2)
none.flatMap(i => fo(i))       // None

option.orElse(defaultSome)      // Some(1)
none.orElse(defaultSome)        // Some(0)

option.forall(p)                // true
option.find(p)                  // Some(1)
option.filter(p)                // Some(1)

option.toSeq                      // Seq[Int] =
none.toSeq                       // Seq[Int] =
```

Some examples like the `fold` example might be a little hard to grasp at first glance, but if you think about it, its use is consistent with sequences, where `fold` takes an initial seed value and a folding function. Because an `Option` can be thought of as a collection of zero or one element, the seed value works as the default in the case where the `Option` is `None`, and the function you supply is applied in the case where `Option` is a `Some`. That being said, I always think that being able to read code in the future—code maintenance—is extremely important, so I recommend only using code that you think you’re comfortable with.

See Also

- For more examples of these techniques, watch [this LambdaConf 2015 video by Marconi Lanna](#), which helps to round out the last few examples in the table.

Index

Symbols

! method, executing command and getting exit code, [Using the ! method](#)

!! method, executing command and getting output, [Solution](#)

" (quotation marks), surrounding multiline strings, [Solution](#)

(hash), MacOS comment lines, [Reading more complicated text file formats](#)

#| method, pipelining commands, [Solution](#)

\$ (dollar sign), preceding variable names, [Solution](#)

% method, libraryDependencies strings, sbt, [Methods used to build libraryDependencies](#)

%% method, sbt

 in build.sbt file, [Discussion](#)

 libraryDependencies strings, [Methods used to build libraryDependencies](#)

%%% method, sbt

 in build.sbt file, [Discussion](#)

 libraryDependencies strings, [Methods used to build libraryDependencies](#)

() (parentheses), leaving off accessor methods, [Problem](#)

* (asterisk)

import statements, [Packaging and Imports](#), [Solution](#),
[Discussion](#)

varargs field declaration, [Solution](#)

*: syntax (tuples), [Tuples are like lists](#)

+ (variance symbol), [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#), [Discussion](#), [Examples in the standard library](#)

+ method

 adding elements to immutable Map, [Adding elements](#)

 adding elements to immutable Set, [Immutable Set](#)

++ method

 adding elements to immutable Set, [Immutable Set](#)

 merging sequential collections, [The ++ or concat methods](#)

 mutable collections, [Immutable collection methods](#)

++= method

 adding elements to mutable Queue, [Solution](#)

 adding elements to mutable Set, [Mutable Set](#)

 adding multiple elements to mutable Map, [Solution](#)

 in build.sbt file, [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)

 merging sequential collections, [The ++= method](#)

 mutable collections, [Immutable collection methods](#)

+= method

 adding elements to mutable Map, [Solution](#)

 adding elements to mutable Queue, [Solution](#)

adding elements to mutable Set, [Mutable Set](#)

in build.sbt file, [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)

libraryDependencies strings, [Methods used to build libraryDependencies](#)

, (comma), formatting numbers, [Commas, locales, and floating-point values](#)

- (variance symbol), [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#)

- method

mutable collections, [Immutable collection methods](#)

removing elements from immutable Map, [Removing elements](#)

removing elements from immutable Set, [Immutable Set](#)

-- method

mutable collections, [Immutable collection methods](#)

removing elements from immutable Map, [Removing elements](#)

removing elements from immutable Set, [Immutable Set](#)

--= method

deleting elements from mutable Map, [Solution](#)

deleting elements from mutable Set, [Mutable Set](#)

-= method

deleting elements from mutable Map, [Solution](#)

deleting elements from mutable Set, [Mutable Set](#)

: (colon), for right-to-left evaluation when at end of method,

[Other methods to prepend, append](#)

:: method, [Discussion](#)

::: method, [Solution](#), [Use ::: to merge two Lists](#)

<: (upper bound), [Understanding the solution](#)

== method

 in defining object equality, [Problem-See Also](#)

 Set class, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#)

 testing object equality in Scala, [Discussion](#)

 testing string equality, [Solution](#)

=> function transformer, [Discussion](#), [Solution](#), [Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable](#)

@() (Play template), [The view templates](#)

@SerialVersionUID annotation, [Problem-Discussion](#)

_ (underscore)

 hiding a class, [Solution](#)

 in numeric literals, [Underscores in Numeric Literals](#)

 to shorten code, [Transformers](#)

 wildcard character in Scala, [Solution](#)

_* operator, [Use * to adapt a sequence](#), [About that *](#)

{ } (curly braces)

 case statements in, [Using a case statement in curly braces](#)

 import syntax, [Solution](#)

 packaging with, [Problem](#)

to include expressions in strings, [Using expressions in string literals](#)

to print object fields, [Using expressions in string literals](#)

| (pipe symbol)

using to create multiline strings, [Solution](#)

A

abstract classes, [One more thing: When to use abstract classes, Problem](#)

abstract fields, using in traits, [Problem](#)

AbstractBehavior class, Akka, [Solution](#)

access modifiers, controlling method scope, [Problem-Discussion](#)

accessor methods, [Classes and Case Classes](#)

case class constructor parameters, [Solution](#)

forcing callers to leave parentheses off, [Problem](#)

overriding defaults, [Problem-Discussion](#)

preventing from being generated, [Problem](#)

Action function, Play Framework, [The controller, Discussion](#)

action method, Play Framework, [Lazy methods, Solution](#)

Actor and ActorSystem, creating at same time, [Solution](#)

ActorRef, Akka, [The Actor model, Solution, Solution, Solution-Modeling the messages, Sending ActorRefs](#)

actors (Actor model), Akka, [The Actor model-Benefits of actors](#), [Problem-Dead letters](#)
case objects and, [Case objects](#)
creating FP-style, [Problem-Discussion](#)
creating OOP-style, [Problem-Behaviors.same](#)
creating with multiple states, [Problem-Dead letters](#)
sending messages to, [Problem-Messages as being an actor's API](#)
Singleton objects as messages for, [Problem](#)
add method, with mutable Set, [Mutable Set](#)
AddService module, [Solution](#)
addString method, [Problem](#)
Adler-32 checksum algorithm, [See Also](#)
ADTs (algebraic data types), [Functional programming modeling options](#), [Trait Construction Order](#), [Problem-See Also](#)
Akka (Actor model library), [Akka and the Actor Model](#)
(see also actors)
Akka Classic actors, [Akka and the Actor Model](#), [In Akka actors](#)
Akka Typed actors, [Akka and the Actor Model](#), [Behaviors](#), [Problem-Dead letters](#)
Alexander, Alvin
blog posts, [Support](#)

Functional Programming, Simplified, [See Also](#), [A larger example: An order-entry system](#), [Functional Programming](#), [My Rules for Functional Programming in Scala](#), [Solution](#)
Scala 3 Book, [See Also](#)

algebraic data types (see ADTs)

algorithms, passing functions around in, [Real-World Example: Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)

alias givens, [Alias givens](#)

allCatch method, [A concise way to catch everything](#), [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

Ammonite REPL, [Command-Line Tasks](#), [See Also](#), [Problem-Discussion](#)

andThen method, [Chaining partial functions with orElse and andThen](#), [Solution 2: Use andThen or foreach](#), [Discussion](#)

annotations, [Problem-Other annotations](#)

Scala and Java equivalents, [Other annotations](#)

@SerialVersionUID, [Solution](#), [Problem-Discussion](#)

@throws, [Document methods that throw exceptions](#),

[Methods based on try/catch](#), [Problem-See Also](#)

@transient, [Solution](#)

@varargs, [Solution-Calling a Java varargs method](#)

anonymous functions, [Problem](#), [Anonymous functions that have multiple parameters](#), [Anonymous Functions](#)

anonymous givens and unnamed parameters, [Anonymous givens and unnamed parameters](#)

Anorm database library, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

Any class, [Solution](#)

AnyRef class, [Discussion](#)

Apache Commons IO library, [Discussion](#)

Apache Ivy, [Solution](#)

Apache Spark, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#), [Apache Spark-See Also](#)

batch application, [Problem-See Also](#)

DataFrame, reading data files into, [Problem-Discussion](#)

DataFrames to use Spark like database, [Problem-See Also](#)

getting started, [Problem-RDD methods](#)

lazy methods and, [Lazy methods](#)

RDD, reading data files into, [Problem-Working with a CSV file without using a case class](#)

Spark SQL queries against multiple files, [Problem-See Also](#)

APIs

generating project documentation, [Problem-See Also](#)

traits commonly used in libraries, [Choosing a sequence](#)

applications, building with jpackage, [Problem-See Also](#)

Applied Numerical Analysis (Gerald and Wheatley), [Real-World Example: Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)

apply method

in companion objects, [Use an apply method in a companion object](#)

finite-state machine, [Solution](#)

for creating partial functions, [Solution](#)

FP-style actors, [Solution](#)

implementing static factory with, [Problem](#)

in companion objects, [Solution](#), [Problem](#)

in objects as constructors, [Problem](#)

OOP-style actors, [Solution](#)

in writing functions that return futures, [Solution](#)

Array class, [Collections: Introduction](#)

collections and, [Array](#)

creating arrays, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

deleting elements from arrays, [Problem](#)

mutating elements, [Solution](#)

replacing elements in arrays, [Replacing elements in an Array](#)

updating, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

Array.ofDim method, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

ArrayBuffer class, [Collections: Introduction](#), [Choosing a sequence](#), [Solution](#)-[See Also](#)

as go-to mutable sequence, [Problem](#)

collections and, [ArrayBuffer](#)

deleting elements from arrays, [Problem](#)
generic types and, [Solution](#)

ArrayDeque class, [Other methods](#)

arrays

multidimensional, [Problem-Discussion](#)

ragged, [Using an array of arrays](#)

sorting, [Problem](#), [Problem-About that](#) *

using notation to access a character in a String, [Solution](#)

arrow syntax, creating two-element tuple, [Tuples and maps](#)

artifact fetching, [Building Projects with sbt](#)

artifactID, libraryDependencies syntax, [The libraryDependencies syntax](#), [Methods used to build libraryDependencies](#)

asInstanceOf method, [asInstanceOf](#), [Discussion](#)

asJava method, [Conversion methods](#)

asScala method, [Conversion methods](#)

asynchronous programming, [Run an external command asynchronously](#), [Asynchronous solution with lazyLines-Asynchronous solution with lazyLines !](#)

Await.result method, [Solution](#)

Awesome Scala list, [Play Framework and Web Services](#)

B

Barski, Conrad (Land of Lisp), [Referential Transparency and Substitution](#)

base type

classes whose parameters implement, [Problem-Extending multiple traits](#)

handling in conversions of strings to integers, [Handling a base and radix with Int](#)

batch application, Spark, [Problem-See Also](#)

batch mode, sbt, [Batch and interactive modes](#), [Solution](#)

Beginning Apache Spark 2 (Apress), [RDD](#)

Beginning Scala (Pollak), [See Also](#), [Solution](#)

Behavior methods, Akka Typed, [Behaviors](#), [Discussion](#)

Behavior.setup, FP-style actors, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

Behaviors.receiveMessage, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

Behaviors.same, [Behaviors.same](#)

best practices in Scala, [Best Practices-Discussion](#)

as the body of a method, [Problem-See Also](#)

eliminating null values from code, [Problem-Discussion](#)

error-handling types (Option, Try, Either), [Problem-See Also](#)

expression-oriented programming (EOP), [Problem-Benefits](#)

higher-order functions to handle option values, [Problem-Discussion](#)

immutable variables and collections, [Problem-Using val + mutable, and var + immutable](#)

modules, [Problem-Discussion](#)

pure functions, [Problem-Discussion](#)

BigDecimal class, [BigDecimal](#)

conversions to other numeric types, [Problem](#)

creating directly from strings, [Solution](#)

currency formatting with, [Currency](#)

BigInt, [BigInt](#)

conversions to other numeric types, [Problem](#)

creating directly from strings, [Solution](#)

BigInteger class, [Problem](#)

binary files, reading and writing, [Problem-See Also](#)

Bloch, Joshua (Effective Java), [Solution](#), [Implementing hashCode](#), [See Also](#)

boilerplate code, generating with case classes, [Problem-See Also](#)

bounds, [Bounds](#), [Solution](#), [Understanding the solution](#)

break method, [Discussion](#)

Breaks class, [See Also](#)

buffer, [ArrayBuffer](#)

BufferedInputStream class, [Reading binary files](#)

BufferedIterator, [BufferedIterator lets you peek ahead](#)

BufferedReader class, [Many io.Source methods](#)

BufferedSource class, [Using the concise syntax](#), [Solution](#)
BufferedWriter class, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)
buffering, importance of, [Discussion](#)
build.sbt file, [Solution](#), [build.sbt](#), [Discussion](#)
(see also libraryDependencies)
adding dependency for Play JSON library, [Solution](#)
controlling managed dependencies, [Managed dependencies-Repositories](#)
cross-compiling with Scala 2.13, [Using Scala 2.13 dependencies in Scala 3 builds](#)
forking a JVM, [Passing arguments to sbt at the command line](#)
import packages, [Other Notes](#)
@main methods, specifying, [Specifying a main method for sbt run](#)
publishTo configuration, [Problem](#)
sbt new template approach, [Files created by the template](#)
Seq for multiple dependencies, [Managed dependencies](#)
syntax styles for creating, [Problem-Discussion](#)
updating for Scala.js, [5. Update build.sbt](#)
built-in versus external commands, [External commands versus built-in commands](#)
by method, in Range, [Creating a range with to](#)
by-name parameters, [Discussion](#)

Byte type, [Numbers and Dates](#)

C

%c format specifier, [Character formatting](#)
call-by-name parameters, [By-name parameters](#)
callback methods, futures, [Discussion](#)
callback parameter, [Solution](#)
CanEqual typeclass, limiting equality comparisons with,
[Problem-Discussion](#)
case classes, [Discussion](#), [Classes and Case Classes](#)
 converting to tuple, [Tuples and classes](#)
 defining auxiliary constructors for, [Problem](#)
 generating boilerplate code with, [Problem-See Also](#)
 in functional programming, [Functional programming modeling options](#)
 parameters in, [Case classes](#), [Solution](#)
case objects, [Case objects](#)
case statements
 as match expressions, [Solution](#), [In Akka actors](#)
 using in foreach, [Using a case statement in curly braces](#)
casting, [Problem-BigDecimal](#), [Problem](#)
catch clause, throwing exception from, [Methods based on try/catch](#)
 (see also try/catch/finally block)

chained package clauses, [Chained package clauses](#)
chaining methods, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#), [Problem-See Also](#), [Chaining partial functions with orElse and andThen](#)
Chambers, Bill (Spark: The Definitive Guide), [Apache Spark](#)
Char class, Range sequence and, [Char ranges](#)
Char numeric type, [Numbers and Dates](#)
characters
formatting, [Character formatting](#)
notation to access in a String, [Problem](#)
strings as a sequence of, [Strings are a sequence of characters](#)
Unicode, [Solution](#)
charAt method, [Discussion](#)
Charset, [Discussion](#)
charWrapper method, [Char ranges](#)
Child class, [Controlling which trait you call a method from](#)
ChronoUnit class, [Solution](#)
Circe library, [Other Scala JSON libraries](#)
ClassCastException, [Discussion](#)
classes, [Classes-See Also](#)
abstract, [One more thing: When to use abstract classes](#),
[Problem](#)
adding methods to closed, [Problem](#)
assigning blocks or functions to lazy fields, [Problem](#)

case (see case classes)
choosing collection, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
constructing with traits, [Constructing a class with traits](#)
constructor parameters when extending, [Problem](#)-[Use an apply method in a companion object](#)
controlling comparison with multiversal equality, [Problem](#)
creating class whose generic elements can be mutated,
[Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
creating primary constructors, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
default values for constructor parameters, [Problem](#)
defining auxiliary constructors, [Problem](#), [Problem](#)
defining equals method to compare object instances,
[Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
defining private primary constructors, [Problem](#)
disassembling, [Discussion](#)
domain modeling options, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
extending multiple traits, [Extending multiple traits](#)
futures (see futures)
for generic types, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
hiding during import process, [Problem](#)
in object-oriented programming, [Object-oriented programming](#)
modeling options
inheritance as limit on, [Problem](#)
Map (see Map classes)

overriding default accessors and mutators, [Problem-Discussion](#)

parallel collections, [One More Thing: Parallel Collections](#)
[Classes](#)

partial functions in collection, [Partial functions in the collections classes](#)

passing with classOf method, [Problem](#)

preventing accessor and mutator methods from being generated, [Problem](#)

Scala/Java conversions, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

sequence (see sequence classes)

setting uninitialized var field types, [Problem](#)

specifying main class to run with sbt, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
subclasses, [Problem](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

superclasses, [Problem](#), [Problem](#), [Problem](#)-[Controlling which trait you call a method from](#)

tuples as replacements for, [Tuples and classes](#)
utility, [Utility classes](#)

whose parameters implement a base type, [Problem](#)-[Extending multiple traits](#)

classOf method, passing class type to, [Problem](#)
classpath

compiling with scalac, [Discussion](#)

Play/JSON in REPL, [How to use Play/JSON in the Scala REPL](#)

running JAR file with scala or java commands, [Discussion](#)
sbt console commands and, [Discussion](#), [Solution](#)
in starting REPL, [Discussion](#)

Clean Code (Martin), [Best Practices](#)

clean command, sbt, [Interactive mode](#)

clear method, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#), [Solution](#)

clearAndShrink method, [Deleting ArrayBuffer elements](#),
[Solution](#)

cloning

deep clone approach, [Discussion](#)

of objects with copy, [Solution](#)

closing files, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#), [Automatically closing the resource](#)

code examples, using, [Conventions in This Book](#)

code listings, in this book, [Conventions in This Book](#)

collect method, [Solution](#)

filtering collections with, [Using the collect method to filter a collection](#)

Option and, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

Spark, [Solution](#)

taking partial function as input, [Partial functions in the collections classes](#)

collectFirst method, [Using the collect method to filter a collection](#)

collection methods

choosing, [Problem-Discussion](#)

common, [Common collection methods](#)-[Common collection methods](#)

immutable, [Immutable collection methods](#)

mutable, [Mutable collection methods](#)

using on strings, [Working on string bytes](#)

CollectionConverters object, [Integrating Scala with Java](#),

[Solution](#), [Conversion methods](#), [Solution](#)

collections, [Collections: Introduction](#)-[The use case for views](#)

Array class, [Array](#)

ArrayBuffer class, [ArrayBuffer](#)

choosing collection classes, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

converting collection to String, [Problem](#)

filtering, [ListBuffer](#), [Problem](#)-[Using the collect method to filter a collection](#)

fold method, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

foreach method, [Problem](#)

hierarchy in, [Understanding the Collections Hierarchy](#)-[Sets](#)

immutable (see immutable collections)

Java compared with Scala, [Scala Is Not Java](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

Json.toJson Writes implementations for, [Json.toJson](#)

lazy, [Strict and lazy collections](#), [Discussion](#)

lazy view, [Problem-The use case for views](#)
List class (see List class)
maps, [Maps](#), [Problem-Discussion](#), [Collections: Using Maps-Discussion](#)
mutable (see mutable collections)
Option with, [Using Option with Scala collections](#)
parallel, [One More Thing: Parallel Collections Classes](#)
partial functions in, [Partial functions in the collections classes](#)
performance of, [Problem-See Also](#)
queues, [Problem-Immutable queues](#)
ranges, [Problem-More ways to populate collections with ranges](#)
reduce method, [Problem-See Also](#)
Scala 2.13 release, [The Scala 2.13 Collections Overhaul](#)
Scala compared with Java, [Scala Is Not Java](#), [Problem-See Also](#)
sequence classes (see sequence classes)
sequence methods (see sequence methods)
serializing to JSON, [A sequence of objects](#)
sets, [Sets](#), [Problem-Mutable Set](#)
stacks, [Problem-Other methods](#)
strict, [Strict and lazy collections](#)
tuples, [Problem-See Also](#)

Vector class, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#), [Vector](#), [Array](#)

with for/yield loops, [Problem-Discussion](#)

Color class, [Solution](#)

combination of types, declaring as, [Problem-See Also](#)

combinators, [Using JsPath](#)

command-line tasks, [Command-Line Tasks-Why use sbt-assembly?](#)

compiling with scalac, [Problem](#)

decompiling Scala code, [Problem-See Also](#)

disassembling Scala code, [Problem-See Also](#)

getting started with Ammonite REPL, [Problem-Discussion](#)

getting started with REPL, [Problem-See Also](#)

loading JAR files into REPL, [Problem](#)

loading source code into REPL, [Problem](#)

passing arguments to sbt, [Passing arguments to sbt at the command line](#)

running JAR files with Scala and Java, [Problem](#)

running with scala, [Problem](#)

sbt commands, [Problem-Batch and interactive modes](#), [Problem-See Also](#)

companion objects

apply method, [Use an apply method in a companion object](#), [Solution](#), [Problem](#)

creating static members with, [Problem](#)
getInstance method in, [Discussion](#)
compare method, [Mix in the Ordered trait to use sorted](#)
~compile (continuous compile) command, sbt, [Solution](#)
compile command, sbt, [Interactive mode](#)
compiling
 with sbt, [Problem-Interactive mode](#), [Problem-Solution](#)
 using scalac, [Problem](#), [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)
complex numbers, working with, [Complex Numbers](#)
computer programmer levels, [Audience](#)
concat method, [The ++ or concat methods](#)
concrete immutable collection classes, [Discussion](#)
concurrency, [Best Practices](#)
 (see also actors; futures)
conf/routes file, Play Framework, [The conf/routes file, 1.](#)
[Create a new route](#), [1. Create a new route](#)
configuration files (see build.sbt file)
configuration parameter, libraryDependencies, [The configuration field](#)
console command, sbt, [Discussion](#), [Discussion](#)
consoleQuick command, sbt, [Discussion](#)
constants, using enums for, [Solution](#)
constructor fields, controlling visibility of, [Problem-See Also](#)
constructor parameters

accessor methods, [Solution](#)

handling when extending classes, [Problem](#)-[Use an apply method in a companion object](#)

providing default values for, [Problem](#)

constructors

- auxiliary, [Problem](#), [Problem](#)
- creating primary, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
- private, [Problem](#), [Solution](#)
- using apply method in objects as, [Problem](#)

contains method, [Testing for keys](#)

context parameters, [2. Declare the parameter your function will use with the using keyword](#)

continually method, [Reading binary files](#)

continue method, [Discussion](#)

contravariance (-A), [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#), [Contravariance is rarely used](#)

control structures

- creating, [Problem](#)
- declaring variables before using in try/catch/finally block, [Problem](#)
- for loops, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
- List in a match expression, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
- matching one or more exceptions with try/catch, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

pattern matching, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

switch statement, match expression used like, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

try/catch/finally blocks, [Problem](#)

controllers, Play Framework, [The controller](#), [2. Create a new controller method](#), [2. Create a new controller method](#), [Discussion](#)

cookies, sttp, [Cookies](#)

copy method, [Solution](#)

cos method, [Solution](#)

Coursier, [Discussion](#), [Building Projects with sbt](#), [Discussion](#), [Where are the dependencies?](#)

covariance (+A), [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#), [Solution](#)-[Discussion](#), [Examples in the standard library](#)

createOrReplaceTempView method, [Creating a SQL view on a DataFrame](#)

createOrReplaceTempView method, Spark, [Discussion](#)

cross method for cross-version builds in sbt, [Using Scala 2.13 dependencies in Scala 3 builds](#)

CSV files, [Discussion](#), [Problem](#)-[Working with a CSV file without using a case class](#), [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

csv() method, Spark, [Methods to read text files into an RDD](#)

Cunningham, Ward, [Best Practices](#)

curl command, Unix, [4. Test your service](#)
currency, formatting, [Currency](#)
current class, [A seven-step process](#)

D

%d format specifier, [Integer formatting](#)
DAO (data access object), [Use Traits To Create a Dependency Injection Framework](#)
Darwin, Ian F. (Java Cookbook), [Discussion](#)
databases
Anorm database library, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)
DataFrames to use Spark like database, [Problem-See Also](#)
Spark SQL module, [Problem-See Also](#)
DataFrameReader interface, [Discussion](#)
DataFrames, Spark, [Methods to read text files into an RDD](#),
[Problem-See Also](#)
reading data files into, [Problem-Discussion](#)
writing to a file, [Writing a DataFrame to a file](#)
DataSet, Spark, [Methods to read text files into an RDD](#),
[Querying the DataFrame](#)
dates (see numbers and dates)
DateTimeFormatter class, [Custom patterns with ofPattern](#)
DDD (domain-driven design), [Problem-Rules](#)

De Goes, John (Zionomicon), [Testing variance with an implicitly trick](#)
dead letters, Akka actors, [Dead letters](#)
debug command, sbt, [Where are the dependencies?](#)
debugging (see testing and debugging)
DecimalFormat class, [Custom formatting patterns](#)
decimals, in numbers or currency, [Currency](#)
declaration-site variance, [Variance](#)
decompilers, [See Also](#)
decrementing numbers replacement for --, [Problem](#)
deep clone approach, [Discussion](#)
def keyword, [Methods](#)
def method, [Functional programming modeling options](#),
[Using a def method like a val function](#)
default accessors or mutators, overriding, [Problem](#)-
[Discussion](#)
default parameter values, [Discussion](#), [Problem](#), [Problem](#)
delegation, Actor model, [The Actor model](#)
dependencies
 adding to build.sbt for JSON library, [Solution](#)
 managed, [Building Projects with sbt](#), [build.sbt](#), [Problem](#)-
[Repositories](#)
 narrow versus wide, [Performance](#)

unmanaged, [Building Projects with sbt](#), [Unmanaged dependencies](#)

dependency injection framework, [Use Traits To Create a Dependency Injection Framework](#)-[See Also](#)

dependent type, [Solution](#)

dequeue method, [Solution](#), [Immutable queues](#)

dequeueAll method, [Solution](#)

dequeueFirst method, [Solution](#)

deserializing JSON into Scala object, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

diff method, [intersect and diff](#)

directories

listing files in, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

sbt project directory structure, [Directory Structure](#),

[Problem](#)-[Files created by the template](#)

disassembling

classes, [Discussion](#)

Scala code, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

distinct method, [Solution](#)

divide function, using PartialFunction, [Solution](#)

DOM (Document Object Model), [5. Update build.sbt](#)

domain modeling, [Classes](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#), [Real-World Example: Functional Domain Modeling](#)-[See Also](#)

domain-driven design (see DDD)

domain-specific language (see DSL)

Double type, [Numbers and Dates](#)
driver app, [5. Create unit tests or a driver app](#)
drop method, [Solution](#)
dropRight method, [Solution](#)
dropWhile method, [Solution](#)
DRY (don't repeat yourself), [Problem](#)
DSL (domain-specific language), [Problem](#)
duck typing (structural types), [Problem](#)-[Understanding the solution](#)
dynamic typing, [Problem](#)-[Combining union types with literal types](#)

E

early initializers, [Discussion](#)
eC (effectively constant time), [Solution](#)
Effective Java (Bloch), [Solution](#), [Implementing hashCode](#), [See Also](#)
Either, Left, and Right classes, [Methods based on try/catch](#),
[Solution](#)-[Solution](#), [Discussion](#)-[Discussion](#)
enqueue method, [Solution](#), [Immutable queues](#)
enqueueAll method, [Solution](#), [Immutable queues](#)
enumerated type, [Sum types](#)
enumeration, [Trait Construction Order](#)
enums (see traits and enums)

EOP (expression-oriented programming), [Methods](#), [FP Is a Superset of Expression-Oriented Programming](#), [Problem-Benefits](#)

equality

== (equality) operator, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

CanEqual typeclass to limit equality comparisons,
[Problem-Discussion](#)

defining for objects, [Problem-See Also](#)

enabling strictEquality, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

multiversal, [Problem](#)

testing for String instances, [Problem](#)

equals method, [Problem-See Also](#), [Solution](#)

error handling, [Problem-See Also](#)

avoiding get method, [Don't use the get method](#)

implementing functional, [Problem-See Also](#)

Option type, [Problem-See Also](#)

Try/Either, [Use Try or Either when you want access to the failure reason](#)-[Discussion](#)

Eta Expansion technology, [Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable](#), [Returning methods from a method](#)

events, responding to in Scala.js, [Problem-See Also](#)

Exception class, [Discussion](#)

exceptions

@throws annotations to Scala methods, [Document methods that throw exceptions](#), [Methods based on try/catch](#), [Problem-See Also avoiding](#), [Best Practices](#)

declaring methods can throw, [Problem Java](#), [Discussion](#)

matching one or more with try/catch, [Problem-See Also reading and closing files](#), [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#)

in Scala methods, [Document methods that throw exceptions](#)

ExecutionContext, [Discussion](#)

exit status codes, with processes, [Solution](#)

explain method, Spark, [Using explain to understand queries](#)

Explicit Nulls, [Discussion](#)

explicit ordering, [Providing an explicit Ordering with sorted expression](#), [Methods](#)

expression-oriented programming (see EOP)

expressive code, [for + yield](#), [Discussion](#), [Methods](#)

extends keyword, [Extending traits](#), [Controlling which trait you call a method from](#), [Solution](#)

extension methods

 adding methods to closed classes with, [Where do those methods come from?](#), [Problem](#)

to create API, [Create your own API with extension methods](#)

Scala Option to Java Optional value conversion, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

that take parameters, [Extension methods that take a parameter](#)

external commands

versus built-in commands, Unix, [External commands versus built-in commands](#)

executing and reading STDOUT, [Problem-Seq and Process](#)
executing from Scala application, [Problem-External commands versus built-in commands](#)

pipeline of, [Problem-Piping in a string won't work without a shell](#)

STDOUT and STDERR access, [Problem-See Also](#)
extractor method, [See Also](#), [Writing an unapply method that returns a String](#)

F

%f format specifier, [Formatting floating-point numbers](#)

f string interpolator, [The f string interpolator \(printf style formatting\)](#), [f works with multiline strings](#), [Solution](#)

facade libraries, Java, [5. Update build.sbt](#), [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

factory method, [Solution](#)

factory pattern, [Solution](#)

fastOptJS command, [8. Compile the code with fastLinkJS](#),

[Continuously compile with fastLinkJS](#)

fields

abstract, [Problem](#)

controlling visibility of constructor, [Problem-See Also](#)

initializing var fields with Option instead of null, [Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)-[Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)

lazy, [Problem](#)

methods that take variable-argument fields, [Problem](#)

StructField type, Spark, [Explicitly defining the schema](#)

val, [val fields](#), [Use a different name for the field in the subclass](#)

var, [var fields](#), [Problem](#), [Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)

FIFO (first-in, first out) data structure (see queues)

File class, [Solution](#)

file utilities class, [Utility classes](#)

FileFilter object, [Discussion](#)

FileInputStream class, [Solution](#)

FileOutputStream class, [Discussion](#)

FileReader class, [Many io.Source methods](#)

files, [Files and Processes](#)-[See Also](#)

binary files, reading and writing, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

build.sbt (see build.sbt file)

closing, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#),

[Automatically closing the resource](#)

conf/routes file, Play Framework, [The conf/routes file](#), [1.](#)

[Create a new route](#), [1. Create a new route](#)

CSV, [Discussion](#), [Problem](#)-[Working with a CSV file without using a case class](#), [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

disassembling class files with javap command, [Solution](#)

.gitignore file, [Files created by the template](#)

JAR (see JAR files)

jsdeps file, Scala.js, [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

listing in directory, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

opening and reading text file, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

reading files into Spark RDD, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

serializing and deserializing objects to, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

Spark SQL queries against multiple files, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

String class and, [Using the concise syntax](#), [Problem](#)

writing text files, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

FileUtils class, [Discussion](#)

FileWriter class, [Solution](#)-[Discussion](#)

filter method

calling on `sString` to create new string, [Transformers](#)
filtering a collection, [Problem-Using the collect method to filter a collection](#)

filtering maps, [Discussion](#)

implied loops and, [Implied Loops](#)

Spark, [Solution](#)

using function literals, [Solution](#)

filtering

collections, [ListBuffer](#), [Problem-Using the collect method to filter a collection](#)

maps, [Problem-Discussion](#)

methods, [Methods organized by category](#)

`filterInPlace` method, [Discussion](#), [Solution](#)

`filterKeys` method, [Solution](#)

`filterNot` method, [Use filter on immutable collections](#)

`findAllIn` method, [Solution](#)

`findFirstIn` method, [Solution](#), [Solution](#)

finite-state machine (see `FSM`)

first-in, first out (FIFO) data structure (see `queues`)

`flatMap` method, [Combining map and flatten with flatMap](#)

`flatten` method, [Partial functions in the collections classes](#),
[Problem](#)

`Float` type, [Numbers and Dates](#)

floating-point numbers

comparing, [Problem](#)
formatting, [Formatting floating-point numbers](#), [Commas](#),
[locales](#), and [floating-point values](#)

fluent programming, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#)

fold method, [Solution](#), [Problem](#)-See Also, [Solution 1: Use onComplete](#)

foldLeft method, [Problem](#)-See Also

foldRight method, [Problem](#)-See Also

for expressions, [Solution](#)-A warning: Future is not referentially transparent

as control structures, [for Loops and for Expressions](#)

with guards, [Discussion](#)

walking through characters in string, [Solution](#)-for + yield

for loops, [for + yield](#)

(see also for/yield loops)

looping over data structures with, [Problem](#)-See Also

with strings, [Solution](#)

for-comprehension, [Solution](#)

for/yield loops, [Transformers](#), [for + yield](#), [Random length ranges](#), [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

foreach method, [A Complete Example](#)

anonymous functions with, [Discussion](#)

futures, [Solution 2: Use andThen or foreach](#)-[Solution 2: Use andThen or foreach](#), [Discussion](#)

looping over collections with, [Problem](#)

None and, [Solution](#)

operating on each element without returning result,

[Working on string bytes](#)

side effects, [foreach on Maps](#)

transformer and, [Discussion](#)

traversing maps, [Solution](#)

formatting

currency, [Currency](#)

date/time, [Solution](#), [Problem](#)

numbers, [Problem-Discussion](#)

strings, [Problem-See Also](#)

FP (functional programming), [Writing a pure function](#),

[Functional Programming-See Also](#), [Discussion](#)

creating FP-style Akka actors, [Problem-Discussion](#)

creating methods that return functions, [Problem-](#)

[Returning methods from a method](#)

creating partial functions, [Problem-See Also](#)

declaring complex high-order functions, [Problem-See Also](#)

defining methods that accept simple function parameters,

[Problem](#)

domain modeling, [Functional programming modeling](#)

[options](#), [Real-World Example: Functional Domain](#)

[Modeling-See Also](#)

error handling, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
example, [An FP-style example](#)
function literals (anonymous functions), [Problem](#)
and Future as nonreferentially transparent, [A warning:](#)
[Future is not referentially transparent](#)
immutability versus mutability and, [Using val + mutable](#),
[and var + immutable](#)
input/output (I/O), [Yes, FP Code Uses I/O](#)
partially applied functions, [Problem](#)-[Real-world use](#)
passing functions around algorithms, [Real-World Example:](#)
[Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)
passing functions around as variables, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
pure functions, [Pure Functions](#)
referential transparency (RT), [Referential Transparency](#)
[and Substitution](#)
rules for, [My Rules for Functional Programming in Scala](#)
side effects, [Side Effects](#)
substitution, [Referential Transparency and Substitution](#)
as superset of expression-oriented programming, [FP Is a](#)
[Superset of Expression-Oriented Programming](#)
thinking in, [Thinking in FP](#)
variables in, [Discussion](#)
Fraser, Adam (Zionomicon), [Testing variance with an](#)
[implicitly trick](#)

fromFile method, [Using the concise syntax](#), [Solution](#)
fromString method, [Solution](#)
from_unixtime method, Spark, [Handling timestamps](#)
FSM (finite-state machine), [Problem-Dead letters](#)
function literals (see anonymous functions)
function parameters, defining methods that accept, [Problem](#)
function value, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)
Functional and Reactive Domain Modeling (Ghosh), [The Data Model](#)
functional error handling, [Problem-See Also](#)
functional programming (see FP)
Functional Programming, Simplified (Alexander), [See Also](#), [A larger example: An order-entry system](#), [Functional Programming](#), [My Rules for Functional Programming in Scala](#), [Solution](#)
functions
 anonymous, [Problem](#), [Anonymous functions that have multiple parameters](#), [Anonymous Functions](#)
 assigning to function variables, [Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable](#)
 assigning to lazy field, [Problem](#)
 creating methods that return, [Problem-Returning methods from a method](#)
 defining, [Methods](#)

higher-order functions handle option values, [Problem-Discussion](#)

impure, [Side Effects](#)

passing around as variables, [Problem-See Also](#)

passing around in algorithms, [Real-World Example:](#)

[Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)

pure (see pure functions)

that return a future, [Solution-Discussion](#)

storing in maps, [Storing functions in a Map](#)

without side effects, [Writing a pure function](#), [Pure Functions](#), [Yes, FP Code Uses I/O](#)

futures (Future class), [Futures](#), [Problem-A warning: Future is not referentially transparent](#)

creating and blocking to wait for its result, [Problem-See Also](#)

running multiple futures in parallel, [Problem-A warning: Future is not referentially transparent](#)

transformation methods with, [Problem-Discussion](#)

writing functions that return, [Problem-Discussion](#)

G

generic type parameters, [Generic Type Parameters-Generic Type Parameters](#), [Problem-Extending multiple traits](#)

generic types

creating a method that takes, [Problem](#)
creating classes that use, [Problem-See Also](#)
parameter symbols, [Type parameter symbols](#)

Gerald, Curtis (Applied Numerical Analysis), [Real-World Example: Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)

get method

accessing map values with, [Solution](#)
avoiding on Option, [Don't use the get method](#)

get prefix, and Uniform Access Principle, [Behaviors](#)

GET requests

creating web service in Play, [This code responds to a simple GET request](#)

handling query parameters in Play, [Handling query parameters](#)

returning JSON from request, Play Framework, [Problem-How to use Play/JSON in the Scala REPL](#)

sttp HTTP client, [Basic GET request-A GET request with query parameters](#)

get*Instance methods, Currency class, [Locales](#)

getBytes method, [A Complete Example](#)

getCurrencyInstance method, [Currency](#)

getInstance method, [Discussion](#)

getIntegerInstance method, [Commas, locales, and integers](#)

getLines method, [Using the concise syntax](#)

getOrElse method, [Solution](#)
getter methods, [Classes and Case Classes](#)
Ghosh, Debasish (Functional and Reactive Domain Modeling),
[The Data Model](#)
GitHub, [A GET request with query parameters](#)
.gitignore file, [Files created by the template](#)
given and using, using term inference with, [Problem-See Also](#)
given+CanEqual approach, [The given+CanEqual approach](#)
givens, importing, [Problem](#), [Importing.givens](#)-[Importing givens](#)
GraalVM, [Scala.js](#), [GraalVM](#), [and jpackage](#), [Problem-See Also](#)
groupBy method, [Solution](#)
groupId, libraryDependencies syntax, [The libraryDependencies syntax](#)
grouping methods, [Methods organized by category](#)
Gurnell, Dave (The Type Astronaut's Guide to Shapeless),
[Solution](#)

H

hashCode method, [Implementing hashCode](#), [Solution](#),
[Discussion](#)
hasNext on Iterator, [Solution](#)
head element, [Discussion](#)
head method, [List](#), [BufferedIterator lets you peek ahead](#)

headOption method, [BufferedIterator lets you peek ahead](#)
heredoc, [Problem](#)

hex values, storing as Int or Long, [Solution](#)

hierarchy, collections, [Understanding the Collections](#)
[Hierarchy-Sets](#)

higher-order functions (see HOF)

HList (heterogeneous list) construct, [Discussion](#)

Hoare, Tony, [Discussion](#)

HOF (higher-order functions)

declaring complex, [Problem-See Also](#)

to handle option values, [Problem-Discussion](#)

using with map method, [Solution](#)

Horstmann, Cay S. (Scala for the Impatient), [Discussion](#)

HTML

responding to events with Scala.js, [Solution](#)

SPAs, [Problem-See Also](#)

using jQuery with Scala.js, [2. Make sbt updates to use](#)
[jQuery](#)

web applications definition, [The view templates](#)

HTTP client-side development, using sttp, [Problem-Setting](#)
[timeout values](#)

HTTP requests, in Scala.js, [Discussion](#)

HTTP, sttp HTTP client, [Problem-Setting](#)
[timeout values](#)

Hueck, Hermann, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

hybrid types, in ADTs, [See Also](#)

I

I/O (input/output), functional programming and, [Yes, FP Code](#)

[Uses I/O](#)

identity elements, [See Also](#)

identity values, [fold algorithms and identity values](#)

if/then/else statements, match expressions as replacement

for, [Replacement for the Java switch statement and unwieldy if/then statements](#)

immutability and variance, [1. If everything is immutable](#),

[Problem-Discussion](#)

immutable collections

as best practice, [Problem-Using val + mutable, and var + immutable](#)

methods for, [Immutable collection methods](#)

mutable variables with, [Problem](#)

queues, [Immutable queues](#)

sets, [Immutable Set](#), [Immutable Set](#), [SortedSet](#)

val+mutable and var+immutable, [Using val + mutable, and var + immutable-Using val + mutable, and var + immutable](#)

immutable maps, [Basic immutable and mutable maps](#)

adding elements, [Problem](#)

creating, [Immutable map](#)

filtering maps, [Mutable and immutable maps](#)

removing elements, [Problem](#)

updating elements, [Problem](#)

immutable sequences, [Using sorted, sortWith, and sortBy with immutable sequences](#)

implicit conversions, [Where do those methods come from?](#)

(see also term inference)

bringing into scope, [The Predef object](#)

Int and Char classes, [Char ranges](#)

to add methods to closed String class, [Where do those methods come from?](#)

implicit Ordering, [Having an implicit Ordering](#)

implicit parameters, [Using a given ordering, Testing variance with an implicitly trick](#)

implicitly method, [Testing variance with an implicitly trick](#)

implied loops, [Implied Loops](#)

import ivy command, Ammonite, [Solution](#)

import selector clause, [Solution](#)

import statements, using anywhere in Scala, [Problem-Discussion](#)

imports (see packaging and imports)

impure functions, [Side Effects](#)

"in" and "out" positions, variance, [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#)-[2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#)

in keyword, declaring variance (C# and Kotlin), [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#)

incrementing numbers replacements for ++, [Problem](#)

index method, Play Framework, [The controller](#)

indexed sequences, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#)

infix notation, [Discussion](#)

informational methods, [Methods organized by category](#)

inheritance, [Example 2: Inheritance](#), [Problem](#), [Solution](#)

init method, [Discussion](#)

Instant class, [Past or future](#)

Int type, [Numbers and Dates](#), [Much more different than Scala 2](#), [Solution-Char ranges](#)

Integer class, Java, [Handling a base and radix with Int](#)

Integer-to-Int conversion process, [Type conversions](#)

integers, formatting, [Integer formatting](#)

integral types, [Numbers and Dates](#)

IntelliJ IDEA IDE, [See Also](#), [Example 1: Implementing equals for a single class](#)

interactive mode, sbt, [Batch and interactive modes](#), [Solution](#)
interfaces

using Java interfaces in Scala, [Problem-Discussion](#)

using traits as, [Problem](#)
interpolators, creating, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
intersect method, [intersect and diff](#)
intersection types, [Solution](#)-[See Also](#)
intWrapper method, [Char ranges](#)
invariance (A), [The limits of this approach](#), [Solution](#),
[Examples in the standard library](#)
io.Source, [Files and Processes](#), [Many io.Source methods](#)
isDefinedAt method, [Solution](#), [Partial functions in the](#)
[collections classes](#)
isEven method, as anonymous function, [Anonymous](#)
[Functions](#)
isEvenFunction function, [Using a def method like a val](#)
[function](#)
isEvenMethod method, [Using a def method like a val function](#)
isValid method, with numeric types, [BigDecimal](#)
Iterable trait, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#)
Iterator method, traversing maps, [Keys](#)
Iterator object, working with text files, [Reading binary files](#)
iterators, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#), [Problem](#)-[See](#)
[Also](#)

J

JAR files

dependencies, [Building Projects with sbt](#), [Unmanaged dependencies](#)

deploying single, executable file from sbt, [Problem](#)-See [Also](#)

download location of (sbt), [Where are the dependencies?](#)

in lib folder, [Building Projects with sbt](#)

loading into REPL, [Problem](#)

running with Scala and Java, [Problem](#)

Spark, [Discussion](#)

Java, [Problem](#)

adding exception annotations to Scala methods, [Problem](#)-
[See Also](#)

annotating varargs methods to work with, [Problem-Calling a Java varargs method](#)

BigDecimal class, [Problem](#)

BigInteger class, [Problem](#)

.class, compared to Scala classOf, [Problem](#)

collection comparison with Scala, [Problem](#)-See [Also](#)

compared with Scala, [Scala Is Not Java](#), [Scala.js](#), [GraalVM](#), [and jpackage](#)-[Scala.js](#), [GraalVM](#), [and jpackage](#)

consequences of mutability, [Solution](#)

exception types, [Discussion](#)

facade libraries, [5. Update build.sbt](#), [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

integration with Scala, [Integrating Scala with Java-Other annotations](#)

Java interfaces in Scala, [Problem-Discussion](#)

reading and writing files, [Many io.Source methods](#)

running JAR files with, [Problem](#)

running sbt with, [Batch and interactive modes](#)

@SerialVersionUID and other annotations, [Problem-Other annotations](#)

static methods, [Discussion](#)

threads versus Scala futures, [Futures](#)

traits in Scala, [Problem](#)

java command, [Command-Line Tasks](#)

Java Cookbook, [Discussion](#)

java.nio classes, [Solution](#)

java.textNumberFormat class, [Solution](#)

java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter class, [Solution](#)

java.time.format.FormatStyle, [Locale formatters](#)

java.time.Instant, [Solution](#), [Instant](#)

java.time.LocalDate, [LocalDate](#)

java.time.LocalDateTime, [Solution](#), [LocalDateTime](#)

java.time.LocalTime, [LocalTime](#)

java.time.temporal.ChronoUnit class, [Solution](#)

java.time.ZonedDateTime, [ZonedDateTime](#)

java.time.ZoneId, [Solution](#)

java.timeZonedDateTime, [Solution](#)

java.util package, [Solution](#)

java.util.concurrent.TimeoutException, [Solution](#)

java.util.HashMap class, [Solution](#)

java.util.Locale class, [Locales](#)

JavaBeans, [Behaviors](#)

javac command, [Command-Line Tasks](#)

javap command

- disassembling case classes, [Generated code](#)-[Generated code](#)
- disassembling class files, [Solution](#)-[Discussion](#)
- disassembling to see tableswitch, [The @switch annotation](#)
- disassembling with private option, [Discussion](#)

jpackage, [Scala.js](#), [GraalVM](#), and jpackage, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

jQuery, [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)-[3. Write the new Scala/Scala.js code](#), [1. Update build.sbt](#)

jsdeps file, Scala.js, [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

JSON (Play Framework)

- deserializing into Scala object, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
- Play JSON library outside of Framework, [Problem](#)-[Other Scala JSON libraries](#)

Play types, [The Play JSON types](#)

returning JSON from GET request, [Problem](#)-[How to use Play/JSON in the Scala REPL](#)

serializing Scala object to JSON string, [Problem](#)

Json.fromJson method, Play Framework, [2. Create a Reads converter](#)

Json.toJson method, [Json.toJson](#)

Json.toJson method, Play Framework, [Solution-Discussion](#)

json.validate method, [Discussion](#)

JsPath, [2. Create a Reads converter](#)

JsPath, Play Framework, [Using JsPath](#)

JsResult type, Play Framework, [4. Convert the JSON to a Scala object](#)

JVM

forking of, [Passing arguments to sbt at the command line](#)

passing options to sbt, [Passing arguments to sbt at the command line](#)

structural types, reflection requirement for,

[Understanding the solution](#)

switches, [Problem-See Also](#)

K

keys

finding largest/smallest in maps, [Problem](#)

resolvers key in build.sbt file, [Repositories](#)

sorting maps by, [Problem-About that *](#)

testing for existence of in maps, [Problem](#)

traversing maps, [Keys](#)

keys method, [Keys](#)

keySet method, [Keys](#)

keysIterator method, [Keys](#), [Keys](#)

Klang, Viktor, [List](#)

L

Land of Lisp (Barski), [Referential Transparency and Substitution](#)

last-in, first out (LIFO) data structure (see stacks)

lazy collections, [Strict and lazy collections](#), [Discussion](#)

lazy fields, [Problem](#)

lazy methods, [Lazy methods](#), [Solution](#)

lazy view, [Problem-The use case for views](#), [Using a lazy view](#)

lazyLines and lazyLines_! methods, [Asynchronous solution with lazyLines](#)-[Asynchronous solution with lazyLines !](#)

LazyList class, [Problem](#), [Discussion](#), [Reading binary files](#)

libraries

DOM facade for Scala.js, [5. Update build.sbt](#)

jQuery library import, [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

Play JSON library outside of Framework, [Problem](#)-[Other Scala JSON libraries](#)

publishing your Scala library with sbt, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

scala-collection-contrib, [Discussion](#)

SnakeYAML, [Discussion](#)

Sphinx-4 library, [Solution](#)

traits commonly used in collection APIs, [Choosing a sequence](#)

ZIO library, [Solution](#)

libraryDependencies, sbt

configuration parameter, [The libraryDependencies syntax](#)

declared as Seq trait, [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)

managed dependencies in, [build.sbt](#), [Managed dependencies-Repositories](#)

methods for, [Methods used to build libraryDependencies](#)

specifying revisions, [Problem-See Also](#)

syntax for, [The libraryDependencies syntax-The libraryDependencies syntax](#), [Solution](#)

test parameter, [The configuration field](#)

LIFO (last-in, first out) data structure (see stacks)

linear sequences, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#)

LinkedHashMap class, [Solution](#), [Solution](#)

LinkedHashSet class, [Choosing a Set](#), [LinkedHashSet](#)

Linux OS, building application for, [Discussion](#)

Lisp (LISt Processor), [Referential Transparency and Substitution](#)

List class, [Collections: Introduction](#)

adding elements to lists, [Problem-See Also](#)

appending elements to lists, [Solution](#)
collections and, [List](#)
creating lists, [Problem](#)
deleting elements from lists, [Problem](#)
instead of immutable Stack, [Discussion](#)
lines of file as, [Using the concise syntax](#)
populating lists, [Problem](#)
prependng elements to lists, [Solution](#)
tuple relationship to, [Tuples are like lists](#)
working with a List in a match expression, [Problem](#)-See
[Also](#)

list of lists, flattening with flatten method, [Problem](#)
ListBuffer class, [Choosing a sequence](#), [Solution](#), [Notes about ArrayBuffer and ListBuffer](#)
creating mutable lists with, [Problem](#)
deleting elements from, [Problem](#)
listFiles method, Files class, [Solution](#)
ListMap class, [Remember the insertion order with LinkedHashMap, VectorMap, or ListMap](#)
literal types, combining union types with, [Combining union types with literal types](#)
:load command (REPL), [Solution](#)
Loan Pattern, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#), [Automatically closing the resource](#)

local mode, Spark, [Discussion](#)
locale, setting with getIntegerInstance method, [Commas, locales, and floating-point values](#)
Long type, [Numbers and Dates](#)
loop counters, creating with zip or zipWithIndex, [Problem](#)
loops/looping
 for (see for loops)
 for/yield, [Transformers](#), [for + yield](#), [Random length ranges](#), [Problem-Discussion](#)
 foreach (see foreach method)
LowPriorityImplicits class, [Char ranges](#)
lsof command (Unix), [Discussion](#)
Luu, Hien (Beginning Apache Spark 2), [RDD](#)

M

macOS, building application for, [Problem-See Also](#)
mailboxes, Actor model, [The Actor model](#)
@main methods, [Solution](#)
 passing functions around in an algorithm, [Real-World Example: Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)
 sbt commands, [Solution](#), [Specifying a main method for sbt run-Discussion](#)
 using traits to create modules, [A larger example: An order-entry system](#)

main.scala.html file, [The view templates](#)
makeInt method, [Writing a pure function](#), [Solution](#), [Use with Option variables](#)

managed dependencies, [Building Projects with sbt](#), [build.sbt](#), [Problem-Repositories](#)

Map classes, [Solution](#), [foreach on Maps](#), [Collections: Using Maps-Discussion](#)

accessing map values without exceptions, [Problem](#)

adding immutable elements, [Problem](#)

adding mutable elements, [Problem](#)

basic classes and traits, [Discussion](#)

choosing, [Choosing a Map](#), [Problem](#)-See Also

collections and, [Maps](#), [Problem-Discussion](#)

creating, [Problem-Discussion](#)

filtering, [Problem-Discussion](#)

finding largest key or value in, [Problem](#)

finding smallest key or value in, [Problem](#)

getting keys or values, [Testing for values](#)

methods for, [Maps](#)

parallel, [Parallel map classes](#)

performance characteristics for, [Map and Set performance characteristics](#)

populating collections with ranges, [More ways to populate collections with ranges](#)

removing immutable elements, [Problem](#)
removing mutable elements, [Problem](#)
sorting by key or value, [Problem](#)-[About that](#) *storing functions in, [Storing functions in a Map](#)
testing for keys or values, [Problem](#)
traversing, [Problem](#)-[If you need to transform the values](#)
two-element tuples to create, [Tuples and maps](#)
updating immutable elements, [Problem](#)
updating mutable elements, [Problem](#)
map method, [Solution](#)
combining with flatMap method, [Combining map and flatten with flatMap](#)
compared to for/yield, [Discussion](#)
creating uppercase string from input string, [Transformers](#)
mapInPlace instead on ArrayBuffer, [ArrayBuffer](#)
with Range, [More ways to populate collections with ranges](#)
signature in List class, [Solution](#)
Spark, [Solution](#), [Solution](#)
to trim strings in a sequence, [Discussion](#)
transforming one collection to another with, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
understanding how map works, [Transformer methods](#)
using collect method instead of, [Partial functions in the collections classes](#)

writing method to work with map, [Working on string bytes](#), [Writing a method to work with map](#)

mapInPlace method, [ArrayBuffer](#)

Martin, Robert C. (Clean Code), [Best Practices](#)

match expressions, [Problem-See Also](#)

in Akka actors, [In Akka actors](#)

as body of function or method, [As the body of a function or method](#)

equivalent higher-order functions, [Sample data-Discussion](#)

implementing unapply in classes, [Classes and Case Classes](#)

Message in OOP-style actors, [Solution](#)

pattern matching with, [Problem-See Also](#), [Solution](#)

in try/catch expressions, [Problem-See Also](#), [In try/catch expressions](#)

using like switch statement, [Problem-See Also](#)

with Option/Some/None types, [Use with Option variables](#)

working with a List, [Problem-See Also](#)

writing unapply methods for, [Writing an unapply method to work with a match expression](#)

Matchable, [Discussion](#), [Problem](#), [Solution](#)

mathematical methods, [Methods organized by category](#)

Maven, [Building Projects with sbt](#), [Directory Structure](#), [Discussion](#), [The libraryDependencies syntax](#)

Maven Central repository, [Solution](#), [Repositories](#)

MaxValue, checking for numeric types, [Discussion](#)
members, importing, [Problem](#)
merging sequential collections, [Problem](#)
method chaining, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#), [Problem](#)-
[See Also](#), [Chaining partial functions with orElse and andThen](#)
methods, [Methods-See Also](#)
accessor, [Classes and Case Classes](#), [Problem](#), [Problem](#)-
[Discussion](#), [Solution](#), [Problem](#)
avoiding returning null from, [Don't return null from](#)
[methods](#)
Behavior (Akka Typed), [Behaviors](#), [Discussion](#)
in body of class, [Solution](#)
callback methods for futures, [Discussion](#)
calling on superclasses or traits, [Problem](#)-[Controlling](#)
[which trait you call a method from](#)
collection, [Working on string bytes](#), [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
controlling method scope (access modifiers), [Problem](#)-
[Discussion](#)
declaring they can throw exceptions, [Problem](#)
defining method that takes function as parameter,
[Problem](#)
exception (@throws) annotations to, [Document methods](#)
[that throw exceptions](#), [Methods based on try/catch](#),
[Problem-See Also](#)

extension (see extension methods)
for Java conversion to Scala, [Conversion methods](#)-
[Conversion methods](#)
io.Source list, [Many io.Source methods](#)
with Option, Try, Either, [Other methods](#)
resolving name conflicts, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
that return functions, [Problem](#)-[Returning methods from a method](#)
returning methods from, [Returning methods from a method](#)
sequence (see sequence methods)
setting default values for method parameters, [Problem](#)
Spark RDD, [Solution](#)
supporting fluent style of programming, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#),
[Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
that take variable-argument fields, [Problem](#)
transformation (see transformation methods)
transformer (see transformer methods)
using parameter names when calling, [Problem](#)
without side effects (see pure functions)
mixins, using traits as, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
mkString method, on collection classes, [Problem](#)
modules
best practices in Scala, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

using traits to create, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
MovieLens dataset, [Apache Spark](#)
multidimensional arrays, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
multiline expressions, pasting in Spark, [Solution](#)
multiline strings, [Problem](#)
multiple parameter lists, [Discussion](#)
multiversal equality, [Problem](#)
mutable collections, [Beware equals methods with var fields](#)
[and mutable collections](#), [Mutable collection methods](#)
ListBuffer lists, [Problem](#)
maps, [Mutable map](#), [Basic immutable and mutable maps](#),
[Problem](#), [Mutable maps](#)
Queue class, [Solution](#)
sets, [Mutable Set](#), [Mutable Set](#), [LinkedHashSet](#)
Stack class, [Solution](#)
val+mutable and var+immutable, [Using val + mutable, and](#)
[var + immutable](#)-[Using val + mutable, and var +](#)
[immutable](#)
mutable sequences, [Using sortInPlace](#), [sortInPlaceWith](#), [and](#)
[sortInPlaceBy](#) [with mutable sequences](#)
mutable variables with immutable collections, [Problem](#)
mutating generic elements, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
mutator methods, [Classes and Case Classes](#)
(see also accessor methods)

N

named values, creating sets of, [Problem](#)
native executable, creating (GraalVM), [Solution](#)-[See Also](#)
native-image command, [Scala.js](#), [GraalVM](#), and [jpackage](#)
nativeImage command, sbt, [2. Create the native executable](#)-
[Running native-image separately](#)
NegativeInfinity, [Discussion](#)
nested objects, Play Writes technique for, [Nested objects](#)
next method, Iterator, [Solution](#)
nextPrintableChar method, [Discussion](#)
nextString method, [Problem](#)
Nil value, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#), [Discussion](#)
Node.js, [1. Prerequisites](#)
nonstrict methods, [Lazy methods](#), [Solution](#)
now methods, dates and times, [Solution](#)
null object pattern, [Don't return null from methods](#)
null values, [Discussion](#)
 avoiding returning from methods, [Don't return null from methods](#)
 converting into Option or something else, [Discussion](#)
 eliminating from code, [Don't use null](#), [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
 initializing var fields with Option instead of, [Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)-[Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)

Option/Some/None types, [Don't return null from methods](#)
NullPointerException, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

NumberFormat class, [Commas, locales, and integers](#)

NumberFormatException, [Solution](#), [Solution](#)

numbers and dates, [Numbers and Dates-ZonedDateTime](#)

- calculating differences between two dates, [Problem](#)
- comparing floating-point numbers, [Problem](#)
- complex, [Complex Numbers](#)
- converting Strings to Scala numeric types, [Problem-BigDecimal](#)
- creating new instances of dates, [Problem-Past or future](#)
- formatting, [Solution](#), [Problem-Discussion](#), [Problem](#)
- generating random numbers, [Problem-Getting a random element from a sequence](#)
- handling very large numbers, [Problem](#)
- parsing from strings, [Problem-See Also](#)
- parsing strings into dates, [Problem-ZonedDateTime](#)
- replacements for ++ and --, [Problem](#)
- Scala's built-in numeric types, [Numbers and Dates](#)
- numeric literals, underscores in, [Underscores in Numeric Literals](#)
- numeric types, [Numbers and Dates](#)
- casting with asInstanceOf method, [Discussion](#)
- data ranges of, [Numbers and Dates](#)

Java versus Scala, [Integrating Scala with Java](#)

overriding default, [Problem](#)

numeric values, converting Java to Scala, [Numeric values](#),

[Options containing numeric values](#)

O

object keyword, [Objects](#), [Solution](#)

objects, [Objects](#)-[See Also](#)

apply methods as constructors, [Problem](#)

case objects, [Case objects](#)

casting, [Problem](#)

companion, [Discussion](#), [Use an apply method in a companion object](#), [Solution](#), [Problem](#), [Problem](#)

creating from traits, [Solution](#)-[An example](#)

creating singletons, [Problem](#)

equality of, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

in functional programming, [Functional programming](#)
[modeling options](#)

in object-oriented programming, [Object-oriented programming](#)
[modeling options](#)

passing Class type with classOf method, [Problem](#)

pattern matching with unapply, [Problem](#)

Play Writes technique for nested, [Nested objects](#)

reifying traits as, [Problem](#)-[Problem](#)

serializing and deserializing to files, [Problem-Discussion](#)
static factory with apply, [Problem](#)

Odersky, Martin

on computer programmer levels, [Audience](#)
Programming in Scala, [Solution](#), [See Also](#), [See Also](#),
[Discussion](#), [Discussion](#), [Why use Array?](#), [Iterators makes sense for performance reasons](#), [Types](#), [Problem](#),
[Discussion](#)

Odersky, Martin (Programming in Scala), [The Scala 3 Language](#)

of methods, dates and times, [Solution](#), [Custom patterns with ofPattern](#)

ofLocalizedDate method, [Locale formatters](#)

ofLocalDateTime method, [Locale formatters](#)

ofLocalizedTime method, [Locale formatters](#)

ofPattern, [Custom patterns with ofPattern](#)

Ok method, Play Framework, [Explaining the Ok method](#), [The Ok method](#)

onComplete method, Future class, [Solution 1: Use onComplete](#), [Discussion](#), [A thorough example for verification](#)

onMessage method, Future class, [Solution](#), [Solution](#)

OOP (object-oriented programming)

creating OOP-style actors, [Problem-Behaviors.same](#)
example, [An OOP-style example](#)

modeling options, [Object-oriented programming modeling options](#)

objects in, [Object-oriented programming modeling options](#) versus writing pure functions, [The OOP approach](#)

opaque types, [5. Create unit tests or a driver app](#), [Problem-Rules](#)

open keyword, [Discussion](#)

Option type

converting null into, [Discussion](#)

as error-handling type, [Problem-See Also](#)

extracting value from, [Extracting the value from an Option](#)

initializing var fields with instead of null, [Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)-[Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)

Java Optional to Scala Option conversion, [Integrating Scala with Java](#)

Optional to Option conversion, [Discussion](#)

with other frameworks, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

pattern matching, [Use with Option variables](#)

returned by findFirstIn method, [Solution](#)

with Scala collections, [Using Option with Scala collections](#)

using Scala Option values in Java, [Problem-Discussion](#)

Option, Try, Either, [Discussion](#), [Other methods](#)

Option/Some/None pattern, [Don't return null from methods](#),
[Use Try or Either when you want access to the failure reason](#)
optional braces syntax, [The Scala 3 Language](#)
Optional values, Java, [Integrating Scala with Java](#), [Problem-See Also](#)

Ordered trait, [Mix in the Ordered trait to use sorted](#)
Ordering trait, [Discussion](#)
orElse method, in PartialFunction, [Chaining partial functions with orElse and andThen](#)
out keyword, declaring variance, [Discussion](#)
out keyword, declaring variance (C# and Kotlin), [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out" positions](#)
OutputStreamWriter, [Discussion](#)

P

package command, sbt, [Discussion](#)
package scope, [Package scope](#)
package-specific scope, [Package-specific scope](#)
packaging and imports, [Packaging and Imports-See Also](#)
 hiding classes during import process, [Problem](#)
 importing givens, [Problem](#)
 importing members, [Problem](#)
 importing static members, [Problem](#)
 packaging with curly braces style notation, [Problem](#)

renaming members on import, [Problem](#)

using import statements, [Problem-Discussion](#)

parallel collections, [One More Thing: Parallel Collections](#)

Classes

(see also concurrency)

parallel Map classes, [Parallel map classes](#)

parallelize method, Spark, [Solution](#), [Three ways to create an RDD](#)

paramaterized traits, [Problem](#)

parameter names, using when calling methods, [Problem](#)

parameters

anonymous functions with multiple, [Anonymous functions that have multiple parameters](#)

by-name, [By-name parameters](#)

case classes, [Case classes](#), [Solution](#)

classes whose parameters implement base type, [Problem-Extending multiple traits](#)

constructor, [Problem](#), [Problem-Use an apply method in a companion object](#), [Solution](#)

context, [2. Declare the parameter your function will use with the using keyword](#)

defining methods that accept functions, [Problem](#)

extension methods that take, [Extension methods that take a parameter](#)

generic type, [Generic Type Parameters](#)-[Generic Type Parameters](#), [Problem-Extending multiple traits](#)

GET request with query, [A GET request with query parameters](#)

implicit, [Using a given ordering](#), [Testing variance with an implicitly trick](#)

setting default values for method, [Problem trait](#), [Problem-Discussion](#)

varargs (@varargs), [Solution](#)

parseInt method, [Handling a base and radix with Int parsing](#)

numbers from strings, [Problem-See Also](#)

strings into dates, [Problem-ZonedDateTime](#)

partial functions, [Problem-See Also](#)

PartialFunction method, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

partially applied functions, [Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable](#), [Problem-Real-world use](#)

partition method, collections, [splitAt](#), [partition](#), [span partitions](#), in Spark, [RDD](#)

:paste command, Spark REPL, [Solution](#)

patterns, [match Expressions and Pattern Matching](#), [Problem-See Also](#)

(see also match expressions)

factory pattern, [Solution](#)

in regular expressions, [Problem](#), [Problem](#), [Problem](#)-See
[Also](#)

Loan Pattern, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#), [Automatically closing the resource](#)

matching objects with unapply, [Problem](#)

null object, [Don't return null from methods](#)

Option/Some/None, [Use Try or Either when you want access to the failure reason](#)

Singleton, [Discussion](#)

stackable trait, [Discussion](#)

with unapply method, [Problem](#)

performance of collections, [Problem](#)-See [Also](#)

pipelining of multiple transformations, in Spark,

[Performance](#)

piping commands together, [Problem](#)-[Piping in a string won't work without a shell](#)

Play Framework, [Play Framework and Web Services](#)-See [Also](#)

Anorm database library, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

components, [Discussion](#)-[The sbt/Play console](#)

creating new endpoint, [Problem](#)-See [Also](#)

creating project, [Problem](#)-See [Also](#)

deserializing JSON into Scala object, [Problem](#)-See [Also](#)

returning JSON from GET request, [Problem-How to use Play/JSON in the Scala REPL](#)

serializing Scala object to JSON string, [Problem](#)

validation methods, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

play.api.libs.json package, [The Play JSON types](#)

Pollak, David (Beginning Scala), [See Also](#), [Solution](#)

pop method, Stack, [Solution](#)

PositiveInfinity, [Discussion](#)

POST requests, sttp, [A POST example](#)

pow method, [Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable](#)

Predef object, [Solution](#), [The Predef object](#)

predefined value types, [Numbers and Dates](#)

predicate, [Predicate](#), [Use filter on immutable collections](#)

primary constructors, [Problem-Discussion](#), [Problem](#)

printAll method, [Use * to adapt a sequence](#), [About that *](#), [Discussion](#)

printf style format specifiers, [The f string interpolator \(printf style formatting\)](#), [Discussion](#)

println method, [Solution](#), [The f string interpolator \(printf style formatting\)](#), [Discussion](#)

private access modifier, [The private modifier](#)

private constructors, [Problem](#), [Solution](#)

private keyword, [Adding private to val or var](#), [Discussion](#)

private members, accessing, [Accessing private members](#)
private scope, [Private scope](#)

private val field, [Use a different name for the field in the subclass](#)

Process class, [Files and Processes](#)

Process object, [Run an external command asynchronously](#),
[Using a Process](#), [Seq and Process](#)

process package, [Files and Processes](#)-[Files and Processes](#)

ProcessBuilder class, [Files and Processes](#)

processed string literals, [Solution](#)

processes, [Files and Processes](#)

(see also external commands)

ProcessLogger class, [Solution](#)

Product type, in ADTs, [Product types](#)

Programming in Scala (Odersky et al.), [The Scala 3 Language](#),
[Solution](#), [See Also](#), [See Also](#), [Discussion](#), [Discussion](#), [Why use Array?](#), [Iterators makes sense for performance reasons](#),
[Types](#), [Problem](#), [Discussion](#)

Programming Scala (Wampler), [The Scala 3 Language](#)

project documentation, generating, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

Project object, sbt, [Discussion](#)

protected access modifier, [The protected modifier](#)

protected scope, [Protected scope](#)

Provided keyword, sbt, [Solution](#)

public scope, [Public scope](#)
publish task, sbt, [Solution](#)
publishLocal task, sbt, [Solution](#)
pure functions, [Writing a pure function](#), [Pure Functions](#)
 best practices, [Problem-Discussion](#)
 EOP and, [Benefits](#)
 I/O functions and, [Yes, FP Code Uses I/O](#)
 meaningful type names and, [Discussion](#)
push method, Stack, [Solution](#)
put method, Map class, [Discussion](#)

Q

Q interpolator, [Discussion](#)
query parameters, GET request with, [A GET request with query parameters](#)
queues, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#),
[Problem-Immutable queues](#)
quicksort method, [Solution](#)

R

r method, converting String to a Regex, [Solution](#)
radix, in conversions of strings to integers, [Handling a base and radix with Int](#)
ragged arrays, [Using an array of arrays](#)

Random class, [Problem](#), [Discussion](#), [Discussion](#), [Solution](#)
random numbers, generating, [Problem-Getting a random element from a sequence](#)
random-length ranges, [Random length ranges](#)
randomizing sequences, [Problem](#)
range method, [Discussion](#)
ranges, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#),
[Problem-More ways to populate collections with ranges](#)
populating a collection with, [Populating sequences-More ways to populate collections with ranges](#)
random-length, [Random length ranges](#)
raw interpolator, [The raw interpolator](#)
RDD data structure, [Solution](#), [RDD-RDD](#)
converting to DataFrame, [Solution](#)
methods available, [RDD methods](#)
reading CSV file into, [Problem-Working with a CSV file without using a case class](#)
reading data files into, [Problem-See Also](#)
saving to disk, [Saving an RDD to disk](#)
Read-Eval-Print-Loop (see REPL)
Reads converter, Play Framework, [2. Create a Reads converter](#), [Discussion](#)
receiveMessagePartial method, Akka, [Solution](#)
recursion, [Solution](#)

reduce method, [Solution](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
reduceLeft method, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#), [Discussion](#)
reduceRight method, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
referential transparency (see RT)
reflexive property, [The given+CanEqual approach](#)
Regex object, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)
regular expressions
 match expressions, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 pattern matching, [Problem](#), [Problem](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 with split method, String objects, [Discussion](#)
reification
 in functional programming, [Functional programming modeling options](#)
 of traits, [Solution](#)
 traits as objects, [Problem](#)
remove method, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#), [Mutable Set](#)
renaming clause, importing members, [Problem](#)
REPL (Read-Eval-Print-Loop), [Command-Line Tasks](#)
 Ammonite, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)
 getting started with, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 :load command, [Solution](#)
 loading JAR files into, [Problem](#)
 loading source code into, [Problem](#)
Play Framework, [The sbt/Play console](#)

setting classpath when starting, [Discussion](#)
starting in sbt shell, [Discussion](#)
tab completion, [Tab completion](#)
replaceAll method, Regex, [Solution](#)
replaceAllIn method, Regex, [Solution](#)
ReplaceFirst method, Regex, [Solution](#)
ReplaceFirstIn method, Regex, [Solution](#)
resolvers key, in build.sbt file, [Repositories](#)
RESTful web server, Play Framework, [Problem](#)
return type, declaring tuple as, [Solution](#)
reverse method, [Solution](#)
revision, libraryDependencies syntax, [The libraryDependencies syntax](#), [Revision field options-See Also](#)
RichChar class, [Char ranges](#)
RichDouble class, [Solution](#)
RichInt class, [Solution](#), [Char ranges](#)
Row type, Spark SQL, [Explicitly defining the schema](#)
RT (referential transparency), [Referential Transparency and Substitution](#)
run method, with processes, [Run an external command asynchronously](#)
RuntimeException, [Discussion](#)
RxJava, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#)
RxScala, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#)

S

%s format specifier, [Formatting strings](#)
s string interpolator, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)
Sabin, Miles, [See Also](#)
sample method, Spark, [Querying the DataFrame](#)
saveAsTextFile method, Spark, [Saving an RDD to disk](#)
sbt (Simple Build Tool), [Building Projects with sbt](#)-[See Also](#)
batch mode for, [Batch and interactive modes](#), [Solution](#)
build.sbt file (see build.sbt file)
building projects with sbt commands, [Problem-Batch and interactive modes](#)
compiling, running, and packaging a Scala project,
[Problem-Passing arguments to sbt at the command line](#)
configuration file (build.sbt), [build.sbt](#)
console, [The sbt/Play console](#)
continuous compiling and testing, [Problem-Solution](#)
creating Spark application, [Solution](#)-[Discussion](#)
dependency management, [Problem-Repositories](#)
deploying single, executable JAR file, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
directory structure, [Directory Structure](#), [Problem-Files created by the template](#)
generating project API documentation, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
interactive mode for running, [Batch and interactive modes](#), [Solution](#)

list of commands, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

main class to run, specifying, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

publishing your library, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

with Scala.js, [1. Prerequisites](#)-[See Also](#)

show assembly command, [Solution](#)

show fastOptJS command, [4. Run the code](#)

starting REPL in, [How to use Play/JSON in the Scala REPL](#)

syntax styles for build.sbt, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

version setting for project, [Discussion](#)

sbt commands, [Problem](#)-[Batch and interactive modes](#)

sbt new command, [Option 2: Use sbt new](#)-[Files created by the template](#)

sbt plugin, [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

sbt run command, [Interactive mode](#)-[Passing arguments to sbt at the command line](#), [Problem](#), [Solution](#)

sbt seed template, [Solution](#)

sbt shell, [Discussion](#)

sbt-assembly plugin, [Why use sbt-assembly?](#), [Solution](#)-[See Also](#), [Discussion](#)

sbt-native-image plugin, [Solution](#)

Scala, [Preface](#)

best practices (see best practices in Scala)

features of, [Scala Features](#)

installing, [Installing Scala](#)

Java compared with, [Scala Is Not Java](#)

running JAR files with, [Problem](#)

2.13 release, [The Scala 2.13 Collections Overhaul](#)

Scala 3

Akka and, [Concurrency with Scala Futures and Akka Actors](#)

type inference, [Real-world use](#)

Scala 3 Book (Alexander), [See Also](#)

scala command, [Command-Line Tasks](#), [Problem](#)

Scala Contributors (website), [Support](#)

Scala for the Impatient (Horstmann), [Discussion](#)

Scala Gitter channel, [Support](#)

Scala Native, [Dependencies for Scala.js and Scala Native](#)

Scala object, serializing or deserializing with JSON, [Problem](#)-
[See Also](#)

scala-collection-contrib library, [Discussion](#)

scala.collection, [Understanding the Collections Hierarchy](#)

scala.collection.immutable, [Understanding the Collections Hierarchy](#)

scala.collection.mutable, [Understanding the Collections Hierarchy](#)

scala.concurrent.Future object, [Discussion](#)

scala.io.Source, [Using the concise syntax](#)

fromFile, [Using the concise syntax](#)

methods list, [Many io.Source methods](#)
pretending a String is a File, [Solution](#)
scala.jdk.CollectionConverters object, [Solution](#)
scala.jdk.javaapi.CollectionConverters object, [Solution](#)
scala.jdk.javaapi.OptionConverters object, [Discussion](#),
[Discussion](#)
scala.jdk.OptionConverters object, [Solution](#)
Scala.js, [Scala.js, GraalVM, and jpackage](#)-[See Also](#)
 adding JavaScript libraries, [2. Make sbt updates to use](#)
 [jQuery](#)
 building single-page applications, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 dependency management, [Dependencies for Scala.js and](#)
 [Scala Native](#)
 getting started, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 GraalVM, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 jpackage, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
 responding to events, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
scala.language.strictEquality, [Solution](#)
scala.math package, [Solution](#)
scala.sys.process package, [Files and Processes](#)-[Files and](#)
 [Processes](#)
scala.util.control.Exception object, [A concise way to catch](#)
 [everything](#), [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

scala.util.Using object, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#)

scalac command, [Command-Line Tasks](#), [Problem](#), [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)

Scalaclass, [Solution](#)

scalacOptions, [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)

Scaladoc, [Discussion](#)

ScalaFiddle, [See Also](#)

Scalatags library, [1. Update build.sbt](#)-[3. Create Hello3.scala](#)

scanLeft method, [scanLeft and scanRight](#)

scanRight method, [scanLeft and scanRight](#)

Scastie, [See Also](#)

schema, explicitly defining, [Explicitly defining the schema](#)

schema-on-read approach, [Discussion](#)

sealed traits, [Solution](#)

selectExpr method, Spark, [select and selectExpr](#)

self type, [Discussion](#), [Solution](#)

Seq trait

executing external commands, [Using the ! method](#),
[Discussion](#), [Synchronous solution with !!](#), [Seq and Process](#),
[Discussion](#)

executing series of commands in a shell, [Piping in a string won't work without a shell](#)

libraryDependencies declared as, [Option 1: Use a shell script](#), [Managed dependencies](#)

seq, extracting sequences from collections, [Problem](#)
sequence classes

 adding elements to List, [Problem-See Also](#)

 Array (see Array class)

 ArrayBuffer class (see ArrayBuffer class)

 common, [Collections: Common Sequence Classes-See Also](#)

 LazyList, [Problem](#)

 List (see List class)

 ListBuffer (see ListBuffer class)

 Vector, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#), [Vector](#),
[Problem-Discussion](#)

 VectorMap, [Solution](#)

sequence methods, [Collections: Common Sequence Methods-](#)
[Creating a string from a repeated character](#)

 anonymous functions, [Anonymous Functions](#)

 choosing collection methods, [Problem-Discussion](#)

 filtering collections using filter method, [Problem-Using the collect method to filter a collection](#)

 finding unique elements in sequences, [Problem](#)

 flattening lists with flatten method, [Problem](#)

 fold method, [Problem-See Also](#)

 implied loops, [Implied Loops](#)

iterators, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

looping over collections with foreach, [Problem](#)

merging sequential collections, [Problem](#)

mkString/addString methods to convert collections to strings, [Problem](#)

predicate, [Predicate](#)

randomizing sequences, [Problem](#)

reduce method, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

sorting collections, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

splitting sequences into subsets, [Problem](#)-[unzip](#)

transforming collections with map method, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

using zip method to create loop counters, [Problem](#)

using zipWithIndex method to create loop counters, [Problem](#)

sequences

choosing, [Solution](#)

collections and, [Sequences](#), [Performance characteristics for sequential collections](#)

defined, [Solution](#)

populating with Range, [Populating sequences](#)

tuples as, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#)

Serializable type/trait, [Solution](#), [Solution](#)

serializing and deserializing objects to files, [Problem-Discussion](#)

serializing Scala object to JSON string, [Problem](#)

@SerialVersionUID annotation, [Solution](#)

server-side development (see Play Framework)

set methods, [Behaviors](#), [Discussion](#)

sets, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#),

[Problem-Mutable Set](#)

choosing, [Choosing a Set](#)

collections and, [Sets](#)

defined, [Solution](#)

deleting elements from, [Problem-Mutable Set](#)

immutable, [Immutable Set](#), [Immutable Set](#)

mutable, [Mutable Set](#), [Mutable Set](#)

performance characteristics for, [Map and Set performance characteristics](#)

sorted order for storing values, [Problem-See Also](#)

setter methods, [Classes and Case Classes](#)

seven-step process, for implementing equals method, [A seven-step process](#)

service, [Solution](#)

shapeless library, [Discussion](#)

shell scripts, creating sbt project directory structure, [Option 1: Use a shell script](#)-[Option 1: Use a shell script](#)

Short type, [Numbers and Dates](#)

show assembly command, [Solution](#)

show command, sbt, [Discussion](#)

show fastOptJS command, sbt, [4. Run the code](#)

shuffle method, [Solution](#)

side effects, [Side Effects](#)

- foreach method, [foreach on Maps](#)
- pure functions as avoiding, [Solution](#)

significant indentation style (see optional braces syntax)

single-page applications (see SPAs)

Singleton object, [Problem](#)

Singleton pattern, enforcing in Scala, [Discussion](#)

skinny domain objects, [The Data Model](#)

sleep statement, [Solution](#)

slice method, [Solution](#)

sliding method, [sliding](#)

SnakeYAML library, [Discussion](#)

Socket class, [Solution](#)

sortBy method, [Using sorted, sortWith, and sortBy with immutable sequences](#), [Solution](#)

sorted method, [Using sorted, sortWith, and sortBy with immutable sequences](#), [Mix in the Ordered trait to use sorted](#)

SortedMap class, [Solution](#)

SortedSet class, [Choosing a Set](#), [SortedSet](#)

sorting

arrays, [Problem](#), [Problem-About that](#) *

collections, [Problem-See Also](#)

sets for storing values, [Problem-See Also](#)

sortInPlace method, [Using sortInPlace, sortInPlaceWith, and sortInPlaceBy with mutable sequences](#)

sortInPlaceBy method, [Using sortInPlace, sortInPlaceWith, and sortInPlaceBy with mutable sequences](#)

sortInPlaceWith method, [Using sortInPlace, sortInPlaceWith, and sortInPlaceBy with mutable sequences](#)

sortWith method, [Using sorted, sortWith, and sortBy with immutable sequences](#), [Solution](#)

span method, [splitAt, partition, span](#)

Spark (see Apache Spark)

spark object, [The spark object and spark context](#)

Spark Resilient Distributed Dataset, [Solution](#)

Spark SQL API module, [Problem-See Also](#)

Spark SQL queries, [Problem-See Also](#)

spark variable, [Discussion](#)

spark-submit options, [Discussion](#)

Spark: The Definitive Guide, [Apache Spark](#)

SparkContext (sc) object, [The spark object and spark context](#)

SparkSession object, [Discussion](#), [Discussion](#), [Solution](#)

SPAs (single-page applications), [The view templates](#), [Problem](#),
[Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

Sphinx-4 library, [Solution](#)

Spire project, [Complex Numbers](#)

splat, [Use * to adapt a sequence](#)

split method, [Solution](#), [About that split method...](#)

splitAt method, [splitAt](#), [partition](#), [span](#)

splitting sequences into subsets, [Problem](#)

Spring Framework, [Solution](#)

SQL queries, using in Spark, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

square function, and partially applied functions, [Assigning an existing function/method to a function variable](#)

Stack class, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#),
[Solution](#)-[Other methods](#)

stackable modifications, [See Also](#)

stackable trait patterns, [Discussion](#)

stacks, List class, [Discussion](#)

statements, [Discussion](#)

static factory, with apply method, [Problem](#)

static members

 creating with companion objects, [Problem](#)

 importing, [Problem](#)

static methods, [Utility classes](#)

STDERR, [Problem-See Also](#)

STDOUT, [Problem-See Also](#)

strict and nonstrict/lazy collections, [Strict and lazy collections](#)

strict methods and memory, [Solution](#)

strictEquality, enabling, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

String class

adding methods to a closed, [Where do those methods come from?](#)

executing external commands, [Synchronous solution with !!](#)

lines of file as, [Using the concise syntax](#)

pretending a String is a File, [Problem](#)

split method, [About that split method...](#)

string interpolation, [Solution](#)

f string interpolator, [The f string interpolator \(printf style formatting\)](#)

functions for, [Discussion](#)

raw interpolator, [The raw interpolator](#)

string literals, using expressions in, [Using expressions in string literals](#)

String-to-Int function, [Solution](#)

StringOps class

capitalize method, [Where do those methods come from?](#)

split method, [About that split method...](#)

strings, [Strings-See Also](#)

accessing a character in, [Problem](#)

chaining method calls together, [Chaining Method Calls Together](#)

converting a String to Scala numeric type, [Problem-BigDecimal](#)

converting collection to a String with mkString/addString, [Problem](#)

creating interpolators, [Problem-See Also](#)

creating random strings, [Problem](#)

extracting parts that match regular expression patterns, [Problem](#)

features, [Scala String Features](#)

finding regular expression patterns in, [Problem](#)

formatting, [Problem-See Also](#)

handling base and radix, [Handling a base and radix with Int](#)

multiline, creating, [Problem](#)

parsing into dates, [Problem-ZonedDateTime](#)

parsing numbers from, [Problem-See Also](#)

processing one character at a time, [Problem-See Also](#)

replacing regular expression patterns in, [Problem](#)

splitting, [Problem](#)

substituting variables into, [Problem-See Also](#)

testing equality, [Problem](#)
StringUtils object, [Discussion](#)
stripMargin method, [Solution](#)
StructField type, Spark, [Explicitly defining the schema](#)
StructType class, [Explicitly defining the schema](#)
structural type, [Discussion](#)
sttp HTTP client, [Problem-Setting timeout values](#)
SttpBackend, [Backends](#)
subclasses
 constructor parameter in, [Problem](#)
 marking traits and, [Problem-See Also](#)
subsets, splitting sequences into, [Problem](#)
substitution rules, [Referential Transparency and Substitution](#)
subtract algorithm, [A subtraction algorithm](#)
subtractAll method, [Mutable Set](#)
subtractOne method, [Mutable Set](#)
Sum type, in ADTs, [Sum types](#)
super method, [A walk method needs to call super.walk](#)
superclasses, [Problem](#)
 calling, [Problem](#)
 calling methods on, [Problem-Controlling which trait you call a method from](#)
supervisor actor, creating Akka, [Creating a supervisor](#)
swap method, in tuples, [Solution](#)

switch statements

versus match expression, [Solution](#), [Replacement for the Java switch statement and unwieldy if/then statements](#)

using match expressions like, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

symmetric property, [The given+CanEqual approach](#)

synchronous programming, executing external command
and reading STDOUT, [Synchronous solution with !!-Seq and Process](#)

T

tab completion (REPL), [Tab completion](#)

tail element, [Discussion](#)

tail method, [List](#), [Discussion](#)

take method, [Solution](#)

takeRight method, [Solution](#)

takeWhile method, [Solution](#)

TASTy format and .tasty files, [Discussion](#)

template approach, sbt new, [Files created by the template](#)-
[Files created by the template](#)

term inference

alias givens, [Alias givens](#)

anonymous givens and unnamed parameters, [Anonymous givens and unnamed parameters](#)

context parameters, [2. Declare the parameter your function will use with the using keyword](#)

extension methods to create API, [Create your own API with extension methods](#)

with given instances and using keyword, [Problem-See Also](#) importing givens, [Importing.givens](#)-[Importing.givens](#)

ternary operator, using if/then as, [Problem](#)

~test command, sbt, [Solution](#)

testing and debugging

continuous compiling and testing in sbt, [Problem-Solution](#) equality testing, [Problem](#), [Discussion](#)

getting keys or values of Map classes, [Testing for values](#)

Play Framework endpoint, [4. Test your service](#), [4. Access the endpoint with your browser or curl](#)

pure functions as easier to test, [Discussion](#)

sbt debug command, [Where are the dependencies?](#)

sending messages to Akka actors, [A test application](#)-[A test application](#)

testing for existence of keys in maps, [Problem](#)

variance testing with “implicitly” trick, [Testing variance with an implicitly trick](#)

~testQuick command, sbt, [Solution](#)

text files

opening and reading, [Problem-See Also](#)

writing, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

text() method, Spark, [Methods to read text files into an RDD](#)

textFile method, Spark, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#), [Methods to read text files into an RDD](#)

this.type, [Solution](#)

thread pools, [Solution](#)

threads (Thread), [Futures](#)

@throws annotation, [Document methods that throw exceptions](#), [Methods based on try/catch](#), [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

time

creating new instances, [Problem](#)-[Past or future](#)

formatting, [Solution](#)

timeout values, sttp client, [Setting timeout values](#)

timestamps, handling, [Handling timestamps](#)

to method, [Char ranges](#)

to method, Char and Int classes, [Solution](#)

to*Option methods, with numbers, [Solution](#)

toDF method, Spark, [Solution](#)

toJava extension method, [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)

toJson method, Play Framework, [Json.toJson](#)

top method, Stack class, [Solution](#)

toString method, [Solution](#)

trait parameters, [Problem](#)-[Discussion](#)

traits and enums, [Traits and Enums](#)-[See Also](#)

abstract fields in traits, [Problem](#)

calling methods on, [Problem-Controlling which trait you call a method from](#)

commonly used in library APIs, [Choosing a sequence](#)

creating objects from traits, [Solution-An example](#)

dependency injection framework, [Use Traits To Create a Dependency Injection Framework](#)-[See Also](#)

ensuring traits can be added to type, [Problem](#)

enums for constants, [Solution](#)

extending, [Extending traits](#)

extending multiple traits, [Extending multiple traits](#)

in functional programming, [Functional programming modeling options](#)

in object-oriented programming, [Object-oriented programming modeling options](#)

limiting classes using traits by inheritance, [Problem](#)

marking traits to be used as subclasses, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

modeling algebraic data types with enums, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

parameterized traits, [Problem](#)

reifying as objects, [Problem](#)-[Problem](#)

resolving method name conflicts, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

sets of named values with enums, [Problem](#)

trait construction order, [Trait Construction Order](#)

trait parameters, [Problem-Discussion](#)
traits as interfaces, [Problem](#), [Integrating Scala with Java](#)
traits as mixins, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
using Scala traits in Java, [Problem](#)
using traits like abstract classes, [Problem](#)
using traits to create modules, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

transformer, [Discussion](#), [Solution](#), [Discussion](#)
transformer methods, [Transformer methods](#), [Lazy methods](#),
[Strict and lazy collections](#), [Methods organized by category](#)
examples of, [Solution](#)
futures, [Problem-Discussion](#)
lazy view on collection, [Solution](#), [Values](#)
narrow versus wide, [Performance](#)
Spark, [Solution](#)

@transient annotation, [Solution](#)

traversing maps, [Problem](#)-[If you need to transform the values](#)

trimming strings, [Discussion](#)

Try type/Either type, accessing failure reason, [Use Try or Either when you want access to the failure reason](#)-[Discussion](#)

Try, Success, and Failure classes
converting Try to Option, [Combining map and flatten with flatMap](#)

with file reading and Using, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#)

in file reading method, [Methods based on try/catch](#)

in functional error handling, [Solution-Solution](#)

makeInt example, [Writing a pure function](#)

in match expression, [Synchronous solution with !!](#)

using instead of null values, [Don't return null from methods](#)

try/catch expressions, [Solution](#)

defining methods with, [Methods](#)

match expressions and pattern matching, [In try/catch expressions](#)

try/catch/finally block

declaring variables before using in, [Problem](#)

matching one or more exceptions with try/catch, [Problem-See Also](#)

try/finally clause, [Automatically closing the resource](#)

tuples, [Collections: Tuple, Range, Set, Stack, and Queue](#)

creating heterogeneous list, [Problem-See Also](#)

mutable maps and, [Discussion](#)

type ascription, [Discussion](#)

type command, in REPLs, [Discussion, The spark object and spark context](#)

type conversions, using Java collections in Scala, [Type conversions](#)

type inference, [Strings](#), [Real-world use](#)

type parameter, [Solution](#)

The Type Astronaut's Guide to Shapeless (Gurnell), [Solution](#) types, [Types-Discussion](#)

algebraic data types, [Functional programming modeling options](#), [Trait Construction Order](#), [Problem-See Also](#)

bounds, [Bounds](#)

constraints, [Type Constraints](#)

creating a method that takes generic type, [Problem](#)

creating class whose generic elements can be mutated, [Problem-See Also](#)

creating class whose parameters implement a base type, [Problem-Extending multiple traits](#)

declaring as a combination of types, [Solution-See Also](#)

duck typing (structural types), [Problem-Understanding the solution](#)

error-handling (Option, Try, Either), [Problem-See Also](#)

generic type parameters, [Generic Type Parameters-Generic Type Parameters](#), [Problem-Extending multiple traits](#)

hybrid, ADTs, [See Also](#)

integral, [Numbers and Dates](#)

limiting equality comparisons with `CanEqual` typeclass,

[Problem-Discussion](#)

making immutable generic parameters covariant,

[Problem-Discussion](#)

multiversal equality to control class comparisons, [Problem](#)

numeric, [Numbers and Dates](#), [Numbers and Dates](#),

[Problem](#), [Discussion](#), [Integrating Scala with Java](#)

opaque, [5. Create unit tests or a driver app](#), [Problem-Rules](#)

term inference with given instances and using keyword,

[Problem-See Also](#)

type parameter symbols, [Type parameter symbols](#)

variance, [Variance-Contravariance is rarely used](#)

U

UAP (Uniform Access Principle), [4. Create specific pricers for your environments, Behaviors](#)

uJson library, [Other Scala JSON libraries](#)

unapply method, [Solution](#), [Problem](#), [Writing an unapply method to work with a match expression](#)

Unicode characters, [Solution](#)

union types, simulating dynamic typing with, [Problem-Combining union types with literal types](#)

Unit, [Problem](#)

unit tests, [5. Create unit tests or a driver app](#), [Discussion](#)

Unix commands, equivalency of Scala commands to,

Discussion

unmanaged dependencies, [Building Projects with sbt](#),

Unmanaged dependencies

until method, [Creating a range with until](#), [Char ranges](#)

unzip method, [unzip](#)

upper bound, [Solution](#), [Understanding the solution](#)

use-site variance, [Variance](#)

Using object, [Properly closing the file and handling exceptions](#)

using parameter, [Using a given ordering](#)

utility classes, [Utility classes](#)

V

val fields, [val fields](#), [Use a different name for the field in the subclass](#)

val keyword, [Methods](#), [Using a def method like a val function](#)

val+mutable and var+immutable, [Using val + mutable, and var + immutable](#)-[Using val + mutable, and var + immutable](#)

validate function, Play Framework, [Handling bad data](#)

validation methods, Play Framework, [Using Option with other frameworks](#)

validators, Play Framework, [Validators](#)

values

finding largest/smallest in maps, [Problem](#)
sorted order for storing in sets, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
sorting maps by, [Problem](#)-[About that](#) *

testing for existence of in maps, [Problem](#)
traversing maps, [Values](#)

values method, [Discussion](#)
valuesIterator method, [Testing for values](#)

var fields, [var fields](#)
accessors and mutators, relationship to, [Solution](#)
initializing with Option, not null, [Initialize var fields with Option, not null](#)
setting uninitialized types, [Problem](#)

@varargs annotation, [Problem](#)-[Calling a Java varargs method](#)
variable substitution, into strings, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)
variable-argument fields, creating methods that take,
[Problem](#)

variables
assigning type to, [Discussion](#)
creating from tuple, [Solution](#)
declaring before using it in try/catch/finally block, [Problem](#)
in functional programming, [Discussion](#)
mix in traits during construction of, [Constructing a class with traits](#)
passing functions around as, [Problem](#)-[See Also](#)

variance, [Variance-Contravariance is rarely used](#)
contravariance rarity, [Contravariance is rarely used](#)
immutability and, [1. If everything is immutable](#)
"in" and "out" positions, [2. Variance is related to the type's
"in" and "out" positions](#)
symbols, [2. Variance is related to the type's "in" and "out"
positions](#)
testing with "implicitly" trick, [Testing variance with an
implicitly trick](#)

Vector class, [The Collections Are Deep and Wide](#)
adding elements to, [Adding, appending, and prepending
elements](#)
appending elements to, [Adding, appending, and
prepending elements](#)
collections and, [Vector](#)
creating, [Creating Vectors](#)
making go-to immutable sequence, [Problem](#)
modifying elements of, [Modifying elements](#)
prepending elements to, [Adding, appending, and
prepending elements](#)

VectorMap class, [Solution](#)
view method, filtering maps, [Mutable and immutable maps](#)
view templates, Play Framework, [The view templates-The
view templates](#)

views, lazy, [Iterators makes sense for performance reasons](#)

Visual Studio Code (VS Code) IDE, [See Also](#)

W

Wampler, Dean (Programming Scala), [The Scala 3 Language](#)

WeakHashMap class, [Solution](#)

web applications, [The view templates](#)

web services, [About service](#)

(see also Play Framework)

modular programming approach, [About service](#)

using Play JSON library outside Play Framework, [Problem-
Other Scala JSON libraries](#)

using sttp HTTP client, [Problem-Setting timeout values](#)

WebJars, [2. Make sbt updates to use jQuery](#)

Wheatley, Patrick (Applied Numerical Analysis), [Real-World
Example: Passing Functions Around in an Algorithm](#)

while loops, [Solution](#)

whileTrue loop, [Solution](#)

whitespace around commands and arguments, [Beware
whitespace](#)

wholeTextFiles method, Spark, [Methods to read text files into
an RDD](#), [Methods to read text files into an RDD](#)

Windows OS, building application for, [Discussion](#)

with keyword, [Solution](#)

withDefaultValue method, Map, [Solution](#)
Writes converters, Play Framework, [Json.toJson](#), [Solution](#)-
[Nested objects](#), [From a Scala object to JSON](#)

X

xargs, Unix, [Use * to adapt a sequence](#)
XMLHttpRequest, Scala.js, [Discussion](#)

Z

Zaharia, Matei (Spark: The Definitive Guide), [Apache Spark](#)
zero-fill integer options, [Zero-fill integer options](#)
ZIO library, [Solution](#)
Zonomicon (Ziverge), [Testing variance with an implicitly trick](#)
zip method, [Problem](#)
zipWithIndex method, [Problem](#)

About the Author

After graduating from Texas A&M University with a degree in Aerospace Engineering, **Alvin Alexander** became a practicing engineer and was put in charge of maintaining his group's FORTRAN software applications. He quickly came to enjoy this work, and wanting to learn more about programming, he taught himself the C programming language. That was followed by Unix and network administration, Perl, Java, Python, Ruby, and more recently Scala and Kotlin. During this process he started a software consulting firm, grew it to 15 people, sold it, and moved to Alaska. After returning to the lower 48, he self-published two books, *How I Sold My Business: A Personal Diary* and *A Survival Guide for New Consultants*. Since then he has written three more books: *Scala Cookbook*; *Functional Programming, Simplified*; and *Hello, Scala*. He also created alvinalexander.com, which receives millions of page views every year, and started a new consulting firm, [Valley Programming](http://valleyprogramming.com), just outside of Boulder, Colorado.

Colophon

The animal on the cover of *Scala Cookbook* is a long-beaked echidna—genus *Zaglossus*—of which there are three living mammal species (*Z. bruijini*, *Z. bartoni*, and *Z. attenboroughi*) found only on the island of New Guinea. Weighing up to 35 pounds, long-beaked echidnas are nocturnal insectivores that prefer to live in forests at higher altitudes.

The first specimen was found in 1961 on New Guinea's Cyclops Mountains, and the entire species was thought to be extinct in that area until evidence of their activity was found in 2007. According to data collected in 1982, only 1.6 echidnas existed per square kilometer of suitable habitat across New Guinea, adding up to a total of 300,000 individuals. Since then, that number has dropped significantly due to habitat loss as large areas are exploited for farming, logging, and mining. Hunting also remains a large problem since the long-beaked echidna is considered a delicacy by locals in Papua New Guinea. The low population numbers and rapid destruction of habitat make the long-beaked echidna an endangered species, while the short-beaked variety fares slightly better in both New Guinea and Australia.

The echidna is classified as a *monotreme*, or a mammal that lays eggs. The mother holds one egg at a time in her body, providing it with nutrients and a place to live after it hatches. The only surviving monotremes are the four species of echidna and the platypus. All of these mammals are native to Australia and New Guinea, although there is evidence that they were once more widespread. With origins in the Jurassic era some sixty million years ago, monotremes offer evidence of mammal evolution away from reptilian forms of reproduction.

Instead of having teeth, echidnas' tongues are covered in spikes that help draw earthworms and ants into the mouth. The entire body is also covered in fur and spikes that are used for protection; much like a hedgehog, echidnas can curl up into a spiny ball when threatened. Although very little echidna behavior has been observed in the wild, they are believed to be solitary creatures; the short-beaked echidna displays little evidence of grooming, aggression, courting, or maternal behavior. In captivity, these creatures can live up to thirty years.

The cover image is a color illustration by Karen Montgomery, based on a black and white engraving from *Natural History of Animals* by Vogt & Specht. The cover fonts are Gilroy Semibold and Guardian Sans. The text font is Adobe Minion Pro; the

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