

Classes and Objects

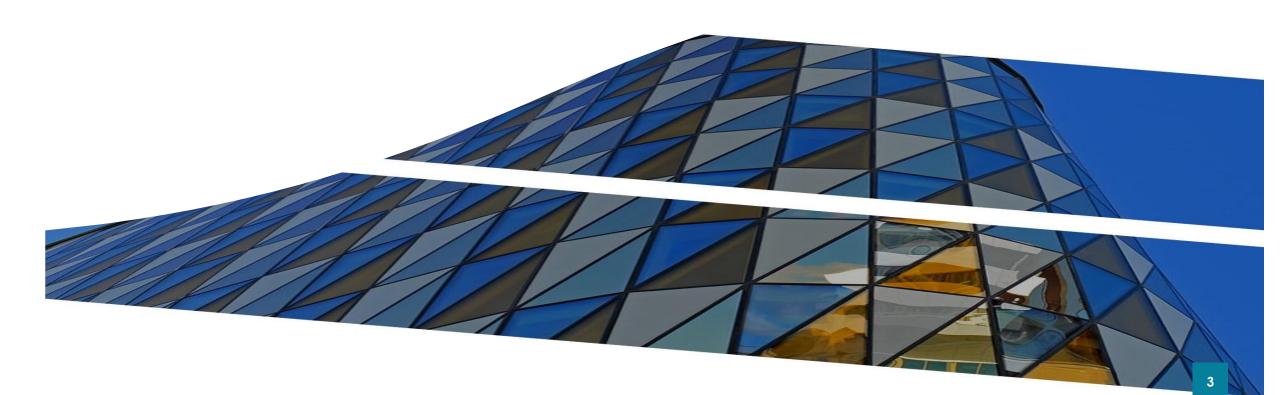
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Classes



Classes and Constructors

Classes in Kotlin are declared using the keyword class:

```
class Person { /*...*/}
class Empty
```

• A class in Kotlin can have a primary constructor and one or more secondary constructors. The primary constructor is a part of the class header, and it goes after the class name and optional type parameters:

```
class Person constructor(firstName: String) { /*...*/}
```

• If the primary constructor does not have any annotations or visibility modifiers, the constructor keyword can be omitted:

```
class Person(firstName: String) { /*...*/}
```

Order of Initialization

 The primary constructor cannot contain any code. Initialization code can be placed in initializer blocks prefixed with the init keyword:

```
class InitOrderDemo(name: String) {
  val firstProperty = "First property: $name".also(::println) // 1
  init {
     println("First initializer block that prints ${name}") //2
  val secondProperty = "Second property: ${name.length}".also(::println) // 3
  init {
     println("Second initializer block that prints ${name.length}") // 4
```

Initializing Class Properties

• Primary constructor parameters can be used in the initializer blocks. They can also be used in property initializers declared in the class body:

```
class Customer(name: String) {
   val customerKey = name.uppercase()
}
```

• Kotlin has a concise syntax for declaring properties and initializing them from the primary constructor (including default values):

```
class Person(val firstName: String, val lastName: String, var age: Int)
```

class Person(val firstName: String, val lastName: String, var isEmployed: Boolean = true)

Constructor with Modifiers / Annotations

Trailing comas can be added if necessary:

```
class Person6(
   val firstName: String,
   val lastName: String,
   var age: Int, // trailing comma
) { /*...*/}
```

• If the constructor has annotations or visibility modifiers, the **constructor** keyword is required and the modifiers go before it:

class Customer2 public @Inject constructor(name: String) { /*...*/}

Secondary Constructors

 A class can also declare one or more secondary constructors, which are prefixed with constructor:

```
class Person(val pets: MutableList<Pet> = mutableListOf())

class Pet {
   constructor(owner: Person) {
     owner.pets.add(this) // adds this pet to the list of its owner's pets
   }
}
```

Secondary Constructors - II

```
class Person(val name: String, val pets: MutableList<Pet> = mutableListOf()) {
  override fun toString() = "$name's pets: $pets"
class Pet(val name: String) {
  constructor(name: String, owner: Person) : this(name) {
     owner.pets.add(this) // adds this pet to the list of its owner's pets
  override fun toString() = "Pet($name)"
fun main() {
  val ivan = Person("Ivan Petrov")
  val Johny = Pet("Johny", ivan)
  val Silvester = Pet("Silvester", ivan)
  val Caty = Pet("Caty", ivan)
  println(ivan) //Ivan Petrov's pets: [Pet(Johny), Pet(Silvester), Pet(Caty)]
```

Constructor Delegation

- Code in initializer blocks effectively becomes part of the primary constructor. Delegation to the primary constructor happens as the first statement of a secondary constructor, so the code in all initializer blocks and property initializers is executed before the body of the secondary constructor.
- Even if the class has no primary constructor, the delegation still happens:

```
class Constructors {
    init {
        println("Init block")
    }
    constructor(i: Int) {
        println("Constructor $i")
    }
}
```

Private constructors and constructors with default values

• If you don't want your class to have a public constructor, declare an empty primary constructor with non-default visibility:

class DontCreateMe private constructor () { /*...*/}

 On the JVM, if all of the primary constructor parameters have default values, the compiler will generate an additional parameterless constructor which will use the default values. This makes it easier to use Kotlin with libraries such as Jackson or JPA that create class instances through parameterless constructors.

class Customer(val customerName: String = "")

Creating Class Instances

```
data class Product(val name: String, val price: Double, var id: Int)
data class Invoice(
  val number:Int,
  val customer: Customer,
  val items: MutableList<Product> = mutableListOf()
val customer = Customer("Joe Smith")
val invoice = Invoice(1, customer)
println(invoice) // Invoice(number=1, customer=Customer: JOE SMITH, items=[])
```

Kotlin does not have a new keyword.

Class Members

- Constructors and initializer blocks
- Functions
- Properties
- Nested and inner classes
- Object declarations

Inheritance

 All classes in Kotlin have a common superclass, Any, which is the default superclass for a class with no supertypes declared:

class Example // Implicitly inherits from Any

- Any class has three methods: equals(), hashCode(), and toString(). Thus, these methods are defined for all Kotlin classes.
- By default, Kotlin classes are final they can't be inherited. To make a class inheritable, mark it with the open keyword:

open class Base(p: Int)

class Derived(p: Int) : Base(p)

Inheritance – base class initialization

• If the derived class has no primary constructor, then each secondary constructor has to initialize the base type using the **super** keyword or it has to delegate to another constructor which does. Different secondary constructors can call different constructors of the base type:

```
class Context
class AttributeSet
open class View(val ctx: Context) {
  private var attributes: AttributeSet = AttributeSet()
  constructor(ctx: Context, attrs: AttributeSet): this(ctx) {
     this attributes = attrs
class MyView : View {
  constructor(ctx: Context) : super(ctx)
  constructor(ctx: Context, attrs: AttributeSet) : super(ctx, attrs)
```

Overriding Methods

```
open class Shape {
  open fun draw() { /*...*/}
  fun fill() { /*... */}
class Circle() : Shape() {
  override fun draw() { /*...*/}
open class Rectangle() : Shape() {
  final override fun draw() { /*...*/}
```

Overriding Properties

```
open class Shape2 {
  open val vertexCount: Int = 0
class Rectangle2 : Shape2() {
  override val vertexCount = 4
interface Shape3 {
  val vertexCount: Int
class Rectangle3(override val vertexCount: Int = 4) : Shape3 // Always has 4 vertices
class Polygon3 : Shape3 {
  override var vertexCount: Int = 0 // Can be set to any number later
```

Derived class initialization order

```
open class Base(val name: String) {
  init { println("Initializing a base class") }
  open val size: Int =
     name.length.also { println("Initializing size in the base class: $it") }
class Derived(
  name: String,
  val lastName: String,
): Base(name.replaceFirstChar { it.uppercase() }.also { println("Argument for the base class: $it") }) {
  init { println("Initializing a derived class") }
  override val size: Int =
     (super.size + lastName.length).also { println("Initializing size in the derived class: $it") }
                                                  Argument for the base class: Ivan
                                                  Initializing a base class
fun main() {
                                                  Initializing size in the base class: 4
  val d = Derived("ivan", "Petrov")
                                                  Initializing a derived class
                                                  Initializing size in the derived class: 10
```

Derived class initialization order

- When the base class constructor is executed, the properties declared or overridden in the
 derived class have not yet been initialized. Using any of those properties in the base class
 initialization logic (either directly or indirectly through another overridden open member
 implementation) may lead to incorrect behavior or a runtime failure.
- When designing a base class, you should avoid using open members in the constructors, property initializers, or init blocks.

Calling the superclass implementation

 Code in a derived class can call its superclass functions and property accessor implementations using the super keyword:

```
open class Rectangle4 {
  open fun draw() { println("Drawing a rectangle") }
  val borderColor: String get() = "black"
class FilledRectangle : Rectangle4() {
  override fun draw() {
     super.draw()
     println("Filling the rectangle")
  val fillColor: String get() = super.borderColor
```

Calling the superclass implementation in inner class

```
class FilledRectangle2: Rectangle4() {
  override fun draw() {
     val filler = Filler()
     filler.drawAndFill()
  inner class Filler {
     fun fill() { println("Filling") }
     fun drawAndFill() {
       super@FilledRectangle2.draw() // Calls Rectangle's implementation of draw()
       fill()
       // Uses Rectangle's implementation of borderColor's get()
       println("Drawn a filled rectangle with color ${super@FilledRectangle2.borderColor}")
```

Overriding Rules

- If a class inherits multiple implementations of the same member from its immediate superclasses, it must override this member and provide its own implementation (perhaps, using one of the inherited ones).
- To denote the supertype from which the inherited implementation is taken, use super qualified by the supertype name in angle brackets, such as super<Base>:

```
open class Rectangle5 {     open fun draw() { /* ... */ }  }
interface Polygon {     fun draw() { /* ... */ } // interface members are 'open' by default }

class Square() : Rectangle5(), Polygon { // The compiler requires draw() to be overridden:
     override fun draw() {
        super<Rectangle5>.draw() // call to Rectangle.draw()
        super<Polygon>.draw() // call to Polygon.draw()
    }
}
```

Abstract Classes

• A class may be declared **abstract**, along with some or all of its members. An abstract member does not have an implementation in its class. You don't need to annotate abstract classes or functions with open.

```
abstract class Polygon6 {
   abstract fun draw()
}

class Rectangle6 : Polygon6() {
   override fun draw() {
      // draw the rectangle
   }
}
```

```
open class Polygon7{
  open fun draw() {
     // some default polygon drawing method
  }
}
abstract class WildShape : Polygon7() {
     // Classes that inherit WildShape need to provide their own
     // draw method instead of using the default on Polygon
     abstract override fun draw()
}
```

Interfaces

 Interfaces in Kotlin can contain declarations of abstract methods, as well as method implementations. What makes them different from abstract classes is that interfaces cannot store a state. They can have properties, but these need to be abstract or provide accessor implementations.

```
interface MyInterface {
  fun bar()
  fun foo() {
     // optional body
class Child : MyInterface {
  override fun bar() {
     // body
```

```
interface MyInterface2 {
  val prop: Int // abstract
  val propertyWithImplementation: String
     get() = "foo" // can not have backing field
  fun foo() {
     print(prop)
class Child2 : MyInterface2 {
  override val prop: Int = 29
```

Interfaces Inheritance

 An interface can inherit from other interfaces, meaning it can both provide implementations for their members and declare new functions and properties. Classes implementing an interface are only required to define the missing (abstract member) implementations:

```
interface Named {
   val name: String
}

interface Person : Named {
   val firstName: String
   val lastName: String
   override val name: String get() = "$firstName $lastName"
}
```

Conflict Resolution

```
interface A {
                                                            class D:A,B{
  fun foo() { print("A") }
                                                               override fun foo() {
  fun bar() // abstract
                                                                  super<A>.foo()
                                                                  super<B>.foo()
interface B {
  fun foo() { print("B") }
                                                               override fun bar() {
  fun bar() { print("bar") }
                                                                  super<B>.bar()
class C : A {
  override fun bar() { print("bar") }
```

Functional (SAM) Interfaces

 An interface with only one abstract method is called a functional interface, or a Single Abstract Method (SAM) interface. The functional interface can have several non-abstract members but only one abstract member:

```
fun interface KRunnable {
   fun invoke()
}

fun interface IntPredicate {
   fun accept(i: Int): Boolean
}
```

```
// Creating an instance of a class
val isEven = object : IntPredicate {
  override fun accept(i: Int): Boolean {
     return i % 2 == 0
// Creating an instance using lambda
val isEvenLambda = IntPredicate { it % 2 == 0 }
fun main() {
  println("Is 42 even? - ${isEven.accept(42)}")
  println("Is 42 even? - ${isEvenLambda.accept(42)}")
```

Functional Interfaces vs. Type Aliases - I

```
typealias Predicate<T> = (T) -> Boolean
typealias IntPredicate2 = Predicate<Int>
fun Collection<Int>.areAll(
  predicate: IntPredicate): Boolean {
  for (elem in this) {
     if (!predicate.accept(elem)) return false
  return true
fun Collection<Int>.areAll2(
  predicate: IntPredicate2): Boolean {
  for (elem in this) {
     if (!predicate(elem)) return false
  return true
```

```
fun main() {
 val numbers = listOf(42, 13, 54, 32, 78)
 println("Are all numbers even in $numbers? - $\{numbers. areAll({ it % 2 == 0 })\}")
 println("Are all numbers even in $numbers? - $\{numbers. areAll2({ it % 2 == 0 })\}")
}
```

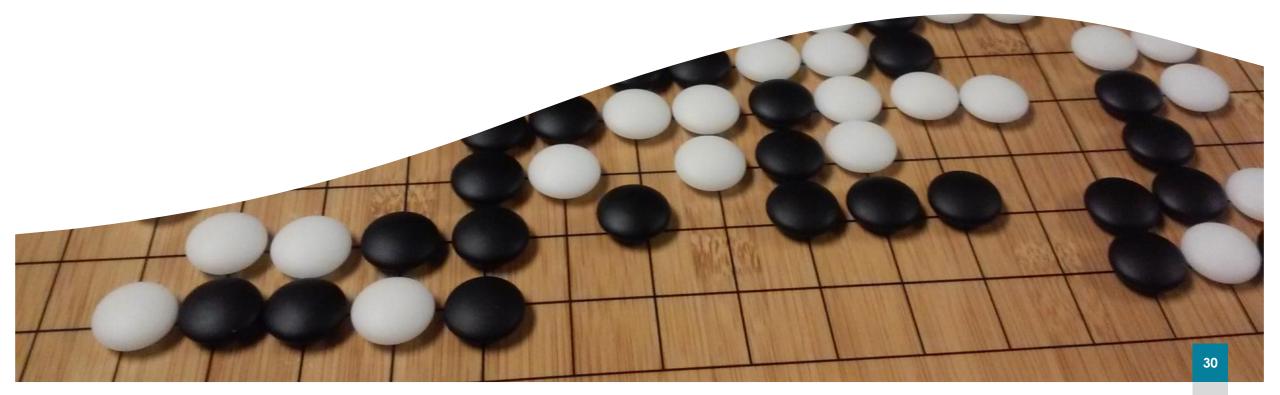
Functional Interfaces vs. Type Aliases - II

Functional interfaces and type aliases serve different purposes:

- Type aliases are just names for existing types they don't create a new type, while functional interfaces do.
- You can provide extensions that are specific to a particular functional interface to be inapplicable for plain functions or their type aliases.
- Type aliases can have only one member, while functional interfaces can have multiple non-abstract members and one abstract member.
 Functional interfaces can also implement and extend other interfaces.
- Functional interfaces can be more costly syntactically and at runtime because they can require conversions to a specific interface.

Objects

Object expressions and declarations, companion objects



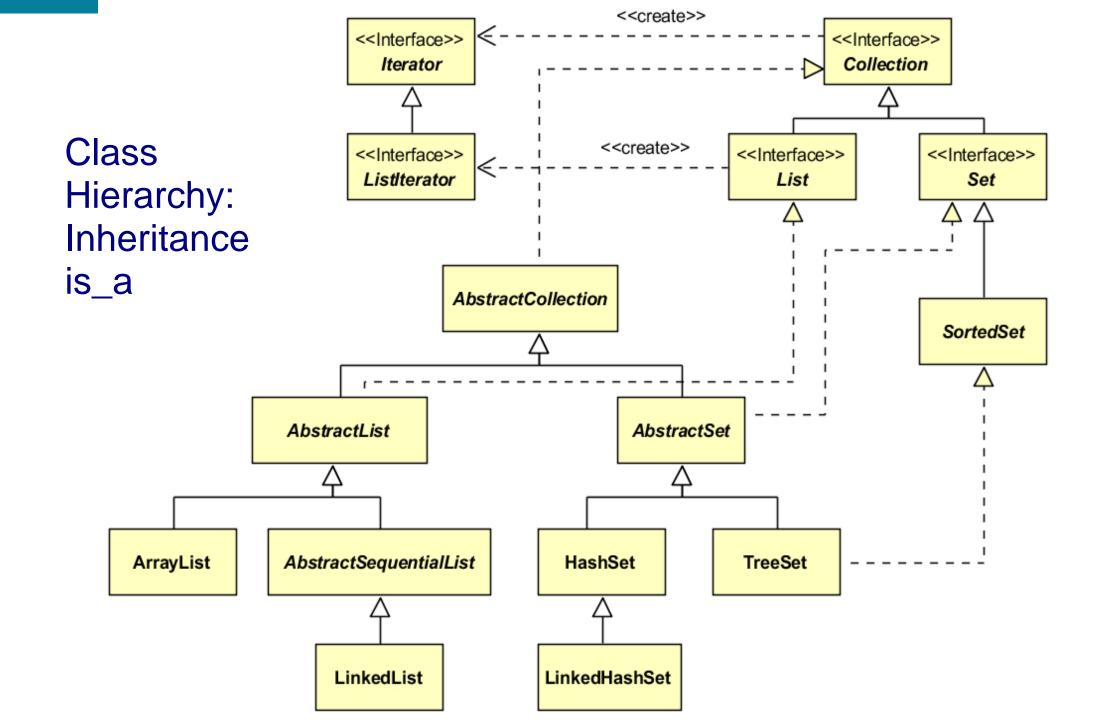
Classes and Objects

Class – describes common features for a set of objects: structure, behavior and possible links to objects of other classes = **objects type**

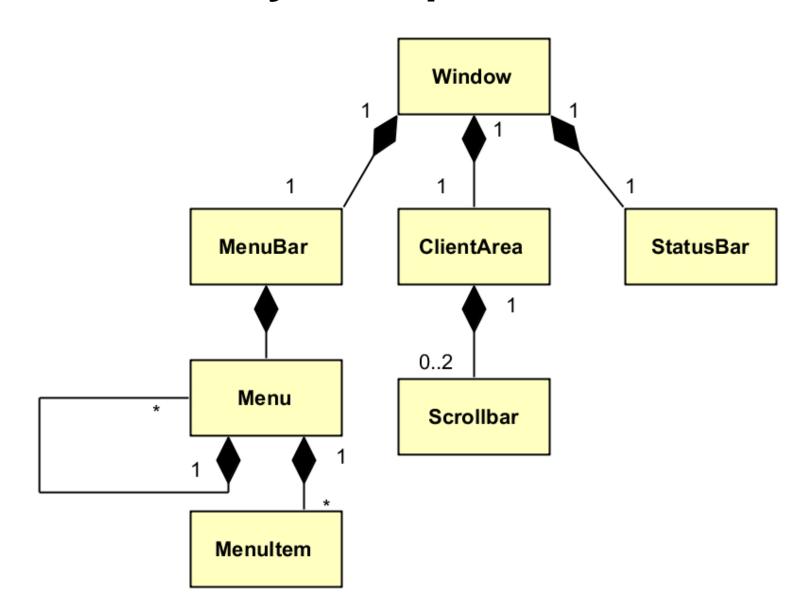
- structure = attributes, properties, member variables
- behavior = methods, operations, member functions, messages
- relations between classes: association, inheritance, aggregation, composition – modeled as attributes (references to objects from the connected class)

Objects are instances of the class, which in addition have:

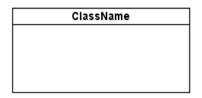
- own state
- unique identifier = reference pointing towards object



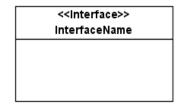
Object Hierarchy: Composition, has_a



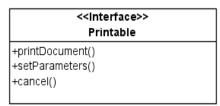
Elements of Class Diagrams



Order
-date
-status
+calcTax()
+calcTotal()
#calcTotalWeight(measure : string = "br") : double



InterfaceName

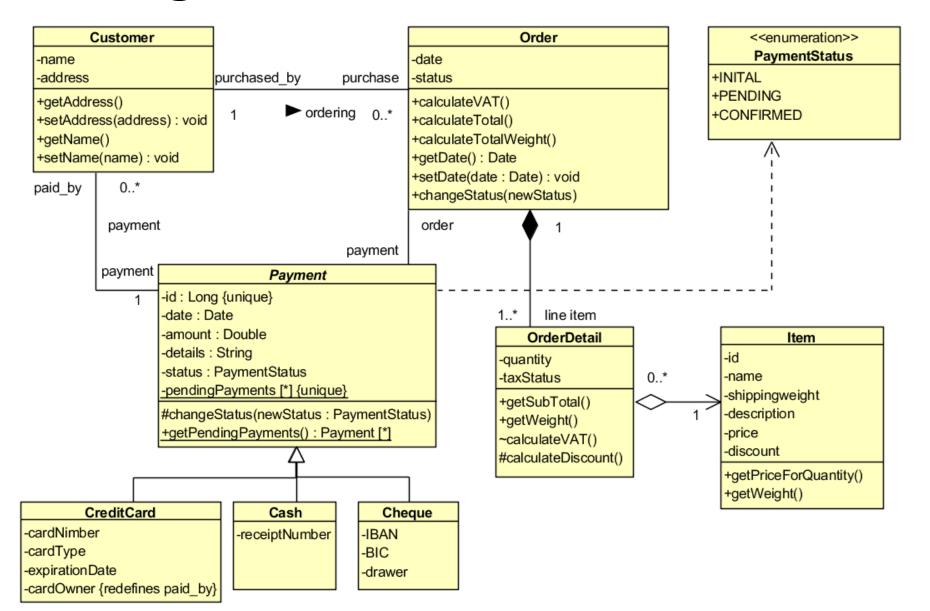


- Types of connections:
- Association

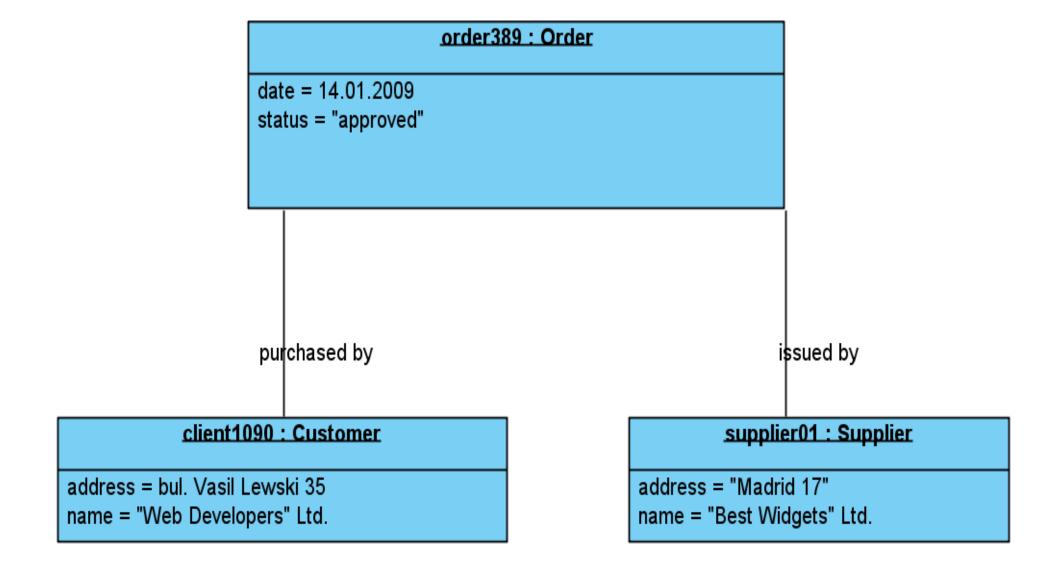


- aggregation
- composition •
- dependence
- generalization ———>

Class Diagram



Object Diagram



Code (Component) Reuse

- Advantages of code reuse
- Ways of implementation:
 - Objects composition patterns like composite, singleton, decorator, mixin, etc.
 - Inheritance of classes (object types) features/patterns like dynamic polymorphism, prototype, template method, strategy, etc.

Object Expressions

Object expressions create objects of anonymous classes, that is, classes
that aren't explicitly declared with the class declaration. Such classes are
useful for one-time use. You can define them from scratch, inherit from
existing classes, or implement interfaces. Instances of anonymous classes
are also called anonymous objects because they are defined by an
expression, not a name.

```
val helloWorld = object {
  val hello = "Hello"
  val world = "World"
  // object expressions extend Any, so `override` is required on `toString()`
  override fun toString() = "$hello $world"
}
fun main() {
  println(helloWorld) // prints: Hello World
}
```

Inheriting anonymous objects from supertypes

• To create an object of an anonymous class that inherits from some type (or types), specify this type after object and a colon (:). Then implement or override the members of this class as if you were inheriting from it:

```
val window = JFrame("Main Window")

window.addMouseListener(object : MouseAdapter() {
    override fun mouseClicked(e: MouseEvent) { /*...*/}
    override fun mouseEntered(e: MouseEvent) { /*...*/}
})

window.size = Dimension(600, 400)
window.defaultCloseOperation = EXIT_ON_CLOSE
window.isVisible = true
```

Using supertype's constructor

• If a supertype has a constructor, pass appropriate constructor parameters to it. Multiple supertypes can be specified as a comma-delimited list after the colon:

```
open class A(x: Int) {
   public open val y: Int = x
}
interface B { /*...*/}

val ab: A = object : A(1), B {
   override val y = 15
}
```

Using anonymous objects as return and value types - I

 When an anonymous object is used as a type of a local or private but not inline declaration (function or property), all its members are accessible via this function or property:

```
class C {
    private fun getObject() = object {
      val x: String = "x"
    }

fun printX() {
    println(getObject().x)
    }
}
```

Using anonymous objects as return and value types - II

If this function or property is **public** or **private inline**, its **actual type** is:

- Any if the anonymous object doesn't have a declared supertype
- The declared supertype of the anonymous object, if there is exactly one such type
- The explicitly declared type if there is more than one declared supertype
- In all these cases, members added in the anonymous object are not accessible. Overridden members are accessible if they are declared in the actual type of the function or property.

Using anonymous objects as return and value types - III

```
interface A {
   fun funFromA() {}
}
interface B
```

```
class C {
  // The return type is Any. x is not accessible
  fun getObject() = object {
     val x: String = "x"
  // The return type is A; x is not accessible
  fun getObjectA() = object: A {
     override fun funFromA() {}
     val x: String = "x"
  // The return type is B; funFromA() and x are not accessible
  fun getObjectB(): B = object: A, B { // explicit return type is required
     override fun funFromA() {}
     val x: String = "x"
```

Using anonymous objects as return and value types - II

If this function or property is **public** or **private inline**, its **actual type** is:

- Any if the anonymous object doesn't have a declared supertype
- The declared supertype of the anonymous object, if there is exactly one such type
- The explicitly declared type if there is more than one declared supertype
- In all these cases, members added in the anonymous object are not accessible. Overridden members are accessible if they are declared in the actual type of the function or property.

Accessing variables from anonymous objects

```
fun countClicks(window: JComponent) {
  var clickCount = 0
  var enterCount = 0
  window.addMouseListener(object : MouseAdapter() {
    override fun mouseClicked(e: MouseEvent) {
      clickCount++
    override fun mouseEntered(e: MouseEvent) {
      enterCount++
```

Object Declarations

- The Singleton pattern can be useful in several cases, and Kotlin makes it easy to declare singletons. The initialization of an object declaration is thread-safe and done on first access.
- This is called an object declaration, and it always has a name following the
 object keyword. Just like a variable declaration, an object declaration is not
 an expression, and it cannot be used on the right-hand side of an
 assignment statement.

```
object DataProviderManager {
    fun registerDataProvider(provider: DataProvider) {
        // ...
    }
    val allDataProviders: Collection<DataProvider>
        get() = // ...
}
```

DataProviderManager.registerDataProvider(DataProvider())

Companion Objects

- If you need to write a function that can be called without having a class instance but that needs access to the internals of a class (such as a factory method), you can write it as a member of an object declaration inside that class.
- Even more specifically, if you declare a companion object inside your class, you can access its members using only the class name as a qualifier.

```
class MyClass {
    companion object Factory {
        fun create(): MyClass = MyClass()
    }
}
val instance = MyClass.create()
```

```
class MyClass2 {
   companion object { }
}
val x = MyClass2.Companion
```

Companion Objects - II

```
interface Factory<T> {
   fun create(): T
}

class MyClass5 {
   companion object : Factory<MyClass5> {
      override fun create(): MyClass5 = MyClass5()
   }
}

val f: Factory<MyClass5> = MyClass5
```

Difference between object expressions and declarations

- Object expressions are executed (and initialized) immediately, where they are used.
- Object declarations are initialized lazily, when accessed for the first time.
- A companion object is initialized when the corresponding class is loaded (resolved) that matches the semantics of a Java static initializer.

Properties and Extension Functions



Declaring Properties

```
class Address {
  var name: String = "Holmes, Sherlock"
  var street: String = "Baker"
  var city: String = "London"
  var state: String? = null
  var zip: String = "123456"
fun copyAddress(address: Address): Address {
  val result = Address() // there's no 'new' keyword in Kotlin
  result.name = address.name // accessors are called
  result.street = address.street
  // ...
  return result
```

Getters and Setters

```
var propertyName>[: <PropertyType>] [= property_initializer>]
   [<getter>]
   [<setter>]
var initialized = 1 // has type Int, default getter and setter
// var allByDefault // ERROR: explicit initializer required, default getter and setter implied
val simple: Int? // has type Int, default getter, must be initialized in constructor
val inferredType = 1 // has type Int and a default getter
val square get() = this.width * this.height
var stringRepresentation: String
  get() = this.toString()
  set(value) {
     setDataFromString(value) // parses the string and assigns values to other properties
```

Getters and Setters Visibility

• If you need to annotate an accessor or change its visibility, but you don't need to change the default implementation, you can define the accessor without defining its body:

```
var setterVisibility: String = "abc"
private set // the setter is private and has the default implementation
```

var setterWithAnnotation: Any? = null
@Inject set // annotate the setter with Inject

Backing Fields

 In Kotlin, a field is only used as a part of a property to hold its value in memory. Fields cannot be declared directly. However, when a property needs a backing field, Kotlin provides it automatically. This backing field can be referenced in the accessors using the field identifier:

Backing Properties

 If you want to do something that does not fit into this implicit backing field scheme, you can always fall back to having a backing property:

```
private var _table: Map<String, Int>? = null
public val table: Map<String, Int>
    get() {
        if (_table == null) {
            _table = HashMap() // Type parameters are inferred
        }
        return _table ?: throw AssertionError("Set to null by another thread")
    }
}
```

• On the JVM: Access to private properties with default getters and setters is optimized to avoid function call overhead.

Compile-time Constants

- If the value of a read-only property is known at compile time, mark it as a compile time constant using the **const** modifier. Such a property needs to fulfil the following requirements:
- It must be a top-level property, or a member of an object declaration or a companion object.
- It must be initialized with a value of type String or primitive type
- It cannot have custom getter

```
const val SUBSYSTEM_DEPRECATED: String = "This subsystem is deprecated"
@ Deprecated(SUBSYSTEM_DEPRECATED) fun foo() { ... }
```

Late-initialized Properties and Variables

 Non-null type properties must be initialized in the constructor. However, properties can be initialized through dependency injection, or in the setup method of a unit test. In these cases, you cannot supply a non-null initializer in the constructor, but you still want to avoid null checks when referencing the property inside the body of a class:

```
public class MyTest {
    lateinit var subject: TestSubject

    @SetUp fun setup() {
        subject = TestSubject()
    }

    @Test fun test() {
        subject.method() // dereference directly
    }
}
```

Late-initialized Properties and Variables - II

 Non-null type properties must be initialized in the constructor. However, properties can be initialized through dependency injection, or in the setup method of a unit test. In these cases, you cannot supply a non-null initializer in the constructor, but you still want to avoid null checks when referencing the property inside the body of a class:

```
public class MyTest {
    lateinit var subject: TestSubject
    @SetUp fun setup() {
        subject = TestSubject()
    }
    @Test fun test() {
        if (::subject.isInitialized) {
            subject.method() // dereference directly
        }
    }
}
```

Delegated Properties

 Lazy values, reading from a map by a given key, accessing a database, notifying a listener on access, etc.:

```
class Delegate {
  var _value: String = ""
  operator fun getValue(thisRef: Any?, property: KProperty<*>): String {
     return "$thisRef, thank you for delegating '${property.name}' to me: $_value"
  operator fun setValue(thisRef: Any?, property: KProperty<*>, value: String) {
     _value =value
     println("$value has been assigned to '${property.name}' in $thisRef.")
class Example {
  var prop: String by Delegate()
var topProp: String by Delegate() // top level property
```

Standard Delegates: Lazy properties

lazy() is a function that takes a lambda and returns an instance of Lazy<T>,
 which can serve as a delegate for implementing a lazy property. The first
 call to get() executes the lambda passed to lazy() and remembers the
 result. Subsequent calls to get() simply return the remembered result:

```
val lazyValue: String by lazy {
  println("computed!")
  "Hello"
fun main() {
  println(lazyValue)
  println(lazyValue)
computed!
Hello
Hello
```

Standard Delegates: Lazy properties - II

 lazy() is a function that takes a lambda and returns an instance of Lazy<T>, which can serve as a delegate for implementing a lazy property. The first call to get() executes the lambda passed to lazy() and remembers the result. Subsequent calls to **get()** simply return the remembered result: val lazyValue: String by lazy(LazyThreadSafetyMode.PUBLICATION) { // init not synchronized println("computed!") "Hello" fun main() { println(lazyValue)

computed!

println(lazyValue)

Hello Hello

Standard Delegates: Observable properties

- Delegates.observable() takes two arguments: the initial value and a handler for modifications.
- The handler is called every time you assign to the property (after the assignment has been performed). It has three parameters: the property being assigned to, the old value, and the new value:

```
class User {
    var name: String by Delegates.observable("<no name>") {
        prop, old, new ->
        println("$old -> $new")
    }
}
fun main() {
    val user = User()
    user.name = "first"
    user.name = "second"
}
```

Delegating to Another Property

- A property can delegate its getter and setter to another property. Such delegation is available for both top-level and class properties (member and extension). The delegate property can be:
 - A top-level property
 - A member or an extension property of the same class
 - A member or an extension property of another class
- To delegate a property to another property, use the :: qualifier in the delegate name, for example, this::delegate or MyClass::delegate:

```
var topLevelInt: Int = 0
class ClassWithDelegate(val anotherClassInt: Int)
class MyClass7(var memberInt: Int, val anotherClassInstance: ClassWithDelegate) {
   var delegatedToMember: Int by this::memberInt
   var delegatedToTopLevel: Int by ::topLevelInt
   val delegatedToAnotherClass: Int by anotherClassInstance::anotherClassInt
}
var MyClass7.extDelegated: Int by ::topLevelInt
```

Delegating to Another Property – Example @Deprecated

```
class MyClass8 {
                  var newName: Int = 0
                   Openion of the image of the 
                   var oldName: Int by this::newName
fun main() {
                  val myClass8 = MyClass8()
                 // Notification: 'oldName: Int' is deprecated.
                 // Use 'newName' instead
                   myClass8.oldName = 42
                   println(myClass8.newName) // 42
```

Example: Storing properties in a map

```
class User2(private val map: Map<String, Any?>) {
  val name: String by map
  val age: Int
              by map
val user2 = User2(mapOf(
  "name" to "John Doe",
  "age" to 25
class MutableUser(val map: MutableMap<String, Any?>) {
  var name: String by map
  var age: Int
               by map
val mutableUser = MutableUser(
  mutableMapOf(
  "name" to "John Doe",
  "age" to 25
```

Local Delegated Properties

```
fun example(computeFoo: () -> Foo) {
  val memoizedFoo by lazy(computeFoo)

if (someCondition && memoizedFoo.isValid()) {
    memoizedFoo.doSomething()
  }
}
```

Property Delegate Requirements - val

- For a read-only property (val), a delegate should provide an operator function getValue() with the following parameters:
 - thisRef must be the same type as, or a supertype of, the property owner (for extension properties, it should be the type being extended).
 - property must be of type KProperty<*> or its supertype.
- getValue() must return the same type as the property (or its subtype):

```
class Resource
class Owner {
    val valResource: Resource by ResourceDelegate()
}
class ResourceDelegate {
    operator fun getValue(thisRef: Owner, property: KProperty<*>): Resource {
        return Resource()
    }
}
```

Property Delegate Requirements - var

- For a mutable property (var), a delegate has to additionally provide an operator function **setValue()** with the following parameters:
 - thisRef must be the same type as, or a supertype of, the property owner (for extension properties, it should be the type being extended).
 - property must be of type KProperty<*> or its supertype.
 - value must be of the same type as the property (or its supertype).

```
class Resource2
class Owner2 { var varResource: Resource2 by ResourceDelegate2() }

class ResourceDelegate2(private var resource: Resource2 = Resource2()) {
    operator fun getValue(thisRef: Owner2, property: KProperty<*>): Resource2 {
        return resource
    }
    operator fun setValue(thisRef: Owner2, property: KProperty<*>, value: Any?) {
        if (value is Resource2) { resource = value }
    }
}
```

Delegation using ReadOnlyProperty and ReadWriteProperty

```
fun resourceDelegate(): ReadWriteProperty<Any?, Int> =
  object : ReadWriteProperty<Any?, Int> {
    var curValue = 0
    override fun getValue(thisRef: Any?, property: KProperty<*>): Int = curValue
    override fun setValue(thisRef: Any?, property: KProperty<*>, value: Int) {
        curValue = value
    }
}

val readOnly: Int by resourceDelegate() // ReadWriteProperty as val
var readWrite: Int by resourceDelegate()
```

Translation Rules

```
class C {
   var prop: Type by MyDelegate()
}

// this code is generated by the compiler instead:
class C {
   private val prop$delegate = MyDelegate()
   var prop: Int
      get() = prop$delegate.getValue(this, this::prop)
      set(value: Type) = prop$delegate.setValue(this, this::prop, value)
}
```

provideDelegate operator - I

```
class C {
   var prop: Type by MyDelegate()
}

// this code is generated by the compiler instead:
class C {
   private val prop$delegate = MyDelegate().provideDelegate(this, this::prop)
   var prop: Int
      get() = prop$delegate.getValue(this, this::prop)
      set(value: Type) = prop$delegate.setValue(this, this::prop, value)
}
```

provideDelegate operator - II

```
class ResourceID<T>(val id: T) {
  companion object { ... }
class ResourceDelegate4<T>: ReadOnlyProperty<MyUI, T> {
  override fun getValue(thisRef: MyUI, property: KProperty<*>): T = /* ... */
class ResourceLoader4<T>(id: ResourceID<T>) {
  operator fun provideDelegate(
    thisRef: MyUI,
    prop: KProperty<*>
  ): ReadOnlyProperty<MyUI, T> {
    checkProperty(thisRef, prop.name)
    // create delegate
    return ResourceDelegate4()
  private fun checkProperty(thisRef: MyUI, name: String) { /*...*/
```

provideDelegate operator - III

```
class MyUI {
   fun <T> bindResource(id: ResourceID<T>): ResourceLoader4<T> = ResourceLoader4(id)
   val image by bindResource(ResourceID.image_id)
   val text by bindResource(ResourceID.text_id)
}
```

PropertyDelegateProvider

```
val provider = PropertyDelegateProvider { thisRef: Any?, property ->
    ReadOnlyProperty<Any?, Int> {_, property -> 42 }
}
val delegate: Int by provider
```

Local Delegated Properties

```
fun example(computeFoo: () -> Foo) {
  val memoizedFoo by lazy(computeFoo)

if (someCondition && memoizedFoo.isValid()) {
    memoizedFoo.doSomething()
  }
}
```

Delegating to Another Property – Example @Deprecated

- A property can delegate its getter and setter to another property. Such delegation is available for both top-level and class properties (member and extension). The delegate property can be:
 - A top-level property
 - A member or an extension property of the same class
 - A member or an extension property of another class
- To delegate a property to another property, use the :: qualifier in the delegate name, for example, this::delegate or MyClass::delegate:

```
var topLevelInt: Int = 0
class ClassWithDelegate(val anotherClassInt: Int)
class MyClass7(var memberInt: Int, val anotherClassInstance: ClassWithDelegate) {
  var delegatedToMember: Int by this::memberInt
  var delegatedToTopLevel: Int by ::topLevelInt
  val delegatedToAnotherClass: Int by anotherClassInstance::anotherClassInt
var MyClass7.extDelegated: Int by ::topLevelInt
```

Backing Properties

 If you want to do something that does not fit into this implicit backing field scheme, you can always fall back to having a backing property:

```
private var _table: Map<String, Int>? = null
public val table: Map<String, Int>
    get() {
        if (_table == null) {
            _table = HashMap() // Type parameters are inferred
        }
        return _table ?: throw AssertionError("Set to null by another thread")
    }
}
```

• On the JVM: Access to private properties with default getters and setters is optimized to avoid function call overhead.

Getters and Setters Visibility

• If you need to annotate an accessor or change its visibility, but you don't need to change the default implementation, you can define the accessor without defining its body:

```
var setterVisibility: String = "abc"
private set // the setter is private and has the default implementation
```

var setterWithAnnotation: Any? = null
@Inject set // annotate the setter with Inject

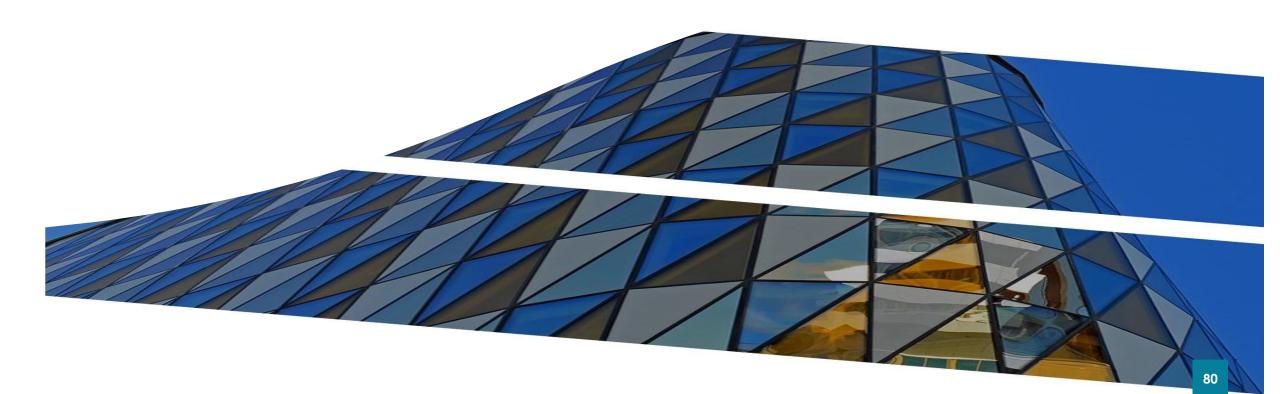
Getters and Setters

- If you need to write a function that can be called without having a class instance but that needs access to the internals of a class (such as a factory method), you can write it as a member of an object declaration inside that class.
- Even more specifically, if you declare a companion object inside your class, you can access its members using only the class name as a qualifier.

```
class MyClass {
    companion object Factory {
        fun create(): MyClass = MyClass()
    }
}
val instance = MyClass.create()
```

```
class MyClass2 {
   companion object { }
}
val x = MyClass2.Companion
```

Examples



Examples

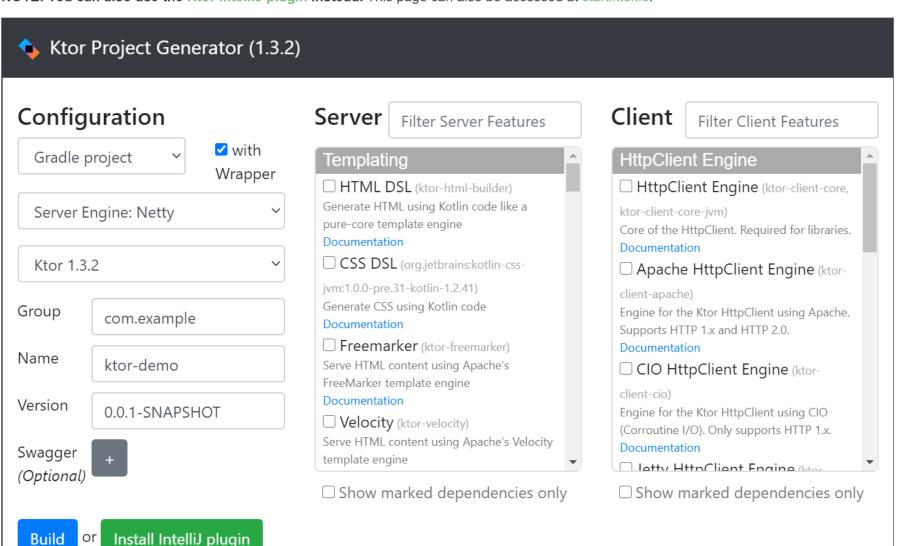
```
data class Product(val name: String, val price: Double)
class Order(val number: Int, val products: List<Product>, val date: LocalDateTime = LocalDateTime.now() ){
  fun calculateTotal(): Double {
     return products
       map { it.price }
       .reduce { acc, prod -> acc + prod }
// And if you check a type is right, the compiler will auto-cast it for you
fun calculateTotal(obj: Any): Double? {
  if (obj is Order) return obj.calculateTotal()
  return 0.0
fun main() {
  val products = listOf(Product("Keyboard", 27.5), Product("Mouse", 17.1))
  val order = Order(1, products)
  println(calculateTotal((order))); // => 44.6
```

Generate a Ktor project

Estimated reading time: 1 minute



NOTE: You can also use the Ktor IntelliJ plugin instead. This page can also be accessed at start.ktor.io.



Source:

https://kotlinlang.org/

Simple Web Service with Ktor

```
fun main() {
  val server = embeddedServer(Netty, 8080) {
     routing {
       get("/hello") {
          call.respondText("<h2>Hello from Ktor and Kotlin!</h2>", ContentType.Text.Html)
  server.start(true)
... And that's all:)
```

```
data class Product(val name: String, val price: Double, var id: Int)
object Repo: ConcurrentHashMap<Int, Product>() {
  private idCounter = AtomicInteger()
  fun addProduct(product: Product) {
     product.id = idCounter.incrementAndGet()
    put(product.id, product)
fun main() {
  embeddedServer(Netty, 8080, watchPaths = listOf("build/classes"), module= Application::mymodule).start(true)
fun Application.mymodule() {
  install(DefaultHeaders)
  install(CORS) { maxAgeInSeconds = Duration.ofDays(1).toSeconds() }
  install(Compression)
  install(CallLogging)
  install(ContentNegotiation) {
    gson {
       setDateFormat(DateFormat.LONG)
       setPrettyPrinting()
```

```
routing {
    get("/products") {
       call.respond(Repo.values)
    get("/products/{id}") {
       try ·
         val item = Repo.get(call.parameters["id"]?.toInt())
         if (item == null) {
            call.respond(
               HttpStatusCode.NotFound,
               """{"error":"Product not found with id = ${call.parameters["id"]}"}"""
         } else {
            call.respond(item)
       } catch(ex :NumberFormatException) {
         call.respond(HttpStatusCode.BadRequest,
            """{"error":"Invalid product id: ${call.parameters["id"]}"}"")
```

```
post("/products") {
       errorAware {
          val product: Product = call.receive<Product>(Product::class)
          println("Received Post Request: $product")
          Repo.addProduct(product)
          call.respond(HttpStatusCode.Created, product)
private suspend fun <R> PipelineContext<*, ApplicationCall>.errorAware(block: suspend () -> R): R? {
  return try {
     block()
  } catch (e: Exception) {
     call.respondText(
       """{"error":"$e"}""",
       ContentType.parse("application/json"),
       HttpStatusCode.InternalServerError
     null
```

Ktor Applications

- Ktor Server Application is a custom program listening to one or more ports using a configured server engine, composed by modules with the application logic, that install features, like routing, sessions, compression, etc. to handle HTTP/S 1.x/2.x and WebSocket requests.
- ApplicationCall the context for handling routes, or directly intercepting the pipeline – provides access to two main properties
 ApplicationRequest and ApplicationResponse, as well as request parameters, attributes, authentication, session, typesafe locations, and the application itself. Example:

```
intercept(ApplicationCallPipeline.Call) {
   if (call.request.uri == "/")
      call.respondHtml {
      body {
         a(href = "/products") { + "Go to /products" }
} } }
```

Routing DSL Using Higher Order Functions

- routing, get, and post are all higher-order functions (functions that take other functions as parameters or return functions).
- Kotlin has a convention that if the last parameter to a function is another function, we can place this outside of the brackets
- routing is a lambda with receiver == higher-order function taking as
 parameter an extension function => anything enclosed within routing has
 access to members of the type Routing.
- get and post are functions of the Routing type => also lambdas with receivers, with own members, such as call.
- This combination of **conventions** and **functions** allows to create elegant DSLs, such as Ktor's **routing DSL**.

Features

- A feature is a singleton (usually a companion object) that you can install and configure for a pipeline.
- Ktor includes some standard features, but you can add your own or other features from the community.
- You can install features in any pipeline, like the application itself, or specific routes.
- Features are injected into the request and response pipeline. Usually, an
 application would have a series of features such as DefaultHeaders which
 add headers to every outgoing response, Routing which allows us to
 define routes to handle requests, etc.

Installing Features

Using install: **Using routing DSL:** fun Application.main() { fun Application.main() { install(DefaultHeaders) *install*(DefaultHeaders) install(CallLogging) install(CallLogging) install(Routing) { routing { get("/") { get("/") { call.respondText("Hello, World!") call.respondText("Hello, World!")

Learn Kotlin by Example & Kotlin idioms

https://play.kotlinlang.org/byExample/

https://kotlinlang.org/docs/idioms.html

Thank's for Your Attention!



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