Lecture 3 – Classes, Traits, and Objects SWS121: Secure Programming

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Recall



- Simple Build Tool (sbt) for Scala
 - Example Project
 - Project Structure
 - Building a Project
 - Running a Project
- Scala Documentation
 - scaladoc Scala Documentation Tool
 - Generating Documentation
 - Writing Documentation
- Scala Test Framework
 - Why Software Testing?
 - ScalaTest Test Framework for Scala
 - Running Tests
 - Writing Tests
 - Measuring Code Coverage

Contents



1. Recall: Product Types and Algebraic Data Types

2. Basic Object-Oriented Programming

Constructors

Traits

Overloading and Overriding

Access Modifiers

3. Advanced Object-Oriented Programming

Objects

Companion Objects

Operators

Contents



1. Recall: Product Types and Algebraic Data Types

Basic Object-Oriented Programming

Constructors

Traits

Overloading and Overriding

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Advanced Object-Oriented Programming

Objects

Companion Objects

Operators





A case class defines a **product type** with named fields.

```
type name field type
case class Point(x: Int, y: Int, color: String)
field name
```

```
// A case class `Point` having `x`, `y`, and `color` fields
// whose types are `Int`, `Int`, and `String`, respectively
case class Point(x: Int, y: Int, color: String)
// A `Point` instance whose fields: x = 3, y = 4, and color = "RED"
val point: Point = Point(3, 4, "RED")
// You can access fields using the dot operator
          // 3 : Int
point.x
point.color // "RED" : String
// Fields are immutable by default
```

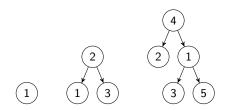




An algebraic data type (ADT) is a sum of product types, and you can define it using enumerations (enum) in Scala.

```
type name
| variants
|
enum Tree: |
| case Leaf(value: Int)
| case Branch(left: Tree, value: Int, right: Tree)
```

```
import Tree.* // Import all constructors for variants of `Tree`
val tree1: Tree = Leaf(1)
val tree2: Tree = Branch(Leaf(1), 2, Leaf(3))
val tree3: Tree = Branch(Leaf(2), 4, Branch(Leaf(3), 1, Leaf(5)))
```



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Constructors – Auxiliary Constructors



A case class has a default constructor.

We can define **auxiliary constructors** using the **this** keyword.





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We can define **auxiliary constructors** using the **this** keyword.

```
case class Person(name: String, age: Int):
    def this(firstName: String, lastName: String, age: Int) =
        this(s"\firstName \firstName", age)

val p1 = Person("Jihyeok Park", 32)
val p2 = new Person("Jihyeok", "Park", 32)
p1 == p2  // true
```





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We can define **auxiliary constructors** using the **this** keyword.

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case class Person(name: String, age: Int):
    def this(firstName: String, lastName: String, age: Int) =
        this(s"$firstName $lastName", age)

val p1 = Person("Jihyeok Park", 32)
val p2 = new Person("Jihyeok", "Park", 32)
p1 == p2 // true
```

```
case class Person(name: String, age: Int):
    ...
    def this() = this("Unknown", 0)

val p3 = Person("Unknown", 0)
val p4 = new Person()
p3 == p4  // true
```

Constructors - The copy Method



Instead of constructors, we can use the copy method for a case class instance to create a new instance with some fields modified.





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```
val p1 = Person("Jihyeok Park", 32)
val p2 = p1.copy(age = 50)
p2 == Person("Jihyeok Park", 50)  // true

val p3 = p1.copy(name = "Unknown")
p3 == Person("Unknown", 32)  // true
```

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val p2 = p1.copy(age = 50)
p2 == Person("Jihyeok Park", 50)  // true

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Note that the copy method does **not modify** the original instance.

It creates a **new instance** with the specified fields modified.





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Note that the copy method does **not modify** the original instance.

It creates a **new instance** with the specified fields modified.

And, it utilizes the **named arguments** feature in Scala.





A trait is similar to an interface in Java.

It defines a type with specific abstract or concrete methods and fields.

```
trait HasName:
    // Abstract field
    val name: String
    // Concrete method
    def hello: String = s"Hello, $name!"

trait HasLegs:
    // Abstract method
    def numLegs: Int
    // Concrete method
    def walk: String = s"Walking on $numLegs legs"
```

Traits – Extending and Implementing



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We need to implement all **abstract** methods and fields.





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The type Person is a **subtype** of HasName and HasLegs.

Therefore, the variable p can be a HasName or HasLegs.

```
val hasName: HasName = p
val hasLegs: HasLegs = p
```

Traits - Mixin Composition



We can define a new trait by **mixing** multiple traits.





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```
trait HasName:
  val name: String
  def hello: String = s"Hello, $name!"

trait HasLegs:
  def numLegs: Int
  def walk: String = s"Walking on $numLegs legs"
```

For example, NamedTwoLegged mixes HasName and HasLegs traits.

Overloading



We can define multiple methods with the same name but different numbers or types of parameters.

It is called **method overloading**.

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```
case class A():
 def f(x: Int): Int = x
 // Overloaded method with different number of parameters
 def f(x: Int, y: Int): Int = x + y
 // Overloaded method with different types of parameters
 def f(x: String): String = x + "!"
val a = A()
a.f(1) // 1
a.f(1, 2) // 1 + 2 = 3
a.f("Hello") // "Hello" + "!" = "Hello!"
```

Overriding



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```
trait Animal:
    def speak: String = "Animal speaks"

class Dog extends Animal:
    override def speak: String = "Dog barks"

Dog().speak    // "Dog barks"
```





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class Dog extends Animal:
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Dog().speak  // "Dog barks"
```

We can prevent a method from being overridden by using final modifier.

```
trait Animal:
    final def speak: String = "Animal speaks"

class Dog extends Animal:
    override def speak: String = "Dog barks" // Compile Error
```

Overriding - The super Keyword



We can call the overridden method in the superclass using the super keyword.

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```
trait Animal:
 def speak: String = "Animal speaks"
trait Dog extends Animal:
  override def speak: String =
    super.speak + " and Dog barks"
class Puppy extends Dog:
  override def speak: String =
    super.speak + " and Puppy whines"
Puppy().speak // "Animal speaks and Dog barks and Puppy whines"
```

Overriding - Diamond Problem



In Java, a class can extend **only one class**, but it can implement **multiple interfaces** (no real implementation – all abstract methods).

It is due to the **diamond problem** in multiple inheritance.

If Java allows multiple inheritance for classes, it may cause ambiguity:

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If Java allows multiple inheritance for classes, it may cause ambiguity:

```
class Parent1 {
  void fun() { System.out.println("Parent1"); }
}
class Parent2 {
  void fun() { System.out.println("Parent2"); }
}
class test extends Parent1, Parent2 { }

test t = new test();
t.fun();  // `fun` method is ambiguous (Parent1 or Parent2)
```

Overriding – Linearization



However, Scala solves this problem using linearization.

When a class extends multiple traits having the same concrete method, Scala uses the **rightmost** trait's method.

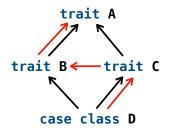
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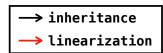


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```
trait A:
  def f: Tnt = 0
trait B extends A:
  override def f: Int = 1
trait C extends A:
  override def f: Int = 2
case class D() extends B, C
D().f
```





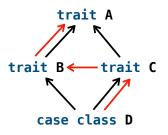
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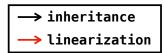


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When a class extends multiple traits having the same concrete method, Scala uses the **rightmost** trait's method.

```
trait A:
  def f: Unit = println("A")
trait B extends A:
  override def f: Unit =
    super.f; println("-> B")
trait C extends A:
  override def f: Unit =
    super.f; println("-> C")
case class D() extends B, C
  override def f: Unit =
    super.f; println("-> D")
D().f // A -> C -> B -> D
```





Access Modifiers



Similar to Java, Scala provides **access modifiers**: private and protected to restrict access to fields and methods.





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```
trait A:
 val x: Int = 0
            // public by default
 protected val y: Int = 1 // protected
 private val z: Int = 0 // private
case class B() extends A:
             // Can access `x` in `A`
 def getX: Int = x
 val b = B()
h x
                   // 0
b.v
                   // Compile Error: `y` is protected in `A`
b. z.
                   // Compile Error: `z` is private in `A`
```

Access Modifiers – Setter Syntax



Scala supports special postfix syntax _= with a field/method name for defining **setters**.





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```
case class A():
 private var _x: Int = 0
 private val BOUND = 100
 // Getter for `x`
 def x: Int = _x
 // Setter for `_x`
 def x =(newX: Int): Unit =
   if (newX > BOUND) _x = BOUND
   else
                x = newX
val a = A()
a.x // 0
a.x = 10 // set x to 10
   // 10
a.x
a.x = 200 // set x to 100 because 200 > 100
       // 100
a.x
```

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Constructors

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```
object StringUtils:
    def truncate(s: String, length: Int): String = s.take(length)
    def repeat(s: String, n: Int): String = s * n
    def toUpperCase(s: String): String = s.toUpperCase

StringUtils.truncate("Hello, World!", 5)  // "Hello"
StringUtils.repeat("Scala", 3)  // "ScalaScalaScala"
StringUtils.toUpperCase("scala")  // "SCALA"
```





In Scala, we can define a singleton object using the object keyword without the definition of a class.

Or, we can import the methods from the object and use them directly.

Objects - The apply Method



An object can have an apply method can be invoked without the method name.

It looks like calling an object as a function.

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Especially, a singleton object with the same name as a class is called a **companion object**.

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Similarly, the corresponding class is called a **companion class**.

The companion object can access the private fields and methods of the companion class, and vice versa.

```
case class Square(side: Int):
 private def area: Int = side * side
  // Companion class can access private fields in companion object
 def getName: String = Square.name
object Square:
 private val name: String = "Square"
  // Companion object can access private fields in companion class
 def calculateArea(square: Square): Int = square.area
Square(5).getName
                            // "Square"
Square.calculateArea(Square(5)) // 25
```



Scala supports such companion objects to define **static** fields and methods shared by all instances of the class like in Java.



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For example, we can implement the left Java implementation in Scala using companion objects.

```
class Counter {
  static int count = 0;
  void increment() {
    count++;
Counter c1 = new Counter();
c1.increment():
Counter c2 = new Counter();
c2.increment():
c1.count:
                    // 2
```

```
case class Counter():
    def increment: Unit =
        Counter.count += 1

object Counter:
    var count: Int = 0

Counter().increment
Counter().increment
Counter.count // 2
```





Using the apply method in the companion object, we can create an instance of the class without the new keyword.

```
case class Person(name: String, age: Int)
object Person:
 def apply(firstName: String, lastName: String, age: Int): Person =
   Person(s"$firstName $lastName", age)
 def apply(): Person = Person("Unknown", 0)
val p1 = Person("Jihyeok Park", 32)
val p2 = new Person("Jihyeok", "Park", 32)
p1 == p2 // true
val p3 = new Person("Unknown", 0)
val p4 = Person()
p3 == p4 // true
```

Operators



We can define **custom operators** in Scala using the **def** keyword exactly same as a method.

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For example, we can define a + operator for a Point class.

For unary operators, we need to define a method with a prefix unary_:

```
case class Point(x: Int, y: Int):
    ...
    def unary_- : Point = Point(-x, -y)

val p = Point(1, 2)
p.unary_- // Point(-1, -2)
```





We can use the **infix notation** for operators and also method calls.





We can use the **infix notation** for operators and also method calls.

For unary operators, we can use the **prefix notation**.





Scala has a set of **operator precedence** rules, and it is also applied to custom operators.

```
case class Point(x: Int, y: Int):
 // Additive operator
 def +(that: Point): Point = Point(this.x + that.x, this.y + that.y)
 // Multiplicative operator
 def *(k: Int): Point = Point(this.x * k, this.y * k)
 // Comparison operator
 def <=(that: Point): Boolean = this.x <= that.x && this.y <= that.y</pre>
val p1 = Point(1, 2)
val p2 = Point(3, 4)
val p3 = Point(7, 10)
p1 + p2 * 2 <= p3 // (p1 + (p2 * 2)) <= p3 -- true
```

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Next Lecture



• Functional Programming

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