

Hierarchy, Types and Options

Scala's Core Hierarchy, Type Calculus, Optionals and More.



Agenda

- 1. Top Classes
- 2. Organization From the Top
- 3. Bottom Classes
- 4. Basic Type Calculus
- 5. Scala Primitives and Implicit Conversions
- 6. Value Classes and Extension Methods
- 7. Nil, Null, Nothing, None
- 8. Option Type
- 9. Equals and Hashcode
- 10. Product Types



Top Classes

- OO Languages typically have an object at the top of the type hierarchy
 - e.g. Object in Java
- Scala has 3 such Top Classes:
 - Any is the absolute top of the hierarchy, everything in Scala is an Any (including instances)
 - AnyVal is under Any, but above all of the "primitive" types (+ Unit)
 - AnyRef is equivalent to Java's Object, it is above all user defined class types
- AnyRefs can be newed to make instances
- objects are also AnyRefs
- Any has methods: toString, equals, hashCode, ==, ##, !=
- AnyRef has methods: isInstanceOf[T], asInstanceOf[T], eq, ne, synchronized, wait, notify, notifyAll

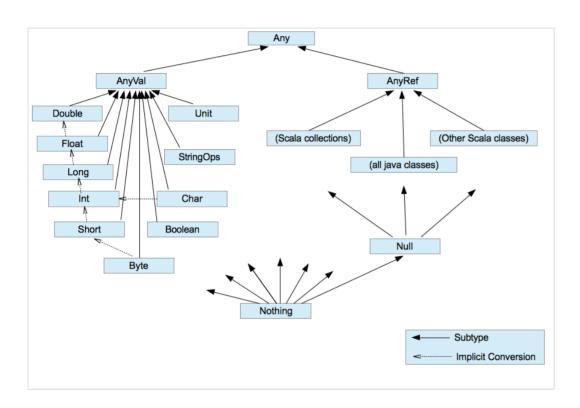


Top Types Example

```
val s: String = "hello"
val i: Int = 10
val iar: AnyRef = i  // Does not compile
ia.isInstanceOf[Int] // true
ia.asInstanceOf[Int] // Int: 10
ia.asInstanceOf[String]// Class cast exception
sa.isInstanceOf[String]// true
sa.asInstanceOf[String]// String: hello
sa.asInstanceOf[Int] // Class cast exception
```



Organization From the Top



- The "primitives" and classes fan out from the top Any types
- They also fan back in to Null and Nothing types, we'll look at those next



Bottom Classes

- null is a concept familiar in many other languages
- It can be assigned to any reference type in those languages to denote the absence of a reference
- "It's as though there is a Null type that is a sub-class of all other types, with a single null instance" -- Paraphrased from the Java Language Spec
- In Scala this is literally the case, Null is a type, it is a sub-class of the whole set of AnyRefs, and there is a single instance null of that type
- There is also a Nothing type which is the sub-type of everything in the Scala type system. There is **no instance** of Nothing, nor can there be one. It exists solely to complete the type system.



Null and Nothing

```
val s1: String = "hello"
s1.charAt(1) // Char: e

val s2: String = null
s2.charAt(1) // Null pointer exception!
s1.isInstanceOf[String] // true
s2.isInstanceOf[String] // false
```

- For isInstanceOf checks, null will always return false
- How can Nothing be useful?

```
val emptyList = List.empty // List[Nothing]

1 :: emptyList // List[Int] = List(1)
"hello" :: emptyList // List[String] = List(hello)
```



Even More Nothing

• Is Nothing used for anything other than bottom type parameters?

```
def fail(msg: String): Nothing =
  throw new IllegalStateException(msg)
```

- A method with a Nothing return type must throw an exception
- Why is Nothing useful?
 - It completes the type system...



Scala Type Calculus (Simplified)

- if type A is a subtype of AnyRef, A + Null is A (because Null is a sub-type of all AnyRefs, so A becomes the LUB (Least Upper Bounds)
- For **any** type A in Scala, A + Nothing is A (because Nothing is a sub-type of everything so the same reasoning as above applies for the LUB)
- If B and C both sub-class A then B + C is A, that being the LUB (the first place the type-hierarchy coverges for B and C as you go up through the super-classes)
- E.g. practical examples (using an if expression with two return types):

```
val flag = true // could be false...
if (flag) 1.0 else () // Double + Unit = AnyVal
if (flag) 1.0 // implicit Unit, Double + Unit = AnyVal
if (flag) "hi" // implicit Unit, String + Unit = Any
if (flag) "Hello" else null // String + Null = String
if (flag) 2.0 else null // Double + Null = Any
def fail(msg: String): Nothing =
    throw new IllegalStateException(msg)
if (flag) 2.0 else fail("not 2.0") // Double + Nothing = Double
if (flag) "yo" else fail("no yo") // String + Nothing = String
```



Scala Type Inference Tricks

• Left to its own devices, Scala will often infer more than you need:

```
trait Fruit
case class Apple(name: String) extends Fruit
case class Orange(name: String) extends Fruit

if (true) Apple("Fiji") else Orange("Jaffa")
// Product with Serializable with Fruit = Apple(Fiji)

List(Apple("fiji"), Orange("Jaffa"))
// List[Product with Serializable with Fruit] = List(Apple(fiji), Orange(Jaffa))
```

- Since case classes extend both Product and Serializable
- You can explicitly type the result:

```
val result: Fruit = if (true) Apple("Fiji") else Orange("Jaffa")
```

• Or you can add Product and Serializable to the superclass:

```
trait Fruit extends Product with Serializable
```



Primitives and Implicit Conversions

- Most languages have a form of Implicit Conversion, often referred to as type coercion
- E.g. in Java you can call a method expecting a long with an int
- Type widening of primitives in Scala is achieved with implicits
- And you can use them (carefully) for your own purposes as well
- Unlike Java, Scala makes no distinction in written code between primitives and boxed types
- Also while methods can be invoked like 1.+(2) behind the scenes Scala implements these efficiently on primitive types
- In addition to implicit widenings, and implicit adapters for Java types, there are also "Rich" wrappers for primitive types and other common classes (like Strings)



Rich Wrappers

- Double methods above come from RichDouble brought in by Predef
- String methods come from SeqLike and WrappedString also via Predef



@specialized

- Autoboxing in Generics can introduce unwanted overhead
- @specialized can be used to generate templated specific versions for primitives:

```
def sumOf[@specialized(Int, Double, Long) T: Numeric](items: T*): T = {
  val numeric = implicitly[Numeric[T]]
  items.foldLeft(numeric.zero)(numeric.plus)
}
sumOf(1,2,3)
```

- In this case there will be one version of this method for AnyRefs + one each of Int, Double, and Long
- If you overuse this, you can end up with a type matrix explosion:

```
def pair[@specialized T, @specialized U](t: T, u: U): (T, U) = (t, u)
```

• Will produce 100 implementations of pair (9 primitives + AnyRef) * (9 primitives + AnyRef)



@specialized generation

```
$ javap Demo$.class
public final class Demo$ {
  public static Demo$ MODULE$;
  public static {};
  public <T, U> scala.Tuple2<T, U> pair(T, U);
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZZc$sp(boolean, bo
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZBc$sp(boolean, by
  public scala. Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZCc$sp(boolean, ch
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZDc$sp(boolean, do
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZFc$sp(boolean, flo
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZIc$sp(boolean, in
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZJc$sp(boolean, lo
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mZSc$sp(boolean, sh
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, scala.runtime.BoxedUnit> pair$mZVc$sp(bool)
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mBZc$sp(byte, boole
  public scala.Tuple2<java.lang.Object, java.lang.Object> pair$mBBc$sp(byte, byte)
```

• And it didn't even work - look at that return type



Extension Methods and Implicit Classes

- RichDouble and WrappedString introduce extension methods on existing classes
- We can do that too:

```
implicit class TimesDo(i: Int) {
  def times(fn: => Unit): Unit = {
    for (_ <- 1 to i) fn
  }
}

5 times {
  println("hello")
}</pre>
```

- implicit classes combine the class definition and an implicit conversion from the single type parameter to the class
- As such, because there is an implicit def included, implicit classes may only go inside another class, object or package object.



Value class (extends AnyVal)

- The implicit def also means that the Int is actually wrapped in a new instance to run times
- adding extends AnyVal avoids this wrapping when possible (and also makes the definition work *only* outside of an enclosing class):

```
implicit class TimesDo(val i: Int) extends AnyVal {
  def times(fn: => Unit): Unit = {
    for (_ <- 1 to i) fn
  }
}

5 times {
  println("hello")
}</pre>
```

- To extend AnyVal you must:
 - Have a single public parametric field
 - Have no other state in the class (because there may be no instance to hold the state)
- Behind the scenes, static methods are used



Nil, Null, Nothing, None

- Scala has several "negative" types:
- Nil is the empty List, and is also the terminator of every List
- Null and its single instance null is the absence of an AnyRef instance
- Nothing is a type without an instance, and implies an exception being thrown
- None is the absence of a Some in the Option type, and is a safer alternative to null



Option

• null is the absence of an instance. The compiler cannot help you:

• Making an Option type means the compiler has your back:

• This takes a common runtime error, and moves it into a compile time concern



Working with Option

Option is supported throughout the core libraries and third party APIs

```
val numWords = Map(1 -> "one", 2 -> "two", 3 -> "three")
numWords(1) // one
numWords(4) // NoSuchElementException
val word1 = numWords.get(1) // Some("one")
val word2 = numWords.get(4) // None
```

• You can pattern match:

```
word1 match {
  case Some(word) => word
  case None => "unknown"
} // one
```

• Use getOrElse:

```
word2.get0rElse("unknown") // "unknown"
```



Working with Option

• Or compose options with for expressions:

```
def fourthLetter(i: Int): Option[Char] = for {
  word <- numWords.get(i)
  char <- word.drop(4).headOption
} yield char
fourthLetter(1) // None
fourthLetter(3) // Some(e)</pre>
```

• Mixing Options and Collections:

```
def fourthLetters(nums: Seq[Int]): Seq[Char] = for {
   i <- nums
   word <- numWords.get(i).toSeq
   char <- word.drop(4).headOption.toSeq
} yield char
fourthLetters(List(1, 2, 3)) // List('e')</pre>
```

- In this case to Seq on the options is not required, but is recommended
- Collection following an option in a for expression needs toSeq



equals and hashCode

- In Scala, == is aliased to call .equals and is marked final
- The equals and hashCode contract are hard to get right and defaults are not useful

```
class Person(val first: String, val last: String, val age: Int)
val p1 = new Person("Wavey", "Davey", 25)
val p2 = new Person("Wavey", "Davey", 25)

p1 == p2 // false
p1.## // 1466295063
p2.## // 405671158
```

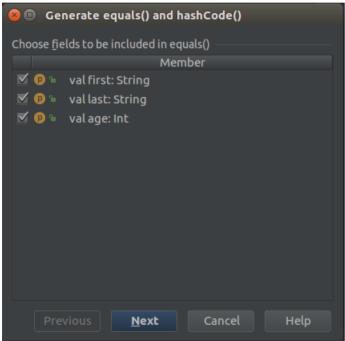
• So we will usually need to provide better equals/hashCode if we want to use these in collections, etc.

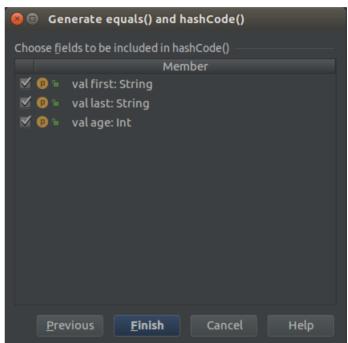


Option 1, Generate with IDEA

• Alt+insert, equals and hashCode, Select fields and Done









Option 2, follow this formula:

```
class Fruit(val name: String) {
  def canEqual(other: Any): Boolean = other.isInstanceOf[Fruit]
  override def equals(other: Any): Boolean = other match {
    case that: Fruit =>
      (that canEqual this) &&
            name == that.name
    case _ => false
  }
  override def hashCode(): Int = name.hashCode
}
```

• Simple case, no inheritance, only one field for hashCode



Continued... sub-classes

```
class Apple(val brand: String, val color: String) extends Fruit("apple") {
 override def canEqual(other: Any): Boolean = other.isInstanceOf[Apple]
 override def equals(other: Any): Boolean = other match {
   case that: Apple =>
      super.equals(that) &&
        (that canEqual this) &&
        brand == that.brand &&
        color == that.color
   case => false
 override def hashCode(): Int = {
   41 * (
     41 * (
        41 + super.hashCode
      ) + brand.hashCode
    ) + color.hashCode
```

Remember super for both equals and hashCode



Option 3, just use case classes

```
case class Banana(brand: String, ripe: Boolean) extends Fruit("banana")

val b1 = Banana("Ffyfes", true)
val b2 = Banana("Ffyfes", true)

b1 == b2 // true
b1.## // -1396355227
b2.## // -1396355227
```

- But!
 - Superclass equals must still be correct if present (will not be used if omitted)
 - case classes cannot extend other case classes
 - Technically all case classes should be marked final



Product Types

- case classes and tuples are Product types
- Their equality is determined by their public state and (for case classes) their type



Product Type Features

• Much more on case classes in a later module



Exercises for Module 8

• Find the Module08 class and follow the instructions to make the tests pass