Lecture 9

1 Reading

Programming in Scala, Chapters 12 and 19.

2 The Singleton Pattern

At times, it is often desirable to only have a single instance of a particular class. For example, if you have a class that lets you read input from the user, it doesn't make sense to have two instances, since the user just has one keyboard. You can create a singleton object in Java by following the design pattern in fig. 18.1. The only instance of Singleton that can exist is the one stored in the private field. (Notice that the constructor is private.) The only way to get the singleton is by calling the `Singleton.getInstance` method.

Here is the equivalent in Scala:

```
object Singleton {
  def myMethod() = println("It works")
}
```

So, all the top-level functions we've created so far (in class and in assignment) can be thought of as methods of singleton objects.

3 Case Objects

We've seen several examples of case classes that take no arguments. For example, to represent binary trees with values at nodes (and not at the leaves), we could write the following type:

```
sealed trait BinTree
case class BinTree(lhs: BinTree, value: Int, rhs: BinTree) extends BinTree
case class Leaf() extends BinTree
```

However, we can also represent leaves using a *case object*, which is essentially a singleton that can be used in pattern-matching:

```
sealed trait BinTree
case class BinTree(lhs: BinTree, value: Int, rhs: BinTree) extends BinTree
case object Leaf extends BinTree
```

Since `Leaf` is an object and not a class, it *cannot* take any arguments, which why we can simply write `Leaf` instead of `Leaf()`. Scala uses case objects extensively. For example, `Nil` and `None` are case objects. If they were case classes, we've have to write `Nil()` and `None()` instead.

```
public class Singleton {
  private static Singleton instance = null;

  private Singleton() { }

  public static Singleton getInstance() {
    if(instance == null) {
      instance = new ClassicSingleton();
    }
    return instance;
  }

  void myMethod() {
    System.out.println("It works")
  }

}
```

Figure 18.1: The Singleton Pattern in Java

4 Subtyping

Subtyping in Scala is very similar to subtyping in Java.

> **Notation** We write $A <: B$ to mean A is a subtype of B.

The intuition behind subtyping is that a subtype always "adds more features" to its super-type, and doesn't "subtract features". Therefore, if $A <: B$, then A can be used in any context where B is expected. The context simply won't try to use the extra features of A. However, B *cannot* be used in contexts where A is expected, because the context may rely on the "added features" of A that B does not provide.

For example, consider the following hierarchy of types, all of which implement the `Animal` trait[1]

```
trait Animal {
  def sound(): String
}

class Dog extends Animal {
  def sound() = "woof"
  def bite() = "ouch"
}

class Poodle extends Dog {
  override def sound() = "yelp"
}

class Cat extends Animal {
  def sound() = "purr"
  def scratch() = "yow"
}
```

A function that expects an `Animal` can be applied to an object of any class defined above. Similarly, a function that expects a `Dog` can be applied to a `Dog` or a `Poodle`, but not to a

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[1]Think of a trait as an interface in Java. Traits are actually more flexible, but we are only going to use them like interfaces for now.

```
                                                              def useAnimal2(c: Single[Animal]) = {
                                                                c.set(new Cat())
                                                                c.get().sound()
                             def useAnimal(c: Single[Animal]) = {
def useDog(c: Single[Dog]) = {   c.get().sound()
  c.get().bite()            }                                  val c = new Single[Dog](new Dog())
}                                                              useAnimal2(c)
                             val c = new Single[Dog](new Dog())  c.get().bite()
useDog(new Single(new Cat())) useAnimal(c)
```

(a) Cats can't bite.   (b) Scala is being conservative.   (c) Sneaky function confuses our code.

Figure 18.2: None of these programs type-check.

`Cat`. For example, the following function takes dogs and makes them bite:

```
def dontBite(x: Dog) = {
  x.bite()
}
```

The expression `dontBite(new Cat())` will not type-check, which is good, because cats don't have a `bite` method.

Given the traits and types defined above, we can say that:

- `Dog <: Animal` because `Dog extends Animal`

- `Poodle <:Dog` because `Poodle extends Dog`

- `Cat <: Animal` because `Cat extends Animal`

- `Poodle <:Animal` because `Poodle <:Dog` and `Dog <: Animal` (subtyping is transitive),

- `X <: X` for all X (subtyping is reflexive).

In addition, scala has two special types:

- `X <: Any` for all types X.

- `Nothing <:X` for all types X.

A peculiar property of `Nothing` is that *there are no values with type* `Nothing`! It may seem pointless to have a type with no values. For example, the following function cannot be applied to anything (not even to `null`):

```
def useless(x: Nothing): Unit = {
  println("Cannot call me")
}
```

But, we'll see why `Nothing` is useful in a moment.

5   Generics and Subtyping

Subtyping becomes more complicated when we working with generics types, such as lists, sets, or any other kind of container. To illustrate, we'll work with the following generic type, which is the simplest possible container:

```scala
class Container[T](private var x: T) {
  def get(): T = x
  def set(newX: T): Unit = x = newX
}

val c1: Container[Dog] = new Container(new Dog)
c1.set(new Poodle)
```

Unsurprisingly, we can't store cats in `c1`. If we did, a function that consumes a container with a dog, might try to `.get` the dog and call the `bite` method, which cats don't have. Therefore, the code in fig. 18.2a does not type-check. However, since `Dog <: Animal`, can we send a dog-container to a function that expects an animal container. For example, section 5 appears to be safe. Unfortunately, this code does not type-check either. Although this particular example is safe, consider the variation in section 5.

The problem above is that `useAnimal2` sneakily stores a cat in the container. After the function returns, `c.get` would produce a cat even though the type indicates that it should produce a dog. Therefore, the Scala type-checker does not allow this program to type-check.

Unfortunately, section 5 (which was safe) does not type-check either, just so that this kind of unsafe example can be ruled out. Individual methods and functions are type-checked only once. Similarly, when a function or method call is type-checked, the body of the function is not re-examined.

6 Variance

However, lists and other immutable data structures in Scala are not constrained this way. For example, the following code does type-check:

```scala
def useAnimals(alist: List[Animal]) = {
  alist.map(animal => animal.sound()).mkString(", ")
}

val lst: List[Cat] = List(new Cat(), new Cat())
useAnimals(lst)
```

The reason this works is because there are no methods on lists to update their contents. The problem with our `Container[T]` class is that it writes to `T`-typed values. However, if we had a functional container class, we can use a *covariance annotation* to indicate that `T`-typed values are never updated.

```scala
class Container[+T](private val x: T) {
  def get(): T = x
}
```

The `+T` annotation indicates `Container[A] <:Container[B]` when `A <: B`. For this to be safe, Scala ensures that `T`-typed values are never updated by the class.[2] (The class may have other kind of state, but it can't update `T`s.)

As a rule of thumb, almost any immutable data structure can be made covariant, which makes it more flexible. E.g., we can a `Set[Cat]` where a `Set[Animal]` is expected or a `List[Dog]` where a `List[Animal]` is expected.

In fact, the list type in Scala is covariant:

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[2] Coavariance is actually more subtle than this. The reading discusses it in more depth, but you don't have to remember all the details.

```scala
sealed trait List[+A]
```

Cons is easy to define as follows:

```scala
case class ::[A](head: A , tail: List[A]) extends List[A]
```

However, the definition of `Nil` is trickier. If it were a case-class, we could write:

```scala
case class Nil[A]() extends List[A]
```

However, recall that `Nil` is a case-object. So, we may try to write this:

```scala
case object Nil[A] extends List[A]
```

However, objects can't have type parameters (or any parameters for that matter).

As discussed earlier, Scala has a special type `Nothing` that has no values and is the subtype of all other types: i.e., `Nothing <:A`. Therefore, by covariance of lists, `List[Nil] <:List[A]`, so we can write:

```scala
case object Nil extends List[Nothing]
```

Although there a no values of type `Nothing`, an empty list of of type `List[A]` doesn't contain any values of type `A`. Therefore, the `Nil` object can be given the type `List[Nothing]`.