

Lecture 9 – Advanced Types

SWS121: Secure Programming

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2024 Spring

- Generic Classes
- Generic Methods/Functions
- Type Bounds
- Variances
- Abstract Type Members
- Inner Classes

1. Intersection and Union Types
2. Self Types
3. Opaque Types
4. Structural Types
5. Type Lambdas
6. Polymorphic Function Types
7. Match Types

1. Intersection and Union Types

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Intersection Types

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For example, consider the following code:

```
trait A { def foo(x: Int): Int }
trait B { def bar(x: Int): Int }

def f(x: A & B): Int = x.foo(10) + x.bar(20)
```

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Since `x` is of type `A & B`, it can access both the `foo` in `A` and the `bar` in `B`.

We can call `f` with an object that implements both `A` and `B`.

```
class C extends A with B:
  def foo(x: Int): Int = x + 1
  def bar(x: Int): Int = x + 2

f(new C) // (10 + 1) + (20 + 2) = 33
```

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For example, consider the following code:

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case class Username(name: String)
case class Password(hash: String)

def getData(x: A | B): String = ???
```

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For example, consider the following code:

```
case class Username(name: String)
case class Password(hash: String)

def getData(x: A | B): String = x match
  case Username(name) => name
  case Password(hash) => hash
```

You can use **pattern matching** to extract the value from the union type.

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```

You can use **pattern matching** to extract the value from the union type.

We can call `getData` with either a `Username` or a `Password`.

```
getData(Username("alice")) // "alice"
getData>Password("x2ef3")) // "x2ef3"
```

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For example, the following code does not infer a union type:

```
case class Username(name: String)
case class Password(hash: String)
val name = Username("alice") // name: Username = Username("alice")
val pass = Password("x2ef3") // pass: Password = Password("x2ef3")
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The following code infers the `Object` type rather than a union type:

```
val x = if (true) name else pass
// x: Object = Username("alice")
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```

The following code infers the `Object` type rather than a union type:

```
val x = if (true) name else pass
// x: Object = Username("alice")
```

To assign a union type to `x`, you need to explicitly declare it:

```
val x: Username | Password = if (true) name else pass
// x: Username | Password = Username("alice")
```

Without union types, we can represent the same concept in two ways.

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First, we can define a common supertype using a trait:

```
trait UsernameOrPassword
case class Username(name: String) extends UsernameOrPassword
case class Password(hash: String) extends UsernameOrPassword
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case class Username(name: String) extends UsernameOrPassword
case class Password(hash: String) extends UsernameOrPassword
```

Second, we can use `enum` (algebraic data types, ADTs) to represent the union type because ADTs are tagged union (sum) types of product types:

```
enum UsernameOrPassword:
  case Username(name: String)
  case Password(hash: String)
```

To directly access the constructors for ADTs, you need to import them:

```
import UsernameOrPassword.*
```

Properties of Intersection and Union Types

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- **Idempotence** for intersection and union types:

$$A \& A \equiv A \quad \text{and} \quad A | A \equiv A$$

- Intersection types have a **higher precedence** than union types:

$$A \& B | C \equiv (A \& B) | C$$

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For example, `Tweeter` trait has `User` as a self-type:

```
trait User { def username: String }
trait Tweeter { this: User =>
  def tweet(msg: String): Unit = println(s"$msg by $username")
}
class VerifiedTweeter(val username: String) extends User with Tweeter
```

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trait User { def username: String }
trait Tweeter { this: User =>
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}
class VerifiedTweeter(val username: String) extends User with Tweeter
```

It means that we need to mix in `User` when we mix in `Tweeter`.

```
// error: illegal inheritance
case class InvalidTweeter(val username: String) extends Tweeter

// OK
case class ValidTweeter(val username: String) extends Tweeter with User

ValidTweeter("alice").tweet("Hello")    // "Hello by alice"
```

We can use any other name instead of `this` for the **self-type**:

```
trait Tweeter { self: User => ... }
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If we omit its type annotation, it does not restrict the type of `this`:

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trait Tweeter { self => ... } // self: Tweeter
```

We can refer to `this` of the outer class in the inner class using **self-types**.

```
case class A { self =>
  val name = "Alice"
  case class B {
    val name = self.name
    def printName: Unit =
      println(s"Inner name: ${name}")
      println(s"Inner name: ${this.name}")
      println(s"Outer name: ${self.name}")
  }
}
```

Self-types are useful for **dependency injection** and it is often called the **cake pattern** in Scala.

```
trait UserTrait { def name: String }  
// TweeterTrait depends on UserTrait without real implementation  
trait TweeterTrait { this: UserTrait =>  
  def tweet(msg: String): Unit = println(s"$msg by $name")  
}
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```
trait UserTrait { def name: String }  
// TweeterTrait depends on UserTrait without real implementation  
trait TweeterTrait { this: UserTrait =>  
  def tweet(msg: String): Unit = println(s"$msg by $name")  
}
```

We can mix in different implementations of UserTrait to TweeterTrait.

```
trait UserImpl1 extends UserTrait { val name = "Alice" }  
object TweeterImpl1 extends TweeterTrait with UserImpl1  
TweeterImpl1.tweet("Hello") // "Hello by Alice"  
  
trait UserImpl2 extends UserTrait { val name = "Bob" }  
object TweeterImpl2 extends TweeterTrait with UserImpl2  
TweeterImpl2.tweet("Hi") // "Hi by Bob"
```

Self Types – Dependency Injection

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For example, assume that we want to share the `f` method in `A` with `B` but not with `C`.

We can use **self-types** to achieve this:

```
trait A { def f: Int }  
trait B { self: A => def g: Int = f }  
trait C extends B { def h: Int = f } // error: f is not accessible
```


Why we need **self-types** rather than **inheritance**?

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```
trait A { def f: Int }
trait B { self: A => def g: Int = f }
trait C extends B { def h: Int = f } // error: f is not accessible
```

However, we cannot achieve the same with **inheritance**:

```
trait A { def f: Int }
trait B extends A { def g: Int = f }
trait C extends B { def h: Int = f } // No error -- breaks encapsulation
```

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Let us assume we want to define a module that offers arithmetic on numbers, which are represented by their logarithm.

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We can define a class `Logarithm` with `Double`:

```
class Logarithm(val underlying: Double):  
  def toDouble: Double = math.exp(underlying)  
  def + (that: Logarithm): Logarithm =  
    Logarithm(this.toDouble + that.toDouble)  
  def * (that: Logarithm): Logarithm =  
    new Logarithm(this.underlying + that.underlying)  
object Logarithm:  
  def apply(d: Double): Logarithm = new Logarithm(math.log(d))
```

```
val x = Logarithm(2.0)      // x.underlying = log(2.0) = 0.693147  
val y = Logarithm(3.0)      // y.underlying = log(3.0) = 1.098612  
println((x + y).toDouble)  // 5.0  
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println((x + y).toDouble)  // 5.0
println((x * y).toDouble)  // 6.0
```

However, it has unnecessary **performance overhead** because of the boxing and unboxing of `Double` values.

We can use a **type alias** to remove the performance overhead:

```
object Logarithms:
  type Logarithm = Double
  def add(x: Logarithm, y: Logarithm): Logarithm =
    make(extract(x) + extract(y))
  def mul(x: Logarithm, y: Logarithm): Logarithm = x + y
  def make(d: Double): Logarithm = math.log(d)
  def extract(x: Logarithm): Double = math.exp(x)
```

```
import Logarithms.*
val x: Logarithm = make(2.0) // x = log(2.0) = 0.693147
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```

However, it make the equality `Logarithm = Double` **visible** to the users, who might misuse it by **accidentally mixing** `Logarithm` and `Double`.

```
val d: Double = x // type checks AND leaks the equality!
```

We can use **opaque types** to hide the equality and still remove the performance overhead of boxing and unboxing `Double` values:

```
object Logarithms:  
  opaque type Logarithm = Double  
  ...
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import Logarithms.*  
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println(extract(add(x, y))) // 5.0  
println(extract(mul(x, y))) // 6.0
```

Now, the equality `Logarithm = Double` is **hidden** from the users and the type system prevents the misuse of `Logarithm` and `Double`.

```
val d: Double = x // error: found: Logarithm, required: Double
```

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For example, consider the following code:

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class Duck { def fly = println("Duck flies") }  
class Eagle { def fly = println("Eagle flies") }  
class Dog { def walk = println("Dog walks") }
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class Dog { def walk = println("Dog walks") }
```

How can we define a method that takes any object that has a fly method without changing the definition of the classes?

We can use a **structural type** to do so:

```
import scala.reflect.Selectable.reflectiveSelectable
def makeItFly(x: { def fly: Unit }): Unit = x.fly
makeItFly(new Duck)      // "Duck flies"
makeItFly(new Eagle)    // "Eagle flies"
makeItFly(new Dog)      // error: Dog does not have a fly method
```

Structural Types – Example

Let's use a **structural type** to define a `autoClose` method to automatically close a resource after using it.

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```
import scala.reflect.Selectable.reflectiveSelectable

class File { def close = println("File closed") }
class InputStareem { def close = println("InputStream closed") }

type Closable = { def close: Unit }
def autoClose(resource: Closable)(op: Closable => Unit): Unit =
  try op(resource) finally resource.close
```

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```
autoClose(new File)(f => println("Reading from file"))
// "Reading from file"
// "File closed"
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  try op(resource) finally resource.close
```

```
autoClose(new File)(f => println("Reading from file"))
// "Reading from file"
// "File closed"
```

```
autoClose(new InputStareM)(in => println("Reading from input stream"))
// "Reading from input stream"
// "InputStream closed"
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For example, consider the following code:

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type MapInt = [X] =>> Map[Int, X]
val m1: MapInt[String] = Map(1 -> "one", 2 -> "two")
val m2: MapInt[Double] = Map(1 -> 1.0, 2 -> 2.0)
```

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A **parameterized type** is regarded as a shorthand for a type lambda:

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type T[X] = R
// is equivalent to
type T = [X] =>> R
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```
type T[X] = R
// is equivalent to
type T = [X] =>> R
```

The body of a type lambda can again be a type lambda:

```
type Pair = [X] =>> [Y] =>> (X, Y)
val p: Pair[Int][String] = (1, "one")
```


Type Lambdas – Example

For example, let's define our own `Try` type using a type lambda.

For example, let's define our own Try type using a type lambda.

```
type MyTry = [X] =>> Either[Throwable, X]

val myTryInt: MyTry[Int] = Right(10)
val myTryStr: MyTry[String] = Right("Hello")
val myTryLeft: MyTry[Int] = Left(new Exception("Error"))

println(myTryInt)      // Right(10)
println(myTryStr)     // Right("Hello")
println(myTryLeft)    // Left(java.lang.Exception: Error)
```

The left side of `Either` is always a `Throwable` and the right side is remained as a **blank** to be filled with any type.

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Scala supports **polymorphic methods** as follows:

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Another example is a `map` method for tuples:

```
(1, "one", true).map((x: Any) => Option(x))           // type mismatch  
(1, "one", true).map([T] => (x: T) => Option(x))  
// (Some(1), Some("one"), Some(true))  
// : (Option[Int], Option[String], Option[Boolean])
```

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A good way of understanding the difference is to notice that

- **polymorphic functions** are applied in **terms**

```
// Polymorphic function type
val id: [A] => A => A = [A] => (x: A) => x
val idInt: Int => Int = id[Int]
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val id: [A] => A => A = [A] => (x: A) => x
val idInt: Int => Int = id[Int]
```

- **type lambdas** are applied in **types**, whereas

```
// Type lambda
type Id = [A] =>> A => A
type IdInt = Id[Int]

// Mixing type lambda and polymorphic function
val idInt2: IdInt = id[Int]
```

1. Intersection and Union Types

2. Self Types

3. Opaque Types

4. Structural Types

5. Type Lambdas

6. Polymorphic Function Types

7. Match Types

A **match type** reduces to one of its right-hand sides, depending on the match of the type argument.

```
type Elem[X] = X match
  case String    => Char
  case List[t]   => t
  case Vector[t] => t
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For example, the following code defines a method that returns the first element of data structures:

```
def firstElem[X](xs: X): Elem[X] = xs match
  case x: String    => x.charAt(0)
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```
val x: Char    = firstElem("Hello")    // 'H'
val y: Int     = firstElem(List(1, 2))  // 1
val z: Double  = firstElem(Vector(1.0, 2.0)) // 1.0
```

We can define recursive match types as follows:

```
type LeafElem[X] = X match
  case Int => Int
  case String => Char
  case List[t] => LeafElem[t]
  case Vector[t] => LeafElem[t]
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type LeafElem[X] = X match
  case Int => Int
  case String => Char
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```

For example, it returns the first leaf element of data structures:

```
def leafElem[X](xs: X): LeafElem[X] = xs match
  case x: Int => x
  case x: String => x.charAt(0)
  case x: List[t] => leafElem(x.head)
  case x: Vector[t] => leafElem(x.head)
```


We can define recursive match types as follows:

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type LeafElem[X] = X match
  case Int => Int
  case String => Char
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def leafElem[X](xs: X): LeafElem[X] = xs match
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  case x: Vector[t] => leafElem(x.head)
```

```
val x: Char = leafElem("Hello") // 'H'
val y: Int = leafElem(List(List(1, 2), List(3, 4))) // 1
val z: Char = leafElem(Vector(List(Vector("Hi", "Bye")))) // 'H'
```

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- Contextual Abstractions

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