

CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Array, Hashes, Code Blocks, Equality

Arrays and Hashes

- ▶ Ruby data structures are typically constructed from Arrays and Hashes
 - Built-in syntax for both
 - Each has a rich set of standard library methods
 - They are integrated/used by methods of other classes

Array

- ▶ Arrays of objects are instances of class `Array`

- Arrays may be heterogeneous

```
a = [1, "foo", 2.14]
```

- ▶ C-like syntax for accessing elements

- indexed from 0
- return `nil` if no element at given index

```
irb(main):001:0> b = []; b[0] = 0; b[0]
```

```
=> 0
```

```
irb(main):002:0> b[1] # no element at this index
```

```
=> nil
```

Arrays Grow and Shrink

▶ Arrays are **growable**

- Increase in size automatically as you access elements

```
irb(main):001:0> b = []; b[0] = 0; b[5] = 0; b  
=> [0, nil, nil, nil, nil, 0]
```

- `[]` is the empty array, same as `Array.new`

▶ Arrays can also **shrink**

- Contents shift left when you delete elements

```
a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
a.delete_at(3)           # delete at position 3; a = [1,2,3,5]  
a.delete(2)             # delete element = 2; a = [1,3,5]
```

Iterating Through Arrays

- ▶ It's easy to iterate over an array with **while**
 - **length** method returns array's current length

```
a = [1,2,3,4,5]
i = 0
while i < a.length
  puts a[i]
  i = i + 1
end
```

- ▶ Looping through elements of an array is common
 - We'll see a better way soon, using code blocks

Arrays as Stacks and Queues

- ▶ Arrays can model stacks and queues

```
a = [1, 2, 3]
a.push("a")    # a = [1, 2, 3, "a"]
x = a.pop      # x = "a"
a.unshift("b") # a = ["b", 1, 2, 3]
y = a.shift    # y = "b"
```

Note that `push`, `pop`,
`shift`, and `unshift`
all permanently
modify the array

Hash

- ▶ A **hash** acts like an **associative array**
 - Elements can be indexed by *any kind* of values
 - Every Ruby object can be used as a hash key, because the **Object** class has a **hash** method
- ▶ Elements are referred to like array elements

```
italy = Hash.new
italy["population"] = 58103033
italy["continent"] = "europe"
italy[1861] = "independence"
pop = italy["population"] # pop is 58103033
planet = italy["planet"] # planet is nil
```

Hash methods

- ▶ `new(o)` returns hash whose default value is `o`
 - `h = Hash.new("fish"); h["go"]` # returns "fish"
- ▶ `values` returns array of a hash's values
- ▶ `keys` returns an array of a hash's keys
- ▶ `delete(k)` deletes mapping with key `k`
- ▶ `has_key?(k)` is `true` if mapping with key `k` present
 - `has_value?(v)` is similar
- ▶ Two objects refer to the same hash key when their hash value is identical and the two objects are `eql?` to each other.

Hash creation

Convenient syntax for creating literal hashes

- Use `{ key => value, ... }` to create hash table

```
credits = {  
  "cmsc131" => 4,  
  "cmsc330" => 3,  
}  
  
x = credits["cmsc330"] # x now 3  
credits["cmsc311"] = 3
```

- Use `{ }` for the empty hash

Quiz 1: What is the output

```
a = {}  
a["foo"] = 1  
print a["foo"]  
print a["bar"]
```

- A. 1
- B. 1nil
- C. Error
- D. foobar

Quiz 1: What is the output

```
a = {}  
a["foo"] = 1  
print a["foo"]  
print a["bar"]
```

- A. 1
- B. 1nil
- C. Error
- D. foobar

Quiz 2: What is the output

```
a = {}  
a["Spade"] = []  
a["Spade"]["Club"] = "Heart"  
puts a["Spade"]["Club"]
```

- A. Heart
- B. []
- C. Error
- D. {}

Quiz 2: What is the output

```
a = {}  
a["Spade"] = []  
a["Spade"]["Club"] = "Heart"  
puts a["Spade"]["Club"]
```

- A. Heart
- B. []
- C. Error
- D. {}

Quiz 3: What is the output

```
a = {}  
a[1] = "foo"  
print a[0]
```

- A. Error
- B. nil
- C. foo
- D. Nothing is printed.

Quiz 3: What is the output

```
a = {}  
a[1] = "foo"  
print a[0]
```

- A. Error
- B. nil
- C. foo
- D. Nothing is printed.

Code Blocks

- ▶ A **code block** is a piece of code that is invoked by another piece of code
- ▶ Code blocks are useful for encapsulating repetitive computations

Array Iteration with Code Blocks

- ▶ The `Array` class has an `each` method
 - Takes a code block as an argument

```
a = [1,2,3,4,5]
a.each { |x| puts x }
```

code block delimited by
{ }'s or do...end

parameter name
(optional)

body

More Examples of Code Block Usage

- ▶ Sum up the elements of an array

```
a = [1,2,3,4,5]
sum = 0
a.each { |x| sum = sum + x }
printf("sum is %d\n", sum)
```

- ▶ Print out each segment of the string as divided up by commas (commas are printed trailing each segment)

- Can use any delimiter

```
s = "Student,Sally,099112233,A"
s.split(',').each { |x| puts x }
```

(“delimiter” = symbol used to denote boundaries)

Yet More Examples of Code Blocks

```
3.times { puts "hello"; puts "goodbye" }  
5.upto(10) { |x| puts(x + 1) }  
[1,2,3,4,5].find { |y| y % 2 == 0 }  
[5,4,3].collect { |x| -x }
```

- `n.times` runs code block `n` times
- `n.upto(m)` runs code block for integers `n..m`
- `a.find` returns first element `x` of array such that the block returns true for `x`
- `a.collect` applies block to each element of array and returns new array (`a.collect!` modifies the original)

Still Another Example of Code Blocks

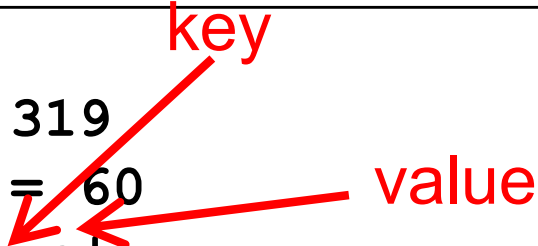
```
File.open("test.txt", "r") do |f|
  f.readlines.each { |line| puts line }
end
```

alternative syntax: `do ... end` instead of `{ ... }`

- `open` method takes code block with file argument
 - File automatically closed after block executed
- `readlines` reads all lines from a file and returns an array of the lines read
 - Use `each` to iterate
- Can do something similar on strings directly:
- `"r1\nr2\n\nr4".each_line { |rec| puts rec }`
 - Apply **code block** to each newline-separated substring

Code Blocks for Hashes

```
population = {}
population["USA"] = 319
population["Italy"] = 60
population.each { |c,p|
  puts "population of #{c} is #{p} million"
}
```



- ▶ Can iterate over keys and values separately

```
population.keys.each { |k|
  print "key: ", k, " value: ", population[k]
}

population.values.each { |v|
  print "value: ", v
}
```

Default_proc for Hashes

- ▶ If Hash::new was invoked with a block, return that block, otherwise return nil.

```
h = Hash.new { |h,k| h[k] = k*k }
h.default_proc    #=> #<Proc:0x401b3d08@-:1>
h[2]
h.inspect        => "{2=>4}"
```

```
p = h.default_proc
a = []
p.call(a, 2)
a          #=> [nil, nil, 4]
```

Using Yield To Call Code Blocks

- ▶ Any method can be called with a code block
 - Inside the method, the block is called with `yield`
- ▶ After the code block completes
 - Control returns to the caller after the `yield` instruction

```
def countx(x)
  for i in (1..x)
    puts i
    yield
  end
end

countx(4) { puts "foo" }
```

```
1
foo
2
foo
3
foo
4
foo
```

So What Are Code Blocks?

- ▶ A code block is just a special kind of method
 - `{ |y| x = y + 1; puts x }` is almost the same as
 - `def m(y) x = y + 1; puts x end`
- ▶ The `each` method takes a code block as a parameter
 - This is called **higher-order programming**
 - In other words, methods take other methods as arguments
 - We'll see a lot more of this in OCaml
- ▶ We'll see other library classes with `each` methods
 - And other methods that take code blocks as arguments
 - As we saw, your methods can use code blocks too!

Ranges

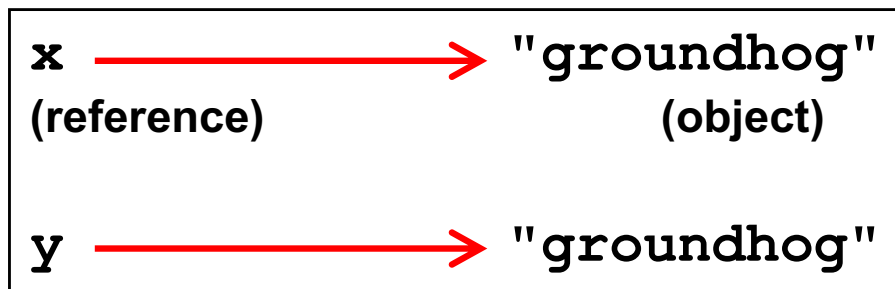
- ▶ `1..3` is an object of class `Range`
 - Integers between 1 and 3 inclusively
- ▶ `1...3` also has class `Range`
 - Integers between 1 and 3 *but not including 3 itself*.
- ▶ Not just for integers
 - `'a'..'z'` represents the range of letters 'a' to 'z'
 - `1.3...2.7` is the *continuous* range `[1.3,2.7)`
 - `(1.3...2.7).include? 2.0 # => true`
- ▶ Discrete ranges offer the `each` method to iterate
 - And can convert to an array via `to_a`; e.g., `(1..2).to_a`

Object Copy vs. Reference Copy

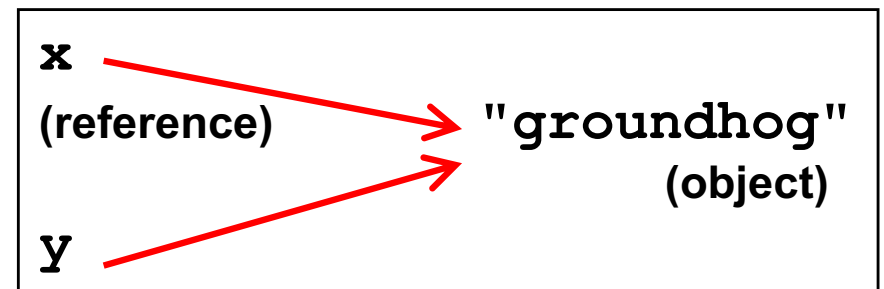
- ▶ Consider the following code
 - Assume an object/reference model like Java or Ruby
 - Or even two pointers pointing to the same structure

```
x = "groundhog" ; y = x
```

- ▶ Which of these occur?



Object copy



Reference copy

Object Copy vs. Reference Copy (cont.)

▶ For

```
x = "groundhog" ; y = x
```

- Ruby and Java would both do a reference copy

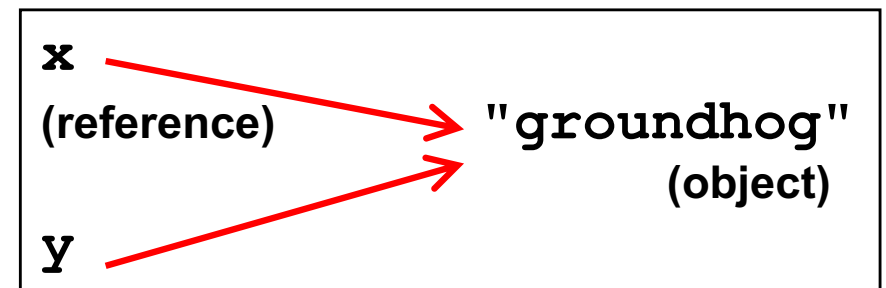
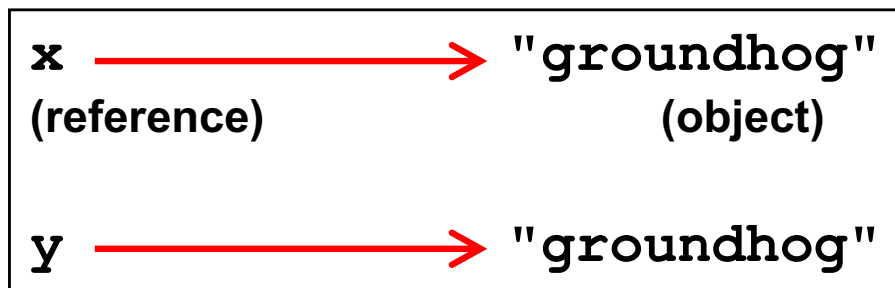
▶ But for

```
x = "groundhog"  
y = String.new(x)
```

- Ruby would cause an object copy
- Unnecessary in Java since **Strings** are immutable

Physical vs. Structural Equality

- ▶ Consider these cases again:



- ▶ If we compare **x** and **y**, what is compared?
 - The references, or the contents of the objects they point to?
- ▶ If references are compared (physical equality) the first would return false but the second true
- ▶ If objects are compared both would return true

String Equality

- ▶ In Java, `x == y` is **physical** equality, always
 - Compares references, not string contents
- ▶ In Ruby, `x == y` for strings uses **structural** equality
 - Compares contents, not references
 - `==` is a method that can be overridden in Ruby!
 - To check physical equality, use the `equal?` method
 - Inherited from the `Object` class
- ▶ It's always important to know whether you're doing a reference or object copy
 - And physical or structural comparison

Comparing Equality

Language

Physical equality

Structural equality

Java

a == b

a.equals(b)

C

a == b

***a == *b**

Ruby

a.equal?(b)

a == b

Ocaml

a == b

a = b

Python

a is b

a == b

Scheme

(eq? a b)

(equal? a b)

Visual Basic .NET

a Is b

a = b

Summary

- ▶ Scripting languages
- ▶ Ruby language
 - Implicit variable declarations
 - Dynamic typing
 - Many control statements
 - Classes & objects
 - Strings