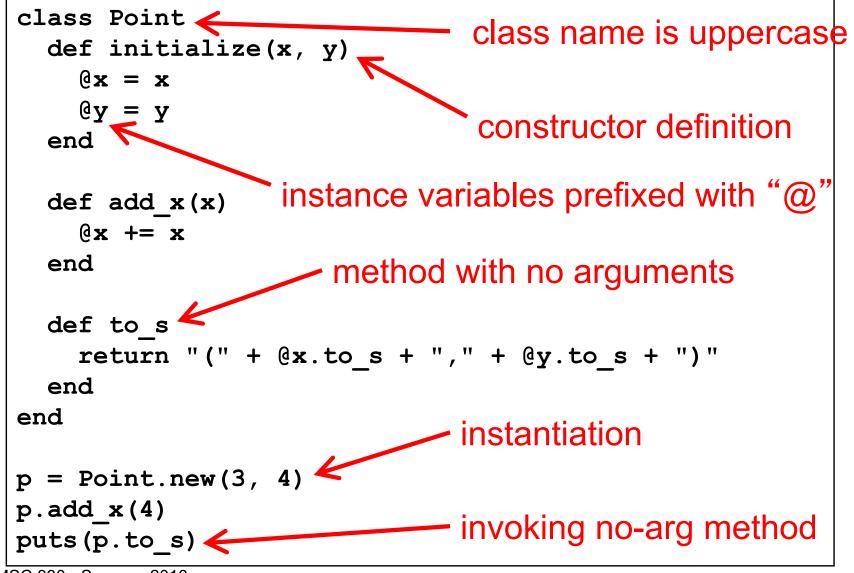
CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Inheritance, Mixins, Code Blocks, Equality

CMSC 330 - Summer 2018

Defining Your Own Classes



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No Outside Access To Internal State

- Instance variables (with @) can be directly accessed only by instance methods
- Outside class, they require accessors:

A typical getter	<u>A typical setter</u>	
def x	def x= (value)	
8	$\mathbf{@x = value}$	
end	end	

Very common, so Ruby provides a shortcut class ClassWithXandY attr_accessor :x, :y end
Says to generate the x= and x and y= and y methods

No Method Overloading in Ruby

- Thus there can only be one initialize method
 - A typical Java class might have two or more constructors
- No overloading of methods in general
 - You can code up your own overloading by using a variable number of arguments, and checking at runtime the number/types of arguments
- Ruby does issue an exception or warning if a class defines more than one initialize method
 - But last initialize method defined is the valid one

Quiz 1: What is the output?

```
class Dog
  def smell(thing)
    "I smelled #{thing}"
    end
    def smell(thing,dur)
    "I smelled #{thing} for #{dur} seconds"
    end
end
fido = Dog.new
puts fido.smell("Alice")
```

- A. I smelled Alice for nil seconds
- в. Error
- c. I smelled #{thing}
- D. I smelled Alice

Quiz 1: What is the output?

```
class Dog
  def smell(thing)
    "I smelled #{thing}"
    end
    def smell(thing,dur)
    "I smelled #{thing} for #{dur} seconds"
    end
end
fido = Dog.new
puts fido.smell("Alice")
```

- A. I smelled Alice for nil seconds
- в. Error
- c. I smelled #{thing}
- D. I smelled Alice

Quiz 2: What is the output?

```
class Dog
  def smell(thing)
    "I smelled #{thing}"
    end
    def smell(thing,dur)
    "I smelled #{thing} for #{dur} seconds"
    end
end
fido = Dog.new
puts fido.smell("Alice",3)
```

- A. I smelled Alice for seconds
- в. Error
- c. I smelled #{thing} for #{dur} seconds
- D. I smelled Alice for 3 seconds

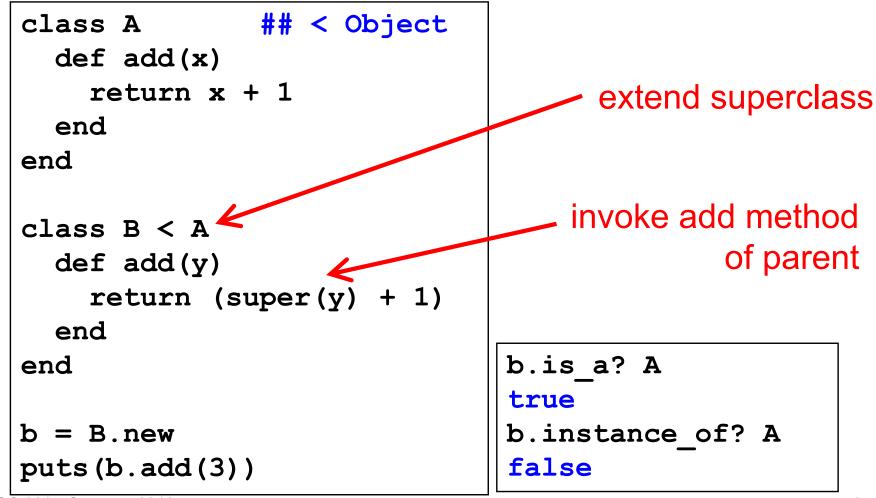
Quiz 2: What is the output?

```
class Dog
  def smell(thing)
    "I smelled #{thing}"
    end
    def smell(thing,dur)
    "I smelled #{thing} for #{dur} seconds"
    end
end
fido = Dog.new
puts fido.smell("Alice",3)
```

- A. I smelled Alice for seconds
- в. Error
- c. I smelled #{thing} for #{dur} seconds
- D. I smelled Alice for 3 seconds

Inheritance

Recall that every class inherits from Object



Quiz 6: What is the output?

```
class Gunslinger
                           Α.
  def initialize(name)
    @name = name
                           Β.
  end
                           С.
  def full name
    "#{@name}"
  end
end
class Outlaw < Gunslinger
   def full name
      "Dirty, no good #{super}"
   end
end
d = Outlaw.new("Billy the Kid")
puts d.full name
```

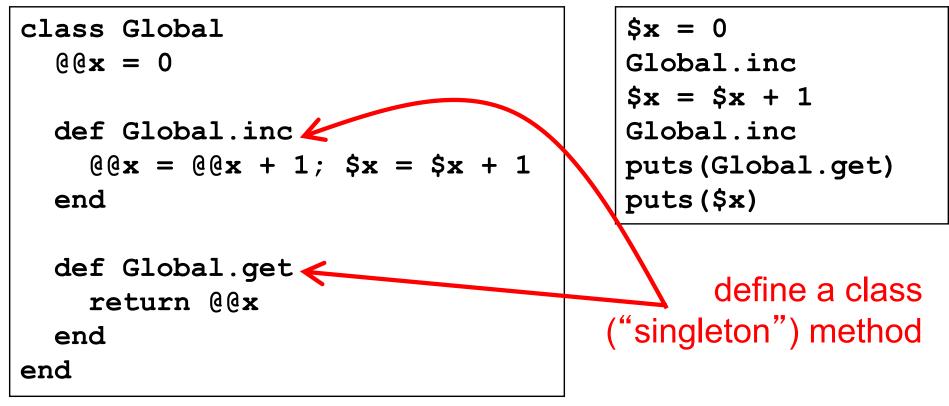
- Dirty, no good
- Dirty, no good Billy the kid
- Billy the Kid
- D. Error

Quiz 6: What is the output?

```
class Gunslinger
                               Dirty, no good
                           Α.
  def initialize(name)
                               Dirty, no good Billy the kid
    @name = name
                           Β.
  end
                               Billy the Kid
                           С.
  def full name
    "#{@name}"
                           D. Error
  end
end
class Outlaw < Gunslinger
   def full name
      "Dirty, no good #{super}"
   end
end
d = Outlaw.new("Billy the Kid")
puts d.full name
```

Global Variables in Ruby

- Ruby has two kinds of global variables
 - Class variables beginning with @@ (static in Java)
 - Global variables across classes beginning with \$



Quiz 7: What is the output?

```
class Animal
 def initialize(h, w)
    (0) = h
    \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}
 end
 def measure()
  return @@h + @w
 end
End
giraffe = Animal.new(1,2)
elephant = Animal.new(3,4)
puts giraffe.measure()
```

```
A. 0
B. 3
C. 5
D. 7
```

Quiz 7: What is the output?

```
class Animal
 def initialize(h, w)
    (0) = h
    \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}
 end
 def measure()
  return @@h + @w
 end
End
giraffe = Animal.new(1,2)
elephant = Animal.new(3,4)
puts giraffe.measure()
```

A. 0
B. 3
c. 5
D. 7

Mixins

Another form of code reuse is "mix-in" inclusion

- include A "inlines" A's methods at that point
 - > Referred-to variables/methods captured from context
 - In effect: it adds those methods to the current class
- ► To define a mixin, use module, not class

```
module Doubler
  def double
    self +self
  end
end
```

#include the mixin in a class
class Integer
 include Doubler
end

10.double => 20

Mixins

```
module Doubler
  def double
     self +self
  end
end
```

class Integer include Doubler end

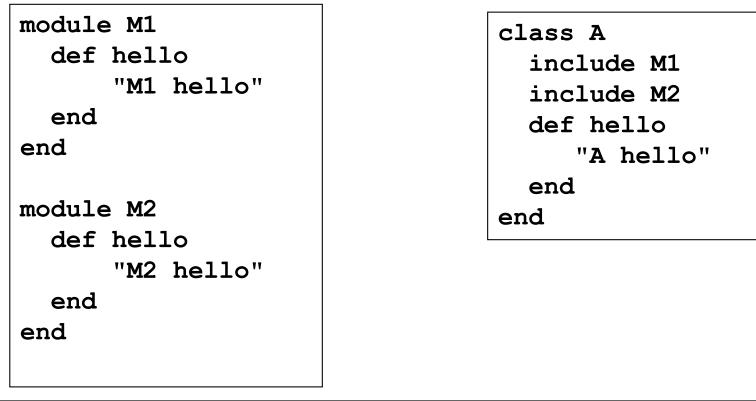
10.double => 20

```
class String
  include Doubler
end
"hello".double => "hellohello"
```

Mixin method lookup rules:

- When you call method m of class C
 - 1. look if class C has method m
 - 2. mixin in class C
 - 3. if multiple mixins included, later mixin shadows early mixin
 - 4. C's superclass
 - 5. C's superclass mixin
 - 6. C's superclass's superclass
 - 7. ...

Mixin example 1



```
a = A.new
a.hello #class A has a method hello and it is called for
a.hello # returns A hello
a.class.ancestors
    => [A, M2, M1, Object, Kernel, BasicObject]
```

Mixin example 2

```
module M1
  def hello
    "M1 hello"
    end
end

module M2
  def hello
    "M2 hello"
  end
end
```

```
class A
include M1
include M2
end
```

- class A does not have a method hello. look for the method hello from mixin.
- Both M1 and M2 have a method hello. M2's hello shadows M1's hello method.

a = A.new

a.hello => returns M2 hello a.class.ancestors

```
=> [A, M2, M1, Object, Kernel, BasicObject]
```

Mixin example 3

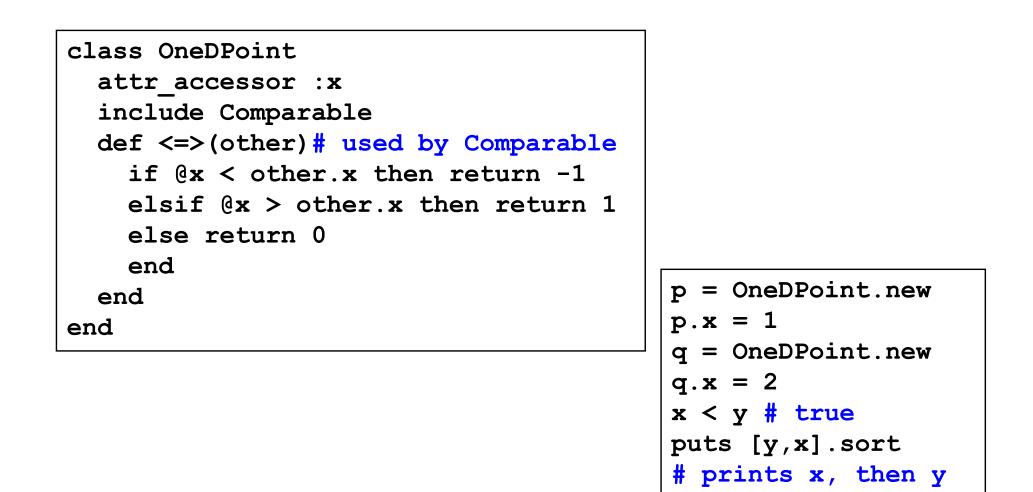
```
module M1
       def hello
              "m1 says hello, " + super
       end
       def what
          "Mary"
      end
end
class A
      def hello
            "A says hello, " + what
      end
      def what
          "Alice"
      end
end
class B < A
      include M1
      def hello
          "B says hello, " + super
      end
      def what
          "Bob"
      end
end
```

```
b = B.new
B.ancestors=>
[B, M1, A, Object, Kernel,
BasicObject]
```

```
b.hello=>
B says hello, m1 says hello, A says
hello, Bob
```

B's hello is called. super called B's superclass M1's hello. super in M1's hello called hello in superclass A. At the end, the "what" method of the current object "b" is called.

Mixins: Comparable

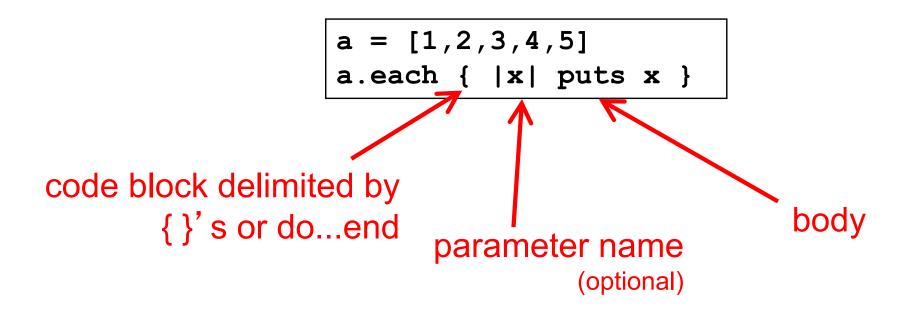


Code Blocks

- 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



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 { ... }

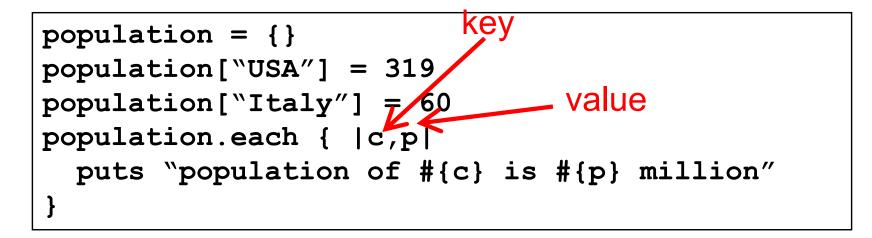
- open method takes code block with file argument
 File automatically closed after block executed
- readlines reads all lines from a file and returns an array of the lines read

> 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

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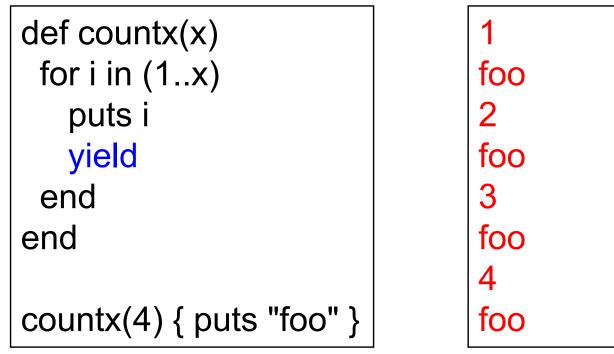
Code Blocks for Hashes



Can iterate over keys and values separately
population.keys.each { |k|
 print "key: ", k, " value: ", population[k]
 }
popluation.values.each { |v|
 print "value: ", v
}

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



Using Yield to Call Code Blocks

Ruby methods receive an implicit code block

```
def do_it_twice
  return "No block" unless block_given?
  yield
  yield
end
do_it_twice {puts "hello"}
=>
hello
hello
```

Code Block is not an Object

- Proc makes an object out of code blocks
 - $t = Proc.new\{|x| | x+2\}$
- a method that receives a proc object

```
def say(p)
   p.call 10
end
say(t) => return 12
```

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' II 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!

Mixins: Enumerable

```
class MyRange
  include Enumerable #map,select,
inject, collect, find
 def initialize(low,high)
    @low = low #(2,8)
    @high = high
 end
 def each
    i=@low
    while i <= @high
      yield i
      i=i+1
    end
 end
end
```

Quiz 4: What is the output

a = [5,10,15,20]
a.each { |x| x = x*x }
puts a[1]

- A. 10
- в. 100
- c. (Nothing)
- D. Error

Quiz 4: What is the output

a = [5,10,15,20]
a.each { |x| x = x*x }
puts a[1]

- A. 10
- в. 100
- c. (Nothing)
- D. Error

Quiz 5: What is the output

```
def myFun(x)
  yield x
end
myFun(3) { |v| puts "#{v} #{v*v}" }
```

- A. 3
- в. 39
- c. 981
- d. 9 nil

Quiz 5: What is the output

```
def myFun(x)
  yield x
end
myFun(3) { |v| puts "#{v} #{v*v}" }
```

- A. 3
- в. 39
- c. 981
- d. 9 nil

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

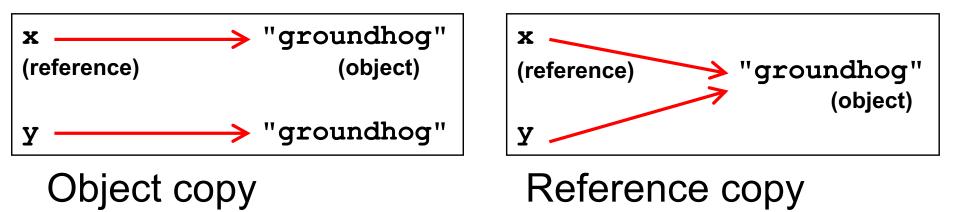
Object Copy vs. Reference Copy

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 vs. Reference Copy (cont.)

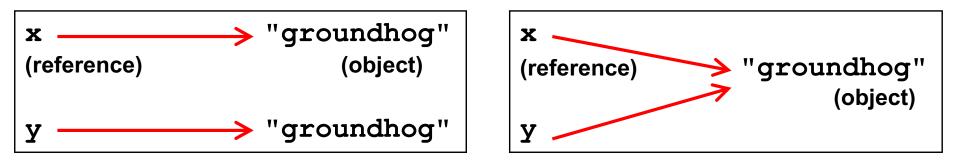
- x = "groundhog"; y = x► For
 - Ruby and Java would both do a reference copy
- But for

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
<u>Java</u>	a == b	a.equals(b)
<u>C</u>	a == b	*a == *b
<u>Ruby</u>	a.equal?(b)	a == b
<u>Ocaml</u>	a == b	a = b
<u>Python</u>	a is b	a == b
<u>Scheme</u>	(eq? a b)	(equal? a b)
Visual Basic .NET	a Is b	a = b

Quiz 6: Which is true?

- a) Structural equality implies physical equality
- b) Physical equality implies structural equality
- c) Physical equality does not work for cyclic data structures
- d) == always means physical equality

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