PAUL G. ALLEN SCHOOL
OF COMPUTER SCIENCE & ENGINEERING

CSE341: Programming Languages

Lecture 20
Arrays and Such, Blocks and Procs, Inheritance and Overriding

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This lecture

Three mostly separate topics

- Flexible arrays, ranges, and hashes [actually covered in section]
- Ruby's approach to almost-closures (blocks) and closures (Procs)
  - [partially discussed in section as well]
  - Convenient to use; unusual approach
  - Used throughout large standard library
    - Explicit loops rare
    - Instead of a loop, go find a useful iterator
- Subclasses, inheritance, and overriding
  - The essence of OOP, now in a more dynamic language

Ruby Arrays

- Lots of special syntax and many provided methods for the **`Array`** class
- Can hold any number of other objects, *indexed* by number
  - Get via **`a[i]`**
  - Set via **`a[i] = e`**
- Compared to arrays in many other languages
  - More flexible and dynamic
  - Fewer operations are errors
  - Less efficient
- "The standard collection" (like lists were in ML and Racket)

Using Arrays

- See many examples, some demonstrated here
- Consult the documentation/tutorials
  - If seems sensible and general, probably a method for it
- Arrays make good tuples, lists, stacks, queues, sets, …
- Iterating over arrays typically done with methods taking blocks
  - Next topic…

Blocks

Blocks are probably Ruby's strangest feature compared to other PLs

But *almost* just closures

- Normal: easy way to pass anonymous functions to methods for all the usual reasons
- Normal: Blocks can take 0 or more arguments
- Normal: Blocks use lexical scope: block body uses environment where block was defined

Examples:

```
3.times { puts "hi" }
[4,6,8].each { puts "hi" }
i = 7
[4,6,8].each {|x| if i > x then puts (x+1) end }
```


Some strange things

- Can pass 0 or 1 block with *any* message
  - Callee might ignore it
  - Callee might give an error if you do not send one
  - Callee might do different things if you do/don't send one
    - Also number-of-block-arguments can matter
- Just put the block "next to" the "other" arguments (if any)
  - Syntax: **`{e}`**, **`{|x| e}`**, **`{|x,y| e}`**, etc. (plus variations)
    - Can also replace **`{`** and **`}`** with **`do`** and **`end`**
      - Often preferred for blocks > 1 line

Blocks everywhere

- Rampant use of great block-taking methods in standard libraray
- Ruby has loops but very rarely used
  - Can write `(0..i).each {|j| e}`, but often better options
- Examples (consult documentation for many more)

```
a = Array.new(5) {|i| 4*(i+1)}
a.each { puts "hi" }
a.each {|x| puts (x * 2) }
a.map  {|x| x * 2 } #synonym: collect
a.any? {|x| x > 7 }
a.all? {|x| x > 7 }
a.inject(0) {|acc,elt| acc+elt }
a.select {|x| x > 7 } #non-synonym: filter
```


More strangeness

- Callee does not give a name to the (potential) block argument
- Instead, just calls it with **`yield`** or **`yield(args)`**
  - Silly example:

```
def silly a
  (yield a) + (yield 42)
end
```

```
x.silly 5 { |b| b*2 }
```

  - See code for slightly less silly example
- Can ask **`block_given?`** but often just assume a block is given or that a block's presence is implied by other arguments

Blocks are "second-class"

All a method can do with a block is **`yield`** to it

- Cannot return it, store it in an object (e.g., for a callback), …
- But can also turn blocks into real closures
- Closures are instances of class **`Proc`**
  - Called with method **`call`**

This is Ruby, so there are several ways to make **`Proc`** objects ☺

- One way: method **`lambda`** of **`Object`** takes a block and returns the corresponding **`Proc`**

Example

```
a = [3,5,7,9]
```

- Blocks are fine for applying to array elements

```
b = a.map {|x| x+1 }
i = b.count {|x| x>=6 }
```

- But for an array of closures, need **`Proc`** objects

```
c = a.map {|x| lambda {|y| x>=y}}
c[2].call 17
j = c.count {|x| x.call(5) }
```

  - More common use is callbacks

Moral

- First-class ("can be passed/stored anywhere") makes closures more powerful than blocks
- But blocks are (a little) more convenient and cover most uses
- This helps us understand what first-class means
- Language design question: When is convenience worth making something less general and powerful?

More collections

- *Hashes* like arrays but:
  - *Keys* can be *anything*; strings and symbols common
  - No natural ordering like numeric indices
  - Different syntax to make them

  Like a dynamic record with anything for field names
  - Often pass a hash rather than many arguments
- *Ranges* like arrays of contiguous numbers but:
  - More efficiently represented, so large ranges fine

Good style to:

- Use ranges when you can
- Use hashes when non-numeric keys better represent data

Similar methods

- Arrays, hashes, and ranges all have some methods other don't
  - E.g., **keys** and **values**
- But also have many of the same methods, particularly iterators
  - Great for duck typing
  - Example

```
def foo a
  a.count {|x| x*x < 50}
end

foo [3,5,7,9]
foo (3..9)
```

Once again separating "how to iterate" from "what to do"

Next major topic

- Subclasses, inheritance, and overriding
  - The essence of OOP
  - Not unlike you have seen in Java, but worth studying from PL perspective and in a more dynamic language

Subclassing

- A class definition has a *superclass* (**Object** if not specified)

```
class ColorPoint < Point  …
```

- The superclass affects the class definition:
  - Class *inherits* all method definitions from superclass
  - But class can *override* method definitions as desired
- Unlike Java/C#/C++:
  - No such thing as "inheriting fields" since all objects create instance variables by assigning to them
  - Subclassing has nothing to do with a (non-existent) type system: can still (try to) call any method on any object

Example (to be continued)

```
class Point
  attr_accessor  :x, :y
  def initialize(x,y)
    @x = x
    @y = y
  end
  def distFromOrigin
    # direct field access
    Math.sqrt(@x*@x
              + @y*@y)
  end
  def distFromOrigin2
    # use getters
    Math.sqrt(x*x
              + y*y)
  end
end
```

```
class ColorPoint < Point
  attr_accessor  :color
  def initialize(x,y,c)
    super(x,y)
    @color = c
  end
end
```


An object has a class

```
p  = Point.new(0,0)
cp = ColorPoint.new(0,0,"red")
p.class                          # Point
p.class.superclass               # Object
cp.class                         # ColorPoint
cp.class.superclass              # Point
cp.class.superclass.superclass   # Object
cp.is_a? Point                   # true
cp.instance_of? Point            # false
cp.is_a? ColorPoint              # true
cp.instance_of? ColorPoint       # true
```

- Using these methods is usually non-OOP style
  - Disallows other things that "act like a duck"
  - Nonetheless semantics is that an instance of **ColorPoint** "is a" **Point** but is not an "instance of" **Point**
  - [Java note: **instanceof** is like Ruby's **is_a?**]

Example continued

- Consider alternatives to:

```
class ColorPoint < Point
  attr_accessor  :color
  def initialize(x,y,c)
    super(x,y)
    @color = c
  end
end
```

- Here subclassing is a good choice, but programmers often overuse subclassing in OOP languages

Why subclass

- Instead of creating **ColorPoint**, could add methods to **Point**
  - That could mess up other users and subclassers of **Point**

```
class Point
  attr_accessor :color
  def initialize(x,y,c="clear")
    @x = x
    @y = y
    @color = c
  end
end
```


Why subclass

- Instead of subclassing **Point**, could copy/paste the methods
  - Means the same thing *if* you don't use methods like **is_a?** and **superclass**, but of course code reuse is nice

```
class ColorPoint
  attr_accessor :x, :y, :color
  def initialize(x,y,c="clear")
    …
  end
  def distFromOrigin
    Math.sqrt(@x*@x + @y*@y)
  end
  def distFromOrigin2
    Math.sqrt(x*x + y*y)
  end
end
```


Why subclass

- Instead of subclassing **Point**, could use a **Point** instance variable
  - Define methods to send same message to the **Point**
  - Often OOP programmers overuse subclassing
  - But for **ColorPoint**, subclassing makes sense: less work and can use a **ColorPoint** wherever code expects a **Point**

```
class ColorPoint
  attr_accessor :color
  def initialize(x,y,c="clear")
    @pt = Point.new(x,y)
    @color = c
  end
  def x
    @pt.x
  end
  … # similar "forwarding" methods
    # for y, x=, y=
end
```


Overriding

- **ThreeDPoint** is more interesting than **ColorPoint** because it overrides **distFromOrigin** and **distFromOrigin2**
  - Gets code reuse, but *highly disputable* if it is appropriate to say a **ThreeDPoint** "is a" **Point**
  - Still just avoiding copy/paste

```
class ThreeDPoint < Point
  …
  def initialize(x,y,z)
    super(x,y)
    @z = z
  end
  def distFromOrigin # distFromOrigin2 similar
    d = super
    Math.sqrt(d*d + @z*@z)
  end
  …
end
```


So far…

- With examples so far, objects are not so different from closures
  - Multiple methods rather than just "call me"
  - Explicit instance variables rather than environment where function is defined
  - Inheritance avoids helper functions or code copying
  - "Simple" overriding just replaces methods
- But there is one big difference:

  Overriding can make a method defined in the superclass call a method in the subclass

  - *The* essential difference of OOP, studied carefully next lecture

Example: Equivalent except constructor

```
class PolarPoint < Point
  def initialize(r,theta)
    @r = r
    @theta = theta
  end
  def x
    @r * Math.cos(@theta)
  end
  def y
    @r * Math.sin(@theta)
  end
  def distFromOrigin
    @r
  end
  …
end
```

- Also need to define **x=** and **y=** (see code file)
- Key punchline: **distFromOrigin2**, defined in **Point**, "already works"

```
def distFromOrigin2
  Math.sqrt(x*x+y*y)
end
```

  - Why: calls to **self** are resolved in terms of the object's class