

# Stanford CS193p

Developing Applications for iOS  
Winter 2015



# Today

## • More Swift & the Foundation Framework

Optionals and enum

Array<T>, Dictionary<K,V>, Range<T>, et. al.

Data Structures in Swift

Methods

Properties

Initialization

AnyObject, introspection and casting (is and as)

Helpful Methods and Functions

String vs. NSString, Array vs. NSArray, Dictionary vs. NSDictionary

Property List

NSUserDefaults



# Optional

- An Optional is just an enum

Conceptually it is like this (the `<T>` is a generic like as in `Array<T>`) ...

```
enum Optional<T> {  
    case None  
    case Some(T)  
}
```

```
let x: String? = nil
```

... is ...

```
let x = Optional<String>.None
```

```
let x: String? = "hello"
```

... is ...

```
let x = Optional<String>.Some("hello")
```

```
var y = x!
```

... is ...

```
switch x {  
    case Some(let value): y = value  
    case None: // raise an exception  
}
```



# Array

## • Array

```
var a = Array<String>()
```

... is the same as ...

```
var a = [String]()
```

```
let animals = ["Giraffe", "Cow", "Doggie", "Bird"]
```

```
animals.append("Ostrich") // won't compile, animals is immutable (because of let)
```

```
let animal = animals[5] // crash (array index out of bounds)
```

```
// enumerating an Array
```

```
for animal in animals {  
    println("\(animal)")
```

```
}
```



# Dictionary

## • Dictionary

```
var pac10teamRankings = Dictionary<String, Int>()
```

... is the same as ...

```
var pac10teamRankings = [String:Int]()
```

```
pac10teamRankings = ["Stanford":1, "Cal":10]
```

```
let ranking = pac10teamRankings["Ohio State"] // ranking is an Int? (would be nil)
```

```
// use a tuple with for-in to enumerate a Dictionary
```

```
for (key, value) in pac10teamRankings {  
    println("\(key) = \(value)")
```

```
}
```



# Range

## • Range

A **Range** in Swift is just two end points of a sensible type (not gonna explain right now)

Range is generic (e.g. `Range<T>`)

This is sort of a pseudo-representation of Range:

```
struct Range<T> {  
    var startIndex: T  
    var endIndex: T  
}
```

An Array's range would be a `Range<Int>` (since Arrays are indexed by `Int`)

Warning: A String subrange is not `Range<Int>` (it is `Range<String.Index>` ... we'll talk later!)

There is special syntax for specifying a Range: either `...` (inclusive) or `..<` (open-ended)

```
let array = ["a", "b", "c", "d"]
```

```
let subArray1 = array[2...3] // subArray1 will be ["c", "d"]
```

```
let subArray2 = array[2..<3] // subArray2 will be ["c"]
```

```
for i in 27...104 { } // Range is enumerable, like Array, String, Dictionary
```



# Other Classes

- **NSObject**

Base class for all Objective-C classes

Some advanced features will require you to subclass from NSObject (and it can't hurt to do so)

- **NSNumber**

Generic number-holding class

```
let n = NSNumber(35.5)
```

```
let intValue = n.intValue // also doubleValue, floatValue, etc.
```

- **NSDate**

Used to find out the date and time right now or to store past or future dates.

See also NSCalendar, NSDateFormatter, NSDateComponents

If you are displaying a date in your UI, there are localization ramifications, so check these out!

- **NSData**

A "bag o' bits". Used to save/restore/transmit raw data throughout the iOS SDK.



# Data Structures in Swift

- **Classes, Structures and Enumerations**

These are the 3 fundamental building blocks of data structures in Swift

- **Similarities**

Declaration syntax ...

```
class CalculatorBrain {  
  
}  
struct Vertex {  
  
}  
enum Op {  
  
}
```





# Data Structures in Swift

## • Classes, Structures and Enumerations

These are the 3 fundamental building blocks of data structures in Swift

## • Similarities

Declaration syntax ...

Properties and Functions ...

```
func doit(argument: Type) -> ReturnValue {  
  
}
```

```
var storedProperty = <initial value> (not enum)
```

```
var computedProperty: Type {  
    get {}  
    set {}  
}
```



# Data Structures in Swift

- **Classes, Structures and Enumerations**

These are the 3 fundamental building blocks of data structures in Swift

- **Similarities**

Declaration syntax ...

Properties and Functions ...

Initializers (again, not enum) ...

```
init(argument1: Type, argument2: Type, ...) {  
  
}
```



# Data Structures in Swift

- **Classes, Structures and Enumerations**

These are the 3 fundamental building blocks of data structures in Swift

- **Similarities**

Declaration syntax ...

Properties and Functions ...

Initializers (again, not enum) ...

- **Differences**

Inheritance (class only)

Introspection and casting (class only)

Value type (struct, enum) vs. Reference type (class)



# Value vs. Reference

## • Value (**struct** and **enum**)

Copied when passed as an argument to a function

Copied when assigned to a different variable

Immutable if assigned to a variable with **let**

Remember that function parameters are, by default, constants

You can put the keyword **var** on an parameter, and it will be mutable, but it's still a copy

You must note any **func** that can mutate a struct/enum with the keyword **mutating**

## • Reference (**class**)

Stored in the heap and reference counted (automatically)

Constant pointers to a class (**let**) still can mutate by calling methods and changing properties

When passed as an argument, does not make a copy (just passing a pointer to same instance)

## • Choosing which to use?

Usually you will choose `class` over `struct`. `struct` tends to be more for fundamental types.

Use of `enum` is situational (any time you have a type of data with discrete values).



# Methods

- Obviously you can override methods/properties in your superclass

Precede your `func` or `var` with the keyword `override`

A method can be marked `final` which will prevent subclasses from being able to override

Classes can also be marked `final`

- Both types and instances can have methods/properties

For this example, lets consider the struct `Double` (yes, `Double` is a struct)

```
var d: Double = ...  
if d.isSignMinus {  
    d = Double.abs(d)  
}
```

`isSignMinus` is an instance property of a `Double` (you send it to a particular `Double`)

`abs` is a type method of `Double` (you send it to the type itself, not to a particular `Double`)

You declare a type method or property with a `static` prefix (or `class` in a class) ...

```
static func abs(d: Double) -> Double
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

```
func foo(external internal: Int) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(external: 123)  
}
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

```
func foo(external internal: Int) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(external: 123)  
}
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

You can put `_` if you don't want callers to use an external name at all for a given parameter

```
func foo(_ internal: Int) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(123)  
}
```





# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

You can put `_` if you don't want callers to use an external name at all for a given parameter

An `_` is the default for the first parameter (only) in a method (but not for `init` methods)

```
func foo(internal: Int) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(123)  
}
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

You can put `_` if you don't want callers to use an external name at all for a given parameter

An `_` is the default for the first parameter (only) in a method (but not for `init` methods)

You can force the first parameter's external name to be the internal name with `#`

```
func foo(#internal: Int) {  
    let local = internal  
}  
  
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(internal: 123)  
}
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

You can put `_` if you don't want callers to use an external name at all for a given parameter

An `_` is the default for the first parameter (only) in a method (but not for `init` methods)

You can force the first parameter's external name to be the internal name with `#`

For other (not the first) parameters, the internal name is, by default, the external name

```
func foo(first: Int, second: Double) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(123, second: 5.5)  
}
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

You can put `_` if you don't want callers to use an external name at all for a given parameter

An `_` is the default for the first parameter (only) in a method (but not for `init` methods)

You can force the first parameter's external name to be the internal name with `#`

For other (not the first) parameters, the internal name is, by default, the external name

Any parameter's external name can be changed

```
func foo(first: Int, externalSecond second: Double) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(123, externalSecond: 5.5)  
}
```



# Methods

## Parameters Names

All parameters to all functions have an internal name and an external name

The internal name is the name of the local variable you use inside the method

The external name is what callers will use to call the method

You can put `_` if you don't want callers to use an external name at all for a given parameter

An `_` is the default for the first parameter (only) in a method (but not for `init` methods)

You can force the first parameter's external name to be the internal name with `#`

For other (not the first) parameters, the internal name is, by default, the external name

Any parameter's external name can be changed

Or even omitted (though this would be sort of "anti-Swift")

```
func foo(first: Int, _ second: Double) {  
    let local = internal  
}
```

```
func bar() {  
    let result = foo(123, 5.5)  
}
```



# Properties

## • Property Observers

You can observe changes to any property with `willSet` and `didSet`

```
var someStoredProperty: Int = 42 {  
    willSet { newValue is the new value }  
    didSet { oldValue is the old value }  
}
```

```
override var inheritedProperty {  
    willSet { newValue is the new value }  
    didSet { oldValue is the old value }  
}
```



# Properties

## Property Observers

You can observe changes to any property with `willSet` and `didSet`

One very common thing to do in an observer in a Controller is to update the user-interface

## Lazy Initialization

A `lazy` property does not get initialized until someone accesses it

You can allocate an object, execute a closure, or call a method if you want

```
lazy var brain = CalculatorBrain() // nice if CalculatorBrain used lots of resources
```

```
lazy var someProperty: Type = {  
    // construct the value of someProperty here  
    return <the constructed value>  
}()
```

```
lazy var myProperty = self.initializeMyProperty()
```

This still satisfies the “you must initialize all of your properties” rule

Unfortunately, things initialized this way can't be constants (i.e., `var` ok, `let` not okay)

This can be used to get around some initialization dependency conundrums



# Initialization

## • When is an `init` method needed?

`init` methods are not so common because properties can have their defaults set using `=`

Or properties might be Optionals, in which case they start out `nil`

You can also initialize a property by executing a closure

Or use `lazy` instantiation

So you only need `init` when a value can't be set in any of these ways

## • You also get some "free" `init` methods

If all properties in a base `class` (no superclass) have defaults, you get `init()` for free

If a `struct` has no initializers, it will get a default one with all properties as arguments

```
struct MyStruct {  
    var x: Int = 42  
    var y: String = "moltuae"  
  
    init(x: Int, y: String) // comes for free  
}
```





# Initialization

- What can you do inside an `init`?

You can set any property's value, even those with default values

Constant properties (i.e. properties declared with `let`) can be set

You can call other `init` methods in your own class using `self.init(<args>)`

In a class, you can of course also call `super.init(<args>)`

But there are some rules for calling `inits` from `inits` in a `class` ...



# Initialization

## • What are you required to do inside `init`?

By the time any `init` is done, all properties must have values (optionals can have the value `nil`)

There are two types of inits in a `class`, `convenience` and designated (i.e. not `convenience`)

A designated `init` must (and can only) call a designated `init` that is in its immediate `superclass`

You must initialize all properties introduced by your class before calling a superclass's `init`

You must call a superclass's `init` before you assign a value to an inherited property

A `convenience` `init` must (and can only) call a designated `init` in its own class

A `convenience` `init` may call a designated `init` indirectly (through another `convenience` `init`)

A `convenience` `init` must call a designated `init` before it can set any property values

The calling of other inits must be complete before you can access properties or invoke methods



# Initialization

## • Inheriting `init`

If you do not implement any designated inits, you'll inherit all of your superclass's designateds

If you override all of your superclass's designated inits, you'll inherit all its convenience inits

If you implement no inits, you'll inherit all of your superclass's inits

Any `init` inherited by these rules qualifies to satisfy any of the rules on the previous slide

## • Required `init`

A class can mark one or more of its `init` methods as `required`

Any subclass must implement said `init` methods (though they can be inherited per above rules)



# Initialization

## Failable init

If an `init` is declared with a `?` (or `!`) after the word `init`, it returns an `Optional`

```
init?(arg1: Type1, ...) {  
    // might return nil in here  
}
```

These are rare.

Note: The documentation does not seem to properly show these inits!

But you'll be able to tell because the compiler will warn you about the type when you access it.

```
let image = UIImage(named: "foo") // image is an Optional UIImage (i.e. UIImage?)
```

Usually we would use `if-let` for these cases ...

```
if let image = UIImage(named: "foo") {  
    // image was successfully created  
} else {  
    // couldn't create the image  
}
```



# Initialization

## • Creating Objects

Usually you create an object by calling its initializer via the type name ...

```
let x = CalculatorBrain()
```

```
let y = ComplicatedObject(arg1: 42, arg2: "hello", ...)
```

```
let z = [String]()
```

But sometimes you create objects by calling type methods in classes ...

```
let button = UIButton.buttonWithType(UIButtonType.System)
```

Or obviously sometimes other objects will create objects for you ...

```
let commaSeparatedArrayElements: String = ",".join(myArray)
```



# AnyObject

- Special "Type" (actually it's a Protocol)

Used primarily for compatibility with existing Objective-C-based APIs

- Where will you see it?

As properties (either singularly or as an array of them), e.g. ...

```
var destinationViewController: AnyObject  
var toolbarItems: [AnyObject]
```

... or as arguments to functions ...

```
func prepareForSegue(segue: UIStoryboardSegue, sender: AnyObject)  
func addConstraints(constraints: [AnyObject])  
func appendDigit(sender: AnyObject)
```

... or even as return types from functions ...

```
class func buttonWithType(buttonType: UIButtonType) -> AnyObject
```



# AnyObject

- How do we use AnyObject?

  - We don't usually use it directly

  - Instead, we convert it to another, known type

- How do we convert it?

  - We need to create a new variable which is of a known object type (i.e. not AnyObject)

  - Then we assign this new variable to hold the thing that is AnyObject

  - Of course, that new variable has to be of a compatible type

  - If we try to force the AnyObject into something incompatible, crash!

  - But there are ways to check compatibility (either before forcing or while forcing) ...



# AnyObject

## • Casting AnyObject

We “force” an AnyObject to be something else by “casting” it using the `as` keyword ...

Let's use `var destinationViewController: AnyObject` as an example ...

```
let calcVC = destinationViewController as CalculatorViewController
```

... this would crash if dvc was not, in fact, a CalculatorViewController (or subclass thereof)

To protect against a crash, we can use `if let` with `as?` ...

```
if let calcVC = destinationViewController as? CalculatorViewController { ... }
```

... `as?` returns an Optional (`calcVC = nil` if dvc was not a CalculatorViewController)

Or we can check before we even try to do `as` with the `is` keyword ...

```
if destinationViewController is CalculatorViewController { ... }
```





# AnyObject

## • Casting Arrays of AnyObject

If you're dealing with an `[AnyObject]`, you can cast the elements or the entire array ...

Let's use `var toolbarItems: [AnyObject]` as an example ...

```
for item in toolbarItems { // item's type is AnyObject
    if let toolbarItem = item as? UIBarButtonItem {
        // do something with the toolbarItem (which will be a UIBarButtonItem here)
    }
}
```

... or ...

```
for toolbarItem in toolbarItems as [UIBarItem] { // better be so, else crash!
    // do something with the toolbarItem (which will be a UIBarButtonItem)
}
```

// can't do `as?` here because then it might be "for toolbarItem in `nil`" (makes no sense)



# AnyObject

## • Another example ...

Remember when we wired up our Actions in our storyboard?

The default in the dialog that popped up was AnyObject.

We changed it to UIButton.

But what if we hadn't changed it to UIButton?

How would we have implemented appendDigit?

```
@IBAction func appendDigit(sender: AnyObject) {  
    if let sendingButton = sender as? UIButton {  
        let digit = sendingButton.currentTitle!  
        ...  
    }  
}
```



# AnyObject

## • Yet another example ...

It is possible to create a button in code using a UIButton type method ...

```
let button: AnyObject = UIButton.buttonWithType(UIButtonType.System)
```

The type of this button is AnyObject (for historical reasons only)

To use it, we'd have to cast button to UIButton

We can do this on the fly if we want ...

```
let title = (button as UIButton).currentTitle
```

Again, this would crash if button was not, in fact, a UIButton



# Casting

- Casting is not just for AnyObject

You can cast with `as` (or check with `is`) any object pointer that makes sense

For example ...

```
let vc: UIViewController = CalculatorViewController()
```

The type of `vc` is `UIViewController` (because we explicitly typed it to be)

And the assignment is legal because a `CalculatorViewController` is a `UIViewController`

But we can't say, for example, `vc.enter()`

```
if let calcVC = vc as? CalculatorViewController {  
    // in here we could say calcVC.enter() if we wanted to  
}
```



# Functions

## Some Array<T> Methods

`+= [T]` // not `+= T`

`first -> T?` // note optional

`last -> T?` // note optional

`var a = [a,b,c]` // assume a, b, c are of some type (the same type)

`append(T)`

`insert(T, atIndex: Int)` // `a.insert(d, atIndex:1)`, `a = [a,d,b,c]`

`splice(Array<T>, atIndex: Int)` // `a.splice([d,e], atIndex:1)`, `a = [a,d,e,b,c]`

`removeAtIndex(Int)` // `a.removeAtIndex(1)`, `a = [a,c]`

`removeRange(Range)` // `a.removeRange(0..<2)`, `a = [c]`

`replaceRange(Range, [T])` // `a.replaceRange(0..1, with: [x,y,z])`, `a = [x,y,z,b]`

`sort(isOrderedBefore: (T, T) -> Bool)` // e.g., `a.sort { $0 < $1 }`



# Functions

## • More Array<T> Methods

This one creates a new array with any “undesirables” filtered out

The function passed as the argument returns false if an element is undesirable

```
filter(includeElement: (T) -> Bool) -> [T]
```

Create a new array by transforming each element to something different

The thing it is transformed to can be of a different type than what is in the Array

```
map(transform: (T) -> U) -> [U]
```

```
let stringified: [String] = [1,2,3].map { “\($0)” }
```

Reduce an entire array to a single value

```
reduce(initial: U, combine: (U, T) -> U) -> U
```

```
let sum: Int = [1,2,3].reduce(0) { $0 + $1 } // adds up the numbers in the Array
```



# String

## • String.Index

In Unicode, a given glyph might be represented by multiple Unicode characters (accents, etc.)  
As a result, you can't index a String by Int (because it's a collection of characters, not glyphs)

So a lot of native Swift String functions take a String.Index to specify which glyph you want  
You can get a String.Index by asking the string for its `startIndex` then advancing forward  
You advance forward with the function (not method) `advance(String.Index, Int)`

```
var s = "hello"  
let index = advance(s.startIndex, 2) // index is a String.Index to the 3rd glyph, "l"  
s.splice("abc", index)             // s will now be "heabc llo" (abc inserted at 2)  
let startIndex = advance(s.startIndex, 1)  
let endIndex = advance(s.startIndex, 6)  
let substring = s[index..  
endIndex] // substring will be "eabc l"
```



# String

## • String.Index

The method `rangeOfString` returns an Optional `Range<String.Index>`

As an example, to get whole number part of a string representing a double ...

```
let num = "56.25"
```

```
if let decimalRange = num.rangeOfString(".") { // decimalRange is Range<String.Index>
    let wholeNumberPart = num[num.startIndex..
```

We could remove the whole number part using this method ...

```
s.removeRange([s.startIndex..
```

(there are other (defaulted) arguments to `removeRange`, but I'm not going to cover them now)

There's also `replaceRange(Range, String)`





# String

## Other String Methods

description -> String

endIndex -> String.Index

hasPrefix(String) -> Bool

hasSuffix(String) -> Bool

toInt() -> Int?

capitalizedString -> String

lowercaseString -> String

uppercaseString -> String

join(Array) -> String

componentsSeparatedByString(String) -> [String]

// Printable

// no toDouble (# of sig digits? etc.)

// ",".join(["1","2","3"]) = "1,2,3"

// "1,2,3".csbs(",") = ["1","2","3"]



# Type Conversion

## • Conversion between types with `init()`

A sort of “hidden” way to convert between types is to create a new object by converting

```
let d: Double = 37.5
let f: Float = 37.5
let x = Int(d) // truncates
let xd = Double(x)
let cgf = CGFloat(d) // we'll see CGFloat later in the quarter

let a = Array("abc") // a = ["a", "b", "c"], i.e. array of Character
let s = String(["a", "b", "c"]) // s = "abc" (the array is of Character, not String)

let s = String(52) // no floats
let s = "\ (37.5)" // but don't forget about this mechanism
```



# Assertions

## 👁 Debugging Aid

Intentionally crash your program if some condition is not true (and give a message)

```
assert(() -> Bool, "message")
```

The function argument is an "autoclosure" however, so you don't need the { }

e.g. `assert(validation() != nil, "the validation function returned nil")`

Will crash if `validation()` returns `nil` (because we are asserting that `validation()` does not)

The `validation() != nil` part could be any code you want

When building for release (to the AppStore or whatever), asserts are ignored completely

