

Swift Programming

iOS 10 • Xcode 8

STUDENT GUIDE



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Course Information

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Revision: 3.0
Last Update: 10/22/2016

Classroom materials for an course that provides a rapid introduction to programming in Swift. Geared to developers interested in learning to do Cocoa development on the iOS platform. Includes comprehensive lab exercise instructions and solution code.

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Swift Programming

STUDENT GUIDE

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CHAPTER ONE

Swift Basics

About Swift

- Why Swift?
 - Safety
 - Speed
 - Modern language features (functional programming, closures, pattern matching, tuples, optionals, etc.)
- Apple plans to use Swift for:
 1. Systems programming
 2. Scripting
 3. Cocoa development (replacing Objective-C)
- Existing Cocoa frameworks are all C/Objective-C
 - Swift designed to allow easy bridging between languages
 - Uses Objective-C runtime under the hood

Everything's an Object

There are four object types in Swift:

- Class
- Struct
- Enum
- Protocols

Even literals — for example the numeric literal **42** — are objects (in this case, an instance of a struct).

```
42.advancedBy(7) // returns 49
```

You can even customize the behavior of fundamental types:

```
extension Int
{
    func printAsAge()
    {
        print("I'm \(self) years old")
    }
}

// Adds printAsAge method to the Int type

42.printAsAge()

// prints "I'm 42 years old"
```

Variable Declarations

Variable declarations must provide either explicit type information, or an explicit initial value.

```
var width: Int    // defines variable 'width' of type Int  
var height = 12   // defines 'height' with inferred type Int
```

Note that the compiler will trap any attempts to use a variable before it has been initialized, as shown in the following example:

```
var count: Int  
count++           // Compiler error.
```

You can declare several variables of the same type in a single statement:

```
var x, y, z: Int  
var i = 0, j = 0
```


Constant Declarations

Constants declarations are similar to variable declarations, except they use the keyword **let** instead of **var**. However, constants must always be declared with an initial value.

```
let width: Double = 8.0 // declares constant of type Double
let height = 5.0 // defines constant with inferred type Double
```

The compiler will trap any attempt to modify the value of a constant.

```
let pi = 3.14159
pi += 2.0 // Compiler error.
```

Numeric Types

- Swift Standard Library declares protocols such as **IntegerType**, **SignedIntegerType**, etc. that define requirements for integer types.
- Protocols used in declaring structs to represent various integer types, such as **Int**, **Int8**, **UInt8**, **Int16**, **UInt16**, etc.
- Similarly, protocol **FloatingPointType** is adopted by both **Float** and **Double**.
- You can use constructors to convert between dissimilar types.

```
let x = 42
let y: Float = x           // Illegal!
let z: Float = Float(x)    // This works fine
let easier = Float(x)      // This works fine too
let backToInt = Int(z)     // Yep
```

Printing Text and Values

The Swift Standard Library provides `print` function for printing text and interpolated values:

```
print("Have a nice day")  
// prints "Have a nice day"
```

`print` is a generic function that takes an argument of any type:

```
let message = "Have a nice day"  
print(message)  
// prints "Have a nice day"  
let pi = 3.14159  
print(pi)  
// prints "3.14159"
```

Values of any type can be interpolated in a string literal with `\()`.

```
let temperature = 72  
print("It's currently \(temperature) degrees")  
// prints "It's currently 72 degrees"  
  
let scale = "Fahrenheit"  
print("It's currently \(temperature) degrees \(scale)")  
// prints "It's currently 72 degrees Fahrenheit"
```

Strings and Characters

- Ordered collection of **Character**
 - Each character represents a Unicode character.
 - Width of Unicode characters can vary, therefore indexes of characters are computed by enumerating the string.

```
let emojiText = "Hello World! 🤪🌐"  
count(emojiText)           // returns 15  
  
let foundationEmojiText: NSString = emojiText  
foundationEmojiText.length // returns 17
```

- Working with String properties:

```
let text = "Hello World!"  
  
text.isEmpty           // prints false  
text.lowercaseString    // prints "hello world!"  
text.uppercaseString    // prints "HELLO WORLD!"  
text.hasPrefix("Hello") // prints true  
text.hasSuffix("World") // prints false
```

Bridging to Foundation

Objective-C

- Swift interoperates with C and Objective-C code
- Swift currently depends on Objective-C runtime

Foundation Framework

- Objective-C classes, structures, enums, and C functions
- All global symbols prefixed with **NS**
- Some Swift types (e.g. **String** and **Array**) are bridged to corresponding Foundation classes (e.g., **NSString** and **NSArray**)
- Swift 3 requires dynamic casts to access bridged types

```
let word = "Hello" as NSString
```

String Formatting

- Strings can be initialized with a **printf**-style format string and variable length argument list (variadic):
- Arguments from variadic list are interpolated in place of *format specifiers*.

```
let foo: NSString = "Foo"
// Uses %d format specifier for Int length
let s1 = String(format: "foo's length is %d", foo.length)
// prints "foo's length is 3"

let fahrenheit = 78.5
// Uses %.1f format specifier for Double value, where the '.1'
// specifies one digit of decimal precision.
let s2 = String(format: "temperature is %.1f°F", fahrenheit)
// prints "temperature is 78.5°F"
```

- See Apple's documentation for a comprehensive list of format specifiers.

Functions and Methods

- Function and method declarations share similar syntax:

```
// function declaration syntax
func display(degrees: Double, scale: String)
{
    print("The temperature is \(degrees)° \(scale)")
}

// function call syntax
display(degrees: 71.5, scale: "Fahrenheit")
// prints "The temperature is 71.5° Fahrenheit"
```

- A parameter can declare a separate *external* name:

```
// temperatureInDegrees is external name of first param
func display(temperatureInDegrees degrees: Double, scale: String)
{
    // internal name is degrees
    print("The temperature is \(degrees)° \(scale)")
}

// external name required in call
display(temperatureInDegrees: 71.5, scale: "Fahrenheit")
```

- A parameter's external name can be ignored:

```
// external name ignored if _ wildcard specified
func display(_ degrees: Double, scale: String)
{
    print("The temperature is \(degrees)° \(scale)")
}

// external name not permitted in call
display(71.5, scale: "Fahrenheit")
```

Return Values

- Return type declared after `->` symbol:

```
// returns a value of type String
func temperature(degrees: Double, scale: String) -> String
{
    return "The temperature is \(degrees)° \(scale)"
}
```

- Result of function call must be used in an expression

```
// compiles with warning ("Result of call '...' is unused")
temperature(degrees: 71.5, scale: "Fahrenheit")

// compiles cleanly
let s = temperature(degrees: 71.5, scale: "Fahrenheit")
```

- Declare with `@discardableResult` to allow return value to be ignored

```
// return value can be ignored
@discardableResult
func temperature(degrees: Double, scale: String) -> String
{
    let s = "The temperature is \(degrees)° \(scale)"
    print(s)
    return s
}
```


Lab 1: Temperature Conversion

1. Write a function to convert Fahrenheit to Celsius
 - 1.1. Subtract 32 and multiply by 5/9.
 - 1.2. Write a unit test that passes in several different values and prints the results.
2. Write a function to convert Celsius to Fahrenheit
 - 2.1. The algorithm is the inverse of the one used in Step 1.
 - 2.2. Write a unit test that passes in several different values and prints the results.

Generics

- Swift provides rich support for generic types.
 - Used heavily in the standard library.
- The example below uses the `Comparable` protocol as a type qualifier. We haven't introduced protocols yet, but they're similar to *interfaces* in other languages.

```
// defines a function that takes two Comparable values
// and returns the larger of the two
//
func maxValue<T: Comparable>(x: T, y: T) -> T
{
    return x > y ? x : y
}
```

```
maxValue(22.5, 23)           // returns 23
maxValue(3, 2.9)             // returns 3
maxValue("Apple", "Banana")  // returns "Banana"
```

- The *T* above is a *placeholder type*. Here it denotes that the args and the return value must be the same type.
- `<T: Comparable>` is a *type constraint*. Here it specifies that *T* matches only types that conform to `Comparable`.

Collections

- Three primary collection types:
 - arrays:** ordered values
 - sets:** unordered, unique values
 - dictionaries:** unordered key-value pairs; keys are unique
- Collections declared with **let** are immutable
- Generically are generically typed

```
// examples of generic type syntax
Array<String>
Dictionary<String, Int>

// array type shorthand syntax
[String]

// dictionary type shorthand syntax
[String: Int]
```

Arrays

- Declaring an array

```
// declare an array with elements of type String
var a: Array<String>
// ... using shorthand syntax
var b: [String]
```

- Creating an instance

```
// instantiate an array with elements of type String
a = Array<String>()
// ... using shorthand syntax
a = [String]()
// ... or just
a = []
```

- Working with elements

```
// appending elements
a.append("Fred")
a.append("Jill")

// using subscript notation to access array elements
let name1 = a[0]

// initializing with an array literal
let c = ["Fred", "Jill", "Biff"]
```

- Array literals

```
// initializing with an array literal
let c = ["Fred", "Jill", "Biff"]
```

Dictionaries

- Declaring a dictionary

```
// declare a dictionary with keys of type String and element type Any
var a: Dictionary<String, Any>
// ...using shorthand syntax
var b: [String: Any]
```

- Creating an instance

```
// instantiate a dictionary using generic type syntax
a = Dictionary<String, Any>()
// ...using shorthand syntax
a = [String: Any]()
// ...or just
a = [:]
```

- Working with elements

```
// inserting/modifying elements
a["name"] = "Fred"
a["age"] = 29

// using subscript notation to access an element
// (note that the value will be wrapped in an Optional)
let age = a["age"]
```

- Dictionary literals

```
let c = ["min": 0, "max": 99, "average": 42.5]

let d: [String: Any] = ["name": "Fred", "age": 29 ]
```

For Loops

- Looping through an array:

```
let names = [ "Jane", "Bill", "Jan" ]

for name in names {
    print("name is \(name)")
}
// name is Jane
// name is Bill
// name is Jan
```

- Looping through a dictionary:

```
let prices = ["jeans": 49.99, "t-shirt": 29.99]

for (key, value) in prices {
    print("price of \(key) is \(value)")
}
// price of jeans is 49.99
// price of t-shirt is 29.99
```

enumerated Method

- **enumerated** method sequences through a collection's elements.
 - Returns a tuple containing the index of the current element and the value at that index.

```
let names = [ "Jane", "Bill", "Jan", "Pat" ]  
// defines an array of elements of type String  
  
for (index, value) in names.enumerate()  
{  
    print("name \(index + 1) is \(value)")  
}  
// enumerates the 'names' array, printing the following:  
// name 1 is Jane  
// name 2 is Bill  
// name 3 is Jan  
// name 4 is Pat
```

Lab – Collections

Write unit tests to experiment with collections.

1. Add a new file **CollectionsLabTests** as follows:
 - 1.1. From Xcode's **File** menu select **New -> File**. In the Template Chooser, select **iOS** at the top, select the **Unit Test Case Class** template. Click **Next**, enter **CollectionsLabTests** as the file name, and click **Next**. In the Save panel, click **Create**.
 - 1.2. Write a test method named **testArray** that initializes a variable with of type array of String with an empty array. Add lines of code that use the array's **append** method to append "Apple" and "Pear" to the array. Add a call to the **print** function to print the array, and then run the test to verify that the array prints as expected.
 - 1.3. Add a line of code to change the value of the array's second element from "Pear" to "Orange" and another line to print the array, and then run the test again.
2. Add a test method named **testEnumerateArray** that defines a let constant initialized with an array literal containing the strings "Apple" and "Banana".
 - 2.1. Add a **for** loop that prints each element of the array, then run the test to verify that they print as expected.
 - 2.2. Add another **for** loop that uses the array's **enumerate** method to provide a tuple of each element's index and value, and then add a line of code in the loop body that prints the current index and value.
3. Add a test method named **testEnumerateDictionary** that defines a variable initialized with an empty dictionary literal.
 - 3.1. Use subscript notation to insert two key-value pairs with the following keys and values: "jeans", 49.99 and "t-shirt", 29.99.
 - 3.2. Add a line of code to print the dictionary, then run the test to verify the result.
4. Add a test method named **testEnumerateDictionary** that defines a let constant initialized with a dictionary literal containing the same values as in the previous exercise.
 - 4.1. Add a **for** loop that enumerates the dictionary, printing its keys and values, followed by another **for** loop that prints only the dictionary's keys, and a third **for** loop that sums the dictionary's values. Add a print statement after the third loop that prints the sum.

Tuples

- A *tuple* is a list of objects of any type.
 - Defined as a parenthesized list of *values*.
 - Declared as a parenthesized list of *types*.

```
let vals = (12, "Hi")  
// defines a tuple with two values
```

```
let typedVals: (Int, String) = (12, "Hi")  
// illustrates types inferred by compiler in previous example
```

- Use the dot operator to access elements by position:

```
print(vals.0)    // prints "12"  
print(vals.1)    // prints "Hi"
```

- The dot operator can also access values by label:

```
let vals2 = (x: 12, y: 24)  
print(vals2.x)   // prints "12"  
print(vals2.y)   // prints "Hi"
```

Tuples As Types

- You can use tuples in type declarations, for example as a function parameter or return value.

```
// takes a single argument, size, of type (Int, Int)
func area(size: (width: Int, height: Int)) -> Int
{
    return size.width * size.height
}

// returns (Double, Double)
func calculateDiscount(originalPrice: Double, percentage: Double)
    -> (price: Double, discount: Double)
{
    let amount = originalPrice * percentage
    let price = originalPrice - amount
    return (price, amount)
}

// defines two constants, price and discount
let (price, discount) = calculateDiscount(25.00, 0.15)
print(price)           // prints "21.25"
print(discount)        // prints "3.75"

// use wildcard parameter _ to ignore values
let (discountedPrice, _) = discount(19.95, 0.15)
print(discountedPrice) // prints "21.25"
```

Typealiases

- A *typealias* is a custom label for an existing type

```
typealias Size = (width: Double, height: Int)
```

```
func area(size: Size) -> Int  
{  
    return size.width * size.height  
}
```

Lab – Tuples

Write unit tests to experiment with tuples.

1. Add a new test case named **TuplesLabTests**.
2. Add a test method named **testTuplePositions** that defines a let constant named **item**, initialized with a tuple containing following values: "polos", 29.99, and 2. Define another let constant named **amount**, initialized with the result of an expression that multiplies the **item** tuple's second and third values. Write a print statement that prints each of the tuple's values followed by the calculated amount.
3. Define a global let constant named **polos** with values from the tuple in the previous lab, prefixed with the following labels: **name**, **price**, and **quantity**.
 - 3.1. Add a test method named **testTupleLabels** that defines a let constant named **amount**, initialized with an expression that multiplies the polo constant's **price** times its **quantity**.
 - 3.2. Write a print statement that prints the **polos** tuple's values, followed by the calculated amount.
4. Write a global function named **calculatedAmount(item:)** that takes a tuple of **String**, **Double**, and **Int** as its argument, and returns **Double**. It should return the product of the provided tuple's price and quantity. Add a unit test named **testTupleParameter** that calls the new function, passing **polos** as its argument, and prints the result in the same manner as in the previous exercise.
5. Write a global function named **formatted(item:)** that takes a parameter of the same type as in the previous exercise, and returns a tuple of **String** and **Double**.
 - 5.1. The function should call **calculatedAmount**, and then return a tuple containing a string similar to the one printed in **3.2**, and the amount.
 - 5.2. Add a global let constant named **shirts**, initialized with a literal array of two tuples similar to the one in **polos**.
 - 5.3. Add a test method named **testTupleReturnValue** that calls the new **formatted(item:)** function once for each of the elements of the **shirts** array. It should prints the text in each of the returned tuples, and total their amounts, printing the total.

Control Flow

- If, guard, for, do, switch
- precondition, assert, fatalError

Enum and Switch

- Swift type
- Declared with `enum` keyword

```
enum Garment {  
    case shirt  
    case pants  
    case jacket  
}
```

- Often used with switch statements

```
func showSpecials(garmentType: Garment) {  
    switch garmentType {  
    case .shirt:  
        print("All shirts 15% off this week.")  
    case .pants:  
        print("Get two pairs for the price of one!")  
    default: break  
    }  
}
```

Guard Statements

- Guard statements can be used with ordinary logic expressions:

```
func divide1(numerator: Int, denominator: Int) -> Int?
{
    guard denominator != 0 else {
        print("Zero divide")
        return nil
    }

    return numerator / denominator
}
```

- Control flow keywords such as **if**, **guard**, and **for** can also be used in combination with the **case** keyword:

```
func showDiscount(type: Garment) {
    guard case .shirt = type else {
        return
    }
    print("15% discount")
}
```

For Loop Conditionals

- Using **where** clause:

```
for index in 0...5 where index % 2 == 0 {  
    print("index is \(index)")  
}  
// index is 0  
// index is 2  
// index is 4
```

- Combining with **case** and **let**:

```
let supplies = [  
    (name: "pencils", price: 0.35, quantity: 12.0),  
    (name: "erasers", price: 0.50, quantity: 6.0)  
]  
  
for case let (name, price, quantity) in supplies {  
    print("\(name), $\(price * quantity)" )  
}  
// pencils, $4.2  
// erasers, $3.0
```


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CHAPTER TWO

Swift Types

Structs

- Value types — can be allocated and passed by value; i.e., copied on stack.
- Declared with **struct** keyword, followed by curly braces
- Can contain properties, methods, and initializers (constructors)

```
struct Dog {
    var name = "Unknown"
    func bark() {
        print("Woof, woof!")
    }
}
```

```
// Declares Dog to be a struct with a 'name' property and 'bark' method.
```

```
var rover = Dog()    // allocates a Dog instance
rover.name = "Rover" // modifies the name property (conceptually;
                    // actually, replaces rover with a new instance)
```

```
print("Name of \(Dog.self) is \(rover.name)")

// prints "Name of MyProj.Dog is Rover". ('MyProj' is name of Swift module.)

rover.bark()

// prints "Woof, woof!"
```

Stored Properties

- Value stored internally in struct, class or enum instance.
- **Properties only declare accessors**; actual storage is opaque.
- Compiler requires stored properties to be initialized.
 - Properties with no *default value* must be initialized in `init`.
 - Swift provides a *memberwise initializer* for read-write properties.
 - If there's no custom initializer, and all properties have default values, Swift provides a *default (no-arg) initializer*.

```
struct Point
{
    var x = 0.0
    var y = 0.0
}
```

// declares a struct with properties that all have **default values**

```
let p = Point()
```

// calls **default initializer**, which returns a point with origin 0.0, 0.0

```
let p2 = Point(x: 10.0, y: 20.0)
```

// calls **memberwise initializer**, returning a point with origin 10.0, 20.0

Custom Initializers

- Default values can also be provided in an `init` method's parameter list.
 - Parameters that have default values are not required in calls to initializers.

```
struct Point
{
    var x = 0.0
    var y = 0.0

    let pointsPerPixel: Double

    init(x: Double, y: Double, pointsPerPixel: Double = 2.0)
    {
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
        self.pointsPerPixel = pointsPerPixel
    }
}

// pointsPerPixel not required to be passed as argument to initializer

let p = Point(x: 10.0, y: 20.0)
let p2 = Point(x: 10.0, y: 20.0, pointsPerPixel: 3.0)
// both the above calls succeed
```

Computed Properties

- No stored value
 - Value is computed whenever the property is accessed.
 - Can be read-only or read-write.

```
struct Dog
{
    var name: String
    var toys: [String]

    // read-only computed property
    var favoriteToy: String {
        get { return toys.isEmpty ? "N/A" : toys[0] }
    }

    // ...
}
```

```
var rover = Dog(name: "Rover", toys: ["Ball", "Rope", "Frisbee"])
print("favorite toy: \(rover.favoriteToy)")

// prints "favorite toy: Ball"
```

```
struct Dog
{
    // ...

    // read-write computed property
    var toyNames: String {
        get { return toys.joinWithSeparator(", ") }
        set { toys = newValue.characters.split {
            ", ".characters.contains($0).map { String($0) } } }
    }

    // ...
}
```

```
rover.toyNames = "Kong, Ball, KittyKat"
print("toys: \(rover.toys)")

// prints "toys: [Kong, Ball, KittyKat]"
```

Property Observers

- Can be used with anything declared as **var**, as long as it has an explicit type and initial value.
 - **willSet** automatically passed **newValue**
 - **didSet** automatically passed **oldValue**

```
var text: String = "Hello" {
    didSet {
        print("Set text to \(text), old value was \(oldValue)")
    }
}

// defines variable 'text' and implements 'didSet' observer

text = "Bye"
// prints "Set text to Bye, old value was Hello"

var number: Int = Int(42) {
    willSet {
        print("About to set number to new value \(newValue)")
    }
    didSet {
        print("Number is now \(number); old value was \(oldValue)")
    }
}

// defines variable 'number' and implements property observers

print(number)
// prints 42

number = 5
// prints "About to set number to new value 5"
//      "Number is now 5; old value was 123"
```

Methods

- Syntax the same as for functions, but calling semantics slightly different
 - For methods with multiple parameters, all but the first param name are *external* by default

```
// here, suffix and numberOfTimes have external names, prefix does not
func bark(prefix: String, suffix: String, numberOfTimes: Int)
{
    for _ in 1...numberOfTimes {
        print("\(prefix), \(barkText) \(suffix)")
    }
}

fido.bark(prefix: "Grrr", suffix: "(pant, pant)", numberOfTimes: 2)
```

- To externalize internal names:

```
// here, all three params have external names
func bark(prefix prefix: String, suffix: String, numberOfTimes: Int)
{
    // ...
}

fido.bark(prefix: "Grrr", suffix: "(pant, pant)", numberOfTimes: 2)
```

- You can also specify explicit external names

```
// here, the external name for numberOfTimes is repetitions
func woof(prefix prefix: String, suffix: String, repetitions numberOfTimes:
Int)
{
    // ...
}

fido.woof(prefix: "Grrr", suffix: "(pant, pant)", repetitions: 2)
```


Protocols

- Provide a means to share method and property *declarations* among structs, classes of various types
- Similar to **interfaces** in other languages, but allows methods to be declared as optional (*NOTE: Swift 2 protocol extensions can also provide implementations of protocol methods*)
- Declared with **protocol** keyword

```
protocol Likeable {
    var numberOfLikes: Int { get set } // property declaration

    // method declarations
    func like()
    func unlike()
}
```

```
class Person: Likeable {
    // ...

    var numberOfLikes = 0

    // ...

    func like() {
        numberOfLikes++;
    }

    func unlike() {
        if (numberOfLikes > 0) {
            numberOfLikes--
        }
    }
}
```

Describing Objects

- CustomStringConvertible protocol declares ***description*** property
 - Called by print function
- CustomDebugStringConvertible protocol declares ***debugDescription*** property
 - Used by debugger as part of formatted value presented by its built-in print-object (po) command

```
class Person: Likeable, CustomStringConvertible
{
    ...
    var description: String {
        return "\(firstName) \(lastName), +\(numberOfLikes)"
    }
}
```

```
let fred = Person(firstName: "Fred", lastName: "Smith")
```

```
fred.like()
print(fred)
```

```
fred.like()
print(fred)
```

```
// prints the following on the console:
//
// Fred Smith, +1
// Fred Smith, +2
```

The Equatable Protocol

- Declares a generic function that defines the behavior of the `==` operator
- Can be overloaded for custom types

// From declaration in Swift Standard Library:

```
protocol Equatable {
    func ==(lhs: Self, rhs: Self) -> Bool
}
```

// Overloading for Friendable type

```
func ==(lhs: Friendable, rhs: Friendable) -> Bool
{
    return lhs.friendID == rhs.friendID
}
```

```
func testEquatable() {
    let p1 = Person("Fred", "Smith", 100)
    let p2 = Person("Fred", "Smith", 100)
    let p3 = Person("Fred", "Smith", 99)

    print("p1 == p1 is \(p1 == p1)")
    print("p1 == p2 is \(p1 == p2)")
    print("p1 == p3 is \(p1 == p3)")

    print("p1 === p1 is \(p1 === p1)")
    print("p1 === p2 is \(p1 === p2)")
}
```

// prints the following on the console:

```
p1 == p1 is true
p1 == p2 is true
p1 == p3 is false
p1 === p1 is true
p1 === p2 is false
```

Lab 5: Rectangle

1. Declare three structs, as follows:
 - 1.1. A **Point** structure with properties **x** and **y** of type **Double**.
 - 1.2. A **Size** structure with properties **width** and **height** of type **Double**.
 - 1.3. A **Rectangle** structure with properties **origin** and **size** of type **Point** and **Size**, respectively.
 - 1.4. Add a computed property in **Rectangle** that returns the area of the rectangle as a **Double**.
 - 1.5. Add another computed property in **Rectangle** that returns a **Point** that represents the rectangle's center.
 - 1.6. Add a method to **Rectangle** that takes two parameters, **dx**, and **dy**, and returns a rectangle instance offset from the original by the amount of the arguments.
 - 1.7. Write unit tests to test the functionality developed in the previous steps.

Extensions

- Add methods and read-only properties to existing structs, classes, protocols (in Swift 2), and enums
- Declared with **extension** keyword, followed by the name of the type being extended, followed by curly braces
 - Can specify additional protocols

```
extension Dog {  
    var numberOfLegs: Int { return 4 } // Computed property (read-only)  
  
    func howl() {  
        print("Awooooooh!")  
    }  
  
    func growl() {  
        print("Grrrrrr!")  
    }  
}  
// Adds 'howl' and 'growl' methods to the Dog class
```

```
var fido = Dog()  
  
fido.howl()           // prints "Awooooooh!"  
fido.growl()          // prints "Grrrrrr!"  
print(fido.numberOfLegs) // prints "4"
```

String Methods

- Working with String methods:

```
let fruits = [ "Apple", "Pear", "Banana"]
let fruitString = fruits.joinWithSeparator(", ")
print(fruitString) // prints "Apple, Pear, Banana"

// Breaking split down into separate steps for clarity...
func isSeparator(character: Character) -> Bool {
    return ", ".characters.contains(character)
}
let elements = fruitString.characters.split(isSeparator: isSeparator)
let substrings = elements.map { String($0) }
print(substrings) // prints "[Apple, Pear, Banana]"

let text = "Hello World!"

text.characters.count //prints 12
let hasH = text.characters.contains("H") // arg is character, not string
print(hasH) // prints true
let hasVowels = text.characters.contains({ "aeiou".characters.contains($0) })
print (hasVowels) // prints true
let location = text.characters.indexOf("W") // arg is character, not string
print(location) // prints "Optional(6)"
```

- Working with ranges:

```
for currChar in text {
    print(currChar)
}
// prints each character in the string, one per line

let firstChar = text[text.startIndex]
let secondChar = text[text.startIndex.successor()]
let thirdChar = text[text.startIndex.advancedBy(2)]

let startIndex = text.startIndex.advancedBy(6)
text[startIndex] // returns "W"

let endIndex = text.endIndex.advancedBy(-1)
text[endIndex] // returns "!"

let range1 = Range(start: startIndex, end: endIndex)
text[range1] // returns "World"

let range2 = startIndex ..< endIndex
text[range2] // returns "World"
```

String Ranges

- A string's characters can be enumerated like an array:

```
for currChar in text.characters {
    print(currChar)
}
// prints each character in the string, one per line
```

- Use ranges to specify portions of a string:

```
let startIndex = text.startIndex.advancedBy(6)
text[startIndex] // returns "W"

let endIndex = text.endIndex.advancedBy(-1)
text[endIndex]   // returns "!"

let range1 = Range(start: startIndex, end: endIndex)
text[range1]    // returns "World"

// You can use a Range literal to specify a range:
//
let range2 = startIndex ..< endIndex // Half-open range
text[range2]    // returns "World"

let range3 = startIndex ... endIndex // Closed range
text[range3]    // returns "World!"
```

Bridging to Foundation

- Many Swift library structs such as `String`, `Array`, `Dictionary`, `Set`, and `Error` are bridged to Foundation.
- For example, Swift strings are bridged to `NSString` and `NSMutableString`, as shown below:

```
let foundationStr = "Hello World!" as NSString
foundationStr.length           // 12
foundationStr.substring(from: 6) // "World!"
foundationStr.substring(to: 5)  // "Hello"

let range = foundationStr.range(of: "World") // (6, 5)
foundationStr.substring(with: range)         // "World"

let fruitText = "Apple, Pear, Banana" as NSString
let fruits2 = fruitText.components(separatedBy: ", ")
// ["Apple", "Pear", "Banana"]
```

- Foundation objects have powerful features; e.g., some can serialize/deserialize themselves to/from a file:

```
let s1 = "Apple, Pear, Banana"
let fileName = "/tmp/fruit.txt"
let encoding = String.Encoding(rawValue: String.Encoding.utf8.rawValue)

do {
    // Try to write string "Apple, Pear, Banana" to a file...
    try s1.write(toFile: fileName, atomically: true, encoding: encoding)

    // Try to initialize a new string with the file's contents...
    let s2 = try String(contentsOfFile: fileName, encoding: encoding)

    // Do something with the new string...
}
catch _ {
    print("Unable to write to file \(fileName)")
}
```


Classes

- Reference types — typically allocated in heap and passed by reference.
- Similar to structs, but with additional capabilities, such as inheritance
- Declared with **class** keyword — optionally followed by colon and name of superclass — followed by curly braces
- Can contain properties, methods, and initializers/deinitializers (constructors/destructors)

```
class Animal {
    var isPet: Bool = false
}
// Declares Animal class

class Dog: Animal {
    var name: String = ""

    func bark() {
        print("Woof, woof!")
    }

    func description() -> String {
        return "name: \(name), is pet: " + (isPet ? "yes" : "no")
    }
}
// Declares Dog to be a subclass of Animal
```

```
var rover = Dog()    // allocates a Dog instance
rover.name = "Rover" // modifies name
rover.isPet = true;  // modifies isPet

print(rover.description())

// prints "name: Rover, is pet: yes"
```

Type Properties and Methods

- In addition to *instance* properties and methods, structs, classes, and enums can have *type* properties and methods.
 - Declare with **static** keyword
 - Classes can have methods declared with **class** keyword (note: unlike static methods, class methods are inherited)
 - Swift 2 supports **class** type qualifier for class properties

```
class Person: Serializable, CustomDebugStringConvertible
{
    static var defaultAge: Int = 21

    // ...

    convenience init(firstName: String?, lastName: String?)
    {
        self.init(firstName: firstName,
                  lastName: lastName,
                  age: Person.defaultAge)
    }

    class func fetchPeople(path: String) -> [Person]
    {
        // Fetch people somehow...
    }

    // ...
}
```

Intentionally left blank

CHAPTER THREE

Optionals and Error Handling

The Optional Enum

- **nil** is an illegal value in Swift
- Optionals are wrappers for values that may potentially be **nil**

Declaration from the Swift Standard Library

```
public enum Optional<Wrapped> : _Reflectable, NilLiteralConvertible {
    case None
    case Some(Wrapped)
    /// Construct a `nil` instance.
    public init()
    /// Construct a non-`nil` instance that stores `some`.
    public init(_ some: Wrapped)
    /// If `self == nil`, returns `nil`. Otherwise, returns `f(self!)`.
    @warnunusedresult
    public func map<U>(@noescape f: (Wrapped) throws -> U) rethrows -> U?
    /// Returns `nil` if `self` is nil, `f(self!)` otherwise.
    @warnunusedresult
    public func flatMap<U>(@noescape f: (Wrapped) throws -> U?) rethrows -> U?
    /// Create an instance initialized with `nil`.
    public init(nilLiteral: ())
}

extension Optional : CustomDebugStringConvertible {
    /// A textual representation of `self`, suitable for debugging.
    var debugDescription: String { get }
}
```

Using Optionals

- You can use a question mark to declare a variable as optional:

```
var name: String?  
// declares name to be an optional string  
  
if name == nil {  
    print("name is nil")  
}  
// prints "name is nil"  
  
name = "Fred"
```

- You can use an exclamation point to unwrap an optional. This is called *forced unwrapping*.
 - As the name implies, it's less safe than other approaches.

```
if name != nil {  
    print("name is \(name)")  
    // prints "name is Optional("Fred")"  
  
    print("name is " + name!)  
    // prints "name is Fred"  
}
```

Optional Binding

- You can safely unwrap an optional using an **if-let** statement.
 - If the assignment succeeds, the **let** constant contains the unwrapped value.

```
var name: String? = "Fred"
if let someName = name {
    print("name is " + someName)
}
// prints "name is Fred"
```

```
func formattedName1(name: String?) -> String {
    if let someName = name {
        return "name is \(someName)"
    } else {
        return "name unknown"
    }
}
```

```
formattedName("Fred")
// prints "name is Fred"
```

```
formattedName(nil)
// prints "name unknown"
```

- A **guard-let** statement is a convenient alternative to **if-let**:

```
func formattedName2(name: String?) -> String {
    guard let someName = name else {
        return "name unknown"
    }
    return "name is \(someName)"
}
```

```
formattedName("Fred")
// prints "name is Fred"
```

```
formattedName(nil)
// prints "name unknown"
```

Guard vs. the Pyramid of Doom

- Consider the 'pyramid of doom' style of nested **if-let** statements in the following example:

```
func format1(person: Person?) -> String
{
    if let p = person {
        if let name = p.fullName {
            if let ageStr = p.age, let age = Int(ageStr) {
                return "\(name), age: \(age)"
            } else { return name }
        } else { return "missing name" }
    }
    return "person cannot be nil"
}
```

- Here's the previous example rewritten using **guard-let** statements:

```
func format2(person: Person?) -> String
{
    guard let p = person else {
        return "person cannot be nil"
    }
    guard let name = p.fullName else {
        return "missing name"
    }
    guard let ageStr = p.age, let age = Int(ageStr) else {
        return name
    }
    return "\(name), age: \(age)"
}
```


Casts

- Check type with `is`, `is?`, or `is!`
- Downcast with `as`, `as?`, or `as!`

```
let words: [Any] = ["Hello", "World"]
let word: String = words[0] as! String // force downcast from Any to String
// prints "Hello"
```

```
var things: [Any?] = [42, "Hello", 3.5]
if let answer: Int? = things[0] as? Int { // downcast to optional Int
    print(answer)
}
```

```
// prints 42
```

```
var objects: [Any] = [42, "Fred", 3.5]
for object in objects {
    if object is Int { print("The answer is \(object)") }
    if object is String { print("Hi \(object), how are you?") }
}
```

```
// prints "The answer is 42"
//          "Hi Fred, how are you?"
```

```
for object in objects {
    switch (object) {
    case let value as Int:
        print("The answer is \(value / 6)")
    case let value as String:
        print("Hi \(value), have a nice day!")
    case let value as Double:
        print("It's \(value)°F? Brr, that's cold.")
    default:
        print("The object is \(object)")
    }
}
```

```
// prints "The answer is 7"
//          "Hi Fred, have a nice day!"
//          "It's 3.5°F? Brr, that's cold."
```

Error Handling

- Swift throws errors rather than exceptions. Errors are defined by enums conforming to the `Error` protocol.

```
enum MathError: Error {
    case ZeroDivide
    case Overflow
}
```

- Methods and functions that throw must be annotated with the **throws** keyword

```
func divide2(numerator: Int, denominator: Int) throws -> Int? {
    if denominator == 0 {
        throw MathError.ZeroDivide
    }
    return numerator / denominator
}
```

- Each call to a method or functions that throws must be prefixed with **try?**, **try!**, or else **try** inside a **do-catch** block.

```
let x = try! divide2(12, denominator: 3)
// produces 4

if let x = try? divide2(12, denominator: 3) { print(x) }
// produces Optional(4)

do {
    let result = try divide2(42, denominator: 0)
    print("result is \(result)")
}
catch MathError.ZeroDivide {
    print("Zero divide")
}
// prints "Zero divide"
```

- Note that thrown errors don't unwind the stack; instead they trigger an early return that incorporates the error value.

Implicitly Unwrapped Optionals

- Use exclamation point to qualify types you want *implicitly unwrapped*.
 - The resulting optional can then be used as if it were unwrapped.
 - The developer is responsible for ensuring that the value will not be directly accessed when **nil** (other than testing for nil).

```
let lastName: String! = "Smith"

// lastName contains an optional that wraps the string "Smith"

print("name is \(lastName)")

// prints "name is Smith"
```

The Nil Coalescing Operator

- The *nil coalescing operator* is `??`.
- Combines ternary expression and optional unwrapping.

```
let special: Double?
// ...

let discount = special ?? 0.15
// Assigns 0.15 to discount if special is nil,
// otherwise assigns unwrapped value of special

// The preceding expression is shorthand for:
let discount = special == nil ? 0.15 : special!
```

- Can be used as part of a larger expression:

```
let Unknown = "Unknown"
let firstName: String? = "Fred"
let lastName: String? = "nil"

var description: String {
    return "first: \(firstName ?? Unknown), "
        + "last: \(lastName ?? Unknown)"
}

print(description)

// prints "first: Fred, last: Unknown"
```

Optional Chaining

- Combines optional unwrapping and property access.

```
var person: Person? = Person(firstName: "Fred", lastName: nil, age: 29)
person!.dog = Dog(name: "Rover", toys: ["Ball", "Frisbee"])

// creates an optional Person with an optional Dog

print(person?.firstName)
// prints "Optional("Fred")

print(person?.dog?.toys)
// prints "Optional(["Ball", "Frisbee"])"
```

CHAPTER FOUR

Collections and Closures

Closures

- Swift functions can be passed as arguments and can be used as return values.

- General form of closure syntax:

```
{ (parameters) -> return_type in
    // statements
}
```

- Example — passing a named function:

```
let fruit = ["Pear", "Apple", "Peach", "Banana"]
```

```
func ascending(s1: String, s2: String) -> Bool {
    return s1 < s2
}
```

```
let sortedFruit = fruit.sort(ascending)
// value is ["Apple", "Banana", "Peach", "Pear"]
```

- Examples of syntactic flexibility:

```
// passing anonymous closure
let sortedFruit2 = fruit.sort({ (s1: String, s2: String) -> Bool in
    return s1 < s2
})
```

```
// anonymous closure with streamlined syntax
let sortedFruit3 = fruit.sort({ s1, s2 -> Bool in
    return s1 < s2
})
```

```
// trailing closure syntax
let sortedFruit4 = fruit.sort { s1, s2 -> Bool in
    s1 < s2
}
```

```
// trailing closure with positional parameters
var sortedFruit5 = fruit.sort { $0 < $1 }
```

```
// passing '<' function
var sortedFruit6 = fruit.sort(<)
```

Working with Closures

- Executing a closure

```
let WavyDash = UnicodeScalar(0x03030)

func showDate(completion: () -> Void)
{
    print("The current date and time is now \(NSDate())")
    completion() // Executes the closure
}

showDate {
    let wavyLine = String(count: 7, repeatedValue: WavyDash)
    print("\(wavyLine)" + " MESSAGE " + "\(wavyLine)")
}

// prints:
//
// The current date and time is now 2015-07-19 15:56:23 +0000
// ~~~~~ MESSAGE ~~~~~
```

- Closures automatically capture and store references to constants and variables from the enclosing scope.

```
func growl(numberOfTimes: Int, performGrowl: () -> Void)
{
    for count in 1...numberOfTimes {
        print("\(count) of \(numberOfTimes): ")
        performGrowl()
    }
}

let n = 3
growl(n) {
    print("Grrr!")
}

// prints the following...
//
// 1 of 3: Grrr!
// 2 of 3: Grrr!
// 3 of 3: Grrr!
```


map

- The **map** method operates on collections by applying a closure to each element successively.
 - Returns an array of the closure's return values.

```
let fruits = ["apple", "pear", "banana"]
let capitalizedFruits = fruits.map { $0.capitalizedString }
print(capitalizedFruits)
// prints "[Apple, Pear, Banana]"
```

- Powerful way to work with arrays of complex objects:

```
struct Grocery {
    let name: String
    let price: Double
    let quantity: Int
}

let groceries = [
    Grocery(name: "Apples", price: 0.65, quantity: 12),
    Grocery(name: "Milk", price: 1.25, quantity: 2),
    Grocery(name: "Crackers", price: 2.35, quantity: 3),
]

let costs = groceries.map {
    // a tuple containing current item's name and cost
    ($0.name, $0.price * Double($0.quantity))
}

print(costs)
// prints "[(Apples, 7.8), (Milk, 2.5), (Crackers, 7.05)]"
```

reduce

- The **reduce** method operates similarly to **map**, but instead of returning an array, returns a single value.
 - First argument is initial value
 - Second argument is a closure that returns the value of the current item in the collection combined with the current sum.

```
let ints = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

let sum = ints.reduce(0) {
    currSum, currVal in      // parameter list
    return currSum + currVal
}
// produces 15

// same as the above example, but with streamlined syntax:
let sum2 = ints.reduce(0) { $0 + $1 }
// ditto
let sum3 = ints.reduce(0, combine: +)

// additional examples:

let factorial = ints.reduce(1, combine: *)
// produces 120

let fruitsText = fruits.reduce("favorites: ") { "\( $0)\( $1), " }
// produces "favorites: apple, pear, banana, "
```

reduce (Continued)

- As with **map**, provides a powerful way to work with arrays of complex objects:

```
let total = groceries.reduce(0.0) { sum, item in
    sum + (item.price * Double(item.quantity))
}
// produces 17.35
```

- Applying **reduce** to array of tuples from an earlier **map** example:

```
let string = costs.reduce("Costs") { text, item in
    text + "name: \(item.0), cost: \(item.1)\n"
}
```

```
print(string)
// name: Apples, cost: 7.8
// name: Milk, cost: 2.5
// name: Crackers, cost: 7.05
```

// fancier version of preceding example:

```
let text = costs.reduce("Costs\n=====\n") {
    $0 + String(format: "%8s%6.2f\n",
        NSString(string: $1.0).UTF8String, $1.1)
}
```

```
print(text)
Costs
=====
Apples  7.80
Milk    2.50
Crackers 7.05
```

filter

- The **filter** method returns an array of objects that match the condition specified by its closure argument.

```
let people = [
    Person("Fred", "Smith", 27),
    Person("Janet", "Wade", 31),
    Person("Gale", "Dee", 42),
    Person("Jan", "Grey", 29),
]
```

```
let under30 = people.filter { $0.age < 30 }
// produces an array containing Fred Smith and Jan Grey
```

<<<<>>>>