

# 02

## Advanced Aspects of .NET

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a.a. 2022/2023

- 1 Structures
  - Allocation on the Stack
  - Boxing / Unboxing
- 2 Method Calls and Parameters
  - Value Types vs. Reference Types
  - Ref and Out Parameters
  - Varargs
  - Extension Methods
- 3 Enums
- 4 Events and Listeners
- 5 Operator Overloading
- 6 LINQ

# Structures as Custom Value Types I

## Why structures

- Differently from most platforms, .NET let developers define **custom** values types
- It does so via the notion of **structures**
- Built-in value types (e.g. `Int32`, `Boolean`, etc) are defined as structures

# Structures as Custom Value Types II

## Structures vs. Classes

Think about structures as ordinary classes, except that:

- they **do not** support **inheritance**
  - ▶ from neither other structures nor classes
- they **can** just implement **interfaces**
- their instances are allocated **on the stack**, by default
- their instances are passed **by value** through method calls

## Purpose of Structures

*Defining **lightweight** types whose (de)allocation is **quick***

# Structures as Custom Value Types III

## Syntax of Structures

```
struct <Name> [: <Interface Name>] { <Members> }
```

- where *<Members>* is an ordinary list of
  - ▶ fields, methods, constructors, or properties. . .
  - ▶ . . . either static or not. . .
  - ▶ . . . similarly to class definitions

## Structures are sub-types of Object! (pt. 1)

! keep in mind to **override** Equals, GetHashCode, and ToString

# Structures as Custom Value Types IV

## Example of structure for fractions (a.k.a. rational numbers)

```
1 struct Rational
2 {
3     public Rational(bool sign, uint num, uint den)
4     {
5         if (den == 0) throw new DivideByZeroException("Denominator cannot be 0");
6         Sign = sign; Num = num; Den = den;
7     }
8
9     public bool Sign { get; }
10    public uint Num { get; }
11    public uint Den { get; }
12
13    public bool Equals(Rational other) =>
14        Sign == other.Sign && Num == other.Num && Den == other.Den;
15    public override bool Equals(object obj) => obj is Rational other && Equals(other);
16    public override int GetHashCode() => HashCode.Combine(Sign, Num, Den);
17
18    public override string ToString() => $"{(Sign ? "+" : "-")}{Num}/{Den}";
19 }
```

```
1 Rational oneHalf = new Rational(true, 1, 2);
2 Console.WriteLine(oneHalf); // +1/2
3 var minusTwoThird = new Rational(false, 2, 3);
4 Console.WriteLine(minusTwoThird); // -2/3
```

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# Reference vs. Value types Allocation I

## Take away

- Reference-type (i.e. **classes**) objects are allocated on the **heap**
  - Value-type (i.e. **structures**) objects are allocated on the **stack**
    - ▶ this is what makes them **quick**, provided that they are **small in size**
- ! Such difference brings subtle intricacies in the way reference/value are managed



# Reference vs. Value types Allocation II

Consider for instance the IPoint interface, which can either

- be implemented by the CPoint class
- or be implemented by the SPoint class

```
1 interface IPoint { double X { get; set; } double Y { get; set; } }
2
3 class CPoint : IPoint
4 {
5     public CPoint(double x, double y) { X = x; Y = y; }
6     public double X { get; set; }
7     public double Y { get; set; }
8
9     public override string ToString() => $"CPoint(X: {X}, Y: {Y})";
10 }
11
12 struct SPoint : IPoint
13 {
14     public SPoint(double x, double y) { X = x; Y = y; }
15     public double X { get; set; }
16     public double Y { get; set; }
17
18     public override string ToString() => $"SPoint(X: {X}, Y: {Y})";
19 }
```

# Reference vs. Value types Allocation III

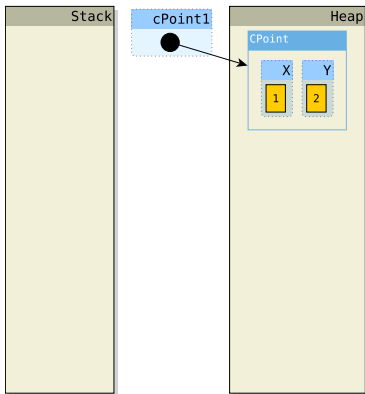
Their instances behave differently, due to the way they are allocated:

```
1 CPoint cPoint1 = new CPoint(1, 2);
2 SPoint sPoint1 = new SPoint(3, 4);
3
4 CPoint cPoint2 = cPoint1;
5 SPoint sPoint2 = sPoint1;
6
7 cPoint1.X = 5; cPoint1.Y = 6;
8 sPoint1.X = 7; sPoint1.Y = 8;
9
10 Console.WriteLine(cPoint1); // CPoint(X: 5, Y: 6)
11 Console.WriteLine(sPoint1); // SPoint(X: 7, Y: 8)
12 Console.WriteLine(cPoint2); // CPoint(X: 5, Y: 6)
13 Console.WriteLine(sPoint2); // SPoint(X: 3, Y: 4)
```

# Reference vs. Value types Allocation IV

## Explanation:

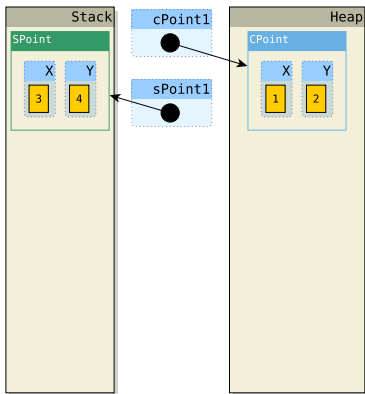
```
1 CPoint cPoint1 = new CPoint(1, 2);
```



# Reference vs. Value types Allocation V

## Explanation:

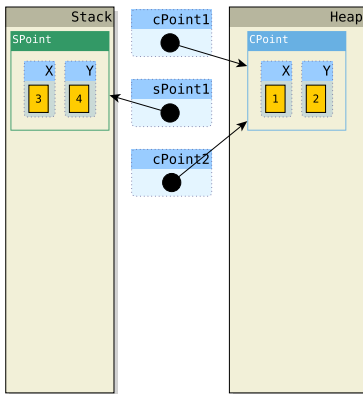
```
1 SPoint sPoint1 = new SPoint(3, 4);
```



# Reference vs. Value types Allocation VI

## Explanation:

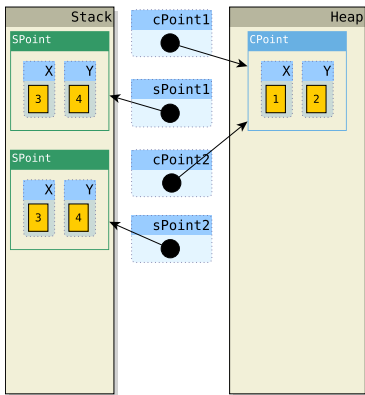
```
1 CPoint cPoint2 = cPoint1;
```



# Reference vs. Value types Allocation VII

## Explanation:

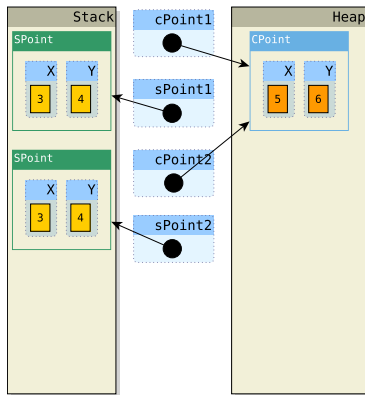
```
1 SPoint sPoint2 = sPoint1;
```



# Reference vs. Value types Allocation VIII

## Explanation:

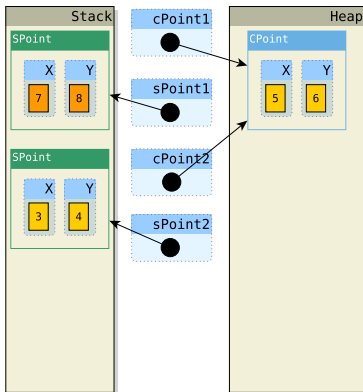
```
1 cPoint1.X = 5; cPoint1.Y = 6;
```



# Reference vs. Value types Allocation IX

## Explanation:

```
1 sPoint1.X = 7; sPoint1.Y = 8;
```





# Next In Line...

- 1 Structures
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  - **Boxing / Unboxing**
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# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing I

## Problem

- All structures are value types
- All structures are sub-types of `Object`, and, possibly, of some interface
- `Object` is a reference type, as well as all interfaces
- How can the Liskov substitution principle hold?

# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing II

## Boxing and unboxing

**Boxing:** value type  $\xrightarrow{\text{assign}}$  reference type

- when a value-type object is **assigned** to a reference-type variable, the object is **copied to the heap**

**Unboxing:** reference type  $\xrightarrow{\text{cast}}$  value type

- when a boxed object is **casted** back to a value type, the object is **copied to the stack**

## Keep in mind

- Boxing and unboxing are **slow** and should be minimised
- While unboxing is commonly explicit, boxing is often implicit
  - ▶ pay attention to the code you write to avoid unexpected boxing

# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing III

Consider again the CPoint-SPoint example:

```
1 CPoint cPoint1 = new CPoint(1, 2);  
2 SPoint sPoint1 = new SPoint(3, 4);  
3  
4 CPoint cPoint2 = cPoint1;  
5 SPoint sPoint2 = sPoint1;  
6  
7 cPoint1.X = 5; cPoint1.Y = 6;  
8 sPoint1.X = 7; sPoint1.Y = 8;
```

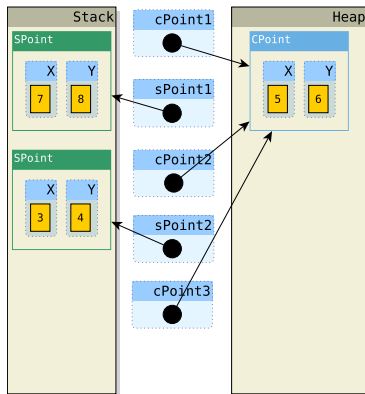
consider now the following additional code:

```
1 IPoint cPoint3 = cPoint2;  
2 IPoint sPoint3 = sPoint2; // BOXING  
3  
4 cPoint2.X = 9; cPoint2.Y = 0;  
5 sPoint2.X = 1; sPoint2.Y = 2;  
6  
7 Console.WriteLine(cPoint2); // CPoint(X: 9, Y: 0)  
8 Console.WriteLine(sPoint2); // SPoint(X: 1, Y: 2)  
9 Console.WriteLine(cPoint3); // CPoint(X: 9, Y: 0)  
10 Console.WriteLine(sPoint3); // SPoint(X: 3, Y: 4)
```

# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing IV

## Explanation:

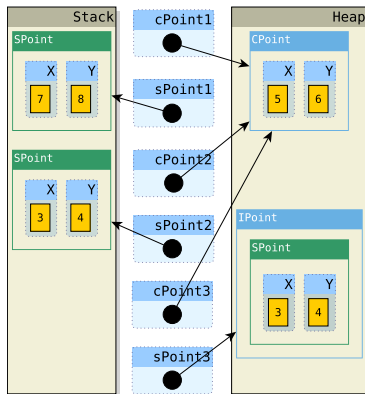
```
1 IPoint cPoint3 = cPoint2;
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing V

## Explanation:

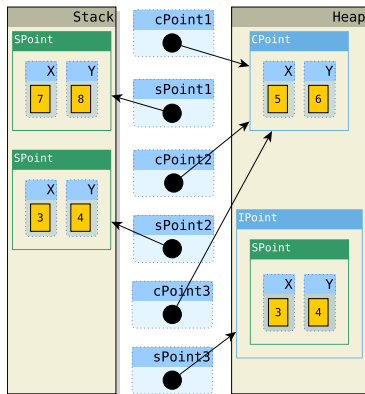
```
1 IPoint sPoint3 = sPoint2; // BOXING
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing VI

## Explanation:

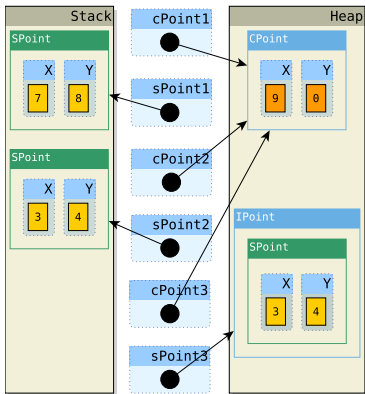
```
1 IPoint sPoint3 = sPoint2; // BOXING
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing VII

## Explanation:

```
1 cPoint2.X = 9; cPoint2.Y = 0;
```

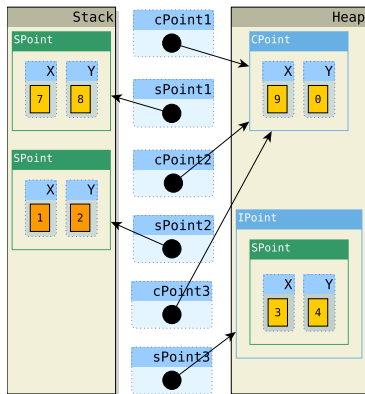




# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing VIII

## Explanation:

```
1 sPoint2.X = 1; sPoint2.Y = 2;
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing IX

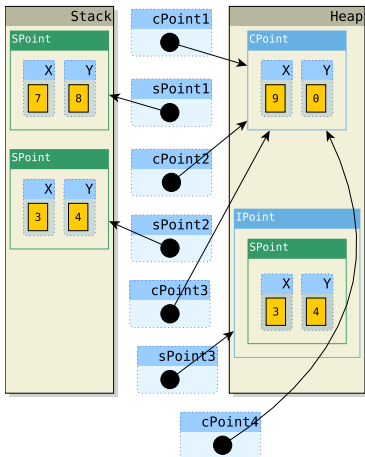
Unboxing is somewhat dual, despite it requires explicit cast:

```
1 CPoint cPoint4 = (CPoint)cPoint3;  
2 SPoint sPoint4 = (SPoint)sPoint3; // UNBOXING  
3  
4 cPoint3.X = 3; cPoint3.Y = 4;  
5 sPoint3.X = 5; sPoint3.Y = 6;  
6  
7 Console.WriteLine(cPoint3); // CPoint(X: 3, Y: 4)  
8 Console.WriteLine(sPoint3); // SPoint(X: 5, Y: 6)  
9 Console.WriteLine(cPoint4); // CPoint(X: 3, Y: 4)  
10 Console.WriteLine(sPoint4); // SPoint(X: 3, Y: 4)
```

# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing X

## Explanation:

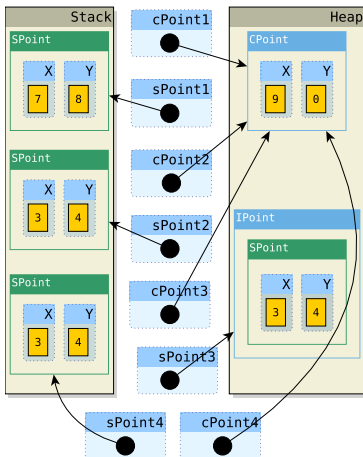
```
1 CPoint cPoint4 = (CPoint)cPoint3;
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing XI

## Explanation:

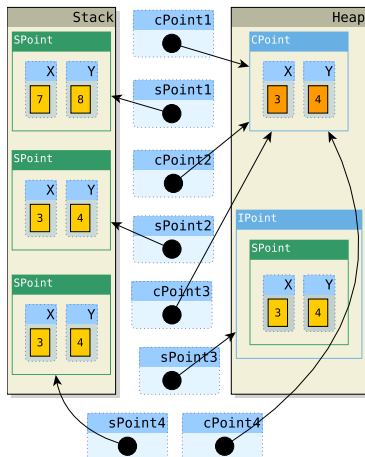
```
1 SPoint sPoint4 = (SPoint)sPoint3; // UNBOXING
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing XII

## Explanation:

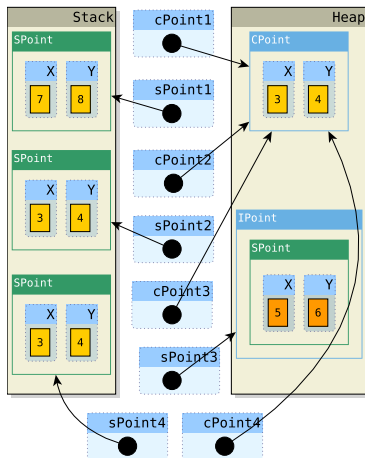
```
1 cPoint3.X = 3; cPoint3.Y = 4;
```



# Value Types – Boxing & Unboxing XIII

## Explanation:

```
1 sPoint3.X = 5; sPoint3.Y = 6;
```



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# Overview

- Parameters are **passed** among method calls in different ways
- Reference (resp. value) types are passed by-reference (resp. by value)
- In general, method calls cannot affect outer variables
  - ! they can alter objects referred by such variables, not their references
  - ie they can only provoke **side effects**
- Parameters marked as either `ref` or `out` can affect outer scopes
  - ie they can **change** what outer variables are referencing
- Parameters marked as `params` can occur 0, 1, or more times
  - ▶ these are commonly called “varargs” in other languages
  - such a mechanism lets a method accept a variable amount of arguments
- Parameters marked by `this` let a static method be called as an instance method



# Next In Line...

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# Method Calls with Value/Reference-Type Parameters I

## Ordinary Method Calls – General Rules

- When value-type object are passed, objects are cloned
- When reference-type object are passed, only references are cloned
- Altering parameters in methods bodies does not affect outer variables
- The use case is to support C-like input-output parameters

# Method Calls with Value/Reference-Type Parameters II

Consider for instance the following methods:

```
1 static void Inc(SomeReferenceType arg) =>
2     arg.SomeProperty += 1; // side effect on a reference type
3 static void Inc(SomeValueType arg) =>
4     arg.SomeProperty += 1; // USELESS side effect on a value type
5
6 static void Replace(SomeReferenceType arg) =>
7     arg = new SomeReferenceType(arg.SomeProperty + 1); // re-assigning a local parameter
8 static void Replace(SomeValueType arg) =>
9     arg = new SomeValueType(arg.SomeProperty + 1); // re-assigning a local parameter
```

# Method Calls with Value/Reference-Type Parameters III

```
1 SomeReferenceType value1 = new SomeReferenceType(1);
2 SomeValueType value2 = new SomeValueType(2);
3
4 Console.WriteLine(value1); // SomeReferenceType(1)
5 Console.WriteLine(value2); // SomeValueType(2)
6
7 Inc(value1); // attempts to increase a reference to value1
8 Inc(value2); // attempts to increase a clone of value1 (leaving value1 unaffected)
9
10 Console.WriteLine(value1); // SomeReferenceType(2)
11 Console.WriteLine(value2); // SomeValueType(2)
12
13 // notice that the objects referenced by value1 and value2 are always the same
14
15 Replace(value1); // has no effect
16 Replace(value2); // has no effect
17
18 Console.WriteLine(value1); // SomeReferenceType(2)
19 Console.WriteLine(value2); // SomeValueType(2)
20
21 // notice that the objects referenced by value1 and value2 are still the same
```

- method `Inc(SomeValueType)` is useless, since it always alters a local copy of `SomeValueType`
- method `Inc(SomeReferenceType)` works as expected
- both methods `Replace` are meaningless, as the modification they perform on their arguments are not propagated outside

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# Method Calls with `ref` Parameters I

## `ref` Parameters – General Rules

- Formal `ref` parameters are marked as `ref` in method signatures
- Actual `ref` parameters are marked as `ref` in method calls
- `ref` parameters are always passed by reference, even if value types
- Re-assigning a `ref` parameter implies re-assigning some the outer variable which has been passed upon method invocation

# Method Calls with ref Parameters II

Consider for instance the following methods:

```
1 static void IncRef(ref SomeReferenceType arg) =>
2     arg.SomeProperty += 1; // side effect on a reference type
3 static void IncRef(ref SomeValueType arg) =>
4     arg.SomeProperty += 1; // side effect on a value type (affects outer references too)
5
6 static void ReplaceRef(ref SomeReferenceType arg) =>
7     arg = new SomeReferenceType(arg.SomeProperty + 1); // re-assigns outer variables too
8 static void ReplaceRef(ref SomeValueType arg) =>
9     arg = new SomeValueType(arg.SomeProperty + 1); // re-assigns outer variables too
```

# Method Calls with ref Parameters III

```
1 SomeReferenceType value1 = new SomeReferenceType(1);
2 SomeValueType value2 = new SomeValueType(2);
3
4 Console.WriteLine(value1); // SomeReferenceType(1)
5 Console.WriteLine(value2); // SomeValueType(2)
6
7 IncRef(ref value1); // attempts to increase a reference to value1
8 IncRef(ref value2); // attempts to increase a reference to value2
9
10 Console.WriteLine(value1); // SomeReferenceType(2)
11 Console.WriteLine(value2); // SomeValueType(3)
12
13 // notice that the objects referenced by value1 and value2 are still the same
14
15 ReplaceRef(ref value1); // attempts to replace a reference to value1
16 ReplaceRef(ref value2); // attempts to replace a reference to value2
17
18 Console.WriteLine(value1); // SomeReferenceType(3)
19 Console.WriteLine(value2); // SomeValueType(4)
20
21 // notice that the objects referenced by value1 and value2 are DIFFERENT now
```

- outer variables are affected by methods manipulations!



# Method Calls with out Parameters I

## out Parameters – General Rules

- out parameters are like ref parameters...
- ...except that out parameters **must be assigned** before methods return
- and that ref arguments **must be initialised** before being passed
  - ▶ otherwise a compilation error is generated
- The use case is to support C-like output parameters

# Method Calls with out Parameters II

Consider for instance the following method:

```
1 static class Utils
2 {
3     public static bool TryFindIndex<T>(IEnumerable<T> list, T item, out uint index)
4     {
5         index = 0; // remove this line and the method won't compile
6         foreach (var x in list)
7         {
8             if (x.Equals(item)) return true;
9             index++;
10        }
11        return false;
12    }
13 }
```

- it attempts to look for the index of an item in an enumerable
  - ▶ returning true if the item is found
  - ▶ or false otherwise
- in case the item is found, its index is stored into the output parameters

# Method Calls with out Parameters III

## Usage example:

```
1 var list = new List<string>() { "a", "d", "c", "b" };
2 uint indexOfC;
3 if (Utils.TryFindIndex(list, "c", out indexOfC))
4 {
5     Console.WriteLine(indexOfC); // 2
6 }
7 else
8 {
9     Console.WriteLine("not found"); // NOT PRINTED
10 }
```

- Takeaway: they serve primarily to provide additional outputs beyond the return value

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# Method Calls with Variable Parameters I

## param Parameters – General Rules

- Parameters marked as `param` in method signatures. . .
- . . . can be provided in arbitrary amounts upon method calls  
eg 0, 1, or more
- They are treated as `arrays` within methods
- They are treated as ordinary arguments outside methods
- The use case is to support a variable amount of arguments as input

# Method Calls with Variable Parameters II

Consider for instance the following method:

```
1 static class CollectionUtils
2 {
3     public static ISet<T> SetOf<T>(T first, params T[] others)
4     {
5         var set = new HashSet<T>();
6         set.Add(first);
7         foreach (var item in others) set.Add(item);
8         return set;
9     }
10 }
```

- this is a generic method aimed at creating and filling an `ISet<T>`
- it accepts  $1 + N$  parameters of type `T`
  - ▶ where  $N$  may be 0, 1, or more
- it is handy since `T` is automatically inferred in method calls
  - ▶ and must not explicitly provided by developers

# Method Calls with Variable Parameters III

## Usage example:

```
1 // 1 + 2 parameters, implicit type
2 var set1 = CollectionUtils.SetOf("a", "b", "c"); // type of set1 is ISet<string>
3 foreach (string str in set1) Console.WriteLine(str); // a, b, c
4
5 // 1 + 5 parameters, explicit type
6 var set2 = CollectionUtils.SetOf<int>(1, 2, 2, 3, 4, 4); // type of set2 is ISet<int>
7 foreach (int num in set2) Console.WriteLine(num); // 1, 2, 3, 4
8
9 // 1 + 0 parameters, implicit type
10 var set3 = CollectionUtils.SetOf(Complex.Zero); // type of set3 is ISet<Complex>
11 foreach (Complex c in set3) Console.WriteLine(c); // 0
```

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## Extension Methods – General Rules

- Method defined in non-generic, non-nested **static classes** can be marked as extensions
- The **first argument** of an extension method is marked by **this**
- Extension methods may work as ordinary static methods...
- ...but they can also be called as if they were instance methods
  - ! instance methods of the type of the argument marked by **this**
- Their use case is to add functionalities to a pre-existing type
  - ▶ whose definition cannot or should not be extended/altered
    - eg interfaces, sealed classes, structures, enums, etc.
  - ▶ without requiring any edit to the type definition

# Extension Methods II

Consider for instance the following method:

```
1 public static string ToAlternateCase(this string input)
2 {
3     StringBuilder sb = new StringBuilder();
4     for (int i = 0; i < input.Length; i++)
5     {
6         var currentChar = "" + input[i];
7         sb.Append(i % 2 == 0 ? currentChar.ToUpper() : currentChar.ToLower());
8     }
9     return sb.ToString();
10 }
```

- it aims at converting a string into AlTeRnAtE CaSe
- it exploits a `StringBuilder`
  - ie an object aimed at creating a string incrementally
- notice the first argument is of type `string` and it is marked by `this`
  - ▶ meaning that this is an extension method, extending the `string` type
  - the method can be invoked on strings as an instance method:

```
1 Console.WriteLine("Hello World!".ToAlternateCase()); // HeLlO WoRlD!
2 Console.WriteLine(ToAlternateCase("Hello World!")); // HeLlO WoRlD!
```

## Generic Extension Method

- Common practice: combining extension and generic methods...
- ...to add functionalities to a wide range of type at once

# Extension Methods IV

Consider for instance the following method:

```
1 public static string ToString<T>(this IEnumerable<T> items, string delimiter,
2     string prefix, string suffix)
3 {
4     StringBuilder sb = new StringBuilder(prefix);
5     var e = items.GetEnumerator();
6     if (e.MoveNext()) sb.Append(e.Current.ToString());
7     while (e.MoveNext())
8     {
9         sb.Append(delimiter);
10        sb.Append(e.Current.ToString());
11    }
12    sb.Append(suffix);
13    return sb.ToString();
14 }
```

- it converts any enumerable of any type T into a string
- where the items of the enumerable are represented as strings, separated by delimiter
- and the whole string is wrapped between prefix and suffix

## Usage Example

```
1 IEnumerable<string> list = new List<string>() {"a", "b", "c"};  
2 Console.WriteLine(list.ToString(", ", "[" , "]")); // [a, b, c]  
3  
4 IEnumerable<int> enumerable = Enumerable.Range(1, 5);  
5 Console.WriteLine(enumerable.ToString("; ", "(" , ")")); // (1; 2; 3; 4; 5)
```

## Name clashing in Extension Methods

- Of course an extension method may have the same name of some actual instance method of a type
- ! When this is the case, actual instance methods take priority over extension methods

# Extension Methods VII

Consider for instance the following method:

```
1 public static string ToUpper(this string input) =>  
2     throw new ArgumentException("Error.");
```

- it is an extension methods for strings
  - notice the `String` class has an instance method named `ToUpper`
- in case of ambiguity, the original method of `String` is invoked

One can reveal this rule as follows:

```
1 Console.WriteLine("Hello World!".ToUpper()); // HELLO WORLD!  
2 Console.WriteLine(ToUpper("Hello World!")); // System.ArgumentException: Error.
```

- 1<sup>st</sup> invocation is ambiguous, then the original `ToUpper` method is called
- 2<sup>nd</sup> one is not, then the extension method is invoked
  - ▶ which provokes an exception!

# Outline

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- 3 Enums
- 4 Events and Listeners
- 5 Operator Overloading
- 6 LINQ



## About enums

- Enums are fixed-size groups of related constants  
eg days of week, months of the year, seasons, gender
- OOP languages usually represents groups of related constants as types
  - ▶ ...having a fixed amount of instances
- Such types are called **enum** types, and they have an ad-hoc syntax
- In .NET enums must be sub-types of some built-in integer type
  - ie (U)Int16/32/64, or (S)Byte
  - .NET enums are **value-types**
  - .NET enums are **integers**

## Syntax

```
enum <Name> [: <Integer Type>] { <Constants> }
```

- where *<Name>* is the name of the enum type being defined
- and *<Integer Type>* is one of (U)Int16/32/64, or (S)Byte
  - ▶ defaults to Int32 in case it is missing
- and *<Constants>* is a number of comma-separated symbols in PascalCase
  - ▶ optionally assigned to their values

# Enums III

## Example of enum

```
1 enum SingleDayOfWeek : byte // defaults to int if nothing is specified
2 {
3     Monday,      // defaults to 0
4     Tuesday,     // defaults to 1
5     Wednesday,   // defaults to 2
6     Thursday,    // defaults to 3
7     Friday,      // defaults to 4
8     Saturday,    // defaults to 5
9     Sunday       // defaults to 6
10 }
```

## Usage of enum

```
1 SingleDayOfWeek first = SingleDayOfWeek.Monday;
2 Console.WriteLine(first); // Monday
3 Console.WriteLine((byte)first); // 0
4 SingleDayOfWeek second = (SingleDayOfWeek)1;
5 Console.WriteLine(second == SingleDayOfWeek.Tuesday); // true
6 Console.WriteLine(second > SingleDayOfWeek.Sunday); // false
7 Console.WriteLine(second + 1); // Wednesday
```

- notice enums are essentially integers

## Common practice: flag enums

- If an enum values are less than 64...
- ...and you may need to group enum values together
- then you may consider implementing you enum as a **flag**
- Flag enums are enums whose values correspond to powers of 2
  - ▶ bitwise operators can then be exploited to speed-up or simplify some tasks

# Flag Enums II

Consider again the SingleDayOfWeek:

```
1 enum SingleDayOfWeek : byte // defaults to int if nothing is specified
2 {
3     Monday,      // defaults to 0
4     Tuesday,     // defaults to 1
5     Wednesday,   // defaults to 2
6     Thursday,    // defaults to 3
7     Friday,      // defaults to 4
8     Saturday,    // defaults to 5
9     Sunday       // defaults to 6
10 }
```

- this is not a flag enum (values are not powers of 2)

# Flag Enums III

Imagine you need a means to determine if a day is:

1. part of the weekend or not
2. even or odd (knowing that Sunday is not considered as even nor as odd)

```
1 public static bool IsWeekend(SingleDayOfWeek day) =>
2     day > SingleDayOfWeek.Friday;
3
4 public static bool IsOdd(SingleDayOfWeek day) =>
5     (int)day % 2 == 0 && day != SingleDayOfWeek.Sunday;
```

- these methods must take the indexing of values into account

# Flag Enums IV

Alternatively, one may model the days of week as a flag enum:

```
1 [Flags] // notice this attribute!  
2 enum DaysOfWeek : byte  
3 {  
4     None = 0,  
5     Monday = 1,  
6     Tuesday = 2,  
7     Wednesday = 4,  
8     Thursday = 16,  
9     Friday = 32,  
10    Saturday = 64,  
11    Sunday = 128,  
12  
13    WorkingDays = Monday | Thursday | Wednesday | Thursday | Friday,  
14    Weekend = Saturday | Sunday,  
15  
16    EvenDays = Tuesday | Thursday | Saturday,  
17    OddDays = Monday | Wednesday | Friday  
18 }
```

- groups of days can be modelled as well

# Flag Enums V

## Why do flag enums need power of two?

- Each position in an integer correspond to the presence/lack of a value
- Sets of values can be represented as by integers

Monday	=	1	=	00000001
Wednesday	=	4	=	00000100
Friday	=	16	=	00010000
<hr/>				
None	=	0	=	00000000
OddDays	=	21	=	00010101

So, the aforementioned methods can be conveniently implemented:

```
1 public static bool IsWeekend(DaysOfWeek day) =>
2     (day & DaysOfWeek.Weekend) != DaysOfWeek.None;
3
4 public static bool IsOdd(DaysOfWeek day) =>
5     (day & DaysOfWeek.OddDays) != DaysOfWeek.None;
```



# The Enum class I

## About the Enum class

- It is the super-type of all enums
- It comes with a number of useful static methods aimed at:
  - ▶ Enumerate the values of a given enum
  - ▶ Parse the values of a given enum from string
  - ▶ Get the names of the values of a given array
- cf. <https://docs.microsoft.com/dotnet/api/system.enum>

# The Enum class II

## Example 1 – Enumerating values and getting names

```
1 foreach (SingleDayOfWeek day in Enum.GetValues(typeof(SingleDayOfWeek)))
2 {
3     bool valueIsWeekend = IsWeekend(day);
4     string name = Enum.GetName(typeof(SingleDayOfWeek), day);
5     Console.WriteLine(name + ", weekend: " + valueIsWeekend);
6 }
```

```
1 Monday weekend: False
2 Tuesday weekend: False
3 Wednesday weekend: False
4 Thursday weekend: False
5 Friday weekend: False
6 Saturday weekend: True
7 Sunday weekend: True
```

# The Enum class III

## Example 2 – Parsing values

```
1 foreach (var name in new string[] { "monday", "tuesday", "wednesday", "thursday",  
2   "friday", "saturday", "sunday" })  
3 {  
4     DaysOfWeek day = Enum.Parse<DaysOfWeek>(name, /* ignore case: */ true);  
5     bool valueIsWeekend = IsOdd(day);  
6     Console.WriteLine(day + ", odd: " + valueIsWeekend);  
7 }
```

```
1 Monday, odd: True  
2 Tuesday, odd: False  
3 Wednesday, odd: True  
4 Thursday, odd: False  
5 Friday, odd: True  
6 Saturday, odd: False  
7 Sunday, odd: False
```

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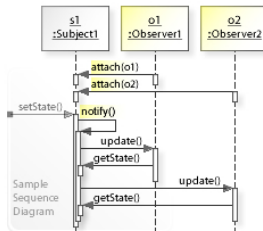
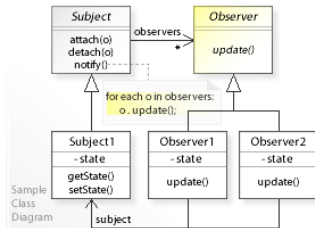
# The Observer Pattern I

Observer pattern<sup>1</sup> (a.k.a. event-listener, a.k.a. publish-subscribe):

- lets an entity **react** to relevant events concerning another entity
- two entities involved:
  - subject** is the entity whose events are of interest
    - aka** observable, publisher, or event source
  - observer** is the entity willing to react to events
    - aka** listener, or subscriber
- involves two phases:
  1. the observer registers its interest to the subject
  2. the subject notifies all the registered observers whenever an event occurs

# The Observer Pattern II

- in OOP, event notification are commonly reified into method calls
- when reified into OOP code, the subject needs 3 methods
  1. a method to let subjects register
  2. a method to let subjects unregister
  3. a (possibly private) method to propagate events to observers
- when reified into OOP code, the observer needs 1 method
  - ▶ specifying what to do whenever a new event notification is
- in a nutshell:



<sup>1</sup>cf. [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Observer\\_pattern](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Observer_pattern)

# .NET Events I

## About .NET events

- .NET provides **built-in support** to the **observer pattern** via **events**
- Events are yet another sort of **member** in .NET classes/interfaces
  - ▶ The **event source/listener** nomenclature is adopted in .NET
  - ▶ Classes corresponding to event sources may expose a number of named events
  - ▶ Each event defines the type of the listener which may register to it
- Event listeners are instances of some delegate type (i.e. functions)

## Syntax – Definition Side

```
event <Delegate Type> <Event Name>;
```

- where *<Event Name>* is the name of the event, PascalCase
- and *<Delegate Type>* is some delegate denoting the possible type of listeners for *<Event Name>*
  - ▶ most commonly `Action<T>`



## Syntax – Usage Side (Listener Registration)

```
<Object> . <Event Name> += <Event Listener>;  
or  
<Object> . <Event Name> -= <Event Listener>;
```

- to (un)register an *<Event Listener>* for *<Event Name>*
- assuming *<Object>* defines an event named *<Event Name>*
- and *<Event Listener>* matches the type of *<Event Name>*

## Syntax – Usage Side (Event Propagation)

```
<Object>.<Event Name>?.Invoke(<Args>);
```

or

```
if (<Object>.<Event Name> != null) {  
    <Object>.<Event Name>(<Args>) }  
}
```

- where the amounts and types of *<Args>* depend on the type of *<Event Name>*

# .NET Events – Example I

## An interface exposing an event

```
1 interface IButton
2 {
3     string Purpose { get; }
4
5     void Press();
6
7     // event name: OnPressed
8     // type of listeners: any method accepting a string and returning void
9     event Action<string> OnPressed;
10 }
```

- instances of `IButton` are buttons having a particular purpose  
eg the name of the button (Esc, Enter, Tab, etc.)
- buttons can be pressed via the `Press()` method
- whenever the button is pressed, the `OnPressed` event is propagated to listeners
  - ▶ and the purpose of the event is passed to each listener

# .NET Events – Example II

## A class triggering an event

```
1 class Button : IButton
2 {
3     public Button(string purpose)
4     {
5         Purpose = purpose;
6     }
7
8     public string Purpose { get; }
9
10    public void Press()
11    {
12        if (OnPressed != null) OnPressed(Purpose); // propagates to ALL listeners
13        // or simply: OnPressed?.Invoke(Purpose);
14    }
15
16    public event Action<string> OnPressed;
17 }
```

# .NET Events – Example III

## Usage of events

```
1 static void OnButtonPressed(string purpose) =>
2     Console.WriteLine($"{purpose} has been pressed, caught by method");
3
4 static void Main(string[] args)
5 {
6     Action<string> listener = purpose => {
7         Console.WriteLine($"{purpose} has been pressed, caught by lambda");
8     };
9     IButton esc = new Button("Esc");
10    esc.OnPressed += listener; // adding a listener: reference to lambda
11    IButton enter = new Button("Enter");
12    enter.OnPressed += OnButtonPressed; // adding a listener: reference to method
13
14    esc.Press(); // Esc has been pressed, caught by lambda
15    enter.Press(); // Enter has been pressed, caught by method
16 }
```

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# Inconsistencies in C# Operators

## Consider the == operator...

- It compares reference types by reference (i.e. checks for identity)
- It compares strings by value
  - ! notice that strings are reference types!
- It compares integers by value
- 

## Consider the += operator...

- It compares increases numbers
- It concatenates strings
- It adds listeners to events
- 

! How are all such inconsistencies possible?

# Operators Overloading I

## Definition

Operator overloading is a feature letting OOP languages redefine the semantics of some operators on a per-type basis

## In .NET

- .NET supports operator overloading on classes, via static methods
  - ▶ since version 8, operator overloading is supported for interfaces too
- only a predefined set of operators can be overloaded
  - eg `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `==`, `!=`, `>`, `<`, etc
  - ▶ priority and associativity of operators cannot be altered
- classes/interfaces are not constrained to overload all operators
- explicit/implicit casts may be defined as well, via operator overloading
- some built-in classes overload some operators
  - eg `String` overloads at least `+`, `==`, and `!=`



# Operators Overloading II

## Syntax – Unary Operator

```
public static  $\langle T_2 \rangle$  operator  $\langle Symbol \rangle$ ( $\langle T_1 \rangle$   $\langle N_1 \rangle$ ) {  $\langle Code \rangle$  }
```

- represents a unary operator producing an object of type  $\langle T_2 \rangle$
- out an object of type  $\langle T_1 \rangle$
- which can be used with prefix syntax, via  $\langle Symbol \rangle$   
eg +, -, !, etc.
- ! commonly,  $\langle T_1 \rangle$  and  $\langle T_2 \rangle$  are equal to the hosting type

# Operators Overloading III

## Syntax – Binary Operator

```
public static  $\langle T_3 \rangle$  operator  $\langle Symbol \rangle$ ( $\langle T_1 \rangle$   $\langle N_1 \rangle$ ,  $\langle T_2 \rangle$   $\langle N_2 \rangle$ )  
    {  $\langle Code \rangle$  }
```

- represents a binary operator producing an object of type  $\langle T_3 \rangle$
- out of two objects of types  $\langle T_1 \rangle$  and  $\langle T_2 \rangle$
- which can be used with infix syntax, via  $\langle Symbol \rangle$   
eg +, -, \*, /, ==, !=, >, <, etc
- ! commonly,  $\langle T_1 \rangle$  and  $\langle T_2 \rangle$  are equal to the hosting type

# Operators Overloading IV

## Syntax – Cast Operator

```
public static  $\langle Usage \rangle$  operator  $\langle T_2 \rangle$  ( $\langle T_1 \rangle$   $\langle N_1 \rangle$ ) {  $\langle Code \rangle$  }
```

- where  $\langle Usage \rangle$  is either **implicit** or **explicit**
- The notation above creates an implicit/explicit casting operator
- converting an object of type  $\langle T_1 \rangle$  into an object of type  $\langle T_2 \rangle$
- ! commonly,  $\langle T_2 \rangle$  (resp.  $\langle T_1 \rangle$ ) is equal to the hosting type for implicit (resp. explicit) operators
  - ▶ usually other types are **implicitly** casted to the hosting type
  - ▶ usually the hosting type is **explicitly** casted to other type

# Operators Overloading – Example I

## Complex Numbers with Operators

```
1 public class Complex
2 {
3     public static readonly Complex I = new Complex(0, 1);
4
5     public static Complex Polar(double modulus, double phase) =>
6         new Complex(modulus * Math.Cos(phase), modulus * Math.Sin(phase));
7
8     public Complex(double real, double imaginary) { Real = real; Imaginary = imaginary; }
9
10
11     public double Real { get; }
12     public double Imaginary { get; }
13     public double Modulus => Math.Sqrt(Real * Real + Imaginary * Imaginary);
14     public double Phase => Math.Atan2(Imaginary, Real);
15
16
17     public override string ToString() => $"{Real} + {Imaginary}*i";
18
19     public override int GetHashCode() => GetHashCode.Combine(Real, Imaginary);
20
21     public override bool Equals(object obj)
22     {
23         var other = obj as Complex;
24         return !ReferenceEquals(other, null)
25             && Real.Equals(other.Real)
26             && Imaginary.Equals(other.Imaginary);
27     }
28 }
```

# Operators Overloading – Example II

```
28 public static Complex operator -(Complex c) => new Complex(-c.Real, -c.Imaginary);
29 public static Complex operator +(Complex c1, Complex c2) =>
30     new Complex(c1.Real + c2.Real, c1.Imaginary + c2.Imaginary);
31 public static Complex operator -(Complex c1, Complex c2) => c1 + (-c2);
32 public static Complex operator *(Complex c1, Complex c2) =>
33     Polar(c1.Modulus * c2.Modulus, c1.Phase + c2.Phase);
34 public static Complex operator /(Complex c1, Complex c2) =>
35     Polar(c1.Modulus / c2.Modulus, c1.Phase - c2.Phase);
36
37
38 public static bool operator ==(Complex c1, Complex c2) => c1.Equals(c2);
39 public static bool operator !=(Complex c1, Complex c2) => !(c1 == c2);
40
41 public static implicit operator Complex(double x) => new Complex(x, 0);
42 public static explicit operator double(Complex c) =>
43     c.Imaginary == 0.0 ? c.Real : throw new InvalidCastException("Not a real: " + c);
44 }
```

# Operators Overloading – Example III

Notice that:

- 1 unary operator (i.e. `-`), negating both components of a `Complex`
- 4 binary operators (i.e. `+`, `-`, `/`, `*`) are defined to accept and return `Complexes`
  - ▶ either working on real/imaginary components or on modulus and phase
  - ! notice that binary minus is defined in terms of other operators
- 2 comparison operators (i.e. `==`, `!=`) are defined in terms of `Complex.Equals`
- implicit casts from `double` to `Complex` are allowed
  - ▶ or from anything that can be implicitly casted to `double`, e.g. `int`
- explicit casts from `Complex` to `double` are allowed
  - ▶ but only work if the imaginary part is 0

# Operators Overloading – Example IV

## Usage of Complex Numers with Operators

```
1  int one = 1;
2  Complex c = one + Complex.I; // implicit cast from int to double and then to Complex
3  Console.WriteLine(c); // 1 + 1*i
4  c *= 2; // implicit cast from int to double and then to Complex, before multiplication
5  Console.WriteLine(c); // 2,0000000000000004 + 2*i
6  c = 1 / c; // "inverse" operator is somewhat implicitly defined
7  Console.WriteLine(c); // 0,25 + -0,24999999999999994*i
8  c += Complex.I * 0.25; // "multiply by scalar" is somewhat implicitly defined
9  Console.WriteLine(c); // 0,25 + 5,551115123125783E-17*i
10 c = (double) c; // InvalidCastException: Not a real: 0,25 + 5,551115123125783E-17*i
11 Console.WriteLine(c); // NOT EXECUTED
```

# Operators Overloading – Remarks

## Beware of Languages supporting Operator Overloading

- You never know what's the meaning of an operator until you **read the doc**
- Nobody constrains developers to implement **meaningful** operators
- Do not endow your types with operators unless their meaning is **obvious**!

## Reference Comparison vs Value Comparison

- Operators `==` and `!=` test identity by default
- By they may be overloaded to test for equality
- When this is the case, how can identity be tested?
- This is the purposed of the `Object.ReferenceEquals` static method



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# The Need for LINQ I

Consider the algorithm `GetTripledFirstNEvenNumbers` which

- accepts an enumerable of integers as input
- and returns an enumerable containing no more than  $N$  numbers. . .
- and these numbers are **tripled** w.r.t. the **first  $N$  even** numbers in the input enumerable

eg the algorithm applied to `[7, 6, 2, 9, 10, 4, 2, ...]`

- ▶ should return `[18, 6, 30, 12]`
- ▶ provided that  $N = 4$

# The Need for LINQ II

We may implement the algorithm as follows:

```
1 static IEnumerable<int> GetTripledFirstNEvenNumbers2(IEnumerable<int> items, int n)
2 {
3     var list = new List<int>();
4     foreach (var item in items)
5     {
6         if (item % 2 == 0)
7         {
8             list.Add(item * 3);
9             n--;
10        }
11        if (n == 0) break;
12    }
13    return list;
14 }
```

- yet, this code steps through the unnecessary construction of an intermediate list
  - ▶ this may be inefficient, e.g. in case of large  $N$

# The Need for LINQ III

We may then use `yield` to make the algorithm totally **lazy**:

```
1 static IEnumerable<int> GetTripledFirstNEvenNumbers3(IEnumerable<int> items, int n)
2 {
3     foreach (var item in items)
4     {
5         if (item % 2 == 0)
6         {
7             yield return item * 3;
8             n--;
9         }
10        if (n == 0) yield break;
11    }
12 }
```

- this is technically ok, but still very verbose
- you need to carefully read it to understand what's going on

## Computational laziness

*No computation is actually performed until the very last useful moment*

# The Need for LINQ IV

We may rewrite the same algorithm in functional style, to make it more declarative:

```
1 static IEnumerable<int> GetTripledFirstNEvenNumbers4(IEnumerable<int> items, int n) =>
2     items.Where(item => item % 2 == 0)
3         .Select(even => even * 3)
4         .Take(n);
```

- laziness is retained
- the code is more concise and declarative
- “phases” of computation are made evident
- ! this is the essence of LINQ

# The Need for LINQ V

We may also consider of re-writing the algorithm in SQL-like syntax:

```
1 static IEnumerable<int> GetTripledFirstNEvenNumbers5(IEnumerable<int> items, int n) =>  
2     (  
3         from item in items  
4         where item % 2 == 0  
5         select item * 3  
6     ).Take(n);
```

- this implies interpreting the input enumerable as an abstract database
- more practical, if you are confident with SQL

## What is LINQ

- A portion of the .NET framework
- Aimed at manipulating any sort of data-source which can be enumerated
  - ▶ ranging from in-memory collections, to remote databases, stepping through files
- Via a rich library of high-order functions
- and syntactical tricks aimed at making data manipulation very quick (to write)
  - eg an (optional) SQL-like syntax

# LINQ – Language-INtegrated Query II

## How does LINQ work

- Via a bunch of extension methods defined in `System.Linq.Enumerable`
- Allowing several sorts of operations on any sort of `IEnumerable<T>`
- Most notable sorts of operations:
  - `provisioning` — a (possibly long/infinite) stream of data is lazily generated / read from some source
  - `transformation` — an enumerable is transformed into another enumerable
  - `reduction` — a value is computed out of an enumerable
- Operations are `pipelined`
  - ▶ each operation is lazy, and it performs as less computations as possible



# LINQ – Language-INtegrated Query III

EXPLAIN LINQ TO A FIVE YEAR OLD

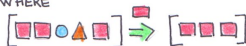
SELECT



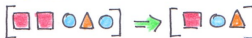
SELECT MANY



WHERE



DISTINCT



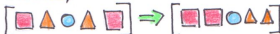
CAST



OF TYPE



ORDER BY



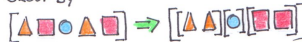
ORDER BY DESCENDING



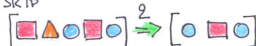
REVERSE



GROUP BY



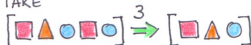
SKIP



SKIP WHILE



TAKE



TAKE WHILE



BASED ON THE ORIGINAL SYMBOLS  
BY MARTIN FOWLER

© WIDEC

## Example of provisioning operations

```
1 // Generates an infinite stream of values by calling a function over and over again
2 static IEnumerable<T> Generate<T>(Func<T> provider)
3 {
4     while (true)
5         provider();
6 }
7
8 // Generates a stream of integers ranging from min to max, incremented by delta at each
step
9 static IEnumerable<int> Range<T>(int min, int max, int delta)
10 {
11     for (; min < max; min += delta)
12         yield return min;
13 }
```

# LINQ – Language-INtegrated Query V

## Example of transformation operations

```
1 // Transforms the enumerable by applying a function to each item
2 static IEnumerable<R> Select<T, R>(this IEnumerable<T> items, Func<T, R> transform)
3 {
4     foreach (var item in items)
5         yield return transform(item);
6 }
7
8 // Filters out from the stream those items for which a predicate does not hold
9 static IEnumerable<T> Where<T>(this IEnumerable<T> items, Func<T, bool> filter)
10 {
11     foreach (var item in items)
12         if (filter(item))
13             yield return item;
14 }
15
16 // Only takes the first n items in the input enumerable
17 static IEnumerable<T> Take<T>(this IEnumerable<T> items, int n)
18 {
19     foreach (var item in items)
20     {
21         if (n > 0)
22         {
23             yield return item;
24             n--;
25         }
26         else yield break;
27     }
28 }
```

# LINQ – Language-INtegrated Query VI

## Example of reduction operations

```
1 // Gets the maximum value in a stream, given a comparer
2 static T Max<T>(this IEnumerable<T> items, Func<T, T, int> comparer) where T : class
3 {
4     T max = null;
5     foreach (var item in items)
6         if (comparer(item, max) > 0)
7             max = item;
8     return max;
9 }
10
11 // Gets the minimum value in a stream, given a comparer
12 static T Min<T>(this IEnumerable<T> items, Func<T, T, int> comparer) where T : class =>
13     items.Max((a, b) => -comparer(a, b));
```