

Mobile Programming

Kotlin Basics - Part II

Agenda

- Loop: for/while
- Function
- **■** OOP

Loop: for (1/2)

- Iterates through anything that provides an iterator
- Basic syntax

```
for (item in collection) print(item)
```

```
for (item: Int in ints) {
    // ...
}
```

- Iterate over a range of numbers (x..y)
 - > step: iterate over numbers with an arbitrary step
 - downTo: iterate numbers in reverse order
 - > until: iterate a number range which does not include its end element

Loop: for (2/2)

Example)

```
for (i in 1..3) {
   Log.d("ITM", "$i")
for (i in 6 downTo 0) {
  Log.d("ITM", "$i")
for (i in 1..11 step 3) {
  Log.d("ITM", "$i")
for (i in 6 downTo 0 step 2) {
   Log.d("ITM", "$i")
for (i in 1 until 11 step 2){
  Log.d("ITM","$i")
```

```
val arr = IntArray(5){it+1}

for (i in arr) {
    Log.d("ITM","$i")
}

for ((index, i) in arr.withIndex()) {
    Log.d("ITM","$index's value= $i")
}

arr.forEach { Log.d("ITM","$it") }
```

Loop: while

- while
 - Checks the condition first and then executes the body
- do-while
 - > Executes the body first and then checks the condition

```
for (i in 1..10) {
  Log.d("ITM", "$i")
var num =1
while (num <= 10) {
  Log.d("ITM", "$num")
  num++
var num2 =1
do{
  Log.d("ITM", "$num2")
  num2++
} while(num2<=10)</pre>
```

Loop: continue & break (1/2)

continue

Proceeds to the next step of the nearest enclosing loop

break

Terminates the nearest enclosing loop

break/continue with labels

➤ Labels have the form of an identifier followed by the @ sign

```
loop@ for (i in 1..100) {
    // ...
}
```

break/continue with label breaks/continues the loop specified with that label!

Loop: continue & break (2/2)

- Example)
 - Normal continue/break in the nested loop

```
for (i in 1..3) {
    for (j in 1..5) {
        if (j % 2 == 0) continue // break
        Log.d("ITM", "$i, $j")
    }
}
```

Labeled continue/break in the nested loop

```
outer@ for (i in 1..3) {
    for (j in 1..5) {
        if (j % 2 == 0) continue@outer // break@outer
        Log.d("ITM", "$i, $j")
    }
}
```

Function (1/8)

■ Kotlin functions are declared using the *fun* keyword

```
fun name parameter name parameter type
fun double(x: Int): Int {
body-{ return 2 * x return type
}
```

- How to use a function?
 - > Just call it!

```
val result = double(2)
```

Function (2/8)

Parameters

- Defined using Pascal notation name: type
- Separated using commas, and each parameter must be explicitly typed

```
fun powerOf(number: Int, exponent: Int): Int { /*...*/ }
```

Default arguments

- > Parameters can have default values, used when you skip the corresponding argument
- Default value is defined using = after the type

```
fun read(
    b: ByteArray,
    off: Int = 0,
    len: Int = b.size,
) { /*...*/ }
```

Function (3/8)

- Named arguments
 - > When calling a function, you can name one or more of its arguments

```
fun reformat(
    str: String,
    normalizeCase: Boolean = true,
    upperCaseFirstLetter: Boolean = true,
    divideByCamelHumps: Boolean = false,
    wordSeparator: Char = ' ',
) { /*...*/ }
```

```
reformat(
    "String!",
    false,
    upperCaseFirstLetter = false,
    divideByCamelHumps = true,
    '_'
)
```

Parameters with default values can be skipped

```
reformat("This is a long String!")
```

Function (4/8)

- Unit returning functions
 - Unit: similar to void of Java

- If a function does not return a useful value, then its return type is Unit!
 - This value (Unit) does not have to be returned explicitly
 - ➤ The Unit return type declaration is also optional

```
fun printHello(name: String?): Unit {
  if (name != null)
    Log.d("ITM","Hello $name")
  else
    Log.d("ITM","Hi there!")
  // `return Unit` or `return` is optional
}
```

Function (5/8)

- Lambda expression
 - > Functions that are not declared but are passed immediately as an expression

```
max(strings, { a, b -> a.length < b.length })

Expression that is itself a function

fun compare(a: String, b: String): Boolean = a.length < b.length</pre>
```

Function (6/8)

Lambda expression syntax

```
val sum: (Int, Int) -> Int = { x: Int, y: Int -> x + y }

Type annotation
```

- Always surrounded by curly braces
- Parameter declarations in the full syntactic form go inside curly braces and have optional type annotations

parameters

body

```
val sum = \{ x: Int, y: Int -> x + y \}
```

- > The body goes after the ->
- ➤ If the inferred return type of the lambda is not Unit, the last expression inside the lambda body is treated as the return value

Function (7/8)

Trailing Lambdas

➤ If the last parameter of a function is a function, then a lambda expression passed as the corresponding argument can be placed outside the parentheses

```
val product = items.fold(1) { acc, e -> acc * e }
```

➤ If the lambda is the only argument in that call, the parentheses can be omitted entirely

```
run { println("...") }
```

Function (8/8)

- it: implicit name of a single parameter
 - ➤ If the compiler can parse the signature without any parameters, the parameter does not need to be declared
 - > -> can be omitted
 - > The parameter will be implicitly declared under the name it

```
ints.filter { it > 0 }
```

- Returning a value from a lambda expression
 - > The value of the last expression is implicitly returned

Example: Lambda

- Example on Lambda
 - High-order function: a function that takes functions as parameters, or returns a function

```
class MainActivity : AppCompatActivity() {
  override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
     super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
     setContentView(R.layout.activity main)
     val sum = \{x:Int, y:Int \rightarrow x+y\}
     val multiply:(Int,Int)-> Unit ={ x, y ->
        Log.d("ITM","x * y = \{x * y\}")
     Log.d("ITM","by lambda: ${sum(2,3)}")
     Log.d("ITM","by function: ${sum1(2,3)}")
     \text{multiply}(3,4)
     Log.d("ITM", highOrderFun({ x:Int, y:Int -> x.toString()+y.toString()}))
  fun sum1(x:Int, y:Int):Int{
     return x + y
  fun highOrderFun(f:(Int, Int)->(String)): String {
     return f(2,3)
```

Example: Lambda

... from previous lecture

```
val numbers = listOf("one", "two", "three", "four", "five", "six")
Log.d("ITM", numbers.first { it.length > 3 })
Log.d("ITM", numbers.last { it.startsWith("f") })

val numbers2 = listOf(1, 2, 3, 4)
Log.d("ITM","${(numbers2.find { it % 2 == 0 })}")
Log.d("ITM","${numbers2.findLast { it % 2 == 0 }}")
```

Use of lambda function

```
val numbers2 = listOf(1, 2, 3, 4)

Log.d("ITM", "1: f(0) = 0 | f
```

OOP: Class

- Classes in Kotlin are declared using the keyword *class*
 - Class declaration consists of
 - Class name
 - Class header (specifying its type parameters, the primary constructor, and some other things)
 - Class body surrounded by curly braces

```
class ClassName {
    var Variable
    fun Function() {
        // code
    }
}
```

OOP: Constructors (1/5)

- A primary constructor
 - > Part of the class header
 - ➤ If the primary constructor does not have any annotations or visibility modifiers, the constructor keyword can be omitted

```
class Person constructor(firstName: String) { /*...*/ }

class Person(firstName: String) { /*...*/ }
```

Initialization code can be placed in initializer blocks prefixed with the init keyword

OOP: Constructors (2/5)

A primary constructor

- > The initializer blocks are executed in the same order as they appear in the class body
- Primary constructor parameters can be used in the initializer blocks as well as property initializers
- Adding val/var to parameters makes them class properties

OOP: Constructors (3/5)

- One or more secondary constructors
 - Prefixed with constructor

```
class Person(val pets: MutableList<Pet> = mutableListOf())

class Pet {
    constructor(owner: Person) {
       owner.pets.add(this) // adds this pet to the list of its owner's pets
    }
}
```

- ➤ If the class has a primary constructor, each secondary constructor needs to delegate to the primary constructor, either directly or indirectly through another secondary constructor(s)
- Delegation to another constructor of the same class is done using this keyword

```
class Person(val name: String) {
   var children: MutableList<Person> = mutableListOf()
   constructor(name: String, parent: Person) : this(name) {
      parent.children.add(this)
   }
}
```

OOP: Constructors (4/5)

- Delegation to the primary constructor happens as the first statement of a secondary constructor
- The code in all initializer blocks and property initializers is executed before the body of the secondary constructor
 - > Even if the class has no primary constructor, the delegation still happens implicitly, and the initializer blocks are still executed

```
class Constructors {
   init {
      println("Init block")
   }

constructor(i: Int) {
      println("Constructor $i")
   }
}
```

OOP: Constructors (5/5)

- Example)
 - Class with primary and secondary constructors
 - Class without primary, but with secondary constructor

```
class MainActivity : AppCompatActivity() {
  override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
     super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
     setContentView(R.layout.activity_main)
     val instance = InitOrderDemo(20)
     val instance2 = InitOrderDemo2(20)
class InitOrderDemo(name: String) {
  val firstProperty = "First property: $name"
  init {
     Log.d("ITM", "First initializer block that prints ${name}")
  val secondProperty = "Second property: ${name.length}"
  constructor(age: Int) : this("hey") {
     Log.d("ITM", "Secondary constructor block that prints ${age}")
class InitOrderDemo2 {
  init{
     Log.d("ITM","Init body")
  constructor(age: Int) {
     Log.d("ITM", "Secondary constructor block that prints ${age}")
```

OOP: Class Properties

■ Properties can be declared either as mutable (var), or as read-only (val)

```
class Address {
  var name: String = "default"
    get() = field
    set(value) { field = value+", Korea" }
  val street: String = "Baker"
  val city: String = "London"
  var state: String? = null
  var zip: String = "123456"
}
```

- Custom getter/setter is also possible
 - Backing field is required if you want to access the property itself

OOP: Object and Companion Object

- Singleton language support
 - > You can access the member of Object without instantiation
 - Companion object: Object declaration inside a class
 - marked with the companion keyword

```
object ITM {
  val numStudents = 60
  fun print(){
     Log.d("ITM", "we don't love Kotlin")
class IE {
  companion object {
     val numStudents = 30
     fun print(){
       Log.d("ITM", "we don't like Kotlin")
  fun graduate(){
     Log.d("ITM", "No. Go to graduate school!")
```

```
Log.d("ITM","${ITM.numStudents}")
ITM.print()

// IE.graduate()
Log.d("ITM","${IE.numStudents}")
IE.print()

// val myIE = IE()
myIE.graduate()
```

OOP: Data Class (1/2)

Classes whose main purpose is to hold data

```
data class User(val name: String, val age: Int)
```

- ➤ The compiler automatically derives the following members from all properties declared in the primary constructor:
 - equals()/ hashCode() pair
 - toString() of the form "User(name=John, age=42)"
 - copy()
 - To copy an object, allowing you to alter some of its properties while keeping the rest unchanged
 - . .

OOP: Data Class (2/2)

Example)

```
data class User(val name: String, val age: Int)
class MainActivity : AppCompatActivity() {
  override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
     super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
     setContentView(R.layout.activity_main)
     val uData = User("jinwoo",38)
     Log.d("ITM",uData.toString())
     val uData2 = uData.copy(age=28)
     Log.d("ITM", "this is real: ${uData2.toString()}")
```

OOP: Inheritance (1/3)

- All classes in Kotlin have a common superclass: Any
- By default, Kotlin classes are final they can't be inherited!
 - > To make a class inheritable, mark it with the open keyword

Syntax of inheritance

```
open class Base(p: Int)
class Derived(p: Int) : Base(p)
```

```
class MyView : View {
    constructor(ctx: Context) : super(ctx)

constructor(ctx: Context, attrs: AttributeSet) : super(ctx, attrs)
}
```

- ➤ If the derived class has a primary constructor, the base class must be initialized in that primary constructor according to its parameters
- ➤ If the derived class has no primary constructor, then each secondary constructor has to initialize the base type using the *super* keyword!

OOP: Inheritance (2/3)

- Overriding methods and properties
 - Methods/Properties declared on a superclass that are then redeclared on a derived class must be prefaced with override keyword
 - ➤ If there is no *open* modifier on a method/property, declaring a method/property with the same signature in a subclass is not allowed

```
open class Shape {
  open fun draw() { /*...*/}
  fun fill() { /*... */}
  open val count = 2
class Circle : Shape() {
  override val count = 0
  override fun draw() { /*...*/}
   override fun fill() {/*...*/}
class Rectangle : Shape() {
  override val count = 4
```

OOP: Inheritance (3/3)

Initialization order

During the construction of a new instance of a derived class, the base class initialization is done as the first step

```
open class Base(val name: String) {
  init { Log.d("ITM","Initializing a base class") }
  open val size: Int =
    name.length.also { Log.d("ITM", "Initializing size in the base class: $it") }
class Derived(name: String, val lastName: String):
Base(name.replaceFirstChar { it.uppercase() }.also { Log.d("ITM","Argument for the base class: $it") }) {
  init { Log.d("ITM","Initializing a derived class") }
  override val size: Int =
    (super.size + lastName.length).also { Log.d("ITM","Initializing size in the derived class: $it") }
```

Q&A

- Next video
 - ➤ Kotlin Basics (Part II & III)