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September 6, 2019 fst = lambda { |x, y| x}

```
Ruby Reference Sheet
```

#### Administrivia

 $\Rightarrow$  Ruby has a interactive command line. In terminal, type irb.

 $\Rightarrow$  To find your Ruby version, type ruby --version; or in a Ruby script:

RUBY\_VERSION #  $\Rightarrow$  2.3.7

# In general, use backtics '... ' to call shell commands '1s -11 ~' #  $\Rightarrow$  My home directory's contents!

⇒ Single line comments marked by #. Multi-line comments enclosed by =begin and =end.

 $\Rightarrow$  Newline or semicolon is used to separate expressions; other whitespace is irrelevant.

- $\Rightarrow$  Variables don't have types, values do.
  - $\diamond$  The type of a variable is the class it belongs to.
  - ♦ Variables do not need declarations.

## Everything is an object!

Method calls are really message passing:  $x \oplus y \approx x \oplus (y) \approx x \text{.send } "\oplus "$ , y

Methods are also objects: f x  $\approx$  method(:f).call x

**Remember**: Use name.methods to see the methods a name has access to. Super helpful to discover features!

Everything has a value — possibly nil.

♦ There's no difference between an expression and a statement!

## Functions – Blocks

Multiple ways to define anonymous functions; application can be a number of ways too.

Parenthesises are optional unless there's ambiguity.

- $\diamond~$  The value of the last statement is the 'return value'.
- ♦ Function application is right-associative.
- $\diamond~$  Arguments are passed in with commas.

```
fst - fambda ( [x, y] x)

fst.call(1, 2) \# \Rightarrow 1

fst.(1, 2) \# \Rightarrow 1

\# Supply one argument at a time.

always7 = fst.curry.(7)

always7.(42) \# \Rightarrow 42

\# Expplicitly curried.
```

```
fst = lambda {|x| lambda {|y| x}}
fst = ->(x) {->(y) {x}}
fst[10][20] # \Rightarrow 10
```

fst.(100).(200) #  $\Rightarrow$  100 fst.methods #  $\Rightarrow$  arity, lambda?, # parameters, curry def sum x, y = 666, with: 0 x + y + with end sum (sum 1, 2), 3 #  $\Rightarrow$  6 sum 1 #  $\Rightarrow$  667 sum 1, 2 #  $\Rightarrow$  3 sum 1, 22, with: 3 #  $\Rightarrow$  6

Notice that the use of '=' in an argument list to mark arguments as **optional** with default values. We may use **keyword** arguments, by suffixing a colon with an optional default value to mark the argument as optional; e.g., omitting the 0 after with: makes it a necessary (keyword) argument. Such may happen in  $|\cdots|$  for arguments to blocks.

Convention: Predicate names end in a ?; destructive function names end in !. That is, methods ending in ! change a variable's value.

Higher-order: We use & to indicate that an argument is a function.

def apply(x, &do\_it) if block\_given? then do\_it.call(x) else x end end apply (3) { |n| 2 \* n } #  $\Rightarrow 6$ , parens around '3' are needed! apply 3 do |n| 20 \* n end #  $\Rightarrow 6$ apply 3 #  $\Rightarrow 3$ 

In fact, all methods have an implicit, optional block parameter. It can be called with the yield keyword.

sum(1, 2) do  $|\mathbf{x}| \mathbf{x} * 0$  end  $\# \Rightarrow 3$ , block is not used in "sum"

def sum' (x, y) if block\_given? then yield(x) + yield(y) else x + y end end sum'(1, 2)  $\# \Rightarrow 3$ sum'(1, 2) do  $|n| \ge n$  end  $\# \Rightarrow 6$ sum'(1, 2) do end  $\# \Rightarrow nil + nil$ , but no addition on nil: CRASHES! sum'(1, 2) { 7 }  $\# \Rightarrow 14$ ; Constantly return 7, ignoring arguments; 7 + 7  $\approx 14$ 

Note: A subtle difference between do/end and  $\{/\}$  is that the latter binds tightly to the closest method; e.g., puts x.y { z }  $\approx$  puts (x.y do z end).

Variadic number of arguments:

def sum" (\*lots\_o\_stuff) toto = 0; lots\_o\_stuff.each{ |e| toto += e}; toto end sum" 2 , 4 , 6 , 7 # $\Rightarrow$  19

# Turn a list into an argument tuple using "splat", '\*' nums = [2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9] # sum" nums #  $\Rightarrow$  Error: Array can't be coerced into number sum" \*nums.first(4) #  $\Rightarrow$  19

If a name is overloaded as a variable and as a function, then an empty parens must be used when the function is to be invoked.

w = "var"
def w; "func" end
"w: #{w}, but w(): #{w()}" # ⇒ w: var, but w(): func

How to furnish a single entity with features? "Singleton methods/classes"! You can attach methods to existing names whenever you like. (Instance vars are nil by default.)

```
# Other items are unaffected.
"ni".upcase # \Rightarrow NI, the usual String capitalisation method
```

In general, the syntax class  $x \cdots$  end will attach all usual class contents "..." only for the entity x. (Undefined instance variables are always nil.)

We can redfine any method; including the one that handles missing method issues.

A "ghost method" is the name of the technique to dynamically a create a method by overriding method\_missing. E.g., by forwarding ghosts get\_x as calls get(:x) with extra logic about them.

Operators are syntactic sugar and can be overrided. This includes the arithmetical ones, and [], []=; and unary  $\pm$  via +0, -0.

```
def x.-(other); "nice" end
x - "two" # \Rightarrow "nice" alias summing sum"
summing 1, 2, 3 # \Rightarrow 6
```

# Methods as Values

Method declarations are expressions: A method definition returns the method's name as a symbol.

```
def woah; "hello" end # \Rightarrow :woah
```

```
woah' = method(:woah) # \Rightarrow #<Method: Object#woah>
```

woah'.call #  $\Rightarrow$  hello

```
method(:woah).call # \Rightarrow hello
```

Notice that using the operation  ${\tt method}$  we can obtain the method associated with a symbol.

Likewise, define\_method takes a name and a block, and ties those together to make a method. It overrides any existing method having that name.

The following is known as "decoration" or "advice"!

Besides decorating a function call to print a trace like below, it can be used to add extra behaviour such as caching expensive calls, mocking entities for testing, or doing a form of typing ( Ruby is a Lisp ).

define\_method(:ni) {|x| x}

```
def notify(method_name)
  orginal = method(method_name)
  define_method(method_name) { |*args, &blk|
      p "#{method_name} running ... got #{orginal.call(*args, &blk)}"} end
```

notify def no\_op (x) x end

no\_op 1 #  $\Rightarrow$  no\_op running ... got 1

# "x.singleton\_class.include(M)" to wholesale attach module M's contents to x.

See here for a nifty article on methods in Ruby.

# Variables & Assignment

Assignment '=' is right-associative and returns the value of the RHS.

```
# Flexible naming, but cannot use '-' in a name.
this_and_that = 1
uNiC\emptyset DE = 31
```

# Three variables x, y, z with value 2. x = y = z = 2

# Since everything has a value, "y = 2"  $\Rightarrow 2$ x = 1, y = 2 # Whence, x gets "[1, 2]"! # Arrays are comma separated values; don't need [ and ]

x = 1; y = 2 # This is sequential assignment.

# If LHS as has many pieces as RHS, then we have simultenous assignment.  ${\bf x}$  ,  ${\bf y}$  =  ${\bf y}$  ,  ${\bf x}$  # E.g., this is swap

# Destructuring with "splat" '\*' a, b, \*more = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] #  $\Rightarrow$  a  $\approx$  1; b  $\approx$  2; c  $\approx$  [3, 4, 5] first, \*middle, last = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] #  $\Rightarrow$  first  $\approx$  1; middle  $\approx$  [2, 3, 4]; last = last

# Without splat, you only get the head element! a , b, c = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] #  $\Rightarrow$  a  $\approx$  1; b  $\approx$  2; c  $\approx$  3

"Assign if undefined":  $x \mid \mid = e$  yields x if it's a defined name, and is x = e otherwise. This is useful for having local variables, as in loops or terse function bodies.

nope rescue """nope" is not defined." # nope  $||= 1 \# \Rightarrow$  nope = 1 # nope  $||= 2 \# \Rightarrow 1$ , since "nope" is defined

Notice: B rescue  $R\approx$  Perform code B, if it crashes perform code R.

# Strings and %-Notation

Single quotes are for string literals, whereas double quotes are for string evaluation, 'interpolation'. Strings may span multiple lines.

you = 12 # ⇒ 12	# String powers "hello " * 3
"Me and \n #{you}"	# $\Rightarrow$ hello hello hello
# $\Rightarrow$ Me and $\langle\!\langle$ newline here $ angle\! angle$ 12	# Print with a newline
	puts "Bye #{you}"
'Me and \n #{you}' # ⇒ Me and \n #{you}	# $\Rightarrow$ Bye 12 $\Rightarrow$ nil
	# printf-style interpolation
# "to string" and catenation "hello " + 23.to_s # $\Rightarrow$ hello 23	"%s or %s" % ["this", "that"] it = %w(this that); "%s or %s" % it

Strings are essentially arrays of characters, and so array operations work as expected!

There is a Perl-inspired way to quote strings, by using % along with any non-alphanumeric character acting as the quotation delimiter. Now only the new delimiter needs to be escaped; e.g., " doesn't need escape.

A type modifier can appear after the %: q for strings, r for regexp, i symbol array, w string array, x for shell command, and s symbol. Besides x, s, the rest can be capitalised to allow interpolation.

```
%{ woah "there" #{1 + 2} } # \Rightarrow "woah \"there\" 3"
%w[ woah "there" #{1 + 2} ] # \Rightarrow ["woah", "\"there\"", "\#{1", "+", "2}"]
%W[ woah "there" #{1 + 2} ] # \Rightarrow ["woah", "\"there\"", "3"]
%i( woah "there" ) # \Rightarrow [:woah, :"there"]
```

See here for more on the %-notation.

### Booleans

false, nil are both considered *false*; all else is considered *true*.

- ◊ Expected relations: ==, !=, !, &&, ||, <, >, <=, >=
- $\diamond x \iff y$  returns 1 if x is larger, 0 if equal, and -1 otherwise.
- ♦ "Safe navigation operator":  $x\&.y \approx (x \&\& x.y)$ .
- ◊ and, or are the usual logical operators but with lower precedence.
- $\diamond$  They're used for control flow; e.g.,  $s_0$  and  $s_1$  and  $\cdots$  and  $s_n$  does each of the  $s_i$  until one of them is false.

Since Ruby is a Lisp, it comes with many equality operations; including = $\sim$  for regexps.

#### Arrays

Arrays are heterogeneous, 0-indexed, and [brackets] are optional.

```
array = [1, "two", :three, [:a, "b", 12]]
again = 1, "two", :three, [:a, "b", 12]
```

Indexing:  $x[\pm i] \approx$  "value if i < x.length else nil"  $x[i] \Rightarrow$  The *i*-th element from the start;  $x[-i] \Rightarrow i$ -th element from the end.

array[1] #  $\Rightarrow$  "two" array[-1][0] #  $\Rightarrow$  :a

Segments and ranges:

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}[\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{k}] &\approx [\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_{m+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{m+k-1}] \\ \mathbf{x}[\mathbf{m}.\mathbf{n}] &\approx [\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_{m+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n] \text{ if } m \leq n \text{ and [] otherwise} \\ \mathbf{x}[\mathbf{m}..\mathbf{n}] &\approx \mathbf{x}[\mathbf{m}.\mathbf{n}-1] \text{ to exclude last value} \\ \mathbf{a}[\mathbf{i}.\mathbf{j}] &= \mathbf{r} \Rightarrow \mathbf{a} \approx \mathbf{a}[0, \mathbf{i}] + \mathbf{*r} + \mathbf{a}[\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{a}.\texttt{length}] \\ \text{Syntactic sugar: } \mathbf{x}[\mathbf{i}] \approx \mathbf{x}.[] \mathbf{i} \end{aligned}$ 

Where **\*r** is array coercion: Besides splicing, splat is also used to coerce values into arrays; some objects, such as numbers, don't have a **to\_a** method, so this makes up for it.

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{a} = *1 & \# \Rightarrow [1] \\ \mathbf{a} = *\mathbf{nil} & \# \Rightarrow [] \\ \mathbf{a} = *\mathbf{nil} & \# \Rightarrow [] \\ \mathbf{a} = *\mathbf{''Hi''} & \# \Rightarrow [''Hi''] \\ \mathbf{a} = *(1..3) & \# \Rightarrow [1, 2, 3] \\ \mathbf{a} = *[1,2] & \# \Rightarrow [1, 2] \\ \end{array}$   $\begin{array}{l} \# \text{ Non-symmetric multiplication; } x * y \approx x.*(y) \\ [1,2,3] * 2 & \# \Rightarrow [1,2,3,1,2,3] \\ [1,2,3] * "; " & \# \Rightarrow "1; 2; 3" \end{array}$ 

As always, learn more with array.methods to see, for example, first, last, reverse, push and  $\ll$  are both "snoc", include? " $\ni$ ", map. Functions first and last take an optional numeric argument n to obtain the first n or the last n elements of a list.

Methods yield new arrays; updates are performed by methods ending in "!".

x = [1, 2, 3] # A new array x.reverse # A new array; x is unchanged x.reverse! # x has changed! # Traverse an array using "each" and "each\_with\_index". x.each do |e| puts e.to\_s end Catenation +, union |, difference -, intersection &. Here is a cheatsheet of array operations in Ruby.

What Haskell calls fold1, Ruby calls inject; e.g., xs.inject(0) do |sofar, x| sofar + x end yields the sum of xs.

# Symbols

Symbols are immutable constants which act as *first-class variables*.

♦ Symbols evaluate to themselves, like literals 12 and "this".

:hello.class # ⇒ Symbol # Conversion from strings # :nice = 2 # ⇒ ERROR! "nice".to\_sym == :nice # ⇒ true

Strings occupy different locations in memory even though they are observationally indistinguishable. In contrast, all occurrences of a symbol refer to the same memory location.

:nice.object\_id == :nice.object\_id  $\# \Rightarrow true$ "this".object\_id == "this".object\_id  $\# \Rightarrow false$ 

## Control Flow

We may omit then by using ; or a newline, and may contract else if into elsif.

```
# Let \mathcal{C} \in \{if, unless\}
\mathcal{C} :test1 then :this else :that end
this \mathcal{C} test \approx \mathcal{C} test then this else nil end
```

```
(1..5).each do |e| puts e.to_s end

\approx 1 .upto 5 do |e| puts e end

\approx 5 .downto 1 do |e| puts 6 - e end

\approx for e in 1..5 do puts e.to_s end

\approx e = 1; while e <= 5 do puts e.to_s; e += 1 end

\approx e = 1; begin puts e.to_s; e += 1 end until e > 5

\approx e = 1; loop do puts e.to_s; e += 1; break if e > 5 end
```

Just as **break** exits a loop, **next** continues to the next iteration, and **redo** restarts at the beginning of an iteration.

There's also times for repeating a block a number of times, and step for traversing over every *n*-th element of a collection.

See here for a host of loop examples.

## Hashes

Also known as finite functions, or 'dictionaries' of key-value pairs —a dictionary matches words with their definitions.

Collections are buckets for objects; hashes are labelled buckets: The label is the key and the value is the object. Thus, hashes are like objects of classes, where the keys are slots that are tied to values.

```
hash = { "jasim" \Rightarrow :farm, :qasim \Rightarrow "hockey", 12 \Rightarrow true}
hash.keys # \Rightarrow ["jasim", :qasim, 12]
hash["jasim"] # \Rightarrow :farm
hash[12] # \Rightarrow true
hash[:nope] # \Rightarrow nil
```

Simpler syntax when all keys are symbols.

```
oh = {this: 12, that: "nope", and: :yup}
oh.keys \# \Rightarrow [:this, :that, :and]
oh[:and] \# \Rightarrow :yup
```

# Traverse an array using "each" and "each\_with\_index".
oh.each do |k, v| puts k.to\_s end

As always, learn more with Hash.methods to get keys, values, key?, value?, each, map, count, ... and even the "safe navigation operator" dig: h.dig(:x, :y, :z)  $\approx$  h[:x] && h[:x][:y] && h[:x][:y][:z].

We may pass in any number of keyword arguments using **\*\***.

```
def woah (**z) z[:name] end
```

Hashes can be used to model (rose) trees:

```
# Depths of deepest node.
```

```
def height t
    if not t
    then 0
    else t.map{|k, v| height v}.map{|e| e + 1}.max
    end end
```

```
height family # \Rightarrow 3
```

## Classes

*Classes are labelled product types: They denote values of tuples with named components.* Classes are to objects as cookie cutters (templates) are to cookies.

Modifiers: public, private, protected

- $\diamond$  Everything is public by default.
- $\diamond$  One a modifier is declared, by itself on its own line, it remains in effect until another modifier is declared.
- $\diamond$  Public  $\Rightarrow$  Inherited by children and can be used without any constraints.
- $\diamond$  Protected  $\Rightarrow$  Inherited by children, and may be occur freely *anywhere* in the class definition; such as being called on other instances of the same class.
- $\diamond$  Private  $\Rightarrow$  Can only occur stand-alone in the class definition.

These are forms of advice.

Class is also an object in Ruby.

```
class C ((contents)) end
```

```
C = Class.new do ((contents)) end
```

 $\approx$ 

Instance attributes are variables such that each object has a different copy; their names must start with @ —"at" for "at"tribute.

Class attributes are variables that are mutually shared by all objects; their names must start with @@ —"at all"  $\approx$  attribute for all.

self refers to the entity being defined as a whole; name refers to the entities string name.

#### class Person

```
@Qworld = 0 # How many persons are there?
# Instance values: These give us a reader "x.field" to see a field
# and a writer "x.field = ..." to assign to it.
attr_accessor :name
attr_accessor :work
```

# Optional; Constructor method via the special "initialize" method
def initialize (name, work) @name = name; @work = work; @@world += 1 end

```
# See the static value, world
def world
    @@world
end
```

# Class methods use "self";
# they can only be called by the class, not by instances.
def self.flood
 puts "A great flood has killed all of humanity": @@world = 0 end

## $\operatorname{end}$

```
jasim = Person.new("Qasim", "Farmer")
qasim = Person.new("", "")
jasim.name = "Jasim"
```

```
puts "#{jasim.name} is a #{jasim.work}"
puts "There are #{qasim.world} people here!"
Person.flood
puts "There are #{qasim.world} people here!"
```

 $\diamond$  See here to learn more about the new *method*.

Using define\_method along with instance\_variable\_set("@#namehere", value) and instance\_variable\_get("@#namehere"), we can elegantly form a number of related methods from a list of names; e.g., recall attr\_accessor. Whence design patterns become library methods!

In Ruby, just as methods can be overriden and advised, classes are open: They can be extended anytime. This is akin to C# extension methods or Haskell's typeclasses.

```
# Open up existing class and add a method.
class Fixnum
  def my_times; self.downto 1 do yield end end
end
```

```
3.my_times do puts "neato" end \# \Rightarrow Prints "neato" thrice
```

- ♦ We can freely add and alter class continents long after a class is defined.
- $\diamond~$  We may even alter core classes.
- $\diamond~$  Useful to extend classes with new functionality.

# Modules & Mixins

Single parent inheritance: class Child < Parent ··· end, for propagating behaviour to similar objects.

A module is a collection of functions and constants, whose contents may become part of any class. Implicitly, the module will depend on a number of class methods —c.f., Java interfaces— which are used to implement the module's contents. This way, we can *mix in* additional capabilities into objects regardless of similarity.

#### Modules:

- $\diamond\,$  Inclusion binds module contents to the class instances.
- $\diamond\,$  Extension binds module contents to the class itself.

```
# Implicitly depends on a function "did"
module M; def go; "I #{did}!" end end
```

# Each class here defines a method "did"; Action makes it static. # Both include the module; the first dynamically, the second statically. class Verb; include M; def did; "jumped" end end class Action; extend M; def self.did; "sat" end end

puts "#{Verb.new.go} versus #{Action.go}"
# \$\Rightarrow I jumped! versus I sat!

For example, a class wanting to be an Enumerable must implement each and a class wanting to be Comparable must implement the 'spaceship' operator <=>. In turn, we may then use sort, any?, max, member?, ...; run Enumerable.instance\_methods to list many useful methods.

Modules are also values and can be defined anywhere:

mymod = Module.new do def talk; "Hi" end end

# Reads

- $\diamond~{\rm Ruby~Monk}$  Interactive, in browser, tutorials
- ♦ Ruby Meta-tutorial ruby-lang.org
- ♦ The Odin Project
- ♦ Learn Ruby in ~30 minutes https://learnxinyminutes.com/
- $\diamond~{\rm contracts.ruby}$  Making assertions about your code
- ♦ Algebraic Data Types for Ruby
- ♦ Community-driven Ruby Coding Style Guide
- ♦ Programming Ruby: The Pragmatic Programmer's Guide
- ♦ Learn Ruby in One Video Derek Banas' Languages Series
- ♦ Learn Ruby Using Zen Koans
- ♦ Metaprogramming in Ruby —also some useful snippets
- ♦ Seven Languages in Seven Weeks