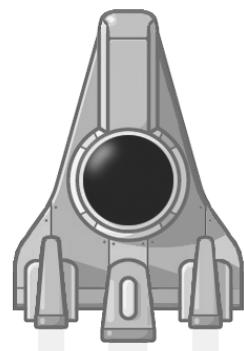


JAVASCRIPT GRAMMAR

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This edition of **JavaScript Grammar** was created to speed up the learning process of JavaScript – the language for programming websites, applications and robots!

For questions and comments about the book you may contact the author or send an email directly to our office at the email address mentioned below.

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JavaScript Grammar

0.1 Foreword	1
1 Presentation Format	3
1.1 Creative Communication	3
1.1.1 Theory	4
1.1.2 Practical Examples	4
1.1.3 Source Code	4
1.1.4 Color-Coded Diagrams	4
1.1.5 Dos and Dont's	6
2 Chrome Console	7
2.0.1 Beyond Console Log	7
2.0.2 console.dir	8
2.0.3 console.error	9
2.0.4 console.time() and console.timeEnd()	9
2.0.5 console.clear	10
3 Welcome To JavaScript	11
3.1 Entry Point	11
3.1.1 Dos and Dont's	12

3.1.2	ES10	Dynamic Import	17
3.2		Strict Mode	17
3.3		Literal Values	19
3.4		Variables	21
3.5		Passing Values By Reference	23
3.6		Scope Quirks	24
4	Statements		27
4.0.1		Evaluating Statements	27
4.0.2		Expressions	29
5	Primitive Types		31
5.0.1		boolean	33
5.0.2		null	33
5.0.3		undefined	33
5.0.4		number	34
5.0.5	ES10	bigint	35
5.0.6		typeof	36
5.0.7		string	37
5.0.8	ES6	Template Strings	38
5.0.9	ES6	Symbol	40
5.0.10		Executing Methods On Primitive Types	46
6	Type Coercion Madness		47
6.0.1		Examples of Type Coercion	48

6.0.2	Adding Multiple Values	53
6.0.3	Operator Precedence	53
6.0.4	String To Number Comparison	54
6.0.5	Operator Precedence & Associativity Table	56
6.0.6	L-value and R-value	58
6.0.7	null vs undefined	59
7	Scope	61
7.0.1	Scope	62
7.1	Variable Definitions	62
7.1.1	Variable Types	70
7.1.2	Scope Visibility Differences	70
7.1.3	ES6 const	76
7.1.4	const and Arrays	76
7.1.5	const and Object Literals	76
7.1.6	Dos and Dont's	77
8	Operators	79
8.0.1	Arithmetic	79
8.0.2	Assignment	81
8.0.3	String	81
8.0.4	Comparison	82
8.0.5	Logical	82
8.0.6	Bitwise	83
8.0.7	typeof	84
8.0.8	Ternary (?:)	85

8.0.9 delete	85
8.0.10 in	85
9 ...rest and ...spread	87
9.0.1 Rest Properties	87
9.0.2 Spread Properties	89
9.0.3 ...rest and ...spread	89
9.1 Destructuring Assignment	94
10 Closure	99
10.0.1 Arity	107
10.0.2 Currying	107
11 Loops	109
11.0.1 Types of loops in JavaScript	109
11.1 for loops	112
11.1.1 0-index based counter	112
11.1.2 The Infinite for Loop	112
11.1.3 Multiple Statements	113
11.2 for...of Loop	118
11.2.1 for...of and Generators	118
11.2.2 for...of and Strings	120
11.2.3 for...of and Arrays	120
11.2.4 for...of and Objects	121
11.2.5 for...of loops and objects converted to iterables	122
11.3 for...in Loops	123
11.4 While Loops	123

11.4.1 While and continue	124
12 Arrays	127
12.0.1 ES10 Array.prototype.sort()	127
12.0.2 Array.forEach	129
12.0.3 Array.every	130
12.0.4 Array.some	131
12.0.5 Array.filter	131
12.0.6 Array.map	132
12.0.7 Array.reduce	132
12.0.8 Practical Reducer Ideas	133
12.0.9 Dos and Dont's	134
12.0.10 ES10 Array.flat()	136
12.0.11 ES10 Array.flatMap()	136
12.0.12 ES10 String.prototype.matchAll()	137
12.0.13 Dos and Dont's	141
12.0.14 Comparing Two Objects	142
12.0.15 Writing arrcmp	144
12.0.16 Improving objcmp	145
12.0.17 Testing objcmp on a more complex object	146
13 Functions	149
13.1 Functions	149
13.1.1 Function Anatomy	150

13.1.2 Anonymous Functions	151
13.1.3 Assigning Functions To Variables	151
13.2 Origin of this keyword	156
14 Higher-order Functions	157
14.0.1 Theory	157
14.0.2 Definition	159
14.0.3 Abstract	159
14.0.4 Iterators	160
14.0.5 Dos and Dont's	164
15 Arrow Functions	165
15.0.1 Arrow Function Anatomy	168
16 Creating HTML Elements Dynamically	177
16.0.1 Setting CSS Style	178
16.0.2 Adding Elements To DOM with .appendChild method .	179
16.0.3 Writing A Function To Create Elements	180
16.0.4 Creating objects using function constructors	184
17 Prototype	185
17.0.1 Prototype	186
17.0.2 Prototype on Object Literal	187
17.0.3 Prototype Link	188
17.0.4 Prototype Chain	189
17.0.5 Method look-up	190
17.0.6 Array methods	190

17.1 Parenting	192
17.1.1 Extending Your Own Objects	192
17.1.2 constructor property	193
17.1.3 Function	194
17.2 Prototype In Practice	195
17.2.1 Object Literal	195
17.2.2 Using Function Constructor	197
17.2.3 Prototype	198
17.2.4 Creating objects using Object.create	199
17.2.5 Back To The Future	200
17.2.6 Constructor Function	201
17.2.7 Along came new operator	203
17.2.8 ES6 The class keyword	204
18 Object Oriented Programming	205
18.1 Ingredient	205
18.2 FoodFactory	206
18.3 Vessel	206
18.4 Burner	207
18.5 Range Type and The Polymorphic Oven	208
18.6 Class Definitions	209
18.6.1 print.js	209
18.6.2 Ingredient	210
18.6.3 FoodFactory	210
18.6.4 Fridge	211

18.6.5	convert_energy_to_heat	212
18.6.6	Vessel	213
18.6.7	Burner	215
18.6.8	Range	216
18.6.9	Putting It All Together	219
19	Events	223
19.0.1	Browser Events	223
19.0.2	Synthetic Events	224
19.0.3	Event Anatomy	228
19.0.4	setTimeout	229
19.0.5	setInterval	229
19.0.6	Intercepting Browser Events	230
19.0.7	Display Mouse Position	230
19.0.8	Universal Mouse Event Class	231
20	Network Requests	235
20.0.1	Callback Hell	238
20.0.2	ES6 Promises	239
20.0.3	Promise.resolve	239
20.0.4	.then	240
20.0.5	.catch	240
20.0.6	.finally	240
20.0.7	Promise.reject	241
20.0.8	Putting It All Together	241
20.0.9	Promise.all	242

20.0.10 Promise Anatomy	244
20.0.11 Final Words	244
20.0.12 Axios	245
20.1 ES6 Fetch API	246
20.1.1 Fetch POST Payload	246
20.2 ES6 async / await	247
20.2.1 await	249
20.2.2 async / await with try-catch	250
20.2.3 Final Words	251
20.3 ES6 Generators	252
20.3.1 yield	252
20.3.2 Catching Errors	253
21 Event Loop	255
22 Call Stack	259
22.1 Execution Context	261
22.2 Execution Context In Code	262
22.2.1 Window / Global Scope	263
22.2.2 The Call Stack	263
22.2.3 .call(), .bind(), .apply()	266
22.2.4 Stack Overflow	267

0.1 Foreword

We often think of the word "feature" as something that belongs to software products and services. Modern apps such as Instagram and Twitter have a "Follow" feature, for example. Uploading a photo to your account is another feature!

But computer languages have features too. A **function** is a feature. A **for loop** is a feature. So is the **class** keyword – all are computer language features.

In JavaScript some of these features are borrowed from other languages, while many remain unique to its own design. Features such as **this**, **class** and **const** may appear similar to their original C++ implementation, but in many cases they are used in a completely unique way to JavaScript.

JavaScript is an evolving language. When EcmaScript 6 came out in June 2015 the language experienced a Cambrian explosion of new features that radically changed how JavaScript code should be written.

New features like **...rest** and **...spread** syntax, **arrow functions**, **template strings**, object **destructuring** are commonplace in modern JavaScript code. But just a few years ago, even seasoned JavaScript developers with over a decade experience with the language couldn't conceive of such concepts.

Functional Programming started to creep into JavaScript community seemingly at the speed of light and higher-order functions (**.map**, **.filter**, **.reduce**) tied to Array methods, that remained dormant for many years, have gained increased popularity.

But JavaScript is a multi-paradigm language. Programmers who come from traditional Object Oriented Programming background will find themselves at home after induction of the **class** keyword and a separate constructor function that provides an alternative to the classic JavaScript object-function constructors.

The ES6 specification triggered a whole new breed of coders who have developed more respect for a language that once was used to write primitive DOM scripts.

JavaScript engines that run in browsers (Chrome browser's V8, for example) have matured and JavaScript is no longer looked at as a simple scripting language.

It's a whole new era of JavaScript development. Today, you may often stumble upon a video titled **Build a robot with JavaScript** on YouTube. It is even possible to build desktop applications for Windows 10 almost entirely in JavaScript.

JavaScript frameworks and libraries like **React** and **Vue** abstract away some of the classic JavaScript principles, making it quicker to build modular applications.

But this often comes at the expense of never having to understand vanilla JavaScript at the beginner level – its common grammar.

JavaScript Grammar was written to solve this problem by using carefully chosen subjects that, hopefully, match a natural learning experience. Content of this book will try to remain faithful to dynamic nature of JavaScript specification.

Finally, it is hoped that this book will encourage the reader to take the next step in the direction of more advanced subjects in the future.

Chapter 1

Presentation Format

This book was structured with continuity in mind: it is meant to be read from first to last page in a consecutive order. However, it can also be used as a desk reference for looking up isolated examples when you need them.

JavaScript Grammar is not a complete JavaScript reference or manual. But, this is probably a good thing. The subjects were reduced to only what's important in modern-day JavaScript environment.

Namely: imports, classes, constructors, key principles behind functional programming, including many features ranging from ES5 - ES10 are covered in this book.

The distinction between "ES" specifications has become less relevant. All of it is JavaScript. But just to give the reader a bit of perspective...

ES10 Sometimes you will see labels like this one.

This simply means that this feature was added to JavaScript as part of the EcmaScript's ES10 specification.

1.1 Creative Communication

Some of JavaScript is easy, some of it is difficult. Not everything can be explained by source code alone. Some things are based on intangible ideas or principles.

Throughout this tutorial book you will come across many creative communication devices, designed to make the learning process a bit easier and perhaps more fun. One example of that is color-coded diagrams.

1.1.1 Theory

Not all subjects require extensive theory. On the other hand, some things won't make any sense without it. Additional discussion will be included, where it becomes absolutely necessary, in order to fully understand a particular concept.

1.1.2 Practical Examples

A practical example follows the theoretical discussion, so we can actually see the implementation. It will usually be explained by a source code listing.

1.1.3 Source Code

Source code listings will be provided to cement the foundational principles from preceding text.

```
054 // Create (instantiate) a sparrow from class Bird
055 let sparrow = new Bird("sparrow", "gray");
056 sparrow.fly();
057 sparrow.walk();
058 sparrow.lay_egg();
059 sparrow.talk(); // Error, only Parrot can talk
```

This is an example of instantiating sparrow object from Bird class and using some of its methods.

1.1.4 Color-Coded Diagrams

A significant amount of effort went into creating diagrams describing fundamental ideas behind JavaScript. They were designed for communicative value, hopefully

they will speed up the learning process in places where hard to grasp abstract ideas need to be explained visually.

There are two types of diagrams in this book: **abstract ideas** and **source code close ins**.

Abstract ideas

Sometimes there isn't a way to explain an abstract idea or its structure without a diagram. In places where that's the case, a diagram will be shown.

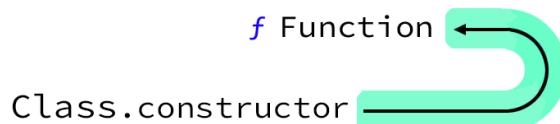


Figure 1.1: Class constructor is an object-function of type Function.

Here is another diagram visualizing anatomy of a JavaScript function:

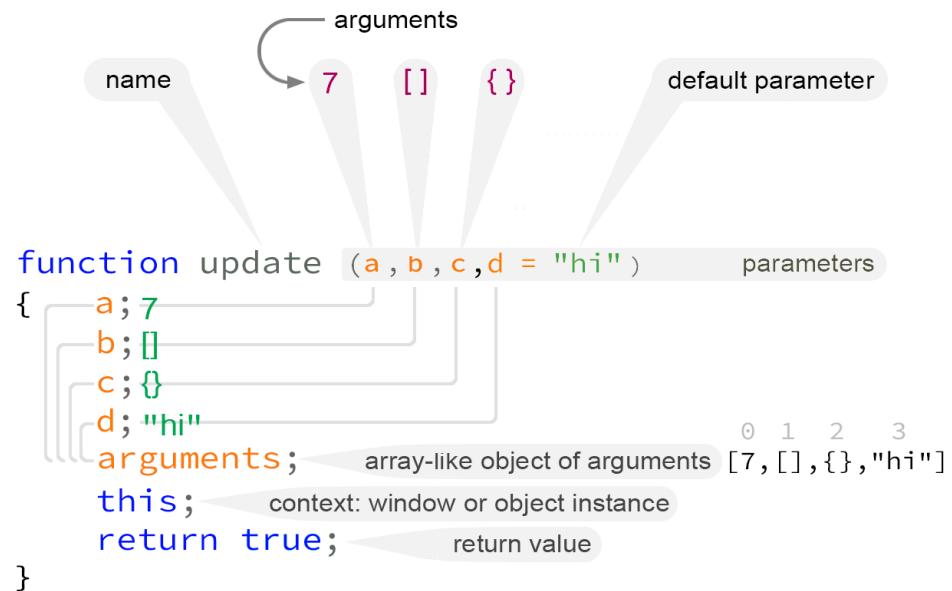


Figure 1.2: JavaScript function anatomy.

Code close ins

Most of the source code is accompanied by source code listings.

But when we need to close in on a particular important subject, a slightly larger diagram with source code and additional color-coded highlighting will be shown. For example, here is exploration of an anonymous function when used in the context of a event callback function:

```
setTimeout(function() {  
    console.log("Print something in 1 second.");  
    console.log(arguments);  
}, 1000);
```

Figure 1.3: Anonymous function used as a `setTimeout` event callback.

In this case the source code will be missing line numbers because it's not important.

Content

We won't spend much book space or your time on countless listings of functions and available methods on every single object. This type of information can be easily looked up and practiced online on demand from Mozilla's MDN web docs, W3Schools and StackOverflow.

Much of content of this book is tailored to modern JavaScript development, which leans toward >= EcmaScript6 specification, functional programming: the use of higher-order Array functions, arrow functions and understanding execution context.

1.1.5 Dos and Dont's

An occasional Dos and Donts section will appear with insightful tips.

Chapter 2

Chrome Console

2.0.1 Beyond Console Log

Many programmers only know Chrome's `console.log` but the `console` API contains few other methods that have practical use, especially when time is of essence.

`copy(obj)` function

Copying JSON representation of an existing object to your copy buffer:

```
> let x = { property: 1, prop1: 2, method: function(){ } };
> copy(x);
> |
```

Now the JSON is in your copy-paste buffer, you can paste it into any text editor.

In this example `x` is a simple self-created object. But imagine a situation where a much more complex object is returned from a database API.

Note: Only JSON is returned, this means that methods will not make it to the copy buffer. (JSON string format does not support methods, only properties.)

2.0.2 console.dir

If you want to take a look at all object's properties and methods, you can print it out directly into the console using **console.dir** method:

```
> console.dir(x);
▼ Object ⓘ
  ▶ method: f ()
    prop1: 2
    property: 1
  ▶ __proto__: Object
> |
```

What's fantastic is that you can even output DOM elements:

```
> console.dir(document.body);
▼ body ⓘ
  aLink: ""
  accessKey: ""
  assignedSlot: null
  ▶ attributeStyleMap: StylePropertyMap {size: 0}
  ▶ attributes: NamedNodeMap {length: 0}
  autocapitalize: ""
  background: ""
  baseURI: "http://localhost/experiments/javascript.html"
  bgColor: ""
```

2.0.3 console.error

```
001 let fuel = 99;
002 function launch_rocket() {
003     function warning_msg() {
004         console.error("Not enough fuel.");
005     }
006     if (fuel >= 100) {
007         // looks like everything's ok
008     } else
009     warning_msg();
010 }
011 launch_rocket();
```

The great thing about `console.error` is that it also provides the stack trace:

```
✖ ▼Not enough fuel.
    warning_msg @ javascript-x.html:9
    launch_rocket @ javascript-x.html:14
    (anonymous) @ javascript-x.html:17
> |
```

2.0.4 console.time() and console.timeEnd()

You can track the amount of time between function calls. This can be helpful when optimizing code:

```
001 console.time();
002 let arr = new Array(10000);
003 for (let i = 0; i < arr.length; i++) {
004     arr[i] = new Object();
005 }
006 console.timeEnd();
```

Console output:

```
default: 2.51708984375ms  
> |
```

2.0.5 console.clear

```
Console was cleared  
< undefined  
> |
```

Printing Objects

In JavaScript all objects have `.toString()` method. When providing an object to `console.log(value)` it can print it either as an object, or as a string.

```
001 let obj = {};  
002 console.log(obj);           // obj{}  
003 console.log("object = " + obj); // [object Object]  
004 console.log(` ${obj}`);      // [object Object]
```

Chapter 3

Welcome To JavaScript

3.1 Entry Point

Every computer program has an **entry point**.

You can start writing your code directly into <script> tags. But this means it will be executed instantly and simultaneously as the script is being downloaded into the browser, without concern for DOM or other media.

This can create a problem because your code might be accessing DOM elements before they are fully downloaded from the server.

To remedy the situation, you may want to wait until the DOM tree is fully available.

DOMContentLoaded

To wait on the DOM event, add an event listener to the document object. The name of the event is **DOMContentLoaded**.

```
001 <html>
002   <head>
003     <title>DOM Loaded.</title>
004     <script type = "text/javascript">
005       function load() {
006         console.log("DOM Loaded.");
007       }
008       document.addEventListener("DOMContentLoaded", load);
009     </script>
010   </head>
011   <body></body>
012 </html>
```

Figure 3.1: Here the entry point is your own custom function `load()`. This is a good place for initializing your application objects.

You can rename the `load` function to **start**, **ready** or **initialize** – it doesn't matter.

What matters is that at this entry point we're 100% guaranteed that all DOM elements have been successfully loaded into memory and trying to access them with JavaScript will not produce an error.

3.1.1 Dos and Dont's

Do not write your code just in `<script>` tags, without entry point function.

Do use the entry point to initialize the default state of your data and objects.

Do make your program entry point either **DOMContentLoaded**, **readystatechange** or the native **window.onload** method for waiting on media (see next,) depending on whether you need to wait for just the DOM or the rest of media.

.readyState

For added safety you might also check the value of `readyState` property before attaching the `DOMContentLoaded` event:

```
001 <html>
002   <head>
003     <title>DOM Really Loaded.</title>
004     <script type = "text/javascript">
005       function load() {
006         console.log("DOM Loaded.");
007       }
008
009       if (document.readyState == "loading") {
010         document.addEventListener("DOMContentLoaded", load);
011       } else {
012         load();
013       }
014     </script>
015   </head>
016   <body></body>
017 </html>
```

Figure 3.2: Check `document.readyState`

DOM vs Media

We've just created a safe place for initializing our application. But because DOM is simply a tree-like structure of all HTML elements on the page, it usually becomes available *before* the rest of the media such as images and various embeds.

Even though `<image src = "http://url" />` is a DOM element, the URL content specified in image's `src` attribute might take more time to load.

To check if any non-DOM *media content* has finished downloading we can overload the native `window.onload` event as shown in the following example.

window.onload

With `window.onload` method, you can wait until all images and similar media have been fully downloaded:

```
001 <html>
002   <head>
003     <title>Window Media Loaded.</title>
004     <script type = "text/javascript">
005       window.onload = function() {
006         /* DOM and media (images, embeds) */
007       }
008     </script>
009   </head>
010   <body></body>
011 </html>
```

Including External Scripts

Let's say we have the following definitions in `my-script.js` file:

```
001 let variable = 1;
002 function myfunction() { return 2; }
```

Then you can add them into your main application file as follows:

```
001 <html>
002   <head>
003     <title>Include External Script</title>
004     <script src = "my-script.js"></script>
005     <script type = "text/javascript">
006       let result = myfunction();
007       console.log(variable);      // 1
008       console.log(result); // 2
009     </script>
010   </head>
011   <body></body>
012 </html>
```

Main JavaScript application file – `index.html`, for example

Import

Starting from ES6 we should use **import** (and **export**) keyword to import variables, functions and classes from an external file.

Let's say we have a file `mouse.js` and it has following definition of a **Mouse** class.

```
001 | export function Mouse() { this.x = 0; this.y = 0; }
```

In order to make a variable, object or a function available for export, the **export** keyword must be prepended to its definition.

But that's not enough! The **Mouse** constructor function will be exported as long as a matching **import** is available in main application file.

Not everything in a module will be exported. Some of the items will (and should) remain private to it. Be sure to prepend **export** keyword to anything you want to export from the file. This can be any named definition.

`script type = "module"`

In order to export the Mouse class and start using it in the application, we must make sure the script tag's **type** attribute is changed to "module" (*this is required.*)

```
001 | <html>
002 |   <head>
003 |     <title>Import Module</title>
004 |     <script type = "module">
005 |       import { Mouse } from "./mouse.js";
006 |       let mouse = new Mouse();
007 |     </script>
008 |   </head>
009 |   <body></body>
010 | </html>
```

Figure 3.3: Now we can safely access Mouse class, instantiate a new object from it and access its properties and methods.

Importing And Exporting Multiple Definitions

It's uncommon for a complex program to import only one class, function or variable.

Here is an example of how to import multiple items from two imaginary files.

```
001 import { Mouse, Keyboard } from "./input.js";
002 import { add, subtract, divide, multiply } from "./math.js";
003
004 // Initialize mouse object and access mouse position
005 let mouse = new Mouse();
006 mouse.x;           // 256
007 mouse.y;           // 128
008
009 // Initialize Keyboard class and check if shift is pressed
010 let keyboard = new Keyboard();
011 keyboard.shiftIsPressed; // false
012
013 // Use math functions from math library file
014 add(2, 5);          // 7
015 subtract(10, 5); // 5
016 divide(10, 5); // 2
017 multiply(4, 2); // 8
```

The **Mouse** and **Keyboard** classes were imported together (separated by comma) from **input.js** file. They were instantiated as separate objects then and their properties were accessed to grab some data.

We've also imported some math functions **add**, **subtract**, **divide** and **multiply** from **math.js**. The math library file source code is shown below. After defining 4 functions we can **export** multiple definitions as follows:

```
001 // A collection of math functions
002 function add(a,b) { return a + b; }
003 function subtract(a,b) { return a - b; }
004 function divide(a,b) { return a / b; }
005 function multiply(a,b) { return a * b; }
006
007 // Export multiple items
008 export { add, subtract, divide, multiply }
```

Figure 3.4: Exporting multiple definitions from **math.js**

3.1.2 ES10 Dynamic Import

Imports can be assigned to a variable since EcmaScript 10 (may not be available in your browser yet, at the time of this writing.)

```
001 element.addEventListener('click', async () => {  
002   const module = await import('./api-scripts/click.js');  
003   module.clickEvent();  
004 });
```

3.2 Strict Mode

The **strict mode** is a feature available since ECMAScript 5 that allows you to place your entire program, or an isolated scope, in a "strict" operating context. This strict context prevents certain actions from being taken and throws an exception.

For example, in **strict mode** you cannot *use* undeclared variables. Without strict mode, using an undeclared variable will automatically create that variable.

Without strict mode, certain statements might not generate an error at all – even if they are not allowed – but you wouldn't know something was wrong.

```
001 var variable = 1;  
002  
003 delete variable; // false
```

Figure 3.5: You cannot use `delete` keyword to delete variables in JavaScript

Without strict mode on, code above will **fail silently**, variable will *not* be deleted, and `delete variable` will return **false** but your program will continue to run.

But what will happen in strict mode?

```
001 "use strict";
002
003 var variable = 1;
004
005 delete variable; // SyntaxError
```

Figure 3.6: In this example strict mode is enabled for entire global scope.

✖ **Uncaught SyntaxError: Delete of an unqualified identifier in strict mode.**



Figure 3.7: In strict mode you will generally become aware of more errors. For example, the line `delete variable` can be removed completely without having any impact on the program.

Limits of "strict mode" To A Scope

The strict mode doesn't have to be enabled globally. It is possible to isolate a single block (or function) scope to strict mode:

```
001 // Limit strict mode to function scope
002 function my_strict_function() {
003   'use strict';
004   function inner() { console.log('Me too.')}
005   return 'I am in strict mode. ' + inner();
006 }
```

Final Words

In a professional environment, it is common to have strict mode on, because it can potentially prevent many bugs from happening and generally supports better software practice.

When *learning* JavaScript for the first time, you might want to keep it off to avoid encountering errors caused by something that requires advanced understanding.

3.3 Literal Values

The literal representation of a number can be the digit 1, 25, 100 and so on. A string literal can be "some text";

You can combine literals using operators (+,-,/,* , etc.) to produce a single result.

For example, to perform a $5 + 2$ operation, you will simply use the literal number values 5 and 2:

```
001 // Add two numeric literals to produce 7:  
002 5 + 2; 7
```

Combine two strings to produce a single sentence:

```
001 // Add two strings to produce a sentence:  
002 "Hello" + " there." "Hello there."
```

Add two literal values of different types to produce a coerced value:

```
001 // Adding string to number to produce coerced value  
002 "username" + 2574731; "username2574731"
```

There is a literal value for just about everything in JavaScript:

```
1; // numeric literal  
"some text.>"; // string literal  
[]; // array literal  
{}; // object literal  
true; // boolean literal  
function() {}; // function is a value
```

There is an array literal [] and object literal {}.

You can add {} + [] without breaking the program, but the results will not be meaningful. These types of cases are usually non-existent.

Note that a JavaScript function can be used as a value. You can even pass them into other functions as an argument. We don't usually refer to them as function literals, however, but rather *function expressions*.

Each literal value usually has a constructor function associated with it.

value	typeof	constructor
1	'number'	Number()
3.14	'number'	Number()
some text.	'string'	String()
► []	'object'	Array()
► {}	'object'	Object()
true	'boolean'	Boolean()
<i>f</i> f() {}	'function'	Function()

The **typeof(value)** function can be used to determine type of the literal value. You can also use **typeof** as stand-alone keyword without parenthesis: **typeof x**.

For example **typeof 1** will return string "number" and **typeof {}** will return string "object". But "object" doesn't mean its an *object-literal* – for example – **typeof new Number** also returns "object" as does **typeof new Array**.

It's a bit unfortunate that there is no "array" (you will get "object" instead) but there is a classic workaround. To check if a value *is* an array, first check if its **typeof** returns "object", but also check for presence of **length** property on the object – because it exists only on *arrays*.

Number(1) vs new Number(1)

You can instantiate a value using constructor function associated with the type of that value. But using literal values is more common:

```
001 // Literal values
002 1 + 2;                                // 3
003 // Using Number function
004 Number(1) + Number(2);                // 3
005 // Using Number object constructor
006 new Number(1) + new Number(2);        // 3
007 // Combination
008 1 + Number(2) + new Number(4);       // 7
```

The **new** keyword will be explained toward end of this book.

3.4 Variables

Value Placeholders

Variables are placeholder names for different types of values.

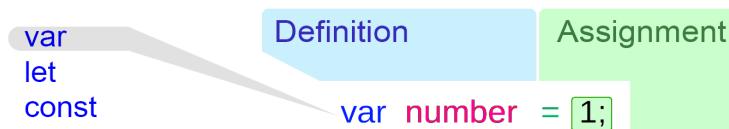


Figure 3.8: Variable declaration is definition + assignment.

Keywords for defining variables include: `var`, `let` and `const`: but they don't determine variable's type, only *how* they can be used. We'll go over the rules in more detail at a later time. Here are some examples:

```
001 | var legacy = 1;           // using legacy var keyword
002 | let number = 1;          // assign a number
003 | let string = "Hello.";   // assign a string
004 | let array = [];          // assign an array literal
005 | let object = {a:1};      // assign object literal
006 | let json = {"a":1};       // assign JSON1 (object)
007 | let json2 = '{"a":1}';    // assign JSON2 (string)
008 | let boolean = true;      // assign boolean
009 | let inf = Infinity;     // assign infinity (number)
010 | let func = function(a) {return a}; // assign a function
011 | let arrow = (a) => { a };    // assign arrow function
012 | let fp = a => a;          // assign arrow expression
013 | let n = new Number(1);     // assign number object
014 | let o = new Object();      // assign blank object
```

Figure 3.9: Here are some of the most common assignments you will come across.

When you assign 1 to a variable name the **type** of that variable automatically becomes "number". If the value were a string, the variable type would be "string".

Dynamic Typing

JavaScript is a dynamically-typed language. It means that variables created using `var` or `let` keywords can be dynamically re-assigned to a value of another type at some point later in your JavaScript program.

In statically-typed languages doing that would generate an error.

Definition Or Declaration?

In the previous diagram we looked at a JavaScript variable declaration.

Some will argue that the definition is the declaration. But this type of logic comes from statically typed languages, of which JavaScript is not. In statically typed languages the declaration determines the type of the variable – it's what the compiler needs to allocate memory for the variable type (*left hand side*). But JavaScript is a dynamically typed language – the variable type is determined by the the type of value itself (*right hand side*).

Hence, the confusion. Is the left side the declaration, definition or both? These types of details are more relevant in statically typed languages, but in JavaScript (*and other dynamically-typed languages*) it might not make much sense.

3.5 Passing Values By Reference

Copying data from place to place is a common operation in computing. It is natural to think that when we assign a value to a variable from another variable, a copy is made.

But JavaScript assigns values **by reference** without actually making a copy of the original value. Here is an example:

```
001 let x = { p: 1 };      // create new variable x
002 let y = x;            // y is a reference to x
003 x.p = 2;              // change original value in x
004 console.log(y.p);     // 2
```

Here we created variable **x** and assigned object literal **{p: 1}** to it.

This means that from now on the value of **x.p** will be equal 1.

A new variable called **y** was created and assigned **x** to it.

Now **x** has become a **reference** to **y**, not a copy.

From now on, any changes made to **x** will be also reflected in **y**.

This is why when we changed value of **x.p** to 2, **y.p** was *also* changed.

You can say that now **y** "points" to the original object assigned to **x** variable.

Only one copy of **{p: 1}** existed in computer memory all along from start to finish of this code block. Multiple assignments are chained by reference:

```
001 let a = { p: 1 };      // create new variable a
002 let b = a;            // b is a reference to a
003 let c = b;
004 let d = c;
005 let e = d;
006 let f = e;
007 let g = f;
008
009 a.p = 5;              // change original value in a
010
011 console.log(g.p);     // 5 now also in g.p
```

Figure 3.10: A chain of references without a single copy of original value.

3.6 Scope Quirks

JavaScript has two known quirks when it comes to scope rules, that you might want to know about to save debugging time later.

Quirk 1 – **let** and **const** inside function vs. global variable

A variable defined using **let** or **const** keywords inside a function cannot coexist with global variable of the same name.

```
001 let a = "global a";
002 let b = "global b";
003
004 function x(){
005   console.log("x(): global b = " + b); // "global b"
006   console.log("x(): global a = " + a); // ReferenceError
007   let a = 1; // doesn't hoist
008 }
009
010 x();
```

Figure 3.11: ReferenceError will happen if local variable **a** is defined inside the function body using either **let** or **const** keywords.

The **let** keyword doesn't hoist definitions, and we have a global variable **a**, so logically, inside function **x()** variable **a** should be taken from global scope, before it is defined later with **let a = 1** but that's not what happens.

If variable **a** already exists inside a function (and it's defined using **let** or **const** keywords) then using **a**, prior its definition within the function will produce ReferenceError, even if global variable **a** exists!

Quirk 2 – var latches onto window/this object, let and const don't

In global scope **this** reference points to instance of **window** object / global context.

When variables are defined using **var** keyword they become attached to **window** object, but variables defined using **let** (and **const**) are not.

```
001 console.log(this === window); // window
002
003 var c = "c"; // latches on to window ("this" in global scope)
004 let d = "d"; // exists separately from "this"
005
006 console.log(c);      // "c"
007 console.log(this.c); // "c"
008 console.log(window.c); // "c"
009
010 console.log(d);      // "d"
011 console.log(this.d); // undefined
012 console.log(window.d); // undefined
```


Chapter 4

Statements

4.0.1 Evaluating Statements

A statement is the smallest building block of a computer program. In this chapter we will explore a few common cases.

Definitions made with **var**, **let** or **const** keywords return `undefined` because they behave only as value assignments: the value is simply stored in the variable name:

```
001 | let a = 1;                                // undefined
```

Figure 4.1: The assignments statement itself produces `undefined`, while the value is stored in variable `a`.

If, however, the assigned variable `a` is used as a stand-alone statement afterwards, it will produce value of 1:

```
002 | a;                                         // 1
```

Figure 4.2: A statement that produces a single value other than `undefined` can be referred to as an *expression*.

Statements *usually* produce a value. But when there isn't anything to return, a statements will evaluate to `undefined`, which can be interpreted as "no value."

Statement	Evaluates to
001 ;	// <code>undefined</code>
002 1;	// 1
003 "text";	// "text"
004 [];	// []
005 {};	// <code>undefined</code>
006 let a = 1;	// <code>undefined</code>
007 let b = [];	// <code>undefined</code>
008 let c = {};	// <code>undefined</code>
009 let d = new String("text");	// <code>undefined</code>
010 let e = new Number(125);	// <code>undefined</code>
011 new String("text");	// "text"
012 new Number(125);	// 125
013 let f = function() { return 1 };	// <code>undefined</code>
014 f();	// 1
015 let o = (a, b) => a + b;	// <code>undefined</code>
016 o(1, 2);	// 3
017 function name() {}	// <code>undefined</code>

Figure 4.3: An empty statement with semicolon evaluates to `undefined`. Any statement that doesn't produce a value will evaluate to `undefined` – variable assignments (006–010) or function definitions (017), for example.

Some evaluation rules make sense, but special cases should probably be just memorized. For example, what would it mean to evaluate an empty *object literal*? According to JavaScript it should evaluate to `undefined`.

Yet, empty array brackets `[]` (a close relative to empty object literal) evaluate to an empty array: `[]`, and not `undefined`.

4.0.2 Expressions

Here is an *expression*: `1 + 1` that produces the value of 2:

```
003| 1 + 1;           // 2
```

Figure 4.4: Expressions don't have to be variable definitions. You can create them by simply using some literal values in combination with operators.

There is another distinct type of expression in JavaScript:

```
013| let f = function() { return 1 };      // undefined
014| f();                                // 1
```

Function `f()` evaluates to value 1, because it returns 1. This is why `f()` is often referred to as a *function expression*.

Chapter 5

Primitive Types

Primitive Types

JavaScript has 7 primitive types: `null`, `undefined`, `number`, `bignum`, `string`, `boolean` and `symbol`. Primitives helps us work with simple values such as strings, numbers and booleans. Let's take a look at some of their possible values:

type	values	constructor function
<code>null</code>	<code>null</code>	<code>none</code>
<code>undefined</code>	<code>undefined</code>	<code>none</code>
<code>number</code>	<code>123</code> <code>3.14</code>	<code>Number()</code>
<code>ES10 bigint</code>	<code>123n</code> <code>256n</code>	<code>BigInt()</code>
<code>string</code>	<code>"Hello"</code>	<code>String()</code>
<code>boolean</code>	<code>true</code> <code>false</code>	<code>Boolean()</code>
<code>ES6 symbol</code>		<code>none</code>

Some of the primitives have a constructor function associated with it.

Here's a number of primitives assigned to several variable names:

```
001 let a = undefined;           // undefined
002 let b = null;               // null
003 let c = 12;                 // integer number
004 let d = 4.13;               // floating point number
005 let e = 100n;                // big integer (values over 253)
006 let f = "Hello.>";          // text string
007 let g = Symbol();           // create symbol
008 console.log(typeof g);      // "symbol"
```

Numbers, strings and booleans are basic value units. You can write them out in literal form: a number can be `123` or `3.14`, a string can be `"string"`, or a template string: `'I have {$number} apples.'` (note the back-tick quotes, which allow you to embed variables into the string dynamically.) A boolean can only be either `true` or `false`. You can combine primitive types using operators, pass them to functions or assign them as values to object properties.

Number(), **BigInt()**, **String()** and **Boolean()** are primitive constructor functions. We'll explore constructor functions and classes at a proper time in the book. First, let's briefly go over each primitive individually.

5.0.1 boolean

possible values

`true` `false`

The **boolean** primitive can be assigned either **true** or **false** value.

typeof

`"boolean"` string

constructor

`new Boolean(value)`

5.0.2 null

typeof

`"object"` string

constructor

`none`

Running **typeof** operator on **null** will say it's an "object".

Some believe this is a bug in JavaScript because **null** is not an object since it doesn't have a constructor. And they are probably right...

5.0.3 undefined

typeof

`"undefined"` string

constructor

`none`

Undefined is a type of its own. It's not an object. Just a value JavaScript will use when you named a variable but don't assign a value to it. Your hoisted variables will also be automatically assigned a value of undefined.

5.0.4 number

possible values

```
-1 5 7 1.14 9.66e+0 Infinity -Infinity NaN
```

The **number** primitive helps us work with values in the numeric domain.

You can define negative and positive values, decimals (*more commonly known as floating-point numbers.*) There is even a negative and positive Infinity value. This makes more sense if you have some background in math.

NaN is technically a non-numeric value a statement can evaluate to. It's available directly from the Number.NaN But literally, it is exactly what it says it is: neither "number" primitive nor Number() object. (It could be a "string", for example.)

typeof

```
"number" string
```

constructor

```
new Number(value)
```

Using **typeof** operator on a numeric value will produce "number" (It helps to note that the return value is in string format.)

```
001 // The typeof operator returns value type in string format
002 typeof -1;          "number"
003 typeof 5;           "number"
004 typeof 7;           "number"
005
006 // Using Number constructor function to create a number
007 let number = new Number(7);    "object"
008 typeof number;          "object"
009 typeof number.valueOf();   "number"
```

This example shows distinction between primitive *literal value* (-1, 5, 7, etc.) and the Number object. Once instantiated, the value is no longer exactly a literal but an object of that type.

To get "number" type from the object use `typeof` on the `valueOf` method as seen in the previous example `typeof number.valueOf();`

5.0.5 ES10 bigint

value

```
1n 32000n 9007199254740991n 9007199254740993
```

BigInt was added in EcmaScript10 and wasn't available until Summer 2019.

In the past the maximum value of a number created using a number literal or the **Number()** constructor was stored in **Number.MAX_SAFE_INTEGER** and was equal to 9007199254740991.

A bigint type allows you to specify numbers greater than **Number.MAX_SAFE_INTEGER**.

typeof

```
"bigint" string
```

constructor

```
new BigInt(value)
```

```
001 const limit = Number.MAX_SAFE_INTEGER;
002 // 9007199254740991
003
004 limit + 1;
005 // 9007199254740992
006
007 limit + 2;
008 // Still 9007199254740992 (exceeded MAX_SAFE_INTEGER + 1)
009
010 const small = 1n; // 1n
011 const larger = 9007199254740991n; // 9007199254740991n
012
013 const integer = BigInt(9007199254740991); // init as number
014 // 9007199254740991n
015
016 const big = BigInt("9007199254740991"); // init as string
017 // 9007199254740991n
018
019 big + 1;
020 // 9007199254740993n - exceeds older numeric limit
```

5.0.6 typeof

Difference between numeric types:

```
001 | typeof 10; // 'number'  
002 | typeof 10n; // 'bigint'
```

Equality operators can be used between the two types

```
001 | 10n === BigInt(10); // true  
002 | 10n == 10; // true
```

Math operators only work within their own type

```
001 | 200n / 10n; // 20n  
002 | 200n / 20; // Uncaught TypeError:  
003 | // Cannot mix BigInt and other types,  
004 | // use explicit conversions
```

Leading - works, but + doesn't

```
001 | -100n // -100n  
002 | +100n // Uncaught TypeError:  
003 | // Cannot convert a BigInt value to a number
```

5.0.7 string

value

```
"text" 'text' `text` `Cat "Felix" knows best`
```

The **string** value is defined using any of the available quote characters: double quotes, single quotes, and back-tick quotes (Located on tilde key.) You can nest double quotes inside single quotes, and the other way around.

typeof

```
"string" string
```

constructor

```
new String(value)
```

Running `typeof` on a string value returns "string":

```
001 // The typeof operator returns value type in string format
002 typeof "text";           "string"
003 typeof "JavaScript Grammar";   "string"
004 typeof "username" + 25;     "string"
```

You can also use `String` constructor function to build an object of string type:

```
001 // Using Number constructor creates an object of that type
002 let string = new String("hi."); "object"
003 typeof string;           "object"
004 typeof string.valueOf(); "string"
```

Note that the first `typeof` returns "object", because at this point the object is instantiated (this is different from the primitive's literal value which is still just a "string" primitive). To get the value of the instantiated object use `valueOf()` method and use `typeof string.valueOf()` to determine the object's type.

5.0.8 ES6 Template Strings

Strings defined using the backtick quotes have special function.

You can use them to create Template Strings (also known as Template Literals) to embed dynamic variable values inside the string:

Define a variable:

```
let apples = 10;
```

Embed variable inside template string:

```
`There are ${apples} apples in the basket. `
```

Result:

```
There are 10 apples in the basket.
```

The back-tick cannot be used to define an **object-literal** property name (*You still have to use either single or double quotes.*)

JSON format **requires double quotes** around object's property names (back-ticks won't do any good here either, without generating an error):

```
001 // Attempt creating an object literal
002 let object_literal = {'`a` : 1}; // Unexpected token error
003
004 // Attempt creating a well-formed JSON format string:
005 let json1 = '{`a` : 1}'; // malformed json(back-tick quotes)
006 let json2 = '{ a : 1}'; // malformed json(no quotes)
007 let json3 = "{'a' : 1}"; // malformed json(single quotes)
008 let json4 = '{"a" : 1}'; // correct json (' + double quotes)
009 let json5 = `{"a" : 1}`; // correct json (` + double quotes)
```

We'll take a look at JSON in greater detail in a later chapter.

Creative Use Case

Template strings can be used to solve the problem of forming a message that has proper language form, based on a dynamic number. One of the classic cases is forming an alert message sentence.

```

001 for (let alerts = 0; alerts < 4; alerts++) {
002   let one = (alerts == 1);           // one alert?
003   let is = one ? "is" : "are"; // choose between "is" or "are"
004   let s = one == 1 ? "" : "s"; // trailing "s" or empty space
005
006 // Form the message in proper English:
007 let message = `There ${is} ${alerts} alert${s}.`;
008 console.log(message);
009 }

```

Whenever there is only 1 alert, the trailing "s" in the word "alerts" must be removed. But we don't want to create a second string just to cover one case.

Instead, we can calculate it dynamically. We also need to decide which verb should be used ("is" or "are") based on the number of alerts.

There are 0 alerts.

There is 1 alert.

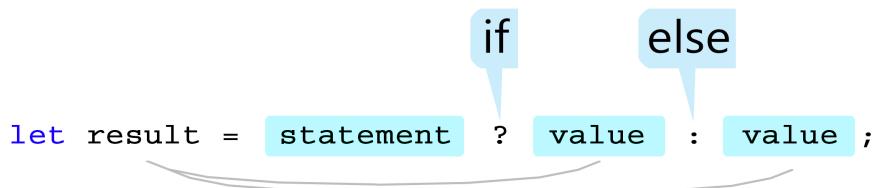
There are 2 alerts.

There are 3 alerts.

> |

Here the **ternary operator** consisting of ? and : is used.

You can think of **ternary operator** as an inline if-statement. It doesn't need {} brackets because it doesn't support multiple statements:



Question mark can be interpreted as "if-then" or as "if the previous statement evaluates to true" and the colon : can be interpreted as "else".

5.0.9 ES6 Symbol

<code>typeof</code>	<code>constructor</code>
<code>"symbol"</code> string	<code>none</code>

The **Symbol** primitive provides a way to define a completely unique key.

Symbol doesn't have a constructor and cannot be initialized using `new` keyword:

```
001 | let sym = new Symbol('sym'); // TypeError
```

Instead, just an assignment to **Symbol** will create a new symbol with a unique ID:

```
001 | let sym = Symbol('sym'); // symbol created
```

The ID, however, is not the user-defined string "sym", it is created internally. This is demonstrated in the following example.

At first it might be surprising that the following statement evaluates to **false**:

```
001 | Symbol('sym') === Symbol('sym'); // false
```

Whenever you call **Symbol('sym')** a unique symbol is created. The comparison is made between two logically distinct IDs and therefore evaluates to false.

Symbols can be used to define private object properties. This is not the same as regular (public) object properties. However, both public and private properties created with symbols can live on the same object:

```
001 | let sym = Symbol('unique');
002 | let bol = Symbol( distinct );
003 | let one = Symbol('only-one');
004 | let obj = { property: "regular property",
005 |               [sym]: 1,
006 |               [bol]: 2 };
007 | obj[one] = 3;
```

Here we created an object **obj**, using *object literal* syntax, and assigned one of its properties **property** to a string, while second property was defined using the **[sym]** symbol created on the first line. **[sym]** was assigned value of 1. Second symbol property **[bol]** was added in the same way and assigned value of 2.

Third object symbol property **[one]** was added directly to the object via **obj[one]**.

Printing the object shows both private and public properties:

```
001 | console.log(obj);
002 |   property: "regular property"
003 |   Symbol(distinct): 2
004 |   Symbol(only-one): 3
005 |   Symbol(unique): 1
```

Private (symbol-based) properties are hidden from **Object.entries**, **Object.keys** and other *iterators* (for example **for...in** loop):

```
004 | for (let prop in obj)
005 |   console.log(prop + ": " + obj[prop]);
006 | // property: regular property
007 |
008 | console.log(Object.entries(obj));
009 | // (2) ["property", "regular property"]
010 | // length: 1
```

In addition symbol properties are also hidden from **JSON.stringify** method:

```
001 | console.log(JSON.stringify(obj));
002 | // {"property":"regular property"}
003 |
```

Why would we want to hide symbol-based properties from JSON stringify?

Actually it makes sense. What if our object needs to have private properties that are only relevant to how that object *works*, and not what data it *represents*? These private properties can be used for miscellaneous counters or temporary storage.

The idea behind private methods or properties is to keep them hidden from the outside world. They are only needed for internal implementation. Private implementation is rarely important when it comes to marshalling objects.

But symbols *can* be exposed via **Object.getOwnPropertySymbols** method:

```
012 | console.log(Object.getOwnPropertySymbols(obj));  
013 | // [Symbol(unique)]  
014 | // 0: Symbol(unique)  
015 | // 1: Symbol(distinct)  
016 | // 2: Symbol(only-one)  
017 | // length: 3
```

Note that you probably shouldn't use **Object.getOwnPropertySymbols** to expose properties that are intended to be private. Debugging should be the only use case for this function.

You can use symbols to separate your private and public properties. This is like separating "goats from the sheep" because even though they provide similar functionality, symbols will not be taken into account when used in iterators or `console.log` function.

Symbols can be used whenever you need unique IDs. Hence, they can also be used to create constants in enumerable lists of IDs:

```
001 | const seasons = {  
002 |   Winter: Symbol('Winter');  
003 |   Spring: Symbol('Spring');  
004 |   Summer: Symbol('Summer');  
005 |   Autumn: Symbol('Autumn');  
006 | }
```

Figure 5.1: Enumerating seasons.

Global Symbol Registry

As we saw earlier `Symbol("string") === Symbol("string")` is **false** because two completely unique symbols are created.

But there is a way to create string keys that can overwrite symbols created using the same name. There is a global registry for symbols, that can be accessed using methods **Symbol.for** and **Symbol.keyFor**.

```
001 let sym = Symbol.for('age');
002 let bol = Symbol.for('age');
003
004 obj[sym] = 20;
005 obj[bol] = 25;
006
007 console.log(obj[sym]);
008 // 25
```

The private symbolic object property **obj[sym]** outputs the value of 25 (which was originally assigned to **obj[bol]**) when it was defined, because both variables **sym** and **bol** are tied to the same key "age" in global symbol registry.

In other words the definitions share the same key.

Constructors And Instances

There is a distinction between **constructors** and **instances**. The constructor function is the definition of a custom object *type*. The instance is the object that was *instantiated* from that constructor function using the **new** operator.

Let's create a custom **Pancake** constructor, containing one object property **number** and one method **bake()** which will increase pancake number by 1 when called:

```
001 // Create a custom constructor function
002 let Pancake = function() {
003     // Create object property:
004     this.number = 0;
005     // Create object method:
006     this.bake = function() {
007         console.log("Baking the pancake...");
008         // Increase number of pancakes baked:
009         this.number++;
010     };
011 }
```

Note that properties and methods are attached to the object via **this** keyword

The constructor is only a design of the object type. In order to start using it, we have to *instantiate* it. When we do that, an instance of the object is created in computer memory:

```
001 // Instantiate pancake maker:
002 let pancake = new Pancake();
```

Let's bake 3 pancakes by using **bake()** method which increments pancake counter:

```
001 // Bake 3 pancakes:
002 pancake.bake(); // "Baking the pancake..."
003 pancake.bake(); // "Baking the pancake..."
004 pancake.bake(); // "Baking the pancake..."
```

3 pancakes successfully baked! Let's take a look at **pancake.number** now:

```
001 console.log( pancake.number ); // 3
```

You can look up the constructor function's type. The constructor function `Pancake` is an object of type `Function`. This is true of all custom objects. It makes sense because the function itself is the constructor:

```
001 | console.log(Pancake.constructor); // function Function() {}
```

But, if you output constructor via the instantiated object, it will show you the entire function body in *string* format:

```
001 | console.log(pancake.constructor);
002 |
003 | let Pancake = function() {
004 |   // Create object property:
005 |   this.number = 0;
006 |   // Create object method:
007 |   this.bake = function() {
008 |     console.log("Baking the pancake...")
009 |   };
010 | }
```

You can actually create a brand new function by supplying the body in string format to **Function** constructor:

```
001 | let body = "console.log('Hello from f() function!')";
002 |
003 | let f = new Function(body);
004 |
005 | f(); // Hello from f() function!
```

This tells us that `Function` is the constructor for creating JavaScript functions.

But when we created our own `Pancake` function, `Pancake` became the constructor of our custom class that we could also initialize using the `new` keyword.

5.0.10 Executing Methods On Primitive Types

Parenthesis And Object Property Access

The parenthesis operator gives you control over which statement should evaluate first. That's its primary purpose.

For example statement `5 * 10 + 2` is not the same as `5 * (10 + 2)`.

But sometimes it is used to access a member method or property. Which is demonstrated in the next source code listing.

You can execute methods directly on the literal values of primitive types. Which automatically converts them to objects, so that the method can be executed.

In some cases – like with the primitives of type "number" – we must first wrap the literal value in parenthesis, or you'll freeze your program.

```
001 // We cannot execute Number object methods directly on literal values
002 1.toString();                                // this will freeze execution flow
003
004 // But by using parenthesis, you can convert numeric literal to object
005 (1).toString();                            // "1"
006
007 // You don't need parenthesis to execute methods on strings:
008 "hello".toUpperCase();                     // "HELLO"
009
010 // But if you use them, it still works:
011 ("hello").toUpperCase();                   // "HELLO"
012
013 // Execute toString() method directly on Number object:
014 new Number(1).toString();                  // "1"
```

A literal *is* just a literal value. By accessing its properties, it turns into a reference to the object instance so you can execute object methods on that value.

Chaining Methods

Because in JavaScript functions can return `this` keyword, or any other value, including functions, it's possible to chain multiple methods using the dot operator.

```
"hello".toUpperCase().substr(1, 4); // "ELLO"
```

Chapter 6

Type Coercion Madness

When learning JavaScript from scratch you may be puzzled by some decisions made by the language when it comes to evaluating statements.

For example, what will happen if we sporadically add up different types of values and stitch them together using the + operator?

```
001 | console.log(null + {} + true + [] + [5]);
```

```
null[object Object]true5
```

```
> |
```

A string? This might seem confusing. After all, not a single value in this statement is a string! So how did that happen?

Answer: When + operator encounters objects of incompatible type, it will attempt to coerce those objects to their values in string format. In this case, leaving us with a new statement: "null[object Object]" + true + [] + [5].

Furthermore, when + operator encounters a string at least on one side of the operator, it will try to coerce the other side to string and perform string addition.

Calling `.toString` on `true` results in "true". Calling `.toString` on empty array brackets `[]` when the other side of operator is also a string evaluates it to "" which is why it appears missing from the result. And finally adding `[5]` to a string calls `[5].toString` which results in "5".

6.0.1 Examples of Type Coercion

Here are some classic examples of type coercion.

```
001 //classic coercion cases sometimes produce surprising results
002 let a = true + 1;           // becomes 1 + 1 or 2
003 let b = true + true;        // becomes 1 + 1 or 2
004 let c = true + false;       // becomes 1 + 0 or 1
005 let d = "Hello" + " " + "there.";// becomes "Hello there."
006 let e = "Username" + 1523462;   // becomes "Username1523462"
007 let f = 1 / "string";         // NaN (not a number)
008 let g = NaN === NaN;         // becomes false
009 let h = [1] + [2];           // becomes "12" <string>
010 let i = Infinity;            // remains Infinity
011 let j = [] + [] ;           // becomes "" <string>
012 let k = Infinity;            // is Infinity <number>
013 let l = Infinity;            // remains Infinity
014 let m = Infinity;            // remains Infinity
015 let n = Infinity;            // remains Infinity
016 let o = [] + {} ;           // becomes [object Object]
```

JavaScript will try to come up with best value available if you supply meaningless combinations of types to some of its operators.

After all, what would it mean to "add" an *object literal* {} to an *array* []? Exactly – it doesn't make any sense. But by evaluating to object [] at least we don't break the code in that one little odd case where it *may* happen.

This safety mechanism will prevent the program from breaking. In reality, however, these types of cases will almost never happen. We can treat majority of these cases as examples – not something you should be actually trying to do in code.

Type Coercion In Constructors

Coercion also occurs when we provide an initialization value to a type constructor:

```
001 let A = Boolean(true);           // true
002 let B = Boolean([]);            // true
003 let C = Boolean({});           // true
```

In the last two cases we supplied an *array literal* {} and an *object literal* [] to Boolean constructor. What does this mean? Not much, but the point is that at least it evaluates to true in this odd case.

This is just a safety net to prevent bugs.

```
001 // Initialize some booleans based on an argument
002 let p = Boolean(false);          // false
003 let q = Boolean(NaN);           // false
004 let r = Boolean(null);          // false
005 let s = Boolean(undefined);     // false
006 let t = Boolean('');            // false
007 let u = Boolean(0);             // false
008 let v = Boolean(-0);           // false
```

Meaningless values still evaluate to either true or false, because these are the only values available for boolean types.

Other built-in data type constructors behave in the same way. JavaScript will try to coerce to an ideal value specific to that type.

Type Coercion

Coercion is the process of converting a value from one type into another. For example, number to string, object to string, string to number (if the entire string consists of numeric characters) and so on...

But when values are used together with different operators not all cases are straightforward to the untrained eye.

To someone new to the language, the following logic might seem obscure:

```
001 | [] == []; // false
```

Let's say that it is false because two instances of `[]` are not the same, because JavaScript `==` operator tests objects by reference and not by value.

```
001 | let a = [];
002 | a == a; // true
```

But this statement evaluates to **true** because variable `a` points to the same instance of the array literal. They refer to the same location in memory.

But what about cases like this? Even though you would never write code like this in production environment, it calls for understanding of type coercion:

```
002 | [] == ![]; // true
```

JavaScript will often coerce different types of values to either strings or numbers. The Boolean type is no exception:

```
003 | true + false; // 1
```

The above statement is the same as `1 + 0`. And here's the absolute classic:

```
001 | NaN == NaN; // false
```

These types of cases might appear bizarre at first, but as your knowledge of **types** and **operators** deepens it will start to make a lot more sense.

Let's start simple. The unary plus and minus operators force the value to a number. If the value is not a number, NaN is generated:

```
001 | const s = "text";
002 | console.log(-s); // NaN
```

Here unary minus (-) struggles to convert the string "text" to a number. What does -"text" mean anyway? So it returns NaN because "text" is not a number.

Here is the same logic demonstrated using the **Number** type function:

```
001 | Number("text"); // NaN ("text" is not a numeric string)
002 | Number("1"); // 1 ("1" is a numeric string)
```

But when *unary* minus (-) is applied to a number, it produces expected value:

```
001 | const a = 1;
002 | console.log(-a); // -1
003 |
004 | const b = 1;
005 | console.log(+b); // 1
```

This rule is specific to the **unary** operator.

Number And String Arithmetics

Naturally the arithmetic + operator requires two values.

```
001 | 5 + 7; // 12
```

If both values are integers, **arithmetic** operation is performed. If one of them is a string then coercion happens and **string** addition is invoked.

If the type of the two values provided to the arithmetic + operator is different, this conflict must be resolved. JavaScript will use **type coercion** to change one of the values before evaluating the entire statement to a more meaningful result.

What will happen if left value is a string and right value is a number?

```
001 | "1" + 1; // ???
```

Here + is treated as a string addition operator. The right value is converted to "1" via String(1) and then the statement is evaluated as follows:

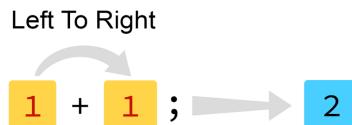
```
001 | "1" + "1"; // "11"
```

In JavaScript there are actually three + operators: unary, arithmetic and string.

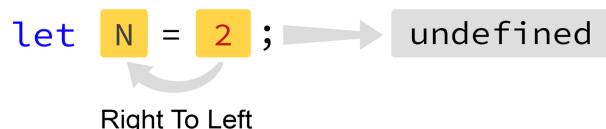
Here JavaScript treats + not as the unary addition operator, but as the arithmetic addition operator instead. But... when it sees that one of the values is a string, it invokes the string addition operator. It makes no difference whether the string is on the left or right side. The statement still evaluates to a string:

```
001 | 1 + "01"; // "101"
```

Operators follow specific associativity rules. Like + and most other operators, the arithmetic addition operator (+) is evaluated from **left to right**:



But the assignment operator is evaluated in **right to left** order:



Note that in example above, while N is assigned value of 2, the statement itself evaluates to **undefined**.



6.0.2 Adding Multiple Values

Often you will encounter statements tied together by multiple operators. What should the following statement evaluate to?

$$\boxed{1} + \boxed{1} + \boxed{1} + \boxed{2} + \boxed{\text{"}} \rightarrow ?$$

First, all of the purely numeric values will be combined, ending up with the sum of 5 on the left hand side and "" on the right hand side:

$$\boxed{5} + \boxed{\text{"}} \rightarrow ?$$

But this is still not enough to produce the final result. Adding a numeric value to a string value will coerce the numeric value to a string and then add them together:

$$\boxed{\text{"5"}} + \boxed{\text{"}} \rightarrow \boxed{\text{"5"}}$$

Finally we arrive at "5" in string format.

When adding numbers and strings, numeric values always take precedence. This seems to be a trend in JavaScript. In the next example we will compare numbers to strings using the equality operator. JavaScript chooses to convert strings to numbers first, instead of numbers to strings.

6.0.3 Operator Precedence

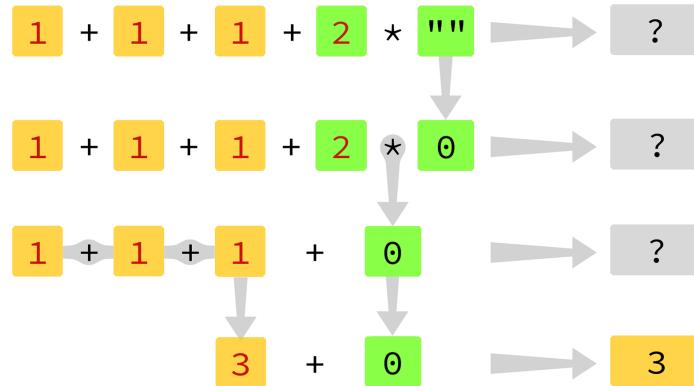
Some operators take precedence over others. What this means is that multiplication will be evaluated before addition.

Let's take this statement for example:

$$\boxed{1} + \boxed{1} + \boxed{1} + \boxed{2} * \boxed{\text{"}} \rightarrow ?$$

Several things will happen here.

The string "" will coerce to 0 and $2 * 0$ will evaluate to 0.



After multiplication, the numbers $1 + 1 + 1$ will be added up to produce 3.

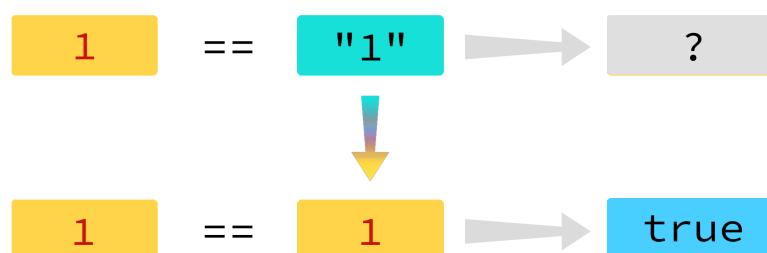
Finally: $3 + 0$ will evaluate to 3.

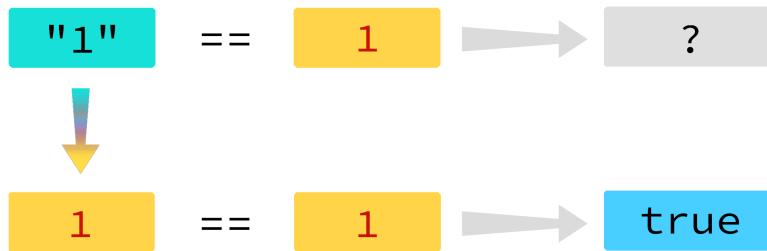
6.0.4 String To Number Comparison

When it comes to equality operator == numeric strings are evaluated to numbers in the same way the **Number(string)** function evaluates to numbers (or **NaN**).

According to EcmaScript specification, coercion between a string and a numeric value on both sides of the == operator can be visualized as follows.

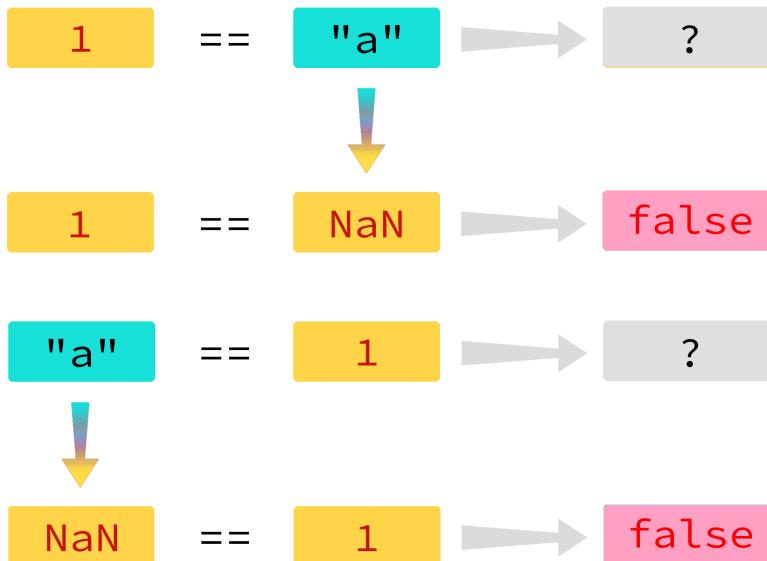
Comparing Numeric String To Number





Comparing Non-Numeric String To Number

If the string does not contain a numeric value, it will evaluate to **`Nan`** and therefore further evaluating to **`false`**:



Other Comparisons

Other comparisons between different types (boolean to string, boolean to number, etc) follow similar rules. As you continue writing JavaScript code, you will eventually develop intuition for them and it will become second nature.

The operator precedence and associativity table on the next page might help you when things get tough.

6.0.5 Operator Precedence & Associativity Table

There are roughly 20 operator **precedence** levels. Parenthesis () overrides the natural order. Red values are first in **associativity** order: for example, subtraction operator subtracts blue from red. Assignment operators follow right to left order.

	Operator	Precedence	Visual
19	Grouping		(●)
18	Member Access		●.●
	Computer Member Access		●[●]
	<code>new</code> (with argument list)		new ●(●)
17	Function Call		●(●)
	<code>new</code> (without argument list)		new ●
16	Postfix Increment		●++
	Postfix Decrement		●--
15	Logical NOT		!●
	Bitwise NOT		~●
	Unary Plus		+●
	Unary Negation		-●
	Prefix Increment		●++
	Prefix Decrement		●--
	<code>typeof</code>		typeof ●
	<code>void</code>		void ●
	<code>delete</code>		delete ●
14	Multiplication		●*●
	Division		●/●
	Remainder		●%●
13	Addition		●+●
	Subtraction		●-●
12	Bitwise Left Shift		●<<●
	Bitwise Right Shift		●>>●
	Bitwise Unsigned Right Shift		●>>>●
11	Less Than		●<●
	Less Than or Equal		●<=●
	Greater Than		●>●
	Greater Than or Equal		●>=●

	<code>in</code>	● <code>in</code> ●
	<code>instanceof</code>	● <code>instanceof</code> ●
10	<code>Equality</code>	● <code>==</code> ●
	<code>Inequality</code>	● <code>!=</code> ●
	<code>Strict Equality</code>	● <code>====</code> ●
	<code>Strict Inequality</code>	● <code>!==</code> ●
9	<code>Bitwise AND</code>	● <code>&</code> ●
8	<code>Bitwise XOR</code>	● <code>^</code> ●
7	<code>Bitwise OR</code>	● <code> </code> ●
6	<code>Logical AND</code>	● <code>&&</code> ●
5	<code>Logical OR</code>	● <code> </code> ●
4	<code>Conditional</code>	● <code>? :</code> ●
3	<code>Assignment</code>	● <code>=</code> ● ● <code>+=</code> ● ● <code>-=</code> ● ● <code>*=</code> ● ● <code>/=</code> ● ● <code>%=</code> ● ● <code><=></code> ● ● <code>>=></code> ● ● <code>>>=</code> ● ● <code>&=</code> ● ● <code>^=</code> ● ● <code> =</code> ●
2	<code>yield</code>	yield ●
1	<code>Spread</code>	... ●
0	<code>Comma /Sequence</code>	● , ●

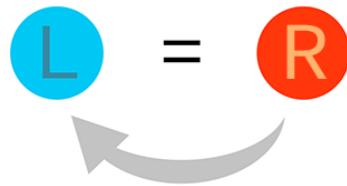
Associativity flows in either **left-to-right** or **right-to-left** direction: it determines the order of the operation, usually for operators that require more than one value.

6.0.6 L-value and R-value

In many computer languages values on the left and right side of the operator are referred to as **L-value** and **R-value**. In EcmaScript spec they are often referred to as **x** and **y** values.

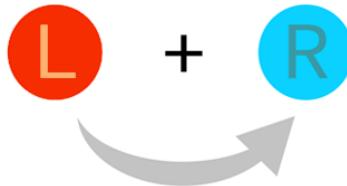
Assignment Operator

The assignment operator takes the **R-value** and transfers it over to **L-value**, which is usually a variable identifier name.



Arithmetic Addition Operator

But the arithmetic addition operator takes the **L-value** and adds **R-value** to it:



Following this logic, it is possible to use the precedence table from the previous page to figure out the order in which complex statements will be evaluated.

6.0.7 null vs undefined

The `null` primitive is not an object (*although some may believe it is,*) – so it doesn't have a built in constructor, like some of the other types. Luckily, we can (and should) use its *literal value*: `null`.

Think of `null` as a unique type for *explicitly* assigning a "nothing" or "empty" value to a variable. This way it doesn't end up `undefined`.

If you don't assign a variable to `null`, its value will be `undefined` by default:

```
001 // Define a variable, without assigning a value(not so good.)  
002 let bike;  
003  
004 console.log(bike); // undefined
```

To same effect, you can also *explicitly* assign variable to `undefined`:

```
001 // Explicitly assign undefined as default variable name  
002 let bike = undefined;  
003  
004 console.log(bike); // undefined
```

But that's something we should avoid. If the value is unknown at the time of variable definition it is always best to use `null` instead of `undefined`.

The `null` keyword is used to assign a *temporary* default value to a variable before it's populated with actual object data at a later time in your program.

Initialize or Update

In a real-case scenario the `null` value can help us determine whether the data needs to be initialized for the first time, or existing data merely needs to be updated.

We'll take a look at a practical example in the next source code listing.

Let's take a look at this scenario:

```
001 // Explicitly assign null as default variable name
002 let bike = null;
003
004 // Class definition
005 class Motorcycle {
006     constructor(make, model, year) {
007         this.make = make;
008         this.model = model;
009         this.year = year;
010         this.features = null;
011     }
012     getFeatures() {
013
014         // 1.) Download features from database for the first time
015         if (this.features == null) {
016             this.features = { /* get features from database */ }
017
018         // 2.) Or update features object if it already contains data
019         } else {
020             this.features = { /* get features from database */ }
021         }
022     }
023
024 // Instantiate new bike class
025 bike = new Motorcycle("Kawasaki", "Z900RS CAFE", 2019);
026
027 // Get features from database
028 bike.getFeatures();
```

Here we assigned `null` to `bike`. Later at some point in code, the variable was instantiated with a real object. At no point in our program `bike` was `undefined`, even before it was initialized for the first time.

Inside the object itself, the `this.features` property was also assigned to `null`. Maybe at a later time, we can download feature list from a database. Until then, we can be sure that feature object was not yet populated.

This gives us a distinction between two classic cases: downloading data for the first time (`if this.features == null`) or updating existing data (*that has already been downloaded at some point in the past.*)

Chapter 7

Scope

7.0.1 Scope

Scope is simply the area enclosed by {} brackets. But be careful not to confuse it with the identical empty *object-literal* syntax.

There are 3 unique scope types:

The **global** scope, **block** scope and **function** scope. Each expects different things and has unique rules when it comes to variable definitions.

Event callback functions follow the same rules as function scope, they are just used in a slightly different context. Loops can also have their own block-scope.

7.1 Variable Definitions

Case-Sensitivity

Variables are case-sensitive. This means **a** and **A** are two different variables:

```
001 | let a = 1;
002 | let A = "hello";
003 |
004 | console.log(a);           // 1
005 | console.log(A);          // "hello"
```

Definitions

Variables can be defined using **var**, **let** or **const** keywords.

Of course, if you tried to refer to a variable that wasn't defined anywhere, you would generate a **ReferenceError** error "*variable name is not defined*" :

```
001 | console.log( apple ); // ReferenceError: apple is not defined
002 |
003 | {
004 |
005 | }
```

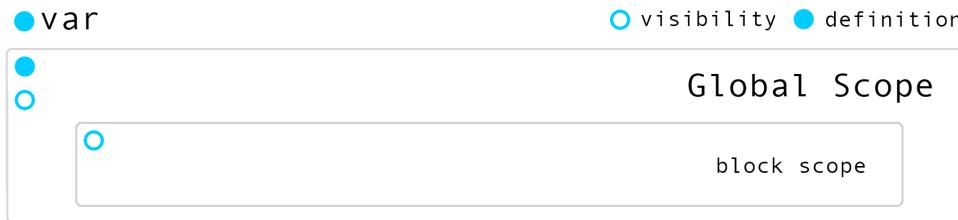
Let's use this setup to explore variable definitions using **var** keyword and hoisting.

Prior to **let** and **const** the traditional model allowed only **var** definitions:

```
001 | var apple = 1;  
002 |  
003 | {  
004 |     console.log( apple ); // 1  
005 | }
```

Here **apple** is defined in global scope. But it can also be accessed from an inner block-scope. Anything (even a function definition) defined in global scope becomes available anywhere in your program. The value propagates into all inner scopes.

When a variable is defined in global scope using **var** keyword, it also automatically becomes available as a property on **window** object.



Hoisting

If **apple** was defined using **var** keyword inside a block-scope, it would be hoisted back to global scope! Hoisting simply means "raised" or "placed on top of".

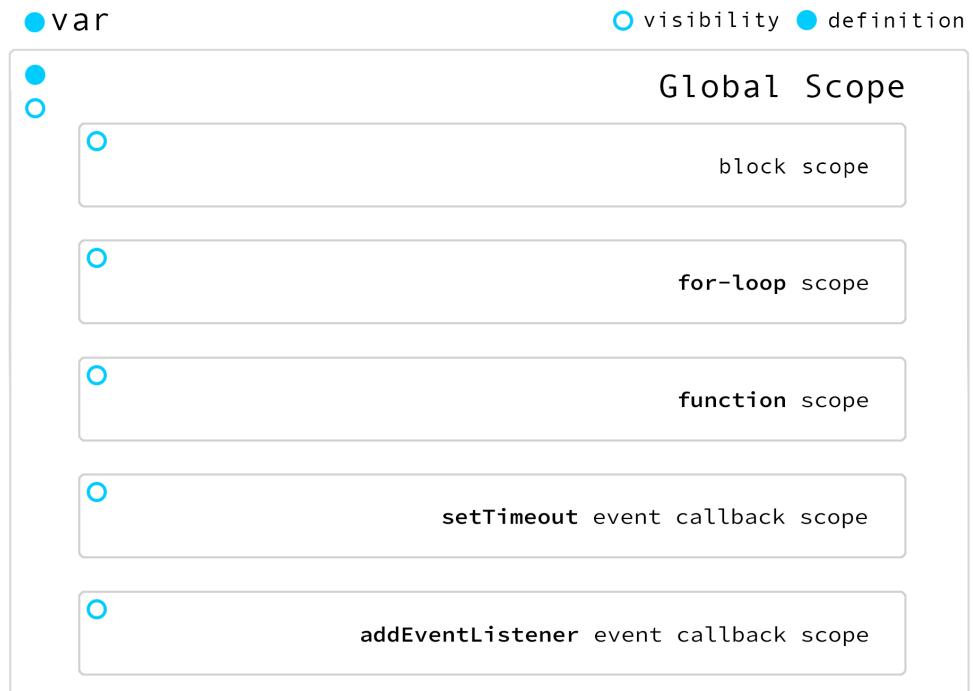
Hoisting is limited to variables defined using **var** keyword and function name defined using **function** keyword.

Variables defined using **let** and **const** are not hoisted and their use remains limited only to the scope in which they were defined.

As an exception, variables defined **var** keyword inside function-level scope are not hoisted. Commonly, when we talk about hoisting block-scope is implied.

We will talk more about hoisting in just a moment!

Likewise, variables defined in global scope will propagate to pretty much every other scope defined in global context, including **block**-level scope, **for-loop** scope, **function**-level scope, and event callback functions created using **setTimeout**, **setInterval** or **addEventListener** functions.



But what happens if we define a variable *inside* a block scope?

```
001 | console.log( apple ); // undefined
002 |
003 | {
004 |     var apple = 1;
005 | }
```



Variable **apple** is hoisted to global scope. But the value of the hoisted variable is now **undefined** – not **1**. Only its name definition was hoisted.

Hoisting is like a safety feature. You should not rely on it when writing code. You may not retain the *value* of a hoisted variable in global scope, but you will still save your program from generating an error and halting execution flow.

Thankfully, hoisting in JavaScript is automatic. When writing your program more than half of the time, you won't even need to think about it.

Function Name Hoisting

Hoisting also applies to function names. But variable hoisting always takes precedence. We'll see how that works in this section.

You can call a function in your code, as long as it is defined at some point later:

```
001 | fun(); // Hello from fun() function.  
002 |  
003 | function fun() {  
004 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function.");  
005 | }
```

Note that the function was defined after it was called. This is legal in JavaScript. Just make sure you understand that it happened because of function name hoisting:



It goes without saying if the function was already defined prior to being called, there'd be no hoisting but everything would still work as planned. Statements inside a function's body are executed when the function is called by its name. Nameless functions *can* still be assigned as values themselves. (See next example.)

```
001 | function fun() {  
002 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function 1.");  
003 | }  
004 |  
005 | // The code above is the same as:  
006 | var fun = function() {  
007 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function 2.");  
008 | }
```

It is possible to assign an anonymous function expression *to* a variable name.

It's important to note, however, that anonymous functions that were assigned to variable names are *not* hoisted unlike named functions.

This valid JavaScript code will not produce a function redefinition error. The function will be simply overwritten by second definition.

Even though `fun()` was a function, when we created a new variable `fun` and assigned another function to it, we rewired the name of the original function.

Having said this, what do you think will happen if we call `fun()` at this point?

```
001 | fun(); // ?
```

Which function body will be executed?

```
| "Hello from fun() function 2."
```

You might think that the following code will produce a redefinition error:

```
001 | function fun() {  
002 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function 1.");  
003 | }  
004 |  
005 | function fun() {  
006 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function 2.");  
007 | }
```

However, this is still perfectly valid code – no error is generated. Whenever you have two function defined using `function` keyword and they happen to share the same name, the function that was defined last will take precedence.

In this case if you call `fun()`; the console will output the second message:

```
| "Hello from fun() function 2."
```

This actually makes sense.

In following scenario variable name will take precedence over function definitions even if it was defined *prior* to the second function definition with the same name:

```
001 | var fun = function() {  
002 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function 1.");  
003 | }  
004 |  
005 | function fun() {  
006 |   console.log("Hello from fun() function 2.");  
007 | }
```

And now let's call `fun()` to see what happens in this case:

```
001 | fun(); // ?
```

But this time the output is:

```
| "Hello from fun() function 1."
```

You can see the order in which JavaScript hoists variables and functions. Functions are hoisted first. Then variables.

Defining Variables Inside Function Scope

At this point you might want to know that variables defined inside a function will be limited only to the scope of that function. Trying to access them outside of the function will result in a reference error:

```
001 | function fun() {  
002 |   var apple = 1;  
003 | }  
004 |  
005 | console.log( apple ); // ReferenceError: apple is not defined
```

Simple scope accessibility rules:



Figure 7.1: Here var is defined in Global Scope, but its value propagates into the block scope as well. What actually happens is, when block scope 1 cannot find var definition in within its own brackets, it looks for it in the parent scope. If it finds it there, it inherits its value.



Figure 7.2: Defining variables inside function scope is basically one way street ordeal. Nothing can leave the confines of a function into its parent scope.

Functions enable closure pattern, because their variables are concealed from global scope, but can still be accessed from other function scopes within them:

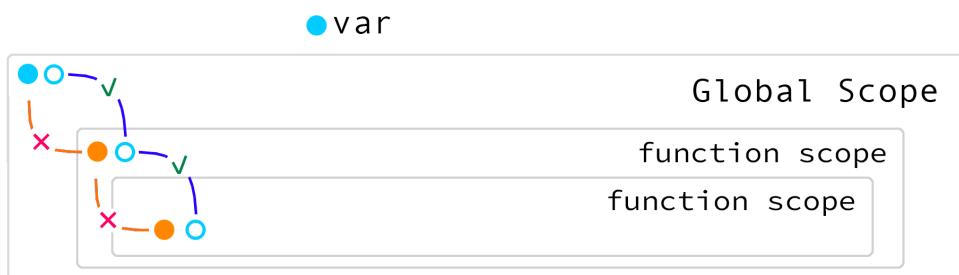


Figure 7.3: Nothing can get out of function scope into its outer scope. This enables the closure pattern. We'll take a look at it in just a moment!

The idea is to *protect* variables from the **global scope** but still be able to call the function from it. We'll take a look at this in greater detail in just a moment.

7.1.1 Variable Types

JavaScript is a dynamically-typed language.

The type of the variable (defined using **var** or **let** keyword) can be assigned and changed at any time during the run-time of your application, after it was already compiled by browser's JavaScript engine.

The keywords **var**, **let** and **const** do not determine the variable's type. Instead, they determine *how* the variable can be used: can it be used outside of the scope in which defined? Can it be re-assigned to another value during run-time? For example, **var** and **let** can, but **const** can't.

ES5 var

The **var** keyword is still with us from original specification. You should probably start using **let** and **const** instead. For the most part it is still available but only to support legacy code.

ES6 let

let defines a variable but limits its use to the scope in which it was defined.

ES6 const

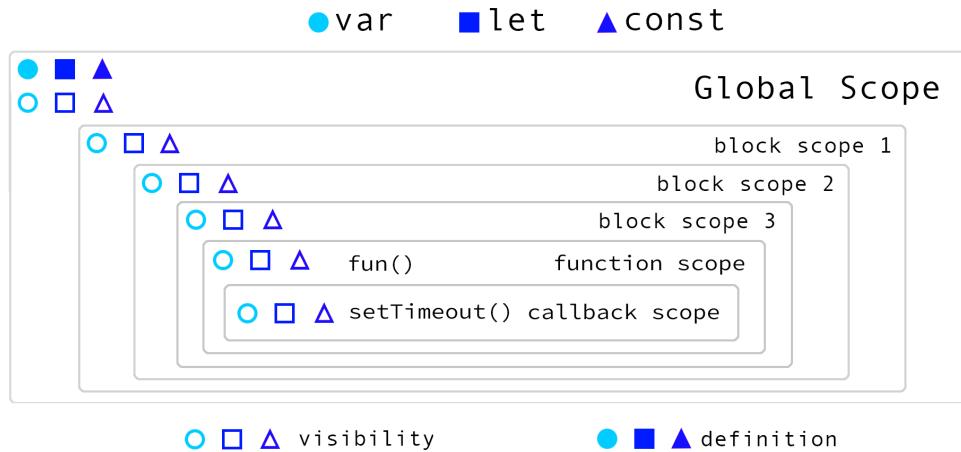
const is the same as **let** but you can't re-assign it to a new value once defined.

7.1.2 Scope Visibility Differences

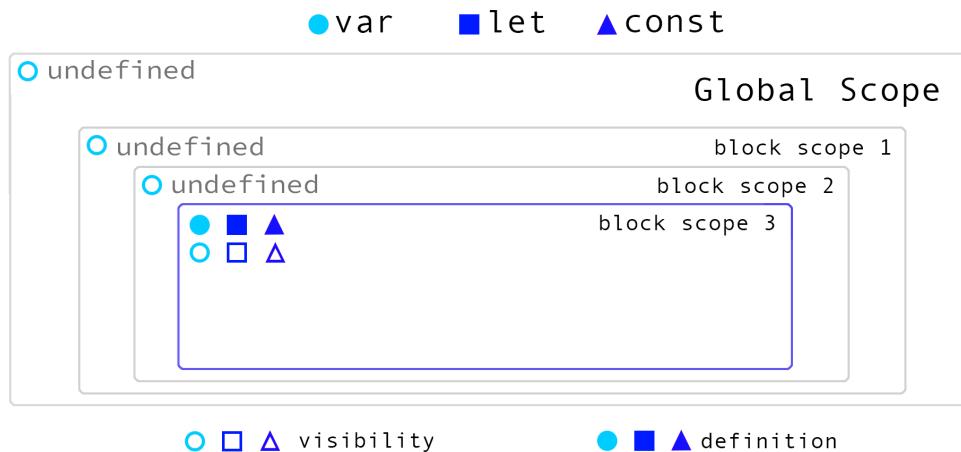
No Difference In Global Scope

When variables are defined in *global scope* there is no differences between **var**, **let** and **const** in terms of scope visibility.

They all propagate into inner block-level, function-level and event callback scopes:



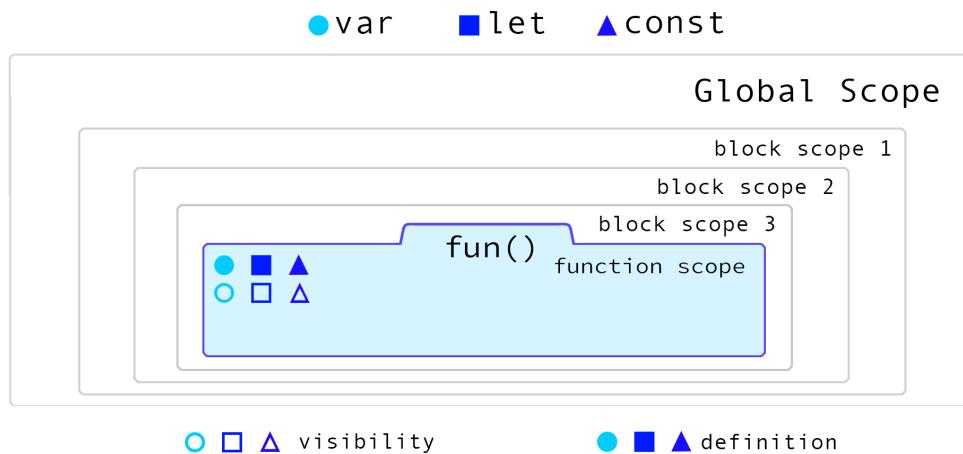
Keywords `let` and `const` limit variable to the scope in which they were defined:



Variables defined using `let` and `const` are not hoisted. Only `var` is.

In Function Scope

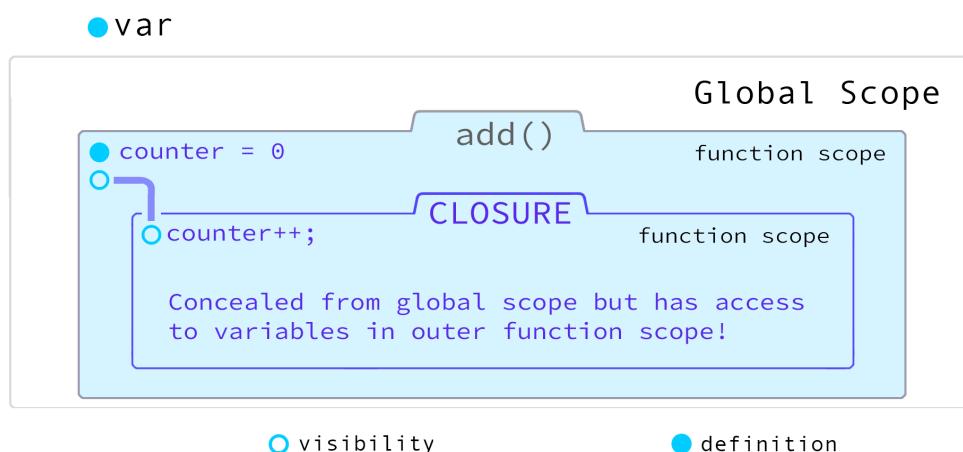
However, when it comes to functions, all variable types, including `var` remain limited to their scope:



You cannot access variables outside of the function scope in which they were defined regardless of which keyword was used.

Closures

A function closure is a function trapped inside another function:



Calling `add()` increments `counter`. This is not possible using other scope patterns.

In the previous diagram, `add()` returns an anonymous function which increments the counter variable that was defined in an outer scope.

Let's try to use that pattern to create our own closure:

```
001 | var plus = (function () {  
002 |   var counter = 0; // defined only once  
003 |   return function () {  
004 |     counter += 1;  
005 |     return counter;  
006 |   }  
007 | })();  
008 |  
009 | plus(); // 1  
010 | plus(); // 2  
011 | plus(); // 3
```

The `plus()` function is defined by an anonymous function that executes itself.

Why Are We Doing This?

Inside the scope of `plus`, *another* anonymous function is created – it increments a private variable `counter` and sends the result back into global scope as a function's return value.

Take away: Global Scope cannot directly access nor *modify* the `counter` variable at any time. Only the code inside the **closure** allows its inner function to modify the variable, still, without the variable leaking into Global Scope...

The whole point is that Global Scope does not need to know or understand how the code inside `plus()` works. It only cares about receiving the result of `plus()` operation so it can pass it to other functions, etc.

So why did we even bother explaining them? Beside that closures are one of the top-asked questions on JavaScript interviews?

Closures are similar to the idea of **encapsulation** – one of the key principles of Object Oriented Programming, where you hide the inner workings of a function or a method from the environment from which it was called.

This idea of making some variables private is key to understanding many other programming concepts.

If you think about it, this is exactly why **let** was added to JavaScript. It provides automatic privacy for variables defined in block-level scope. Variable privacy is a fundamental feature of many programming languages in general.

In Block-level Local Scope

The **let** and **const** keywords conceal variable visibility to scope in which they were defined and its inner scopes.

Scope visibility differences surface when you start defining variables inside local block-level scope or function-level scope.

In Classes

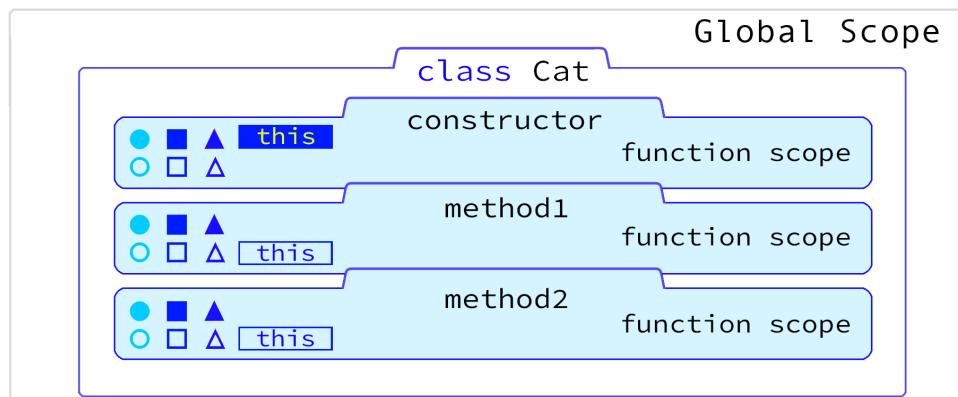
The **class** scope is simply a placeholder. Trying to define variables *directly* in class scope will produce an error:

```
001 | class Cat {  
002 |   let property = 1; // "Unexpected token" Error  
003 |   this.property = 2; // "Unexpected token" Error  
004 | }
```

Here are the proper places for defining local variables and properties. Note, in **class** methods, **let** (or **var** or **const**) only create a local variable to that scope. Therefore, it cannot be accessed outside of the method in which it was defined.

```
001 | class Cat {  
002 |   constructor() {  
003 |     let property = 1; // Ok: local variable  
004 |     this.something = 2; // Ok: object property  
005 |   }  
006 |   method() {  
007 |     console.log(this.property); // undefined  
008 |     console.log(this.something); // 1  
009 |   }  
010 | }
```

In classes variables are defined inside its constructor function or its methods:



7.1.3 ES6 const

The **const** keyword is distinct from **let** and **var**.

It requires assignment on definition:

```
001 let a;  
002 console.log(a); // undefined  
003  
004 const b; // Error: Missing initializer in const declaration
```

Figure 7.4: const *requires* initial value assignment.

This makes sense because value of **const** cannot be reassigned.

```
001 const speed_of_light = 186000; // Miles per second  
002 speed_of_light = 1; // Error: Assignment to constant variable
```

It's still possible to change *values* of a more complex data structure such as Array or objects, even if variable was defined using **const**. Let's take a look!

7.1.4 const and Arrays

Changing a value in the **const** array is still allowed:

```
001 const A = [];  
002 A[0] = "a"; // OK  
003 A = []; // TypeError: Assignment to constant variable.
```

You just can't assign any new objects to the original variable name again.

7.1.5 const and Object Literals

Similar to arrays, when it comes to object literals, **const** only makes the definition constant. But it doesn't mean you can't change values of the properties assigned to a variable that was defined with **const**:

```

    cannot reassign value
    const A = {
      property: 1,
      method: func() { ... }
    }

    A = { something: 1 }; // Error
    A.property = 2; // No error
    A.method = () => { ... } // No error
  
```

The diagram shows a code snippet where a variable `A` is assigned an object using `const`. A pink oval labeled "cannot reassign value" encloses the assignment `const A = { ... }`. A green oval labeled "No Error can reassign value" encloses the assignments `A.property = 2;` and `A.method = () => { ... };`, indicating that while the object itself cannot be reassigned, its properties can.

Conclusion

In case of a more complex data structure (object or array) you can think of `const` as something that does not allow you to reassign it to a new object again. The variable is locked to the original object, but you can still change the value of its properties (or indexes, in case of an array.)

If the value of a variable was defined with `const` and a single primitive (string, number, boolean,) such as speed of light, PI, etc, it cannot be changed.

7.1.6 Dos and Dont's

Do not use `var` unless for some reason you *want* to hoist the variable name. (These cases are rare and usually don't comply with good software design.)

Do use `let` and `const` instead of `var`, wherever possible. Variable hoisting (variables defined using `var`) can be the cause of unpredictable bugs, because only the variable name is hoisted, the value becomes `undefined`.

Do use `const` to define constants such as `PI`, `speed_of_light`, `tax_rate`, etc – values that you *know* shouldn't change during the lifetime of your application.

Chapter 8

Operators

8.0.1 Arithmetic

operator	name	example	value
+	Addition	1 + 1;	2
-	Subtraction	5 - 3;	2
*	Multiplication	2 * 2;	4
/	Division	10 / 5;	2
%	Modulus	10 % 4;	2
++	Increment	a++;	a + 1
--	Decrement	a--;	a - 1

The arithmetic operators are pretty basic. They do exactly what you expect.

The modulus operator returns the number of times one number fits into the other. Here, 4 fits into 10 only 2 times – it is also often used to determine the remainder.

You can create statements without assigning the value to a variable name. It is possible to type them directly into your browser's developer console for practice:

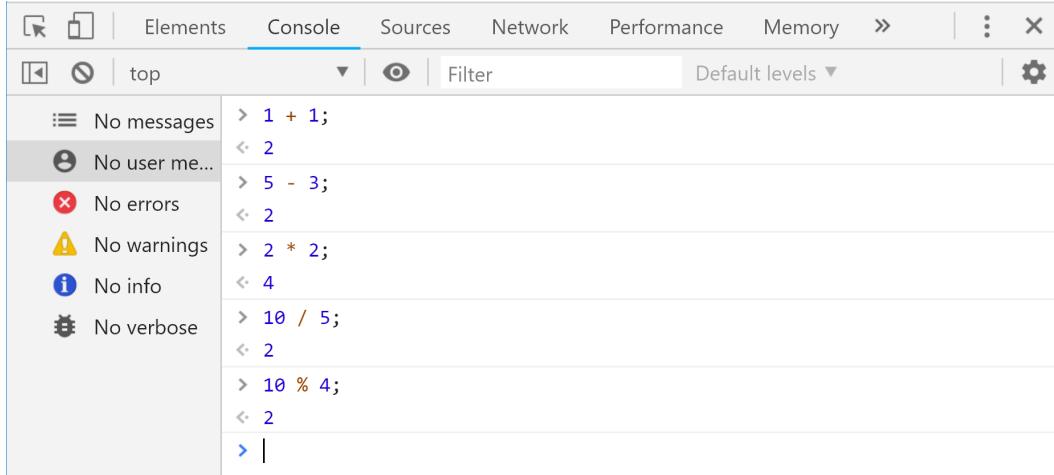


Figure 8.1: Typing JavaScript statements directly into Chrome console.

That works in Chrome console. But in your source code, evaluating simple statements is meaningless:

```
001 | 1 + 1;           // 2
002 | 1 - 2;           // -1
003 | 8 / 2;           // 4
004 | 5 * 3;           // 15
```

More often, you will perform operations directly on variable names:

```
006 | // Define a variable
007 | let variable = 1;           // undefined
008 |
009 | variable + 2;             // 3
010 | variable - 1;             // 0
011 | variable / 2;             // 0.5
012 | variable * 5;             // 5
013 | variable * variable;     // 1
014 |
015 | variable++;               // 1
016 | variable++;               // 2
017 | variable++;               // 3
018 | variable--;               // 4
```

8.0.2 Assignment

operator	name	example	result
=	Assignment	x = 1;	1
+=	Addition	x += 2;	3
-=	Subtraction	x -= 1;	2
*=	Multiplication	x *= 2;	4
/=	Division	x /= 2;	2
%=	Modulus	x %= 1;	0

Assignment operators assign a value to a variable. There are several assignment operators that can also combine assignment with one of the arithmetic operations.

8.0.3 String

Strings can be assigned to variable names or each other using the + operator which we earlier saw used as arithmetic addition. But when one or both of the values on either side of + operator are strings, it is treated as a string addition operator.

operator	name	example	result
=	Assignment	x = 'a'	'a'
+=	Concatenation	x += 'b'	'ab'
+	Addition	'x' + 'y'	'xy'

In this context the += operator can be thought of as string concatenation operator.

8.0.4 Comparison

operator	name	example	result
==	equality	1 == 1	true
		'1' == 1	true
		1 == 2	false
==	equality of value and type	'1' === '1'	true
		1 === 1	true
		1 === '1'	false
!=	inequality	1 != 1	false
		1 != 2	true
!==	inequality of value and type	'1' !== 1	true
		1 !== 1	false
>	greater than	2 > 1	true
<	less than	5 < 7	true
>=	greater or equal	2 >= 1	true
<=	less or equal	2 <= 1	false

Figure 8.2: Triple equality operator checks for **value and type**.

8.0.5 Logical

operator	name	example	result
&&	Logical AND	(5 < 1 && 3 > 2)	false
	Logical OR	1 == 1 2 == 2	true
!	Logical NOT	!true	false
		!(1 == 2)	true

Logical operators are used to determine logic between the values of expressions or variables.

8.0.6 Bitwise

operator	name	example	result
&	Bitwise AND	a&b	1
	Bitwise OR	a b	13
^	Bitwise AND	a^b	12
~	Bitwise AND	~a	-6
<<	Bitwise AND	a<<1	10
>>	Bitwise AND	a>>2	2

In binary number system decimal numbers have an equivalent represented by a series of 0's and 1's. For example 5 is 0101 and 1 is 0001. Bitwise operators work on those bits, rather than number's decimal values.

We won't go into great detail about how they work, but you can easily look them up online. They have unique properties: for example: the << operator is the same as multiplying a whole number by 2 and >> operator is the same as dividing a whole number by 2. They are sometimes used as performance optimizations because they are faster than * and / operators in terms of processor cycles.

8.0.7 typeof

```
001 | typeof 1;           number (primitive)
002 | typeof Number(1)    number (primitive)
003 | typeof new Number(1); object (instance)
```

The **typeof** operator is used to check the type of a value. It will often evaluate to either primitive type, object or function. The value produced by the **typeof** operator is always string format:

operator	result
typeof 125;	'number'
typeof 100n;	'bigint'
typeof 'text';	'string'
typeof NaN;	'number'
typeof true;	'boolean'
typeof [];	'object'
typeof {};	'object'
typeof Object;	'function'
typeof new Object();	'object'
typeof null;	'object'

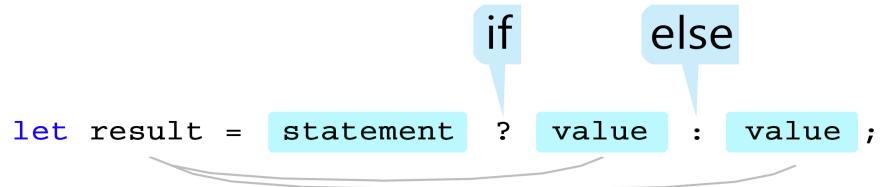
Figure 8.3: NaN (Not a Number) evaluates to 'number'. This is just one of many JavaScript quirks. However, they are not bugs and usually start to make more sense as your knowledge of JavaScript deepens.

NaN lives natively on **Number.NaN** – it is considered to be a primitive value.

NaN is the symbol usually produced in the context of a numeric operation. One such example is trying to instantiate a number object by passing a string value to its constructor: **new Number("str")** in which case **NaN** would be returned.

8.0.8 Ternary (?:)

The ternary operator has the form of: statement?statement:statement;
Statements can be expressions or a single value:



The ternary operator is like an inline if-statement. It does not support {} brackets or multiple statements.

8.0.9 delete

The `delete` keyword can be used to delete an object property:

```
001 let bird = {  
002   name: "raven",  
003   speed: "30mpg"  
004 };  
005  
006 console.log(bird); // {name: "raven", speed: "30mpg"}  
007 delete bird.speed;  
008 console.log(bird); // {name: "raven"}
```

You cannot use `delete` to remove stand-alone variables. Even though, if you try to do that, no error will be generated (unless you are in strict mode.)

8.0.10 in

The `in` operator can be used to check if a property *name* exists in an object:

```
001 "c" in { "a" : 1, "b" : 2, "c" : 3 }; // true  
002 1 in { "a" : 1, "b" : 2, "c" : 3 }; // false
```

The **in** operator, when used together with arrays, will check if an index exists. Note, it is ignorant of actual *value* (in either arrays or objects.)

```
004 "c" in ["a", "b", "c"];      // false
005 0 in ["a", "b", "c"];       // true
006 1 in ["a", "b", "c"];       // true
007 2 in ["a", "b", "c"];       // true
008 3 in ["a", "b", "c"];       // false
```

You can check for properties on built-in data types. The `length` property is native to all arrays:

```
010 "length" in [];           // true
011 "length" in [0, 1, 2];     // true
```

The "length" property does not exist natively on an object unless it's added explicitly:

```
013 "length" in {};          // false
014 "length" in {"length": 1}; // true
```

Check for presence of constructor or prototype property on an object constructor function:

```
016 "constructor" in Object; // true
017 "prototype" in Object;   // true
```

Chapter 9

...rest and ...spread

9.0.1 Rest Properties

The `...rest` syntax can help you refer to a larger number of items by extracting them from a single function parameter name. The single `...rest` parameter is assumed to contain one or more arguments passed to the function:

```
(...🐷) => 🐱.map(🥓 => console.log(🥓));
```

Console output (if function was passed 3 arguments):



Figure 9.1: Using `...rest` properties to break down a larger number of arguments and passing them to higher-order function `Array.map()`

All joking aside, how can `...rest` parameters simplify our code?

```
001|let f = (...items) => items.map(item => console.log(item));
```

We can further shorten code by moving console output to a separate **print** function:

```
001|let print = item => console.log(item);  
002|  
003|let f = (...items) => items.map(print);
```

Call the f() function with an arbitrary number of arguments:

```
001|f(1, 2, 3, 4, 5);
```

The function takes rest parameters: you can specify as many as you need.

Console output:

```
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
> |
```

After arrow functions were introduced in EcmaScript 6, some started to name their variables using a single character:

```
001|let f = (...i) => i.map(v => console.log(v));
```

We just used multiple language features: an *arrow function*, `...rest`, and `.map()` to abstract our code to something that looks like a math equation without sacrificing original functionality. It definitely looks cleaner than a `for-loop`!

This might make your code even shorter, but it's probably harder to understand.

Remember, if you are working on a team, another person might be reading your code. Sometimes that person will be you in the future.

9.0.2 Spread Properties

You can think of spread as an opposite of rest.

It can help you extract parts from an object.

let { , , ,  } = ;

let { ,  } = ;

9.0.3 ...rest and ...spread

It's tempting to call **...rest** or **...spread** syntax *operators*. And you will often hear people refer to them as such. But in fact it is only syntax. An operator is often thought of as something that *modifies* a value. Rest and spread *assign* values.

If we box them into the category of operators, perhaps we could say they would be similar to the equality operator `=`. Rest and spread simply abstract it for working with multiple assignments.

The **rest** syntax is called *rest parameters*, in the context of using it as a parameter name in a function definition, where it simply means: "the rest of arguments". Sometimes it is referred to as *rest elements*, because it assumes multiple values.

Both **rest** and **spread** syntax takes on the form of `...name`. So what's the difference?

...spread operator – expand iterables into one or more arguments.

...rest parameter – collect all remaining parameters ("the rest of") into an array.

...rest

Let's say we have a simple `sum()` function:

```
001 | function sum(a, b) { return a + b; }
```

This limits us to two arguments.

The **...rest** parameters can gather an unknown number of arguments passed to the function and store them in an array (named **args** in this example):

```
001 | function sum(...args) {  
002 |   console.log(args);  
003 | }  
004 | sum(1,2,3); // [1,2,3]
```

It is similar to the built-in `arguments` array-like object. But there is a difference. As the name suggests, rest can capture "the rest of" parameters.

Keep in mind, **...rest** must be either the only arguments token, or the last one on the list. It cannot be the first argument of many:

```
001 | function sum(...args, b, c) {} // error
```

Figure 9.2: **...rest** parameters cannot appear as the leading parameter name when followed by more parameters. You can think of it as "the rest of" arguments when used in this context.

```
001 | function sum(a, ...args, c) {} // error
```

Figure 9.3: Likewise **...rest** cannot appear in the middle of an argument list. In context of multiple function parameters, it is always the last one on the list.

If you don't follow this rule, the following error will be generated in console:

```
✖ Uncaught SyntaxError: Rest parameter must be last formal parameter  
> |
```

```
001 | function sum(a, b, ...args) {} // correct
```

Figure 9.4: Correct placement of **...rest** parameters.

```
001 // Quirk: if you pass an array, it will register as an array:  
002 sum([1,2,3]); // Array(3)  
003  
004 // But you can flatten an array using spread syntax!  
005 sum(...[1,2,3]); // [1,2,3]
```

In this case the three dots in `...[1,2,3]` is actually `...spread`. You can see from this example that `...spread` is like a reverse of `...rest`: it *unpacks* values from an array (or an object, as we will see later.)

Contrary to `...rest`, `...spread` is allowed to be used anywhere on a list.

But `...rest` and `...spread` can sometimes overlap:

```
001 // here ...args is rest  
002 function print(a, ...args) {  
003   console.log(a);  
004   console.log(args);  
005 }  
006 print(...[ 1, 2, 3 ], 4, 5); // here it is ...spread  
007 // a = 1  
008 // args = [2, 3, 4, 5]
```

Here, first `...spread` forms a complete list of arguments: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and that's what's passed into the `print` function.

Inside the function, `a` equals 1, and `[2, 3, 4, 5]` is "the rest of" arguments.

Here's another example:

```
001 // Spreading an array of 3 items into the first 3 parameters:  
002 function print2(a, b, c, ...args) {  
003   console.log(a);  
004   console.log(b);  
005   console.log(c);  
006   console.log(args);  
007 }
```

Let's try it out:

```
001 print2(...[ 1, 2, 3 ], 4, 5);
002 // a = 1
003 // b = 2
004 // c = 3
005 // args = [4, 5]
```

Creating a **sum()** function with ...rest arguments

Our first **sum** function using **...rest** parameters might look like this:

```
001 function sum(...arguments) {
002   let sum = 0;
003   for (let arg of arguments)
004     sum += arg;
005   return sum;
006 }
007 sum(1, 2, 5); // 8
```

But because **...args** produces an array, which makes it an iterable, we can use a reducer to perform the sum operation:

```
001 function sum(...args) {
002   return args.reduce((x, v) => x + v, 0)
003 }
004 sum(1, 2, 3, 4, 5); // 15
```

But **...rest** parameters also work in *arrow functions* and we can further shorten the function to following form:

```
001 let sum = (...a) => a.reduce((x, v) => x + v, 0);
002 sum(100, 200, 400); // 700
```

Some people think while this format is shorter, it's harder to read. But that's the trade off you get with functional programming style. People with background in math find this format elegant. Traditional programmers might not.

Flattening arrays with ...spread

Luna would be a nice name for a female cat with silvery fur that resembles the moon's surface.

```
001 let names = ["felix", "luna"];
002 const cats = [...names, "daisy"];
003 console.log(cats); // (3) ["felix", "luna", "daisy"]
```

Using ...spread outside of arrays, objects or function parameters

You can't use ...spread syntax to assign values to variables.

```
001 let a = ...[1,2,3]; // error
```

 Uncaught SyntaxError: Unexpected token ...

> |

Are you disappointed? Don't be. You will love Destructuring Assignment.

9.1 Destructuring Assignment

Destructuring assignment can be used to extract multiple items from arrays and objects and assign them to variables:

```
001 // destructure from array
002 [a, b] = [10, 20];
003 console.log(a, b); // 10 20
```

The above code is the same as:

```
001 var a = 10;
002 var b = 20;
```

When **var**, **let** or **const** are not specified, **var** is assumed:

```
001 [a] = [1];
002 console.log(window.a); // 1
```

As expected **let** definitions are not available as a property on window object:

```
001 let [a] = [2];
002 console.log(window.a); // undefined
```

It is possible to destructure into **...rest** array:

```
001 // destructure from array with rest
002 [a, b, ...rest] = [30, 40, 50, 60, 70];
003 console.log(a, b); // 30 40
004 console.log(rest); // [50, 60, 70]
```

Destructuring is often used to extract object properties to a matching name:

```
001 // Destructure to oranges from oranges property in an object
002 let { oranges } = { oranges : 1 };
003 console.log(oranges); // 1
```

The order doesn't matter – as long as there is property **grapes** the value will be assigned to the variable with the same name on the receiving end:

```
001 let fruit_basket = {  
002   apples : 0,  
003   grapes : 1,  
004   mangos : 3,  
005 };  
006  
007 let { grapes } = fruit_basket;  
008  
009 console.log(grapes); // 1
```

Extract from multiple values. Grab apples and oranges and count them:

```
001 let { apples, oranges } = { apples : 1, oranges : 2 };  
002 console.log(apples + oranges); // 3
```

Destructuring is not implicitly recursive, second-level objects are not scanned:

```
001 let { oranges } = { apples : 1, inner: {oranges : 2} };  
002 console.log(oranges); // undefined
```

But it's possible to extract directly from object's inner properties:

```
001 let deep = {  
002   basket: {  
003     fruit: {  
004       name: "orange",  
005       shape: "round",  
006       weight: 0.2,  
007     }  
008   }  
009 };  
010  
011 let { name, shape, weight } = deep.basket.fruit;  
012  
013 console.log(name); // "orange"  
014 console.log(shape); // "round"  
015 console.log(weight); // 0.2
```

If variable is not found in object, you will end up with **undefined**. For example, if we attempt to destructure to property name that doesn't exist in the object:

```
001 let { apples } = { oranges : 1 };
002 console.log(apples); // undefined
```

It is possible to destructure and rename at the same time:

```
001 let { automobile: car } = { automobile: "Tesla" };
002 console.log(car); // "Tesla"
```

Merging objects with ...spread

You can use **...spread** syntax to easily merge two or more objects:

```
001 let a = { p:1, q:2, m:()=>{} };
002 let b = { r:3, s:4, n:()=>{} };
003 let c = { ...a, ...b };
```

What are the contents of object **c**?

```
001 console.log(c);
```

Console output:

```
▼ {p: 1, q: 2, m: f, r: 3, s: 4, ...}
  ► m: () => {}
  ► n: () => {}
    p: 1
    q: 2
    r: 3
    s: 4
  ► __proto__: Object
```

```
> |
```

The great thing is that it's not just a shallow copy.

...spread copies nested properties too:

```
001 let a = { nest:{nest:{eggs:10}} };  
002 let b = { eggs:5 };  
003 let c = { ...a, ...b };  
004 console.log(c);
```

Console output:

```
▼ {nest: {...}, eggs: 5} ⓘ  
  eggs: 5  
  ▼ nest:  
    ► nest: {eggs: 10}  
    ► __proto__: Object  
    ► __proto__: Object
```

Merging arrays with ...spread

The same can be done with arrays:

```
001 let a = [1,2];  
002 let b = [3,4];  
003 let c = [...a, ...b];  
004 console.log(c); // [1,2,3,4]
```


Chapter 10

Closure

Closure Introduction

There are many different ways to explain a closure. The explanations in this chapter should not be taken for the holy grail of closures. But it is my hope that interpretation presented in this book will be enough to deepen your understanding.

Feel free to play around with the examples shown here on codepen.io and see how they work. Eventually it should sink in.

In C, and many other languages, when a function call exits, memory allocated for that function is wiped out as part of automatic memory management on the stack. But in JavaScript, variables and functions defined inside that function still remain in memory, even after the function is called.

Retaining a link to variables or methods defined inside the function, after it has already been executed, is part of how a closure works.

JavaScript is an ever-evolving language.

When closures came around, there were no classes or private variables in JavaScript. It can be said that until EcmaScript 6, closures could be used to (roughly) simulate something similar to what is known as object's method privacy.

Closures are part of traditional programming style in JavaScript. They are a prime candidate for interview questions. Having said this, JavaScript Grammar cannot be complete without a discussion on closures.

What Is Closure?

A closure enables you to keep a *reference* to all local function variables, in the state they were found after the function exited.

Closures are difficult to understand, knowing nothing about scope rules and how execution context delegates control flow in JavaScript. But I think this task can be simplified if we start simple and take a look at a few practical examples.

To understand closures, we need to – at the very least – understand the following construct. Primarily it is enabled by the idea that in JavaScript you can define a function inside another function. Technically, that's what a closure is.

```

001 // The function global() is defined in an already existing
002 // execution context that was created together with window
003 function global() {
004     // At the time global() is invoked, a new execution
005     // context will be created for this function scope.
006     // During declaration binding instantiation, internal
007     // to JavaScript interpreter, inner() will be created
008     // as a new native object with a scope that points to
009     // variable environment of global()'s execution context
010     function inner() {
011         console.log("inner");
012     }
013     inner();    // Call inner
014 }
015
016 global(); // "inner"

```

In the following example, global function `sendEmail` defines an anonymous function and assigns it to variable `send`. This variable is visible only from the scope of `sendEmail` function, but not from global scope:

```

001 function sendEmail(from, sub, message) {
002     let msg = `${sub} > ${message}` received from ${from}.`;
003     let send = function() { console.log(msg); }
004     send();
005 }
006
007 sendEmail('Jason', 'Re: subject', 'Good news.');

```

Figure 10.1: In JavaScript, inner functions have access to variables defined in the scope of the function in which they are defined.

When we call `sendEmail` it will create and call `send` function. It is not possible to call `send()` directly from global scope.

Console Output:

```
"Re: subject" > "Good news." received from Jason.
```

```
> |
```

We can expose a reference to private methods (inner functions) by returning them from the function. The following example is exactly the same as one above, except here instead of calling the `send` method we *return* a reference to it on line 004:

```
001 | function sendEmail(from, sub, message) {  
002 |   let msg = `${sub}` > `${message}` received from ${from}.`;  
003 |   let send = function() { console.log(msg); }  
004 |   return send;  
005 | }  
006 |  
007 | // Create a reference to sendMail  
008 | let ref = sendEmail('Jason', 'Re: subject', 'Good news.');//  
009 |  
010 | // Call by reference name  
011 | ref();
```

Figure 10.2: Instead of calling `send()`, let's return it. This way a reference to this private method can be created in global scope.

Now we can call `send()` by reference directly from global scope.

Even after `sendEmail` function was called, `msg` and `send` variables remained in memory. In languages like C, they would be removed from the automatic memory on the stack, and we wouldn't be able to access them. But not in JavaScript.

Let's take a look at another example. First we defined `print`, `set`, `increase` and `decrease` variables as global placeholders.

```
001 | let print, set, increase, decrease;  
002 |  
003 | function manager() {  
004 |   console.log("manager()");  
005 |   let number = 15;  
006 |   print = function() { console.log(number) }  
007 |   set = function(value) { number = value }  
008 |   increase = function() { number++ }  
009 |   decrease = function() { number-- }  
010 | }
```

In order to assign anonymous function names to global function variables, we need to run `manager()` at least once.

```
012 manager(); // initialize manager
013 print(); // 15
014 for (let i = 0; i < 200; i++) increase();
015 print(); // 215
016 decrease();
017 print(); // 214
018 set(755);
019 print(); // 755
020 let old_print = print; // save a reference to print()
021
022 manager(); // initialize manager (again)
023 print(); // 15
024 old_print(); // 755
```

Figure 10.3: The `set(755)` function resets the value of `number` to 755.

Console Output:

```
manager();
15
215
214
755
manager();
15
755
> |
```

Explanation

After calling `manager()` for the first time. The function executed and all global references were linked to their respective anonymous functions. This created our first closure. Now, let's try to use the global methods to see what happens.

We then called some methods: `increase()`, `decrease()` and `set()` to modify the value of `number` variable defined inside `manager` function. At each step we printed out the value using the `print()` method, to confirm it actually changed.

Beautiful Closure

It can be assumed that closures are used in Functional Programming for similar reasons to why private methods are used in Object Oriented Programming. They provide a method API to an object in the form of a function.

What if we could advance this idea and create a closure that looked beautiful and returned several methods rather than just one?

```
001 let get = null; // placeholder for global getter function
002
003 function closure() {
004
005     this.inc = 0;
006     get = () => this.inc; // getter
007
008     function increase() { this.inc++; }
009     function decrease() { this.inc--; }
010     function set(v) { this.inc = v; }
011     function reset() { this.inc = 0; }
012     function del() {
013         delete this.inc; // becomes undefined
014         this.inc = null; // additionally reset it to null
015         console.log("this.inc deleted");
016     }
017     function readd() {
018         // if null or undefined
019         if (!this.inc)
020             this.inc = "re-added";
021     }
022
023     // Return all methods at once
024     return [increase, decrease, set, reset, del, readd];
025 }
```

The **del** method will completely remove inc property from the object and **readd** will re-add the property back. For simplicity of the explanation there is no safeguarding against errors. But naturally, if the inc property was deleted, and an attempt to call any of the methods was detected, a reference error would be generated.

Initialize closure:

```
032 | let f = closure();
```

Variable **f** now points to an array of exposed methods. We can bring them into global scope by assigning them to unique function names:

```
034 | let inc = f[0];
035 | let dec = f[1];
036 | let set = f[2];
037 | let res = f[3];
038 | let del = f[4];
039 | let add = f[5];
```

We can now call them to modify the hidden **inc** property:

```
041 | inc(); // 1
042 | inc(); // 2
043 | inc(); // 3
044 | dec(); // 2
045 | get(); // 2
046 | set(7); // 7
047 | get(); // 7
048 | res(0); // 0
049 | get(); // 0
```

Finally we can delete the property itself using **del** method:

```
051 | // Delete property
052 | del(0); // null
053 | get(); // null
```

Calling other functions at this point would produce a reference error, so let's re-add the **inc** property back to the object:

```
055 | // Read property inc
056 | add();
057 | get(); // "re-added"
```

Reset the **inc** property to **0** and increment it by **1**:

```
059 res(); // 0  
060 inc(); // 1  
061 get(); // 1
```

Closing Words

Whenever a function is declared inside another function, a closure is created.

When a function containing another function is called, a new execution context is created, holding a fresh copy of all local variables. You can create a reference to them in global scope, by linking to variable names defined in global scope, or returning the closure from the outer function using `return` keyword.

A closure enables you to keep a *reference* to all local function variables, in the state they were found after the function exited.

Note: `new Function()` constructor does not create a closure, because objects created with `new` keyword also creates a stand-alone context.

10.0.1 Arity

Arity is the number of arguments a function takes.

You can access function's arity via Function.length property:

```
001 // Define a function with 3 parameters
002 function f(a,b,c) {}
003
004 // Get function arity
005 let arity = f.length;
006
007 console.log(arity); // 3;
```

10.0.2 Currying

In JavaScript functions are expressions. This also means a function can return another function. In the previous section we looked at the closure pattern. Currying is a pattern that immediately evaluates and returns another function expression.

A *curried function* can be constructed by chaining closures by defining and immediately returning all inner functions at the same time.

Here is an example of a curried function:

```
001 let planets = function(a) {
002   return function(b) {
003     return "Favorite planets are " + a + " and " + b;
004   };
005 };
006
007 let favoritePlanets = planets("Jupiter");
008
009 // Call the curried function with different arguments:
010 favoritePlanets("Earth");
011 favoritePlanets("Jupiter");
012 favoritePlanets("Saturn");
```

Function **planets** returns another anonymous function. So when it is assigned to **favoritePlanets** with one argument "Jupiter", it can be called again with a secondary argument.

Here is the result of the 3 curried functions from example above:

```
Favorite planets are Jupiter and Earth
```

```
Favorite planets are Jupiter and Mars
```

```
Favorite planets are Jupiter and Saturn
```

```
> |
```

The inner function can be invoked immediately after the first call:

```
001 // Call the curried function with two arguments:  
002 planets("Jupiter")("Mars");
```

And the result is:

```
Favorite planets are Jupiter and Mars
```

```
> |
```

Currying is originally considered to be part of functional programming style.

It is not a surprise then, that this older currying syntax can be rewritten into this far more elegant arrow function format:

```
001 let planets = (a) => (b) => "Planets are " + a + " and " + b;  
002  
003 planets("Venus")("Mars");
```

And the outcome is:

```
Planets are Venus and Mars
```

```
> |
```

Chapter 11

Loops

Loops are fundamental to working with lists. The primary purpose of a loop is to iterate over one or a set of multiple statements. Iterating is commonplace in software development – it means to *repeat* an action a multiple number of times.

Working with loops introduces the idea of **iterators**. Some built-in types are iterable. Iterables that can be passed to a **for...of** loops instead of using traditional **for-loop**. You can say that an **iterable** object abstracts away the index values of a list and helps you focus on solving the problem.

Array is an iterable. Object is not (objects are enumerable).

An iterable type guarantees the order of items in the set. This is why arrays have an index for each item. Enumerable types do not guarantee the order in which properties will appear when iterated.

11.0.1 Types of loops in JavaScript

There are different ways to iterate in JavaScript. Starting from classic **while** and **for-** loops to leaning more toward functional programming style iterators: using array's higher-order methods. Common iterators are **for**, **for...of**, **for...in**, **while** and **Array.forEach**. Some **Array** methods are assumed to be iterators: **.values**, **.keys**, **.map**, **.every**, **.some**, **.filter**, **.reduce** and a few others. They are called higher-order functions, because they take another function as an argument.

Incrementing And Reducing

Loops are often used for walking through a large list of objects and updating their properties. Loops can be used for filtering out objects and reducing the list to something more meaningful.

They can also be used for reducing a set of values to a single value:

```
001 let miles = [5, 12, 75, 2, 5];
002
003 // Add up all numbers using a for loop
004 let A = 0;
005 for (let i = 0; i < 5; i++)
006   A += miles[i];
007 console.log(A); // 99
```

You can implement a reducer to the same effect:

```
009 // Add up all numbers using a reducer: Array.reduce method
010 const R = (accumulator, value) => accumulator + value;
011 const result = miles.reduce(R);
012 console.log(result); // 99
```

Generating HTML Elements Dynamically

Create a number of HTML elements dynamically to populate the UI view:

```
001 // Add 10 elements to the page
002 for (let i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
003   // create a new HTML element
004   let element = document.createElement("div");
005   // insert inner HTML into the element
006   element.innerHTML = "element " + i;
007   // Add the created element to the document
008   document.appendChild(element);
009 }
```

This code will add 10 **div** elements to the document.

It is possible to use **appendChild** method to create nested elements.

Render lists

Loops are often used together with **render lists**. Rendering is simply the act of displaying something on the screen. In software development, there are plenty of times when you need to *display* a list of items.

Dynamically sorted tables

Building an entire table dynamically can help you sort values by column using an **Array.entries** and **Array.sort** methods.

In some cases you will have to write your own sorting function, if your table columns are stored in an object as properties and not array items. That however, may or may not be a good idea, depending on the data set.

Note

You cannot easily make a decision about exactly how to deal with lists, until some sort of data layout is defined. So, choosing which type of loop to use will be often determined by other decisions made and the layout of your custom data structures.

11.1 for loops

For loop syntax comes in three syntactic flavors:

```
001 // For-loop with an empty body
002 for (initialize; condition; increment);
003
004 // Iterate over a single statement
005 for (initialize; condition; increment) single_statement;
006
007 // Iterate over multiple statements
008 for (initialize; condition; increment) {
009     multiple;
010     statements;
011 }
```

For loops require 3 statements separated by two semicolons, which can be any legal JavaScript statement, a function call, or even an empty statement.

You'll often use the following pattern in basic implementations: 1) **initialize counter** 2) **test condition** and 3) **increment or decrement** counter.

11.1.1 0-index based counter

Initializing the for-loop counter with a 0-index based value is a good idea, because most lists (like arrays) are 0-index based, where first item is located at array[0] and not array[1]. This might take some time to get used to.

11.1.2 The Infinite for Loop

A for loop can be defined without any of the default statements. But by doing this you will create an infinite for-loop that will freeze your program:

```
001 for(;;)
002     console.log("hi"); // Infinite for loop - don't do it
```

You probably don't really want to do this, unless for some reason it becomes necessary. A **while** loop should probably be used in this case.

11.1.3 Multiple Statements

Multiple statements can be separated by comma. In the following example the **inc()** function is used to increment value of global variable counter. Note the combination of the two statements: **i++**, **inc()**:

```
001 let counter = 0;
002
003 function inc() { counter++; }
004
005 for (let i = 0; i < 10; i++, inc());
006
007 console.log(counter); // 10
```

This body-less for loop progresses the counter 10 times. The actual value is incremented inside the **inc()** function. This is just an example of executing multiple statements, we should definitely avoid using global variables in these types of cases.

Incrementing Numbers

At their basic, loops can be used to increment numbers.

```
001 let counter = 0;
002
003 for (let i = 0; i < 10; i++)
004   counter++;
005
006 counter; // 10;
```

for loops and let scope.

Bracket-less for-loop syntax is not good friends with the let keyword. The following code will generate an error:

```
001 | for (var i = 0; i < 10; i++) let x = i;
```

A let variable cannot be defined without scope brackets. All variables defined using let keyword require their own local scope. This is fixed by:

```
001 | for (var i = 0; i < 10; i++) { let x = i; }
```

Nested for Loops

Because a for loop is a JavaScript statement in itself it can be used as the iterable statement of another for loop. This hierarchical for loop is often used for working with 2-dimensional grids:

```
001 | for (let y = 0; y < 2; y++)
002 |   for (let x = 0; x < 2; x++)
003 |     console.log(x, y);
```

Console output (all combinations between x / y):

```
001 | 0 0
002 | 1 0
003 | 0 1
004 | 1 1
```

Loop's Length

The condition statement will usually check if counter has reached a limit and if so, the loop will terminate:

```
001 | "loop."
002 | "loop."
003 | "loop."
```

This simple loop will print "loop." to console 3 times:

```
001 "loop."  
002 "loop."  
003 "loop."
```

You can add brackets if you need to execute multiple statements:

```
001 for (let i = 0; i < 3; i++) {  
002   let loop = "loop.";  
003   console.log(loop);  
004 }
```

The console output will be same as previous example.

Skiping Steps

You can skip an iteration step by using continue keyword;

```
001 for (let i = 0; i < 3; i++) {  
002   if (i == 1)  
003     continue;  
004   console.log(i);  
005 }
```

Output of this for-loop: (note 1 was skipped)

```
001 0  
002 2
```

The continue keyword tells code flow to go to the next step without executing any next statements in this for-loop's scope during the current iteration step.

Breaking Early

You can break out of a for loop by using break keyword:

```
001 | for (let i = 0;; i++) {  
002 |   console.log("loop");  
003 |   break;  
004 | };
```

Note the condition statement was skipped here. The loop will break by an explicit command from the statement itself.

In this case the for loop will print "loop." to the console only once. The break keyword simply exits the loop whenever it's encountered. But it can also be conditional (see next example.)

Custom Breaking Condition

None of the 3 statements separated by ;; in a for loop are required. It's perfectly legal to move the conditional test into the for loop's body, instead of testing for it between the parenthesis.

This example skips the middle statement, where we would usually create a conditional test for the counter, and replaces it by its own condition inside the loop where it breaks out of the loop if **i** is greater than **1**:

```
001 | for (let i = 0;; i++) {  
002 |   console.log("loop, i = " + i);  
003 |   if (i > 1)  
004 |     break;  
005 | };
```

If not for the if statement inside the for loop, it would continue indefinitely because there are not other conditions stopping it from running.

Console output:

```
001 | loop, i = 0  
002 | loop, i = 1  
003 | loop, i = 2
```

The word "loop." is printed 3 times. The condition **i** is greater than **1** might deceive us into thinking that the text will be printed 2 times at most. But it's

printed 3 times! That's because counting started with **0** and not **1**, and at its upper limit the condition evaluates to **2** and not **1**.

Breaking To Label

In JavaScript, a statement can be labeled when a `label_name:` is prepended to a statement. Because a for loop is a statement you can label for loops.

Let's try to increment value of `c` inside the inner loop. By choosing whether to break the loop and jump to inner or mark label we change the pattern in which the for loops will work:

1. This example produces **11** when breaking to **mark:** label.

```
001 | let c = 0;
002 | mark: for (let i = 0; i < 5; i++)
003 |   inner: for (let j = 0; j < 5; j++) {
004 |     c++;
005 |     if (i == 2)
006 |       break mark;
007 |
008 | console.log(c); // 11
```

2. This example produces **21** when breaking to **inner:** label.

```
001 | let c = 0;
002 | mark: for (let i = 0; i < 5; i++)
003 |   inner: for (let j = 0; j < 5; j++) {
004 |     c++;
005 |     if (i == 2)
006 |       break inner;
007 |
008 | console.log(c); // 21
```

The two examples are logically different based on which label the execution flow of the inner for loop is transferred to.

Breaking from a labeled block scope

While we're on the subject, you can use break keyword to break out of regular non for-loop block scope as long as it's labeled:

```
001 | block: {  
002 |   console.log("before");  
003 |   break block;  
004 |   console.log("after");  
005 | }
```

Console output:

```
001 | "before"
```

Execution flow never reaches " after".

11.2 for...of Loop

Using indexed iterators, such as the **for loop**, can become a hassle when dealing with arrays or object properties. Especially when their number is not known.

for...of loops to the rescue!

We'll start with a slightly advanced example where we will use a **for...of** loop together with a generator, and then discover some of the other, simpler use-cases.

11.2.1 for...of and Generators

Sometimes you might want to use a for loop with a generator – a special type of function with star * character appended to the **function*** keyword.

When a generator function is called, the multiple **yield** statements inside it do not execute at the same time, as you would normally expect. Only the first one does.

To execute **yield** statements 2 and 3, you have to call the generator function again (two more times). Internally, the **yield** statement counter is incremented automatically every time you call the generator function.

Generator executes a **yield** statement asynchronously, even though the code inside the generator function has linear appearance. This is done on purpose - it makes code more readable compared to alternatives (XMLHttpRequest, Ajax, etc).

```
001 // Generator function:  
002 function* generator() {  
003     yield 1;  
004     yield 2;  
005     yield 3;  
006 }  
007  
008 for (let value of generator())  
009     console.log(value);
```

The code above is equivalent to calling generator manually 3 times (*When you want to increment generator manually just make sure that you first assign it to another variable.*):

```
001 let gen = generator();  
002  
003 console.log(gen.next().value);  
004 console.log(gen.next().value);  
005 console.log(gen.next().value);
```

Here's the console output in either case:

```
001 1  
002 2  
003 3
```

Generators are one-time use functions. You should not attempt to reuse a generator function more than once as if it were a regular function (after the last **yield** statement has been executed.)

11.2.2 for...of and Strings

Strings are *iterable*.

You can walk each character of a string using a for...of loop:

```
001 | let string = 'text';
002 |
003 | for (let value of string)
004 |   console.log(value);
```

Console:

```
001 | 't'
002 | 'e'
003 | 'x'
004 | 't'
```

11.2.3 for...of and Arrays

Let's say we have an array:

```
001 | let array = [0, 1, 2];
```

We can iterate through it without having to create index variables. Once the end of the array is reached the loop will end automatically:

```
001 | for (let value of array)
002 |   console.log(value);
```

Console:

```
001 | 0
002 | 1
003 | 2
```

11.2.4 for...of and Objects

It would be nice to have the ability to iterate over an object's *properties* using **for...of** loop, right?

```
001 let object = { a: 1, b: 2, c: 3 };
002
003 for (let value of object) // Error: object is not iterable
004   console.log(value);
```

But **for...of** loops work only with *iterable* values. An object is *not* an iterable. (It has *enumerable* properties.) One solution is to convert the object to an iterable first before using it in a **for...of** loop.

11.2.5 for...of loops and objects converted to iterables

As a remedy you can first convert an object to an iterable using some of the built-in Object methods: **.keys**, **.values** or **.entries**:

```
001 let enumerable = { property : 1, method : () => {} };
002
003 for (let key of Object.keys( enumerable ))
004   console.log(key);
005
006 Console Output:
007 > property
008 > method
009
010 for (let value of Object.values( enumerable ))
011   console.log(value);
012
013 Console Output:
014 > 1
015 > () => {}
016
017 for (let entry of Object.entries( enumerable ))
018   console.log(entry);
019
020 Console Output:
021 > (2) ["prop", 1]
022 > (2) ["meth", f()]
```

This can also be achievable by using a **for...in** loop instead, without having to use any of the Object conversion methods.

We'll take a look at that in the following section.

11.3 for...in Loops

The **for...of** loops (in previous section) only accept *iterables*. Unless the object is first converted to an iterable, a **for...of** loop won't be of any help.

for...in loops work with *enumerable* object properties. It's a much more elegant solution for iterating through Object properties.

When you have an object at hand you should probably use a **for...in** loop.

```
001 let object = {  
002   a: 1,  
003   b: 2,  
004   c: 3,  
005   method: () => {}  
006 };  
007  
008 for (let value in object)  
009   console.log(value, object[value]);  
010  
011 Console Output: (Note that methods are enumerable too.)  
012 1  
013 2  
014 3  
015 () => {}
```

A **for...in** loop will iterate only *enumerable* object properties. Not all object properties are enumerable, even if they exist on the object. All non-enumerable properties will be skipped by **for...in** iterator.

You won't see **constructor** and **prototype** properties in an output from the **for...in** loop. Although they exist on an object they are not considered to be enumerable.

11.4 While Loops

A while loop will iterate for an indefinite number of times until the specified condition (there is only one) evaluates to false. At which point your loop will stop and execution flow will resume.

```
001 | while (condition) {  
002 |     /* do something until condition is false */  
003 | }
```

Once condition evaluates to false the while loop will break automatically:

```
001 | let c = 0;  
002 | while (c++ < 5)  
003 |     console.log(c);
```

Console output:

```
001 | 1  
002 | 2  
003 | 3  
004 | 4  
005 | 5
```

A secondary condition can be tested within the loop. This makes it possible to break from the loop earlier if needed:

```
001 | while (condition_1) {  
002 |     if (condition_2)  
003 |         break;  
004 | }
```

11.4.1 While and continue

The continue keyword can be used to skip steps:

```
001 | let c = 0;  
002 |  
003 | while (c++ < 1000) {  
004 |     if (c > 1)  
005 |         continue;  
006 |     console.log(c);  
007 | }
```

Console output:

1

Just keep in mind this is just an example. In reality, this would be considered bad code, because the if statement is still executed 1000 times. The console prints 1 only when `c == 0`. If you need an early exit, use **break** instead.

Chapter 12

Arrays

Many of the `Array.*` methods are iterators. Instead of passing your array into a `for` or a `while` loop you should use built-in Array methods instead. Arrays usually already have methods offering cleaner syntax for anything you would write yourself to solve the same problem. So why re-invent the wheel?

Array methods are attached to `Array.prototype` property. This means you can execute them directly from array object like `array.forEach()` or directly from array's literal value like: `[1,2,3].forEach();`

12.0.1 ES10 `Array.prototype.sort()`

Previous (pre-ES10) implementation of V8 used an unstable quick sort algorithm for arrays containing more than 10 items.

A stable sorting algorithm is when two objects with equal keys appear in the same order in the sorted output as they appear in the unsorted input. But this is no longer the case. ES10 offers a stable array sort:

Fruit array definition:

```
001 var fruit = [
002   { name: "Apple",      count: 13, },
003   { name: "Pear",       count: 12, },
004   { name: "Banana",     count: 12, },
005   { name: "Strawberry", count: 11, },
006   { name: "Cherry",     count: 11, },
007   { name: "Blackberry", count: 10, },
008   { name: "Pineapple",   count: 10, }
009 ];
```

Perform sort:

```
001 // Create our own sort criteria function:
002 let my_sort = (a, b) => a.count - b.count;
003
004 // Perform stable ES10 sort:
005 let sorted = fruit.sort(my_sort);
006 console.log(sorted);
```

Console Output:

```
▼ (7) [{} , {} , {} , {} , {} , {} , {}] ⓘ
▶ 0: {name: "Blackberry", count: 10}
▶ 1: {name: "Pineapple", count: 10}
▶ 2: {name: "Strawberry", count: 11}
▶ 3: {name: "Cherry", count: 11}
▶ 4: {name: "Pear", count: 12}
▶ 5: {name: "Banana", count: 12}
▶ 6: {name: "Apple", count: 13}
  length: 7
▶ __proto__: Array(0)
> |
```

12.0.2 Array.forEach

The **forEach** method will execute a function for every item in the array.

Each iteration step receives 3 arguments **value**, **index**, **object**.

It's similar to a **for-loop** but it looks cleaner:

```
001 let fruit = ['pear',
002             'banana',
003             'orange',
004             'apple',
005             'pineapple'];
006
007 let print = function(item, index, object) {
008     console.log(item);
009 }
010
011 fruit.forEach( print );
```

Starting from ES6 it can be suggested to use arrow functions together with Array methods. The code will be easier to read and maintain when building large scale applications. Let's take a look at how we can make syntax cleaner:

Because in JavaScript functions are also expressions, you can pass the function directly into the forEach method:

```
001 fruit.forEach(function(item, index, object) {
002     console.log(item, index, object);
003 });
```

But you might want to use an arrow function here: () => {}

```
001 fruit.forEach((item, index, object) => {
002     console.log(item, index, object);
003 });
```

The console output from both of the cases above:

```
"pear",      0, (5) ["pear", "banana", "orange", "apple", "p..."]
"banana",    1, (5) ["pear", "banana", "orange", "apple", "p..."]
"orange",    2, (5) ["pear", "banana", "orange", "apple", "p..."]
"apple",     3, (5) ["pear", "banana", "orange", "apple", "p..."]
"pineapple", 4, (5) ["pear", "banana", "orange", "apple", "p..."]
```

If you can get away with one argument and return statement you can use this slim form:

```
001 | fruit.forEach(item => console.log(item));
```

As long as you have only one single statement you can remove brackets.

```
"pear"
"banana"
"orange"
"apple"
"pineapple"
```

12.0.3 Array.every

Return value: boolean

Not to be confused with "execute for every item" logic of forEach. In many cases method every will actually not run on every item in the array when at least one item doesn't evaluate to true based on specified condition.

The method every will return true if the value of every single item in the array satisfies the condition specified in its function argument:

The result is true because none of the numbers in the array are greater than or equal to 10. Let's take at the same function with a different value set. If 10 or a greater number was present in the array the result would be false:

Here one of the numbers is 256. Which can be translated to "not every value in the array is ≤ 10 ". Hence, false is returned. It's important to note that once Array.every method encounters 256 the condition function will not execute on the remaining items. Just a single failed test will cause false.

Array.every does not modify the original array. The value inside the function is a copy, not a reference to the value in the original array:

12.0.4 Array.some

Return value: boolean

Similar to **Array.every** except it stops looping whenever it encounters a value that evaluates to true (and not false like in **Array.every**) Let's compare:

```
001 let numbers = [0, 10, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7];
002 let condition = value => value < 10; // value is less than 10
003 let some = numbers.some(condition); // true
004 let every = numbers.every(condition); // false
```

Here some returns true because it checks first value: 0 for ≤ 10 and immediately returns true without having to check the rest of the values.

The every method returns false on the same data set. That's because when it reaches the second item whose value is 10, the ≤ 10 test fails.

Note: Try not to think of some as an "opposite" of every. In some cases they return the same result on the same data set.

12.0.5 Array.filter

Return value: new array consisting only of items that passed a condition.

```
001 let numbers = [0,10,2,3,4,5,6,7];
002 let condition = value => value < 10;
003 let filtered = numbers.filter(condition);
004 console.log(filtered); // [0,2,3,4,5,6,7]
005 console.log(numbers); // Original array unchanged
006
007
```

The new filtered array contains all original items except 10. Because it did not pass

the `i < 10` test. In a real-world scenario the condition can be much more complex and involve larger objects sets.

12.0.6 Array.map

Return value: a copy of the original array with modified values (if any.)

```
001 | let numbers = [0,1,256,3,4,5,6,7];
002 |
003 | let result = numbers.map(value => value = value + 1 );
004 |
005 | console.log(result); // [1,2,257,4,5,6,7,8]
006 | console.log(numbers); // Original array is unchanged
```

`Array.map` is like `Array.forEach` but it returns a copy of the modified array. Note that original array is still unchanged.

12.0.7 Array.reduce

Return value: accumulator

Reducers are similar to other methods. Yet they are unique because they have an accumulator value. The accumulator value must be initialized. There are different types of reducers. In this first example we'll take at a simple case.

As values are iterated this accumulator adds all numbers into a single value:

Like any other `Array` method that works with iterables, a reducer has access to the value it is currently iterating (`currentValue`).

This reducer added up all the numbers into the single accumulator value and returned it: $1 + 2 + 4 = 7$.

How to understand reducers in more complex, practical situations?

When developing software in the real world you won't be using reducers to count numbers. This can be done with a simple for loop. You will encounter plenty of situations where a set of data should be "reduced" only to the set of important values based on some criteria.

Array.reduce or Array.filter?

There is a reason why Array object has a number of different methods that at first sight appear to do the same things.

When it comes to Array methods, always try to choose a proper tool for the task. Don't use reduce just because you want to use reduce – figure out if a particular method was *purposed* to produce a more efficient logic.

It is written, somewhere, that **reduce** is the father of **filter** and **map**. Anything you can do with filter and map can be done with reduce.

However, **reduce** provides a more *elegant* solution to adding up numbers than a for-loop or other Array methods.

Reducers And Updating Object Properties In A Database

After an API action – **update** or **delete** an item, for example – you may want to update the application view. But why update all objects everywhere, when you can "reduce" which object properties should be affected, without having to copy entire lists of object – even the ones that weren't affected by the API call?

12.0.8 Practical Reducer Ideas

Narrowing down on object properties

Let's say your car listing management application has a button that updates the price of a particular vehicle. The user sets a new price and clicks on the button. An action is dispatched to update the vehicle in the database.

Then the callback function returns containing the object with all properties for that vehicle ID (price, make, model, year). But, we only need to update the price.

A reducer can make sure to narrow down on (or "hand pick") only the vehicle price property, not the entire set of properties on the object. The object is then sent back to the database and application view is updated.

Counting weekends

Imagine a task where you had to implement a function that, given month would return number of weekends, working days and holidays there are in that month. A month could be represented by the number of days in it.

It's important to keep the input values the same type as the return value of a reducer. This is one of the main characteristics of a reducer: to reduce a set (not necessarily by filtering, although it is a possibility.)

Function Purity

Reducers are often used in code written following Functional Programming style principles. One of which is **function purity**. The following Dos and Dont's describe some of properties of a pure function.

12.0.9 Dos and Dont's

Even though these are not absolute requirements, these ideas might be helpful for avoiding anti-pattern code. Only use `reduce()` when the result has the same type as the items and the reducer is associative:

```
001 | [1,2,3,4,5].reduce((a, b) => a + b, 0);
```

Figure 12.1: Array of *numbers* is "reduced" to a *number* - value of the same type.

Do use it for summing up some numbers.

Do use it for multiplying some numbers.

Do use it for **updating** state in React.

Do not use it for **building** new lists or objects from scratch.

Do not use it for just about anything else (use a loop).

Do not use it to mutate (change original values of) its arguments.

Do not use it perform side effects, like API calls and routing transitions.

Do not use it to call non-pure functions, e.g. Date.now() or Math.random().

12.0.10 ES10 Array.flat()

Flattening a multi-dimensional array:

```
001 let multi = [1,2,3,[4,5,6,[7,8,9,[10,11,12]]]];
002 multi.flat();                      // [1,2,3,4,5,6,Array(4)]
003 multi.flat().flat();                // [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,Array(3)]
004 multi.flat().flat().flat();// [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12]
005 multi.flat(Infinity);             // [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12]
```

12.0.11 ES10 Array.flatMap()

```
001 let array = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
002 array.map(x => [x, x * 2]);
```

Becomes:

```
► 0: (2) [1, 2]
► 1: (2) [2, 4]
► 2: (2) [3, 6]
► 3: (2) [4, 8]
► 4: (2) [5, 10]
length: 5
```

Now flatten the map:

```
001 array.flatMap(v => [v, v * 2]);
```

Becomes:

```
► [1, 2, 2, 4, 3, 6, 4, 8, 5, 10]
```

12.0.12 ES10 String.prototype.matchAll()

Matching multiple patterns in a string is a common problem when writing software. Use cases include extracting name and email addresses at the same time from an email header, scanning for presence of unique patterns, etc.

In the past, to match multiple items we used `String.match` with a regular expression and `/g` ("global") flag or `RegExp.exec` and/or `RegExp.test` with `/g`.

First, let's take a look at how the older spec worked.

`String.match` with string argument only returns the first match:

```
001 | let string = "Hello";
002 | let matches = string.match("l");
003 | console.log(matches[0]); // "l"
```

The result is a single "l" (**note:** the match is stored in `matches[0]`, not `matches`.)

Only "l" is returned from a search for "l" in the word "hello".

The same goes for using `string.match` with a regex argument. Let's locate the "l" character in the string "hello" using the regular expression `/l/`:

```
001 | let string = "Hello";
002 | let matches = string.match(/l/);
003 | console.log(matches[0]); // "l"
```

Adding /g to the mix

`String.match` with a regex and the `/g` flag *does* return multiple matches:

```
001 | let string = "Hello";
002 | let ret = string.match(/l/g); // (2) ["l", "l"];
```

Great... we've got our multiple matches using < ES10. It worked all along. So why bother with a completely new `matchAll` method? Well, before we can answer this question in more detail, let's take a look at capture groups. If nothing else, you might learn something new about *regular expressions*.

Regular Expression Capture Groups

Capturing groups in regex is simply extracting a pattern from () parenthesis.

You can capture groups with `/regex/.exec(string)` and with `string.match`.

Regular capture group is created by wrapping a pattern in (pattern).

But to create groups property on resulting object it is: `(?<name>pattern)`.

To create a group name: prepend `?<name>` inside brackets. The resulting object will have a new property `groups.name` attached (see code below.)

This is the string we will take as the specimen for our experiment:



black★raven lime★parrot white★seagull

Figure 12.2: String specimen to match.

Here's a code example:

```
001 const string = 'black★raven lime★parrot white★seagull';
002 const regex = /(?(color).*)\*(?(bird)[a-zA-Z]+)/g;
003 while (match = regex.exec(string))
004 {
005   let value = match[0];
006   let index = match.index;
007   let input = match.input;
008   console.log(`$${value} at ${index} with ${input}`);
009   console.log(match.groups.color);
010   console.log(match.groups.bird);
011 }
```

Figure 12.3: Note: `match.groups.color` & `match.groups.bird` are created from adding `?<color>` and `?<bird>` to the () match in the regex string.

`regex.exec` method needs to be called multiple times to walk the entire set of the search results. During each iteration when `.exec` is called, the next result is revealed (`exec doesn't return all matches right away.`) Hence, while loop.

Console Output:

```
black*raven at 0 with 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull'  
black  
raven  
lime*parrot at 11 with 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull'  
lime  
parrot  
white*seagull at 23 with 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull'  
white  
seagull  
|
```

But there is the quirk:

If you remove `/g` from this regex, you will create an infinite loop cycling on the first result forever. This has been a huge pain in the past. Imagine receiving a regex from some database where you are unsure of whether it has `/g` at the end or not. You'd have to check for it first, which would require additional code.

And now, we have enough background to answer the question:

Good reasons to use `.matchAll()`

1. It can be more elegant when using with capture groups. A capture group is simply the part of regular expression with `()` that extracts a pattern.
2. It returns an iterator instead of array. Iterators on their own are useful.
3. An iterator can be converted to an array using spread operator `(...)`
4. It avoids regular expressions with `/g` flag... useful when an unknown regular expression is retrieved from database or outside source and used together with the archaic RegEx object.
5. Regular expressions created using RegEx object cannot be chained using the dot `(.)` operator.
6. Advanced: RegEx object changes internal `.lastIndex` property that tracks

last matching position. This can wreck havoc in complex cases.

How does `.matchAll()` work?

Let's try to match all instances of letter e and l in the word hello. Because an iterator is returned we can walk it with a `for...of` loop:

```
001 // Match all occurrences of the letters: "e" or "l"
002 let iterator = "hello".matchAll(/[el]/);
003 for (const match of iterator)
004   console.log(match);
```

Note that `.matchAll` method does not require `/g` flag.

```
001 [ 'e', index: 1, input: 'hello' ] // Iteration 1
002 [ 'l', index: 2, input: 'hello' ] // Iteration 2
003 [ 'l', index: 3, input: 'hello' ] // Iteration 3
```

Capture Groups example with `.matchAll()`

`.matchAll` returns an *iterator* so we can walk it with `for...of` loop.

```
001 const string = 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull';
002 const regex = /(?(color).*)\*(?(bird)[a-z0-9]+)/;
003 for (const match of string.matchAll(regex)) {
004   let value = match[0];
005   let index = match.index;
006   let input = match.input;
007   console.log(` ${value} at ${index} with ${input}`);
008   console.log(match.groups.color);
009   console.log(match.groups.bird);
010 }
```

Console Output:

```
black*raven at 0 with 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull'  
black  
raven  
lime*parrot at 11 with 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull'  
lime  
parrot  
white*seagull at 23 with 'black*raven lime*parrot white*seagull'  
white  
seagull  
> |
```

Perhaps aesthetically it is very similar to the original `regex.exec` while loop implementation. But as stated earlier this is the better way for the reasons mentioned above. And removing `/g` won't cause an infinite loop.

12.0.13 Dos and Dont's

Do use `string.matchAll` instead of `regex.exec` & `string.match` with `/g` flag.

12.0.14 Comparing Two Objects

It makes sense to compare two literal numeric values such as `1 === 1` or literal boolean values `true === false`, but what does it mean to compare two objects? Furthermore `==` and `===` operators won't help because they compare by *reference* and not by value: `[]` and `[]` may be equal by value but they are different arrays:

```
001 | [] === [];           // false by value
002 | let x = []; x === x; // true only by reference
```

We'll have to write our own function! One way of thinking about comparing objects is comparing the number, type and value of all of their properties.

Following naming convention of **strcmp**: a function that compares strings in many languages, we can write a custom function **objcmp** that compares two objects:

```
001 | // Compare objects & return true if all properties are equal
002 | export default function objcmp(a, b) {
003 |
004 |     // Copy properties into A and B
005 |     let A = Object.getOwnPropertyNames(a);
006 |     let B = Object.getOwnPropertyNames(b);
007 |
008 |     // Return early if number of properties is not equal
009 |     if (A.length != B.length)
010 |         return false;
011 |
012 |     // Walk and compare all properties on both objects
013 |     for (let i = 0; i < A.length; i++) {
014 |         let propName = A[i];
015 |
016 |             // properties must equal by value *and* type
017 |             if (a[propName] !== b[propName])
018 |                 return false;
019 |
020 |
021 |     // objects are equal
022 |     return true;
023 }
```

Figure 12.4: A shallow copy object property comparison algorithm.

The function **objcmp** takes two arguments: **a** and **b**, representing the two objects we want to compare.

This is a non-recursive, shallow copy algorithm. In other words, we are only comparing first-class properties attached directly to the object. Properties attached to properties are not compared. In many cases this is enough.

But there is another, much greater problem. In its current form the function assumes that properties cannot point to either an array or object. Two common data structures that are very likely to be part of an arbitrary object.

Even if we're not doing a deep comparison, the function will fail if any of the properties point to either an object or an array, regardless of whether their length and actual values are the same:

```
001 // Create two identical objects
002 let a = { prop: [1,2], obj: {} };
003 let b = { prop: [1,2], obj: {} };
004
005 objcmp(a, b); // false
```

Our algorithm failed on `[1,2] === [1,2]` comparison. So how do we deal with this situation? First, we can write our own **is_array** function. Because array is the only object in JavaScript with `length` property and at least 3 higher-order functions: **filter**, **reduce** and **map**, we can say that if these methods exist on an object, then it must be an array, with roughly 99% certainty:

```
001 function is_array(value) {
002     return typeof value.reduce == "function" &&
003         typeof value.filter == "function" &&
004         typeof value.map == "function" &&
005         typeof value.length == "number";
006 }
007
008 // Test the function
009 console.log(is_array(1));          // false
010 console.log(is_array("string"));   // false
011 console.log(is_array({a: 1}));     // false
012 console.log(is_array(true));      // false
013 console.log(is_array([]));        // true
014 console.log(is_array([1,2,3,4,5])); // true
```

12.0.15 Writing arrcmp

Let's write our own **arrcmp** function based on the assumption the array equality means that each value at each corresponding index in both arrays match:

```
001 let a = [1,2];
002 let b = [1,2];
003 let c = [5,5];
004
005 function arrcmp(a, b) {
006
007     // One or more values are not arrays:
008     if (!(is_array(a) && is_array(b)))
009         return false;
010
011     // Not equal by length
012     if (a.length != b.length)
013         return false;
014
015     // Compare by value
016     for (let i = 0; i < a.length; i++)
017         if (a[i] !== b[i])
018             return false;
019
020     // All tests passed: arrays a and b are equal
021     return true;
022 }
023
024 console.log(arrcmp(a,b)); // true
025 console.log(arrcmp(b,b)); // true
026 console.log(arrcmp(b,c)); // false
```

There is no built in function for comparing arrays in JavaScript. There is probably a good reason for it. How data is mapped to an array largely depends on overall design of the data in your application.

After all, what exactly does it mean for two arrays to be equal? The data layout can be different from project to project. So is the nature of what you're trying to accomplish, by storing data in arrays. For this reason an array does not always guarantee integrity between its values and indexes they are stored at.

Without a concrete project, we can only assume that it does.

12.0.16 Improving objcmp

Now that we have **is_array** and **arr_cmp** let's add two special case comparisons to the **objcmp** function: one for arrays using our new function, and one for objects using recursion. This deepens our algorithm and makes it less prone to bugs.

We will call **objcmp** from itself (line 025) if one of the object properties checks out to be an object literal itself:

```
001 // Compare objects & return true if all properties are equal
002 function objcmp(a, b) {
003
004     // Copy properties into A and B
005     let A = Object.getOwnPropertyNames(a);
006     let B = Object.getOwnPropertyNames(b);
007
008     // Return early if number of properties is not equal
009     if (A.length != B.length)
010         return false;
011
012     // Walk and compare all properties on both object
013     for (let i = 0; i < A.length; i++) {
014         let propName = A[i];
015         let p1 = a[propName];
016         let p2 = b[propName];
017         // Property points to an array
018         if (is_array(p1) && is_array(p2)) {
019             if (!arr_cmp(p1, p2))
020                 return false;
021         } else
022             // Property points to an object
023             if (p1.constructor === Object &&
024                 p2.constructor === Object) {
025                 if (!objcmp(p1, p2))
026                     return false;
027             // Compare by primitive value
028             } else if (p1 !== p2)
029                 return false;
030     }
031     return true;
032 }
```

Lines that were changed from previous version are highlighted. A test for whether

property points to an array or an object literal was added. If the property is neither, primitive value is tested as usual.

12.0.17 Testing `objcmp` on a more complex object

Let's try it out in action!

```
001 let M = {           let N = {           let O = {  
002   a: 1,             a: 1,             a: 1,  
003   b: 100n,          b: 100n,          b: 100n,  
004   c: {},            c: {},            c: {},  
005   d: [1,2],          d: [1,2],          d: [5,7],  
006   e: "abc",          e: "abc",          e: "abc",  
007   f: true,           f: true,           f: true,  
008   g: () => {}       g: () => {}       g: () => {}  
009 };                  };                  };
```

Here we have 3 objects **M**, **N** and **O**.

Objects **M** and **N** are the same, whereas **O** only differs in array value [5,7].

```
001 objcmp(M, M);           // true  
002 objcmp(M, N);           // true  
003 objcmp(M, O);           // false
```

Our first attempt to run the older version of `objcmp` failed on the following case.

But now it works:

```
001 // Create two identical objects  
002 let a = { prop: [1,2], obj: {} };  
003 let b = { prop: [1,2], obj: {} };  
004  
005 objcmp(a, b); // true
```

Another test, this time using a few different object literals:

```
004 objcmp({a:[1,2]}, {a:[1,2]}); // true  
005 objcmp({a:{b:1}}, {a:{b:1}}); // true  
006 objcmp({a:[1,2]}, {a:[1,3]}); // false  
007 objcmp({a:{b:1}}, {a:{b:2}}); // false
```

Our object comparison function now works as expected. It's not perfect but at least it won't get stuck in large majority of cases. In fact, it even checks object properties recursively, which is a bit more of a deeper search than before.

Possible Improvements: You can further improve this function by checking for arrays of objects, instead of just arrays of values.

As you can see, this is exactly why a native function for a deep search doesn't exist. It really depends on your data implementation. Who says your arrays will contain objects or that any object property will ever point to another object? Without this knowledge, it's difficult to create a common-case algorithm without risking creating an anti-pattern (*when your code does more than it needs to.*)

Chapter Review

Trying to solve one problem (compare two objects) led to discovery of another problem we also needed to solve first (compare two arrays.) This is not something we predicted at the time we thought of writing **objcmp**.

JavaScript already provides **Array.isArray** method – so why reinvent the wheel?

Taking initiative to solve *any* problem is what makes the distinction between a hobbyist coder and a software developer. The skill of thinking for yourself to solve problems, instead of using existing libraries, helps you train yourself for.

Writing your own code is always a good idea. If you can't write an **is_array** function yourself, chances are you won't have the practice and training to write an important function later, one that doesn't exist but is crucial to success of a real-life project, facing much more complex problems.

This might cause you not only reputation among your peers, but the job itself. Most interviews at software companies don't test only for knowledge, they want to see your problem-solving approach. Perhaps, it's a good idea to develop it!

Chapter 13

Functions

13.1 Functions

In JavaScript there are two types of functions: the standard function that can be defined using **function** keyword and an arrow function `()=>{}` added later in ES6.

Regular **functions** can be called. But they can also act as object constructors, when used together with **new** operator in order to create an *instance* of an object. Note that since EcmaScript >= 6 you can use **class** keyword to the same effect.

Inside a function, the **this** keyword can point either to the context from which the function was called. But it can also point to an instance of the created object, if that function was used as an object constructor.

Functions have an array-like **arguments** object inside their scope, which holds the length of parameters and values that were passed to the function, even if parameter names were not present in function definition.

An **arrow function** can be called. But it cannot be used to instantiate objects.

Arrow functions are often used with functional programming style. Like regular functions, they can be used to define object methods. They are also often used as event callback functions. Inside the scope of an arrow function **this** keyword points to whatever **this** equals to outside of its own scope.

Arrow functions do not have the array-like **arguments** inside their scope.

13.1.1 Function Anatomy

The function definition consists of the **function** keyword followed by its name (shown as **update**, in the following example) parenthesis containing a list of parameter names (**a,b,c**) and the function body enclosed in brackets:

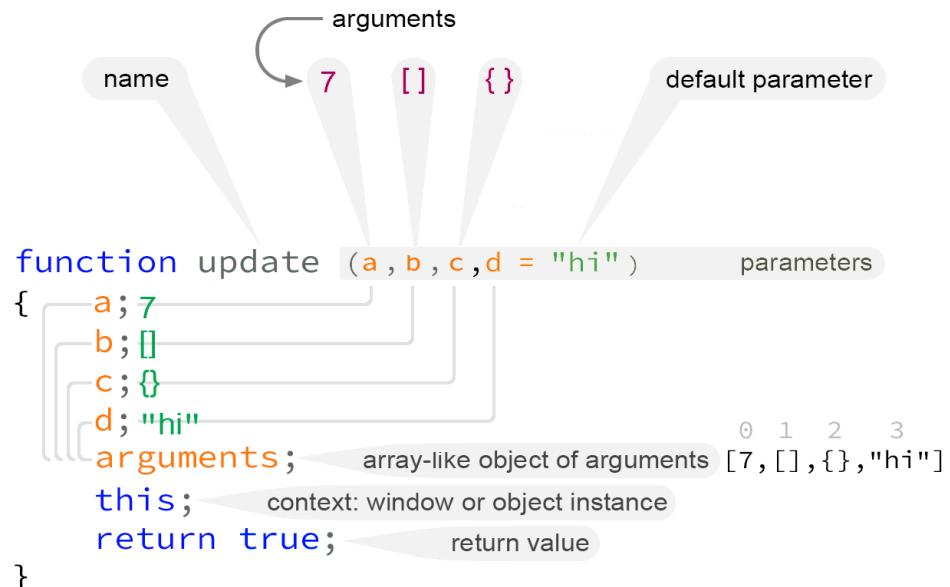


Figure 13.1: Function anatomy.

The **return** keyword is optional. But function will return anyway once all statements in its body are done executing, even if **return** keyword is not specified.

The **this** keyword inside an ES5 style function points to the context from which the function was executed. Very often it is the global **window** object. If the function is used to instantiate an object using **new** keyword then **this** keyword will point to object instance that was instantiated using function.

The **arguments** is an array-like object that contains 0-index list of arguments that were passed into the function, even if parameter names were not specified in the function's definition.

13.1.2 Anonymous Functions

Nameless or *anonymous* functions can be defined by using the same syntax but skipping the function name.

Anonymous functions are often used as event callbacks, where we usually don't need to know what the names are – we simply want to execute them at a specific time after an event has finished doing its work:

```
setTimeout(function() {
    console.log("Print something in 1 second.");
    console.log(arguments);
}, 1000);
```

Figure 13.2: Anonymous function used as a **setTimeout** event callback.

```
document.addEventListener("click", function() {
    console.log("Document was clicked.");
    console.log(arguments);
});
```

Figure 13.3: Anonymous function used to intercept a mouse click event.

13.1.3 Assigning Functions To Variables

Anonymous functions can be assigned to a variable, making them named functions again. By doing this you can separate the function definition from its use in an event-based method:

```
let print = function() {
    console.log("Print something in 1 second.");
    console.log(arguments);
}
```

Figure 13.4: Assign an anonymous function to variable **print**.

```
let clicked = function() {
    console.log("Document was clicked.");
    console.log(arguments);
}
```

Figure 13.5: Assign an anonymous function to variable **clicked**.

We can now call these functions by their name:

```
// call anonymous named functions
print();
clicked();
```

Figure 13.6: "anonymous" functions that were assigned to a variable name become named functions.

You can also pass them to the event functions just by their name:

```
// cleaner code
setTimeout(print, 1000);
document.addEventListener("click", clicked);
```

Figure 13.7: Cleaner code.

This often makes your code look cleaner. Note that different event functions generate their own arguments, regardless of whether your anonymous function defines parameters to catch them – they *will* be passed into the function:

```
let clicked = function(event) {
    console.log(event, event.target);
}
```

Function Parameters

Function parameters are optional. But in many cases you will find yourself defining some. You can use default function parameters to pass things like primitives, arrays and objects into a function. Anything that evaluates to a single value will do it:

```
001 | function Fun(text, number, array, object, func, misc) {  
002 |   // Output the arguments values:  
003 |   console.log(text);  
004 |   console.log(number);  
005 |   console.log(array);  
006 |   console.log(object);  
007 |   console.log(func);  
008 |   console.log(misc);  
010 |  
011 |   // Call the function by its parameter name  
012 |   func();  
013 }
```

You can pass the name of another function. This way you can call that function at some point later inside another function.

Let's pass some arguments into function's parameters:

```
001 | function Volleyball() { return "Volleyball"; }  
002 |  
003 | Fun("Text", 125, [1,2,3], {count:1}, Volleyball, Volleyball());
```

Note that we're passing the function name `Volleyball` and the result: `Volleyball()` (*which will evaluate to string value "Volleyball."*) into the last two parameters of the function `Fun()`; to get the following console output:

Text	console.log(text);
125	console.log(number);
► (3) [1, 2, 3]	console.log(array);
► {count: 1}	console.log(object);
f Volleyball() {return "Volleyball";}	console.log(func);
Volleyball	console.log(misc);
Volleyball	console.log(func());
>	

That's a useful variety of primitives and objects!

The last value is generated by calling function `Volleyball`, which was passed into parameter `func`. This means we can simply call it by calling `func()` instead of `Volleyball()`, since `func` is its name inside the function.

Checking For Types

JavaScript is a dynamically-typed language. The type of a variable is determined by its value. The variable definition simply assumes the type. This sometimes can be the cause of subtle bugs.

For example, even though JavaScript provides a number of different object types to work with, it doesn't really provide an *automatic* safeguard that *makes sure* the arguments passed into the function were what you expect them to be.

What if in the previous example, we passed an array or an object into `func` parameter? The function expects it to be a function. We wouldn't be able to call `func()` if `func` wasn't a function.

Let's narrow down on the problem:

```

001 | function Fun(func) {
002 |   console.log(func()); // Call the function by its parameter name
003 | }
004 |
005 | var array = [];
006 | var f = function() {}
007 |
008 | Fun(array); // pass array instead of function

```

But we cannot call an array. Hence, console output:

```
✖ ► Uncaught TypeError: func is not a function
    at Fun (pen.js:4)
    at pen.js:9
>
```

This is a problem if it happens in production code.

Safeguarding Function Parameters

The solution is to safeguard the value by checking its type. JavaScript has a built-in directive `typeof` that we can use before calling the function:

```
001 function Fun(func) {
002   // Call the function but only if it *is* a function:
003   if (typeof func == "function")
004     console.log(func());
005 }
006
007 var array = [];
008 var f = function() {}
009
010 Fun(array); // pass array instead of function
```

The function `Fun(array)` was called. The function expects a function name as an argument but an array was sent. The `typeof` test failed and nothing happened but at least our program didn't break.

You can do the same with other types if it becomes imperative that a particular value must be in absolute compliance with a particular type.

13.2 Origin of this keyword

The **this** keyword was borrowed from C++. In its original design **this** keyword was meant to point to an *instance* of an object in class definitions.

That's it! There shouldn't be much more to it.

But it seems like original designer of JavaScript language decided to use **this** keyword to provide one extra feature: carrying a link to *execution context*, which shouldn't really be part of computer language feature design, but rather kept away to its internal implementation:

`window` is an instance of Window class

```
function Orange() {  
    console.log(this);  
}  
  
// Call function  
Orange(); // window  
  
// Use function to instantiate an object  
let orange = new Orange(); // orange
```

Figure 13.8: This duality of **this** keyword often causes a headache that you may need to take two Ibuprofens for.

You can't avoid dealing with context in any programming language. But wiring context into **this** keyword was a mistake and created duality and much confusion.

Later arrow functions were invented to deal with some of the side effects of this odd-ball use-case for **this** keyword. And that is our next subject!

Chapter 14

Higher-order Functions

14.0.1 Theory

Higher-order functions may sound complicated but they are actually simpler than their regular (first-order) functions that you've already been dealing with all along.

Higher-order functions, as the name suggests, is something that exists at a higher level of thinking. That's what *abstraction* is. If you want to become even better at software development, abstraction is a very important concept to understand.

You can think of abstraction as the quality of dealing with ideas rather than gritty details. Once you get a good grasp on it, abstraction will become your best friend.

Abstraction

When you are driving a car and you push the break pedal, you don't think about weight distribution, the brake caliper containing pistons that push the brake pads against the disc, or how power assistance mode augments the pressure you are placing on the pedal. You simply want the car to stop. That's what you expect to happen. You see? You've already been using abstract thinking – it's natural.

How does this hold up in the context of writing software applications? In the following section, we will write our own higher-order function **map** that will walk through each item in an array, and apply a function to it. If our **map** function was the car brake system from previous example, it would be the brake pedal. It will be responsible for controlling the brake calipers and pistons – a mechanism designed to take care of the low-level details by making them abstract. So when we call

map function, we don't have to think of all the gritty details. We simply want something to happen and have the expected result returned from the function.

That's great, but before using the function we actually have to design its content and determine how we want those gritty details to work.

JavaScript already supports several higher-order functions that do just that. But before using them, we will write our own. If anything, this will help us deepen our understanding not only of high-order functions but of abstraction in general.

Writing your first higher-order function

Not all problems can be solved with built-in JavaScript methods. Working on custom software, you will be faced with situations where you would have to write your own functions of this kind, or functions that require thinking in abstract terms in order to produce the most efficient solution.

The first-order function that applies an action

The actual action happens not in **map**, but in the *function passed to map* as one of its parameters. This means the **map** function doesn't have one single purpose. It is whatever the function passed into it does. And that can be anything.

We'll create the **map** function and pass a first-order function into it, whose single purpose will be to increment a numeric value by 1. Just like in the car brakes example, the user of our **map** function should not be concerned about *how* the internal for-loop iterates through all items. We just want to give it a task. In order to do that, we will pass *another* function into the higher-order **map** function.

Important: What actually makes the function abstract is the fact that the higher-order function itself does not need to know *exactly* what it's doing. It is simply a logical scaffold to perform an action on a set of values. Much like a for-loop. In fact, a for-loop *is* at its core. But when the function is actually being used, it is of no concern. You can think of this as abstracting the for-loop (it becomes assumed.)

They are actually often used *together* with first-order functions. Try not to think of a higher-order function as a specific feature. They can behave as a for-loop. But they can also be used as a way to instantiate an event – in which case a first-order function would be used together with it as a callback function. They are not limited to a single purpose. They enable a few different logical patterns

that cannot be created using first-order functions alone.

For example **Array.map** iterates through a set of values and applies a modification.

The **Array.reduce** "reduces" a set of values to a single value.

Event-based **setTimeout** is a higher-order function, and so is **addEventListener**.

14.0.2 Definition

A **higher-order function** is a function that either takes a function as one of its parameters or returns a function (or both.)

14.0.3 Abstract

Here is one way of visually thinking about the pattern of a high-order function. It exists as a higher level thinking.

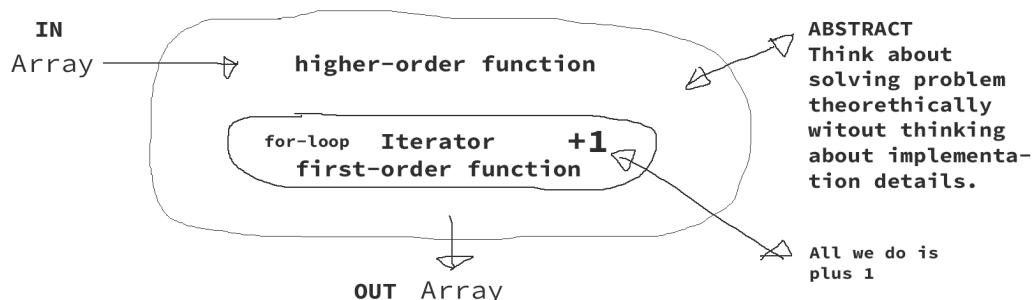


Figure 14.1: Visualizing a higher-order function.

But this still doesn't tell us much about how they're used or what they can actually do. Let's take a look at few different examples.

14.0.4 Iterators

The **Array.map** method is one of the most common higher-order functions. It takes a function to run on every item in the array. Then it returns a modified *copy* of the original array:

```
function add_one(v) { return v + 1 }
```

0 1 2 .map(*f*) 0 +1= 1
1 +1= 2
2 +1= 3

Here is a rather abstract way of thinking about the problem: "Add 1 to each item in the array." Simple logic which is defined in **add_one** function.

The **Array.map** method does not expose its loop implementation. The idea is not to make the iterator merely more efficient either (although, that would help) but hide it completely. We are only concerned with supplying a first-order function to the map method. Internally, it will run the function on each value in the array.

This is a very powerful technique that can apply to many problems. But the greatest advantage of using a higher-order function is that it abstracts problem solving. It helps us focus on the key: running the function on each individual item in the array, while abstracting away the for-loop (or while loop).

Let's create the function that will modify the values. The body of the function depends on what type of modifications you're looking to apply to each array item.

We will create a *first-order* function called **add_one**, which simply adds 1 to the value. This is just a helper function that will work together with a higher-order function (first-order and higher-order functions are often used together.)

```
// Function that adds 1 to any numeric value
function add_one(value) { return value + 1; }
```

Figure 14.2: A first-order function **add_one**.

For a function to qualify as a higher-order function it either needs to *take* a function as one of its parameters, or *return* a function. As long as one of those conditions is met we are creating a higher-order function.

The **map** function will take an array to work on. It will return a copy of that array with each item modified by the **add_one** function we have written earlier, which will be passed as the *second* parameter.

Let's write our own version of **map** which will be similar to what **Array.map** does:

```
// Higher-order map function source code:
function map(array, f ) {
  let copy = []; // return value placeholder array
  for (let index = 0; index < array.length; index++) {
    let original = array[index];
    let modified = f (original); // return original + 1
    copy[index] = modified; // building return value one index at a time
  }
  return copy;
}
```

Figure 14.3: Complete source code of a higher-order function **map**. It is assumed that the array will contain only numeric values.

Line-by-line explanation of **map()** function

The function **map** takes two parameters: an arbitrary **array** of values and the **function** which we want to apply to each item in the array.

```
function map(array, f ) {
```

First, **copy** array was created and assigned to an empty array literal: `[]`. This array will store a *modified* copy of the original array that was passed into the function.

```
let copy = [] // return value placeholder array
```

Then a `for`-loop iterates through the array we received as first parameter. This is the part we want to make abstract. When using the function we won't even have to think about the `for`-loop:

```
for (let index = 0; index < array.length; index++) {
```

Inside the loop, let's copy the value at current index in the original array to a temporary variable `original`.

```
let original = array[index];
```

Now let's pass the value in `original` variable to the first-order function that was passed to this function:

```
let modified = f(original);
```

The `f` function will do the magic (in our example, add 1 to the original value, but it can be anything) and return the modified value. So let's copy the modified value into our `copy` array which is a placeholder for the entire modified array.

```
copy[index] = modified;
```

Finally, a copy of the modified array is returned:

```
return copy;
```

Once all items have been copied and processed by `add_one` function, they will be stored in `copy` array which will then be used as the return value of the function.

Side note: The `reduce` method – which is also a higher-order function – uses something known as an accumulator. The accumulator in `Array.reduce` serves a similar purpose as the `copy` array in this example. In `reduce`, however, the accumulator is not an array – it is a single value that cumulatively gathers together all items from the array and combines them into a single return value. That's why reducers are a better solution when you need to *combine* values.

Calling our custom map function

To see how it all works, first, let's define an initial set of values to work with:

```
// Original array object
let array = [0,1,2];
```

Let's try out our **map** function in action:

```
// Let's try it out!
array = map(array, add_one); // [1,2,3]
```

Here **add_one** is the function from earlier in this chapter. It simply adds 1 to the value that was passed to it and returns it.

The result? The original array [0,1,2] is now [1,2,3]. All items in the array were incremented by 1.

We've just written our own map method that internally does exactly the same thing as the built-in method **Array.map**. This operation is so common that it was added as a native method on the Array object.

Calling **Array.map** function

Yes, we can do exactly the same thing using a built-in Array method **map**. It does exactly (or relatively) the same thing:

```
// Same thing using native Array.map method:
array.map(add_one); // [2,3,4]
```

Sounds easy. We could have used this method from the very start. But by writing our own map method we now actually understand how it works internally.

This will help us understand many other higher-order functions that implement iteration over a list of items, such as **filter**, **every**, **reduce**, etc. They all use similar internal code, with just a few slight differences.

What happened to the for-loop?

As you can see **Array.map** implements a for-loop internally. This isn't the issue of providing a more efficient for-loop, but rather, hiding it from our sight completely.

All we have to do is supply a function to the **Array.map** method. By hiding the iteration steps, we are left only with writing the actual function that compares, adds or filters each value individually.

This helps you to focus on solving the problem, instead of writing and re-writing a lot of repetitive code. But it also makes your code look cleaner.

14.0.5 Dos and Dont's

Often beginners use one method instead of another to accomplish relatively the same thing. While it "still works," this choice shouldn't be taken lightly.

Do use a high-order method for solving the problems it was *intended* to solve. Understanding the differences between **map**, **filter**, **reduce** matters. This isn't about just the syntax differences, but writing efficient code and avoiding anti-patterns. Try to find a proper method for the given task.

Do not use **filter** if you can get away with using **reduce** to accomplish the same action with *more efficiency*. Different high-order functions are designed to deal with problems specific to their implementation.

Chapter 15

Arrow Functions

ES6 Arrow Functions

Arrow functions were introduced in ES6 and provide a slim syntax for creating *function expressions* in JavaScript. Instead of defining the function using the `function` keyword, arrow functions have following syntax

```
001 // Arrow function syntax
002 () => {};
```

In many ways arrow functions behave in the same way as standard functions. You can assign them to a variable name:

```
001 // Create an arrow function and assign it to a variable
002 let fun_1 = () => {};
```

You call them by name:

```
001 // Call arrow function by its name
002 fun_1();
```

And have values returned from them using `return` keyword:

```
001 // Return a value from an arrow function
002 let fun_2 = () => { return 1; }
```

Now we can call function `fun_2` by its name:

```
001 fun_2(); // 1
```

The function returns a value of 1, just as expected.

return-less return

Arrow functions add one other unique feature. You can return values without using `return` keyword.

Even after removing {} brackets and return keyword in the example below 1 is still treated as a valid return value. This makes your code a lot more clean than using the old and redundant ES5 function syntax:

```
001 // Return value from arrow function without return keyword
002 let fun_3 = () => 1;
```

And now you can simply call this function as usual:

```
001 fun_3(); // 1
```

Remember that in JavaScript functions are expressions. An expression is anything that returns a single value. Similar to how a math equation returns a value.

Arrow functions help us expand on the idea by providing an even slimmer syntax (by removing parenthesis and the need to explicitly specify return keyword:)

```
001 let expression = e => e;
```

They turn functions into something that looks a lot like a math equation. (or a math function.) That's why they are often used in Functional Programming style.

```
001 expression(1); // 1
```

If you have a background in math you will feel at home using them!

Arrow Functions As Events

Some believe using arrow functions is a more elegant solution for events:

```
let clicked = (event) => { console.log(event.target) }
```

Or an even slimmer syntax:

```
let clicked = event => console.log(event.target);
```

15.0.1 Arrow Function Anatomy

Arrow functions do not have array-like **arguments** object. They also cannot be used as constructors. The **this** keyword points to the same value this points to in the scope just outside of the arrow function.

Arrow functions are *expressions* – they do not have a named syntax, like regular functions defined with **function** keyword. But just like regular functions, you can assign them to variable names.

```
001 // Create an arrow function and assign it to a variable
002 let fun_1 = () => {};
```

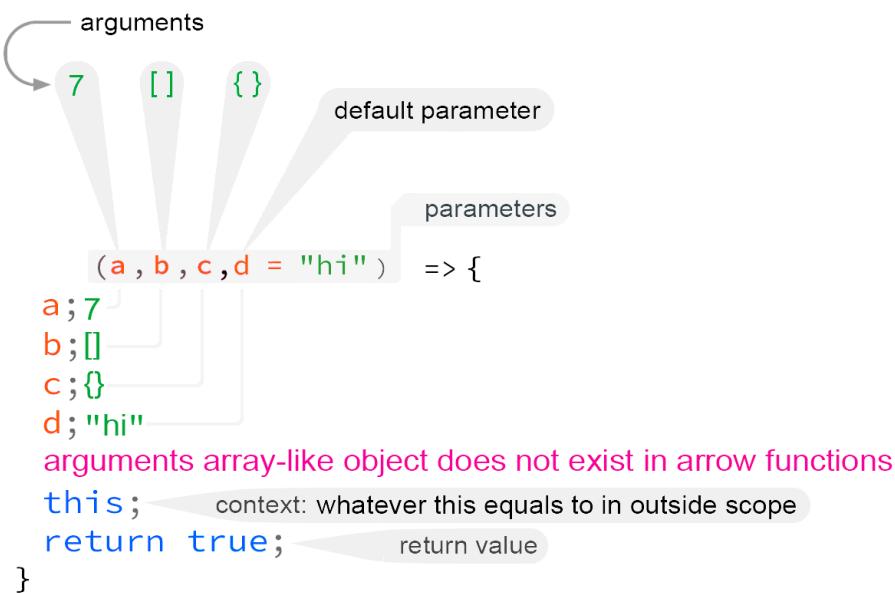


Figure 15.1: Arrow function anatomy.

Arguments

You can pass arguments to an arrow function via parameters.

```
001 // Arrow function syntax with arguments
002 (arg1, arg2) => { console.log(arg1, arg2); };

001 // Arrow function that prints out its arguments
002 let x = (arg1, arg2) => { console.log(arg1, arg2); };
003
004 x(1, 2); // Output: 1, 2
```

Returning From An Arrow Function

Arrow functions are primarily designed as expressions, so you might want to spend extra time on learning how they return values:

```
001 let boomerang = a => "returns";
002 let karma = a => { return "returns"; }
003 let prayer = a => { return random() >= 0.5 }
004 let time = a => { "won't return"; }

005
006 boomerang(1);      // "returns"
007 karma(1);         // "returns"
008 time(1);          // [undefined]

009
010 // Be careful when using with higher-order functions
011 let a = [1];
012 a.map(boomerang); // "returns"
013 a.map(karma);    // "returns"
014 a.map(time);     // [undefined]

015
016 console.log(x);
017 console.log(y);
018 console.log(z);

019
020 // Sometimes true.
021 prayer("Make me understand JavaScript.");
```

Takeaway: **time** arrow function is the only function that does not return a value at all. Be careful not to use this syntax with higher-order functions.

Similarities Between ES-style Functions

There are some similarities between arrows and classic functions. Most of the time you can use arrow functions as a replacement to standard ES5 functions without a hitch!

Let's try this example to get started with our discussion about arrow functions. I defined two classic ES5 functions **classic_one** and **classic_two**, followed by definition of **arrow** – an ES6-style arrow function:

```
001 | function classic_one() {
002 |   console.log("classic function one.");
003 |   console.log(this);
004 | }
005 |
006 | var classic_two = function() {
007 |   console.log("classic function two.");
008 |   console.log(this);
009 | }
010 |
011 | let arrow = () => {
012 |   console.log("arrow function.");
013 |   console.log(this);
014 | }
```

I added `console.log(this);` statement to the scope of each function, simply to see the outcome.

Let's call all 3 functions in a row:

```
001 | // Call first function
002 | classic_one();
003 |
004 | // Call second function
005 | classic_two();
006 |
007 | // Call third function
008 | arrow();
```

Console output:

```
classic function one.  
▶ [Window]  
classic function two.  
▶ [Window]  
arrow function.  
▶ [Window]  
▶ |
```

When defined in global scope, it only *seems* like there is no difference between classic and arrow functions, in terms of `this` binding.

No this binding

Arrow functions do not bind `this` keyword. They look it up from whatever `this` equals in the outer scope, just like any other variable. Hence, you can say arrow functions have a "transparent" scope.

No arguments object

The `arguments` object does not exist in arrow function scope, you will get a reference error if you try to access it:

```
001 let a = () => {  
002   console.log( arguments ); // arguments is not defined  
003 }
```

Just as a reminder here, the `arguments` object does exist on classic ES5 functions:

```
001 function f() {  
002   console.log( arguments ); // [object Arguments]  
003 }
```

No Constructor

ES5-style functions are object constructors. You can create and call a function but you can also use same function as an object constructor – together with `new` operator – to instantiate an object. The function itself becomes class definition.

For this reason you would often hear it said that in JavaScript all functions are objects. After ES6 specification introduced arrow functions to the language this statement is no longer true. Arrow functions *cannot* be used as object constructors.

Therefore, arrow functions cannot be used to instantiate objects. They work best as event callbacks or function expressions in methods such as `Array.filter`, `Array.map`, `Array.reduce` and so on... In other words, they are more proper in context of Functional Programming style.

Thankfully, modern JavaScript is rarely written using ES5-style functions masquerading as object constructors. It's probably a good idea to start defining your classes using `class` keyword anyway, instead of using function constructors.

When classic and arrow functions are used as event callbacks

There is a difference between classic ES5 functions and arrows, when they are used as event callbacks.

Here is an example of an arrow function that outputs a string and `this` property to console in the event of a click on the document:

```
001 // Create an arrow function that outputs some info
002 let arrow = (event) => {
003   console.log("Hello. I am an arrow function.");
004   console.log(this);
005 }
006
007 // Attach arrow function to an event listener on document
008 document.addEventListener("click", arrow);
```

And here is the same exact event using classic ES5 function syntax:

```
001 function classic(event) {
002   console.log("Hello. I am a classic ES5 function.");
003   console.log(this);
004 }
005
006 // Attach an ES5 function to an event listener on document
007 document.addEventListener("click", classic);
```

So what's the difference?

Here is console output after clicking on document in each case:

```
"Hello. I am an arrow function."
[object Window]

"Hello. I am a classic ES5 function."
[object HTMLDocument]
```

Inside the arrow function's scope `this` property points to `Window` object.

In classic ES5 function `this` property points to the `target element` that was clicked.

What happens here is that arrow function took the Window context with it, instead of giving you the object that refers to the clicked element.

Inherited this Context

But wait, how did the arrow function inherit Window context in the first place? Is that because it was defined in global scope (same as the object of type Window)?

Not exactly.

The arrow function inherits the lexical scope based on where it was *used*, not where it was defined. Here it so happens that the arrow function was both defined and called in global scope context (Window object.)

To truly understand this, let's draw another example, where I will attach arrow function B() to a click event.

But this time, I will execute addEventListener function from another class called Classic instead of Window like in the previous example.

Remember that when you use new operator, you execute the function as though it was an object constructor. This means that every statement inside it will be executed from the context of its own instantiated object: object, not window.

```
001 // Define new class Classic using an ES5 constructor
002 function Classic() {
003     let B = () => {
004         console.log("Hello. I am arrow function B()");
005         console.log(this);
006     }
007     document.addEventListener("click", B);
008 }
009
010 let object = new Classic(); // Instantiate the object
```

A new context is created when using **new** operator to instantiate an object. Anything called from within that object will have its own context.

After running this code and clicking on document, we get following console output:

```
"Hello. I am arrow function B()."
[object Classic]
```

The object instance delimited by [] brackets is of type Classic. And that's exactly what happens here.

Event was attached from context of Classic constructor and not from the context of global scope object Window like in the previous examples.

The event has literally "taken the context it was executed from" with it into its own scope via the this property.

This type of context chaining is common to JavaScript programming. We'll see it once again when we explore *prototype-based inheritance* in more depth later in the book. The idea of execution context may start to become more clear by now.

Chapter 16

Creating HTML Elements Dynamically

JavaScript creates a unique object for each HTML tag currently present in your *.html document. They are *automatically* included to DOM (Document Object Model) in your application once the page is loaded into browser. But what if we want to add new elements without having to touch the HTML file?

Creating and appending another element to an existing element will dynamically insert it into the DOM and instantly display it on the screen as if it were directly typed into the HTML source code.

However, this element is not typed directly into your HTML document using HTML tag syntax. Instead, it is created dynamically by your application.

The method `createElement` natively exists on the document object. It can be used to create a new element:

```
001 // Dynamically create an HTML element
002 let E = document.createElement("div");      // Create ,<div>

001 // create a few element dynamically
002 let E1 = document.createElement("div");      // <div>
003 let E2 = document.createElement("span");      // <span>
004 let E3 = document.createElement("p");         // <p>
005 let E4 = document.createElement("img");        // <img>
006 let E5 = document.createElement("input");      // <input>
```

At this point none of the created elements are attached to DOM yet.

When adding a new HTML element dynamically, it is usually inserted into another element that already exists in the DOM. But before we can accomplish that, let's set some CSS styles on the newly created element.

16.0.1 Setting CSS Style

So far we created an empty element without dimensions, background color or border. At this point all of its CSS properties are set to defaults. We can assign a value to any standard CSS property via `style` property.

```
001 // create a <div> element dynamically
002 let div = document.createElement("div");
003
004 // Set ID of the element
005 div.setAttribute("id", "element");
006
007 // Set class attribute of the element
008 div.setAttribute("class", "box");
009
010 // Set element's CSS style via style property
011 div.style.position = "absolute";
012 div.style.display = "block";
013 div.style.width = "100px"; // px is required
014 div.style.height = "100px"; // px is required
015 div.style.top = 0; // px is not required on 0
016 div.style.left = 0; // px is not required on 0
017 div.style.zIndex = 1000; // z-index > zIndex
018 div.style.borderStyle = "solid"; // border-style > borderStyle
019 div.style.borderColor = "gray"; // border-color > borderColor
020 div.style.borderWidth = "1px"; // border-width > borderWidth
021 div.style.backgroundColor = "white";
022 div.style.color = "black";
```

In CSS dash (-) is a legal property name character. But in JavaScript it is always interpreted as the minus sign. Using it as part of a JavaScript identifier name will cause an error. For this reason, single-word CSS property names remain the same – `style.position` and `style.display` for example. Multi-word property names are changed to *camel-case* format, where the second word is capitalized. For example `z-index` becomes `.zIndex`, and `border-style` becomes `.borderStyle`.

16.0.2 Adding Elements To DOM with .appendChild method

Method `element.appendChild(object)` inserts an element object into DOM.

Here `element` can be any other element that currently exists in the DOM.

This method exists on all DOM element objects, including `document.body`.

document.body

Insert the element into the body tag using appendChild method:

```
001 // Add element to the DOM by inserting it into <body> tag
002 document.body.appendChild( div );
```

Although very common the body tag is not the only place you can add the newly created element.

getElementById

Insert element into another element by id:

```
001 // Insert element into another element with id = "id-1"
002 document.getElementById("id-1").appendChild( div );
```

querySelector

Insert element to any element selected using a valid CSS selector:

```
001 // Insert element into selected parent element
002 let selector = "#parent .inner .target";
003 document.querySelector( selector ).appendChild( div );
```

16.0.3 Writing A Function To Create Elements

Writing your own functions is fun. And sometimes necessary. In this section we will write our own function that makes it easy to create HTML elements dynamically. Before writing the function body, let's take a closer look at its parameters.

Function Parameters

To accommodate for most cases, we don't need to include all CSS properties, just ones that have most impact on element's visual appearance.

```
001 let element = (id,      // id attribute
002                 type,   // "static", "relative" or "absolute"
003                 l,       // left    (optional)
004                 t,       // top     (optional)
005                 w,       // width   (optional)
006                 h,       // height  (optional)
007                 z,       // z-index (optional)
008                 r,       // right   (optional)
009                 b) => { // bottom (optional)
010             /* function body */
011 }
```

Most of the parameters are optional. If you skip them, either default values will be used – defined using `const` keyword inside the function body (*see next page*) – or not assigned (if you pass `null`, for example.)

Last parameters on the argument list: `r` and `b` (right and bottom) will override standard placement in top and left corner of the parent element.

Using this function we can create basic HTML elements with one line of code:

```
001 // Static 100px x 25px at 0 x 0 with "unset" z-index
002 let A = element("id-1", "static", 0, 0, 100, 25, "unset");
003
004 // Relative 50px x 25px at 0 x 0 with z-index = 1
005 let B = element("id-2", "relative", 0, 0, 50, 25, 1);
006
007 // Absolute 50px x 25px at 10px x 10px z-index = 20
008 let C = element("id-3", "absolute", 10, 10, 50, 25, 20);
```

Function Body

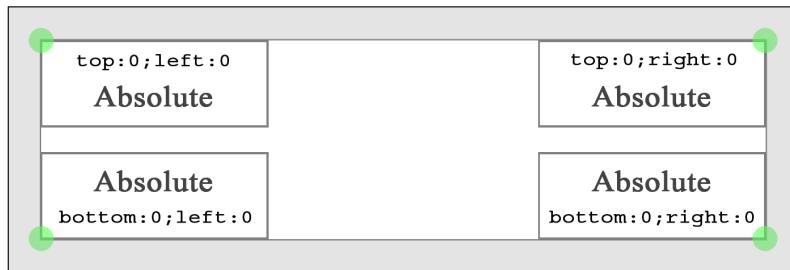
Let's take a look at the body of the element-creation function:

```
001 // Creates a generic HTML element
002 export let element = (id, type, l, t, w, h, z, r, b) => {
003
004     // defaults - used to replace missing arguments
005     const POSITION = 0;
006     const SIZE = 10;
007     const Z = 1;
008
009     // create a <div> element dynamically
010     let div = document.createElement("div");
011
012     // Set ID of the element
013     div.setAttribute("id", id);
014
015     // Set absolute behavior
016     div.style.position = type;
017     div.style.display = "block";
018
019     if (right) // If right is provided, reposition element
020         div.style.right = r ? r : POSITION + "px";
021     else
022         div.style.left = l ? l : POSITION + "px";
023
024     if (bottom) // If bottom is provided, reposition element
025         div.style.bottom = b ? b : POSITION + "px";
026     else
027         div.style.left = t ? t : POSITION + "px";
028
029     // If w,h and z were supplied, use them
030     div.style.width = w ? w : SIZE + "px";
031     div.style.height = h ? h : SIZE + "px";
032     div.style.zIndex = z ? z : Z;
033
034     // Return the element object we just created
035     return div;
036 }
```

Figure 16.1: Place this function into separate file common-styles.js

Creating UI elements often requires pixel-perfect precision. This function will create a `position:absolute` element (*unless otherwise specified*) with default size of 10px in each direction, unless replacement values are supplied via its arguments: `w` and `h` parameters.

As a quick reminder here is the behavior of HTML elements with position set to absolute based on point of attachment.



Note that the element can be attached to the logical coordinate position within the parent. For example `top:0; right:0` attaches the element to the upper right corner of the parent.

The direction in which the attached element will move, when its coordinates are provided using negative values are displayed in the following diagram:

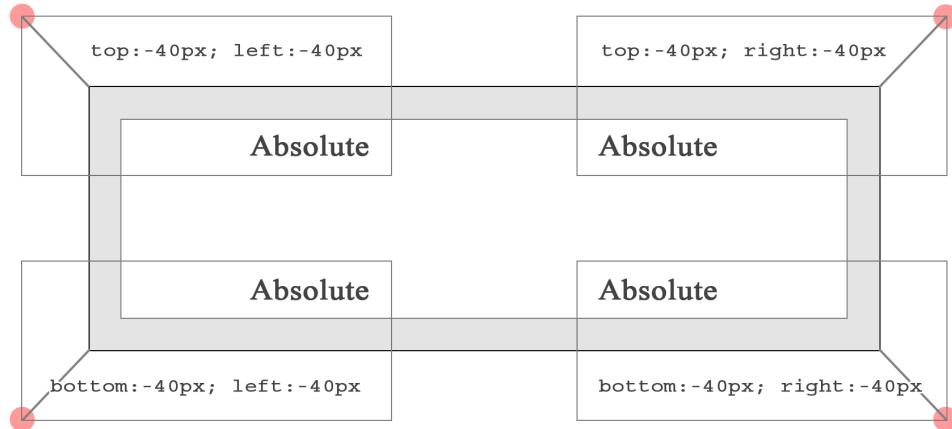


Figure 16.2: This depends on corner the element was attached to using a combination of properties `left`, `top`, `right` and `bottom`.

Importing And Using element() Function

Let's import the function we created above into our project.

To import a module type attribute on script tag must be set to "module".

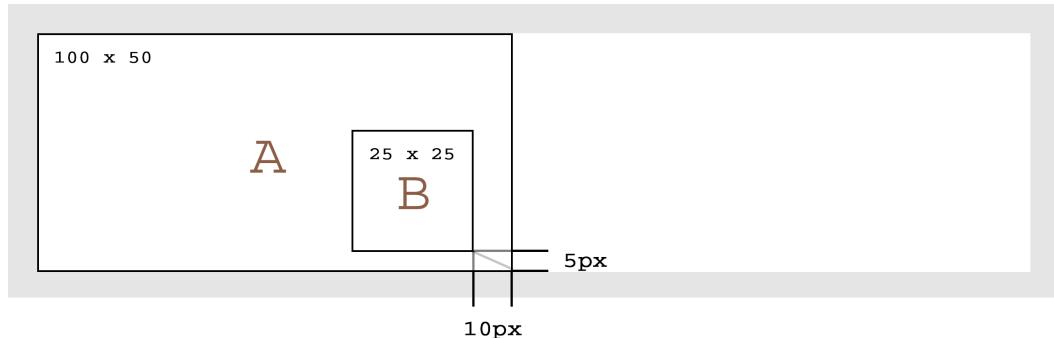
```
001 <script type = "module">
002
003     // import function absolute()
004     import { absolute } from "./common-styles.js";
005
006     // create a new element located at top / left
007     let A = absolute("id-1", 0, 0, 100, 50, 1);
008
009     // create a new element located at right / bottom
010     let B = absolute("id-2", null, null, 25, 25, 1, 10, 5);
011
012     // nest B inside A
013     B.addElement(A);
014
015     // Add A (together with element B nested in it) to <body>
016     document.body.addElement(A);
017
018 </script>
```

We can now create an HTML element using just one line of code.

In this example we created two elements A and B. Then we nested element B in element A, and attached element A to the body container.

The result of this code is displayed below:

<body>



16.0.4 Creating objects using function constructors

Let's create a function called **Season**:

```
001 | function Season(name) {  
002 |   this.name = name;  
003 |   this.getName = function() {  
004 |     return this.name;  
005 |   }  
006 }
```

To instantiate four seasons:

```
001 | let winter = new Season("Winter");  
002 | let spring = new Season("Spring");  
003 | let summer = new Season("Summer");  
004 | let autumn = new Season("Autumn");
```

We just created 4 instances of the same type:

Season()
winter

name
getName()

Season()
spring

name
getName()

Season()
summer

name
getName()

Season()
autumn

name
getName()

This creates a problem, because function **getName** is copied 4 times in memory, but its body contains exactly the same code.

In JavaScript programs Objects and Arrays are created all the time. Imagine if you instantiated 10000 or even 100000 objects of a particular type, each storing a copy of the same exact method.

This is rather wasteful. Could we somehow have a single **getName** function?

The answer is yes. For example, native function **.toString()** you may have used before as **Array.toString()** or **Number.toString()** exists in memory at a single location, but it can be called on all built-in objects! How does JavaScript do it?

Chapter 17

Prototype

17.0.1 Prototype

When a function is defined two things happen: the function object is created, because functions are objects. Then, a completely separate prototype object is created. The prototype property of the defined function will point to it.

Let's say we defined a new function **Human**:

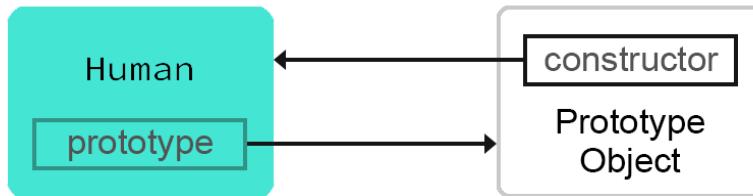
```
001 | function Human(name) { }
```

You can verify that prototype object is created at the same time:

```
001 | typeof Human.prototype; // "object"
```

Human.prototype will point to the prototype object. This object has another property called **constructor**, which points back to the **Human** function:

```
function Human() {}
```



Human is a constructor function, used to create objects of type **Human**. Its prototype property points to a separate entity in memory: **prototype object**. There is one separate prototype object per each unique object type (class).

Some will argue that there are no classes in JavaScript. But technically, **Human** is a unique object type, and basically that's what a class is.

If you come from C++ background, you can probably refer to **Human** as a class. A class is an abstract representation of an object. It's what determines its type.

Note, **prototype** property is not available on an instance of an object, only on the constructor function. On an instance, you can still access prototype via `__proto__`, but should probably use static method **Object.getPrototypeOf(instance)** which returns the same prototype object as `__proto__` (in fact `__proto__()` is a getter.)

17.0.2 Prototype on Object Literal

To draw a simple example, let's create an object literal:

```
001 let literal = {  
002     prop: 123,  
003     meth: function() {}  
004};
```

Internally it is wired into prototype as an object of type **Object**, even though it wasn't created using the **new** operator.

```
001 literal.__proto__;           // Object {}  
002 literal.__proto__.constructor; // f Object { [native code] }  
003 literal.constructor;        // f Object { [native code] }
```

When **literal** was created, **literal.__proto__** was wired to point to **Object.prototype**:

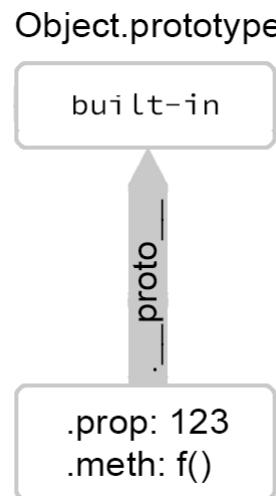


Figure 17.1: Here object literal's __proto__ points to Object.prototype

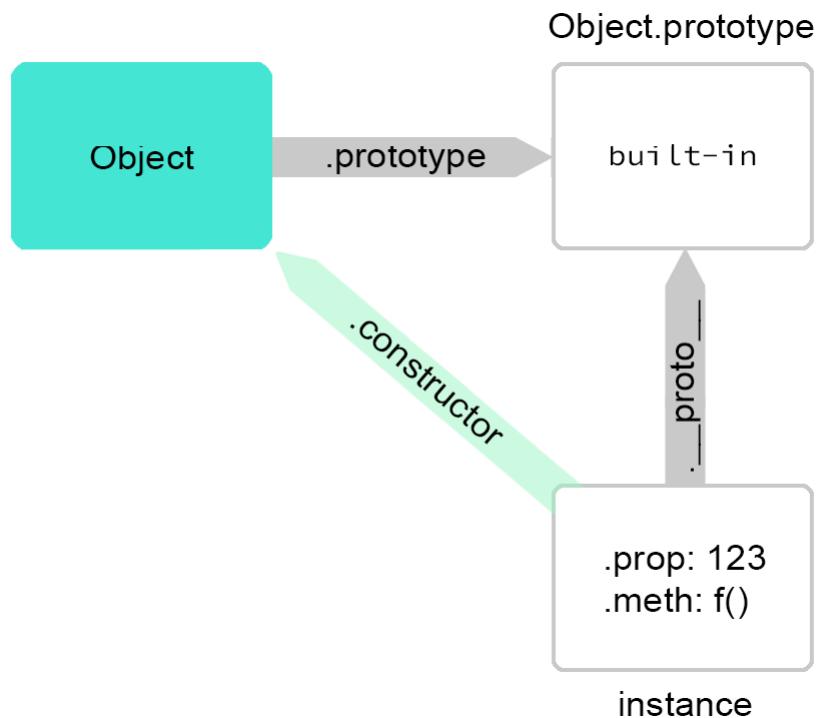
Object.prototype was already created internally by JavaScript. Whenever a new object type is defined, a secondary object to serve as its prototype is created.

17.0.3 Prototype Link

When an object is instantiated using `new` keyword, the constructor function executes to build the instance of that object.

```
001 let instance = new Object();
002 instance.prop = 123;
003 instance.meth = function(){};
```

In this case **Object** constructor function is executed and we get a constructed link, that looks like this:



The `.prototype` property points to a separate object: the built-in prototype object.

In this case it's `Object.prototype`. It is similar to `Human.prototype` from the earlier example: in this case we just don't control how `Object` was created, because `Object` is a preexisting built-in type.

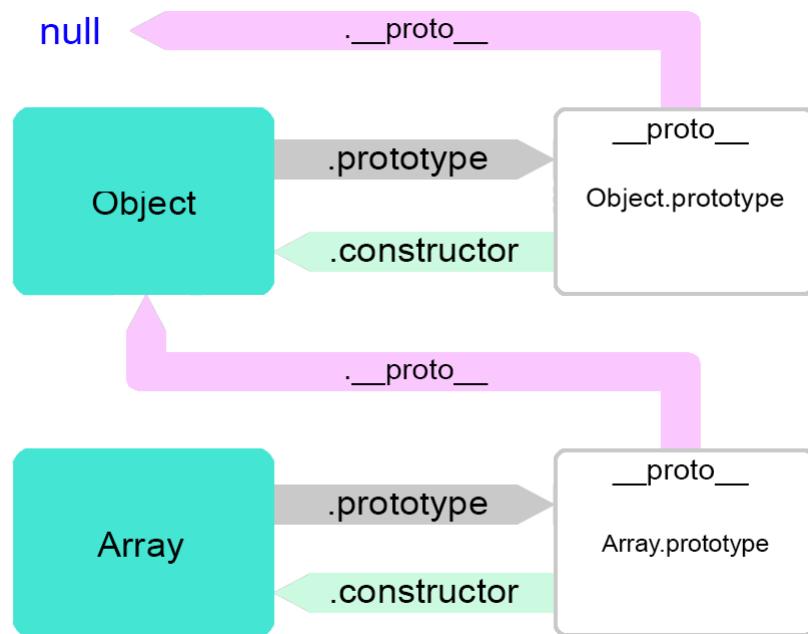
The **instance** of an object of type Object has `__proto__` property which points to the prototype object of the constructor from which it was instantiated.

This three-way relationship between the **Object**, secondary **prototype** object that was created, and the **instance** of that object with `__proto__` pointing to Object's prototype object is a peculiar structure.

This pattern represents just one link in a prototype chain of objects.

17.0.4 Prototype Chain

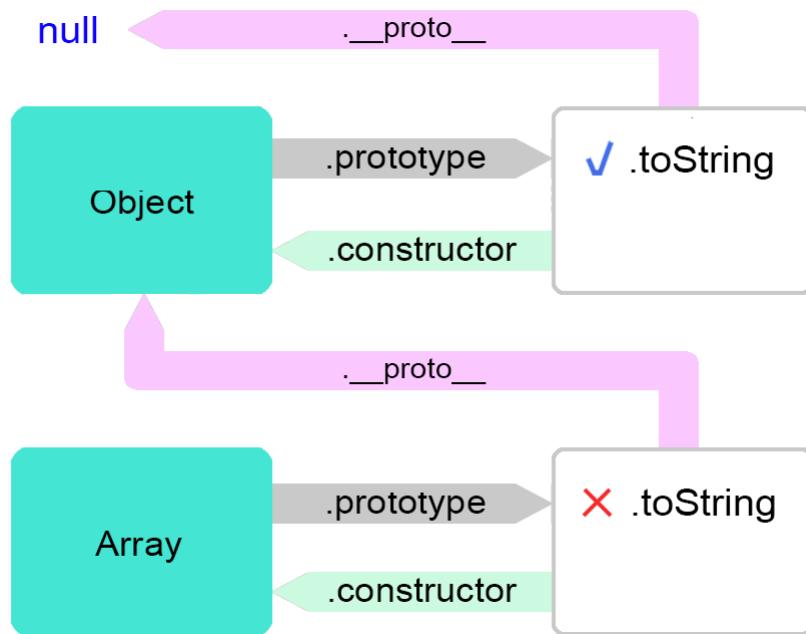
It can be argued that Array is a child of its parent type Object.



Object.prototype is Object, but not because Object is inherited from Object. This is simply because the prototype itself is just an object: they co-exist.

You can think of this as Object's prototype being **null**, because it's the top-level object on the prototype chain. In other words Object does not have an abstract prototype. Object does have a "ghost" prototype object just like any other type.

17.0.5 Method look-up



When you call `Array.toString()` what actually happens is, JavaScript will first look for method `toString` on the prototype of `Array` object. But it does not find it there. Next, JavaScript decides to look for `toString` method on the prototype property of `Array`'s parent class: `Object`.

It finally finds `Object.prototype.toString()` and executes it.

17.0.6 Array methods

In previous section we've taken a look at prototype chain and how `.toString` method is found by traversing the prototype chain. But `.toString` is available on all objects that stem from the `Object` type (which is most built-in types.)

The same is true for `Number`, `String` and `Boolean` built-in types. You can call `toString` method on each one of them, and yet it exists only in one place in memory on `Object.prototype` property.

Methods native to Array type should exist on **Array.prototype** object.

It is obvious that there isn't much use in having higher-order functions like **.map**, **.filter** and **.reduce** attached to Number or Boolean types.

The fact is, every single Array method already exists on **Array.prototype**:

```
▼ [constructor: f, concat: f, copyWithin: f, fill: f, find: f, ...] ⓘ  
▶ concat: f concat()  
▶ constructor: f Array()  
▶ copyWithin: f copyWithin()  
▶ entries: f entries()  
▶ every: f every()  
▶ fill: f fill()  
▶ filter: f filter()    
▶ find: f find()  
▶ findIndex: f findIndex()  
▶ flat: f flat()  
▶ flatMap: f flatMap()  
▶ forEach: f forEach()  
▶ includes: f includes()  
▶ indexOf: f indexOf()  
▶ join: f join()  
▶ keys: f keys()  
▶ lastIndexOf: f lastIndexOf()  
▶ length: 0  
▶ map: f map()    
▶ pop: f pop()  
▶ push: f push()  
▶ reduce: f reduce()  
```

Figure 17.2: Looks like our favorite methods **.map**, **.filter** and **.reduce** live on **Array.prototype** object.

If you want to extend functionality of the **Array** method specifically, attach a method to **Array.prototype.my_method**.

17.1 Parenting

But how does **Array**, **Number**, etc. know that **Object** is its parent?

That's exactly what prototype inheritance is about: creating links between children and parent objects. Often this is referred to as **prototype chain**.

Furthermore, it can be said that prototype structure provides some sort of imitation of "traditional" (or "classic") class inheritance as seen in C++, which is one of the few truly object-oriented programming languages. (It actually supports all features that make a language to be considered object-oriented.)

17.1.1 Extending Your Own Objects

Number's and Array's parent is Object. This is great, but what if we want to extend our own object from another object?

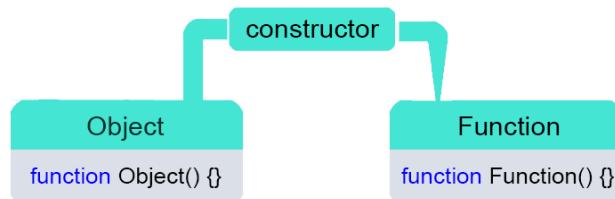
As we saw from the preceding diagrams `__proto__` getter is part of internal prototype implementation. It's crucial for establishing the link, but we shouldn't mess with it directly. For the same reason.

JavaScript is a dynamically typed language, so you can try to create some object constructors and rewire the `__proto__` property on their prototype object to the "parent", but this is often considered to be a hack. In practical coding situation, you will actually never need to do anything like this. There is literally no software you would possibly be writing that modifies the internal function of prototype.

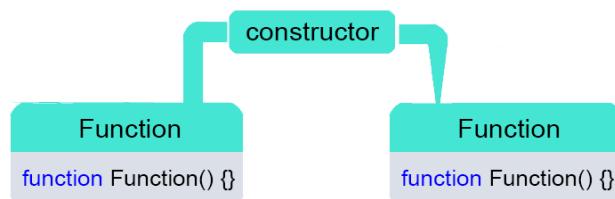
After EcmaScript 6 you are encouraged to create and extend classes using **class** and **extends** keywords and let JavaScript worry about prototype links.

17.1.2 constructor property

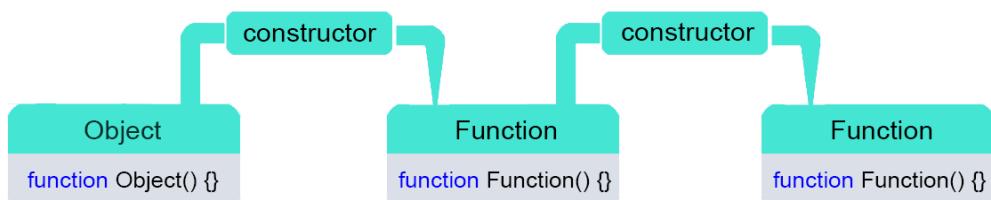
The **constructor** property of **Object** class points to **Function**:



The **constructor** property of **Function** class points to **Function**:



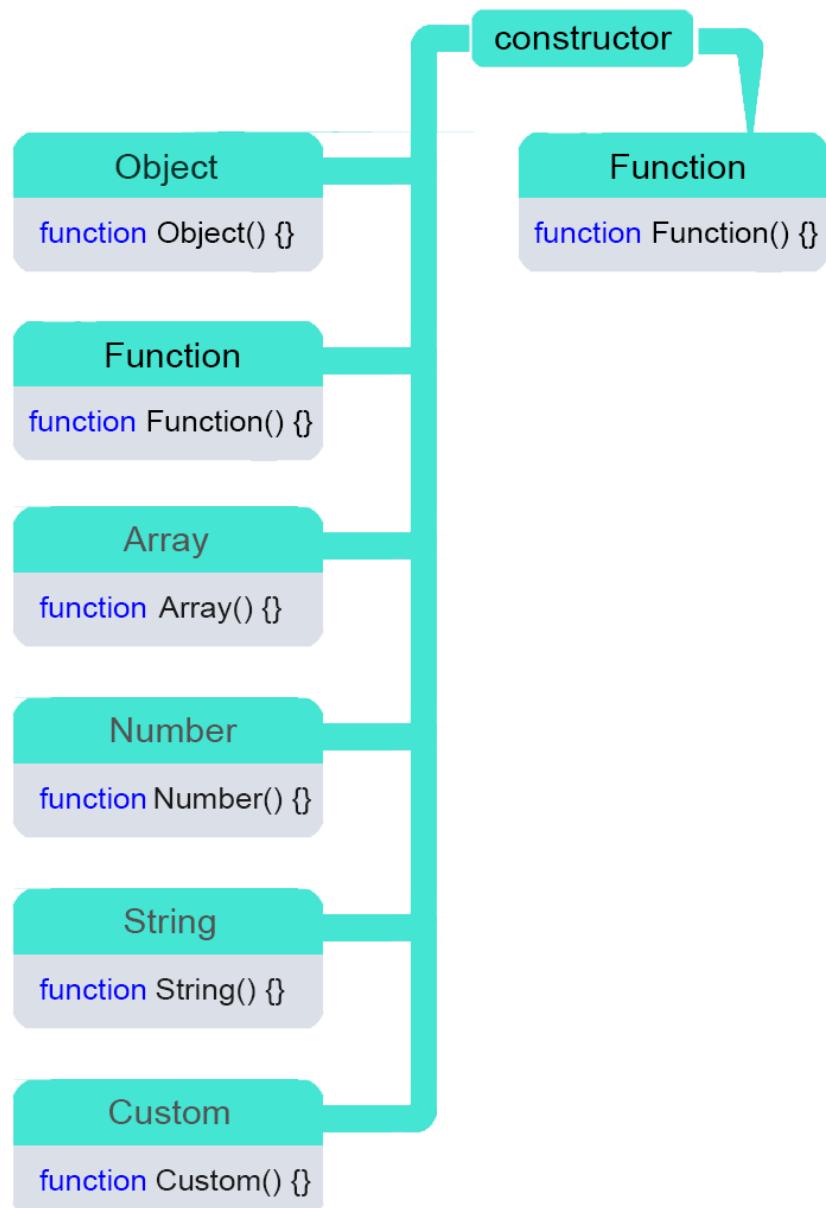
This creates a circular dependency around the Function class:



`Function.constructor` is `Function` (circular.) But `Object.constructor` is also `Function`. This can imply that a class is constructed using a function. Yet, `Function` itself is a class. This is circular dependency.

17.1.3 Function

Function is the constructor of all object types.



17.2 Prototype In Practice

Understanding how prototype works is a gradual process. It might be a difficult task, considering JavaScript language has evolved over the years. To get a better idea of how it all works, we'll start from the very beginning.

We've already covered the theory behind prototype in the previous section of this chapter. In this section we will finally arrive at prototype in terms of how fits into the big picture when it comes to actually writing code.

This section is a thorough walk-through that demonstrate different ways of working with objects. And what's a better place to start than the object literal?

17.2.1 Object Literal

In this example **cat** object was defined using a simple **object literal** syntax. In some ways, under the hood JavaScript wires up all the prototype linking.

Throughout the following sections of this chapter we will gradually update this example and build on it to finally arrive at how prototype can be useful to you as a JavaScript programmer.

```
001 | let cat = {}  
002 |  
003 | cat.name = "Felix";  
004 | cat.hunger = 0;  
005 | cat.energy = 1;  
006 | cat.state = "idle";
```

Figure 17.3: Meet Felix the cat, represented by an object literal.

We named our cat specimen Felix, gave him 0 level of hunger and 1 unit of energy. Currently Felix is in idle state. Just where we want him to be!

```

001 // Sleep to restore energy
002 cat.sleep = function(amount) {
003   this.state = "sleeping";
004   console.log(` ${this.name} is ${this.state}. `);
005   this.energy += 1;
006   this.hunger += 1;
007 }
008
009 // Wake up
010 cat.wakeup = function() {
011   this.state = "idle";
012   console.log(` ${this.name} woke up. `);
013 }
014
015 // Eat until hunger is quenched
016 cat.eat = function(amount) {
017   this.state = "eating";
018   console.log(` ${this.name} is ${this.state}
019               ${amount} unit(s) of food. `);
020   if (this.hunger -= amount <= 0)
021     this.energy += amount;
022   else
023     this.wakeup();
024 }
025
026 // Wandering depletes energy,
027 // If necessary, sleep for 5 hours to restore energy
028 cat.wander = function() {
029   this.state = "wandering";
030   console.log(` ${this.name} is ${this.state}. `);
031   if (--this.energy < 1)
032     this.sleep(5);
033 }

```

Methods **sleep**, **wakeup**, **eat** and **wander** were added directly to the instance of the **cat** object. Each method has basic implementation that either restores or depletes cats energy.

```
035 | cat.sleep(); // "Felix is sleeping."
```

Figure 17.4: To restore cat's energy, we can invoke the **sleep** method.

17.2.2 Using Function Constructor

Even after some sleep Felix feels a bit of melancholy. He needs a friend.

But instead of creating a new object literal, we can place the same code inside a function called **Cat** to represent a global **Cat** class:

```
001 | function Cat(name, hunger, energy, state) {  
002 |   let cat = {}  
003 |  
004 |   cat.name = name;  
005 |   cat.hunger = hunger;  
006 |   cat.energy = energy;  
007 |   cat.state = state;  
008 |  
009 |   cat.sleep = function(amount) { /* implement */ }  
010 |   cat.wakeup = function(amount) { /* implement */ }  
011 |   cat.eat = function(amount) { /* implement */ }  
012 |   cat.wander = function(amount) { /* implement */ }  
013 |  
014 |   return cat;  
015 | }  
016 |
```

Note that all that was done here is we moved the exact same code we wrote in the previous section into a function and returned the object using the **return** keyword.

The methods implementation remained the same too. I simply used the comment markers `/* implement */` to avoid repeating the same code again.

```
018 | let felix = Cat("Felix", 10, 5, "idle");  
019 | felix.sleep(); // "Felix is sleeping."  
020 | felix.eat(5); // "Felix is eating 5 unit(s) of food."  
021 | felix.wander(); // "Felix is wandering."  
022 |  
023 | let luna = Cat("Luna", 8, 3, "idle");  
024 | luna.sleep(); // "Luna is sleeping."  
025 | luna.wander(); // "Luna is wandering."  
026 | luna.eat(1); // "Luna is eating 1 unit(s) of food."
```

Now, saving space, we can create two separate cats: Felix and Luna.

17.2.3 Prototype

Branching out from previous example, we see a problem.

All of the methods of **Felix** and **Luna** take twice as much space in memory. This is because we are still creating two object literals for each cat.

And this is the problem prototype tries to solve.

Why don't we take all of our methods and place them at a single location in memory instead?

```
001 | const prototype = {  
002 |   sleep(amount) { /* implement */ },  
003 |   wakeup(amount) { /* implement */ },  
004 |   eat(amount) { /* implement */ },  
005 |   wander(amount) { /* implement */ }  
006 | }
```

Now all of our neatly packaged methods share a single place in memory.

Let's go back to our **Cat** class implementation, and wire the methods from the above **prototype** object directly into each method on the object:

```
001 | function Cat(name, hunger, energy, state) {  
002 |  
003 |   let cat = {};  
004 |  
005 |   cat.name = name;  
006 |   cat.hunger = hunger;  
007 |   cat.energy = energy;  
008 |   cat.state = state;  
009 |  
010 |   cat.sleep = prototype.sleep;  
011 |   cat.wakeup = prototype.wakeup;  
012 |   cat.eat = prototype.eatsleep;  
013 |   cat.wander = prototype.wander;  
014 |  
015 |   return cat;  
016 | }
```

Before we see how JavaScript does this, let's take a look at something else.

17.2.4 Creating objects using Object.create

In JavaScript we can also create objects using **Object.create** method, which takes a clean slate object as one of its arguments:

```
001 | const cat = {  
002 |   name: "Felix",  
003 |   state: "idle",  
004 |   hunger: 1,  
005 | }  
006  
007 | const kitten = Object.create(cat);  
008 | kitten.name = "Luna";  
009 | kitten.state = "sleeping";
```

Now let's take a look at **kitten**:

```
001 | console.log(kitten);
```

Mysteriously, object **kitten** has only two methods – it is missing **hunger** property.

```
|▶ {name: "Luna", state: "sleeping"}  
|> |
```

To explain this, let's see what will happen if we actually try to output it:

```
001 | console.log(kitten.hunger);
```

Console output:

```
| 1  
|> |
```

But wait, the console is telling us **hunger** actually exists. What's going on here?

This behavior is unique to objects created via **Object.create** method. When we try to get kitten.hunger, JavaScript will look at **kitten.hunger**, but will not find it there (because it wasn't created directly on the *instance* of the **kitten** object.)

Then what happens is JavaScript will look at **.hunger** property in **cat** object. Because **kitten** was created via **Object.create(cat)**, **kitten** considers **cat** to be its parent so it looks there.

Finally it finds it on **cat.hunger** and returns **1** in console. Again, property **hunger** is stored only once in memory.

17.2.5 Back To The Future

Let's rewind a bit and go back to the earlier example from section called **Using Function Constructor** fully equipped with new knowledge about **Object.create**.

```
001 const prototype = {  
002   sleep(amount) { /* implement */ },  
003   wakeup(amount) { /* implement */ },  
004   eat(amount) { /* implement */ },  
005   wander(amount) { /* implement */ }  
006 }  
007  
008 function Cat(name, hunger, energy, state) {  
009  
010   let cat = Object.create(prototype);  
011  
012   cat.name = name;  
013   cat.hunger = hunger;  
014   cat.energy = energy;  
015   cat.state = state;  
016  
017   // We no longer need them here  
018   // cat.sleep = prototype.sleep;  
019   // cat.wakeup = prototype.wakeup;  
020   // cat.eat = prototype.eatsleep;  
021   // cat.wander = prototype.wander;  
022  
023   return cat;  
024 }
```

Let's delete the part where we wired our own prototype object into the methods of **Cat** class, and instead pass them into the native **Object.create** method which will now reside inside our **Cat** function (source code listing above.)

Now we can create **felix** and **luna** via this new **Cat** function as follows:

```
001 let felix = Cat("Felix", 10, 5, "idle");
002 felix.sleep(); // "Felix is sleeping."
003
004 let luna = Cat("Luna", 8, 3, "idle");
005 luna.sleep(); // "Luna is sleeping."
```

Now we get the ideal syntax, and **sleep()** is defined only once in memory. No matter how many **felixes** or **lunas** you create, we're no longer wasting memory on their methods, because they are defined only once.

17.2.6 Constructor Function

Let's recall that each Object has a prototype property pointing to its ghost prototype object:

```
001 console.log(typeof Object.prototype); // "object"
```

So now what we can do is attach all **Cat** methods directly to its built-in **prototype** property instead of our own "prototype" object we created earlier:

```
001 function Cat(name, hunger, energy, state) {
002
003   let cat = Object.create(Cat.prototype);
004
005   cat.name = name;
006   cat.hunger = hunger;
007   cat.energy = energy;
008   cat.state = state;
009
010   return cat;
011 }
```

```
013 // Now define methods on actual Cat.prototype object:  
014 Cat.prototype.sleep = function { /* implement */ };  
015 Cat.prototype.wakeup = function { /* implement */ };  
016 Cat.prototype.eat = function { /* implement */ };  
017 Cat.prototype.wander = function { /* implement */ };  
  
001 let luna = Cat("Luna", 5, 1, "sleeping");  
002 felix.wakeup(); // "Luna is sleeping."
```

In this scenario, JavaScript will look for `.sleep` on `luna` object, and will not find it there. It will then look for `.sleep` method on `Cat.prototype`. It finds it there and the method is invoked.

```
001 let felix = Cat("Felix", 5, 1, "sleeping");  
002 felix.wakeup(); // "Felix woke up."
```

The same happens here, `.wakeup` method is executed on `Cat.prototype.wakeup`, not on the instance itself.

Therefore the main purpose of prototype is to serve as a special look up object, which will be shared across all instances of objects instantiated with its constructor function while preserving memory.

17.2.7 Along came new operator

We can wipe out everything we learned up to this point and replace it all with **new** operator – which will *automatically* do every single thing we've just explored in the previous sections of this chapter!

```
001 function Cat(name, hunger, energy, state) {  
002   let cat = Object.create(Cat.prototype);  
003   cat.name = name;  
004   cat.hunger = hunger;  
005   cat.energy = energy;  
006   cat.state = state;  
007   return cat;  
008 }
```

Let's remove **Object.create** and **return cat** from our class definition.

In JavaScript functions defined with **function** keyword are hoisted. This means we can add methods to **Cat.prototype** before **Cat** is defined:

```
001 // Define some methods on Cat.prototype object:  
002 Cat.prototype.sleep = function { /* implement */ };  
003 Cat.prototype.wakeup = function { /* implement */ };  
004 Cat.prototype.eat = function { /* implement */ };  
005 Cat.prototype.wander = function { /* implement */ };
```

Followed by **Cat** definition:

```
007 function Cat(name, hunger, energy, state) {  
008   cat.name = name;  
009   cat.hunger = hunger;  
010   cat.energy = energy;  
011   cat.state = state;  
012 }
```

Now we can instantiate **luna** and **felix** as follows:

```
014 let luna = new Cat("Luna", 8, 3, "idle");
015 luna.sleep(); // "Luna is sleeping."
016
017 let felix = new Cat("Felix", 5, 1, "sleeping");
018 felix.wakeup(); // "Felix woke up."
```

17.2.8 ES6 The class keyword

Everything we've just explored about prototype was converging toward the **class** keyword added in EcmaScript 6.

How prototype works is a common subject during JavaScript interviews. But in production environment, you will never (spelling is correct) have to touch it at all in your entire career as a front-end software engineer.

```
001 class Cat {
002   constructor(name, hunger, energy, state) {
003     this.name = name;
004     this.hunger = hunger;
005     this.energy = energy;
006     this.state = state;
007   }
008   sleep() { /* implement */ };
009   wakeup() { /* implement */ };
010   eat() { /* implement */ };
011   wander { /* implement */ };
012 }
```

Use **class** and **new** keywords. Let JavaScript worry about prototype:

```
014 let luna = new Cat("Luna", 8, 3, "idle");
015 luna.sleep(); // "Luna is sleeping."
016
017 let felix = new Cat("Felix", 5, 1, "sleeping");
018 felix.wakeup(); // "Felix woke up."
```

In the next section we will take this concept further to design an entire application using **OOP: Polymorphism** with examples via **Inheritance** and **Object Composition** and just a bit of **Functional Programming** style.

Chapter 18

Object Oriented Programming

In this chapter we will exemplify OOP by building a cooking range with stove.

The best example of Object Oriented Programming would be based on many different types of objects. We will define a class for each abstract type: **Fridge**, **Ingredient**, **Vessel**, **Range**, **Burner**, and **Oven**.

We will take a look at two key OOP principles: **inheritance** and **polymorphism** in the sense of how it actually relates to JavaScript code.

18.1 Ingredient



The **Ingredient** class will be our generic class for instantiating ingredients from. It will have properties: **name**, **type** and **calories** which will be enough to describe pretty much any ingredient we might need.

Here's a list of the common ingredients we will create: *water, olive_oil, broth, red_wine, bay_leaf, peppercorn, beef, chicken, bacon, pineapple, apple, blueberry, mushroom, carrot, potato, egg, cheese, sauce, oatmeal, rice, brown_rice, cheese*.

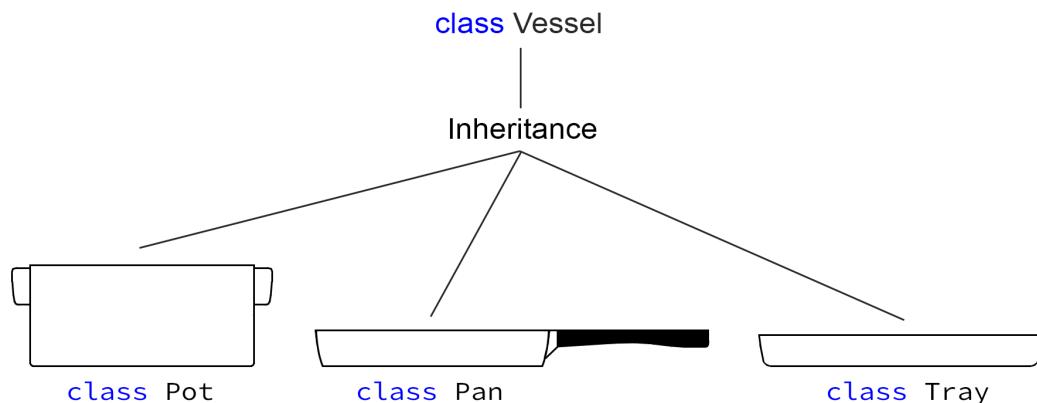
I think it's enough to make several interesting meals! Ingredient class itself will have **static** properties to describe the type of the ingredient. We'll take a look at how this works when we get to source code. (eg: **Ingredient.vegetable**)

18.2 FoodFactory

FoodFactory will be a class that will create a completely new instance of an ingredient. This way we don't end up reusing the same **Ingredient** object instance in different cooking vessels at the same time! Because, as you may know, in JavaScript variable names are only references (links) to the same object instance.

18.3 Vessel

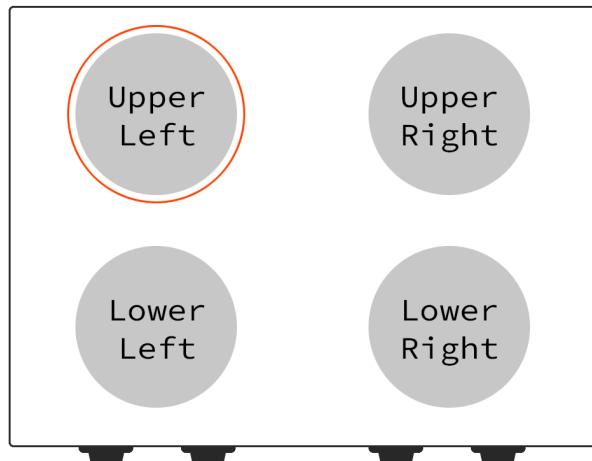
Classes **Pot**, **Pan** and **Tray** demonstrate inheritance because they are derived from the same abstract class **Vessel** (as in cooking vessel.)



Vessel class will have an **add()** method for adding ingredients. This way we can choose which ingredients to place inside each created vessel for baking, boiling or baking (depending on which vessel type was chosen.)

18.4 Burner

There will be four burners on the range surface, each represented by a unique instance of the class **Burner**. You can turn burners **on()** or **off()**.



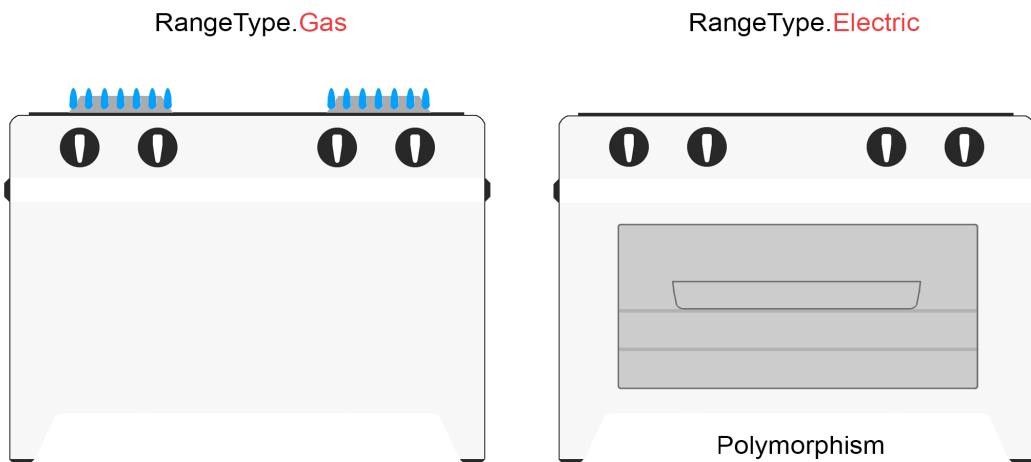
```
let burner = new Burner(BurnerIndex.UpperLeft);
let skillet = new Pan("cast iron");
burner.place(skillet); // place skillet on burner
burner.on();           // switch burner on
range.run(1);          // run range for 1 minute
```

Vessels loaded with ingredients can be placed on each of the four burners.

Once a burner is turned on, whatever is in the vessel placed on a burner whose state is "on", will be considered to be cooking, but only when the range is running for a period of time by calling: **Range.run(minutes)**.

18.5 Range Type and The Polymorphic Oven

RangeType.Gas and **RangeType.Electric** represent a different internal implementation for generating heat.



We won't go into deep detail on implementing gas or electric range, we'll simply write a heat generator function that converts an energy source into a heat unit. The main idea is that, even though **RangeType** implementation can change from **Gas** to **Electric** our range API code will still work without additional modification.

Polymorphism

Here **polymorphism** is demonstrated via **object composition** by integrating an **Oven** object directly into the **Range** object. Object Composition is when you combine two or more objects together to achieve polymorphism, instead of using **inheritance** like we've seen in **Vessel** example.

In code, object composition can manifest itself as new object instantiated as one of the properties of another object, usually in its constructor function.

For example in Range constructor: **this.oven = new Oven()** (instead of inheriting **Oven** from **Range**.)

18.6 Class Definitions

Programming in general can be split into two parts: defining things and using them. In this section, let's define every single class we need to demonstrate OOP principles. Comments will be provided where explanations become necessary.

Each class will be placed into a separate JavaScript file. For example **Range** will live in **./range.js** and **Ingredient** in **./ingredient.js**. The **import** and **export** keywords will be used to include them in your main application file.

After going over all class definitions, we'll implement them.

But first...

18.6.1 print.js

First, let me just say that `console.log` can be a bit cumbersome of a name. I renamed the function to simply `print`. This will be more aesthetically pleasant to read throughout remaining code.

```
001 // Overwrite console.log to print
002 const print = (message) => console.log(message);
003
004 export default print;
```

Yes, we are overwriting native `window.print` method, but in this particular application we don't have a use for it and it makes our code look more understandable.

18.6.2 Ingredient

```
001 | export default class Ingredient {  
002 |   constructor(name, type, calories) {  
003 |     this.name = name;  
004 |     this.type = type;  
005 |     this.calories = calories;  
006 |     this.minutes = {  
007 |       fried: 0,  
008 |       boiled: 0,  
009 |       baked: 0  
010 |     }  
011 |   }  
012 |   // Static types (use them like: Ingredient.fruit)  
013 |   static meat = 0;  
014 |   static vegetable = 1;  
015 |   static fruit = 2;  
016 |   static egg = 3;  
017 |   static sauce = 4;  
018 |   static grain = 5;  
019 |   static cheese = 6;  
020 |   static spice = 7;  
021 | };
```

18.6.3 FoodFactory

FoodFactory class will help us spawn a unique instance of the **Ingredient** object.

```
001 | import print from "./print.js";  
002 | import Ingredient from "./ingredient.js";  
003 |  
004 | export default class FoodFactory {  
005 |   // Empty constructor;  
006 |   // we won't be instantiating any objects here.  
007 |   constructor() {}  
008 | };  
009 |  
010 | // This function will produce a new instance of an object  
011 | FoodFactory.make = function(what) {  
012 |   return new Ingredient(what.name, what.type, what.calories);  
013 | };
```

18.6.4 Fridge

Fridge is a pretty simple class.

It utilizes higher-order Array method **filter**:

```
001 | export default class Fridge {  
002 |   constructor(ingredients) {  
003 |     this.items = ingredients;  
004 |   }  
005 |   // get all ingredients of type  
006 |   get(type) {  
007 |     return this.items.filter(i => i.type == type, 0);  
008 |   }  
009 |};
```

You can load the refrigerator with an array of objects of type **Ingredient**. Want to grab just the vegetables? No problem! Just make the following call:

```
001 | // Store all available ingredients in an array  
002 | const ingredients = [ water, olive_oil, broth, red_wine,  
003 | bay_leaf, peppercorn, beef, chicken, bacon, pineapple,  
004 | apple, blueberry, mushroom, carrot, potato, egg, cheese,  
005 | sauce, oatmeal, rice, brown_rice, cheese, sauce ];  
006 |  
007 | // Create the refrigerator and store ingredients in it  
008 | let Frigidaire = new Fridge(ingredients);  
009 |  
010 | // Get only vegetables from the fridge  
011 | let vegetables = Frigidaire.get(Ingredient.vegetable);  
012 |  
013 | console.log(vegetables);
```

In console output, we get an array of only vegetables!

```
▼ (3) [Ingredient, Ingredient, Ingredient]  
▶ 0: Ingredient {name: "mushroom", type: 2, calories: 4, minutes: {...}}  
▶ 1: Ingredient {name: "carrot", type: 2, calories: 41.35, minutes: {...}}  
▶ 2: Ingredient {name: "potato", type: 2, calories: 163, minutes: {...}}  
  length: 3  
▶ |
```

18.6.5 convert_energy_to_heat

Let's define our core energy to heat transfer function:

```
001 import print from "./print.js";
002 import { RangeType } from "./range.js";
003 // return one unit of energy based on stove implementation
004 const convert_energy_to_heat = function(source_type, minutes)
005 {
006     let energy = 0;
007     // Produces less energy due to longer heating up stage
008     if (source_type == RangeType.Electric) energy = 1;
009     // Procuces more energy (more efficient)
010     if (source_type == RangeType.Gas) energy = 2;
011     let E = energy * minutes;
012     print(`Range generated ${E} unit(s) of energy.`);
013     // Return energy generated
014     return energy * minutes;
015 };
016
017 // short-hand
018 const convert = convert_energy_to_heat;
```

Guesswork

Here, energy is naively calculated on the premise that electric range is less efficient, so it will produce roughly 50% less percent energy than a gas-based range. This is all of course only speculative. If we had the actual hardware with us, we would modify this function to work with accurate numbers based on an actual model.

Separating Implementation

However, this function is important because it's at the core of range implementation. If you change the internals of how this function does what it does, our main class API will not be affected.

This means that in order to upgrade from **RangeType.Gas** to **RangeType.Electric** we won't have to rewrite *any* part of our code anywhere else!

This ability is offered to us if we follow Object Oriented Programming principles. Of course, it can be imitated using any other similar pattern or logical construct but, it is often encountered in the context of OOP.

18.6.6 Vessel

Vessel is the only class we have that demonstrates object inheritance.

We can start by defining its constructor:

```
003 // Define cooking vessel
004 export default class Vessel {
005   constructor(material, type) {
006     this.type = type;
007     this.material = material;
008     this.ingredients = [];
009     print(`Created ${this.material} ${this.type}.`);
010   }
}
```

The **calories** method will use a **reducer** to calculate the total number of calories currently in the vessel:

```
011   calories() {
012     const reducer = (acc, ing) => acc + ing.calories;
013     let sum = this.ingredients.reduce(reducer, 0);
014     print(`There are ${sum} calories in
015           ${this.material} ${this.type}.`);
016   }
}
```

The **add** method will add one ingredient to the vessel:

```
017   add(ingredient) {
018     this.ingredients.push(ingredient);
019     print(`Added ${ingredient.name} to
020           ${this.material} ${this.type}.`);
021   }
}
```

The **cook** method will cook contents of this vessel:

```
022   cook() {
023     console.log(`Cooking in ${this.material} ${this.type}`);
024   }
025 } // close export default class Vessel
```

Let's extend **Pan**, **Pot** and **Tray** from **Vessel**. Note that every time you extend an object from its parent, you must call **super** to invoke the super constructor of the parent object.

```
027 | class Pan extends Vessel{  
028 |   constructor(material) {  
029 |     super(material, "frying pan");  
030 |   }  
031 | };  
032 |  
033 | class Pot extends Vessel {  
034 |   constructor(material) {  
035 |     super(material, "cooking pot");  
036 |   }  
037 | };  
038 |  
039 | class Tray extends Vessel {  
040 |   constructor(material) {  
041 |     super(material, "baking tray");  
042 |   }  
043 | };
```

Inherited classes **Pan**, **Pot** and **Tray** inherit all default functionality from **Vessel** class. And we didn't add a single line of code to any of their own implementation!

Finally, export **Pan**, **Pot** and **Tray**. Note, we don't really have to export **Vessel** itself because this is our main abstract class that provides default implementation but it is never used directly anywhere.

```
045 | export { Vessel, Pan, Pot, Tray };
```

18.6.7 Burner

And now the **Burner** class itself:

```
001 export const BurnerIndex = { UpperLeft: 0, UpperRight: 1,
002                               LowerLeft: 2, LowerRight: 3 };
003
004 export default class Burner {
005   constructor(id) {
006     this.id = id;
007     this.state = Burner.Off;
008     this.vessel = null; // link to what's on this burner.
009     print(`Created burner ${this.id} in Off state.`);
010   }
011   on() {
012     this.state = Burner.On;
013     print(`Burner ${this.id} turned on!`);
014   }
015   off() {
016     this.state = Burner.Off;
017     print(`Burner ${this.id} turned off!`);
018   }
019 }
```

We could have defined static properties **On** and **Off** inside the class itself using **static** keyword (like we did earlier with **Ingredients** class) but just to show that alternatives are possible (and you might see this in someone else's code) the static properties were defined directly on the **Burner** class, just outside of its body:

```
001 // Static flags
002 Burner.Off = false;
003 Burner.On = true;
```

18.6.8 Range

Polymorphic Oven

The Oven can be polymorphically added to Range. We'll see how in just a moment!

```
001 // Adds a new feature bake() (requires aluminum tray vessel)
002 class Oven {
003   constructor() {
004     this.tray = null;
005   }
006   add(tray) {
007     this.tray = tray;
008     print(`Tray with ${this.tray.ingredients} added!`);
009   }
010   on() {
011     print("Oven turned on!");
012   }
013   off() {
014     print("Oven turned off!");
015   }
016   bake() {
017     print("Oven bakes...");
018   }
019 };
```

Our Range class has some dependencies: **print**, **Burner**, **BurnerIndex** and **convert**, so let's import them from their respective source files.

```
001 import print from "./print.js";
002 import { Burner, BurnerIndex, convert } from "./burner.js";
003
004 const RangeType = {
005   Electric: "Electric",
006   Gas: "Gas"
007 }
```

On the next page we will start defining our **Range** class.

The **Range** class is the core to the whole cooking system. It ties all classes together into one cookware machine!

First, we'll start a new class **Range** and prepare it for exporting:

```
001 | export default class Range {
```

Let's take a look at the constructor of **Range**:

```
003 |     constructor(type, stove) {
004 |
005 |         // By default oven is not installed
006 |         this.oven = null;
007 |
008 |         // RangeType.Electric, or RangeType.Gas
009 |         this.type = type;
010 |
011 |         // Placeholders for placing cookware on four burners
012 |         this.burners = [new Burner(BurnerIndex.UpperLeft),
013 |                         new Burner(BurnerIndex.UpperRight),
014 |                         new Burner(BurnerIndex.LowerLeft),
015 |                         new Burner(BurnerIndex.LowerRight)];
016 |
017 |         if (type == RangeType.Electric) {
018 |             // RangeType.ELECTRIC - takes longer to heat up, and
019 |             // cool down making it less efficient, and more
020 |             // difficult to control, more expensive to operate,
021 |             // with cheaper installation
022 |         }
023 |         if (type == RangeType.Gas) {
024 |             // RangeType.GAS - quicker to heat, with no cool down
025 |             // time making it more efficient and easier to control,
026 |             // cheaper to operate, with more expensive installation
027 |         }
028 |
029 |         console.log(`Created ${type} range!`);
030 |     }
```

In the constructor we add four new burners to our **Range** object. This is polymorphism (composing one object from other objects.) In this case our **Range** is composed of 4 separate **Burner** objects. Using inheritance would make less sense here. How can you "inherit" a range from burners, or burners from range? It makes little logical sense. Here a **Burner** is part of the **Range** object, which seems to more accurately relate to how things are composed in reality.

Range.install_oven()

We can install our polymorphic oven at a later time by calling **install_oven**:

```
032 |     install_oven() {  
033 |         // Polymorphism in action: object composition  
034 |         // We just added another key object to Range  
035 |         this.oven = new Oven();  
036 |         print("Installed oven!");  
037 |     }
```

Range.place(index, vessel)

The **Range.place** method is used to place an existing **Vessel** object onto one of the burners at any of the four available locations.

```
039 |     // Place cookware vessel onto one of the 4 burners  
040 |     place(index, vessel) {  
041 |         this.burners[index].vessel = vessel;  
042 |         print(`Placed ${vessel.material} ${vessel.type}  
043 |             on range index ${index}.`);  
044 |     }
```

Range.run(minutes)

Assuming our cookware vessels were placed onto one or more burners using **Range.place** method described above, we can now operate the range for a number of specified minutes by calling **Range.run(1)**;

```
001 |     // Run the range converting energy to heat on each burner  
002 |     run(minutes) {  
003 |         // 1. convert energy to heat  
004 |         this.burners.forEach(item => convert(this.type, minutes))  
005 |         // 2. call cook() on the vessel  
006 |         this.burners.forEach(item =>  
007 |             // first check if a vessel exists on this burner  
008 |             // if vessel is not null, so cook() in it  
009 |             // otherwise do nothing  
010 |             item.vessel ? item.cook() : null);  
011 |     }
```

18.6.9 Putting It All Together

All of our classes are defined and we are ready to do some cooking!

First, let's add all dependencies to our main JavaScript file:

```
001 import Ingredient from "./ingredient.js";
002 import Fridge from "./fridge.js";
003 import { Burner, BurnerIndex } from "./burner.js";
004 import { Range, RangeType } from "./range.js";
005 import { Vessel, Pan, Pot, Tray } from "./cookware.js";
006 import FoodFactory from "./foodfactory.js";
```

One neat thing to notice here is we never have to import **print** function into our main program from **./print.js** file – it is completely internal to our range implementation.

But before we continue...

```
001 let Ing = Ingredient;
```

The word **Ingredient** is long. The statement for instantiating an object of this type didn't fit on one line of code in this book. You will see this in the source code on the next page. So I simply created a reference to it and called it **Ing**.

Remember how variable names are *references* to the original object. This means our **Ing** variable is a reference to exactly the same constructor as **Ingredient**. No copies were made.

Let's head to the next page where we will create actual ingredients as instances of the class **Ingredient**.

The **Ingredient** constructor takes: **name**, **type** and **calories**. I looked up calories per serving for each ingredient on Google.

Define ingredients

```
003 // water
004 const water      = new Ing("water", Ing.liquid, 0);
005 const olive_oil  = new Ing("olive oil", Ing.liquid, 0);
006 const broth       = new Ing("broth", Ing.liquid, 11);
007 const red_wine    = new Ing("red wine", Ing.liquid, 125);
008 // spices
009 const bay_leaf    = new Ing("bay leaf", Ing.spice, 6);
010 const peppercorn  = new Ing("peppercorn", Ing.spice, 17);
011 // meats
012 const beef        = new Ing("beef", Ing.meat, 213);
013 const chicken     = new Ing("chicken", Ing.meat, 335);
014 const bacon       = new Ing("bacon", Ing.meat, 43);
015 // fruits
016 const pineapple   = new Ing("pineapple", Ing.fruit, 452);
017 const apple        = new Ing("apple", Ing.fruit, 95);
018 const blueberry   = new Ing("blueberry", Ing.fruit, 85);
019 // vegetables
020 const mushroom    = new Ing("mushroom", Ing.vegetable, 4);
021 const carrot       = new Ing("carrot", Ing.vegetable, 41.35);
022 const potato       = new Ing("potato", Ing.vegetable, 163);
023 const pepper       = new Ing("bell pepper", Ing.vegetable, 24);
024 const onion        = new Ing("onion", Ing.vegetable, 44);
025 // eggs
026 const egg          = new Ing("egg", Ing.egg, 78);
027 // grain, other
028 const oatmeal      = new Ing("oatmeal", Ing.grain, 158);
029 const rice          = new Ing("rice", Ing.grain, 206);
030 const brown_rice   = new Ing("brown rice", Ing.grain, 216);
031 const cheese        = new Ing("cheese", Ing.cheese, 113);
032 const sauce         = new Ing("tomato sauce", Ing.sauce, 70);
```

Instantiate the range object

```
001 // Create the electric range
002 let range = new Range(RangeType.Electric);
```

Next time we run **range.run(1)** we can cook everything that was placed on the stove for 1 minute. But until that can happen we first need to create some pans and pots, and put some ingredients in them.

Now that we created the range, let's created our cooking vessels!

```
001 // Create cooking vessels
002 let pan = new Pan("cast iron");
003 let skillet = new Pan("cast iron");
004 let pot = new Pot("stainless steel");
005 let tray = new Tray("aluminum");
```

Let's drop some ingredients into our **pot** in preparation for making a beef stew:

```
001 // Make beef stew
002 pot.add(water);
003 pot.add(broth);
004 pot.add(red_wine);
005 pot.add(beef);
006 pot.add(potato);
007 pot.add(carrot);
008 pot.add(bay_leaf);
009 pot.add(peppercorn);
010 pot.calories(); // 576.35 calories
```

But there is a problem, JavaScript treats variables as references to the same object. So if we add water, broth, beef, etc... to another skillet, essentially we are adding the same ingredients we already placed in the pot object above.

This means if we turned on the range, we might be cooking *the same* ingredients in different cookware vessels! This is where a factory class comes in.

The **FoodFactory** class will return a new instance of the ingredient, instead of a reference to the existing ingredient object instance: (see FoodFactory class implementation to understand how it does it.)

```
001 skillet.add(FoodFactory.make(mushroom));
002 skillet.add(FoodFactory.make(carrot));
003 skillet.add(FoodFactory.make(onion));
004 skillet.add(FoodFactory.make(potato));
005 skillet.add(FoodFactory.make(pepper));
006 skillet.calories(); // 2260
```

Using **FoodFactory** to make sure all ingredients are unique object instances:

```
001 // Fry 3 eggs
002 pan.add(FoodFactory.make(egg));
003 pan.add(FoodFactory.make(egg));
004 pan.add(FoodFactory.make(egg));
005 pan.calories(); // 234 calories
```

Now, let's place all pots and pans on the burners:

```
001 // Place the pot with beef stew on LowerLeft burner
002 range.place(BurnerIndex.LowerLeft, pot);
003
004 // Place skillet with vegetable stew onto LowerRight burner
005 range.place(BurnerIndex.LowerRight, skillet);
006
007 // Place frying pan with 3 eggs onto UpperRight burner
008 range.place(BurnerIndex.UpperRight, pan);
```

And turn them on:

```
001 // Turn burners on
002 range.burners[BurnerIndex.LowerLeft].on();
003 range.burners[BurnerIndex.LowerRight].on();
004 range.burners[BurnerIndex.UpperRight].on();
```

Finally, let the range run for 1 minute:

```
001 // Cook everything on all turned on burners for 1 minute
002 range.run(1);
```

Chapter 19

Events

Events are functions executed at the time when a specific action occurs. For example, if user clicks on a UI button or any other HTML element, browser dispatches an "onclick" event associated with HTML element that was clicked.

There are two types of events: **browser events** and **synthetic events**.

19.0.1 Browser Events

Built-in **browser events** are already pre-determined and executed by the browser when an action occurs. You don't need to create them yourself, only to intercept them – if you wish something else to happen after they occur.

When browser window changes size, a **resize** event is automatically dispatched. This might be a good place to adjust your UI layout to the new area.

Mouse events are also an example of built-in browser events. When a mouse is moving **onmousemove** event is dispatched, continuously re-calculating mouse position and exposing them via **event.clientX** and **event.clientY** property names.

When the mouse button is pressed down **onmousedown** event is dispatched and when it is released **onmouseup** event will occur. You can intercept these events and supply a callback function that contains commands you want to be executed after the event occurs. This is incredibly useful for implementing custom UI experience: for example, display a custom menu when a mouse button is clicked.

19.0.2 Synthetic Events

Built-in browser events are nice, but to truly understand how they work, we'll start with synthetic events. This will give us a good idea of how events are created and dispatched in JavaScript.

Event Object

You can create and dispatch your own events using **Event** object. Events created in this way are called **synthetic events** because they are not generated by the browser itself, but rather by your program. Let's create a synthetic event just to see how events work in JavaScript at their basic level:

```
001 // Create a new custom event 'start'  
002 let startEvent = new Event('start');
```

Now that the **startEvent** is created we need a way to intercept it and run some code when it is detected. First step to begin listening for the "start" is to call **addEventListener** method with "start" as first argument:

```
004 // Listen for the 'start' event  
005 document.addEventListener('start',  
006   function ( event ) { /* custom code */ }, false);
```

The anonymous callback function will be executed when the event occurs. It takes one parameter called **event**. You can name this parameter anything you want but **event** is usually ideal to avoid confusion.

Event Capture And Event Bubbling

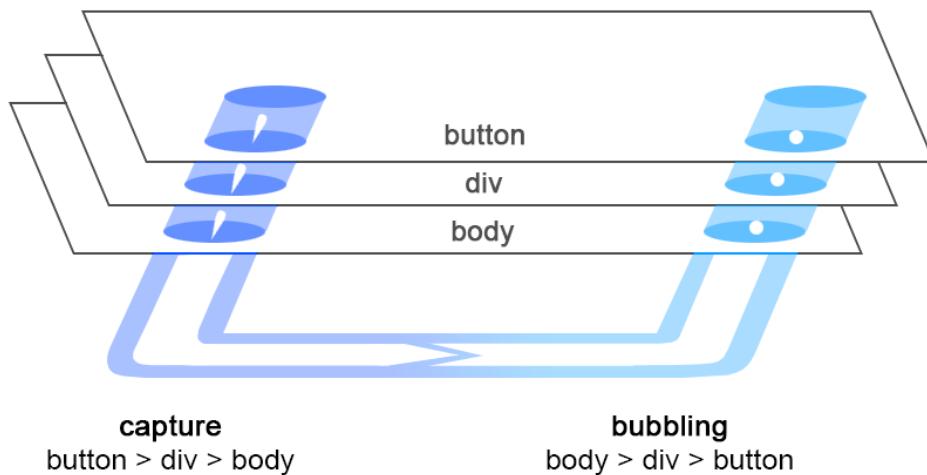
The last parameter *useCapture* is set to **false** to disable **event capture** mode. Basically when it's set to **true** it means the parent element will be notified of the event first, and only then the element that was actually clicked. If it is set to **false**, "event bubbling" will be used, which means the opposite: first, the clicked element

will be notified of the event, and then the event will be dispatched progressively to all of its parents.

The story goes way back to implementation in the Netscape Navigator browser and initial versions of Internet Explorer.

Long story short, Netscape wanted to enforce **event capture**. And Internet Explorer wanted to enforce **event bubbling**. The final consensus was to use both.

Since that time **addEventListener** function will actually listen to both capture and bubbling. But the last parameter *useCapture* allows the programmer to make a choice for which **event propagation method** should take precedence:



In modern browsers, the *useCapture* parameter defaults to **false** if it's not specified, but older browsers require this flag to be set manually. So in modern JavaScript it is usually explicitly set to **false** but only for backwards-compatibility.

dispatchEvent

Once **addEventListener** function is executed, the browser will be continuously listening for the "start" event to occur. But the callback remains dormant until event is actually dispatched using the **dispatchEvent** method:

```
008 // Dispatch the 'start' event  
009 document.dispatchEvent( startEvent );
```

The **dispatchEvent** method actually triggers our custom "start" event. It usually takes one argument: the variable pointing to the actual event object created earlier.

removeEventListener

Event listeners take memory and can affect performance of your program if there are too many listeners running at the same time. If we no longer need to listen for the event it's a good idea to call **removeEventListener** method.

Let's say we started to listen for "click" event on document:

```
001 document.addEventListener("click", callback);
```

To remove this event listener we must also provide the same callback function that was originally passed to the **addEventListener** method above:

```
001 document.removeEventListener("click", callback);
```

Anonymous functions cannot be used to remove event listeners, so the following call will not remove the event listener:

```
001 document.removeEventListener("click", function() { });
```

Whenever you use an anonymous function expression, it will occupy a new location in memory. This means **removeEventListener** will not be able to locate it among already existing callbacks.

The original callback function name is required because it is located at a unique location in memory. That's what essentially lets **removeEventListener** method know exactly which listener to unbind.

Note **removeEventListener("click")** will **not** remove "all click events". Again, you **must** specify original function name that was used to attach the event as the second argument of **removeEventListener** to successfully unbind the event.

CustomEvent Object

Events can carry additional data, specifying details of the event. For example, if a mouse is clicked, we need to know the **X** and **Y** location of the mouse pointer at that time. If browser was resized, we need to know the size of the new client area.

In order to add detail to the event the **CustomEvent** object should be used.

But first, let's create the payload object. This object must have a property named **detail** which will store additional information about our custom event – indicating that a pin was placed on a map with position and an info label:

```
001 // Create event detail payload
002 let info = {
003   detail: { position: [125, 210],
004             info: "map location" }
005 };
```

Now, let's create our new custom "pin" event:

```
007 // Create new event of custom type "pin"
008 let eventPin = new CustomEvent("pin", info);
```

This callback function will be triggered when the event is dispatched:

```
010 // Create callback
011 let callback = function(event) {
012   console.log(event);
013 };
```

Finally, start listening for the "pin" event:

```
015 // Start listening for pin event
016 document.addEventListener("pin", callback);
```

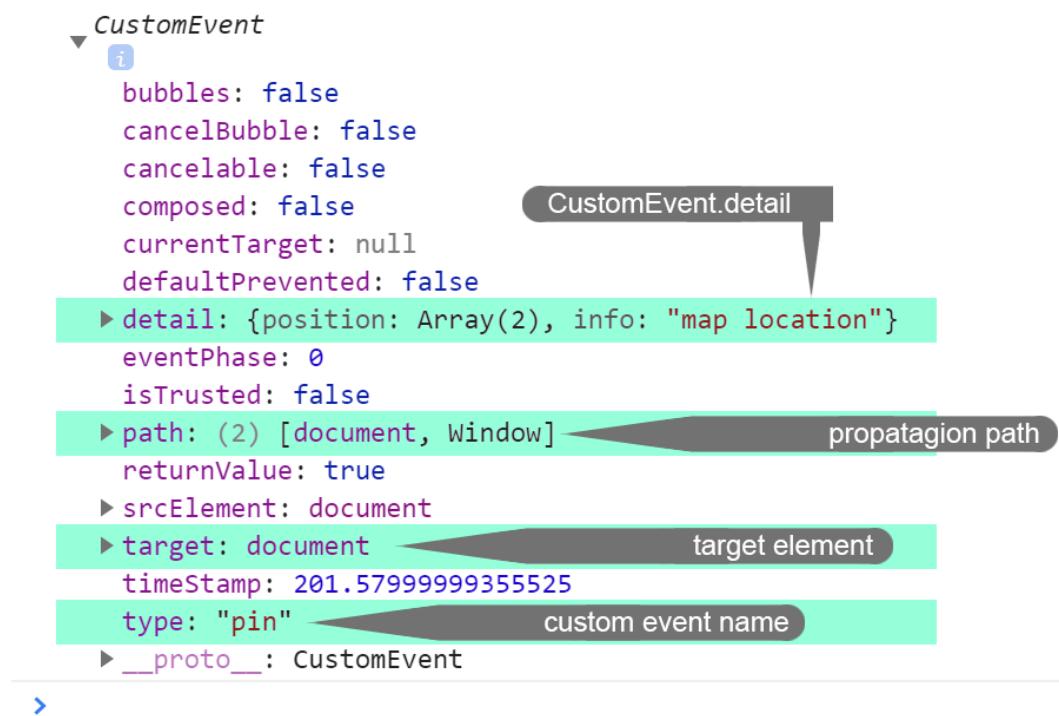
The custom event is dispatched in exactly the same way as a regular event, by calling the `dispatchEvent` method.

Whenever someone clicked a mouse button on the map area, you can dispatch the "pin" event using the **dispatchEvent** method:

```
018 // Manually dispatch the event  
019 document.dispatchEvent(eventPin);
```

19.0.3 Event Anatomy

Let's take a look at the CustomEvent in console. Important parts were highlighted:



Final Words

Event objects are abstract. Each event usually carries details that are *relevant to event type*. So when designing your own events, think about what type of data it should provide. This is usually specific to the purpose of your program.

19.0.4 setTimeout

You can time events using **setTimeout** function.

Create callback:

```
001| let callback = function() { console.log("event!") };
```

Execute the callback 1 second (1000 milliseconds) after **setTimeout** is called:

```
002| setTimeout(callback, 1000);
```

Let's try something else:

```
001| let callback = function() {  
002|     console.log("do something");  
003| }
```

Execute callback 1 second in the future:

```
005| let timer = setTimeout(callback, 1000);
```

Resetting the timeout using **clearTimeout** function will cancel the event and prevent it from occurring in the future:

```
007| // Reset timeout  
008| clearTimeout(timer);  
009| timer = null;
```

19.0.5 setInterval

The **setInterval** function works exactly like **setTimeout**, except it will continue executing the callback function for an indefinite number of times at a time interval specified as its second argument:

```
011| let interval = setInterval(callback, 1000);
```

To stop the events, you can use **clearInterval** function:

```
013 // Reset interval  
014 clearInterval(interval);  
015 interval = null;
```

19.0.6 Intercepting Browser Events

Many built-in events already have callback functions attached to global window object. This means you can override them by providing your own version:

```
001 window.onload = function(event) { }  
002 window.onresize = function(event) { }  
003 window.focus = function(event) { }  
004 window.onmousemove = function(event) { }  
005 window.onmouseover = function(event) { }  
006 window.onmouseout = function(event) { }
```

The events will still take place, but the function you attach to their name will be executed in addition to the built-in code.

But window object is not the only place where events can be overwritten. For example, it is possible to attach events directly to HTML elements. And if the selected element supports a particular event type, it will be overwritten:

```
001 document.getElementById("id").onclick = function(event) {  
002   console.log(event);  
003 }
```

19.0.7 Display Mouse Position

To display where the mouse pointer is located within an element, or relative to the entire page, you can intercept the **onmousemove** event and output mouse position coordinates attached to **event** argument:

```
001 window.onmousemove = function(event) {  
002     // Get mouse coordinates relative to the document  
003     let mouseX = event.pageX;  
004     let mouseY = event.pageY;  
005     // Get mouse coordinates relative to element area  
006     let localX = event.clientX;  
007     let localY = event.clientY;  
008 }
```

In the console we will observe similar output to:

```
944 4 944 4  
948 6 948 6  
952 8 952 8  
|
```

The click event, and many others, can be overwritten as follows:

```
001 window.onclick = function(event) { /* handle event */ }
```

19.0.8 Universal Mouse Event Class

I can't count how many times I had to write mouse code all over again every time a new project required custom UI functionality. While simply intercepting common mouse movement and click events is enough to track when buttons are clicked, common UI projects require calculations not provided by built-in mouse events.

Custom modules you might want to write require knowing things like: "Is the user currently dragging an object with a mouse?" If you are working on a slider UI, you will most definitely need to answer the question: "What is the distance between last mouse click and current mouse position?"

In this section we will write a reusable **Mouse** class that will put an end on ever having to write mouse code again in your future JavaScript projects: just export **Mouse** class from **mouse.js** file, and you're ready to go.

```

001 export class Mouse {
002   constructor() {
003     this.current = {x: 0, y: 0};      // current coordinates
004     this.memory = {x: 0, y: 0};      // last click position
005     this.difference = {x: 0, y: 0}; // difference
006     this.inverse = {x: 0, y: 0};    // swapped
007     this.dragging = false;
008     document.body.addEventListener("mousedown", () => {
009       if (this.dragging == false) {
010         this.dragging = true;
011         this.memory.x = this.current.x;
012         this.memory.y = this.current.y;
013         this.inverse.x = this.memory.x;
014         this.inverse.y = this.memory.y;
015       }
016     });
017     document.body.addEventListener("mouseup", () => {
018       this.dragging = false;
019       this.current.x = 0;
020       this.current.y = 0;
021       this.memory.x = 0;
022       this.memory.y = 0;
023       this.difference.x = 0;
024       this.difference.y = 0;
025       this.inverse.x = 0;
026       this.inverse.y = 0;
027     });
028     document.body.addEventListener("mousemove", (event) => {
029       this.current.x = event.pageX;
030       this.current.y = event.pageY;
031       if (this.dragging) {
032         this.difference.x = this.current.x - this.memory.x;
033         this.difference.y = this.current.y - this.memory.y;
034         // calculate inverse
035         if (this.current.x < this.memory.x)
036           this.inverse.x = this.current.x;
037         if (this.current.y < this.memory.y)
038           this.inverse.y = this.current.y;
039       }
040     });
041   }
042 }

```

Contents of **mouse.js** file.

Including And Using Mouse Class

Just store this code in **mouse.js** and every time you need to work with mouse coordinates, instantiate the **Mouse** class as shown in the next code sample:

```
001 <html>
002   <head>
003     <title>Custom UI Project</title>
004     <script type = "module">
005
006       import { Mouse } from "./mouse.js";
007
008       // Instantiate global mouse object
009       let mouse = new Mouse();
010
011       // Ready to use globally in your code
012       mouse.current.x;
013       mouse.current.y;
014
015       // Last clicked position, relative to document
016       mouse.memory.x;
017       mouse.memory.y;
018
019       // Drag length
020       mouse.difference.x;
021       mouse.difference.y;
022
023       // Inverse
024       mouse.inverse.x;
025       mouse.inverse.y;
026
027       // Is mouse button currently held down? (boolean)
028       mouse.dragging;
029
030     </script>
031   </head>
032   <body>
033     <!-- UI //-->
034   </body>
035 </html>
```

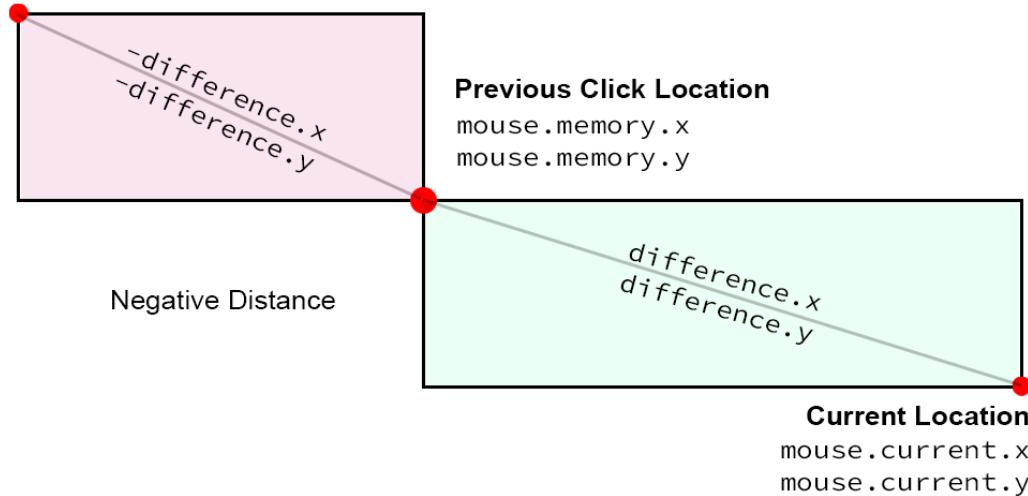
Mouse Class Explained

From now on, all coordinates we might need are automatically calculated and

available on the instance of the **Mouse** class.

```
mouse.inverse.x  
mouse.inverse.y
```

Current Location (if negative distance)



The **mouse.memory** property holds the position where the mouse was clicked last time. If user is still holding the mouse button down, which is tracked by the boolean **mouse.dragging** variable, then **mouse.difference** property will contain distance between the previous click and where the mouse pointer is currently located.

This is useful for tracking distance of a custom scrollbar, or similar slider UIs. If the mouse is hovering over the slider handle area and user clicks the mouse button, and the mouse button remains pressed down, then the slider should move the same amount of distance specified in **difference.x** or **difference.y** property, depending on whether the slider is horizontal or vertical.

When mouse button is released, all properties are reset to 0 again.

A bit more can be said about **mouse.difference** property when it's negative. If the mouse is used to "draw" a rectangle on the screen, but the vector cast from previous click location is negative, then **mouse.inverse** property will contain the upper left corner of the rectangle. If the distance vector is positive, then the upper left corner will be naturally stored in **mouse.memory**.

Chapter 20

Network Requests

Applications dealing with back-end code often communicate via HTTP requests. In this section we will explore several different methods.

One of the first and simplest ways of initiating an HTTP request is by creating an instance of the **XMLHttpRequest** object:

```
001 | const Http = new XMLHttpRequest();
```

This object has methods **open** and **send**. But before calling them, we need to define an endpoint URL. In this example, let's simply download the source code of jQuery library from a CDN location. But it can be any other type of file:

```
002 | const url =
003 |   "https://cdn.cf.com/ajax/libs/jquery/3.3.1/core.js";
```

Now we can call the URL with either "GET" or "POST" method:

```
004 | Http.open("GET", url);
005 | Http.send();
```

To get the actual value returned from the URL endpoint, we need to listen to "state change" event which will be executed soon as the content is returned:

```

007 // http request response callback
008 Http.onreadystatechange = function(event) {
009   // print contents of core.js
010   console.log(Http.responseText);
011 }

```

You can create an HTTP request to fetch almost any type of data. It doesn't have to be jQuery library. Usually an API you are connecting to will pack the return value into a JSON object containing a list of items, ready for parsing by your application and displaying in the UI view.

This is usually done in production code as shown in next example:

```

001 const Http = new XMLHttpRequest();
002
003 const url = "object.js";
004
005 // Listen for state change event
006 Http.onreadystatechange = function() {
007
008   // Check for successful request status:
009   if (this.readyState == 4 && this.status == 200) {
010
011     // Read content in json format:
012     let json = JSON.parse(Http.responseText);
013     console.log(json); // [{ id: 10, name: "Luna" }]
014
015     // Extract properties from object
016     let id = json.id;
017     let name = json.name;
018
019     // Update application view with received data
020     let userId = document.getElementById("id");
021     if (userId) userId.innerHTML = id;
022
023     let userName = document.getElementById("name");
024     if (userName) userName.innerHTML = name;
025   }
026 };
027
028 // Execute request
029 Http.open("GET", url);
030 Http.send();

```

Here are the contents of **object.js** file – it is simply an object represented by JSON notation. Notice **[]** brackets:

```
[{ "id": 10, "name": "Luna" }]
```

When an HTTP request is executed using **open** and **send** methods, the **onreadystatechange** event will actually be fired 4 times, each with state changing from 1 to 2 to 3 and finally to 4. We are only concerned with final stage 4, at which point the request will be considered completed and return 200 status.

It is important to check for **this.status == 200**. Because this is the only place where we can be sure that the event completed successfully.

Next, we retrieve contents of **object.js** file, which is the JSON object shown above, in string format. But we need to convert it to an actual JavaScript object. This is done via **JSON.parse** method.

We then store individual properties **json.id** and **json.name** in variables **id** and **name** respectively.

Finally, the id and name are displayed in the UI of the app. This could be two div containers prepared to store this data.

If multiple JSON objects are received, you should probably convert them to an array (using **Object.entries** method) and iterate through them using **.forEach**, **.map** or other higher-order functions.

In this case **object.js** could include multiple objects separated by comma:

```
[{ "id": 10, "name": "Luna" }, { "id": 11, "name": "Felix" }]
```

20.0.1 Callback Hell

Callbacks are functions that return after an event is executed. This way we can write in our custom code, wrap up loading animations, and do clean up.

For a long time, before EcmaScript 6, callbacks were extensively used as a tool to execute asynchronous calls. As applications grew more complex, multiple callbacks were chained up together because each call relied on completion of a previous task:

Sailor API

You can't build a boat until you fetch some wood. You can't sail the ocean until the boat is built. You can't discover an island until you can sail the ocean. Certainly, you can't dig for treasure without exploring an island!

Let's take a look at how imaginary Sailor API could be used to achieve a series of actions that depend on each other.

```
001 | SailorAPI("/get/wood", (result) => {
002 |   SailorAPI("/build/boat/", (result) => {
003 |     SailorAPI("/sail/ocean/", (result) => {
004 |       SailorAPI("/explore/island/", (result) => {
005 |         SailorAPI("/treasure/dig/", (result) => {
006 |           // Ahhh... asynchronous code
007 |           // with dependencies is ugly!
008 |         });
009 |       });
010 |     });
011 |   });
012 |});
```

A series of calls written this way share the problem of dependency. In addition, a large gap of time can be created between each call, if at least one of the API calls lags, significantly slowing down the entire process. Wasn't asynchronous code supposed to happen at the same time?

Besides, inside each callback we must manually check whether the previous request returned successfully. This produces code that looks complicated and hard to read.

This ugly code is often referred to as **Callback Hell**. How can we escape from it?

20.0.2 ES6 Promises

Using just callbacks in some situations where one event depends on results returned from another event might result in complicated code.

A Promise object provides a pattern for checking whether an action fails or succeeds. Then, if it does succeed, it returns another promise.

The Promise object takes two parameters: **resolve** and **reject**:

```
001 let password = "felix";
002 let p = new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
003   if (password != "mathilda")
004     return reject('Invalid Password');
005   resolve();
006});
```

The internal logic of a promise is entirely up to you.

If you are validating a password, as in above example, you will determine whether to call the **resolve** or **reject** command. Let's take at **resolve** and **reject** individually before putting together a complete promise.

20.0.3 Promise.resolve

The **resolve** method indicates that the promise has been successfully fulfilled and contains the return value. For example, it can be a string:

```
001 // resolves to "message"
002 let promise = Promise.resolve("message");
```

In the same way, the following promise is resolved to "resolve value", which technically can be a string, number, or even another promise:

```
001 let promise = Promise.resolve("resolve value");
```

The **then** method intercepts the value in the event of successful outcome as a response to **resolve** method. In the next example **then** method is used to intercept "resolve value" message.

20.0.4 .then

The **then** method receives the **resolve** value:

```
001 let promise = Promise.resolve("resolve value");
002
003 // .then() method receives resolve value
004 promise.then(function(message) {
005   console.log("then: " + message);
006});
```

Console:

```
then: resolve value
> |
```

20.0.5 .catch

The **catch** method responds only to **reject** method. In this example, it will not even be executed because all we did was call **resolve** method by itself. But it's possible to attach a callback to it to catch errors later:

```
008 // never called, because we used .resolve method
009 promise.catch(function(error) {
010   console.log("catch: " + error);
011});
```

20.0.6 .finally

The **finally** method is executed regardless of whether event succeeded with **resolve** method or failed with **reject** method. It is a good place for cleaning up the code

or update the UI view (for example hide the loading animation):

```
013 // good place for post-promise data clean up
014 promise.finally(function(msg) {
015   console.log("finally: hide loading animation.");
016});
```

20.0.7 Promise.reject

But what happens in cases when a condition isn't met and the promise is rejected?

```
001 // Promise object also has a .reject() method, which is used
002 // to purge the request, if a required condition isn't met:
003 let promise = Promise.reject("request rejected");
004
005 // .then() method is not called on .reject
006
007 // because we used .reject() method
008 // catch can be used to intercept the error
009 promise.catch(function(error) {
010   console.log("catch: " + error);
011});
```

Here we paired a **reject** method with **catch**. The **then** method is never called on **reject** action. But the **finally** method will be called to wrap things up:

```
013 // good place for post-promise data clean up
014 promise.finally(function(msg) {
015   console.log("finally: hide loading animation.");
016});
```

20.0.8 Putting It All Together

Because a promise returns a promise object, we can write everything in a single statement:

```

001 let promise = new Promise(function(resolve, reject) {
002   let condition = true;
003   // based on your logic here,
004   if (condition) // call resolve() to resolve the promise:
005     resolve("message");
006   else // or call reject() to reject the promise
007     reject("error details");
008 }).then(function(msg) {
009   console.log("promise resolved to " + msg);
010 }).catch(function(error) {
011   console.log("promise rejected with " + error)
012 }).finally(() => console.log("finally."));

```

Here is another similar but slightly different pattern. If it makes the code cleaner, you might want to separate the promise call from **then** and **catch** calls:

```

001 let takeTheTrashOut = new Promise(resolve, reject) => {
002
003   // Do the work
004   let trash_is_out = take_trash_out();
005
006   // Handle the return value
007   if (!trash_is_out)
008     reject("No");
009   else
010     resolve("Yes");
011 };
012
013 // Resolve Promise using then and catch methods
014 takeTheTrashOut.then(function(fromResolve) {
015   console.log("Is the trash out? Answer = " + fromResolve);
016 }).catch(function(fromReject) {
017   console.log("Is the trash out? Answer = " + fromReject);
018 });

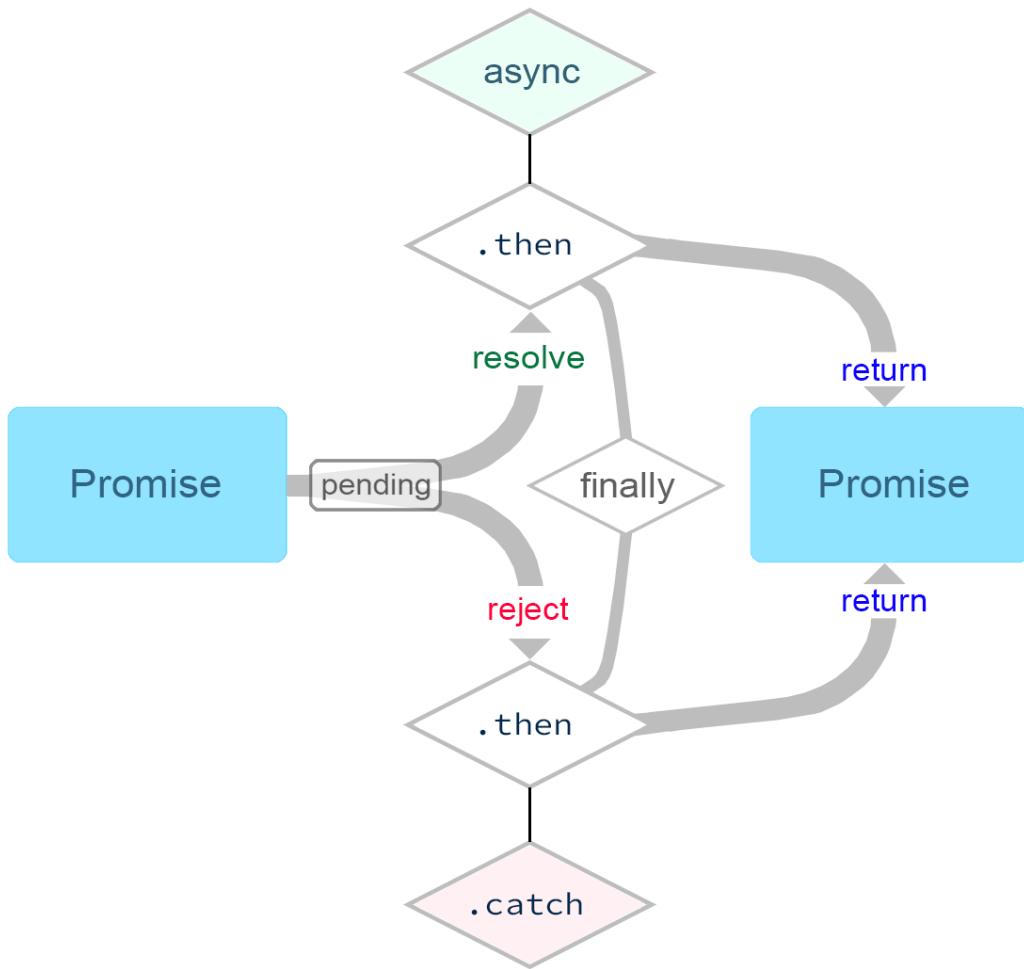
```

20.0.9 Promise.all

Unlike an HTTP request, promises can resolve any statement – including simple variable values. Having said this, we can resolve multiple promises at once using a single call to the **Promise.all** method as shown in the following example:

```
001 var promise = "promise";
002 var threat = "threat";
003 var wish = Promise.resolve("I wish.");
004
005 // Data set
006 var array = [promise, threat, wish];
007
008 Promise.all( array ).then(function( values ) {
009     console.log( values );
010 });
011
012 // returns Array(2):
013 ["promise", "threat", "wish"];
```

20.0.10 Promise Anatomy



20.0.11 Final Words

In many traditional cases, the following pattern is usually used:

```
001 new Promise((resolve, reject) => { resolve("resolved."); })
002 .then((msg) => { console.log(msg) })
003 .catch((error) => {})
004 .finally(() => { console.log("finally.")});
```

20.0.12 Axios

Axios is a popular Promise-based library for talking to the database.

```
npm install axios --save
```

Use the command above to install it on your Node server.

Then, to include Axios directly into your JavaScript file:

```
001 import axios from 'axios';
```

Or to embed it directly into your HTML page:

```
001 <script src =
002     "https://unpkg.com/axios/dist/axios.min.js"></script>
```

Now let's say we have an endpoint `/get/posts/`:

```
001 const url = 'http://example.com/endpoint/get/posts';
002
003 axios.get(url)
004     .then(data => console.log(data))
005     .catch(err => console.log(err));
```

As you can see Axios follows the same Promise pattern we explored in previous section. Surprisingly, there isn't much more to it. You can use Axios to provide an elegant solution for talking to an API.

The complete Axios documentation is available at <https://github.com/axios/axios>

20.0.13 ES6 Fetch API

The built-in **fetch** API offers another Promise-based interface for talking to a web server:

```
001 let loading_animation = true;
002
003 fetch(request).then(function(response) {
004   var type = response.headers.get("content-type");
005   if (type && type.includes("application/json"))
006     return response.json();
007   throw new TypeError("Content is not in JSON format.");
008 })
009 .then(function(json) { /* handle JSON here */ })
010 .catch(function(error) { console.log(error); })
011 .finally(function() { loading_animation = false; });
```

20.0.14 Fetch POST Payload

When an application requires talking to a database server, you will find yourself sending and receiving data from an endpoint. An **endpoint** is simply a URL location that performs specific action. What it does is determined by the API server. It is often part of entire API that contains multiple endpoints.

For example: `/get/messages` can be an endpoint that returns a JSON object containing messages.

But requests come in two common flavors: POST and GET. And when using POST, we can attach a payload object to communicate detail. Let's form POST request that grabs messages but only for user "Felix" whose user ID is 12:

```
001 const url = "http://example.com/endpoint/get/messages";
002 const data = { name: "Felix", id: 12 };
003 const params = {
004   headers: {
005     "content-type": "application/json"
006   },
007   body: data,
008   method: "POST"
009 }
```

Form the request callback:

```
001 const callback = function(response) {  
002   var type = response.headers.get("content-type");  
003   if (type && type.includes("application/json"))  
004     return response.json();  
005   throw new TypeError("Content is not in JSON format.");  
006 }
```

Finally call fetch method with URL and params:

```
008 fetch(url, params).then(callback)  
009 .then(function(json) { /* handle JSON here */ })  
010 .catch(function(error) { console.log(error); })  
011 .finally(function() { loading_animation = false; });
```

20.1 ES6 `async / await`

Promise-based code suffers from similar issues as regular callbacks. After all **then**, **catch** and **finally** are still basically callback functions. Promises just make code cleaner by segmenting the callbacks into generalized predictable results!

This means that there is still potential to end up in **Promise Hell** rather than **Callback Hell** by stacking callbacks. Promises provide a nice attempt at making the situation better. But code can be even more elegant than this with **async**.

The Basics Of `async` Keyword

First, let's take a look at what exactly happens when we call two functions:

```
001 function x() { }  
002 function y() { }  
003 x();  
004 y();
```

Function **y()** will be executed soon as function **x()** returns:



This is exactly what you would expect from **asynchronous** code, which means code executes in a sequence after a previous command finishes executing, instead of two functions executing simultaneously at the same time.

Now let's take a look at what happens when we use **async** keyword.

First, the **async** keyword can be used only on functions. To do so, simply prepend **async** to the function definition:

```
001| async function a() { return 1; }
```

I know that we are trying to get away from the Promise pattern we saw in an earlier section. This is true, but the **async** function now actually returns a promise object. We're just breaking away from the **Promise Hell** pattern here in pursuit of cleaner code. But we still can call **.then** method on the function:

```
001| a().then(console.log);
```

Console output:

```
1  
> |
```

Remember that first argument of **.then** method is the resolve (success) function, and the second argument is reject. So when we pass **console.log** as the first argument, it treats it as the function that will be executed to display the result.

Essentially, the two examples below are exactly the same except the text in the string return value:

```
001| async function a() { return "first"; }  
002| async function b() { return Promise.resolve("second"); }
```

They both return a promise. Even if function **a()** doesn't explicitly specify it!

Let's call both functions and then call **then** on the return value:

```
001|a().then(console.log);  
002|b().then(console.log);
```

So far the result is just what you would expect:

```
first  
second  
> |
```

20.1.1 await

So where does **await** fit in? The **async** and **await** keywords are usually used in combination with each other. The **await** keyword is prepended to any statement *within* an **async** function:

```
001|async function a() { await Math.sqrt(1); return "first"; }  
002|async function b() { return "second"; }
```

Note: Using **await** outside of **async function** will generate an error.

Here we added **await** to a simple math operation that calculates square root of 1. But the important thing here is the fact that now function **b()** will return first, even though it is second in the execution order:

```
001|a().then(console.log);  
002|b().then(console.log);
```

Console output:

```
second  
first  
> |
```

Prepending **await** to a statement will execute it as if it were a promise. The execution flow in the **async** function will pause on that statement until it is fulfilled. This means that **return "first"** does not return immediately like **b()** function.

This is just a simple example to demonstrate a point.

In reality, **await** is used primarily as the most elegant solution for dealing with multiple API endpoints.

The most important thing about **async/await** is that it allows you to run synchronous code while it is still written in asynchronous form in your program. This solves all of the problems with Callback Hell, keeps your code clean while providing maximum efficiency for executing multiple API requests.

The best way to demonstrate it is to put **await** in the context of a **try / catch** statement. Let's take a look at that in the following section.

20.1.2 **async / await with try-catch**

Let's take a look at the following example where **async** and **await** are implemented for common purpose of grabbing user info object:

```
001 const get = async function(username, password) {  
002     try {  
003         const user = await API.get.user(username, password);  
004         const roles = await API.get.roles(user);  
005         const status = await API.get.status(user);  
006         return user;  
007     } catch (error) {  
008         // handle errors as they come  
009         console.log(error);  
010     }  
011 };  
012  
013 const userinfo = get(); // get user info
```

We will wait until **API.get.user** produces a value and stores it in **user** variable.

Until then none of the following await statements will be executed. This is ideal, because the two await statements that follow require user object, which will become available only if user was authenticated.

Let's assume if **API.get.user** fails, **API.get.roles** and **API.get.status** will fail silently and a **null** object will be returned:

```
001 | if (getinfo != null) {  
002 |   let roles = getinfo.roles;  
003 | } else {  
004 |   // wrong username or password  
005 | }
```

20.1.3 Final Words

async / await syntax is the epitome of synchronous programming in JavaScript. Functions decorated with **async** conveniently return a promise object.

Here we get both of both worlds. Our functions take on the asynchronous order, but execute synchronously, just like callbacks, promises or fetch API requests.

We've finally escaped from both **Callback Hell** and **Promise Hell** without sacrificing clean code.

Does it mean you have to abandon using the Promise object with new operator? Of course not. All of the techniques mentioned in this chapter can be used to write successful applications. It depends on design choices you make.

The **async / await** keywords help us execute code synchronously, without ever having to *directly* use callbacks or promises, and without modifying the asynchronous nature of code.

20.2 ES6 Generators

Generators are similar to **async**. They came out prior to **async** keyword, but they share a similar pattern. The reason I wanted to mention them here is because it is still common to see them in JavaScript code.

A **generator** is defined by adding the star (*) character to the **function** definition:

```
001 | function* generator() { }
```

You can also create it via anonymous function definition assignment:

```
001 let generator = function*() {}
```

20.2.1 yield

Just like **async** works together with **await**, generators work together with **yield** producing exactly the same effect.

```
001 let generator = function*() {  
002     yield 1;  
003     yield 2;  
004     yield 3;  
005     yield "Hello";  
006     return "Done.";  
007 }
```

But we can't call `generator()` function directly. Because every time we do, it will be reset to first **yield** statement. Also, a single generator is designed to be used only once. After it returns, you can not call it again.

For this reason, proper way to initialize new generator is by variable assignment:

```
001 let gen = generator();
```

In a similar way to **then** method on a Promise object, generators have **next** method. Whenever you call **next** on a generator, the next **yield** statement from the generator's function body will be executed:

```
001 gen.next(); // {value: 1, done: false}  
002 gen.next(); // {value: 2, done: false}  
003 gen.next(); // {value: 3, done: false}  
004 gen.next(); // {value: "Hello", done: false}  
005 gen.next(); // {value: "Done.", done: true}
```

Generators don't require a **return** value, but if there is one it will be treated as the final value. Note that **next** produces an object like `{value: 1, done: false}`, instead of a single return value. Last statement returns `done: true`

After this, generator cannot be rewound and repeated again and should be discarded. To create a new one re-assign **generator()** function to a variable again.

20.2.2 Catching Errors

To catch an error using a generator you can use **throw** method:

```
001 | function* generator() {
002 |   try {
003 |     yield 1;
004 |     yield 2;
005 |     yield 3;
006 |   } catch(error) {
007 |     console.log('Error caught!', error);
008 |   }
009 |
010 |
011 | let g = generator();
012 |
013 | g.next(); // {value: 1, done: false}
014 | g.next(); // {value: 2, done: false}
015 | g.next(); // {value: 3, done: false}
016 |
017 | g.throw(new Error('Something went wrong'));
```

Within the generator function, make sure to branch out with **try-catch** statement.

An error should be thrown if at least one **yield** statement has been already executed. Of course, **yield 1**, **yield 2** and **yield 3** would be something more meaningful in a real-case scenario, such as an API call.

Chapter 21

Event Loop

As a JavaScript programmer, you don't need to understand actual implementation of the event loop. But understanding how the Event Loop works is important for at least two reasons:

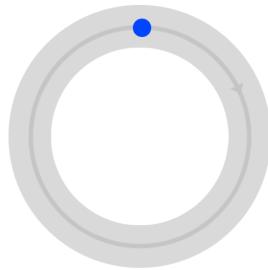
First, questions related to the event loop are often asked at job interviews.

The second reason is a bit more practical. By developing an awareness of how it works, you will be able to understand the order of events as they occur, for example, when working with callbacks and timers such as **setTimeout** function.

In the previous section we've seen how when functions are executed they are placed on the Call Stack. We can even use the stack trace to track which function was originally called to produce an error. This makes sense when working with a deterministic set of events (one statement will proceed to be executed immediately after the previous one is finished executing.)

But writing JavaScript code is often based on listening to events: timers, mouse clicks, HTTP requests, etc. Events assume there will be a period of waiting time until they return after accomplishing whatever task they were set to perform. But while events are doing their work, we don't want to halt our main program.

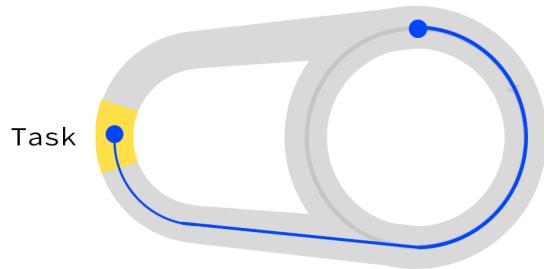
For this reason, whenever an event occurs, it is handed over to the Event Loop.



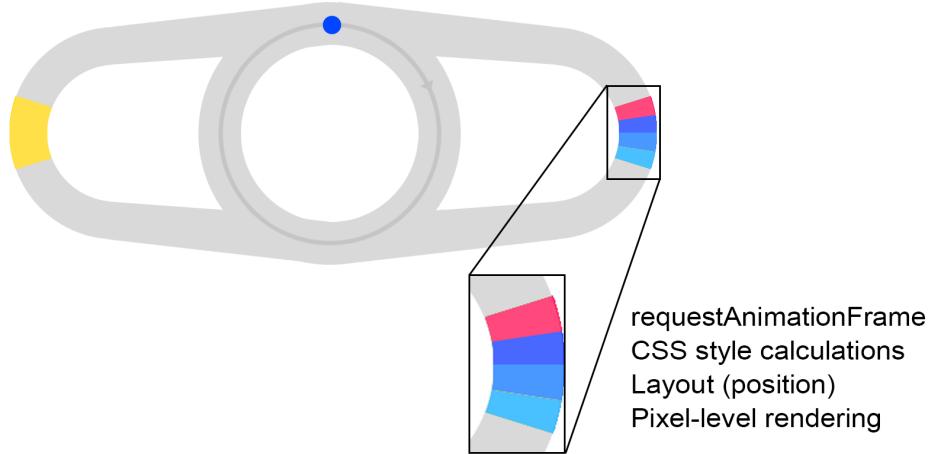
In abstract terms, the Event Loop can be thought of as just what it sounds like. It's a loop, with a process that keeps running in circles.



Whenever an event occurs, which can be thought of as a task, it is delegated to the Event Loop, which "goes out of its way" to pick up the task.



But it's not that simple. The event loop handles events such as mouse clicks, and timeouts. But it also needs to take care of updating the browser view:



The process in the event loop will continue to make rounds, sometimes spending time processing tasks or updating the view.

The whole experience of how users interact with your front-end application will often depend on how optimized your code is for the event loop.

To create smooth user experience, your code should be written in such way, that balances task processing with screen updates.

In modern browsers updating the view usually consists of 4 steps: checking for **requestAnimationFrame**, CSS style calculations, determining layout position, and rendering the view (actually drawing the pixels.)

Choosing the right time to update the browser is tricky. After all **setTimeout** or **setInterval** were never meant to be used together with rendering the browser view. In fact if you've tried to use them to animate elements, you may have experienced choppy performance.

This is because **setInterval** hijacks the event loop, by executing the callback (in which many place their animation code) as fast as possible. For this reason many have moved animations that can be done in CSS to their respective CSS style definitions, instead of performing them in JavaScript.

However, choppy performance can be fixed with **requestAnimationFrame**. What happens is that event loop will actually sync to your monitor's refresh rate, rather than execute each time **setInterval** fires its callback function.

Chapter 22

Call Stack

The **call stack** is a place to keep track of currently executing functions. As your code executes, each call is placed on the call stack in order in which it appears in your program. Once the function returns it is removed from the call stack.

Placing a function call onto the stack is called **pushing** and removing it from the call stack is called **popping**. Same idea behind `Array.push` and `.pop` methods.

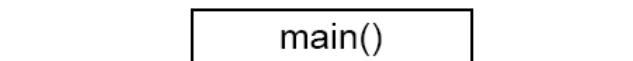


Figure 22.1: The main entry point is **pushed** on the stack.

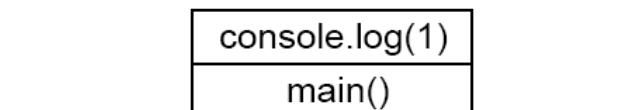


Figure 22.2: Every time `console.log` is called, it's **pushed** to the call stack.

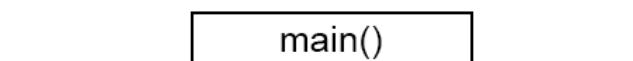


Figure 22.3: The `console.log` prints 1 to the console and returns. It is then **popped** from the stack. Main function continues to run until it returns. This usually will happen when browser is closed.

How does this apply to writing code?

The **call stack** is a fundamental building block of computer language design. Most languages implement a call stack in one way or another. But how does this apply to those who are simply writing code and not designing computer languages?

Call Stack Example

Complex tasks have priorities. Many things require to be done in a logical order.

When writing software you will often call one function from the body of another function. You can't mop the floor until you fill the bucket with water. You have no reason to fill the bucket with water until you *decide* to clean the house first:

```
001 | function mop_floor() { _____
002 |   console.log("Mop the floor.");
003 |   throw new Error("Ran out of water!");
004 |
005
006 | -function fill_bucket(what) {
007 |   console.log("Filling bucket with " + what);
008 |   mop_floor(); _____
009 |
010
011 | function clean_house() {
012 |   console.log("Cleaning house.");
013 |   fill_bucket("water");
014 |
015
016 | clean_house();
```

Figure 22.4: Calling **clean_house** triggers a chain of function calls.

Our last function **mop_floor** throws an error. When this happens a stack trace is shown in the console.

```
Cleaning house.  
Filling bucket with water.  
Mop the floor.  
✖ ► Uncaught Error: Ran out of water!  
    at mop_floor  
    at fill_bucket  
    at clean house  
> |
```

Figure 22.5: Call stack helps us identify the root source of the error.

Error displays the trace of the call stack history, starting with the most recently called function **mop_floor**, in which the error occurred. When debugging this help us trace the error all the way back to the original function **clean_house**.

Most of the time you won't be concerned with thinking about them when writing code. But you might need to understand them when debugging complex large scale software.

22.1 Execution Context

The **call stack** is a stack of execution contexts. When discussing one we will inevitably run into the other.

You don't need to understand **execution context** or the **call stack** in great detail to write JavaScript code. But it might help understand the language better.

What Is Execution Context?

As your program continues to run, the statements being executed exist alongside something called an **execution context**. Note that the execution context is pointed to by **this** keyword in each scope. Not only function-scope either. Block-scope also carries with it a link to execution context via **this** keyword.

This often creates confusion, because in JavaScript the **this** keyword is also used as a reference to an *instance* of an object in class definitions, so that we can access

its member properties and members.

But things become clear if we understand that **execution context** is represented by an instance of an object. It is just not used to access its properties or methods. Instead, it establishes a link between sections of code flow across multiple scopes.

Root Execution Context

When your program opens in a browser, an instance of a **window** object is created automatically. This **window** object becomes the root execution context, because it's the first object instantiated by the browser's JavaScript engine itself. The **window** object is the execution context of **global scope** – they refer to the same thing. The **window** object is an instance of **Window** class.

So how does it work?

If you call a function from global scope, the **this** keyword *inside* the function's scope will point to **window** object – the context from which the function was called. The context was carried over into the function's scope.

It's like a link was established from current execution context to the previous one.

The execution context is something that is carried over from one scope to another, during code execution flow throughout lifetime of your program. You can think of it as a tree branch that extends into another scope from the root **window** object.

In the remaining sections of this chapter we will take a look at one possible interpretation of **execution context** and the **call stack**.

22.2 Execution Context In Code

There is a difference between the logic of call stack and execution contexts and how it manifests itself to the programmer. Obviously, being aware of the call stack isn't required when writing code. In JavaScript, the closest you will get to working with execution contexts is via the **this** keyword.

Execution context is held by **this** keyword in each scope. The name *context* suggests that it can change. This is true. The **this** keyword in each scope may change or point to another new object in various situations.

But where does it all begin?

22.2.1 Window / Global Scope

When the window object is created, we get a handful of things happening under the hood. A new **lexical environment** is created: it contains variable environment for that scope – a place in memory for storing your local variables. Around this time the first ever **this** binding takes place.

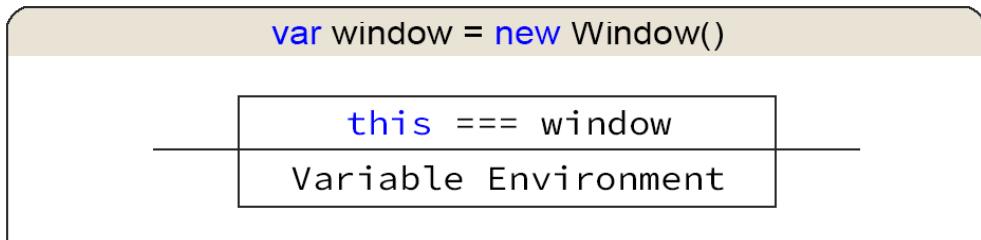


Figure 22.6: A new execution context is created when main window object is instantiated. The **this** keyword points to the window object.

In global scope **this** keyword points to **window** object.

22.2.2 The Call Stack

The **call stack** keeps track of function calls. If you call a function from context of the global scope, a new entry will be placed "on top" of the current context. The newly created stack will inherit execution context from the previous environment.

To visualize this, let's take a look at this diagram:

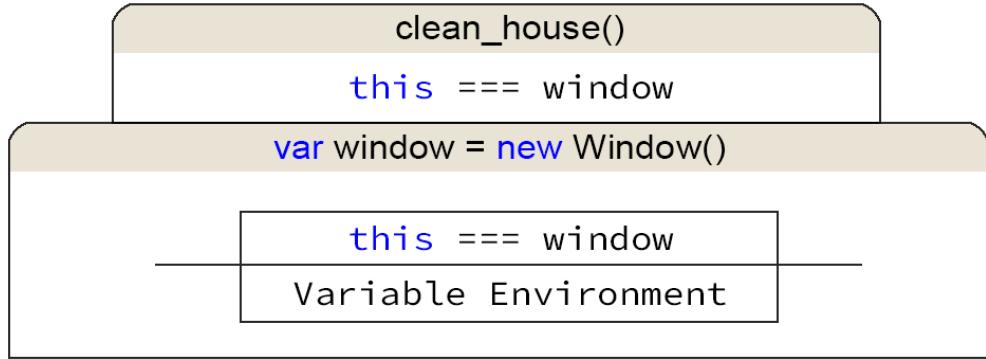


Figure 22.7: Binding of `this` object across **execution contexts** on the **call stack**. A new stack is created when function is called. This new context is logically placed "on top" of the previous object on the call stack.

Call Stack & Execution Context Chain

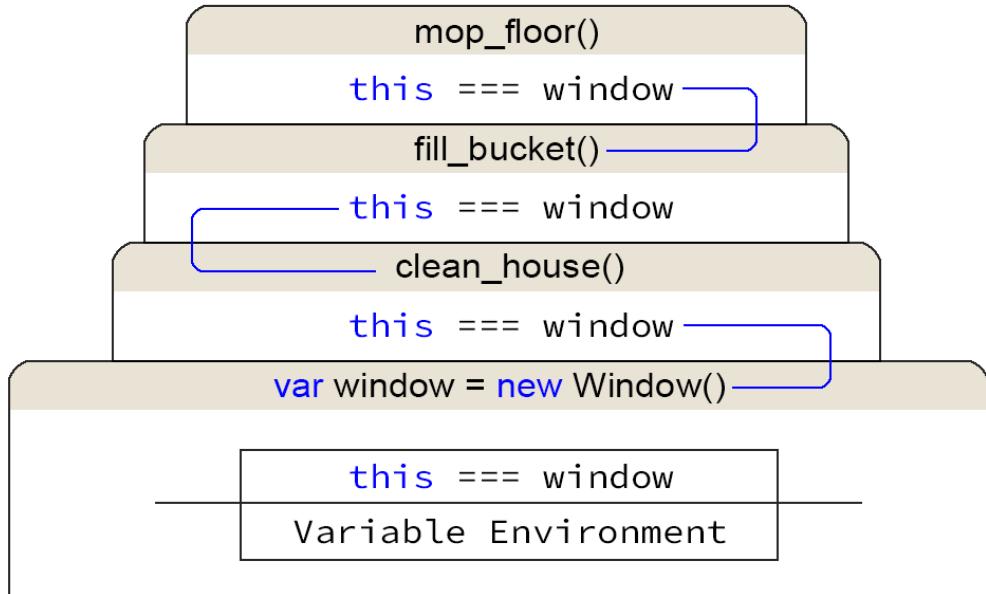


Figure 22.8: As more functions that depend on each other are called from within other functions, the stack grows.

As you can see the context carries over to the newly created stack and remains accessible via the **this** keyword. This process repeats while maintaining a chain of execution contexts all the way up to the currently executing context:

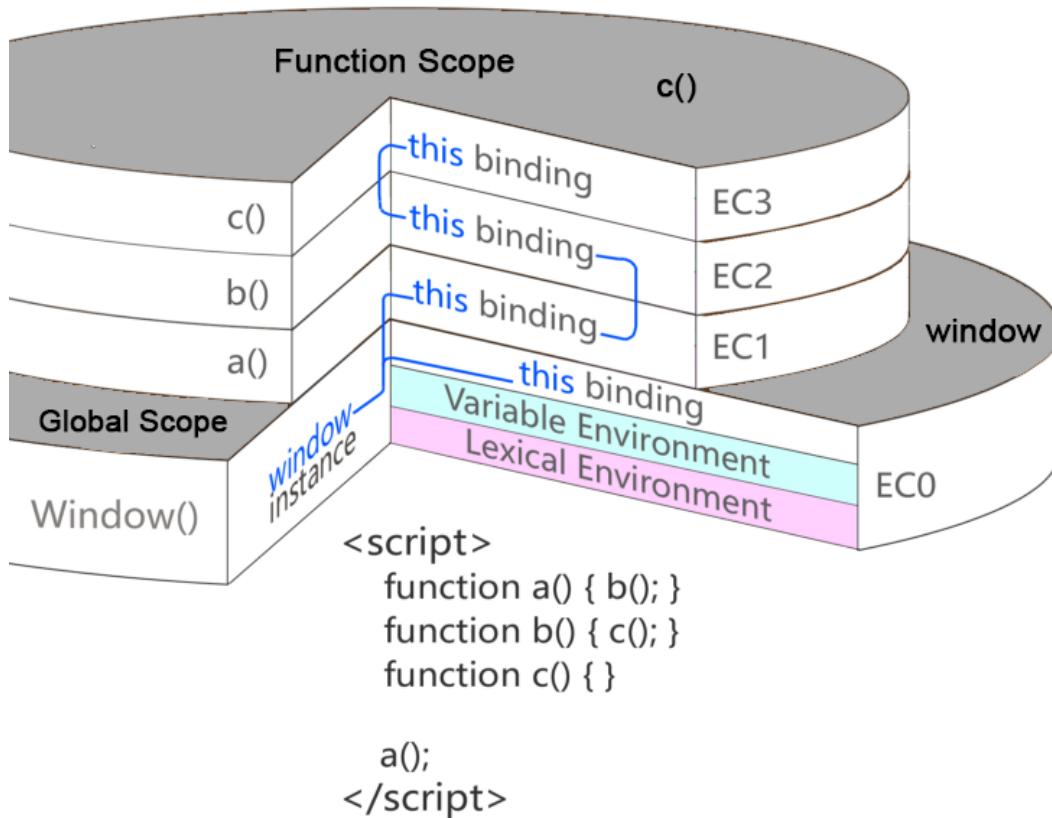


Figure 22.9: Calling multiple functions from within each other's scope will build a tower of function calls on the call stack. Note that this would happen only one at a time for each function if all functions were called from global scope context.

Note that each function carries with it its own execution context EC0 – EC3.

There is always one *current executing context*. This is the context on the very top of the stack. While all of the previous stacks remain below, until execution returns from the current context (*function ran its course and returned, so JavaScript removes the context from memory and we no longer need it...*)

After the function is finished executing the stack is removed from the top and the code flow returns to the remaining previous / uppermost execution context. Contexts are constantly pushed and popped from the call stack.

Stacking only occurs if you call a function from another function. It won't happen if all functions are executed consequently from the *same* execution context.

In which case... you will have one function pushed to the stack, popped from the stack, and then the next function will be pushed onto the empty stack again... and so on.

22.2.3 .call(), .bind(), .apply()

These three functions can be used to call a function and choose what **this** keyword should point to within the scope of that function, overriding its default behavior.

22.2.4 Stack Overflow

When you pour your favorite soda into a tall glass, it will lose its carbonation and given enough **amount** and **pace** it will fizz over the rim.

You can think of **stack overflow** in a similar way. The glass is the call stack's memory address space. The foam above rim is memory that could not be allocated.

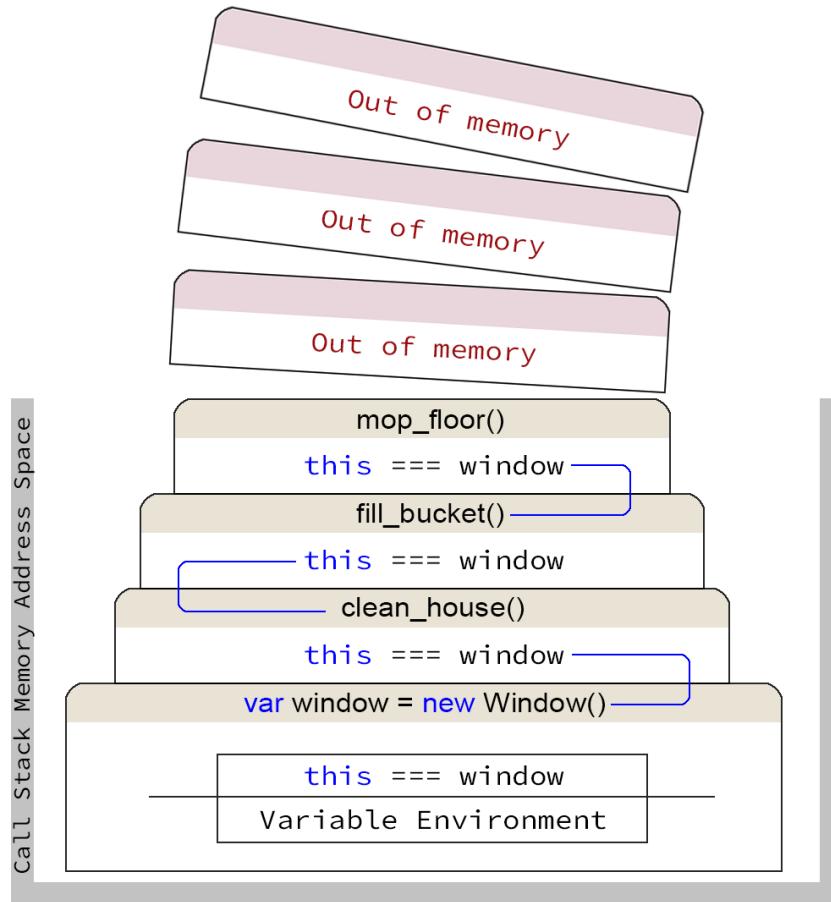


Figure 22.10: Every time a function is called, new context is created in memory. But memory is not infinite. **Stack Overflow** occurs when the memory required to build the call stack exceeds the address space allocated for the stack. This amount is determined and managed internally by the browser.

Index

- ...rest, 87, 89, 92
- ...spread, 87, 93, 96
- .appendChild, 179
- .apply, 266
- .bind, 266
- .call, 266
- .readyState, 13
- adding external modules, 15
- adding HTML elements to DOM, 179
- anonymous functions, 151
- appendChild, 179
- arithmetic addition operator, 58
- arithmetic operations, 51
- arithmetic operators, 79
- arity, 107
- array methods, 190
- Array.every, 130
- Array.filter, 131
- Array.flat, 136
- Array.flatMap, 136
- Array.forEach, 129
- Array.map, 132, 163
- Array.reduce, 132
- Array.some, 131
- arrays, 127
- arrow function anatomy, 168
- arrow functions, 165
- arrow functions as events, 167
- assignment operator, 58, 81
- async, 247
- async await, 247
- async await and try-catch, 250
- async basics, 247
- await, 247, 249
- Axios, 245
- backtick quote, 38
- beautiful closure, 104
- bignum, 35
- bitwise operators, 83
- block scope, 62
- boolean, 33
- break, 115
- browser events, 223
- built-in events, 223
- Burner, 207, 215
- call stack, 259, 263, 264
- Callback Hell, 238
- class, 204, 209
- class keyword, 204
- class scope, 75
- closure, 72, 99, 100, 104

coercion, 47
coercion example, 48
compare arrays, 144
compare objects, 145
comparing non-numeric string to number, 55
comparing numeric string to number, 54
comparing objects, 142
comparing string to number, 54
comparison operator, 82
console, 7
console.copy(obj), 7
console.clear, 10
console.dir, 8
console.error, 9
console.time, 9
console.timeEnd, 9
const and arrays, 76
const and object literals, 76
constructing objects, 184
constructor, 44, 193, 197
constructor function, 197, 201
constructor functions, 184
constructor property, 193
constructors, 184
constructors and type coercion, 49
continue, 115
convert console object to JSON, 7
create instance of an object, 203
creating HTML elements
 dynamically, 177
creating objects, 199
css, 178
currying, 107
CustomEvent Object, 227
delete operator, 85
destructure, 94
destructuring assignment, 94
dispatchEvent, 225
DOM and media, 13
DOMContentLoaded, 12
dynamic import, 17
dynamic typing, 22
evaluating, 27
event anatomy, 228
event bubbling, 224
event capture, 224
event loop, 255
Event object, 224
events, 223
executing methods on primitives, 46
execution context, 261, 264
export, 16
exporting multiple definitions, 16
expressions, 29
extending objects, 192
external modules, 15
external script, 14
Fetch API, 246
Fetch POST, 246
FoodFactory, 206, 210
for-loop, 112
for-loop and let scope, 113
for-loop length, 114
for-loop: break, 115
for-loop: break condition, 116
for-loop: break to label, 117
for-loop: continue, 115
for-loop: nested, 114
for...in, 123

for...of and arrays, 120
for...of and generators, 118
for...of and objects, 121
for...of and strings, 120
for...of loop, 118
Fridge, 211
function, 149, 194
function anatomy, 150
function arity, 107
function assignments, 151
function constructor, 197, 201
function constructors, 184
function hoisting, 65
function parameters, 153
function purity, 134
function scope, 62
functions, 149

generator, 118, 251
generator errors, 253
generators, 251
getElementById, 179
global scope, 62, 263
global symbol registry, 42

higher-order functions, 157
hoisting functions, 65
hoisting variables, 63
HTTP, 235
HTTP requests, 235

import, 15, 16
importing multiple definitions, 16
in operator, 85
including external script, 14
incrementing numbers, 113
infinite for-loop, 112

Ingredient, 210
ingredient, 205
instance, 44
instantiating objects, 44, 203
iterators, 160

l-value, 58
literal values, 19
literals, 19
logical operators, 82
loops, 109

map(), 161, 163
merging arrays, 97
method chaining, 46
modules, 15
mouse, 230
mouse coordinates, 230
mouse event class, 231
mouse position, 230
multiple operators, 53
multiple statements in for-loops, 113

nested for-loop, 114
network, 235
new, 203
new keyword, 203
new operator, 203
null, 33, 59
number, 34
number arithmetics, 51

object comparison, 142
object instance, 44
object literal, 187, 195
object oriented programming, 205,
 219

object property access, 46
Object.create, 199
OOP, 205, 219
operator associativity, 56
operator precedence, 53, 56
operators, 79
overriding browser events, 230

parent objects, 192
parenthesis, 46
passing values by reference, 23
polymorphic oven, 216
polymorphism, 208, 216
primitive types, 31
primitives, 31
print object in console, 8, 10
program entry point, 11
Promise, 239
Promise anatomy, 244
Promise.all, 242
Promise.catch, 240
Promise.finally, 240
Promise.reject, 241
Promise.resolve, 239
Promise.then, 240
prototype, 185, 187, 195, 198
prototype chain, 189
prototype link, 188
prototype method look-up, 190
purity, 134

querySelector, 179

r-value, 58
Range, 216
reducer, 133
references, 23

regex, 138
regular expression, 138
removeEventListener, 226
requests, 235
rest, 87
rest properties, 87

safeguarding function parameters, 155
scope, 61
scope visibility, 70
script type module, 15
setInterval, 229
setTimeout, 229
setting css style, 178
spread, 87
spread properties, 89
stack overflow, 267
statement evaluation, 27
statements, 27
strict mode, 17
string, 37
string arithmetics, 51
string assignment operator, 81
string to number comparison, 54
String.matchAll, 137
symbol, 40
synthetic events, 224

template literal, 38
template string, 38
ternary operator, 85
this, 156
this keyword, 156
type checking, 154
type coercion, 47, 50
typeof, 36, 84

undefined, 33, 59
using constructors, 184
variable case-sensitivity, 62
variable definitions, 62
variable hoisting, 63
variable reference, 23
variable types, 70
variables, 21
Vessel, 206, 213
while loop, 123
window, 263
window.onload, 14
yield, 252