Common JavaScript Data Types

- Objects (which include arrays and functions).
- Numbers (no integers). Arithmetic based on 64-bit IEEE-754 standard.
- Strings.
- undefined and null.
- Booleans: true and false.

Objects are non-primitive. All other types are primitive types.

Numbers

No integers in early JS; problematic for financial calculations.

```
$ nodejs
> 1/0
Infinity
> 0/0
NaN
> NaN === NaN //IEEE behavior; in other languages too
false
> 2**53 //** is exponentiation operator
9007199254740992
> 2**53 + 1
9007199254740992 //IEEE 64 bit floats have a 53-bit mantissa.
> (2**53 + 1) === 2**53
true
> BigInt(2**53) + 1n //exact big integers
9007199254740993n
```

Normal Arithmetic and Bitwise Operators

- Usual arithmetic operators + (both infix and prefix), (both infix and prefix), *, / and % (remainder, has sign of dividend), ** (power).
- Bitwise operators &, |, ^, ~, <<, >> (arith), >>> (logical).
- Bitwise operators always work with 32-bit 2's-complement integers.
- Previous property used in asm.js to obtain access to more efficient machine integer operations.

Arithmetic Operators Examples

```
//' ' allowed for readability
> 123_456*2
246912
> -77%13
                      //% has sign of dividend
-12
> 77%-13
12
> 2**2**3
                      //** is right associative
256
> (2**2)**3
64
> 18*2 + 77%13 / 2 //other binary operators left associative
42
```

Bitwise Operators Examples

```
> 1 | 2 //bitwise-or
> 0x99 \& 0x3 //bitwise-and; hex notation
> 5 ^ 7 //bitwise-xor
> \sim0 //bitwise-complement
  //0xfffffff is -1
-1
> 3 << 4 //left-shift
    //x << n === x * 2**n
48
> 100 >> 3 //arithmetic right-shift
12
         //x>> n === x / 2**n
>
```

More on Shift Operators

- Shift operators can be used to multiply (left-shift) and divide (right-shift) by powers-of-2.
- Distinguish between >> (sign-propagating or arithmetic right-shift) and >>> (zero-fill or logical right-shift). No difference for non-negative numbers, but different results for negative numbers:

```
> -9 >> 1

-5

> -9 >>> 1

2147483643

> (-9 >>> 1).toString(16)

'7ffffffb'

>
```

Strings

- Strings are immutable.
- Classically, string literals are delimited using either double quotes " or single quotes '. Prefer ' delimiters since easier to type on normal keyboards. Backslashes interpreted as usual. Cannot span multiple lines.

```
> 'a' + 'b' //string concatenation
'ab'
> 'abc'[1] //indexing: results in string of length 1
'h'
> 'hello world'.indexOf('o')
4
  'hello world'.lastIndexOf('o')
> 'hello world'.substr(3, 4) //args: (startIndex, length)
'lo w'
                                 //treat as legacy function
```

Strings Continued

```
> 'hello world'.substring(3, 4) //args:(startIndex,
endIndex)
,,,
> 'hello world'.slice(6)
'world'
> 'hello world'.slice(1, 4) //args: (startIndex, endIndex)
'ell'
> 'hello world'.slice(-3) //index from right; -1 is rightmost
'rld'
> 'hello world'.slice(-3, -1)
'r1'
```

Template String Literals

Enclosed within back-quotes '. Relatively new addition. Can contain direct newlines. All popular scripting languages have similar concepts (though introduced relatively recently to Python).

```
> const x = 22
undefined
> 'The answer is \{x + 20\}'
'The answer is 42'
'Betty bought a bit of butter
. . . . . . .
'Betty bought a bit of butter\n'
> 'Twas brillig and the slithy toves
... Did gyre and gimble in the wabe: '
'Twas brillig and the slithy toves\nDid gyre and
gimble in the wabe:'
```

undefined

undefined Means lack of a value.

- Uninitialized variables are undefined.
- Missing parameters are undefined.
- Non-existent properties are undefined.
- Functions return undefined if no explicit return value.
- Use x === undefined to check if x is undefined.

undefined Continued

```
> let x
                 //statement
undefined
                //statement has no value
                 //expression
> x
undefined
                 //value of expression
> x = \{\}
                  //assignment expr; empty object
{}
> x.a
undefined
> undefined
undefined
> undefined = 1 //not a reserved word
> undefined //immutable in global scope
undefined
```

null'

null is a special value used to denote no object.

Can be used wherever an object is expected to indicate absence of an object. Examples:

- Parameters.
- Last object in a object chain.
- Use x === null to check if x is null.

Problems with null

Programmers are really sloppy with null:

- Tony Hoare has called null his "billion dollar mistake".
- Oracle does not distingush between null and an empty string!
- Wired story on living with a last name Null.
- NULL license plate problems.

typeof

Operator typeof used for categorizing primitives:

```
> typeof null
'object'
> typeof undefined
'undefined'
> typeof ""
'string'
> typeof 1
'number'
> typeof 1.2
'number'
> typeof true
'boolean'
```

typeof Continued

```
> typeof {} //empty object literal
'object'
> typeof [] //empty array literal
'object'
> typeof (new Date())
'object'
>
```

instanceof

The typeof operator does not distinguish between different object types. Use instanceof operator for categorizing objects. The expression v instanceof Type returns true iff the constructor function Type was used to create v.

```
> ({} instanceof Object)
true
> [] instanceof Array
true
> [] instanceof Object
true
> (new Date()) instanceof Date
true
> (new Date()) instanceof Array
false
> (new Date()) instanceof Object
true
```

What is Truth

Many languages, particularly scripting languages, treat some set of values as *false* and **all other values** as *true*.

The falsy values in js are the following:

- undefined.
- 2 null.
- false.
- **4** 0.
- "" (empty string).
- NaN (Not-a-Number).

All other values are *truthy* and considered equivalent to true when used in a boolean context.

Comparison Operators

- Equality checking operators ==, !=, ===, !==. Only use the last two.
- >, <, >=, <= can be used with both numbers and strings.
- Objects compared by identity.

```
> 12.2 < 12.1
false
> 1 == true //surprise: DO NOT USE!!
true
> 1 === true //less surprising
false
> 'abc' < 'ab'
false
> 'abc' < 'abcd'</pre>
true
> {} === {}
false
```

Logical Operators

- Logical operators! returns a strict boolean value (true or false).
- short-circuit && and short-circuit || return falsy/truthy values (last value evaluated).

```
> !true
false
> !1
false
> !!1 //common idiom used to convert to proper boolean
true
> !!0
false
```

Logical Operators Continued

```
> 'hello' || 'world'
'hello'
> 'hello' && 'world'
'world'
```

Default Values

Common idiom for default initialization:

```
> let x
undefined
> let y = x || 42
undefined
> y
42
```

But problematic because reasonable values like 0, '' and false are falsy values:

```
> x = 0

undefined

> y = x \mid \mid 42

42 \quad //y  assigned 42 even tho' x has a reasonable value
```

Logical Operators Continued

Default initialization idiom should only be used if a valid value is not one of the falsy values.

```
> x = 0 //0 is falsy
0
> let z = x || defaultValue
undefined
> z
42 //z assigned defaultValue despite x having a value
```

Nullish Coalescing Operator

nullish coalescing operator ?? returns right operand when left operand is nullish, i.e. null or undefined, otherwise it returns its left operand (relatively new addition to JavaScript):

```
> x = 0
0
> y = x ?? 42
0
> x = undefined
undefined
> y = x ?? 42
42
```

Modern way to do default initialization.

Optional Object Chaining

When chaining accesses, we often need to check that intermediate values are not **nullish** (i.e. **null** or **undefined**).

```
const c = obj && obj.a && obj.a.b && obj.a.b.c;
```

Can be done more compactly using new feature *optional chaining* .? operator:

```
const c = obj?.a?.b?.c; //undefined if any accessor nullish
```

Syntax also allows:

```
a?.[expr] //dynamic property name
f?.(arg1, arg2) //returns undefined if f nullish
```

Control Constructs

- Condition-based selection using if and if-else statements. No surprises except truthy interpretation of condition.
- Multiway selection on a value (including string values) using switch-case-default. Value compared with case-values using ===. Control will fall-through from one case to the next, unless there is a break statement.
- Looping using while. Body may not execute at all if condition is initially falsy.
- Looping using do-while statement executes its body at least once, irrespective of the value of the condition.

For Loops

- Traditional for loop with initialization expression, condition expression and increment expression. Any of the three expressions can be omitted.
- Looping through object properties using for-in.
- Looping over iterable objects like arrays using for-of.

For Loop Examples

```
Summing positive elements of array a (better to use filter and
reduce):
Using traditional for:
let sum = 0;
for (let i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
  if (a[i] > 0) sum += a[i];
Using for-of:
let sum = 0;
for (const v of a) {
  if (v > 0) sum += v;
```

Loop Choice

Always use loop which moves as much of loop control into loop header; do so at the highest level of abstraction. In descending order of preference:

- Looping through array: use for-of. Looping through object properties: use for-in.
- Looping through integer range: use traditional for.
- Body executed at least once: use do-while.
- Plain while loop is most general; lowest preference since loop update hidden within loop body.

Functions

- Functions are first-class: need not have a name ("anonymous"), can be passed as parameters, returned as results, stored in data structure.
- Functions can be nested within one another.
- Closures preserve the referencing environment of a function.
- During execution of a function, there is always an implicit object, referred to using this. The word this will be pronounced self when speaking.

Function Definitions

Traditional function definitions
 function max1(a, b) { return a > b ? a : b }

Anonymous function using function keyword
 max2 = function(a, b) { return a > b ? a : b }

Anonymous fat-arrow function

Subtle differences in semantics.

Arrays

Arrays (AKA lists) are like objects except:

- It has an auto-maintained length property (always set to 1 greater than the largest array index).
- Arrays have their prototype set to Array.prototype
 (Array.prototype has its prototype set to
 Object.prototype, hence arrays inherit object methods).

Array Examples

```
> a = []
> a[999] = 22
22
> a
[ <999 empty items>, 22 ]
> a[999]
22
> a.length = 1 //truncates
> a[999]
undefined
```

Array Examples Continued

```
> a[2] = 22
22
> a.length
3
> a.join('|')
1 | 22
> a.x = 99 //arrays are objects: can have properties
99
> a
[ <2 empty items>, 22, x: 99 ]
> a.constructor
[Function: Array]
>
```

Spreading Arrays

Arrays can be spread into array literals or function calls using the ... spread operator:

```
> a = [3, 4, 5]
[ 3, 4, 5 ]
> [33, 44, ...a, 66]
[ 33, 44, 3, 4, 5, 66 ]
> ((a, b) => a * b)(a)
NaN
> ((a, b) => a * b)(...a)
12
> ((a, b) => a * b)(5, ...a)
15
```

Mapping Arrays

The map() function returns a new array which is the result of calling its argument function on each element of the calling array.

```
> function times3(x) { return 3*x; }
undefined
> [1, 2, 3].map(times3)
[ 3, 6, 9 ]
> [1, 2, 3].map(x => 7*x);
[ 7, 14, 21 ]
> [7, 3, 2, 4].map(x => x % 2 === 0)
[ false, false, true, true ]
```

Reducing Arrays

The reduce() function using a function f(accumulator, element) to reduce an array to a single value.

```
> [1,2,3,4,5].reduce((acc, value) => acc + value)
15
> [1.2,3,4,5]. reduce ((acc, value) => acc + value, 7)
22
> [12].reduce((acc, value) => acc + value)
12
>> [].reduce((acc, value) => acc + value, 15)
15
> [].reduce((acc, value) => acc + value)
TypeError: Reduce of empty array with no initial value
. . .
```

Applying a Function to Each Array Element

forEach() applies function to each element. Like many other functions callback takes 3 arguments: elementValue, elementIndex plus full array.

```
indexes = []
[]
> [1, 2, 3, 4].forEach(( v, i ) => {
    if (v%2 === 0) indexes.push (i);
    })
undefined
> indexes
[ 1, 3 ]
>
```

Other Higher-Order Array Functions

```
Includes every(), find(), findIndex(), filter(),
reduceRight(), some().

> [1, 2, 3, 4].find(x => x%2 === 0)
```

```
2
> [1, 2, 3, 4].findIndex(x => x\/2 === 0)
> [1, 2, 3, 4].every(x => x\/2 === 0)
false
> [1, 2, 3, 4].some(x => x\/2 === 0)
true
> [1, 2, 3, 4].reduce((acc, v) => acc - v)
             //((1-2)-3)-4
-8
> [1, 2, 3, 4].reduceRight((acc, v) => acc - v)
               //1-(2-(3-4))
-2
>
```

Other Higher-Order Array Functions

Summing positive elements of array:

```
> [1, -2, 3, -4].filter((e) => e > 0).
reduce((acc, e) => acc + e, 0)
```

Function Arguments

- No requirement that number of actual arguments agree with the number of declared formal parameters.
- If the number of actual arguments is greater than the number of formal parameters, then the extra arguments are ignored:

```
> ((a, b) => a + b)(3, 4, 5)
```

 If the number of actual arguments is less than the number of formal parameters, then the extra formal parameters are undefined. Dangerous!!

```
> ((a, b) => a > b)(3) false
```

 The length of a function is its number of declared formal parameters:

$$> ((a, b) => a > b).length$$

Accessing Actual Arguments

 The actual arguments to a function defined using the function keyword are accessible using a pseudo variable arguments:

```
> (function() { return arguments.length ; })(3,
7)
2
```

 The arguments pseudo-variable is array-like; it supports length and indexing operations but is not a real array.

```
> (function() { return -arguments[0] ; })(3, 7)
-3
> ( function() {
    return arguments.map(x => x + 1);
    }
    )(3, 7)
Uncaught TypeError: arguments.map is not a
```

function

Accessing Actual Arguments Continued

 arguments can be converted to a real array by being spread into a real array:

```
> ( function() {
    return [...arguments].map(x => x + 1);
}
)(3, 7)
[ 4, 8 ]
```

 Modern JS needs to use arguments less; instead, if the last argument is preceded by ..., then all rest arguments are collected into that parameter as a real array. Works with fat-arrow functions too!

```
> ((a, ...args) => args.map(x => x*2))
(3, 4, 5, 6)
[ 8, 10, 12 ]
```