apter 1. Basic JavaScript

hapter is about "Basic JavaScript," a name I chose for a subset of cript that is as concise as possible while still enabling you to be ctive. When you are starting to learn JavaScript, I recommend that rogram in it for a while before moving on to the rest of the language. That way, you don't have to learn everything at once, which can be confusing.

Background

This section gives a little background on JavaScript to help you understand why it is the way it is.

JavaScript Versus ECMAScript

ECMAScript is the official name for JavaScript. A new name became necessary because there is a trademark on *JavaScript* (held originally by Sun, now by Oracle). At the moment, Mozilla is one of the few companies allowed to officially use the name *JavaScript* because it received a license long ago. For common usage, these rules apply:

- *JavaScript* means the programming language.
- *ECMAScript* is the name used by the language specification. Therefore, whenever referring to versions of the language, people say *ECMAScript*. The current version of JavaScript is ECMAScript 5; ECMAScript 6 is currently being developed.

Influences and Nature of the Language

JavaScript's creator, Brendan Eich, had no choice but to create the language very quickly (or other, worse technologies would have been adopted by Netscape). He borrowed from several programming languages: Java (syntax, primitive values versus objects), Scheme and AWK (first-class functions), Self (prototypal inheritance), and Perl and Python (strings, arrays, and regular expressions).

JavaScript did not have exception handling until ECMAScript 3, which explains why the language so often automatically converts values and so often fails silently: it initially couldn't throw exceptions.

On one hand, JavaScript has quirks and is missing quite a bit of functionality (block-scoped variables, modules, support for subclassing,

its influences, it is no surprise that JavaScript enables a amming style that is a mixture of functional programming er-order functions; built-in `map`, `reduce`, etc.) and object-oriented amming (objects, inheritance).

tax

ection explains basic syntactic principles of JavaScript.

verview of the Syntax

A few examples of syntax:

```
// Two slashes start single-line comments

var x;  // declaring a variable

x = 3 + y;  // assigning a value to the variable `x`

foo(x, y);  // calling function `foo` with parameters `x` and `y`
obj.bar(3);  // calling method `bar` of object `obj`

// A conditional statement
if (x === 0) {  // Is `x` equal to zero?
    x = 123;
}

// Defining function `baz` with parameters `a` and `b`
function baz(a, b) {
    return a + b;
}
```

Note the two different uses of the equals sign:

- A single equals sign (`=`) is used to assign a value to a variable.
- A triple equals sign (`===`) is used to compare two values (see Equality Operators).

Statements Versus Expressions

To understand JavaScript's syntax, you should know that it has two major syntactic categories: statements and expressions:

- Statements "do things." A program is a sequence of statements. Here is an example of a statement, which declares (creates) a variable `foo`:

```
var foo;
```

- Expressions produce values. They are function arguments, the right

stinction between statements and expressions is best illustrated by ct that JavaScript has two different ways to do `if-then-else`—either tatement:

```
x;
y >= 0) {
x = y;
se {
x = -y;
```

or as an expression:

```
var x = y >= 0 ? y : -y;
```

You can use the latter as a function argument (but not the former):

```
myFunction(y >= 0 ? y : -y)
```

Finally, wherever JavaScript expects a statement, you can also use an expression; for example:

```
foo(7, 1);
```

The whole line is a statement (a so-called *expression statement*), but the function call `foo(7, 1)` is an expression.

Semicolons

Semicolons are optional in JavaScript. However, I recommend always including them, because otherwise JavaScript can guess wrong about the end of a statement. The details are explained in Automatic Semicolon Insertion.

Semicolons terminate statements, but not blocks. There is one case where you will see a semicolon after a block: a function expression is an expression that ends with a block. If such an expression comes last in a statement, it is followed by a semicolon:

```
// Pattern: var _ = ___;
var x = 3 * 7;
var f = function () { };  // function expr. inside var decl.
```

Comments

JavaScript has two kinds of comments: single-line comments and multiline comments. Single-line comments start with `//` and are terminated by the

ne comments are delimited by /* and */:

```
his is
 multiline
omment.
```

ables and Assignment

les in JavaScript are declared before they are used:

```
var foo;  // declare variable `foo`
```

Assignment

You can declare a variable and assign a value at the same time:

```
var foo = 6;
```

You can also assign a value to an existing variable:

```
foo = 4;  // change variable `foo`
```

Compound Assignment Operators

There are compound assignment operators such as `+=`. The following two assignments are equivalent:

```
x += 1;
x = x + 1;
```

Identifiers and Variable Names

Identifiers are names that play various syntactic roles in JavaScript. For example, the name of a variable is an identifier. Identifiers are case sensitive.

Roughly, the first character of an identifier can be any Unicode letter, a dollar sign ($), or an underscore (_). Subsequent characters can additionally be any Unicode digit. Thus, the following are all legal identifiers:

```
arg0
_tmp
$elem
π
```

arguments	break	case	catch
class	const	continue	debugger
default	delete	do	else
enum	export	extends	false
finally	for	function	if
implements	import	in	instanceof
interface	let	new	null
package	private	protected	public
return	static	super	switch
this	throw	true	try
typeof	var	void	while

The following three identifiers are not reserved words, but you should treat them as if they were:

Infinity
NaN
undefined

Lastly, you should also stay away from the names of standard global variables (see Chapter 23). You can use them for local variables without breaking anything, but your code still becomes confusing.

Values

JavaScript has many values that we have come to expect from programming languages: booleans, numbers, strings, arrays, and so on. All values in JavaScript have *properties*.[1] Each property has a *key* (or *name*) and a *value*. You can think of properties like fields of a record. You use the dot (`.`) operator to read a property:

```
value.propKey
```

For example, the string `'abc'` has the property `length`:

```
> var str = 'abc';
> str.length
3
```

The preceding can also be written as:

ɔt operator is also used to assign a value to a property:

```
r obj = {};  // empty object
j.foo = 123; // create property `foo`, set it to 123

j.foo
```

ɔu can use it to invoke methods:

```
ello'.toUpperCase()
LO'
```

In the preceding example, we have invoked the method `toUpperCase()` on the value `'hello'`.

Primitive Values Versus Objects

JavaScript makes a somewhat arbitrary distinction between values:

- The *primitive values* are booleans, numbers, strings, `null`, and `undefined`.
- All other values are *objects*.

A major difference between the two is how they are compared; each object has a unique identity and is only (strictly) equal to itself:

```
> var obj1 = {};  // an empty object
> var obj2 = {};  // another empty object
> obj1 === obj2
false
> obj1 === obj1
true
```

In contrast, all primitive values encoding the same value are considered the same:

```
> var prim1 = 123;
> var prim2 = 123;
> prim1 === prim2
true
```

The next two sections explain primitive values and objects in more detail.

Primitive Values

The following are all of the primitive values (or *primitives* for short):

- Booleans: `true`, `false` (see Booleans)

ɔ “nonvalues”: `undefined`, `null` (see undefined and null)

ives have the following characteristics:

ared by value

e “content” is compared:

```
> 3 === 3
true
> 'abc' === 'abc'
true
```

Always immutable

Properties can't be changed, added, or removed:

```
> var str = 'abc';

> str.length = 1; // try to change property `length`
> str.length      // ⇒ no effect
3

> str.foo = 3; // try to create property `foo`
> str.foo      // ⇒ no effect, unknown property
undefined
```

(Reading an unknown property always returns `undefined`.)

Objects

All nonprimitive values are *objects*. The most common kinds of objects are:

- *Plain objects*, which can be created by *object literals* (see Single Objects):

```
{
    firstName: 'Jane',
    lastName: 'Doe'
}
```

  The preceding object has two properties: the value of property `firstName` is `'Jane'` and the value of property `lastName` is `'Doe'`.

- *Arrays*, which can be created by *array literals* (see Arrays):

```
[ 'apple', 'banana', 'cherry' ]
```

  The preceding array has three elements that can be accessed via

rals (see Regular Expressions):

```
/^a+b+$/
```

ts have the following characteristics:

ared by reference

ntities are compared; every value has its own identity:

```
> ({} === {})  // two different empty objects
false

> var obj1 = {};
> var obj2 = obj1;
> obj1 === obj2
true
```

Mutable by default

You can normally freely change, add, and remove properties (see Single Objects):

```
> var obj = {};
> obj.foo = 123; // add property `foo`
> obj.foo
123
```

undefined and null

Most programming languages have values denoting missing information. JavaScript has two such "nonvalues," `undefined` and `null`:

- `undefined` means "no value." Uninitialized variables are `undefined`:

```
> var foo;
> foo
undefined
```

Missing parameters are `undefined`:

```
> function f(x) { return x }
> f()
undefined
```

If you read a nonexistent property, you get `undefined`:

```
> var obj = {}; // empty object
> obj.foo
undefined
```

WARNING

`undefined` and `null` have no properties, not even standard methods such as `toString()`.

king for undefined or null

ons normally allow you to indicate a missing value via either `ned` or `null`. You can do the same via an explicit check:

```
if (x === undefined || x === null) {
    ...
}
```

You can also exploit the fact that both `undefined` and `null` are considered `false`:

```
if (!x) {
    ...
}
```

WARNING

`false`, `0`, `NaN`, and `''` are also considered `false` (see Truthy and Falsy).

Categorizing Values Using typeof and instanceof

There are two operators for categorizing values: `typeof` is mainly used for primitive values, while `instanceof` is used for objects.

`typeof` looks like this:

```
typeof value
```

It returns a string describing the "type" of `value`. Here are some examples:

```
> typeof true
'boolean'
> typeof 'abc'
'string'
> typeof {} // empty object literal
'object'
> typeof [] // empty array literal
'object'
```

The following table lists all results of `typeof`:

	`'object'`
ean value	`'boolean'`
ber value	`'number'`
g value	`'string'`
tion	`'function'`
ther normal es	`'object'`
ine-created value)	JavaScript engines are allowed to create values for which `typeof` returns arbitrary strings (different from all results listed in this table).

`typeof null` returning `'object'` is a bug that can't be fixed, because it would break existing code. It does not mean that `null` is an object.

`instanceof` looks like this:

```
value instanceof Constr
```

It returns `true` if `value` is an object that has been created by the constructor `Constr` (see Constructors: Factories for Objects). Here are some examples:

```
> var b = new Bar();  // object created by constructor Bar
> b instanceof Bar
true

> {} instanceof Object
true
> [] instanceof Array
true
> [] instanceof Object  // Array is a subconstructor of Object
true

> undefined instanceof Object
false
> null instanceof Object
false
```

Booleans

The primitive boolean type comprises the values `true` and `false`. The following operators produce booleans:

- Binary logical operators: `&&` (And), `||` (Or)
- Prefix logical operator: `!` (Not)
- Comparison operators:

ıy and Falsy

ever JavaScript expects a boolean value (e.g., for the condition of an tement), any value can be used. It will be interpreted as either `true` se. The following values are interpreted as `false`:

- efined, `null`
- olean: `false`
- mber: `0`, `NaN`
- String: `''`

All other values (including all objects!) are considered `true`. Values interpreted as `false` are called *falsy*, and values interpreted as `true` are called *truthy*. `Boolean()`, called as a function, converts its parameter to a boolean. You can use it to test how a value is interpreted:

```
> Boolean(undefined)
false
> Boolean(0)
false
> Boolean(3)
true
> Boolean({}) // empty object
true
> Boolean([]) // empty array
true
```

Binary Logical Operators

Binary logical operators in JavaScript are *short-circuiting*. That is, if the first operand suffices for determining the result, the second operand is not evaluated. For example, in the following expressions, the function `foo()` is never called:

```
false && foo()
true  || foo()
```

Furthermore, binary logical operators return either one of their operands —which may or may not be a boolean. A check for truthiness is used to determine which one:

And (`&&`)

If the first operand is falsy, return it. Otherwise, return the second operand:

```
> NaN && 'abc'
```

)

ne first operand is truthy, return it. Otherwise, return the second erand:

```
> 'abc' || 123
abc'
> '' || 123
23
```

lity Operators

JavaScript has two kinds of equality:

- Normal, or "lenient," (in)equality: `==` and `!=`
- Strict (in)equality: `===` and `!==`

Normal equality considers (too) many values to be equal (the details are explained in Normal (Lenient) Equality (==, !=)), which can hide bugs. Therefore, always using strict equality is recommended.

Numbers

All numbers in JavaScript are floating-point:

```
> 1 === 1.0
true
```

Special numbers include the following:

`NaN` ***("not a number")***

An error value:

```
> Number('xyz')  // 'xyz' can't be converted to a number
NaN
```

`Infinity`

Also mostly an error value:

```
> 3 / 0
Infinity
> Math.pow(2, 1024)  // number too large
Infinity
```

`Infinity` is larger than any other number (except `NaN`). Similarly, `-Infinity` is smaller than any other number (except `NaN`). That makes

rators

cript has the following arithmetic operators (see Arithmetic tors):

dition: `number1 + number2`

btraction: `number1 - number2`

ltiplication: `number1 * number2`

vision: `number1 / number2`

- Remainder: `number1 % number2`
- Increment: `++variable`, `variable++`
- Decrement: `--variable`, `variable--`
- Negate: `-value`
- Convert to number: `+value`

The global object `Math` (see Math) provides more arithmetic operations, via functions.

JavaScript also has operators for bitwise operations (e.g., bitwise And; see Bitwise Operators).

Strings

Strings can be created directly via string literals. Those literals are delimited by single or double quotes. The backslash (\) escapes characters and produces a few control characters. Here are some examples:

```
'abc'
"abc"

'Did she say "Hello"?'
"Did she say \"Hello\"?"

'That\'s nice!'
"That's nice!"

'Line 1\nLine 2'  // newline
'Backslash: \\'
```


Single characters are accessed via square brackets:

```
> var str = 'abc';
```

roperty `length` counts the number of characters in the string:

```
bc'.length
```

ll primitives, strings are immutable; you need to create a new string want to change an existing one.

g Operators

s are concatenated via the plus (`+`) operator, which converts the other operand to a string if one of the operands is a string:

```
> var messageCount = 3;
> 'You have ' + messageCount + ' messages'
'You have 3 messages'
```

To concatenate strings in multiple steps, use the `+=` operator:

```
> var str = '';
> str += 'Multiple ';
> str += 'pieces ';
> str += 'are concatenated.';
> str
'Multiple pieces are concatenated.'
```

String Methods

Strings have many useful methods (see String Prototype Methods). Here are some examples:

```
> 'abc'.slice(1)  // copy a substring
'bc'
> 'abc'.slice(1, 2)
'b'

> '\t xyz  '.trim()  // trim whitespace
'xyz'

> 'mjölnir'.toUpperCase()
'MJÖLNIR'

> 'abc'.indexOf('b')  // find a string
1
> 'abc'.indexOf('x')
-1
```


Statements

Conditionals and loops in JavaScript are introduced in the following

...itionals

... statement has a `then` clause and an optional `else` clause that are ...ted depending on a boolean condition:

```
myvar === 0) {
// then


myvar === 0) {
// then
se {
// else
}

if (myvar === 0) {
    // then
} else if (myvar === 1) {
    // else-if
} else if (myvar === 2) {
    // else-if
} else {
    // else
}
```

I recommend always using braces (they denote blocks of zero or more statements). But you don't have to do so if a clause is only a single statement (the same holds for the control flow statements `for` and `while`):

```
if (x < 0) return -x;
```

The following is a `switch` statement. The value of `fruit` decides which `case` is executed:

```
switch (fruit) {
    case 'banana':
        // ...
        break;
    case 'apple':
        // ...
        break;
    default:  // all other cases
        // ...
}
```

The "operand" after `case` can be any expression; it is compared via `===` with the parameter of `switch`.

Loops

The `for` loop has the following format:

executed at the beginning of the loop. `condition` is checked before oop iteration; if it becomes `false`, then the loop is terminated. teration is executed after each loop iteration.

xample prints all elements of the array `arr` on the console:

```
(var i=0; i < arr.length; i++) {
console.log(arr[i]);
```

ile loop continues looping over its body while its condition holds:

```
// Same as for loop above:
var i = 0;
while (i < arr.length) {
    console.log(arr[i]);
    i++;
}
```

The `do-while` loop continues looping over its body while its condition holds. As the condition follows the body, the body is always executed at least once:

```
do {
    // ...
} while (condition);
```

In all loops:

- `break` leaves the loop.
- `continue` starts a new loop iteration.

Functions

One way of defining a function is via a *function declaration*:

```
function add(param1, param2) {
    return param1 + param2;
}
```

The preceding code defines a function, `add`, that has two parameters, `param1` and `param2`, and returns the sum of both parameters. This is how you call that function:

```
> add(6, 1)
7
> add('a', 'b')
'ab'
```

```
add = function (param1, param2) {
return param1 + param2;
```

tion expression produces a value and can thus be used to directly unctions as arguments to other functions:

```
OtherFunction(function (p1, p2) { ... });
```

tion Declarations Are Hoisted

unction declarations are *hoisted*—moved in their entirety to the beginning of the current scope. That allows you to refer to functions that are declared later:

```
function foo() {
    bar();  // OK, bar is hoisted
    function bar() {
        ...
    }
}
```

Note that while `var` declarations are also hoisted (see Variables Are Hoisted), assignments performed by them are not:

```
function foo() {
    bar();  // Not OK, bar is still undefined
    var bar = function () {
        // ...
    };
}
```

The Special Variable arguments

You can call any function in JavaScript with an arbitrary amount of arguments; the language will never complain. It will, however, make all parameters available via the special variable `arguments`. `arguments` looks like an array, but has none of the array methods:

```
> function f() { return arguments }
> var args = f('a', 'b', 'c');
> args.length
3
> args[0]  // read element at index 0
'a'
```

Too Many or Too Few Arguments

Let's use the following function to explore how too many or too few parameters are handled in JavaScript (the function `toArray()` is shown in

```
console.log(x, y);
return toArray(arguments);
```

onal parameters will be ignored (except by `arguments`):

```
'a', 'b', 'c')

', 'b', 'c' ]
```

g parameters will get the value `undefined`:

```
> f('a')
a undefined
[ 'a' ]
> f()
undefined undefined
[]
```

Optional Parameters

The following is a common pattern for assigning default values to parameters:

```
function pair(x, y) {
    x = x || 0;  // (1)
    y = y || 0;
    return [ x, y ];
}
```

In line (1), the `||` operator returns `x` if it is truthy (not `null`, `undefined`, etc.). Otherwise, it returns the second operand:

```
> pair()
[ 0, 0 ]
> pair(3)
[ 3, 0 ]
> pair(3, 5)
[ 3, 5 ]
```

Enforcing an Arity

If you want to enforce an *arity* (a specific number of parameters), you can check `arguments.length`:

```
function pair(x, y) {
    if (arguments.length !== 2) {
        throw new Error('Need exactly 2 arguments');
    }
    ...
```

Converting arguments to an Array

`arguments` is not an array, it is only *array-like* (see Array-Like Objects and Generic Methods). It has a property `length`, and you can access its elements via indices in square brackets. You cannot, however, remove elements or invoke any of the array methods on it. Thus, you sometimes want to convert `arguments` to an array, which is what the following function does (it is explained in Array-Like Objects and Generic Methods):

```
function toArray(arrayLikeObject) {
    return Array.prototype.slice.call(arrayLikeObject);
}
```

Exception Handling

The most common way to handle exceptions (see Chapter 14) is as follows:

```
function getPerson(id) {
    if (id < 0) {
        throw new Error('ID must not be negative: '+id);
    }
    return { id: id }; // normally: retrieved from database
}

function getPersons(ids) {
    var result = [];
    ids.forEach(function (id) {
        try {
            var person = getPerson(id);
            result.push(person);
        } catch (exception) {
            console.log(exception);
        }
    });
    return result;
}
```

The `try` clause surrounds critical code, and the `catch` clause is executed if an exception is thrown inside the `try` clause. Using the preceding code:

```
> getPersons([2, -5, 137])
[Error: ID must not be negative: -5]
[ { id: 2 }, { id: 137 } ]
```

Strict Mode

Strict mode (see Strict Mode) enables more warnings and makes JavaScript a cleaner language (nonstrict mode is sometimes called "sloppy mode"). To switch it on, type the following line first in a JavaScript file or a `<script>` tag:

```
tion functionInStrictMode() {
'use strict';
```

able Scoping and Closures

aScript, you declare variables via `var` before using them:

```
r x;

undefined
> y
ReferenceError: y is not defined
```

You can declare and initialize several variables with a single `var` statement:

```
var x = 1, y = 2, z = 3;
```

But I recommend using one statement per variable (the reason is explained in Syntax). Thus, I would rewrite the previous statement to:

```
var x = 1;
var y = 2;
var z = 3;
```

Because of hoisting (see Variables Are Hoisted), it is usually best to declare variables at the beginning of a function.

Variables Are Function-Scoped

The scope of a variable is always the complete function (as opposed to the current block). For example:

```
function foo() {
    var x = -512;
    if (x < 0) {  // (1)
        var tmp = -x;
        ...
    }
    console.log(tmp);  // 512
}
```

We can see that the variable `tmp` is not restricted to the block starting in line (1); it exists until the end of the function.

Variables Are Hoisted

on:

```
tion foo() {
console.log(tmp); // undefined
if (false) {
    var tmp = 3;  // (1)
}
```

ally, the preceding function is executed like this:

```
tion foo() {
var tmp;  // hoisted declaration
console.log(tmp);
if (false) {
    tmp = 3;  // assignment stays put
}
}
```

Closures

Each function stays connected to the variables of the functions that surround it, even after it leaves the scope in which it was created. For example:

```
function createIncrementor(start) {
    return function () {  // (1)
        start++;
        return start;
    }
}
```

The function starting in line (1) leaves the context in which it was created, but stays connected to a live version of `start`:

```
> var inc = createIncrementor(5);
> inc()
6
> inc()
7
> inc()
8
```

A *closure* is a function plus the connection to the variables of its surrounding scopes. Thus, what `createIncrementor()` returns is a closure.

The IIFE Pattern: Introducing a New Scope

Sometimes you want to introduce a new variable scope—for example, to prevent a variable from becoming global. In JavaScript, you can't use a

```
ction () {  // open IIFE
var tmp = ...;  // not a global variable
;  // close IIFE
```

re to type the preceding example exactly as shown (apart from the ents). An IIFE is a function expression that is called immediately ou define it. Inside the function, a new scope exists, preventing `tmp` becoming global. Consult Introducing a New Scope via an IIFE for s on IIFEs.

se case: inadvertent sharing via closures

Closures keep their connections to outer variables, which is sometimes not what you want:

```
var result = [];
for (var i=0; i < 5; i++) {
    result.push(function () { return i });  // (1)
}
console.log(result[1]()); // 5 (not 1)
console.log(result[3]()); // 5 (not 3)
```

The value returned in line (1) is always the current value of `i`, not the value it had when the function was created. After the loop is finished, `i` has the value 5, which is why all functions in the array return that value. If you want the function in line (1) to receive a snapshot of the current value of `i`, you can use an IIFE:

```
for (var i=0; i < 5; i++) {
    (function () {
        var i2 = i; // copy current i
        result.push(function () { return i2 });
    }());
}
```

Objects and Constructors

This section covers two basic object-oriented mechanisms of JavaScript: single objects and *constructors* (which are factories for objects, similar to classes in other languages).

Single Objects

Like all values, objects have properties. You could, in fact, consider an object to be a set of properties, where each property is a (key, value) pair. The key is a string, and the value is any JavaScript value.

In JavaScript, you can directly create plain objects, via *object literals*:

```
describe: function () {
    return 'Person named '+this.name;
}
```

receding object has the properties `name` and `describe`. You can read) and write ("set") properties:

```
ne.name  // get
e'
ne.name = 'John';  // set
ne.newProperty = 'abc';  // property created automatically
```

Function-valued properties such as `describe` are called *methods*. They use `this` to refer to the object that was used to call them:

```
> jane.describe()  // call method
'Person named John'
> jane.name = 'Jane';
> jane.describe()
'Person named Jane'
```

The `in` operator checks whether a property exists:

```
> 'newProperty' in jane
true
> 'foo' in jane
false
```

If you read a property that does not exist, you get the value `undefined`. Hence, the previous two checks could also be performed like this:[2]

```
> jane.newProperty !== undefined
true
> jane.foo !== undefined
false
```

The `delete` operator removes a property:

```
> delete jane.newProperty
true
> 'newProperty' in jane
false
```

Arbitrary Property Keys

A property key can be any string. So far, we have seen property keys in object literals and after the dot operator. However, you can use them that way only if they are identifiers (see Identifiers and Variable Names). If you

```
r obj = { 'not an identifier': 123 };
j['not an identifier']

j['not an identifier'] = 456;
```

e brackets also allow you to compute the key of a property:

```
r obj = { hello: 'world' };
r x = 'hello';

j[x]
ld'
> obj['hel'+'lo']
'world'
```

Extracting Methods

If you extract a method, it loses its connection with the object. On its own, the function is not a method anymore, and `this` has the value `undefined` (in strict mode).

As an example, let's go back to the earlier object `jane`:

```
'use strict';
var jane = {
    name: 'Jane',

    describe: function () {
        return 'Person named '+this.name;
    }
};
```

We want to extract the method `describe` from `jane`, put it into a variable `func`, and call it. However, that doesn't work:

```
> var func = jane.describe;
> func()
TypeError: Cannot read property 'name' of undefined
```

The solution is to use the method `bind()` that all functions have. It creates a new function whose `this` always has the given value:

```
> var func2 = jane.describe.bind(jane);
> func2()
'Person named Jane'
```

Functions Inside a Method

Every function has its own special variable `this`. This is inconvenient if you nest a function inside a method, because you can't access the method's

```
jane = {
name: 'Jane',
friends: [ 'Tarzan', 'Cheeta' ],
logHiToFriends: function () {
    'use strict';
    this.friends.forEach(function (friend) {
        // `this` is undefined here
        console.log(this.name+' says hi to '+friend);
    });
}
```

Calling `logHiToFriends` produces an error:

```
> jane.logHiToFriends()
TypeError: Cannot read property 'name' of undefined
```

Let's look at two ways of fixing this. First, we could store `this` in a different variable:

```
logHiToFriends: function () {
    'use strict';
    var that = this;
    this.friends.forEach(function (friend) {
        console.log(that.name+' says hi to '+friend);
    });
}
```

Or, `forEach` has a second parameter that allows you to provide a value for `this`:

```
logHiToFriends: function () {
    'use strict';
    this.friends.forEach(function (friend) {
        console.log(this.name+' says hi to '+friend);
    }, this);
}
```

Function expressions are often used as arguments in function calls in JavaScript. Always be careful when you refer to `this` from one of those function expressions.

Constructors: Factories for Objects

Until now, you may think that JavaScript objects are *only* maps from strings to values, a notion suggested by JavaScript's object literals, which look like the map/dictionary literals of other languages. However, JavaScript objects also support a feature that is truly object-oriented: inheritance. This section does not fully explain how JavaScript inheritance works, but it shows you a simple pattern to get you started. Consult

...ed via the `new` operator. Constructors are thus a rough analog to ...s in other languages. By convention, the names of constructors ...with capital letters. For example:

```
...et up instance data
...tion Point(x, y) {
...this.x = x;
...this.y = y;

...ethods
...t.prototype.dist = function () {
...return Math.sqrt(this.x*this.x + this.y*this.y);
};
```

We can see that a constructor has two parts. First, the function `Point` sets up the instance data. Second, the property `Point.prototype` contains an object with the methods. The former data is specific to each instance, while the latter data is shared among all instances.

To use `Point`, we invoke it via the `new` operator:

```
> var p = new Point(3, 5);
> p.x
3
> p.dist()
5.830951894845301
```

`p` is an instance of `Point`:

```
> p instanceof Point
true
```

Arrays

Arrays are sequences of elements that can be accessed via integer indices starting at zero.

Array Literals

Array literals are handy for creating arrays:

```
> var arr = [ 'a', 'b', 'c' ];
```

The preceding array has three elements: the strings `'a'`, `'b'`, and `'c'`. You can access them via integer indices:

```
> arr[0]
'a'
> arr[0] = 'x';
```

ength property indicates how many elements an array has. You can
to append elements and to remove elements:

```
r arr = ['a', 'b'];
r.length


r[arr.length] = 'c';
r
', 'b', 'c' ]
r.length


> arr.length = 1;
> arr
[ 'a' ]
```

The `in` operator works for arrays, too:

```
> var arr = [ 'a', 'b', 'c' ];
> 1 in arr // is there an element at index 1?
true
> 5 in arr // is there an element at index 5?
false
```

Note that arrays are objects and can thus have object properties:

```
> var arr = [];
> arr.foo = 123;
> arr.foo
123
```

Array Methods

Arrays have many methods (see Array Prototype Methods). Here are a few examples:

```
> var arr = [ 'a', 'b', 'c' ];

> arr.slice(1, 2)  // copy elements
[ 'b' ]
> arr.slice(1)
[ 'b', 'c' ]

> arr.push('x')  // append an element
4
> arr
[ 'a', 'b', 'c', 'x' ]

> arr.pop()  // remove last element
'x'
> arr
```

```
r
', 'c' ]

r.unshift('x')  // prepend an element

r
', 'b', 'c' ]

r.indexOf('b')  // find the index of an element

r.indexOf('y')


> arr.join('-')  // all elements in a single string
'x-b-c'
> arr.join('')
'xbc'
> arr.join()
'x,b,c'
```

Iterating over Arrays

There are several array methods for iterating over elements (see Iteration (Nondestructive)). The two most important ones are `forEach` and `map`.

`forEach` iterates over an array and hands the current element and its index to a function:

```
[ 'a', 'b', 'c' ].forEach(
    function (elem, index) {  // (1)
        console.log(index + '. ' + elem);
    });
```

The preceding code produces the following output:

```
0. a
1. b
2. c
```

Note that the function in line (1) is free to ignore arguments. It could, for example, only have the parameter `elem`.

`map` creates a new array by applying a function to each element of an existing array:

```
> [1,2,3].map(function (x) { return x*x })
[ 1, 4, 9 ]
```


Regular Expressions

JavaScript has built-in support for regular expressions (Chapter 19 refers

```
c$/
Za-z0-9]+/
```

od test(): Is There a Match?

```
a+b+$/.test('aaab')

a+b+$/.test('aaa')
e
```

od exec(): Match and Capture Groups

```
> /a(b+)a/.exec('_abbba_aba_')
[ 'abbba', 'bbb' ]
```

The returned array contains the complete match at index 0, the capture of the first group at index 1, and so on. There is a way (discussed in RegExp.prototype.exec: Capture Groups) to invoke this method repeatedly to get all matches.

Method replace(): Search and Replace

```
> '<a> <bbb>'.replace(/<(.*?)>/g, '[$1]')
'[a] [bbb]'
```

The first parameter of `replace` must be a regular expression with a `/g` flag; otherwise, only the first occurrence is replaced. There is also a way (as discussed in String.prototype.replace: Search and Replace) to use a function to compute the replacement.

Math

`Math` (see Chapter 21) is an object with arithmetic functions. Here are some examples:

```
> Math.abs(-2)
2

> Math.pow(3, 2)  // 3 to the power of 2
9

> Math.max(2, -1, 5)
5

> Math.round(1.9)
2
```

```
th.cos(Math.PI)  // compute the cosine for 180
```

er Functionality of the Standard Library

cript's standard library is relatively spartan, but there are more you can use:

Chapter 20)
onstructor for dates whose main functionality is parsing and ating date strings and accessing the components of a date (year, ur, etc.).

`JSON` ***(Chapter 22)***
An object with functions for parsing and generating JSON data.

`console.*` ***methods (see The Console API)***
These browser-specific methods are not part of the language proper, but some of them also work on Node.js.

---

[1] The two "non-values" `undefined` and `null` do not have properties.

[2] Note: this check will report properties as non-existent that do exist, but have the value `undefined`.

Next: II. Background