# **Uni Programming Languages Notes**

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# 1 Introduction

# 1.1 Contributing

These study materials are heavily based on professor Ihler's "Aktuelle Programmiersprachen" lecture at HdM Stuttgart.

**Found an error or have a suggestion?** Please open an issue on GitHub (github.com/pojntfx/uni-programminglanguages-notes):



Figure 1: QR code to source repository

If you like the study materials, a GitHub star is always appreciated :)

#### 1.2 License



Figure 2: AGPL-3.0 license badge

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#### 2 Overview

#### 2.1 General Design

- "A dynamic, open source programming language with a focus on simplicity and productivity. It has an elegant syntax that is natural to read and easy to write."
- Inspired by Perl, Smalltalk, Eiffel, Ada, Lips
- Multi-paradigm from the beginning: Functional, imperative and object-oriented
- Radical object orientation: Everything is an object, there are no primitive types like in Java (5. times { print "We \*love\* Ruby -- it's outrageous!"})
- Very flexible, i.e. operators can be redefined
- Built-in blocks (closures) from the start, excellent mapreduce capabilities
- Prefers mixins over inheritance
- Syntax uses limited punctuation with some notable exceptions (instance variables with @, globals with \$ etc.)

#### 2.2 Implementation Details

- Exception handling similar to Java & Python, but no checked exceptions
- Garbage collection without reference counts
- Simple C/C++ extension interface
- OS independent threading & Fibers, even if OS is single-threaded (like MS-DOS)
- Cross-platform: Linux, macOS, Windows, FreeBSD etc.
- Many implementation (MRI/CRuby, JRuby for Ruby in the JVM, TruffleRuby on GraalVM, mruby for embedded uses, Artichoke for WebAssembly and Rust)

#### 2.3 Users

- Twitter
- Mastodon
- GitHub
- Airbnb
- Shopify
- Twitch
- Stripe
- Etsy
- Soundcloud

- Basecamp
- Kickstarter

#### 2.4 Timeline

- First concepts and prototypes ~1993
- First release ~1995, became most popular language in Japan by 2000
- Subsequent evolution and growth outside Japan
- Ruby 3.0 released ~2020, introducing a type system for static analysis, fibers (similar to Goroutines, asyncio etc.), and completing optimizations making it ~3x faster than Ruby 2.0 (from 2013)

# 3 Syntax

### 3.1 Logic

Typical logical operators:

2 => **false** 

```
1 >> 2 < 3
2 => true
1 >> 1 == 2
```

Comparisons are type checked:

```
1 >> 1 == "1"
2 => false
```

Trip equals can be used to check if if an instance belongs to a class:

```
1 >> String === "abc"
2 => true
```

If, else, etc work as expected:

```
1 if name == "Zigor"
2 puts "#{name} is intelligent"
3 end
```

However Ruby also allows interesting variations of this, such as putting the comparions behind the block to execute:

```
1 puts "#{name} is genius" if name == "Zigor"
```

We can also use unless, which is a more natural way to check for negated expressions:

```
1 p "You are a minor" unless age >= 18
```

switch statements are known as case statements, but don't fallthrough by default like in Java:

```
1 case a
   when 1
     spell = "one"
   when 2
     spell = "two"
5
6 when 3
    spell = "three"
7
8 when 4
    spell = "four"
9
10
    when 5
   spell = "five"
11
12
    else
13 spell = nil
14 end
```

Since everything is an object, we can also use **case** statements to check if instances are of a class:

```
1 a = "Zigor"
2 case a
3 when String
4 puts "Its a string"
5 when Fixnum
6 puts "Its a number"
7 end
```

As mentioned before, Ruby is a very flexible language. The case statement for example also allows to us to check regular expressions:

```
case string
when /Ruby/
puts "string contains Ruby"

else
puts "string does not contain Ruby"
end
```

We can even use Lambdas in case statements, making long if ... else blocks unnecessary:

```
1 case num
2 when -> (n) { n % 2 == 0 }
3  puts "#{num} is even"
4 else
5  puts "#{num} is odd"
```

```
6 end
```

And the object orientation becomes very clear; we can even define our own matcher classes:

```
class Zigor
def self.===(string)
string.downcase == "zigor"
end
name = "Zigor"

case name
uhen Zigor
puts "Nice to meet you Zigor!!!"
else
puts "Who are you?"
end
```

We can also assign values from a case statement:

## 3.2 Loops

Ruby does not have traditional for loops, but multiple, more general constructs that allow for the usecases.

Ruby has the **for** loop that we are all used to, but also more specialized constructs that allow for more expressive usecases:

```
1 for i in 0..10
2 p i
3 end
```

For example up to and down to methods:

```
1 10.downto 1 do |num|
2 p num
3 end
```

```
1 17.upto 23 do |i|
```

```
2 print "#{i}, "
3 end
```

Or the times method, which is much more readable:

```
1 7.times do
2 puts "I know something"
3 end
```

while, until and the infinite loop loops still exist however:

```
1 i=1
2 while i<=10 do
3 print "#{i}, "
4 i+=1
5 end</pre>
```

```
1 i=1
2 until i>10 do
3 print "#{i}, "
4 i+=1
5 end
```

```
1 loop do
2 puts "I Love Ruby"
3 end
```

We can also use **break**, next and redo within a loop's block:

```
1 1.upto 10 do |i|
2 break if i == 6
3 print "#{i}, "
4 end
```

```
1 10.times do | num | 2 next if num == 6 3 puts num 4 end
```

```
1 5.times do | num |
2  puts "num = #{num}"
3  puts "Do you want to redo? (y/n): "
4  option = gets.chop
5  redo if option == 'y'
6 end
```

#### 3.3 Arrays

Arrays in Ruby can contain multiple types and work as expected; there is no array vs collection divide:

```
1 my_array = ["Something", 123, Time.now]
```

Instead of loops you can use the each method to iterate:

```
1 my_array.each do |element|
2 puts element
3 end
```

We can use << to add things to an array:

```
1 >> countries << "India"
2 => ["India"]
3 >> countries
4 => ["India"]
5 >> countries.size
6 => 1
7 >> countries.count
8 => 1
```

And access elements with [0]:

```
1 >> countries[0]
2 => "India"
```

Thanks to the . . syntax we can also access multiple elements at once in a very simple way:

```
1 >> countries[4..9]
2 => ["China", "Niger", "Uganda", "Ireland"]
```

And use the includes? method (note the ?!) to check if elements are present:

```
1 >> countries.include? "Somalia"
2 => true
```

And delete to delete elements:

```
1 >> countries.delete "USA"
2 => "USA"
```

If we have a nested array, using dig fill allow us to find deeply nested elements in a simple way:

```
1 >> array = [1, 5, [7, 9, 11, ["Treasure"], "Sigma"]]
2 => [1, 5, [7, 9, 11, ["Treasure"], "Sigma"]]
3 >> array.dig(2, 3, 0)
4 => "Treasure"
```

Another very useful set of features are set operations, allowing us to modify arrays in a simple way, for example we can use the & operator to find elements that are in two arrays:

```
1 >> volleyball = ["Ashok", "Chavan", "Karthik", "Jesus", "Budha"]
2 => ["Ashok", "Chavan", "Karthik", "Jesus", "Budha"]
3 >> cricket = ["Budha", "Karthik", "Ragu", "Ram"]
4 => ["Budha", "Karthik", "Ragu", "Ram"]
5 >> volleyball & cricket
6 => ["Karthik", "Budha"]
```

#### Or + to merge them:

Or use | to merge both, but de-duplicating at the same time:

```
1 >> volleyball | cricket
2 => ["Ashok", "Chavan", "Karthik", "Jesus", "Budha", "Ragu", "Ram"]
```

Finally, we can also use – to remove multiple elements at once:

```
1 >> volleyball - cricket
2 => ["Ashok", "Chavan", "Jesus"]
```

For those who are familiar with MapReduce, Ruby provides all of it in the language. For example map:

```
1 >> array = [1, 2, 3]
2 => [1, 2, 3]
3 >> array.map{ |element| element * element }
4 => [1, 4, 9]
```

Note that this doesn't modify the array; we can use map! for that, which works for lots of Ruby methods:

```
1 >> array.collect!{ |element| element * element }
2 => [1, 4, 9]
3 >> array
4 => [1, 4, 9]
```

The filter method for example can be used in the same way (named keep\_if, with the opposite delete\_if also existing), and works like how you already know if from JS:

```
1 >> array = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
2 => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
3 >> array.keep_if{ |element| element % 2 == 0}
4 => [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
```

#### 3.4 Hashes

Hashes can be used to store mapped information:

```
1 mark = {}
2 mark['English'] = 50
3 mark['Math'] = 70
4 mark['Science'] = 75
```

And we can define a default value:

```
1 mark = {}
2 mark.default = 0
3 mark['English'] = 50
4 mark['Math'] = 70
5 mark['Science'] = 75
```

The hash literal {} also allows us to create hashes with pre-filled information:

```
1 marks = { 'English' => 50, 'Math' => 70, 'Science' => 75 }
```

To loop over hashes, we can use the each method again:

```
1 total = 0
2 mark.each { |key,value|
3  total += value
4 }
5 puts "Total marks = "+total.to_s
```

A very interesting feature to use in combination with hashes are symbols; they are much more efficient than strings as they are global and thus use less memory:

```
1 mark = {}
2 mark[:English] = 50
3 mark[:Math] = 70
4 mark[:Science] = 75
```

We can check this by getting their object\_id (a kind of pointer):

```
1 c = "able was i ere i saw elba"
2 d = "able was i ere i saw elba"
3 >> c.object_id
4 => 21472860
5 >> .object_id
6 => 1441620
```

```
1 e = :some_symbol
2 f = :some_symbol
3 >> e.object_id
4 => 1097628
```

```
5 >> f.object_id
6 => 1097628
```

Just like accessing hash values is similar for arrays and hashes, we can use the same MapReduce functions on hashes:

```
1 >> hash = {a: 1, b: 2, c: 3}
2 => {:a=>1, :b=>2, :c=>3}
3 >> hash.transform_values{ |value| value * value }
4 => {:a=>1, :b=>4, :c=>9}
```

#### 3.5 Ranges

Ranges are a cool concept in Ruby that we've used before. We can use them with the . . notation:

```
1 >> (1..5).each {|a| print "#{a}, " }
2 => 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, => 1..5
```

We can also use them on strings:

```
1 >> ("bad".."bag").each {|a| print "#{a}, " }
2 => bad, bae, baf, bag, => "bad".."bag"
```

They can be very useful in case statements, where you can replace lots of or operators with them:

```
1 grade = case mark
2 when 80..100
     'A'
3
4 when 60...79
     'B'
5
6 when 40..59
     'C'
8
    when 0...39
    'D'
9
10
   else
11
    "Unable to determine grade. Try again."
12 end
```

In addition to using them in **case** statements as described before, they can also serve as conditions:

```
print "Enter any letter: "
letter = gets.chop

puts "You have entered a lower case letter" if ('a'..'z') === letter
puts "You have entered a upper case letter" if ('A'..'Z') === letter
```

We can also use triple dots, which will remove the last value:

```
1 >> (1..5).to_a
2 => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
3 >> (1...5).to_a
4 => [1, 2, 3, 4]
```

It is also possible to define endless ranges:

```
print "Enter your age: "
age = gets.to_i

case age
when 0..18
puts "You are a kid"
when (19..)
puts "You are grownup"
end
```

#### 3.6 Functions

As mentioned before, Ruby draws a lot of inspiration from functional programming languages, and functions are a primary building block in the language as a result.

We can define functions with def and call them without parentheses:

```
1 def print_line
2  puts '_' * 20
3 end
4
5 print_line
```

It is also possible to define default arguments unlike in Java:

```
1 def print_line length = 20
2  puts '_'*length
3 end
4
5 print_line
6 print_line 40
```

Arguments are always passed by reference:

```
1 def array_changer array
2  array << 6
3  end
4
5  some_array = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
6  p some_array
7  array_changer some_array</pre>
```

```
8 p some_array
9
10 => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
11 => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

There is no need for a **return** statements as returns are implicit (but optional for control flow support):

```
1 def addition x, y
2    x + y
3 end
4
5 addition 3, 5
6
7 => 8
```

We can also define named arguments, with or without defaults:

```
1 def say_hello name: "Martin", age: 33
2  puts "Hello #{name} your age is #{age}"
3  end
4
5  say_hello name: "Joseph", age: 7
```

Arguments can also be variadic:

```
1 def some_function a, *others
2  puts a
3  others.each do |x|
4  puts x
5  end
6  end
7
8  some_function 1,2,3,4,5
```

A very neat function is to use argument forwarding to call a function with all used parameters:

```
def print_something string
puts string

end

def decorate(...)
puts "#" * 50
print_something(...)
puts "#" * 50
puts "#" * 50
end

decorate "Hello World!"
```

We can also define a function in more consise way:

```
1 def double(num) = num * 2
```

#### 3.7 Classes

Besides the functional influence, Ruby is also a radically object-oriented language. As a result, it makes working with objects and classes very easy:

```
1 class Square
2 end
```

Through the attr\_reader, attr\_writer and attr\_accessor notation we can add instance variables to a class:

```
1 class Square
2 attr_accessor :side_length
3 end
```

They can be read and written with .:

```
1 s1 = Square.new # creates a new square
2 s1.side_length = 5 # sets its side length
3 puts "Side length of s1 = #{s1.side_length}" # prints the side length
```

Methods can be defined with def:

Note the use of @ to access instance variables.

Like many object-oriented languages, Ruby supports constructors (called initializers):

```
1 class Square
2 attr_accessor :side_length
3
4 def initialize side_length = 0
5 @side_length = side_length
6 end
```

```
7
8  def area
9   @side_length * @side_length
10  end
11
12  def perimeter
13   4 * @side_length
14  end
15  end
```

Variables defined by attr\_accessor as public; we can make them private by ommiting their definition:

```
class Human
def set_name name
    @name = name
end

def get_name
    @name
end
end

def get_name
end
end
end
end
```

In a similar way, we can use **private** and **protected** to change the visibility of methods:

```
class Human
attr_accessor :name, :age

def tell_about_you
puts "Hello I am #{@name}. I am #{@age} years old"
end

private def tell_a_secret
puts "I am not a human, I am a computer program. He! Hee!!"
end
end

end

end
```

In addition to instance variables, we can also create class variables which work similar to static variables in Java using the @@ notation:

```
1 class Robot
2  def initialize
3  if defined?(@@robot_count)
4     @@robot_count += 1
5   else
6     @@robot_count = 1
7   end
8  end
9
10  def self.robots_created
```

```
11 @@robot_count
12 end
13 end
```

Similarly so, we can define class constants like so:

```
class Something
const = 25

def Const
const
end
puts Something::Const
```

While inheritance is not the primary means of reusing code in Ruby, there is support for it in the language using the < notation:

```
class Rectangle
attr_accessor :length, :width
end

class Square < Rectangle
def initialize length
    @width = @length = length
end

def side_length
    @width
end
end
end

area
</pre>
```

We can overwrite methods; interestingly it is possible to change a child's signature and use the **super** method in the child:

```
class Square < Rectangle
def set_dimension side_length
super side_length, side_length
end
end</pre>
```

I won't go into more details on these aspects as they are mostly similar to Java; the same goes for Threads, Exception and more. One thing uniquely powerful in Ruby is reflection; for example, you can get the methods of a class as an array using .methods:

```
1 >> "a".methods
2 =>
3 [:unicode_normalized?,
```

```
4 :encode!,
5 :unicode_normalize,
6 :ascii_only?,
7 :unicode_normalize!,
8 :to_r,
9 :encode,
10 :to_c,
11 :include?,
12 :%,
13 :*,
14 :+,
15 :unpack,
16 # ...
17 ]
```

We can also get private methods using .private\_methods, instance variables using .instance\_variables etc.

Another feature fairly unique to Ruby is method aliasing:

This makes it very easy to define multiple method names for things that are frequently interchanged, such as .delete and .remove, or .filter and .keep\_if.

Due to Ruby's dynamic nature, we can also define classes dynamically and anonymously:

```
person = Class.new do
def say_hi
limits
limits
limits
here
person = Class.new do
limits
limits
here
limits
he
```

To deal with the complexities of such a dynamic language, Ruby has support for a safe navigation operator similar to Typescript:

```
1 class Robot
2 attr_accessor :name
3 end
4
5 robot = Robot.new
6 robot.name = "Zigor"
```

```
7 puts "The robots name is #{robot.name}" if robot&.name
```

#### 3.8 Files, Modules and Mixins

We can use the require function to import things from files; this is very similar to how early NodeJS works:

```
1  # break_square.rb
2
3  class Square
4  attr_accessor :side_length
5
6  def perimeter
7  @side_length * 4
8  end
9  end
```

```
1 # break_main.rb
2
3 require "./break_square.rb"
4
5 s = Square.new
6 s.side_length = 5
7 puts "The squares perimeter is #{s.perimeter}"
```

However this quickly leads to problems with code organization, for example when two functions with a different purpose are named the same way. Ruby solves this issue with modules:

```
1 module Star
2  def line
3   puts '*' * 20
4  end
5  end
6
7 module Dollar
8  def line
9  puts '$' * 20
10  end
11 end
```

If we include Star and call line, we will print a line of starts, and if we do so with Dollar, calling line again will print dollar signs. Without including line, the method will be undefined.

We can also call methods and access other objects in a module using the :: operator:

```
1 >> Dollar::line
2 => $$$$$$$$$$$$$$
```

The include keyword can be used to form Mixins, which will expose reusable code only to a specific class, i.e. make the Pi constant only accessible from a single class:

```
class Sphere
include Constants
attr_accessor :radius

def volume
(4.0/3) * Pi * radius ** 3
end
end
```

## 3.9 Metaprogramming

Ruby is a very flexible langauge, and as such it allows metaprogramming. For example, directly call a method using the send function by passing in the speak symbol:

```
class Person
attr_accessor :name

def speak
"Hello I am #{@name}"
end
end

p = Person.new
p.name = "Karthik"
puts p.send(:speak)
```

This allows for very powerful, but dangerous things, such as calling arbitrary functions by passing in the method name as a string:

```
1 class Student
2 attr_accessor :name, :math, :science, :other
3 end
4
5 s = Student.new
6 s.name = "Zigor"
7 s.math = 100
8 s.science = 100
9 s.other = 0
```

If we want to give a user access to any of the properties using send, we can get their input using gets .chop:

```
1 print "Enter the subject who's mark you want to know: "
2 subject = gets.chop
```

```
3 puts "The mark in #{subject} is #{s.send(subject)}"
```

We can also catch a developer calling methods that don't exist at runtime and handle that usecase explicitly by implementing a method\_missing method:

```
1 class Something
    def initialize
     @name = "Jake"
3
4
     end
5
   def method_missing method, *args, &block
     puts "Method: #{method} with args: #{args} does not exist"
8
       block.call @name
9 end
10 end
11
12 s = Something.new
13 s.call_method "boo", 5 do |x|
14
       puts x
15 end
```

As you can see, we're now able to call a method that doesn't exist, and provide the implementation ourselves:

```
1 => Method: call_method with args: ["boo", 5] does not exist
2 => Jake
```

Instead of passing in an implementation in the form of a block ourselves, we can also do other things, such as matching the incoming method name against a regular expression and then manually calling the method:

```
1 class Person
     attr_accessor :name, :age
   def initialize name, age
5
     @name, @age = name, age
    end
6
7
8 def method_missing method_name
9
       method_name.to_s.match(/get_(\w+)/)
10
       send($1)
11
     end
12 end
13
14 person = Person.new "Zigor", "67893"
15 puts "#{person.get_name} is #{person.get_age} years old"
16
17 => Zigor is 67893 years old
```

It is also possible to use define\_method to dynamically define a method at runtime:

```
1 class Person
    def initialize name, age
    @name, @age = name, age
4
  end
5 end
6
7 Person.define_method(:get_name) do
8
    @name
9 end
10
11 person = Person.new "Zigor", "67893"
12
13 >> person.get_name
14 => "Zigor"
```

We can also define class methods etc. using define\_singleton\_method or class\_eval and instance\_eval etc. to add arbitrary things such ass attr\_accessors to classes or even instances.

# **4 Practical Examples**

# 4.1 dRuby

While not recommended in modern applications (see professor Kriha's "Distributed Systems" course), dRuby is an excellent example of an idiomatic Ruby way of creating servers and clients, specifically distributed objects. We can define a server like so:

```
1 require 'drb/drb'
2
3 URI = 'druby://localhost:8787'
5 class PersonServer
   attr_accessor :name
  def initialize(name)
8
9
    @name = name
10 end
11
12 def local_time
13
     Time.now
14 end
15 end
16
17 DRb.start_service URI, PersonServer.new('Sheepy')
18
```

```
19 puts "Listening on to URI #{URI}"
20
21 DRb.thread.join
```

And interact with the objects on the server like so:

```
1 require 'drb/drb'
2
3 URI = 'druby://localhost:8787'
4
5 DRb.start_service
6
7 puts "Connecting to URI #{URI}"
8
9 person = DRbObject.new_with_uri URI
10
11 puts "#{person.name} #{person.local_time}"
12
13 person.name = 'Noir'
14
15 puts "#{person.name} #{person.local_time}"
```

As we can see, with very little code we can get a lot of functionality.

#### 4.2 Sinatra

Aside from Ruby on Rails, Sinatra is a very neat web framework. You can define a web server in just three lines of code:

```
1 require 'sinatra'
2
3 get '/' do
4 'Hello, world!'
5 end
```

Handling POST requests and parsing data is also very simple:

```
before do
next unless request.post?

request.body.rewind
grequest_payload = JSON.parse request.body.read
end

post '/' do
grequest_payload['name']
end
```

By using ERB, we can render templates very easily:

```
1 require 'sinatra'
2
3 get '/' do
4  @name = params['name']
5
6  erb :index
7 end
```

# **5 Questions**