# **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