

# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- Brief history of Ruby
- Another programming language to learn? Why?
- Basic Ruby principles and conventions



# Ruby History

- Invented by Yukihiro “Matz” Matsumoto
- Version 1.0 released in 1996 (Japan)
- Popularized by Ruby on Rails beginning in 2005



# Ruby: High Level Overview

- Dynamic
- Object-oriented
  - Object-possessed, almost everything is an object
- **Elegant, expressive and declarative**
  - Terse at times, but extremely readable
- Influenced by Perl, Smalltalk, Eiffel and Lisp

**“Designed to make programmers happy”**



# ...Java...

```
public class Print3Times {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {  
            System.out.println("Hello World!");  
        }  
    }  
}
```



# ...Ruby...

```
3.times { puts "Hello World" }
```



# Carried away...

<https://github.com/jpfuentes2/a-letter-to-Augusta#the-letter>

## The Letter

```
require "./love"

a_letter to: Augusta do
  twas(only: 16.months.ago) { The::Universe << You.to(OurFamily) }
    life.has :been => %w(i n c r e d i b l y).zip(*"wonderfull").ever_since
    We::Wish.we_could { experience these_moments: over & over }
    You.will always_be: Loved, and: Cherished
    until Infinity.ends do; Forever.; end
  end
```



# Ruby Basics

- 2 space indentation for each nested level is encouraged
  - Not required (unlike Python)
- # is used for comments
  - Use comments in moderation – the code itself should tell the story
- Everything is evaluated!

```
# this is a comment
puts 5 # so is this
3 # and this
```



# Printing to Console

- *puts* - Standard Ruby method to print strings to console (as in **put string**)
  - Adds a new line after the printed string
  - Similar to *System.out.println()* in Java
  - Used for most of the examples
- *p* - Prints out internal representation of an object
  - Debugger-style output

```
p "Got it" # => Got it
```



# Executing Ruby

A screenshot of a Mac OS X terminal window titled "test.rb". The window has three tabs: "test.rb", "x", and "1 puts 3". The "1 puts 3" tab is active, displaying the code "1 puts 3". Below the code, the output "3" is shown, followed by the message "[Finished in 0.2s]". At the bottom of the window, status bars indicate "Line 1, Column 7" and "Tab Size: 4".

A screenshot of a Mac OS X terminal window titled "1. bash". The window shows the command "~\$ ruby test.rb" being run, followed by the output "3". The prompt "~\$" is visible again at the bottom of the window.



# Naming Conventions

- Variables
  - Lowercase or `snake_case` if multiple words
- Constants
  - Either `ALL_CAPS` or `FirstCap`
- Classes (and Modules)
  - `CamelCase`



# Drop the Semicolons

- Leave semicolons off at the end of the line
- Can cram several statements in with a semicolon in between
  - Usually highly discouraged

```
a = 3 # semicolons not needed  
a = 2; b = 3 # sometimes used
```



# IRB – Interactive Ruby

- Console-based interactive Ruby interpreter
  - REPL (Read Evaluate Print Loop)
- Comes with a Ruby installation
- Lets you experiment (quickly!)

```
~$ irb
irb(main):001:0> "hello world"
=> "hello world"
irb(main):002:0> puts "hello world"
hello world
=> nil
```

*Anything evaluates to something – no need to assign to a variable*

*puts returns nil*



# Summary

- Ruby is extremely expressive
- Everything is evaluated

## What's next?

- Flow of control in Ruby



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- Flow of Control
  - if / elseif / else
  - case
  - until / unless?
  - while / for
- What is true and what is false?
- What in the world is === ?



# Flow of Control

- if, unless, elsif, else
- No parentheses or curly braces
- Use end to close flow control block

```
a = 5 # declare a variable

if a == 3
  puts "a is 3"
elsif a == 5
  puts "a is 5"
else
  puts "a is not 3 or 5"
end

# => a is 5
```

```
a = 5

unless a == 6
  puts "a is not 6"
end

# => a is not 6
```



# Flow of Control

- while, until

```
a = 10

while a > 9
  puts a
  a -= 1
  # same as a = a - 1
end

# => 10
```

```
a = 9

until a >= 10
  puts a
  a += 1
end

# => 9
```



# Flow of Control: Modifier Form

- if, unless, while, until – on the same line as the statement

```
# if modifier form

a = 5
b = 0

puts "One liner" if a == 5 and b == 0
# => One liner
```

```
# while modifier form

times_2 = 2
times_2 *= 2 while times_2 < 100
puts times_2 # => ?
```



# True / False

- `false` and `nil` objects are false
- **Everything else** is true!

```
puts "0 is true" if 0 # => 0 is true
puts "false is true?" if "false" # => false is true?
puts "no way - false is false" if false # => NOTHING PRINTED
puts "empty string is true" if "" # => empty string is true
puts "nil is true?" if "nil" # => nil is true?
puts "no way - nil is false" if nil # => NOTHING PRINTED
```

warning: string literal in condition



# Triple Equal

- Triple Equal: ===
- “Equal” in its own way
  - Sometimes it’s not about being exactly equal

```
if /sera/ === "coursera"
  puts "Triple Equals"
end
# => Triple Equals

if "coursera" === "coursera"
  puts "also works"
end
# => also works

if Integer === 21
  puts "21 is an Integer"
end
# => 21 is an Integer
```



# Case Expressions

- Two “flavors”
  1. Similar to a series of “if” statements
  2. Specify a target next to case and each when clause is compared to target
- `==` is called the case equality operator because it is used in precisely this case!
- **No fall-through logic**



# Case Expressions

```
age = 21

case # 1ST FLAVOR
when age >= 21
  puts "You can buy a drink"
when 1 == 0
  puts "Written by a drunk programmer"
else
  puts "Default condition"
end
#=> You can buy a drink
```

```
name = 'Fisher'
case name # 2nd FLAVOR
when /fish/i then puts "Something is fishy here"
when 'Smith' then puts "Your name is Smith"
end

#=> Something is fishy here
```



# For Loop

- Hardly used
- each / times preferred

```
for i in 0..2
| puts i
end

# => 0
# => 1
# => 2
```

Range data type



# Summary

- Lots of options for flow of control
- Modifier form is an interesting way to be very expressive
- Non-nil and non-false values are always true

## What's next?

- Functions / Methods



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Functions / Methods
  - Definitions
  - How do you call them?
  - What and how do they return?
  - Default args
- ✧ How to make methods more expressive
- ✧ What is “splat”



# ~~Functions~~ and Methods

- ✧ Technically, a **function** is defined **outside** of a class and a **method** is defined **inside** a class
- ✧ In Ruby, **every** function/method has at least one class it belongs to
  - Not always written inside a class

**Conclusion: Every function is really a method in Ruby**



# Methods

- ❖ Parentheses are **optional** both when **defining** and **calling** a method
  - Used for **clarity**

```
def simple
  puts "no parens"
end

def simple1()
  puts "yes parens"
end

simple() # => no parens
simple # => no parens
simple1 # => yes parens
```



# Return

- ✧ **No need** to declare type of parameters
- ✧ Can return **whatever you want**
- ✧ **return** keyword is optional (last executed line returned)

```
def add(one, two)
  one + two
end

def divide(one, two)
  return "I don't think so" if two == 0
  one / two
end

puts add(2, 2) # => 4
puts divide(2, 0) # => I don't think so
puts divide(12, 4) # => 3
```



# Expressive Method Names

- Method names can end with:
  - '?' - Predicate methods
  - ! - Dangerous side-effects (*example later by strings*)

```
def can_divide_by?(number)
  return false if number.zero?
  true
end

puts can_divide_by? 3 # => true
puts can_divide_by? 0 # => false
```



# Default Arguments

✧ Methods can have **default arguments**

- If a value is passed in – use that value
- Otherwise – use the default value provided

```
def factorial (n)
  n == 0? 1 : n * factorial(n - 1)
end

def factorial_with_default (n = 5)
  n == 0? 1 : n * factorial_with_default(n - 1)
end

puts factorial 5 # => 120
puts factorial_with_default # => 120
puts factorial_with_default(3) # => 6
```

Ternary operator:  
condition ? true : false



# Splat

- ❖ \* prefixes parameter inside method definition
  - Can even apply to middle parameter, not just the last

```
def max(one_param, *numbers, another)
  # Variable length parameters passed in
  # become an array
  numbers.max
end

puts max("something", 7, 32, -4, "more") # => 32
```



# Summary

- ✧ There is **no need** to declare parameter type passed in or returned (dynamic)
- ✧ **return** is **optional** – the last executable line is “returned”
- ✧ You can construct methods with **variable number** of arguments or default arguments

What's next?

- ✧ Blocks



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Blocks
- ✧ How they are used
- ✧ How to incorporate them into your own methods



# Blocks

## ✧ Chunks of code

- Enclosed between either curly braces (`{ }`) or the keywords `do` and `end`
- Passed to methods as last “parameter”



# Blocks

✧ **Convention:**

- Use `{ }` when block content is a single line
- Use `do` and `end` when block content **spans multiple lines**

✧ Often used as **iterators**



# Blocks

- ✧ Can accept arguments

```
1.times { puts "Hello World!" }
# => Hello World!

2.times do |index|
  if index > 0
    puts index
  end
end
# => 1

2.times { |index| puts index if index > 0 }
# => 1
```

Often accepts parameter(s)  
between ||



# Coding with blocks

- ❖ Two ways to configure a block in your own method

## Implicit

- Use `block_given?` to see if block was passed in
- Use `yield` to “call” the block

## Explicit

- Use `&` in front of the last “parameter”
- Use `call` method to call the block



# Implicit

- Need to check “`block_given?`”
  - Otherwise, an **exception is thrown**

```
def two_times_implicit
  return "No block" unless block_given?
  yield
  yield
end

puts two_times_implicit { print "Hello " } # => Hello
# => Hello
puts two_times_implicit # => No block
```



# Explicit

- ✧ Should check if the block is `nil`?

```
def two_times_explicit (&i_am_a_block)
  return "No block" if i_am_a_block.nil?
  i_am_a_block.call
  i_am_a_block.call
end

puts two_times_explicit # => No block
two_times_explicit { puts "Hello" } # => Hello
                                    # => Hello
```



# Summary

- ✧ Blocks are **just code** that you can pass into **methods**
- ✧ When incorporating into your own methods:
  - **Either** use blocks **implicitly**
  - **Or** call them **explicitly**

## What's next?

- ✧ Files and Environment Variables



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Reading and writing to files
- ✧ Exceptions
- ✧ Reading values from environment variables



# Reading from File

```
File.foreach('test.txt') do |line|
  puts line
  p line
  p line.chomp # chops off newline character
  p line.split # array of words in line
end
```

```
The first line of the file
"The first line of the file\n"
"The first line of the file"
["The", "first", "line", "of", "the", "file"]
And the second
"And the second\n"
"And the second"
["And", "the", "second"]
Third
"Third"
"Third"
["Third"]
```

test.txt

The first line of the file  
And the second  
Third

Output



# Reading from Non Existing File

```
1 File.foreach( 'do_not_exist.txt' ) do |line|
2   puts line.chomp
3 end
4
5
6
```

```
/Users/kalmanhazins/coursera/code-module2/Lecture5-Files-Environment-
Vars/read_from_file_handle_exceptions.rb:1:in `foreach': No such file
or directory @ rb_sysopen - do_not_exist.txt (Errno::ENOENT)
```



# Handling Exceptions

```
1 begin
2
3   File.foreach( 'do_not_exist.txt' ) do |line|
4     puts line.chomp
5   end
6
7 rescue Exception => e
8   puts e.message
9   puts "Let's pretend this didn't happen..."
10 end
11
```

```
No such file or directory @ rb_sysopen - do_not_exist.txt
Let's pretend this didn't happen...
```



# Alternative to Exceptions

```
if File.exist? 'test.txt'

  File.foreach( 'test.txt' ) do |line|
    puts line.chomp
  end

end
```



# Writing to File

The file is automatically closed after the block executes

A screenshot of a code editor showing a Ruby script named `write_to_file.rb` and its output in a terminal window.

The code in `write_to_file.rb` is:

```
File.open("test1.txt", "w") do |file|
  file.puts "One line"
  file.puts "Another"
end
```

The terminal window shows the contents of `test1.txt`:

		test1.txt
1		One line
2		Another
3		



# Environment Variables

If needed, revisit Module 1 on how to setup environment variables for your Operating System

```
puts ENV["EDITOR"] # => subl
```



# Summary

- ✧ Files **automatically closed** at the end of the block
- ✧ **Either** use exception handling **or** check for existence of the file before accessing

## What's next?

- ✧ Strings and Symbols



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Different kinds of strings supported by Ruby
- ✧ Many methods supported by the String API
- ✧ Symbols



# Strings

- ✧ Single-quote literal strings are **very** literal
  - Allow escaping of `'` with `\`
  - Show (almost) everything else **as is**
- ✧ Double-quoted strings
  - Interpret special characters like `\n` and `\t`
  - Allow string interpolation!

Don't bother concatenating with `+`



# Strings / Interpolation

```
single_quoted = 'ice cream \n followed by it\'s a party!'
double_quoted = "ice cream \n followed by it's a party!"

puts single_quoted # => ice cream \n followed by it's a party!
puts double_quoted # => ice cream
# =>      followed by it's a party!

def multiply (one, two)
  "#{one} multiplied by #{two} equals #{one * two}"
end
puts multiply(5, 3)
# => 5 multiplied by 3 equals 15
```

Interpolation (only available for double-quoted strings)



# More Strings

- ✧ String methods ending with ! modify the existing string
  - Most others just return a new string
- ✧ Can also use `%Q{long multiline string}`
  - Same behavior as double-quoted string

Very Important to Master String API



# More Strings

```
my_name = " tim"
puts my_name.lstrip.capitalize # => Tim
p my_name # => " tim"
my_name.lstrip! # (destructive) removes the leading space
my_name[0] = 'K' # replace the fist character
puts my_name # => Kim

cur_weather = %Q{It's a hot day outside
                   Grab your umbrellas...}

cur_weather.lines do |line|
  line.sub! 'hot', 'rainy' # substitute 'hot' with 'rainy'
  puts "#{line.strip}"
end
# => It's a rainy day outside
# => Grab your umbrellas...
```



# Strings API

A screenshot of a web browser showing the Ruby documentation for the String class. The URL in the address bar is `ruby-doc.org/core-2.2.2/String.html`. The page lists various methods of the String class, each with a brief description. The methods listed are: #reverse, #reverse!, #rindex, #rjust, #rpartition, #rstrip, #rstrip!, #scan, #scrub, #scrub!, #setbyte, #size, #slice, #slice!, and #split.

- #reverse
- #reverse!
- #rindex
- #rjust
- #rpartition
- #rstrip
- #rstrip!
- #scan
- #scrub
- #scrub!
- #setbyte
- #size
- #slice
- #slice!
- #split



## include? other\_str → true or false

Returns `true` if `str` contains the given string or character.

```
"hello".include? "lo"      #=> true
"hello".include? "ol"      #=> false
"hello".include? ?h        #=> true
```



# Symbols

- ✧ `:foo-` highly optimized strings
- ✧ **Constant names** that you don't have to pre-declare
  - “**Stands for something**” string type



# Symbols

- ✧ Guaranteed to be **unique** and **immutable**
- ✧ Can be converted to a `String` with `to_s`
  - **Or** from `String` to `Symbol` with `to_sym`



# Symbols

```
~$ irb
irb(main):001:0> "hello".methods.grep /case/
=> [:casecmp, :upcase, :downcase, :swapcase, :upcase!, :downcase!, :swapcase!]
```



# Summary

- ✧ Interpolation lets you **finish your thought**
- ✧ Strings have a lot of **really useful API**

What's next?

- ✧ Arrays



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

## ✧ Arrays

- How they are **created**
- How to modify **arrays**
- **Accessing elements** inside arrays



# Arrays

- ✧ Collection of **object references** (auto-expandable)
- ✧ Indexed using `[]` operator (method)
- ✧ Can be indexed with **negative numbers** or **ranges**
- ✧ **Heterogeneous types allowed** in the same array
- ✧ Can use `%w{str1 str2}` for string array creation



# Arrays

```
het_arr = [1, "two", :three] # heterogeneous types
puts het_arr[1] # => two (array indices start at 0)

arr_words = %w{ what a great day today! }
puts arr_words[-2] # => day
puts "#{arr_words.first} - #{arr_words.last}" # => what - today!
p arr_words[-3, 2] # => ["great", "day"] (go back 3 and take 2)

# (Range type covered later...)
p arr_words[2..4] # => ["great", "day", "today"]

# Make a String out of array elements separated by ','
puts arr_words.join(',') # => what,a,great,day,today!
```



# Arrays

## ✧ Modifying arrays

- Append: `push` or `<<`
- Remove: `pop` or `shift`
- Set: `[ ]=` (method)



# Arrays

- ✧ Randomly pull element(s) out with `sample`
- ✧ Sort or reverse with `sort!` and `reverse!`



# Arrays

```
# You want a stack (LIFO)? Sure
stack = []; stack << "one"; stack.push ("two")
puts stack.pop # => two

# You need a queue (FIFO)? We have those too...
queue = []; queue.push "one"; queue.push "two"
puts queue.shift # => one

a = [5,3,4,2].sort!.reverse!
p a # => [5,4,3,2] (actually modifies the array)
p a.sample(2) # => 2 random elements

a[6] = 33
p a # => [5, 4, 3, 2, nil, nil, 33]
```



# Arrays

## ❖ Lots of useful array methods

- `each` – loop through array
- `select` – filter array by selecting
- `reject` – filter array by rejecting
- `map` – modify each element in the array

Many, many others...



# Another Important API

<http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.2.0/Array.html>



# Array Processing

```
a = [1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 10]
a.each { |num| print num } # => 1347810 (no new line)
puts # => (print new line)

new_arr = a.select { |num| num > 4 }
p new_arr # => [7, 8, 10]
new_arr = a.select { |num| num < 10 }
|       .reject{ |num| num.even? }
p new_arr # => [1, 3, 7]

# Multiply each element by 3 producing new array
new_arr = a.map { |x| x * 3}
p new_arr # => [3, 9, 12, 21, 24, 30]
```



# Summary

- ✧ Arrays API is very **flexible** and **powerful**
- ✧ Lots of ways to **process elements** inside the array

**What's next?**

- ✧ Ranges



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Ranges
- ✧ How they are useful in Ruby



# Ranges

- ✧ Used to express natural **consecutive** sequences
  - `1..20`, `'a'..'z'`
- ✧ **Two** dots → **all-inclusive**
  - `1..10` (1 is **included**, 10 is **included**)
- ✧ **Three** dots → **end-exclusive**
  - `1...10` (1 is **included**, 10 is **EXCLUDED**)



# Ranges

- ✧ **Efficient**
  - Only `start` and `end` stored
- ✧ Can be **converted** to an array with `to_a`
- ✧ Used for **conditions** and **intervals**



# Ranges

```
some_range = 1..3
puts some_range.max # => 3
puts some_range.include? 2 # => true

puts (1...10) === 5.3 # => true
puts ('a'...'r') === "r" # => false (end-exclusive)

p ('k'..'z').to_a.sample(2) # => ["k", "w"]
# or another random array with 2 letters in range

age = 55
case age
| when 0..12 then puts "Still a baby"
| when 13..99 then puts "Teenager at heart!"
| else puts "You are getting older..."
end
# => Teenager at heart!
```



# Summary

- ✧ Ranges are **useful** for **consecutive sequences**
- ✧ You can **convert** a range to an array for more **functionality**

What's next?

- ✧ Hashes



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Hashes
- ✧ **How** they are used
- ✧ **Why** they are used
- ✧ **Similarity** to blocks



# Hashes

- ✧ **Indexed collections** of object references
- ✧ Created with either `{ }` or `Hash.new`
- ✧ Also known as **associative arrays**
- ✧ Index(key) can be **anything**
  - **Not just an integer** as in the case of arrays



# Hashes

- ✧ Accessed using the `[]` operator
- ✧ Values set using
  - `=>` (creation)
  - `[]` (post creation)



# Hashes

```
editor_props = { "font" => "Arial", "size" => 12, "color" => "red"}  
  
# THE ABOVE IS NOT A BLOCK - IT'S A HASH  
puts editor_props.length # => 3  
puts editor_props["font"] # => Arial  
  
editor_props["background"] = "Blue"  
editor_props.each_pair do |key, value|  
  puts "Key: #{key} value: #{value}"  
end  
# => Key: font value: Arial  
# => Key: size value: 12  
# => Key: color value: red  
# => Key: background value: Blue
```



# Hashes

- ❖ What if you try to **access a value** in the Hash for which an entry **does not exist**?
  - `nil` is returned
- ❖ If a Hash is created with `Hash.new(0)` ← 0 is just an example  
`0` is returned instead

Hashes API is also very important to master!

<http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.2.0/Hash.html>



# Hashes

```
word_frequency = Hash.new(0)

sentence = "Chicka chicka boom boom"
sentence.split.each do |word|
  word_frequency[word.downcase] += 1
end

p word_frequency # => {"chicka" => 2, "boom" => 2}
```



# More Hashes

## ✧ As of Ruby 1.9

- The order of putting things into `Hash` maintained
- If using symbols as keys – can use `symbol:` syntax



# More Hashes

- ❖ If a **Hash** is the **last argument** to a method `{ }` are optional

Last argument not including a  
block!



# Hashes

```
family_tree_19 = {oldest: "Jim", older: "Joe", younger: "Jack"}  
family_tree_19[:youngest] = "Jeremy"  
p family_tree_19  
# => {:oldest=>"Jim", :older=>"Joe", :younger=>"Jack", :youngest => "Jeremy"}  
  
# Named parameter "like" behavior...  
def adjust_colors (props = {foreground: "red", background: "white"})  
  puts "Foreground: #{props[:foreground]}" if props[:foreground]  
  puts "Background: #{props[:background]}" if props[:background]  
end  
adjust_colors # => foreground: red  
              # => background: white  
adjust_colors ({ :foreground => "green" }) # => foreground: green  
adjust_colors background: "yella" # => background: yella  
adjust_colors :background => "magenta" # => background: magenta
```



# Block and Hash Confusion

```
# Let's say you have a Hash
a_hash = { :one => "one" }

# Then, you output it
puts a_hash # => {:one=>"one"}

# If you try to do it in one step - you get a SyntaxError
# puts { :one => "one" }

# RUBY GETS CONFUSED AND THINKS {} IS A BLOCK!!!

# To get around this - you can use parens
puts ({ :one => "one" }) # => {:one=>"one"}

# Or drop the {} altogether...
puts one: "one"# => {:one=>"one"}
```



# Summary

- ❖ Hashes are **indexed collections**
- ❖ Usage is **very similar to regular arrays**
- ❖ Although uncommon, can be **confused for blocks**

What's next?

- ❖ Classes



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Classes
- ✧ How **objects** are **created**
- ✧ How to **access data** within those objects



# OO Review

- ✧ Identify things your program is **dealing with**
- ✧ **Classes** are **things** (*blueprints*)
  - Containers of methods (*behavior*)
- ✧ Objects are **instances** of those things
- ✧ Objects contain **instance variables** (*state*)



# Instance Variables

- ✧ Begin with **@**
  - Example: `@name`
- ✧ Not declared
  - **Spring into existence** when first used
- ✧ **Available to all instance methods** of the class



# Object Creation

- ❖ Classes are **factories**
  - Calling `new` method **creates an instance** of class

`new` causes `initialize`

- ❖ Object's **state** can be (should be) **initialized** inside the **initialize** method, the “constructor”



# Object Creation

```
class Person
  def initialize (name, age) # "CONSTRUCTOR"
    @name = name
    @age = age
  end
  def get_info
    @additional_info = "Interesting"
    "Name: #{@name}, age: #{@age}"
  end
end

person1 = Person.new("Joe", 14)
p person1.instance_variables # [:@name, :@age]
puts person1.get_info # => Name: Joe, age: 14
p person1.instance_variables # [:@name, :@age, :@additional_info]
```



# Accessing Data

- ✧ Instance variables are **private**
  - Cannot be accessed from **outside** the class
- ✧ Methods have **public access** by default
- ✧ To access instance variables – need to define  
**“getter” / “setter”** methods



# Accessing Data

```
class Person
  def initialize (name, age) # "CONSTRUCTOR"
    @name = name
    @age = age
  end
  def name
    @name
  end
  def name= (new_name)
    @name = new_name
  end
end

person1 = Person.new("Joe", 14)
puts person1.name # Joe
person1.name = "Mike"
puts person1.name # Mike
# puts person1.age # undefined method `age' for #<Person:
```



# Accessing Data (Continued)

- ✧ Many times the getter/setter logic is **simple**
  - **Get existing** value / **Set new** value
- ✧ There should be an **easier way** instead of actually defining the getter/setter methods...



# Accessing Data (Continued)

- ✧ Use `attr_*` form instead
  - `attr_accessor` – getter and setter
  - `attr_reader` – getter only
  - `attr_writer` – setter only



# Accessing Data (Continued)

```
class Person
  attr_accessor :name, :age # getters and setters for name and age
end

person1 = Person.new
p person1.name # => nil
person1.name = "Mike"
person1.age = 15
puts person1.name # => Mike
puts person1.age # => 15
person1.age = "fifteen"
puts person1.age # => fifteen
```



# Accessing Data (Continued)

- ❖ **Two problems** with the previous example
  1. Person is in an **uninitialized state** upon creation (without a name or age)
  2. We probably **want to control** the maximum age assigned



# Accessing Data (Continued)

**Solution:** Use a **constructor** and a **more intelligent age setter**

But first, we need to talk about `self...`



# self

- ✧ Inside instance method, `self` refers to the **object itself**
- ✧ Usually, using `self` for **calling other methods of the same instance** is **extraneous**



# self

- ✧ At other times, using `self` is **required**
  - Ex. - When it could mean a **local variable assignment**
- ✧ Outside instance method definition, `self` refers to the **class itself**



# self

```
class Person
  attr_reader :age
  attr_accessor :name

  def initialize (name, ageVar) # CONSTRUCTOR
    @name = name
    self.age = ageVar # call the age= method ←
    puts age
  end
  def age= (new_age)
    @age = new_age unless new_age > 120
  end
end

person1 = Person.new("Kim", 13) # => 13
puts "My age is #{person1.age}" # => My age is 13
person1.age = 130 # Try to change the age
puts person1.age # => 13 (The setter didn't allow the change)
```

Why do we need  
self here?



# Summary

- ✧ Objects are **created** with `new`
- ✧ Use the **short form** for setting/getting data (`attr_`)
- ✧ **Don't forget `self`** when required

## What's next?

- ✧ Class inheritance and class methods



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ The “||” operator
- ✧ Class methods and class variables
- ✧ Class inheritance



# var = var || something

- ✧ `||` operator **evaluates the left side**
  - If **true** – **returns** it
  - **Else** – **returns** the **right side**
  - `@x = @x || 5` will return **5** the **first** time and `@x` the **next** time
- ✧ Short form
  - `@x ||= 5` – same as above



# var = var || something

```
class Person
    attr_reader :age
    attr_accessor :name

    def initialize (name, age) # CONSTRUCTOR
        @name = name
        self.age = age # call the age= method
    end
    def age= (new_age)
        @age ||= 5 # default ←
        @age = new_age unless new_age > 120
    end
end
person1 = Person.new("Kim", 130)
puts person1.age # => 5 (default)
person1.age = 10 # change to 10
puts person1.age # => 10
person1.age = 200 # Try to change to 200
puts person1.age # => 10 (still)
```

Only set to 5 the first time



# Class Methods and Variables

- ✧ **Invoked** on the **class** (as opposed to instance of class)
  - Similar to **static** methods in Java
- ✧ **self OUTSIDE** of the **method definition** refers to the **Class** object



# Class Methods and Variables

- ✧ Three ways to **define class methods** in Ruby
- ✧ Class variables **begin** with `@@`



# Class Methods and Variables

```
class MathFunctions
  def self.double(var) # 1. Using self
    times_called; var * 2;
  end
  class << self # 2. Using << self
    def times_called
      @@times_called ||= 0; @@times_called += 1
    end
  end
  end
  def MathFunctions.triple(var) # 3. Outside of class
    times_called; var * 3
  end

# No instance created!
puts MathFunctions.double 5 # => 10
puts MathFunctions.triple(3) # => 9
puts MathFunctions.times_called # => 3
```

self outside of  
method refers to  
Class object



# Class Inheritance

- ❖ Every class **implicitly inherits** from `Object`
  - `Object` itself inherits from `BasicObject`
- ❖ **No** multiple inheritance
  - **Mixins** are used instead



# Inheritance

```
class Dog < Object
  def to_s
    "Dog"
  end
  def bark
    "barks loudly"
  end
end
class SmallDog < Dog
  def bark # Override
    "barks quietly"
  end
end
```

Implicitly inherits from Object

< Denotes inheritance

```
dog = Dog.new # (btw, new is a class method)
small_dog = SmallDog.new
puts "#{dog}1 #{dog.bark}" # => Dog1 barks loudly
puts "#{small_dog}2 #{small_dog.bark}" # => Dog2 barks quietly
```



# Summary

- ✧ **Class inheritance** lets you **override** parent's behavior
- ✧ Class methods **do not** need an instance of object in order to be **called**
- ✧ Class variables begin with `@@`

What's next?

- ✧ Modules



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Modules
  - As Namespaces
  - As Mixins
- ✧ Using built-in Ruby modules, especially **Enumerable**
- ✧ **require\_relative**



# Module

- ✧ **Container** for classes, methods and constants
  - Or other **modules**...
- ✧ Like a **Class**, but cannot be **instantiated**
  - **Class** inherits from **Module** and adds **new**



# Module

- ✧ Serves **two** main purposes:
  1. Namespace
  2. Mix-in



# Module as Namespace

```
module Sports
  class Match
    attr_accessor :score
  end
end

module Patterns
  class Match
    attr_accessor :complete
  end
end

match1 = Sports::Match.new
match1.score = 45; puts match1.score # => 45

match2 = Patterns::Match.new
match2.complete = true; puts match2.complete # => true
```

Note the use of :: operator



# Module as Mixin

- ❖ Interfaces in **OO**
  - **Contract** - define what a class “**could**” do
- ❖ Mixins provide a way to **share** (mix-in) ready code among **multiple classes**

You can include built-in modules like `Enumerable` that can do the hard work for you!



# Module as Mixin

```
module SayMyName
  attr_accessor :name
  def print_name
    puts "Name: #{@name}"
  end
end

class Person
  include SayMyName
end
class Company
  include SayMyName
end

person = Person.new
person.name = "Joe"
person.print_name # => Name: Joe
company = Company.new
company.name = "Google & Microsoft LLC"
company.print_name # => Name: Google & Microsoft LLC
```



# Enumerable Module

- ✧ `map`, `select`, `reject`, `detect` etc.
- ✧ Used by `Array` class and **many others**
- ✧ You can **include it** in your **own class**
- ✧ Provide an **implementation** for `each` method

All the other functionality of Enumerable is  
magically available to you!



# Player

```
# name of file - player.rb
class Player

    attr_reader :name, :age, :skill_level

    def initialize (name, age, skill_level)
        @name = name
        @age = age
        @skill_level = skill_level
    end

    def to_s
        "<#{name}: #{skill_level}(SL), #{age}(AGE)>"
    end
end
```



# Team



```
# team.rb
class Team
  include Enumerable # LOTS of functionality

  attr_accessor :name, :players
  def initialize (name)
    @name = name
    @players = []
  end
  def add_players (*players) # splat
    @players += players
  end
  def to_s
    "#{@name} team: #{@players.join(", ")}"
  end
  def each ←
    @players.each { |player| yield player }
  end
end
```



# Enumerable in Action

require\_relative allows importing other .rb files!!!

```
require_relative 'player'  
require_relative 'team'  
  
player1 = Player.new("Bob", 13, 5); player2 = Player.new("Jim", 15, 4.5)  
player3 = Player.new("Mike", 21, 5) ; player4 = Player.new("Joe", 14, 5)  
player5 = Player.new("Scott", 16, 3)  
  
red_team = Team.new("Red")  
red_team.add_players(player1, player2, player3, player4, player5) # (splat)  
  
# select only players between 14 and 20 and reject any player below 4.5 skill-level  
elig_players = red_team.select { |player| (14..20) === player.age }  
                  .reject { |player| player.skill_level < 4.5}  
puts elig_players # => <Jim: 4.5(SL), 15(AGE)>  
                  # => <Joe: 5(SL), 14(AGE)>
```



# Summary

- ✧ Modules allow you to “**mixin**” useful code into other **classes**
- ✧ `require_relative` is useful for **including other ruby files** relative to the **current ruby code**

What's next?

- ✧ Scope



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ **Scope** of variables
- ✧ **Constants**
- ✧ How the **scope** works with **blocks**



# Scope

- ✧ Methods and classes begin **new scope** for variables
- ✧ Outer scope variables **do not** get carried over to the inner scope
- ✧ Use **local\_variables** method to see which variables are in (and which are not in) the current scope



# Scope

```
v1 = "outside"

class MyClass
  def my_method
    # p v1 EXCEPTION THROWN - no such variable exists
    v1 = "inside"
    p v1
    p local_variables
  end
end

p v1 # => outside
obj = MyClass.new
obj.my_method # => inside
| | | | # => [:v1]
p local_variables # => [:v1, :obj]
p self # => main
```



# Scope: Constants

- ✧ **Constant** is any reference that begins with **uppercase**, including classes and modules
- ✧ Constants' scope rules are **different** than variable scope rules
- ✧ Inner scope **can see** constants defined in outer scope and **can also override** outer constants
  - Value remains **unchanged** outside!



# Scope - Constant

```
module Test
  PI = 3.14
  class Test2
    def what_is_pi
      puts PI
    end
  end
end
Test::Test2.new.what_is_pi # => 3.14
```

```
module MyModule
  MyConstant = 'Outer Constant'
  class MyClass
    puts MyConstant # => Outer Constant
    MyConstant = 'Inner Constant'
    puts MyConstant # => Inner Constant
  end
  puts MyConstant # => Outer Constant
end
```

Remains unchanged outside



# Scope: Block

- ❖ Blocks **inherit** outer scope
- ❖ Block is a **closure**
  - **Remembers** the context in which it was defined and **uses** that context whenever it is called



# Scope - Block

```
class BankAccount
  attr_accessor :id, :amount
  def initialize(id, amount)
    @id = id
    @amount = amount
  end
end

acct1 = BankAccount.new(123, 200)
acct2 = BankAccount.new(321, 100)
acct3 = BankAccount.new(421, -100)
accts = [acct1, acct2, acct3]

total_sum = 0
accts.each do |eachAcct|
  total_sum += eachAcct.amount
end

puts total_sum # => 200
```

Same scope



# Block – Local Scope

- ✧ Even though blocks **share** the outer scope – a variable created inside the block is **only available** to the block
- ✧ **Parameters** to the block are **always local** to the block – **even if** they have the **same name** as variables in the outer scope
- ✧ Can **explicitly declare** block-local variables after a **semicolon** in the block parameter list



# Block: Local Scope

```
arr = [5, 4, 1]
cur_number = 10
arr.each do |cur_number|
  some_var = 10 # NOT available outside the block
  print cur_number.to_s + " " # => 5 4 1
end
puts # print a blank line
puts cur_number # => 10
```

```
adjustment = 5
arr.each do |cur_number;adjustment|
  adjustment = 10
  print "#{cur_number + adjustment} " # => 15 14 11
end
puts
puts adjustment # => 5 (Not affected by the block)
```



# Summary

- ✧ Methods and classes **start** a new scope
- ✧ Constants **Maintain** scope
- ✧ Blocks **Inherit** outer scope
  - Could be **overridden**

What's next?

- ✧ Access Control



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ **Three levels** of access control
- ✧ **Controlling** access
- ✧ How **private** is private access?



# Access Control

- ✧ When **designing** your class – **important** to think about **how much** of it you will be **exposing** to the world
- ✧ **Encapsulation**: try to hide the **internal representation** of the object so you **can change it** later
- ✧ **Three** levels: **public**, **protected** and **private**



# Encapsulation

```
class Car
  def initialize(speed, comfort)
    @rating = speed * comfort
  end

  # Can't SET rating from outside
  def rating
    @rating
  end
end

puts Car.new(4, 5).rating # => 20
```

Details of how rating is calculated  
are kept inside the class



# Specifying Access Control

- ✧ Two ways to **specify** access control:
  1. **Specify** **public**, **protected** or **private**
    - **Everything** until the **next access control keyword** will be of that access control level
  2. **Define** the methods regularly and then specify **public**, **private**, **protected** access levels and **list** the comma-separated methods **under** those levels using **method symbols**



# Specifying Access Control

```
class MyAlgorithm
  private
    def test1
      "Private"
    end
  protected
    def test2
      "Protected"
    end
  public
    def public_again
      "Public"
    end
end
```

```
class Another
  def test1
    "Private, as declared later on"
  end
  private :test1
end
```



# Access Control

- ✧ **public** methods – **no** access control is enforced
  - **Anybody** can call these methods
- ✧ **protected** methods – **can be invoked** by the objects of the defining class or its subclasses
- ✧ **private** methods – **cannot be invoked** with an explicit receiver
  - **Exception:** Setting an attribute can be invoked with an explicit receiver



# Private Access

```
class Person
  def initialize(age)
    self.age = age # LEGAL - EXCEPTION
    puts my_age
    # puts self.my_age # ILLEGAL
    # ... # CANNOT USE self or any other receiver
  end

  private
  def my_age
    @age
  end
  def age=(age)
    @age = age
  end
end

Person.new(25) # => 25
```



# Summary

- ✧ **public** and **private** access controls used the **most**
- ✧ **private** methods are **not callable** from outside or inside the class with an explicit receiver

## What's next?

- Introduction to Unit Testing



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Unit testing



# Why Write Tests?

- ✧ How do you know that your code **works**?
  - You really have **no idea** until you **run it**...
- ✧ How do you **refactor with confidence** that you didn't **break anything**?
- ✧ Serves as **documentation** for developers



# Enter Test::Unit

- ✧ Ruby takes testing **very seriously** and ships with Test::Unit
- ✧ In Ruby 1.8 – Test::Unit was **bloated with extra libraries** that included unnecessary code
- ✧ Ruby 1.9 **stripped** Test::Unit to a minimum

(The new framework is officially called **MiniTest**, but it's a **drop-in replacement**, so **no changes are required** to Test::Unit code)



# Enter Test::Unit

- ✧ Member of the **XUnit** family (JUnit, CppUnit)
- ✧ **Basic Idea** – extend `Test::Unit::TestCase`
- ✧ Prefix method names with `test_`
- ✧ If one of the methods **fails** – others **keep going** (this is a good thing)
- ✧ Can use `setup()` and `teardown()` methods for setting up behavior that will execute before **every** test method



# calculator.rb

```
class Calculator

  attr_reader :name

  def initialize(name)
    @name = name
  end

  def add(one, two)
    one + two
  end

  def subtract(one, two)
    one - two
  end

  def divide(one, two)
    one / two
  end
end
```



## FOLDERS

▼ Lecture15-IntroToTe  
  calculator.rb  
  calculator\_test.rb

calculator\_test.rb \*  
1 require 'test/unit'  
2 require\_relative 'calculator'  
3  
4 class CalculatorTest < Test::Unit::TestCase  
5 def setup  
6 @calc = Calculator.new('test')  
7 end  
8  
9 def test\_addition  
10 assert\_equal 4, @calc.add(2, 2)  
11 end  
12  
13 def test\_subtraction  
14 assert\_equal 2, @calc.subtract(4, 2)  
15 end  
16  
17 def test\_division  
18 assert\_equal 2, @calc.divide(4, 2)  
19 end  
20 end



```
~/coursera/code-module2/Lecture15-IntroToTesting$ ruby calculator_test.rb
Loaded suite calculator_test
Started
F

Failure: test_addition(CalculatorTest)
calculator_test.rb:10:in `test_addition'
 7:   end
 8:
 9:   def test_addition
=> 10:     assert_equal 4, @calc.add(2, 2)
 11:   end
 12:
 13:   def test_subtraction
<4> expected but was
<0>

.F

Failure: test_subtraction(CalculatorTest)
calculator_test.rb:14:in `test_subtraction'
 11:   end
 12:
 13:   def test_subtraction
=> 14:     assert_equal 2, @calc.subtract(4, 2)
 15:   end
 16:
 17:   def test_division
<2> expected but was
<6>

Finished in 0.006305 seconds.

-----  

3 tests, 3 assertions, 2 failures, 0 errors, 0 pending, 0 omissions, 0 notifications
33.3333% passed
-----  

475.81 tests/s, 475.81 assertions/s
```



# Testing Failures

The screenshot shows a code editor interface with two tabs: 'calculator\_test.rb' and 'calculator.rb'. The left pane displays a file tree for 'Lecture15-IntroToT' containing 'calculator.rb' and 'calculator\_test.rb'. The right pane shows the content of 'calculator\_test.rb'.

```
calculator_test.rb      *   calculator.rb      *
1  require 'test/unit'
2  require_relative 'calculator'
3
4  class CalculatorTest < Test::Unit::TestCase
5    def setup
6      @calc = Calculator.new('test')
7    end
8
9    def test_divide_by_zero
10       assert_raise ZeroDivisionError do
11         @calc.divide(1, 0)
12       end
13     end
14   end
```

Below the code editor, the terminal output is displayed:

```
Loaded suite /Users/kalmanhazins/coursera/code-module2/Lecture15-IntroToTesting/calculator_test
Started
.
Finished in 0.000514 seconds.
-----
1 tests, 1 assertions, 0 failures, 0 errors, 0 pendings, 0 omissions, 0 notifications
100% passed
```



# Summary

- ✧ Assertions allow you to exercise your code
- ✧ Unit tests give you confidence to restructure/refactor your code

**What's Next?**

RSpec



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

✧ RSpec



# Testing With RSpec

- ❖ **Test::Unit** “does the job”, but it would be nice if tests would be more **descriptive**, more **English-like**
- ❖ The **writing** of the tests is more **intuitive** as well as the **output** from running the tests



# Installing RSpec

```
~/coursera/code-module2/Lecture16-RSpec$ gem install rspec
Fetching: rspec-3.3.0.gem (100%)
Successfully installed rspec-3.3.0
Parsing documentation for rspec-3.3.0
Installing ri documentation for rspec-3.3.0
Done installing documentation for rspec after 0 seconds
1 gem installed
~/coursera/code-module2/Lecture16-RSpec$ rspec --init
  create  .rspec
  create  spec/spec_helper.rb
```

Creates a spec directory where “specs” go



# describe()

- ❖ Set of **related tests** (a.k.a. *example group*)
- ❖ Takes either a **String** or **Class** as argument
- ❖ All specs **must be inside a describe block**
- ❖ No class to subclass
  - Unlike Test::Unit which always subclasses TestCase class



# before() and after() methods

- ❖ `before()` and `after()` methods are similar to `setup()` and `teardown()` in MiniTest
- ❖ Can pass in either `:each` or `:all` (infrequently used) to **specify** whether the block will run **before/after each test** or **once before/after all tests**
- ❖ `before :all` **could be useful**, if for example you only want to connect to DB once



# it() method

- ❖ Used to define the **actual** RSpec specifications/examples
- ❖ Takes an **optional string** that **describes the behavior** being tested



# calculator.rb

```
class Calculator

  attr_reader :name

  def initialize(name)
    @name = name
  end

  def add(one, two)
    one + two
  end

  def subtract(one, two)
    one - two
  end

  def divide(one, two)
    one / two
  end
end
```



# calculator\_spec.rb

FOLDERS

- Lecture16-RSpec
- spec
  - calculator\_spec.rb
  - spec\_helper.rb
- .rspec
- calculator.rb

```
calculator_spec.rb  *
```

```
1 require 'rspec'
2 require_relative '../calculator'
3
4 describe Calculator do
5   before { @calculator = Calculator.new('RSpec calculator') }
6
7   it "should add 2 numbers correctly" do
8     expect(@calculator.add(2, 2)).to eq 4
9   end
10
11  it "should subtract 2 numbers correctly" do
12    expect(@calculator.subtract(4, 2)).to eq 2
13  end
14 end
```



# Output

```
~/coursera/code-module2/Lecture16-RSpec$ rspec
FF

Failures:

1) Calculator should add 2 numbers correctly
Failure/Error: expect(@calculator.add(2, 2)).to eq 4

  expected: 4
  got: 0

  (compared using ==)
# ./spec/calculator_spec.rb:8:in `block (2 levels) in <top (required)>'

2) Calculator should subtract 2 numbers correctly
Failure/Error: expect(@calculator.subtract(4, 2)).to eq 2

  expected: 2
  got: 6

  (compared using ==)
# ./spec/calculator_spec.rb:12:in `block (2 levels) in <top (required)>'

Finished in 0.02073 seconds (files took 0.08271 seconds to load)
2 examples, 2 failures

Failed examples:

rspec ./spec/calculator_spec.rb:7 # Calculator should add 2 numbers correctly
rspec ./spec/calculator_spec.rb:11 # Calculator should subtract 2 numbers correctly
```



# Summary

- ✧ RSpec makes testing more intuitive

**What's next?**

- ✧ RSpec Matchers



# In this lecture, we will discuss...

- ✧ Rspec Matchers



# Rspec Matchers

- ❖ RSpec “hangs” `to` and `not_to` methods on **all outcome of expectations**
- ❖ `to()/not_to()` methods take **one parameter** – a **matcher**
- ❖ Matcher examples:
  - `be_true / be_false`
  - `eq 3`
  - `raise_error(SomeError)`



# Be\_predicate – boolean

- ✧ If the **object** on which the **test is operating** has a **predicate (boolean) method** – you **automatically** get a **be\_predicate** matcher
- ✧ So, for example **be\_nil** is a **valid matcher** since every Ruby object has a :nil? method

```
it "should sum two odd numbers and become even" do
  expect(@calculator.add(3, 3)).to be_even
  expect(@calculator.add(3, 3)).not_to be_odd
end
```



# Be\_predicate – boolean

```
~/coursera/code-module2/Lecture16-RSpec$ rspec
```

```
...
```

```
Finished in 0.00169 seconds (files took 0.08464 seconds to load)
```

```
3 examples, 0 failures
```

```
~/coursera/code-module2/Lecture16-RSpec$ rspec --format documentation
```

```
Calculator
```

```
should add 2 numbers correctly
```

```
should subtract 2 numbers correctly
```

```
should sum two odd numbers and become even
```

```
Finished in 0.00187 seconds (files took 0.08772 seconds to load)
```

```
3 examples, 0 failures
```



# More Matchers

The screenshot shows a web browser displaying the Relish documentation for RSpec Expectations 3.3. The URL in the address bar is <https://relishapp.com/rspec/rspec-expectations/docs/built-in-matchers>. The page has a green header with the Relish logo, navigation links for 'Public projects' and 'Plans & pricing', and 'Sign up' and 'Sign in' buttons. Below the header, it says 'Publisher: RSpec' and 'Project: RSpec Expectations 3.3'. A 'Change version' dropdown is also present. On the left, there's a sidebar with a 'feedback' button and a 'Browse documentation' link. The main content area is titled 'Built in matchers' and contains a list of matcher types: Equality matchers, Comparison matchers, Predicate matchers, Type matchers, `all` matcher, `be` matchers, `be\_within` matcher, `change` matcher, `contain\_exactly` matcher, and `cover` matcher. To the right of the list, there's a detailed description of built-in matchers, mentioning the `expect(...).to` and `expect(...).not\_to` syntaxes, and examples of code using `eq`, `not\_to be\_empty`, and `should be > 3`.

Publisher: RSpec

Project: RSpec Expectations 3.3

Browse documentation

Change version

**Built in matchers**

- > Equality matchers
- > Comparison matchers
- > Predicate matchers
- > Type matchers
- > `all` matcher
- > `be` matchers
- > `be\_within` matcher
- > `change` matcher
- > `contain\_exactly` matcher
- > `cover` matcher

rspec-expectations ships with a number of built-in matchers. Each matcher can be used with `expect(...).to` or `expect(...).not_to` to define positive and negative expectations respectively on an object. Most matchers can also be accessed using the `(...).should` and `(...).should_not` syntax; see [using should syntax](#) for why we recommend using `expect`.

e.g.

```
expect(result).to eq(3)
expect(list).not_to be_empty
pi.should be > 3
```



# Summary

- ✧ RSpec has a lot of built-in matchers readily available for simplifying writing tests

## What's next?

- ✧ Module 3: Introduction to Ruby on Rails

