A Look at Ruby

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William Mitchell (whm) Mitchell Software Engineering (.com)

A Look at Ruby William H. Mitchell, whm@msweng.com

Introduction

What is Ruby?

Running Ruby

Everything is an object

Variables have no type

Ruby's philosophy is often "Why not?"

What is Ruby?

"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." — ruby-lang.org

Ruby is commonly described as an "object-oriented scripting language".

Ruby was invented by Yukihiro Matsumoto ("Matz"), a "Japanese amateur language designer" (his words). Here is a second-hand summary of a posting by Matz:

"Well, Ruby was born on February 24, 1993. I was talking with my colleague about the possibility of an object-oriented scripting language. I knew Perl (Perl4, not Perl5), but I didn't like it really, because it had smell of toy language (it still has). The object-oriented scripting language seemed very promising." http://www.rubygarden.org/faq/entry/show/5

Another quote from Matz:

"I believe that the purpose of life is, at least in part, to be happy. Based on this belief, Ruby is designed to make programming not only easy but also fun. It allows you to concentrate on the creative side of programming, with less stress. If you don't believe me, read this book and try Ruby. I'm sure you'll find out for yourself."

What is Ruby?

Ruby is a language in flux.

- Version 1.8.5 is the stable, recommended version. Version 1.9 is available.
- There is no written standard for Ruby. The language is effectively defined by MRI—Matz' Ruby Implementation.

Ruby is getting a lot of attention and press at the moment. Two popular topics:

- Ruby on Rails, a web application framework.
- JRuby, a 100% pure-Java implementation of Ruby. With JRuby, among other things, you can use Java classes in Ruby programs. (jruby.codehaus.org)

Running Ruby

One way to execute Ruby code is with irb, the Interactive Ruby Shell.

irb evaluates expressions as are they typed.

Running Ruby, continued

Source code in a file can be executed with the ruby command.

By convention, Ruby files have the suffix .rb.

Here is "Hello" in Ruby:

% cat hello.rb puts "Hello, world!"

% **ruby hello.rb** Hello, world! %

Note that the code does not need to be enclosed in a method—"top level" expressions are evaluated when encountered. (Later we'll see how to enclose code in a method.)

Existing Ruby implementations have no notion of compilation to a binary. There are no "executables", intermediate code files, etc.

Everything is an object

In Ruby, every value is an object.

Methods are invoked using value.method(parameters...).

```
>> "testing".index("i")
=> 4
>> "testing".slice(2,3)
=> "sti"
```

Parentheses can be omitted from an argument list:

```
>> "testing".gsub /[aeiou]/, "-"
=> "t-st-ng"
```

If a method requires no parameters the parameter list can be omitted.

```
>> "testing".length
=> 7
```

Everything is an object, continued

Of course, "everything" includes numbers:

- >> 7.class => Fixnum
- >> **1.2.class** => Float
- >> **(30-40).abs** => 10
- >> Math.exp(1).to_s
- => "2.71828182845905"
- >> 17**50
- => 33300140732146818380750772381422989832214186835186851059977249
- >> it.class => Bignum

Variables have no type

In languages like C and Java, variables are declared to have a type. The compiler ensures that all operations are valid for the types involved.

Variables in Ruby do not have a type. Instead, type is associated with values.

>> x = 10	=> 10
>> x = "ten"	=> "ten"
>> x.class	=> String
>> x = x.length	=> 3

Here's another way to think about this: Every variable can hold a reference to an object. Because every value is an object, any variable can hold any value.

Variables have no type, continued

It is often said that Java uses *static typing*. Ruby, like most scripting languages, uses *dynamic typing*.

Sometimes the term *strong typing* is used to characterize languages like Java and *weak typing* is used to characterize languages like Ruby but those terms are now often debated and perhaps best avoided.

Another way to describe a language's type-checking mechanism is based on *when* the checking is done. Java uses *compile-time type checking*. Ruby uses *run-time type checking*.

Some statically-typed languages do some type checking at run-time. An example of a runtime type error is Java's ClassCastException. C does absolutely no type-checking at runtime. Ruby does absolutely no type-checking at compile-time.

Variables have no type, continued

In a statically typed language a number of constraints can be checked at compile time. For example, all of the following can be verified when a C# program is compiled:

x.getValue()	x must have a getValue method
x * y	x and y must be of compatible types for *
x.f(1,2,3)	x.f must accept three integer parameters

In contrast, a typical compiler for a dynamically typed language does not attempt to verify any of the above when the code is compiled.

For years it has been widely held in industry that static typing is a must for reliable systems but a shift in thinking is underway. It is increasingly believed that good test coverage can produce equally reliable software.¹

¹ Here's one discussion: http://www.artima.com/weblogs/viewpost.jsp?thread=4639

Ruby's philosophy is often "Why not?"

When designing a language, some designers ask, "Why should feature X be included?" Some designers ask the opposite: "Why should feature X *not* be included?"

Ruby's philosophy is often "Why not?" Here are some examples, involving overloaded operators:

```
>> "abc" * 5
=> "abcabcabcabcabc"
>> [1,2,3] + [] + [4,5,6] + [7]
=> [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]
>> [1, 3, 15, 1, 2, 1, 3, 7] & [4, 3, 2, 1]
=> [1, 3, 2]
>> [10, 20, 30] * "..."
=> "10...20...30"
>> "decimal: %d, octal: %o, hex: %x" % [20, 20, 20]
=> "decimal: %d, octal: %o, hex: %x" % [20, 20, 20]
```

=> "decimal: 20, octal: 24, hex: 14"

Building blocks

nil

Strings

Numbers

Arrays

The value nil

nil is Ruby's "no value" value. The name nil references the only instance of the class NilClass.

>> nil	=> nil
>> nil.class	=> NilClass
>> nil.object_id	=> 4

We'll see that Ruby uses nil in a variety of ways.

Strings

Instances of Ruby's String class are used to represent character strings.

One way to specify a literal string is with double quotes. A number of escapes are available.

>> "newline: \012, escape: \x1b, return: \cm"
=> "newline: \n, escape: \e, return: \r"

In a string literal using apostrophes only \' and \\ are recognized as escapes:

>> '\n\'\t'.length Five characters: backslash, n, apostrophe, backslash, t
=> 5

An even more literal form is provided by %q{ ... }

>> %q{ just testin' this! ~@\$%^&*()"[]<>,.} => " just testin' this! ~@\$%^&*()\"[]<>,."

There's a fourth way, too, similar to "here documents" in UNIX shells.

How many ways to do something is too many?

The public_methods method shows the public methods that are available for an object. Here are some of the methods for String:

>> "abc".public_methods.sort

=> ["%", "*", "+", "<", "<<", "<=", "<=>", "==", "==", "=~", ">", ">", ">=", "[]", "[]", "[]=", "__id__", "__send__", "all?", "any?", "between?", "capitalize", "capitalize!", "casecmp", "center", "chomp", "chomp!", "chop", "chop!", "class", "clone", "collect", "concat", "count", "crypt", "delete", "delete!", "detect", "display", "downcase", "downcase!", "dump", "dup", "each", "each_byte", "each_line", "each_with_index", "empty?", "entries", "eql?", "equal?", "extend", "find", "find_all", "freeze", "frozen?", "gem", "grep", "gsub", "gsub!", "hash", "hex", "id", "include?", "index", "inject", "insert", "instance_variable_set", "instance_of?", "instance_variable_get", "ljust", "lstrip", "lstrip!", "map", "match", "max", "member?", "method", "methods","min", "next", "next!", "nil?", "object_id", "oct", "partition", "private_methods", "protected_methods", "public_methods", "reject", "replace", "require", "scan", "select", "send", ...

>> "abc".public_methods.length => 145

Unlike Java, C#, and many other languages, *strings in Ruby are mutable*. If two variables reference a string and the string is changed, the change is reflected by *both* variables:

>> x = "testing" => "testing"	
>> y = x => "testing"	x and y now reference the same instance of String .
>> x.upcase!	Convention: If there are both applicative and imperative forms of a method, the name of the imperative form ends with an exclamation.
=> "TESTING"	method, the name of the imperative form ends with an exclamation.
>> y => "TESTING"	

Some objects that hold strings make a copy of the string when the string is added to the object.

Strings can be compared with a typical set of operators:

>> "apple" == "ap" + "ple"	=> true
>> "apples" != "oranges"	=> true
>> "apples" >= "oranges"	=> false

There is also a "general" comparison operator. It produces -1, 0, or 1 depending on whether the first operand is less than, equal to, or greater than the second operand.

>> "apple" <=> "testing"	=> -1
>> "testing" <=> "apple"	=> 1
>> " x " <=> "x"	=> 0

A individual character can be fetched from a string but note that the result is an integer character code (an instance of Fixnum), **not** a one-character string:

>> s = "abc"	=> "abc"	
>> s[0]	=> 97	The ASCII code for 'a'
>> s[1]	=> 98	
>> s[-1]	=> 99	-1 is the last character, -2 is next to last, etc.
>> s[100]	=> nil	

A subscripted string can be the target of an assignment.

>> s = "abc"	=> "abc"
>> s[0] = 65	=> 65
>> s[1] = "tomi"	=> "tomi"
>> s	=> "Atomic"

The numeric code for a character can be obtained by preceding the character with a question mark:

>> s[0] = ?B	=> 66
>> s	=> "Btomic"

A substring can be referenced in several ways.

>> s = "replace"	=> "replace"	
>> s[2,3]	=> "pla"	Start at 2, length of 3.
>> s[2,1]	=> "p"	Remember that s[n] yields a number, not a string.
>> s[21]	=> "place"	21 creates a Range object.
>> s[10,10]	=> nil	
>> s[-4,3]	=> "lac"	

Speculate: What does s[1,100] produce? How about s[-1,-3]?

A substring can be the target of assignment:

>> s = "replace"	=> "replace"
>> s[0,2] = ""	=> ""
>> s	=> "place"
>> s[31] = "naria"	=> "naria"
>> s	=> "planaria"

If a string is the subscript it specifies the first occurrence of that string.

```
>> s["aria"] = "kton" => "kton"
>> s => "plankton"
```

Speculate: What does s["xyz"] = "abc" produce?

In a string literal enclosed with double quotes the sequence #{*expr*} causes interpolation of *expr*, an arbitrary Ruby expression.

>> s = "2 + 2 = #{2 + 2}" => "2 + 2 = 4"

```
>> s = "String methods: #{"abc".methods}".length
=> 896
```

The << operator appends to a string (imperatively!) and produces the new string.

```
>> s = "just" => "just"
>> s << "testing" << "this" => "justtestingthis"
```

Speculate: What's the result of "a" << "b"?

Numbers

On most machines, integers in the range -2^{30} to 2^{30} -1 are represented by instances of Fixnum. Integers outside that range are represented with a Bignum.

>> x = 2**30-1	=> 1073741823	The exponentiation operator is **
>> x.class	=> Fixnum	
>> x += 1	=> 1073741824	
>> x.class	=> Bignum	
>> x -= 1	=> 1073741823	
>> x.class	=> Fixnum	

Unlike many scripting languages, Ruby does not automatically convert between strings and numbers when needed.

>> **10 + "20"** TypeError: String can't be coerced into Fixnum

Numbers, continued

Instances of Float represent floating point numbers that can be represented by a doubleprecision floating point number on the host architecture.

>> x = 123.456	=> 123.456
>> x.class	=> Float
>> x ** 0.5	=> 11.1110755554987
>> x * 2e-3	=> 0.246912
>> x = x / 0.0	=> Infinity
>> (0.0/0.0).nan?	=> true

Fixnums and Floats can be mixed. The result is a Float.

Other numeric classes in Ruby include BigDecimal, Complex, Rational and Matrix.

Arrays

A Ruby Array is an ordered sequence of values.¹

An array can be created by enclosing a comma-separated sequence of values in square brackets:

>> **a1 = [10, 20, 30]** => [10, 20, 30]

Arrays can hold values of any type. Cyclic structures are permitted.

¹The speaker often makes the mistake of saying "list" instead of "array".

Arrays, continued

Array elements and subarrays (sometimes called *slices*) are specified with the same notation that is used for string subscripting.

>> a = [1, "two", 3.0, %w{a b c d}]	%w{ } creates an array of strings.
=> [1, "two", 3.0, ["a", "b", "c", "d"]]	

- >> a[0] => 1
- >> a[1,2] => ["two", 3.0]
- >> a[-1][-2] => "C"
- >> a[-1][-2][0] => 99

Arrays, continued

Elements and subarrays can be assigned to. Ruby accommodates a variety of cases; here are some:

>> a = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60] => [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60] >> a[1] = "twenty"; a Note: Semicolon separates expressions; a's value is shown. => [10, "twenty", 30, 40, 50, 60] >> a[2..4] = %w{a b c d e}; a => [10, "twenty", "a", "b", "c", "d", "e", 60] >> a[1..-1] = []; a => [10] >> a[0] = [1,2,3]; a => [[1, 2, 3]] >> a[10] = [5,6]; a

Arrays, continued

A number of methods are available for arrays:

>> [].methods.sort

=> ["&", "*", "+", "-", "<<", "<=>", "==", "==", "=~", "[]", "[]=", "__id___", "__send___", "all?", "any?", "assoc", "at", "class", "clear", "clone", "collect", "collect!", "compact", "compact!", "concat", "delete", "delete_at", "delete_if", "detect", "display", "dup", "each", "each_index", "each_with_index", "empty?", "entries", "eql?", "equal?", "extend", " fetch", "fill", "find", "find_all", "first", "flatten", "flatten!", "freeze", "frozen?", "gem", "grep", "hash", "id", "include?", "index", "indexes", "indices", "inject", "insert", "instance_eval", "instance_of?", "instance_variable_get", "instance_variable_set", "instance_of?", "method", "methods", "min", "nil?", "nitems", "object_id", "oid", "pack", "partition", "pop", "private_methods", "require", "require_gem", "respond_to?", "reverse", "reverse!", "reverse_each", "sort!", "sort_by", "taint", "tainted?", "to_a", "to_ary", "to_s", "transpose", "type","uniq", "uniq!", "unshift", "untaint", "values_at", "zip", "[]

>> it.length

=> 122

Control structures

The while loop

Logical operators

if-then-else

if and unless as modifiers

The for loop

The while loop

Here is a loop that prints the numbers from 1 through 10:

i = 1
while i <= 10 do "do" is optional
 puts i
 i += 1
end "end" is required, even if only one statement in body</pre>

When i <= 10 produces false, control branches to the code following end.

while, continued

In Java, control structures like if, while, and for are driven by the result of expressions that produce a value whose type is boolean.

C has a more flexible view: control structures consider any non-zero integer value to be "true".

In Ruby, any value that is not false or nil is considered to be "true".

Consider this loop, which reads lines from standard input using gets.

while line = gets puts line end

Problem: Given that gets returns nil at end of file, explain how the loop works.

while, continued

The string returned by gets has a trailing newline. String's chomp method can be used to remove it.

Here's a program that is intended to "flatten" its input to a single line:

```
result = ""
while line = gets.chomp
result += line
end
```

puts result

Why doesn't it work?

Problem: Write a while loop that prints the characters in the string s, one per line. Don't use the length method of String.¹

¹ I bet some of you get this wrong the first time, like I did!

Logical operators

Conjunction in Ruby is **&&**, just like the C family, but the semantics are different:

>> true && false	=> false
>> true && "abc"	=> "abc"
>> true && false	=> false
>> false && nil	=> false

The disjunction operator is two "or bars":

>> false 2	=> 2
>> "abc" "xyz"	=> "abc"
>> s[0] s[3]	=> 97
>> s[4] false	=> false

Challenge: Describe the rule that governs the result of conjunction and disjunction.

Logical operators, continued

Ruby has compound (augmented) assignment, just like the C family. With that in mind, what is the meaning of the following expression?

x ||= 20
The if-then-else expression

Ruby's if-then-else is an expression, not a statement:

```
>> if 1 < 2 then "three" else [4] end
=> "three"
>> if 10 < 2 then "three" else [4] end
=> [4]
>> if 0 then "three" else [4] end
=> "three"
```

Speculate: What will 'if 1 > 2 then 3 end' produce?

Ruby also provides x > y? 1 : 2 (a ternary conditional operator) just like the C family. Is that a good thing or bad thing?

if and unless as modifiers

Conditional execution can be indicated by using if and unless as modifiers.

```
>> total, count = 123.4, 5
>> printf("average = %g\n", total / count) if count != 0
average = 24.68
=> nil
>> total, count = 123.4, 0
>> printf("average = %g\n", total / count) unless count == 0
```

=> nil

The general forms are:

```
expression1 if expression2
expression1 unless expression2
```

Question: What does 'x.f if x' mean?

The for loop

Here are three simple examples of Ruby's for loop:

```
for i in 1..100 do
    sum += i
end
for i in [10,20,30] do
    sum += i
end
for method_name in "x".methods do
    puts method_name if method_name.include? "!"
end
```

The "in" expression must be an object that has an each method. In the first case, the "in" expression is a Range. In the latter two it is an Array.

Other flow control mechanisms

Ruby also has:

An elsif clause

break, next, redo, retry

A case expression that has two forms

Freestanding Methods

Basics

Where's the class?

Duck typing

Method definition

Here is a Ruby version of a simple method:

```
def double(x)
return x * 2
end
```

The keyword **def** indicates that a method definition follows. Next is the method name. The parameter list follows.

If the end of a method is reached without encountering a **return**, the value of the last expression becomes the return value. Here is an equivalent definition:

```
def double x
x * 2
end
```

If no arguments are required, the parameter list can be omitted

```
def hello
puts "Hello, world!"
end
```

If double is a method, where's the class?

You may have noticed that even though we claim to be defining a method named double, there's no class in sight.

In Ruby, methods can be added to a class at run-time. A freestanding method defined in irb or found in a file is associated with an object referred to as "main", an instance of Object. At the top level, the name **self** references that object.

```
>> [self.class, self.to_s]
=> [Object, "main"]  # The class of self and a string representation of it.
>> methods_b4 = self.methods
=> ["methods", "popb", ...lots more...]
>> def double(x); x * 2 end
=> nil
>> self.methods - methods_b4
=> ["double"]
```

We can see that self has one more method (double) after double is defined.

Domain and range in Ruby

For reference:

```
def double(x)
x * 2
end
```

For the C family analog of **double** the domain and range are the integers.

What is the domain and range of double in Ruby?

Duck typing

For reference:

```
def double(x)
x * 2
end
```

In computer science literature a routine such as **double** is said to be *polymorphic*—it can operate on data of more than one form.

In the Ruby community it is said that double uses "duck typing".

The term "duck typing" comes from the "duck test": If it walks like a duck and quacks like a duck, it must be a duck.

What's the "duck test" for x in the routine above?

Duck typing, continued

Imagine a method polysum(A) that produces a "sum" of the values in the array A:

>> polysum([1,3,5])	=> 9	
>> polysum([1.1,3.3,5.5])	=> 9.9	
>> polysum(["one", "two"])	=> "onetwo"	
>> polysum([["one"], [2,3,4], [[1],[110]]]) => ["one", 2, 3, 4, [1], [110]]		

What's the duck test for polysum?

Write polysum!

Iterators and blocks

Using iterators and blocks

Iterate with each or use a for loop?

Creating iterators

Iterators and blocks

Some methods are *iterators*. An iterator that is implemented by the Array class is each. each iterates over the elements of the array. Example:

>> x = [10,20,30]
=> [10, 20, 30]
>> x.each { puts "element" }
element
element
=> [10, 20, 30]

The construct { puts "element" } is a *block*. Array#each invokes the block once for each of the elements of the array.

Because there are three values in x, the block is invoked three times and "element" is printed three times.

Iterators and blocks, continued

Iterators can pass one or more values to a block as arguments. Array#each passes each array element in turn.

A block can access arguments by naming them with a parameter list, a comma-separated sequence of identifiers enclosed in vertical bars.

We might print the values in an array like this:

```
>> [10, "twenty", 30].each { |e| printf("element: %s\n", e) }
element: 10
element: twenty
element: 30
```

Sidebar: Iterate with each or use a for loop?

The for loop requires the result of the "in" expression to have an each method. Thus, we always have a choice between a for loop,

for name in "x".methods do puts name if name.include? "!" end

and iteration with each,

"x".methods.each {|name| puts name if name.include? "!" }

Which is better?

Iterators and blocks, continued

The iterator **Array#each** is commonly used to create side effects of interest, like printing values or changing variables. In contrast, the "work" of some iterators is to produce a value.

```
>> [10, "twenty", 30].map { |v| v * 2 }
=> [20, "twentytwenty", 60]
>> [[1,2], "a", [3], "four"].select { |v| v.size == 1 }
=> ["a", [3]]
>> ["burger", "fries", "shake"].sort { |a,b| a[-1] <=> b[-1] } Like C's qsort...
=> ["shake", "burger", "fries"]
>> [10, 20, 30].inject(0) { |sum, i| sum + i }
=> 60
>> [10,20,30].inject([]) { |thusFar, element| thusFar + [ element, "---"] }
=> [10, "---", 20, "---", 30, "---"]
```

The computation performed by inject is known in functional programming literature as "folding".

Challenge: Perform mapping and selection using inject.

Iterators and blocks, continued

Many classes have iterators. Here are some examples:

```
>> 3.times { |i| puts i }
0
1
2
=> 3
>> "abc".each_byte { |b| puts b }
97
98
99
>> (1..50).inject(1) { |product, i| product * i }
```

=> 30414093201713378043612608166064768844377641568960512000000000000

To print every line in the file x.txt, we might do this:

IO.foreach("x.txt") { |line| puts line }

Blocks and iterators, continued

As you'd expect, blocks can be nested. Here is a program that reads lines from standard input, assumes the lines consist of integers separated by spaces, and averages the values.

total = n = 0 STDIN.readlines().each { line	% cat nums.dat 5 10 0 50
line.split(" ").each { word total += word.to_i n += 1 } }	200 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 % ruby sumnums.rb < nums.dat Total = 320, n = 15, Average = 21.3333

printf("Total = %d, n = %d, Average = %g\n", total, n, total / n.to_f) if n != 0

Notes:

- STDIN represents "standard input". It is an instance of IO.
- STDIN.readlines reads standard input to EOF and returns an array of the lines read.
- The printf format specifier %g indicates to format the value as a floating point number and select the better of fixed point or exponential form based on the value.

Some details on blocks

An alternative to enclosing a block in braces is to use do/end:

a.each do [element] printf("element: %s\n", element) end

Scoping issues with blocks:

- If a variable is created in a block, the scope of the variable is limited to the block.
- If a variable already exists, a reference to it in a block is resolved to the existing instance.
- It's said that this behavior may change with Ruby 2.0.

Creating iterators with yield

In Ruby, an iterator is "a method that invokes a block".

The yield expression invokes the block associated with the current method invocation.

Here is a simple, chatty iterator that yields two values, a 3 and a 7:

def simple() puts "simple: Starting up"	Usage:
yield 3	>> simple() { x printf("\tx = %d\n", x) }
puts "simple: More computing" yield 7	simple: Starting up x = 3 simple: More computing
puts "simple: Out of values" "simple result" end	<pre>x = 7 simple: Out of values => "simple result"</pre>

Notice how the flow of control alternates between the iterator and the block.

To some extent, a block can be thought of as an anonymous function; yield can be thought of as a call to that function.

yield, continued

Recall that Array#select produces the elements for which the block returns true:

```
>> [[1,2], "a", [3], "four"].select { |v| v.size == 1 }
=> ["a", [3]]
```

Speculate: How is the code in **select** accessing the result of the block?

yield, continued

The last expression in a block becomes the value of the yield that invoked the block.

Here is a function-like implementation of **select**:

```
def select(enumerable)
  result = [ ]
  enumerable.each {
        |element|
        if yield element then
           result << element
        end
      }
    return result
end</pre>
```

Usage:

```
>> select([[1,2], "a", [3], "four"]) { |v| v.size == 1 }
=> ["a", [3]]
```

A Look at Ruby William H. Mitchell, whm@msweng.com

Class definition

Counter: A tally counter

An interesting thing about instance variables

Addition of methods

An interesting thing about class definitions

Sidebar: Fun with eval

Class variables and methods

A little bit on access control

Getters and setters

A tally counter

Imagine a class named **Counter** that models a tally counter.

Here's how we might create and interact with an instance of **Counter**:

c1 = Counter.	new
c1.click	
c1.click puts c1 c1.reset	# Output: Counter's count is 2

c2 = Counter.new "c2" c2.click puts c2 # Output: c2's count is 1

c2.click printf("c2 = %d\n", c2.count) # Output: c2 = 2



Here is a partial implementation of Counter:

```
class Counter
def initialize(label = "Counter")
@count = 0
@label = label
end
end
```

The reserved word **class** begins a class definition; a corresponding **end** terminates it. A class name must begin with a capital letter.

The name initialize identifies the method as the constructor.

c1 = Counter.new

c2 = Counter.new "c2"

If no argument is supplied to new, the default value of "Counter" is used.

For reference:

```
class Counter
def initialize(label = "Counter")
@count = 0
@label = label
end
end
```

The constructor initializes two instance variables: @count and @label.

Instance variables are identified by prefixing them with @.

An instance variable comes into existence when a value is assigned to it.

Each object has its own copy of instance variables.

Unlike variables local to a method, instance variables have a default value of nil.

For reference:

```
class Counter
def initialize(label = "Counter")
@count = 0
@label = label
end
end
```

When irb displays an object, the instance variables are shown:

```
>> a = Counter.new "a"
=> #<Counter:0x2c61eb4 @label="a", @count=0>
```

>> b = Counter.new
=> #<Counter:0x2c4da04 @label="Counter", @count=0>

Here's the full source:

```
class Counter
  def initialize(label = "Counter")
     @count = 0; @label = label
  end
  def click
    @count += 1
  end
  def reset
    @count = 0
  end
  def count
                   # Note the convention: count, not get_count
     @count
  end
  def to s
    return "#{@label}'s count is #{@count}"
  end
end
```

Common error: Omitting the @ on a reference to an instance variable.

An interesting thing about instance variables

Consider this class:

```
class X
def initialize(n)
case n
when 1 then @x = 1
when 2 then @y = 1
when 3 then @x = @y = 1
end
end
```

What's interesting about the following?

>> X.new 1	=> # <x:0x2c26a44 @x="1"></x:0x2c26a44>
>> X.new 2	=> # <x:0x2c257d4 @y="1"></x:0x2c257d4>
>> X.new 3	=> # <x:0x2c24578 @x="1," @y="1"></x:0x2c24578>

Addition of methods

In Ruby, a method can be added to a class without changing the source code for the class. In the example below we add a label method to Counter, to fetch the value of the instance variable @label.

>> c = Counter.new "ctr 1"
=> #<Counter:0x2c26bac @label="ctr 1", @count=0>

>> c.label

NoMethodError: undefined method `label' for #<Counter @label="ctr 1", @count=0>

>> class Counter

- >> def label
- >> @label
- >> end
- >> end

=> nil

>> c.label

=> "ctr 1"

What are the implications of this capability?

Addition of methods, continued

We can add methods to built-in classes!

```
class Fixnum
       def rand
             raise ArgumentError if self < 1
             Kernel.rand(self)+1
       end
     end
     class String
       def rand
             raise ArgumentError if size == 0
             self[self.size.rand-1,1]
          end
     end
Usage:
     >> (1..10).collect { 5.rand }
                                                    => [3, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2, 2, 5, 2, 4]
```

>> (1..20).collect { "ATCG".rand }.to_s

```
=> "CAGACAATGCTCCATCACAG"
```

An interesting thing about class definitions

Observe the following. What does it suggest to you?

```
>> class X
>> end
=> nil
>> p (class X; end)
nil
=> nil
>> class X; puts "here"; end
here
```

=> nil

Class definitions are executable code

In fact, a class definition is executable code. Consider the following, which uses a case statement to selectively execute **defs** for methods.

```
class X
  print "What methods would you like? "
  gets.split.each { |m|
    case m
    when "f" then def f; "from f" end
    when "g" then def g; "from g" end
    when "h" then def h; "from h" end
    end
    }
end
```

Execution:

```
What methods would you like? f g

>> c = X.new => #<X:0x2c2b224>

>> c.f => "from f"

>> c.h

NoMethodError: undefined method `h' for #<X:0x2c2b224>
```

pickms.rb

Sidebar: Fun with eval

Kernel#eval parses a string containing Ruby source code and executes it.

>> s = "abc"	=> "abc"
>> n = 3	=> 3
>> eval "x = s * n"	=> "abcabcabc"
>> X	=> "abcabcabc"
>> eval "x[22].length"	=> 6
>> eval gets s.reverse	
	=> "cba"

Look carefully at the above. Note that **eval** uses variables from the current environment and that an assignment to x is reflected in the environment.

Bottom line: A Ruby program can generate easily code for itself.

Sidebar, continued

Problem: Create a file new_method.rb with a class X that prompts the user for a method name, parameters, and method body. It then creates that method. Repeat.

>> load "new_method.rb"
What method would you like? add
Parameters? a, b
What shall it do? a + b
Method add(a, b) added to class X

What method would you like? **last** Parameters? **a** What shall it do? **a[-1]** Method last(a) added to class X

What method would you like? ^D

- >> **c = X.new** => #<X:0x2c2980c>
- >> c.add(3,4) => 7
- >> c.last [1,2,3] => 3

Sidebar, continued

```
Solution:
```

```
class X
  while true
     print "What method would you like? "
     name = gets || break
     name.chomp!
     print "Parameters? "
     params = gets.chomp
     print "What shall it do? "
     body = gets.chomp
    code = "def #{name} #{params}; #{body}; end"
    eval(code)
     print("Method #{name}(#{params}) added to class #{self}\n\n");
  end
end
```

Is this a useful capability or simply fun to play with?
Getters and setters

If Counter were in Java, we might provide methods like void setCount(int n) and int getCount().

In Counter we provide a method called count to fetch the count.

Instead of something like **setCount**, we'd do this:

```
def count= n  # Note the trailing '='
    print("count=(#{n}) called\n")
    @count = n unless n < 0
end</pre>
```

Usage:

>> c = Counter.new	=> # <counter:0x2c94094 ,="" @count="0" @label="Counter"></counter:0x2c94094>
>> c.count = 10 count=(10) called	
>> c	=> # <counter:0x2c94094 ,="" @count="10" @label="Counter"></counter:0x2c94094>

Getters and setters, continued

Here's class to represent points on a 2d Cartesian plane:

```
class Point
    def initialize(x, y)
        @x = x
        @y = y
        end
        def x; @x end
        def y; @y end
    end
Usage:
    >> p1 = Point.new(3,4) => #<Point:0x2c72c78 @x=3, @y=4>
```

>> [p1.x, p1.y] => [3, 4]

It can be tedious and error prone to write a number of simple getter methods, like Point#x and Point#y.

Getters and setters, continued

The method attr_reader creates getter methods. Here's an equivalent definition of Point:

```
class Point
  def initialize(x, y)
    @x = x
    @y = y
    end
    attr_reader :x, :y  # :x and :y are Symbols. (But "x" and "y" work, too!)
end
```

Usage:

>> **p = Point.new(3,4)** => #<Point:0x2c25478 @x=3, @y=4>

- >> **p.x** => 3
- >> **p.y** => 4
- >> **p.x = 10** NoMethodError: undefined method `x=' for #<Point:0x2c29924 @y=4, @x=3>

Why does p.x = 10 fail?

A Look at Ruby William H. Mitchell, whm@msweng.com

Operator overloading

Operators as methods

Overloading in other languages

Overloading in Ruby

Mutability, and monkeying with math

Operators as methods

It is possible to express most operators as method calls. Here are some examples:

>> 3.+(4)	=> 7
>> "abc".* 2	=> "abcabc"
>> "testing".[](2)	=> 115
>> "testing".[](2,3)	=> "sti"
>> 10.==20	=> false

In general, expr1 op expr2 can be written as expr1.op expr2

Unary operators require a little more syntax:

>> 5.-@() => -5

Operator overloading in other languages

In most languages at least a few operators are "overloaded"—an operator stands for more than one operation.

Examples:

- C: + is used to express addition of integers, floating point numbers, and pointer/integer pairs.
- Java: + is used to express numeric addition and string concatenation.
- Icon: *x produces the number of... characters in a string values in a list key/value pairs in a table results a "co-expression" has produced and more...

As a simple vehicle to study overloading in Ruby, imagine a dimensions-only rectangle:

```
class Rectangle
  def initialize(w,h); @width = w; @height =h; end
  def area; @width * @height; end
  attr_reader :width, :height
    def inspect
        "%g x %g Rectangle" % [@width, @height]
        end
        end
end
Usage:
    >> r = Rectangle.new(3,4) => 3 x 4 Rectangle
        >> r.area => 12
```

>> r.width => 3

Let's imagine that we can compute the "sum" of two rectangles:

>> a = Rectangle.new(3,4)	=> 3 x 4 Rectangle
>> b = Rectangle.new(5,6)	=> 5 x 6 Rectangle
>> a + b	=> 8 x 10 Rectangle
>> c = a + b + b	=> 13 x 16 Rectangle
>> (a + b + c).area	=> 546

As shown above, what does Rectangle + Rectangle mean?

Our vision:

```
>> a = Rectangle.new(3,4) => 3 x 4 Rectangle
>> b = Rectangle.new(5,6) => 5 x 6 Rectangle
>> a + b => 8 x 10 Rectangle
```

Here's how to make it so:

```
class Rectangle
def + rhs
Rectangle.new(self.width + rhs.width, self.height + rhs.height)
end
end
```

Remember that **a** + **b** is equivalent to **a**.+(**b**). We are invoking the method "+" on **a** and passing it **b** as a parameter. The parameter name, **rhs**, stands for "right-hand side".

Imagine a case where it is useful to reference width and height uniformly, via subscripts:

>> a = Rectangle.new(3,4)	=> 3 x 4 Rectangle
>> a[0]	=> 3
>> a[1]	=> 4
>> a[2]	ArgumentError: out of bounds

Recall that **a**[**0**] is **a**.[](**0**).

Implementation:

def [] n case n when 0 then width when 1 then height else raise ArgumentError.new("out of bounds") Raises an exception end end

Mutability, and monkeying with math

The ability to define meaning for operations like **Rectangle + Rectangle** leads us to say that Ruby is *extensible*.

But Ruby is not only extensible, it is also *mutable*—we can change the meaning of standard operations.

For example, if we wanted to be sure that a program never used integer addition or negation, we could do this:

```
class Fixnum

def + x

raise "boom!"

end

def -@

raise "boom!"

end

end
```

In contrast, C++ is extensible, but not mutable. In C++, for example, you can define the meaning of **Rectangle *** int but you can't change the meaning of integer addition, as we do above.

Inheritance

Inheritance in Ruby

Java vs. Ruby

Modules and mixins

Inheritance in Ruby

A simple example of inheritance can be seen with clocks and alarm clocks. An alarm clock is a clock with a little bit more. Here are trivial models of them in Ruby:

class Clock def initialize time @time = time end attr_reader :time end	class AlarmClock < Clock attr_accessor :alarm_time def initialize time super(time) end def on; @on = true end
	def off; @on = false end
	end

The less-than symbol specifies that AlarmClock is a subclass of Clock.

Just like Java, a call to super is used to pass arguments to the superclass constructor.

Ruby supports only single inheritance but "mixins" provide a solution for most situations where multiple inheritance is useful. (More on mixins later.)

Inheritance, continued

Usage is not much of a surprise:

>> c = Clock.new("12:00")	=> # <clock @time="12:00"></clock>
>> c.time	=> "12:00"
>> ac = AlarmClock.new("12:00")	=> # <alarmclock @time="12:00"></alarmclock>
>> ac.time	=> "12:00"
>> ac.alarm_time = "8:00"	=> "8:00"
>> ac.on	=> true

>> ac

=> #<AlarmClock:0x2c30c38 @on=true, @time="12:00", @alarm_time="8:00">

Note that AlarmClock's @on and @alarm_time attributes do not appear until they are set.

To keep things simple, times are represented with strings.

Inheritance, continued

The method alarm_battery creates a "battery" of num_clocks AlarmClocks. The first is set for whenn. The others are set for intervals of interval minutes.

Usage:

```
>> battery = alarm_battery("8:00", 10, 5) => Array with ten AlarmClocks
>> battery.size => 10
>> p battery[2]
#<AlarmClock:0x2c19d94 @alarm_time="8:10", @time="22:06">
```

Modules

A Ruby module can be used to group related methods for organizational purposes.

Imagine a collection of methods to comfort a homesick ML programmer at Camp Ruby:

```
module ML
  def ML.hd a
                         # Get the "head" (first element) of array a
     a[0]
  end
  def ML.drop a, n
                         # Return a copy of a with the first n elements removed
     a[n..-1]
  end
  ...more...
end
>> a = [10, "twenty", 30, 40.0]
                                   => [10, "twenty", 30, 40.0]
>> ML.hd(a)
                                   => 10
>> ML.drop(a, 2)
                                   => [30, 40.0]
>> ML.tl(ML.tl(ML.tl(a)))
                                   => [40.0]
```

Modules as "mixins"

In addition to providing a way to group related methods, a module can be "included" in a class. When a module is used in this way it is called a "mixin" because it mixes additional functionality into a class.

Here is a revised version of the ML module:

```
module ML
def hd; self[0]; end
def tl; self[1..-1]; end
def drop n; self[n..-1]; end
def take n; self[0,n]; end
end
```

Note that these methods have one less parameter, operating on self instead of the parameter

 <u>a</u>. For comparison, here's the first version of tl: def ML.tl a a[1..-1] end

Mixins, continued

We can mix our ML methods into the Array class like this:

class Array include ML end

After loading the above code, we can use those ML methods on arrays:

>> ints = (110).to_a	=> [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
>> ints.hd	=> 1
>> ints.tl	=> [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
>> ints.drop 3	=> [4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

This is another example of duck typing. What's the duck test here?

How could we add these same capabilities to the String class?

Mixins, continued

An include is all we need to add the same capabilities to String:

class String include ML end	
>> s = "testing"	=> "testing"
>> s.tl	=> "esting"
>> s.hd	=> 116
>> s.drop 5	=> "ng"

Could we do something like this in C# or Java?

In addition to the include mechanism, what other aspect of Ruby facilitates mixins?

Mixins, continued

The Ruby library makes extensive use of mixins.

The class method **ancestors** can be used to see the superclasses and modules that contribute methods to a class:

>> Array.ancestors	=> [Array, Enumerable, Object, Kernel]	
>> Fixnum.ancestors => [Fixnum, Integer, Precision, Numeric, Comparable, Object, Kernel]		
The method included_modules shows the modules that a class includes.		
>> Array.included_modu	ules => [Enumerable, Kernel]	

>> Fixnum.included_modules => [Precision, Comparable, Kernel]

The Enumerable module

Here are the methods in Enumerable:

>> Enumerable.instance_methods.sort

=> ["all?", "any?", "collect", "detect", "each_with_index", "entries", "find", "find_all", "grep", "include?", "inject", "map", "max", "member?", "min", "partition", "reject", "select", "sort", "sort_by", "to_a", "zip"]

All of these methods are written in terms of a single method, each, which is an iterator.

If class implements each and includes Enumerable then all those 22 methods become available to instances of the class.

In other words, if the object has an each method, the object is a duck!

The Enumerable module, continued

Because an instance of Array is an Enumerable, we can apply iterators in Enumerable to arrays:

Enumerable, continued

Here's a class whose instances simply hold three values:

```
class Trio
include Enumerable
def initialize(a,b,c); @values = [a,b,c]; end
def each
@values.each {|v| yield v }
end
end
```

Because Trio includes Enumerable, and provides each, we can do a lot with it:

>> t = Trio.new(10,"twenty",30)	=> # <trio "twenty",="" 30]="" @values="[10,"></trio>
>> t.member?(30)	=> true
>> t.map { e e * 2 }	=> [20, "twentytwenty", 60]
>> t.partition { e e.is_a? Numeric	c } => [[10, 30], ["twenty"]]

The Comparable module

Another common mixin is Comparable. These methods,

```
>> Comparable.instance_methods
=> ["==", ">=", "<", "<=", "between?", ">"]
```

```
are implemented in terms of <=>.
```

Let's compare rectangles on the basis of areas:

```
class Rectangle
include Comparable
def <=> rhs
diff = self.area - rhs.area
case
when diff < 0 then -1
when diff > 0 then 1
else 0
end
end
end
```

Comparable, continued

Usage:

>> r1 = Rectangle.new(3,4)	=> 3 x 4 Rectangle
>> r2 = Rectangle.new(5,2)	=> 5 x 2 Rectangle
>> r3 = Rectangle.new(2,2)	=> 2 x 2 Rectangle
>> r1 < r2	=> false
>> [r1,r2,r3].sort	=> [2 x 2 Rectangle, 5 x 2 Rectangle, 3 x 4 Rectangle]
>> [r1,r2,r3].min	=> 2 x 2 Rectangle
>> r2.between?(r1,r3)	=> false
>> r2.between?(r3,r1)	

Odds and Ends

Word tallying

Time totaling

A JRuby program

Graphics with Tk

What we didn't cover

Learning more about Ruby

Simple application: Word tallying

Imagine a program that tallies occurrences of words found on standard input:

```
% ruby tally.rb
to be or not to be
is not to be discussed
^{\rm Z}
Word
                  Count
                       3
to
                       3
be
                       2
not
                       1
or
discussed
                       1
is
                       1
```

This is a natural for implementation with Ruby's Hash class, which is a classic data structure known by many names, including associative array, dictionary, map, and table.

A hash holds a collection of key/value pairs. In principle any object whatsoever may be a key but Ruby has difficulties in some unusual cases. For example, using a cyclic array as a key causes a stack overflow.

Word tallying, continued

A note about the sort:

Without the block, counts.sort would return an array like this: [[k1,v1], [k2, v2], ...] with the pairs ordered by their respective keys, in ascending order.

An invocation of the block might have a = ["to", 3] and b = ["not", 2]. The comparison produces a result that effects a sorted order by descending count.

Simple application: Time totaling

Consider an application that reads elapsed times on standard input and prints their total:

% **ttl.rb** 3h 15m 4:30 ^D 7:45

Times in an unexpected format are ignored:

```
% ruby ttl.rb
10
What's 10? Ignored...
2:90
What's 2:90? Ignored...
```

Time totaling, continued

A solution using regular expressions:

```
def main
    mins = 0
    while line = gets do
        mins += parse_time(line.chomp)
    end
    printf("%d:%02d\n", mins / 60, mins % 60)
end

def parse_time(s)
    case
    when s =~ /^(\d+):([0-5]\d)$/
    $1.to_i * 60 + $2.to_i
    when s =~ /^(\d+)([hm])$/
    if $2 == "h" then $1.to_i * 60
        else $1.to_i end
```

else

```
print("What's #{s}? Ignored...\n"); 0
end
end
```

```
main
```

```
An example of JRuby
```

```
require 'java'
                                                # swing2.rb from the JRuby samples
include class "java.awt.event.ActionListener"
include class ["JButton", "JFrame", "JLabel", "JOptionPane"]
               .map {|e| "javax.swing." + e}
frame = JFrame.new("Hello Swing")
button = JButton.new("Klick Me!")
class ClickAction < ActionListener
     def actionPerformed(evt)
       JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(nil,
          "<html>Hello from <b><u>JRuby</u></b>.<br>" +
          "Button '#{evt.getActionCommand()}' clicked.")
     end
end
button.addActionListener(ClickAction.new)
```

```
frame.getContentPane().add(button) # Add the button to the frame
```

```
frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame::EXIT_ON_CLOSE) # Show frame
frame.pack(); frame.setVisible(true)
```

Ruby graphics with Tk

```
class Circle
                                                                        tkpulse.rb
  SZ = 200
  def initialize(canvas, x, y)
    @canvas = canvas; @inc = 1; @ux = x - SZ/2; @uy = y - SZ/2
    @lx = @ux + SZ; @ly = @uy + SZ
    @oval = TkcOval.new(@canvas, @ux, @uy, @lx, @ly)
    tick
  end
  def tick
    @inc *= -1 if @ux >= @lx or (@ux - @lx).abs > SZ
    @ux += @inc; @uy += @inc; @lx -= @inc; @ly -= @inc
    @oval.coords(@ux, @uy, @lx, @ly)
    @canvas.after(10) { tick }
  end
end
$canvas = TkCanvas.new { width 700; height 500; pack }
$canvas.bind("1", lambda {|e| do press(e.x, e.y)})
```

```
def do_press(x, y); Circle.new($canvas, x, y); end
Tk.mainloop()
```

What we didn't cover

It's possible to make good use of Ruby with only minimal knowledge of it but it's a big language overall. Here are some of the things that were barely mentioned, or not mentioned at all:

- Hashes
- Regular expressions
- The Proc and Kernel classes
- IDEs and debugging tools
- Reflection and metaprogramming
- Threads
- Exceptions
- Tainted data
- Hooks
- RDoc
- Extending Ruby with C
- Libraries for lots of interesting things
- The rake build tool

Learn more about Ruby

- The Ruby home page is ruby-lang.org.
- *Programming Ruby—The Pragmatic Programmers' Guide, 2nd edition,* by Dave Thomas with Chad Fowler and Andy Hunt, also known as the "pickaxe book", is widely recognized as being the best book on Ruby at present.

The first edition is available for free: www.ruby-doc.org/docs/ProgrammingRuby

- *Ruby Cookbook*, by Lucas Carlson and Leonard Richardson, is packed full of small but practical examples of using Ruby in a wide variety of settings.
- *Agile Web Development with Rails, 2nd edition*, by Dave Thomas et al. is commonly recommended if you're interested in learning about Ruby on Rails. It assumes knowledge of Ruby.
- The ruby-lang channel on irc.freenode.net is pretty good for live Q&A.
- Mitchell Software Engineering offers Ruby training tailored to suit your needs.