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Introduction



Hello World

```
_ <- fat.std  
console.log('Hello World')
```

Quick Start

Jump straight into the docs:

- [General overview](#)
- [Language syntax](#)
- [Standard libraries](#)

Fry Interpreter

For local execution, use the fry interpreter. It's free and open source! You can find the code, examples, and more on our [GitLab repository](#).

For details on its installation and usage, refer to the [setup](#) section.

Web Playground

For quick and convenient testing, run your code directly in the [FatScript Playground](#). The playground features a web-based REPL with an intuitive interface that allows you to load scripts from a file, facilitating swift experimentation.

Tutorials

Dive into our immersive tutorials, behind-the-scenes insights, and surrounding topics in the [FatScript YouTube channel](#).

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- [FatScript v4.1.0 \(current\)](#)
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General overview

FatScript is a lightweight, interpreted programming language designed for building console-based applications. It emphasizes simplicity, ease of use, and functional programming concepts.

But, wait...

FatScript, a **lightweight** programming language?

Yes, there's something odd about that statement... but please let me explain.

The expression "syntactic sugar" refers to features that make code easier to write by hiding underlying complexity. And, as with consuming too much sugar... there can be consequences: fatness. Which, in this sense, it's a good thing - a lot of weight in few lines of code.

That said, FatScript is still a relatively new language, and although it's designed to be simple and intuitive, it may not be the best fit for all tasks, especially when it comes to high-performance computing or extremely complex workloads. However, despite its name, FatScript's interpreter is tiny (lightweight), with a near-zero startup cost and [benchmarking](#) shows it performing comparably to languages like Python or JavaScript.

So while calling it "lightweight" might be debatable, the language runtime is not inherently bloated and maintains an efficient profile in practice for most use cases.

Key Concepts

- Automatic memory management through garbage collection (GC)
- Symbolic character combinations for a minimalistic syntax
- REPL (Read-Eval-Print Loop) for quick expression testing
- Support for type system, inheritance, and sub-typing via aliases
- Support for immutable programming and passable methods (as values)
- Keep it simple and intuitive, whenever possible

Free and open-source

`fatscript/fry` is an open-source project that encourages knowledge sharing and collaboration. We welcome developers to [contribute](#) to the project and help us improve it over time.

Contents of this section

- [Setup](#): how to install the FatScript interpreter
- [Options](#): how to customize the runtime
- [Bundling](#): how to pack a FatScript application
- [Tooling](#): overview of a few extra tools and resources

Setup

To start "frying" your fat code, you'll need an interpreter for the FatScript programming language.

fry, The FatScript Interpreter

[fy](#) is a free interpreter and runtime environment for FatScript. You can install it on your machine using the following instructions.

Installation

fry is designed for GNU/Linux, but it might also work on [other operating systems](#).

For Arch-based distributions, install via [fatscript-fry](#) AUR package.

For other distributions, try the auto-install script:

```
curl -sSL https://gitlab.com/fatscript/fry/raw/main/get_fry.sh -o get_fry.sh;
bash get_fry.sh || sudo bash get_fry.sh
```

Or, to install fry manually:

- Clone the repository:

```
git clone --recursive https://gitlab.com/fatscript/fry.git
```

- Then, run the installation script:

```
cd fry
./install.sh
```

the manual installation may copy the fry binary to the \$HOME/.local/bin folder, alternatively use sudo to install it to /usr/local/bin/

- Verify that fry is installed by running:

```
fry --version
```

Dependencies

If the installation fails, you may be missing some dependencies. fry requires git, gcc and libcurl to build. For example, to install these dependencies on Debian/Ubuntu, run:

```
apt update
apt install git gcc libcurl4-openssl-dev
```

Back-end for text input

linenoise is a lightweight dependency and an alternative to readline, maintained as a submodule. If it was not included during the initial git clone operation, you can rectify this with the following commands:

```
git submodule init
git submodule update
```

If you prefer to link against readline, just ensure it is installed by running:

```
apt install libreadline-dev
```

OS Support

fry is primarily designed for GNU/Linux, but it's also accessible on other operating systems:

Android

If you're on Android, you can install fry via [Termux](#). Just install the required dependencies like so:

Setup

```
pkg install git clang
```

Then you can follow the standard installation instructions for `fry`.

ChromeOS

If you're using ChromeOS, you can enable Linux support by following the instructions [here](#).

MacOS

If you're using MacOS, you'll need to have [Command Line Tools](#) installed.

iOS

If you're using iOS, you may use `fry` via [iSH](#). First, install the required dependencies:

```
apk add bash gcc libc-dev curl-dev
```

Then, according to [this thread](#), configure `git` to work properly, like so:

```
wget https://dl-cdn.alpinelinux.org/alpine/v3.11/main/x86/git-2.24.4-r0.apk
apk add ./git-2.24.4-r0.apk
git config --global pack.threads "1"
```

Windows

If you're using Windows, you can use `fry` via [Windows Subsystem for Linux \(WSL\)](#).

Docker image

`fry` is also available as a [docker image](#):

```
docker run --rm -it fatscript/fry
```

To execute a FatScript file with docker, use the following command:

```
docker run --rm -it -v ~/project:/app fatscript/fry prog.fat
```

replace `~/project` with the path to your FatScript file

Troubleshooting

If you encounter any issues or bugs while using `fry`, please [open an issue](#).

Options

With this breakdown of the available modes and parameters you will find out that `fry` has got several spices under the hood for you to better season your runtime.

Command-line arguments

The CLI front-end offers some modes of operation:

- `fry [OPTIONS]` read-eval-print-loop (REPL)
- `fry [OPTIONS] FILE [ARGS]` execute a FatScript file
- `fry [OPTIONS] -b/-o OUT IN` create a bundle
- `fry [OPTIONS] -f FILE...` format FatScript source files

Here are the available option parameters:

- `-a, --ast` print abstract syntax tree only
- `-b, --bundle` save bundle to outfile
- `-c, --clock` time and benchmark logs (toggle)
- `-d, --debug` enable debug logs (implies `-c`)
- `-e, --error` continue on error (toggle)
- `-f, --format` indent FatScript source files
- `-h, --help` show this help and exit
- `-i, --interactive` enable REPL with file execution
- `-j, --jail` restrict FS, network and sys calls
- `-k, --stack #` set stack depth (frame count)
- `-m, --meta` show info about this build
- `-n, --nodes #` set memory limit (node count)
- `-o, --obfuscate` encode bundle (implies `-b`)
- `-p, --probe` perform static analysis (dry run)
- `-s, --save` store REPL session to `repl.fat`
- `-v, --version` show version number and exit
- `-w, --warranty` show disclaimer and exit

the `-e` option is auto-enabled with REPL and probe modes

combining `-p` with `-f` sends formatted result to stdout

combining `-p` with `-b` prints code analysis when bundling

Memory management

`fry` manages memory automatically without pre-reservation. You can limit memory usage by specifying the number of nodes with CLI options:

- `-n <count>` for an exact node count
- `-n <count>k` for kilonodes, `count * 1000`
- `-n <count>m` for meganodes, `count * 1000000`

For example, `fry -n 5k mySweetProgram.fat` restricts the app to 5000 nodes.

The garbage collector (GC) runs automatically with growth-based heuristic to control memory usage. You can also invoke the GC at any time by calling the `runGC` method of [SDK lib](#) from the main thread.

Bytes estimate (x64)

Each node on a 64-bit platform uses approximately ~200 bytes. The actual node size depends on the data it holds. For example, the default limit is 10 million nodes, your program can use up to 2 GB of RAM when reaching the default limit.

Use the `-c` or `--clock` option to print the execution stats to have a better understanding of how your program is behaving in practice.

Runtime verification

Options

There are two [embedded commands](#) for checking memory usage at runtime:

- `$nodesUsage` currently allocated nodes
- `$bytesUsage` maximum allocated bytes (`ru_maxrss`)

Stack size

The maximum stack depth is defined in `parameters.h`, however you may be able to customize the stack size up to a certain point using CLI options:

- `-k <count>` for an exact frame count
- `-k <count>k` for kiloframes, `count * 1000`

Run commands file

On bootstrap, `fry` looks for a `.fryrc` file on the same path of the program file and, if not present, also on the current directory. If found, it is executed as a "precook" phase to set up the environment for the program execution.

Memory management with `.fryrc`

You can use the `.fryrc` file to define the memory limit for your project without needing to specify it as a CLI argument. To do this, you can use the `setMem` method provided by the [SDK lib](#), like this:

```
_ <- fat.sdk
setMem(64000) # sets 64k nodes as memory limit
```

Bootstrap details

CLI options are applied first, except for the memory limit. During the precook phase, `fry` uses the default limit of 10 million nodes, regardless of the CLI option. If you define a memory limit in the `.fryrc` file, that limit takes effect from that point on and overrides the CLI option for the whole execution. If the `.fryrc` file does not set a memory limit, the CLI option takes effect after the precook phase.

The precook scope is invisible by default. After the `.fryrc` file is executed, a fresh scope is provided for your program, which allows you to test your code with a very low limit of nodes when using a `.fryrc` file without affecting the node count. This also prevents the `.fryrc` namespace from clashing with your program's global scope. However, if you want to keep the entries declared in `.fryrc` in the global scope for configuration purposes, you can call the embedded command `$keepDotFry` somewhere in the `.fryrc` file.

Another possible use, other than setting up memory limit, is to pre-load common imports, for example the standard types:

```
$keepDotFry
_ <- fat.type._
```

Sandbox mode

Use the `-j` or `--jail` option to inhibit the following embedded commands:

- `write`, `remove`, and `mkdir` - These commands modify the file system.
- `request` - This command is used for making outbound HTTP requests.
- `send` - This command is used for sending emails via SMTP.
- `loadDLL` - This command loads an external library via `dlopen`.
- `unsafeCStr` and `unsafePeek` - These commands can read from arbitrary memory addresses.
- `shell`, `capture`, `fork`, and `kill` - These commands are involved in starting or stopping arbitrary processes.

See also

- [Embedded commands](#)
- [SDK library](#)

Bundling

Fry offers an integrated bundling tool for FatScript code.

Usage

To bundle your project into a single file starting from the entry point, execute:

```
fry -b sweet mySweetProject.fat
```

Subsequently, you can run your program:

```
./sweet
```

This process does the following:

- Consolidates all imports, except for standard libraries and [literal paths](#)
- Removes spaces and comments to enhance load times
- Replaces any `$break` statements (debugger breakpoint) with `()`
- Adds a [shebang](#) to bundled code
- Receives the execute attribute for file mode

Caveats

Imports are deduplicated and inlined based on their order of first appearance. As a result, the sequence in which you import your files could play a role in the final bundled output. Though these considerations are usually inconsequential for small projects, bundling larger projects may require additional organization. Always validate your bundled output.

Obfuscating

For optional obfuscation, use `-o`:

```
fry -o sweet mySweetProject.fat # creates the obfuscated bundle
./sweet                        # executes your program as usual
```

when distributing via public hosts, consider [setting a custom key](#), with a local `.fryrc`; Only the client should be privy to this key to safeguard the source

Obfuscation leverages [enigma](#) algorithm for encryption, ensuring swift decoding. For optimal load times, prefer `-b` if obfuscation isn't essential.

Tooling

Here are a few hints that can enhance your coding experience with FatScript.

Static analysis

Use the probe mode to check the syntax and receive hints about your code:

```
fry -p mySweetProgram.fat
```

Debugger

A breakpoint, indicated by the command `$break`, serves as a debug tool by temporarily halting the program execution at a designated location and loading the built-in debugging console. It provides an interactive environment for examining the current state of the program by inspecting values in scope, evaluating expressions, and tracing program flow.

To activate breakpoints, it is necessary to run the program with interactive mode enabled:

```
fry -i mySweetProgram.fat
```

In FatScript, `$break` returns `null`, which can alter a return value if placed at the end of a block, due to the [auto-return](#) feature. Be cautious with `$break` placement to avoid unintended effects on program functionality. Alternatively, use `tap` as follows (line) `<< -> $break` on the return line.

Package manager

`chef` is the official package manager for FatScript, designed for easy dependency management.

To install, clone the repository and build `chef`:

```
git clone https://gitlab.com/fatscript/chef.git
cd chef
fry -b $HOME/.local/bin/chef chef.fat
```

For usage instructions and more details, visit the [chef repository](#).

Source code formatting

Built-in support

You can apply auto-indentation to your sources using the following command:

```
fry -f mySweetProgram.fat
```

Visual Studio Code Extension

To add code formatter support to VS Code, you can install the [fatscript-formatter](#) extension. Launch VS Code Quick Open (Ctrl+P), paste the following command, and press enter:

```
ext install aprates.fatscript-formatter
```

`fry` needs to be installed on your system for this extension to work

Syntax highlighting

Visual Studio Code extension

To add FatScript syntax highlighting to VS Code, you can install the [fatscript-syntax](#) extension. Launch VS Code Quick Open (Ctrl+P), paste the following command, and press enter:

```
ext install aprates.fatscript-syntax
```

You can also find and install these extensions from the VS Code Extension Marketplace.

Vim and Neovim plugin

To install FatScript's syntax highlighting for Vim and Neovim, check out the [vim-syntax](#) plugin.

For Neovim users, add the respective line to your configuration:

Using packer.nvim:

```
use { 'https://gitlab.com/fatscript/vim-syntax', as = 'fatscript' }
```

Using lazy.nvim:

```
{ 'https://gitlab.com/fatscript/vim-syntax', name = 'fatscript' }
```

Nano syntax file

To install FatScript's syntax highlighting for nano, follow these steps:

1. Download the `fat.nanorc` file from [here](#).
2. Copy the `fat.nanorc` file to the nano system directory:

```
sudo cp fat.nanorc /usr/share/nano/
```

If the syntax highlighting does not get automatically enabled, you may need to explicitly enable it in your `.nanorc` file. Refer to the instructions in the [Arch Linux Wiki](#) for more information.

After installing the syntax highlighting, you can also use the code formatter in nano with the following shortcut sequence:

- Ctrl+T Execute; and then...
- Ctrl+O Formatter

Syntax

Essential aspects

Imports <-

```
console <- fat.console
```

Values (v)

Value names start with lowercase:

```
name = 'Mary'
age = 25
```

values are constants, unless initially declared with a tilde

Variables ~

```
~ email = 'my@email.com'
~ isOnline = true
```

Lists []

```
list = [ 1, 2, 3 ]
```

```
list(0)      # Outputs 1, read-only
list[0]      # Outputs 1, read/write, in case list can be changed
```

Scopes {}

```
scope = { key1 = 'value1', key2 = 'value2' }

scope.key1   # Outputs 'value1' (dot access)
scope('key1') # Outputs 'value1', read-only (call access)
scope['key1'] # Outputs 'value1', read/write, in case value can be changed
```

Types (T)

Type names start with uppercase:

```
Person = (name: Text, age: Number)
person = Person('Mary', 25)
```

Methods ->

```
greeting = (name: Text): Text -> 'Hello, {name}'
console.log(greeting('World'))
```

methods are also considered values

Nullish coalescence ??

```
maybeValue ?? fallback    # use fallback if maybeValue is null/error
```

If-Else _ ? _ : _

```
condition ? then : else    # if condition is true, then do "then", otherwise "else"
```

Match cases =>

```
condition1 => result1
condition2 => result2
conditionN => resultN
_          => default    # catch-all case
```

Switch >>

```
value >> {
  match1 => result1
  match2 => result2
  matchN => resultN
  -      => default      # catch-all case
}
```

Tap <<

```
expression << tapMethod
```

uses tapMethod only for it's effects on the value returned by expression

Loops @

```
condition @ loopBody          # loop while the condition is true
1..10 @ n -> rangeMapper(n)   # iterate over the range 1 to 10
list @ item -> listMapper(item) # iterate over list items
scope @ key -> scopeMapper(key) # iterate over scope keys
```

Procedures <>

```
~ users = [
  { name = 'Foo', age = 30 }
  { name = 'Bar', age = 28 }
]
userNames = List <> users @ -> _.name
userNames # Outputs ['Foo', 'Bar']
```

Deep dive

In the following pages, you will find information on the central aspects of writing FatScript code, using both the basic language features as well as the advanced type system and standard libraries features.

- [Formatting](#): how to format FatScript code properly
- [Imports](#): how to import libraries into your code
- [Entries](#): understanding the concept of entries and scopes
- [Types](#): a guide to FatScript type system
 - [Any](#) - anything
 - [Void](#) - nothing
 - [Boolean](#) - primitive
 - [Number](#) - primitive
 - [HugeInt](#) - primitive
 - [Text](#) - primitive
 - [Method](#) - function or lambda
 - [List](#) - like array or stack
 - [Scope](#) - like object or dictionary
 - [Error](#) - yes, for errors
 - [Chunk](#) - binary data
- [Flow control](#): controlling the program execution with conditionals
- [Loops](#): making use of ranges, map-over and while loops

Formatting

In FatScript, whitespace and indentation are irrelevant, yet they are very welcome to make the code more readable and easier to understand.

Whitespace

- A newline character (`\n`) indicates the end of an expression, except when:
 - the last token on the line is an operator
 - the first token of the next line is a non-unary operator
 - using parentheses to group expressions
- Expressions can be on the same line if separated by comma (,) or semicolon (;)

Comments

Comments start with #, and are terminated by a newline:

```
a = 5 # this is a comment
```

Note

FatScript does not support multiline comments at the moment. Additionally, text literals may end up as a valid return value if left as the last standing line, due to the [auto-return](#) feature. Therefore, it is recommended to stick to the single line comment format.

See also

- [Source auto-formatter](#)

Imports

Let's unravel the art of importing files and libraries in FatScript! Why? Well, because in this language you can import whenever your heart desires, simply by using a left arrow <-.

Dot syntax

To use imports with dot syntax, project files and folders should neither start with a digit nor contain symbols.

you can specify any path you like by using [literal paths](#)

Named import

To import files, use the `.fat` extension for filenames (or no extension at all). However, omit the extension in the import statement. Here's an example:

```
ref <- filename
```

if both `x` and `x.fat` files exist, the latter takes precedence

For importing files from folders:

```
ref1 <- folder.filename
ref2 <- folder.subfolder.filename
```

To import all files from a folder, use the dot-underscore syntax:

```
lib <- folder._
```

Please note: only files immediately inside the folder are included using the above syntax. To include files from subfolders, explicitly mention them. Additionally, a `_.fat` file (or `_` file) inside a folder can override the dot-underscore import behavior.

slashes `/` can also be used as an alternative, such as `ref <- folder/filename`

Element access

Once imported, access elements using dot syntax:

```
ref1.element1
```

Element extraction

To extract specific elements from a named import or to avoid prepending the module name every time (e.g., `lib.foo`), employ [destructuring assignment](#):

```
{ foo, bar } = lib
```

Visibility

Named imports are resolved at the global scope, irrespective of where they are declared. This means even if you declare a named import inside a function or a local scope, it will be globally accessible.

Local import

To import within the current scope, use:

```
_ <- filename
```

Local imports, unlike named imports, dump the file content directly into the current scope. Thus, an imported method can be invoked as `baz(arg)` rather than `ref.baz(arg)`.

While local imports are best suited for importing [types](#) into the global scope, they should be used with caution when importing library content. Overusing local imports can lead to namespace pollution, which can make it more challenging to follow the code, because it becomes less apparent where the methods come from.

Literal paths

With literal paths, you may use any filename or extension. However, note that those imports are not evaluated during [bundling](#), but at runtime. Here's an example:

```
ref <- '_folder/2nd-source.other'
```

You can also use [smart texts](#) as literal paths:

```
base = 'folder'
file = 'source.xyz'
ref <- '{base}/{file}'
```

Keep in mind that literal paths can make your code more complex, and those imports can only be dynamically resolved, so use them sparingly.

Import deduplication

FatScript utilizes an "import once" strategy with an in-scope flag mechanism, automatically bypassing files that have already been imported.

Pitfalls of import usage

1. **Local imports within method:** Importing directly within a method body re-evaluates the import on every invocation, causing memory retention:

```
myMethod = -> {
  _ <- lib # potential memory leak
  ...
}
```

This behavior is not classified as a bug per se, but rather a consequence of design choices in FatScript's garbage collection (GC) system. The GC's optimizations exclude nodes directly derived from source code, allowing them to evade standard mark-and-sweep procedures. As a result, local imports within methods miss out on deduplication, causing their nodes to remain resident until the program's end.

2. **Selective local imports:** Using destructuring assignment on local imports discards other members, but the whole import is processed and bound to the extracted member context:

```
{ foo1 } = { _ <- lib } # lib is loaded and bound to foo1's context
...
{ foo2 } = { _ <- lib } # lib is loaded again, and bound to foo2
```

This pattern creates a closure. Using it for the same library results in repeated loads, increasing memory usage. For better efficiency, consider importing the library once at the top level and referencing it directly or using selective imports sparingly.

Best Practices

To avoid memory issues, follow these strategies:

- **Move imports to outer scope:** Import libraries at a higher level to ensure single evaluation.
- **Use named imports:** Prefer named imports to reuse code without redundancy.

Entries

Entries are key-value pairs that exist in the scope where they are declared.

Naming

Entry names (keys) **cannot** start with an uppercase letter, which is the distinction compared to [types](#). Identifiers are case-sensitive, so "frenchfries" and "frenchFries" would be considered different entries.

The recommended convention is to use `camelCase` for entries.

you may use an arbitrary name as key by using [dynamic nomination](#)

Declaration and assignment

In FatScript, you can declare entries by simply assigning a value:

```
isOnline: Boolean = true
age: Number      = 25
name: Text       = 'John'
```

Types can also be inferred from assignment:

```
isOnline = true    # Boolean
age      = 25      # Number
name     = 'John'  # Text
```

Immutable entries

In FatScript, declaring an entry defaults it to being immutable, meaning once assigned, its value cannot be changed. This immutability ensures consistency throughout the program's execution:

```
fruit = 'banana'
fruit = 'apple' # raises an error because 'fruit' is immutable
```

Exception to the Rule

The immutability in FatScript applies to the binding of the entry, not to the contents of scopes. Even though an entry is immutable, if it contains a scope, the content of that scope can be modified, either by adding new entries or by modifying mutable entries within the scope:

```
s = { a = 1, b = 2 }
s.c = 3 # even though 's' is immutable it accepts the new value of 'c'
s      # now { a = 1, b = 2, c = 3 }
```

This design choice offers flexibility with scope modifications. In contrast, [lists](#) enforce stricter immutability, preventing the addition of new entries to immutable lists.

Scopes are always passed by reference. To modify a scope's content without altering its original reference, use the `copy` method from the [Scope prototype extension](#) to create a duplicate.

Sealing Scopes

Starting with version 4.x.x, the [Scope prototype extension](#) introduces the `seal` method, allowing you to prevent further modifications to a scope by sealing it. Once sealed, no new entries can be added to the scope, though existing entries can still be modified (if mutable):

```
s = { ~ a = 1, b = 2 }
s.seal # seals the scope
s.c = 3 # raises an error: cannot add new members to a sealed scope
s.a = 42 # allowed: modifies an existing mutable entry
```

Mutable entries

Yes, you can declare mutable entries, also known as variables. To declare a mutable entry, use the tilde `~` operator:

Entries

```
~ fruit = 'banana'
fruit   = 'apple' # ok
```

Note that even a mutable entry cannot immediately change its type, unless it's erased from the scope. To erase an entry, assign null to it, and then redeclare it with a new type. Changing types is discouraged by the syntax and not recommended, but it is possible:

```
~ color = 32 # creates color as a mutable Number entry
color = 'blue' # raises a TypeError because color is a Number
color = null # entry is erased
color = 'blue' # redefines color with a different type (Text)
```

you have to declare the entry as mutable again using tilde ~ when redefining after erasure if you want the next value to be mutable

Dynamic entries

You can create entries with dynamic names using square brackets [ref]:

```
ref = 'popCorn' # text will be the name of the entry

options = { [ ref ] = 'is tasty' }

options[ref] # dynamic syntax: yields 'is tasty', with read and write access
options(ref) # get syntax: yields 'is tasty', but value is read-only
options.popCorn # dot syntax: yields 'is tasty', but has to follow naming rules
```

all dynamic declarations are mutable entries

This feature allows to dynamically define the names inside a scope and create entries with names that otherwise would not be accepted by FatScript.

Dynamic entries can also use numeric references, however the reference is converted into text automatically, e.g.:

```
[ 5 ] = 'text stored in entry 5'
self['5'] # yields 'text stored in entry 5'
self[5] # yields 'text stored in entry 5'
```

Destructuring assignment

You can copy values of a scope into another scope like so:

```
_ <- fat.math
distance = (position: Scope/Number): Number -> {
  { x, y } = position # destructuring assignment into method scope
  sqrt(x ** 2 + y ** 2) # calculates distance between origin and (x, y)
}
distance({ x = 3, y = 5 }) # 5.83095189485
```

The same syntax works similarly for lists:

```
distance = (position: List/Number): Number -> {
  { x, y } = position # extracts first and second items to 'x' and 'y'
  sqrt(x ** 2 + y ** 2)
}
distance([ 3, 5 ]) # 5.83095189485
```

You can also use destructuring assignment to expose a certain method or property from a [named import](#):

```
console <- fat.console
{ log } = console
log('Hello World')
```

using this syntax with imports, you can choose to bring to the current scope only the elements of the library that you are interested in using, thus avoiding polluting the namespace with names that would otherwise have no use or could clash with those of your own writing

JSON-like syntax

FatScript also supports JSON-like syntax for declaring entries:

Entries

```
"nothing": null,           # Void entry - distinct behavior, see below
"isOnline": true,         # Boolean entry
"age": 25,                 # Number entry
"name": "John",           # Text entry
"tags": [ "a", "b" ],     # List entry
"options": { "prop": "other" } # Scope entry
```

It's important to note that JSON-like declarations always create immutable entries, so you can't prepend them with the tilde ~ character to make them mutable.

Types

Types are used in FatScript to combine data and behavior, acting as templates for creating new instances.

Naming

Type names are case-sensitive and must start with an uppercase letter.

The recommended convention for type identifiers is `PascalCase`.

Native Types

FatScript provides several native types:

- [Any](#) - anything
- [Void](#) - nothing
- [Boolean](#) - primitive
- [Number](#) - primitive
- [HugeInt](#) - primitive
- [Text](#) - primitive
- [Method](#) - function or lambda
- [List](#) - like array or stack
- [Scope](#) - like object or dictionary
- [Error](#) - yes, for errors
- [Chunk](#) - binary data

However, you need to import the [types package](#) to access the prototype members for each type.

Additional Types

FatScript's native types are augmented with a collection of [extra types](#) that build upon the core functionalities of its native types. Crafted in pure FatScript, these additional types cater to various advanced programming needs and facilitate common design patterns.

Moreover, you will find domain-specific types embedded within libraries, such as `Worker` in the [async](#) library, `FileInfo` in [file](#), `HttpRequest` (among others) in [http](#), `CommandResult` in [system](#) etc.

Custom Types

Besides using the types provided by the language or an external library, you may also create your own types, or extend existing ones with new behaviors.

Declaration

To define a custom type in FatScript, you can use a simple assignment statement. The type definition can be wrapped in either parentheses or curly brackets. Both syntaxes are valid and have the same effect. You may also optionally define default values for the type's properties, as shown in the following example:

```
# Type definition with default values
Car = (km: Number = 0, color: Text = 'white', optional = null)
```

Global Uniqueness

FatScript features a singular global meta-space, necessitating unique type names across your entire program and any included libraries. Attempting to define a type that shares a name with an existing type, even if in a different scope, triggers an `AssignError`. However, if the new definition is identical, it will simply be ignored.

To survey the types present in the global meta-space, the command `_<- fat . std; sdk . getTypes;` proves useful. This function enumerates all defined types, and details their definition locations with `source: line:column` markers. This feature helps navigating and understanding the structure of your code and its dependencies.

It is wise to steer clear of names already in use by `fat . std` library types when defining new types.

Types

While FatScript does not impose a strict naming protocol for library development, adopting a conflict-averse naming strategy is recommended. A common practice involves prefixing type names with some unique identifier that reflects your library's name, thereby reducing the likelihood of name clashes.

Usage

To create instances of a custom type, call the type name as if it were a [method](#), optionally passing values for the properties:

```
# Type usage from defaults
car = Car()
# outputs: { km: Number = 0, color: Text = 'white' }

# Type usage defaulting one of the properties
redCar = Car(color = 'red')
# outputs: { km: Number = 0, color: Text = 'red' }

# Type usage, fully qualified
oldCar1 = Car(color = 'blue', km = 38000)
# overrides both values

# Type usage, args using props sequence
oldCar2 = Car(41000, 'green')
# overrides values using type definition order
```

By default, custom types return a scope of their properties. If you define an `apply` procedure, however, the type can return a different value. For example, here's a custom type `Sum` with an `apply` procedure that returns the sum of its `a` and `b` properties:

```
Sum = (a: Number, b: Number, apply = <> a + b)
Sum(1, 2) # output: 3
```

note that `apply` procedures do have direct access to instance props

In this example, the output base type of `apply` is a number, not a scope. This also means that the original properties of the custom type are lost during instantiation and cannot be accessed again.

Prototype members

Those are special kind of methods, stored inside the type definition:

```
TypewithProtoMembers = {
  ~ a: Number
  ~ b: Number

  setA = (newA: Number) -> self.a = newA
  setB = (newB: Number) -> self.b = newB
  sum = (): Number      -> self.a + self.b
}
```

In this example, `setA`, `setB` and `sum` are prototype members. Note that we needed to use `self`, which is a keyword that provides a self reference to the instance (or method) scope, so that we could gain access to the props.

Checking types

If you're unsure about the type of an entry, you can simply check by comparing it with a type name:

```
place = 'restaurant'
place == Number # false
place == Text   # true
```

alternatively, use the `typeof` method from the [SDK library](#) to extract the type name

Anything can be compared with the reserved word `Type` which identifies if it refers to a type:

```
Number == Type # true
```

`Type` can also be used to specify that a method takes a type parameter:

```
combine = (t: Type, val: Any): Any -> ...
```

Type alias

In FatScript, you can create subtypes by aliasing an existing type. This means that the new type will inherit all of the properties of the base type. Here's an example:

```
_ <- fat.type.Text
Id = Text # creates an alias
```

Type aliases are hierarchical and can be used to classify values while still inheriting the same behavior. However, while the alias is considered equal to the base type, instances of the new type are not considered equal to the base type.

To check if a value is an instance of a type alias or its base type, you can use the less-equal comparison operator `<=`. This allows you to accept any type on the alias chain, down to the base type. Here's an example:

```
Id == Text # true, as Id is an alias of Text
x = Id(123) # id: Id = '123'
x == Text # false, however x is Id it's not Text
x == Id # true, as expected x is of type Id
x <= Text # true, as x is of Id which is an alias of Text
```

This feature allows for fine-grained matching on specific types, while still maintaining the flexibility to use different aliases for the same underlying type.

limitation: it is not possible to create aliases for `Any`, `Type` or `Method`

Type constraints

In FatScript, you can declare type constraints for method parameters. When a method is called, the argument is automatically checked against the type constraint. If the argument is not of the expected type or one of its subtypes, a `TypeError` is raised.

If the type constraint is a base type, any subtype of that type is also accepted as an argument. However, if the type constraint is a subtype, only arguments that match the subtype are accepted. Here's an example:

```
generalist = (x: Text) -> x
restrictive = (x: Id) -> x
```

In this example, the `generalist` method accepts both `Text` and `Id` arguments, because `Id` is a subtype of `Text`. The `restrictive` method only accepts `Id` arguments and not `Text` arguments, because `Id` is a subtype of `Text`, but not the other way around.

It's important to emphasize that custom types are derived from `Scope`. In this context, `Scope` would be the `generalist` type for, for instance, the custom type `Car`.

Mixin (advanced)

When defining a type, you can add the features of an existing type simply by mentioning it on the type definition. This is called type inclusion or mixin.

For instance, to create a new type `RentalCar` with the properties of `Car` and an additional `price` property, you can write:

```
RentalCar = {
  # Includes
  Car

  # Additional prop
  price: Number
}
```

```
RentalCar(50) # { color: Text = 'white', km: Number = 0, price: Number = 50 }
```

If a property is not defined in the new type, it will inherit the default value from the included type. In the above example, the `color` and `km` properties of `Car` are present in `RentalCar`, with their default values.

Inheriting prototype methods

Suppose we continue from the previous example of type `TypeWithProtoMembers` that has two properties `a` and `b`, and three prototype methods `setA`, `setB` and `sum`. To create a new type `WithMoreMembers` that adds a property `c`, a method `setC` and overrides the `sum` method, you can write:

Types

```
WithMoreMembers = {  
  # Includes  
  TypeWithProtoMembers  
  
  # Props (instance parameters)  
  ~ a: Number  
  ~ b: Number  
  ~ c: Number  
  
  # Prototype members (methods)  
  setC = (newC: Number) -> self.c = newC  
  sum = (): Number      -> self.a + self.b + self.c  
}
```

redeclaring the props allows the new type to also accept arguments at instantiation time, e.g.: `WithMoreMembers(1, 2, 3)` sets `a`, `b` and `c`

When creating a new instance of `WithMoreMembers`, all four prototype methods `setA`, `setB`, `setC` and `sum` will be available.

Note that if there is a redefinition of a property or method in the new type, the new definition takes precedence.

Type casting

In FatScript, the `*` symbol is used for type casting, allowing you to treat one data type as another without altering the underlying data. This capability is especially useful for explicitly specifying the type or for treating values as compatible types, for example:

```
time.format(Epoch * 1688257765448) # treats the number as a Unix Epoch value
```

type casting does not change the underlying implementation, it only tags the value with the specified typename, therefore, it cannot be used to convert a number into text or other incompatible types

Flexible type acceptance

FatScript offers flexibility in type acceptance through the inclusion of a base type. This system allows for the creation of interrelated types that can be interchangeably used in methods or as elements in a List.

For example, consider the types `A`, `B`, and `C`. If types `B` and `C` exclusively incorporate type `A` in their definitions, they are considered to share the same characteristics derived from `A`, making `B` and `C` compatible types under the base of `A`.

Here is how this looks in code:

```
A = (  
B = (A, b = true)  
C = (A, c = true)  
  
# method1 accepts both types B and C  
method1 = (a: A) -> 'valid'  
  
# this logic also applies to lists  
mixedList: List/A = [ B(), C() ]
```

type flexibility is only possible if the data type is based on `Scope`

Caveat

This system allows a method designed to accept an object of type `B` to also accept an object of type `C` due to their common base in `A`:

```
method2 = (x: B) -> 'valid'  
method2(C()) # returns 'valid' (unexpectedly?)
```

Although the flexible system is generally useful, it may be inadequate when an exact type match is necessary. In such cases, the type could be explicitly verified within the method, for example, by using `x == B` to accept only objects of type `B`.

To restrict type flexibility and ensure an exact match, `StrictType` should be included in the type definition:

Types

```
C = (A, StrictType, c = true) # C now requires strict type matching
```

This modification prevents C from being used where A or B are accepted, even though both share the same base type A.

Composite types

In FatScript, composite types allow you to define complex data structures composed of simpler types to restrict parameter acceptance in methods and assignments. They are represented using slashes / to separate the types within the composite type definition.

Let's go through a few examples and understand how composite types work:

1. `ListOfNumbers = List/Number`, defines a composite type `ListOfNumbers`, which is a list that can only contain numbers.
2. `Matrix = List/List/Number`, defines a composite type `Matrix`, which is a list of lists that can only contain numbers.
3. `MethodReturningListOfNumbers = Method/ListOfNumbers`, defines a composite type `MethodReturningListOfNumbers`, which is a method that returns a `ListOfNumbers`.
4. `NumericScope = Scope/Number`, defines a composite type `NumericScope`, which is a scope whose entries can only be of type number.

See also

- [Type package](#)

Any

A virtual type that encompasses all types and no types at the same time.

Default type

Any is the inferred type and return type when no type is explicitly annotated in a method. For example:

```
identity = _ -> _
```

is equivalent to:

```
identity = (_: Any): Any -> _
```

Using Any, be it implicitly or explicitly, disables type checking for a parameter. The explicit annotation can be a useful in cases where you want to make it clear that you are giving flexibility in the accepted type.

Being too liberal with Any can make your code less predictable and harder to maintain. It's generally recommended to be more specific with type annotations whenever possible:

Example of using Any that can lead to issues

```
console <- fat.console
```

```
doubleIt = (arg: Any): Void -> console.log(arg * 2)
```

```
doubleIt(2)    # prints: '4'
doubleIt('a') # yields: Error: unsupported expression > Text <multiply> Number
```

This example shows that although the Any type annotation allows flexibility in the parameter type, it can also result in unexpected behavior if an argument of an unexpected type is passed in. By being more specific with the type annotation, such as Number, you can make your code more predictable and self-evident.

Example of using a specific type annotation for more predictability

```
console <- fat.console
```

```
doubleIt = (num: Number): Void -> console.log(num * 2)
```

```
doubleIt(2)    # prints: '4'
doubleIt('a') # yields: TypeError: type mismatch > num
```

By using Number as the type annotation, the doubleIt method is now more specific and only accepts arguments of type Number.

Comparisons

The only possible operation with Any is comparing to it, but note that Any accepts all values indistinctly, so there is no practical use for it:

```
null      == Any # true
true      == Any # true
12345     == Any # true
'abcd'    == Any # true
[ 1, 2 ]  == Any # true
{ a = 8 } == Any # true
```

comparisons with Any can't be used to check for the presence of a value in a scope as even null is accepted

Void

When you look into the 'Void', only 'null' can be seen.

Is there anybody out there?

An entry is evaluated to `null` if not defined on current scope.

You can compare with `null` using equality `==` or inequality `!=`, like:

```
a == null # true, if 'a' is not defined
0 != null # true, because 0 is a defined value
```

Keep in mind that you can't declare an entry with no value in FatScript.

While you can assign `null` to an entry, it causes different behaviors depending on whether the entry already exists in the scope and whether it's mutable or not:

- If an entry hasn't been declared yet, assigning it `null` declares the entry in the scope but leaves it without an observable value.
- If an entry has been declared and is `null`, assigning it `null` has no effect.
- If it already exists, is non-null and immutable, assigning `null` raises an error.
- If it already exists, is non-null and mutable, assigning `null` removes the value.

Delete statement

Assigning `null` to a mutable entry is the same as deleting its value from the scope. If deleted, it's type is also erased.

```
~ m = 4 # mutable number entry
m = null # deletes m from scope
```

`null` entries are always mutable and may transition to an immutable state when a value is assigned

Comparisons

You can use `Void` to check against the value of an entry also, like:

```
() == Void # true
null == Void # true
false == Void # false
0 == Void # false
'' == Void # false
[] == Void # false
{} == Void # false
```

Note that `Void` only accepts `()` and `null`.

Forms of emptiness

In FatScript, the concept of "emptiness" or the absence of a value can be represented in two ways: using `null` or empty parentheses `()`. They are effectively identical, in terms of behavior in code:

```
null == null # true
() == null # true
() == () # true
```

Using null

The `null` keyword explicitly denotes the absence of a value. It is commonly used in scenarios where a parameter or return value might not point to any value.

```
method(null, otherParam)
```

```
var = null
```

Void

It can also be used to make a parameter optional, allowing methods to be called with varying numbers of arguments:

```
method = (mandatory: Text, optional: Text = null) -> {  
  ...  
}
```

`null` can be used explicitly in any context where an absence of value needs to be represented

Using empty parentheses

When used in the context of method returns, `()` can signify that the method does not return any meaningful value.

```
fn = -> {  
  doSomething  
  
  ()  
}
```

Here, `fn` performs some action and then uses `()` to indicate the absence of a meaningful return value, effectively returning `void`.

the difference lies in code style, so this is just a suggestion, not a hard rule

See also

- [Void prototype extensions](#)

Boolean

Booleans are very primitive, they can only be 'true' or 'false'.

Comparisons

Aside from equality == and inequality !=, booleans also accept the following operators:

& logical AND

```
true & true == true
true & false == false
false & true == false
false & false == false
```

AND short-circuits expression if left-hand side is false

| logical OR

```
true | true == true
true | false == true
false | true == true
false | false == false
```

OR short-circuits expression if left-hand side is true

% logical XOR (exclusive OR)

```
true % true == false
true % false == true
false % true == true
false % false == false
```

XOR always evaluates both sides of the expression

Bang operator

!! coerces any type into boolean, like so:

- null -> false
- zero (number) -> false
- non-zero (number) -> true
- empty (text/list/scope/chunk) -> false
- non-empty (text/list/scope/chunk) -> true
- method -> true
- error -> false

logical AND/OR (&, |) and conditional flows (==, ?) will implicitly coerce to boolean

See also

- [Boolean prototype extensions](#)
- [Fuzzy type](#)
- [Flow control](#)

Number

A mathematical concept used to count, measure and do other [maths](#) stuff.

Declaration

The `Number` type is implemented as `double`. Here's how to declare a number:

```
a = 5           # number declaration (immutable)
b: Number = 5   # same effect, with type-checking
c: Number = a   # initiating from entry value, also 5
d = 43.14      # with decimals
```

To declare a mutable entry, prepend it with the tilde operator:

```
~ a = 6 # mutable number entry
a += 1  # adds 1 to 'a', yields 7
```

Operating numbers

Numbers accept quite a few operations:

- == equal
- != not equal
- + plus
- - minus
- * multiply
- / divide
- % modulus
- ** power
- < less
- <= less or equal
- > more
- >= more or equal
- & logical AND
- | logical OR

Caveats

For logical operations and flow control, keep in mind that zero is falsy and non-zero is truthy.

For equality operators, although `0` and `null` are evaluated as falsy, in FatScript they are not the same:

```
0 == null # false
```

Precision

Although the arithmetic precision of a `IEEE 754 double` is higher, `fry` employs rounding tricks to improve human readability when printing long decimal sequences as text. Additionally, it uses an epsilon of `1.0e-06` for 'equality' comparisons between numbers.

In 99.999% of use cases, this approach provides both more convenient comparisons and more natural-looking numbers:

```
# Equality epsilon
x = 1.0e-06
x: Number = 0.000001

# Smaller differences are treated as the "same" number by comparison
x == 0.0000015
Boolean: true # the 0.0000005 difference is ignored
```

Floating-point numbers aren't distributed evenly on the number line. They are dense around 0, and as the magnitude increases, the 'delta' between two expressible values increases:

HugeInt

An advanced numerical data type designed to handle very large integers.

Declaration

The HugeInt type supports integers up to 4096 bits. Here's how you can declare a HugeInt:

```
h = 0x123456789abcdef # HugeInt declaration
```

HugeInt is always expressed in hexadecimal format

Operating HugeInts

HugeInt supports a variety of operations, making it versatile for complex calculations:

- == equal
- != not equal
- + plus
- - minus
- * multiply
- / divide
- % modulus
- ** power
- < less
- <= less or equal
- > more
- >= more or equal
- & logical AND
- | logical OR

Caveats

In FatScript, HugeInt is specifically designed as an unsigned type, and thus it can only represent positive values.

Interactions between HugeInt and other numeric types, such as [Number](#), are not directly available. To perform such operations, you should convert the value to HugeInt using its constructor (available through the prototype extensions).

Precision

HugeInt offers high precision for very large integers, essential in fields like cryptography and large-scale computations. This precision remains consistent across its entire range.

```
prime = 0xffffffffffffffffc90fdA... # a large prime number
```

Contrary to floating-point numbers, HugeInt represents discrete integer values, maintaining consistent precision and spacing throughout its range:

```
0 _____ max.
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | overflow!
```

the maximum value is $2^{4096} - 1$, equivalent to a number with 1233 decimal digits or the 0xff... literal (with 1024 repetitions of the letter f)

HugeInt is particularly well-suited for scenarios that demand exact integer arithmetic without rounding errors, especially when dealing with values far beyond the limits of [Number](#) type. It is important to ensure that all operations remain within its supported capacity, as exceeding this limit will raise a `ValueError`.

See also

- [HugeInt prototype extensions](#)

Text

Texts can hold many characters, and are sometimes referred to as strings.

Declaration

Text entries are declared using quotes:

```
a = 'hello world'      # smart text declaration
a = "hello world"     # raw text declaration
a: Text = 'hello world' # smart, optionally verbose
```

Manipulating text

Concatenation

In FatScript, you can concatenate, or join, two texts using the + operator. This operation connects the two texts into one. For example:

```
x1 = 'ab' + 'cd' # Outputs 'abcd'
```

Text subtraction

FatScript also supports a text subtraction operation using the - operator. This operation removes a specified substring from the text. For instance:

```
x2 = 'ab cd'
x2 - ' ' == 'abcd' # Outputs true
```

In the above example, the space character ' ' is removed from the original text 'ab cd', resulting in 'abcd'.

Text selection

Selection allows you to access specific parts of a text using indices. In FatScript, you can use either positive or negative indices. Positive indices start from the beginning of the text (0 is the first character), and negative indices start from the end of the text (-1 is the last character).

for detailed explanation about the indexing system in FatScript, refer to the section on accessing and selecting items in [List](#)

When only one index is passed to the selection function, a single character from the text is selected. When a range is passed to the function, a fragment from the text is selected. This selection is inclusive, meaning that it includes the characters at both the start and end indices, unless using half-open range operator . . < exclusive on the right-hand side.

Like with lists, accessing items that are out of valid indices will generate an error. For selections, no errors are generated when accessing out-of-bounds indices; instead, an empty text is returned.

```
x3 = 'example'
x3(1)      # 'x'
x3(2, 4)   # 'amp'
x3(..2)    # 'exa'
x3(..<2)   # 'ex'
```

Direct manipulation

Text mutation allows altering specific characters by position. For example, in ~ text = 'ai', you can modify the last character with text[1] = 'e', transforming the text into 'ae'.

Special characters

Characters such as quotes ' / " can be escaped with backslash \.

```
'Rock\n\roll'
"Where is \"here\"?"
```

you only need to escape quotes of same type used as text delimiter

Other supported escape sequences are are:

- backspace `\b`
- new line `\n`
- carriage return `\r`
- tab `\t`
- escape `\e`
- octet in base-8 representation `\ooo`
- octet in hexadecimal representation `\xhh`
- backslash itself `\\`

Smart texts

When declared with single quotes `'`, the smart mode is enabled, and interpolation is performed for any code wrapped in curly brackets `{...}`:

```
text = 'world'
interpolated = 'hello {text}' # outputs 'hello world'
```

the template is processed in a layer with access to current scope

Note that the use of new lines or other smart texts inside the interpolation template code is not supported, but you can make method calls if you need to compose the result with something more complex.

You can avoid interpolation by escaping the opening bracket:

```
escaped = 'hello \{text}' # outputs 'hello {text}'
```

Alternatively, you can avoid interpolation by using raw texts.

Raw texts

When declared with double quotes `"` the raw text mode is assumed and interpolation is disabled.

Smart mode vs. raw mode example:

```
'I am smart: {interpolated}' # using value from previous example
I am smart: hello world      # replacement occurs
```

```
"I am raw: {interpolated}" # brackets are just common characters
I am raw: {interpolated}   # no interpolation occurs
```

Operating texts

- `==` equal
- `!=` not equal
- `+` plus (concatenate)
- `-` minus (removes substring)
- `<` less (alphanumeric)
- `<=` less or equal (alphanumeric)
- `>` more (alphanumeric)
- `>=` more or equal (alphanumeric)
- `&` logical AND (coerced to boolean)
- `|` logical OR (coerced to boolean)

Encoding

FatScript is designed to operate with text encoded in UTF-8. This design choice acknowledges the prevalence of these encoding systems and optimizes the language for broad compatibility.

UTF-8 is a multi-byte encoding system capable of representing any character in the Unicode standard. This universal character encoding scheme uses 8 to 32 bits to represent a character, enabling the depiction of a vast array of symbols from numerous languages and writing systems. Notably, the first 128 characters (0-127) of UTF-8 align precisely with the ASCII set, making any ASCII text a valid UTF-8 encoded string.

Text

In FatScript, the Text data type is a sequence of Unicode characters, inherently encoded in UTF-8, therefore operations such as `text.size`, `text(index)`, and `text(1..4)` will correctly count, access, or slice text irrespective of the complexity of the characters. These operations consider a complete multi-byte UTF-8 character as a single unit, ensuring correct and predictable behavior.

See also

- [Text prototype extensions](#)

Method

Methods are recipes that can take arguments to "fill in the blanks".

in FatScript, we refer to functions as Methods, irrespective of their definition context

Definition

A method is anonymously defined with a thin arrow `->`, like so:

```
<parameters> -> <recipe>
```

Parameters can be omitted if none are needed:

```
-> <recipe> # arity zero
```

To register a method to the scope, assign it to an identifier:

```
<identifier> = <parameters> -> <recipe>
```

Parameters loaded into a method's execution scope are immutable, ensuring that the method's operations do not alter their original state. For mutable behavior, consider passing a scope or utilizing a [custom type](#) capable of encapsulating multiple values and states.

Optional parameters

While method signatures typically require a fixed number of mandatory parameters, FatScript supports optional parameters through default values:

```
greet = (name: Text = 'World') -> {
  'Hello, {name}'
}

greet() # 'Hello, World'
```

In this example, the `name` parameter is optional, defaulting to `'World'` if no argument is provided. This feature allows for more flexible method invocations.

Implicit argument

A convenience offered by FatScript is the ability to reference a value passed to the method without explicitly specifying a name for it. In this case, the implicit argument is represented by the underscore `_`.

Here's an example that illustrates the use of implicit argument:

```
double = -> _ * 2
double(3) # output: 6
```

You can use an implicit argument whenever you need to perform a simple operation on a single parameter without assigning a specific name to it, but note that the method must have arity zero to trigger it.

Arguments handling

In FatScript, while there is support for optional parameters and implicit argument, any other extra arguments are simply ignored to enhance both flexibility and performance.

The design decision to ignore extra arguments also means there is no native support for variable-length arguments in the traditional sense. To achieve similar functionality, you may declare optional parameters like so:

```
vaMethod = (v1 = null, v2 = null, v3 = null, v4 = null) -> ...
```

keep in mind that you need to explicitly list each parameter you want to capture and defining a very large number of parameters (e.g., more than 10) may reduce method call performance

Auto-return

Method

FatScript uses auto-return, meaning the last standing value is returned:

```
answer: Method = (theGreatQuestion) -> {
  # TODO: explain Life, the Universe and Everything
  42
}

answer('6 x 7 = ?') # outputs: 42
```

Return type safety

In FatScript, one peculiarity is that even when you declare a method with a specific return type, the language allows for `null` values, like in:

```
fn = (arg: Text): Text -> ... ? ... : null
```

This means that while the method is declared to return `Text`, the return value is, in a sense, optional because the method can also return `Void`. The only strict guarantee is that if the method tries to return an incompatible type, such as a `Number` or `Boolean`, a `TypeError` will be raised. This design choice introduces implicit flexibility while still maintaining a degree of type safety.

If you need to ensure a non-null outcome, you can wrap your call with [Option](#) like this:

```
Option(fn(myArg)).getOrElse('fallbackVal')
```

Procedures

FatScript introduces a unique feature that simplifies method calls, when no arguments are involved.

The `<>` symbol declares a Procedure, an argument-free function that executes automatically when referenced:

```
<identifier> = <type> <> <recipe>
```

for procedure syntax the `type` needs to be a single word; if you need a [composite type](#), declare it as an alias beforehand and use the alias

passing arguments to a procedure will result in an error, as procedures do not accept arguments

Key benefits:

1. **Reduced boilerplate:** Reduces the need for parentheses, making code cleaner and more concise, for zero-parameter procedures that act like properties.
2. **Dynamic computation:** Allows for dynamic computation with outputs that can change based on the object's internal or global state.
3. **Deferred execution:** Enables deferred execution, useful in asynchronous programming and complex initialization patterns.

starting in version 4.0.0, only procedures support automatic execution without parentheses; classic zero-arity methods are no longer executed automatically and require parentheses `()` for execution

Avoiding an automatic call

To reference a procedure without triggering the automatic calling feature, you can use the `get` syntax:

```
foo('bar') # yields a reference to foo.bar, without calling it
```

FatScript also offers `self` and `root` keywords to reference procedures at the local and global levels, respectively:

```
self('myLocalProcedure')
root('myGlobalProcedure')
```

The tilde `~` also operator allows you to bypass the automatic call feature, providing flexibility in procedure handling:

```
# Both lines below fetch the procedure reference, without calling it
foo.~bar
~ myProcedure
```

Argument labels

FatScript supports argument labels, which allow you to specify names for arguments at the call site. These labels improve code readability and self-documentation by making the intent of each argument explicit:

```
# Defining a method with parameters
fn = (a: Number, b: Number) -> a + b

# Calling the method with argument labels
fn(a = 1, b = 2) # output: 3, same as fn(1, 2)
```

If provided, labels are validated against the method's parameter names. Arguments must be passed in the same order as defined in the method signature. Using incorrect labels will raise an error:

```
fn(b = 1, a = 2) # CallError: invalid name 'b' at pos: 1
```

arguments are resolved **sequentially**, not by the labels; therefore, **out-of-order resolution is not allowed**, even when labels are used

Contrast with type instantiation

While argument labels in method calls are mostly decorative, they play a **functional role** in [type instantiation](#). When creating instances of types, argument labels are matched by name to the type's properties, allowing **out-of-order resolution**.

By maintaining sequential resolution for methods, FatScript ensures better performance in method calls, while type instantiation benefits from the flexibility of named argument resolution.

Tail Recursion Optimization

FatScript supports Tail Recursion Optimization (TRO) to enhance performance by conserving stack space. To benefit from this optimization, several conditions must be satisfied:

1. **Explicit parameters:** Methods must explicitly declare parameters; the implicit argument feature is not supported for TRO.
2. **Flow control:** TRO is only compatible with `If-Else`, `Cases`, and `Switch` constructs for branching.
3. **Call structure:** Nested method calls, such as `x(a)(b)(c)`, are not supported for TRO.
4. **Recursive calls:** The method must call itself recursively by name as the final operation in its execution path.

For example, a function correctly set up for TRO might look like this:

```
tailRec = (n: Number, m: Number): Void -> {
  n > m => console.log('done')
  - => {
    console.log(n)
    tailRec(n + 1, m)
  }
}
```

In this example, `tailRec` recursively calls itself as the final operation in one of the branches, making it eligible for optimization.

You can check if TRO has been enabled for your method using [static analysis](#) with the `fry --probe` option.

TRO can be disabled by wrapping the recursive call within parentheses, as shown below:

```
...
(tailRec(n + 1, m)) # no TRO
```

See also

- [Method prototype extensions](#)

List

Lists are ordered collections of items of the same type, accessed by index.

Definition

Lists are defined with square brackets [], like so:

```
list: List/Text = [ 'apple', 'pizza', 'pear' ]
```

Lists do not allow mixing of types. The type of a list is determined by the first item added to it, consequently, empty lists are untyped.

Lists skip empty positions, so an item that evaluates to null is ignored:

```
a = 1
c = 3
[ a, b, c ] # outputs: [ 1, 3 ] (b is skipped over)
```

Access

Individual items

List items can be accessed individually with zero-based index call:

```
list(0) # 'apple'
list(2) # 'pear'
```

Negative values will index backwards, starting from -1 as the last item:

```
list(-1) # 'pear'
```

Accessing items that are out of valid indices will generate an error:

```

      0      1      2      > 2
Error [ 'apple', 'pizza', 'pear' ] Error
  < -3      -3      -2      -1
```

Selections

Indexes for start and end work exactly the same as when accessing individual items, so negatives count from the last item and can be regressive. However, when using ranges, no errors are generated when accessing out-of-bounds indices; instead, an empty list is returned.

```
list(0..0) # [ 'apple' ]
list(4..8) # []
list(1..-1) # [ 'pizza', 'pear' ]
```

One index can be left blank, and the start from the first or the end at the last item is assumed:

```
list(..1) # [ 'apple', 'pizza' ]
list(1..) # [ 'pizza', 'pear' ]
```

Nested lists

A matrix can be used and accessed like so:

```
matrix = [
  [ 1, 2, 3 ]
  [ 4, 5, 6 ]
]
```

```
matrix(1)(0) # yields 4 (1: second line, then 0: first index)
```

for simplicity, the example uses a 2D matrix, but could be n-dimensional

Operations

- == equal
- != not equal
- + addition (concatenation effect)
- - subtraction (difference effect)
- & logical AND
- | logical OR

logical AND/OR evaluate empty lists as `false`, otherwise `true`

List addition (concatenation)

The list addition operation allows you to combine two lists into a new list:

```
x = [1, 2, 2, 3]
y = [3, 3, 4, 4]
```

```
x + y # result: [1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 4, 4]
```

In this case, using the addition operator `+` to merge lists `x` and `y`, the elements from both lists are combined into a single list. The order of the elements in the resulting list is determined by the order in which the lists were added.

there is no removal of duplicate elements during the concatenation

Quick-append

For better performance, you can take advantage of `+=` operator, e.g.:

```
~ list += [ value ] # faster

# has same effect as slower alternatives:
~ list = []
list = list + [ value ] # explicit concatenation
list[list.size] = value # indexed by 'size', prototype member
```

Another detail of the `+=` operator, which also applies to other types, is the automatic initialization by omission, where if the entry has not yet been declared previously, it acts as a simple assignment.

List subtraction (difference)

The list subtraction operation allows you to remove elements from the second operand that are present in the first operand, resulting in a list containing only unique values:

```
x = [ 1, 2, 2, 3 ]
y = [ 3, 3, 4, 4 ]
```

```
x - y # result: [ 1, 2 ]
y - x # result: [ 4 ]
```

In this case, when we subtract the list `y` from the list `x`, the elements with the value 3 are removed because they are present in both lists. The result is the list `[1, 2]`. Similarly, when we subtract the list `x` from the list `y`, the only remaining element is the value 4.

only exactly identical values are removed during the subtraction

See also

- [List prototype extensions](#)
- [Mapping over a List](#)

Scope

A scope is akin to a dictionary, where values are associated with keys.

Definition

Scopes are defined using curly brackets {}, as shown below:

```
myCoolScope = {
  place = 'here'
  when = 'now'
}
```

Scopes store entries in alphabetical order, a characteristic that becomes apparent when [mapping over a scope](#).

Access

There are three ways you can directly access entries inside a scope.

Dot syntax

```
myCoolScope.place # output: 'here'
```

Get syntax

```
# assuming prop = 'place'
myCoolScope(prop) # output: 'here'
```

In both methods, if the property is not present, `null` is returned. If the outer scope is not found, an error is raised.

Optional chaining syntax

Use the question-dot ?. operator to safely chain potentially non-existent outer scopes:

```
nonExisting?.prop # returns null
```

The optional chaining syntax does not raise an error when the outer scope is `null`.

Operations

- == equal
- != not equal
- + addition (merge effect)
- - subtraction (difference effect)
- & logical AND
- | logical OR

logical AND/OR evaluate empty scopes as `false`, otherwise `true`

Scope addition (merge)

The second operand acts as a patch for the first operand:

```
x = { a = 1, b = 3 }
y = { b = 2 }
```

```
x + y # results in { a = 1, b = 2 }
y + x # results in { a = 1, b = 3 }
```

values from the second operand replace those from the first

Scope subtraction (difference)

Subtraction removes elements from the first operand that are identical to those in the second operand:

Scope

```
x = { a = 1, b = 3 }
y = { a = 1 }

x - y # results in { b = 3 }
```

only values that are exactly identical are removed

Scoped Blocks

Scoped Blocks in FatScript allow for executing statements within the context of a specific scope:

```
object.{
  # Statements executed in the context of 'object'
}
```

Here, `object` is the target scope. Within the block, you can directly access and modify `object`'s properties.

Features

- **Isolation:** entries declared within a Scoped Block are local to that scope and do not affect the outer scope
- **Outer Scope Access:** Scoped Blocks can access entries from the outer scope

Example

```
x = {}

x.{
  a = 5      # 'a' is now a property of 'x'
  b = a + 3  # 'b' is also a property of 'x'
}
```

Scope interactions

FatScript uses sophisticated mechanisms for managing variables across different scopes, leveraging concepts of lexical scoping and shadowing to provide powerful programming capabilities. This section explores these mechanisms, including assignment nuances, increment/decrement behaviors, and the innovative use of the `+=` operator for boolean toggling.

Assignment

The assignment operator (`=`) copies values from outer scopes into current scope, defining a new value:

```
~ n = 1
x = {}
x.{ ~ n = n } # now x.n == 1, and x.n is independent from root.n
x.{ c = n }  # has similar effect, however 'c' is immutable
```

the same concept applies to code running on a method scope

Caveat

Using `~ n = n + 1` inside a block or method adds a new 'n' in the current scope, initialized with the value of `n + 1` from the nearest enclosing scope, without altering the outer `n`.

Incrementing and decrementing

Increment (`+=`) and decrement (`-=`) operations, interact with variable scoping in a different way. These operations search for the nearest instance of a variable, starting from the current scope and moving outward recursively, and then modify that instance directly.

```
~ outerN = 1
fn = -> {
  outerN += 1 # targets and increments 'outerN' in the outer scope
}
```

Auto-initialization with +=

Scope

FatScript also provides a special behavior regarding increment operator (`+=`). If the entry doesn't exist, increment works as a regular assignment as if you had written the following for `n += 1`:

```
n == Void ? n = 1 : n += 1
```

The auto-initialization feature can be particularly useful when used in combination with [dynamic entries](#) for dynamic programming.

this feature is exclusively available for increment operator, decrement can't initialize non-existent values

Boolean toggling with `+=`

Generally, booleans don't allow addition operations. FatScript, however, extends the `+=` operator's functionality to boolean types, allowing for an intuitive toggle mechanism within inner scopes.

The expression `flag += !flag` effectively toggles the boolean value, even when `flag` is defined in an outer scope.

in the particular case of booleans, the only distinction between `=` and `+=` is scoping

Other compound assignment operators

Similarly, other compound assignment operations such as `*=`, `/=`, `%=`, and `**=` are supported by numeric types and respect the same scoping rules that apply to increment and decrement operations.

See also

- [Dynamic entries](#)
- [Scope prototype extensions](#)
- [Mapping over a scope](#)

Error

There is great wisdom in expecting the unexpected too.

Default subtypes

While some errors may be raised with the base Error type, most are [subtyped](#).

See the definitions in the [error prototype extensions](#).

Declaration

Errors can also be raised explicitly; you must use the [type constructor](#):

```
_ <- fat.type.Error
Error('an error has occurred') # raises a generic error
MyMistake = Error
MyMistake('another error has occurred') # raises a MyMistake subtype error
```

Comparisons

Errors always evaluate as falsy:

```
Error() ? 'is truthy' : 'is falsy' # is false
```

Errors are comparable to their type:

```
Error() == Error # true
```

read also about [type comparison](#) syntax

A naive way of handling errors could be:

```
_ <- fat.console
# handling the returned error
maybeFail() <= Error => log('an error has happened')
_                    => log('success')
```

this only works if [option](#) -e / continue on error is set

Another naive way to deal with errors, but one that always works, is to use a [default operation](#):

```
maybeFail() ?? log('an error occurred')
```

Although the naive approach may work, the proper way to deal with errors is by setting an error handler using the `trapWith` method found in the [failure library](#).

See also

- [Failure library](#)
- [Error prototype extensions](#)

Chunk

Chunks are just binary blocks of data.

Declaration

Chunks cannot be declared explicitly; you must use the [type constructor](#) and apply one of the following strategies:

```
_ <- fat.type.Chunk
```

```
Chunk(null)           # Void -> [] (empty chunk)
Chunk(4)              # Number -> [ 0, 0, 0, 0 ] (blank bytes)
Chunk('ABC')         # Text -> [ 65, 66, 67 ]
Chunk([ 65, 66, 67 ]) # List/Number -> [ 65, 66, 67 ]
```

list of numbers are expected to contain valid byte values (0-255), otherwise an error is raised

Manipulating chunks

Concatenation

In FatScript, you can concatenate, or join, two chunks using the + operator. For example:

```
abCombined = chunkA + chunkB
```

Chunk selection

Selection allows access to specific parts of a chunk using indices. FatScript supports both positive and negative indices. Positive indices start from the beginning of the chunk (with 0 as the first byte), while negative indices start from the end (-1 is the last byte).

for detailed explanation about the indexing system in FatScript, refer to the section on accessing and selecting items in [List](#)

Selecting with one index retrieves a single byte from the chunk (as number). Using a range of bytes, selects a fragment inclusive of both start and end indices, except when using the half-open range operator `..<`, which is exclusive on the right-hand side.

Accessing indices outside the valid range will generate an error for individual selections. For range selections, out-of-bounds indices result in an empty chunk.

```
x3 = Chunk('example')
x3(1)    # 120 (ASCII value of 'x')
x3(..2)  # new Chunk containing 3 bytes (corresponding to 'exa')
```

Direct manipulation

Mutation in binary data allows changing specific bytes by position.

For example, in `~ chunk = Chunk([65, 66, 67])`, you can modify the last byte with `chunk[2] = 68`, transforming the data into `[65, 66, 68]`.

Comparisons

Chunk equality `==` and inequality `!=` comparisons are supported.

See also

- [Chunk prototype extensions](#)

Flow control

Move along in a continuous stream of decisions that should be made.

Fallback

Default or nullish coalescing operations, are defined with double question marks ?? and work the following way:

```
<maybeNullOrError> ?? <fallbackValue>
```

In case the left-hand side is not `null` nor `Error`, then it's used; otherwise, `fallbackValue` is returned.

similarly you can use the nullish coalescing assign operator ??=

If

If statements are defined with a question mark ?, like so:

```
<condition> ? <response>
```

as there is no alternative `null` is returned if condition is not met

If-Else

If-Else statements are defined with a question mark ? followed by a colon :, like so:

```
<condition> ? <response> : <alternativeResponse>
```

To use multiline If-Else statements, wrap the response in curly brackets { . . . } like so:

```
<condition> ? {
  <response>
} : {
  <alternativeResponse>
}
```

Cases

Cases are defined with the thick arrow => and are automatically chained, creating an intuitive and streamlined syntax similar to a switch statement without the possibility of fall-through. This allows for unrelated conditions to be mixed together, ultimately resulting in a more concise "if-else-if-else" structure:

```
<condition1> => <responseFor1>
<condition2> => <responseFor2>
<condition3> => <responseFor3>
...
```

Example:

```
choose = (x) -> {
  x == 1 => 'a'
  x == 2 => 'b'
  x == 3 => 'c'
}
```

```
choose(2) # 'b'
choose(8) # null
```

To provide a default value for your method, you can add a catch-all case using an underscore _ at the end of the sequence:

```
choose = (x) -> {
  x == 1 => 'a'
  x == 2 => 'b'
  x == 3 => 'c'
  _      => 'd'
}
```

```
choose(2) # 'b'
choose(8) # 'd'
```

For more complex scenarios, you can use blocks as outcomes for each case:

```
...
condition => {
  # do something
  'foo'
}
_ => {
  # do something else
  'bar'
}
...
```

Cases must end in a catch-all case `_` or end of block. The most effective use of `CASES` is within methods at the bottom of the method body.

While it's possible to add nested `CASES`, it's best to avoid overly complex constructions. This makes code harder to follow and likely misses the point of using this feature.

It may be more appropriate to extract that logic into a separate method. FatScript encourages developers to split logic into distinct methods, helping to prevent spaghetti code.

Switch

The `Switch` operator is denoted by the double right arrow `>>` symbol, which guides the flow of control based on the value's match against a series of cases:

Syntax:

```
<value> >> {
  <caseValue1> => <responseFor1>
  <caseValue2> => <responseFor2>
  ...
  _ => <defaultResponse>
}
```

Each case in the `Switch` block is evaluated in order until a match is found and the result of the matching case is returned:

```
choose = -> _ >> {
  1 => 'one'
  2 => 'two'
  3 => 'three'
  _ => 'other'
}
```

```
choose(2) # 'two'
choose(4) # 'other'
```

`Switch` cases can also involve expressions, allowing for dynamic matching:

```
evaluate = (x, y) -> x >> {
  y + 1 => 'just above y'
  y - 1 => 'just below y'
  _     => 'not directly around y'
}

evaluate(5, 4) # 'just above y'
evaluate(3, 4) # 'just below y'
evaluate(7, 4) # 'not directly around y'
```

Tap

The `Tap` operator is denoted by the double left arrow `<<` symbol, which facilitates the execution of side effects without altering the main result of an expression. It is designed to process values through specified methods (taps) that can perform side effects, while still returning the original value of the expression.

Flow control

Syntax:

```
<result> << <tapMethod>
```

the right-hand side of a `tap` must always be a [method](#)

In this structure, `<result>` is an expression whose value is passed to `<tapMethod>`, which executes using `<result>` as its input but does not affect the final value of the expression. Instead, `<tapMethod>` is used purely for its side effects.

See how the `tap` operator can be used:

```
console <- fat.console
```

```
increment = x -> x + 1
```

```
result = increment(4) << console.log
```

In this example, `increment(4)` computes to 5, which is then passed to `console.log` and although `console.log` returns `null`, the final result assigned to `result` is 5.

Multiple side effects can be chained sequentially, each receiving the same initial result:

```
val = pure(in) << fx1 << fx2 << fx3
```

Loops

Repeat, repeat, repeat, repeat, repeat...

Base syntax

All loops are build with an "at" sign @, like so:

```
<expression> @ <loopBody>
```

While loop

The loop body will execute while the expression evaluates to:

- true
- non-zero number
- non-empty text/chunk

The execution will terminate when the expression evaluates to:

- false
- null
- zero number
- empty text/chunk
- error

For example, this loop prints numbers 0 to 3:

```
_ <- fat.console
~ i = 0
(i < 4) @ {
  log(i)
  i += 1
}
```

Mapping syntax

You can map over ranges, lists and scopes with a mapper, like so:

```
<range|collection> @ <mapper>
```

A new list is generated based from the return values of the mapper.

Mapping over a range

Using range operator `..` the mapper will receive a number as input sequentially from the left bound to the right bound:

```
4..0 @ num -> num + 1 # returns [ 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 ]
```

range syntax is inclusive on both sides, e.g. `0..2` yields 0, 1, 2

There is also half-open range operator `..<` exclusive on the right-hand side.

caveat: half-open range won't work with reverse direction, always needs to be from the minimum to maximum

Mapping over a list

The mapper will receive items in order (from left to right):

```
[ 3, 1, 2 ] @ item -> item + 1 # returns [ 4, 2, 3 ]
```

Mapping over a scope

The mapper will receive the names (keys) of the entries stored in the scope in alphabetical order:

Loops

```
{ c = 3, a = 1, b = 2 } @ key -> key # yields [ 'a', 'b', 'c' ]
```

on the examples we have used list and scope literals, but an entry or call that evaluates to a list or a scope will have the same effect

To access entries in a scope, you refer to it by name, but in this case, it needs to be defined in the outer scope, for example:

```
myScope = { c = 3, a = 1, b = 2 }  
myScope @ key -> myScope(key) # returns [ 1, 2, 3 ]
```

FatScript uses an intelligent caching feature that prevents this syntax from generating additional effort to search for the current element in the scope while mapping.

Libraries

Let's talk about the sweet fillings baked into FatScript: the libraries!

Standard libraries

Essentials

These are the fundamental libraries you would expect to be available in a programming language, providing essential functionality:

- [async](#) - Asynchronous workers and tasks
- [bridge](#) - Bridge between FatScript and external C libraries
- [color](#) - ANSI color codes for console
- [console](#) - Console input and output operations
- [curses](#) - Terminal-based user interface
- [enigma](#) - Cryptography, hash and UUID methods
- [failure](#) - Error handling and exception management
- [file](#) - File input and output operations
- [http](#) - HTTP handling framework
- [math](#) - Mathematical operations and functions
- [recode](#) - Data conversion between various formats
- [sdk](#) - Fry's software development kit utilities
- [smtp](#) - SMTP handling framework
- [socket](#) - TCP socket manipulation
- [system](#) - System-level operations and information
- [time](#) - Time and date manipulation

Type Package

[This package](#) extends the features of FatScript's [native types](#):

- [Void](#)
- [Boolean](#)
- [Number](#)
- [HugeInt](#)
- [Text](#)
- [Method](#)
- [List](#)
- [Scope](#)
- [Error](#)
- [Chunk](#)

Extra package

[Additional types](#) implemented in vanilla FatScript:

- [Date](#) - Calendar and date handling
- [Duration](#) - Millisecond duration builder
- [Fuzzy](#) - Probabilistic values and fuzzy logic operations
- [HashMap](#) - Quick key-value store
- [Logger](#) - Logging support
- [Memo](#) - Generic memoization utility
- [MouseEvent](#) - Mouse event parser
- [Opaque](#) - Utility for soft protection of data
- [Option](#) - Encapsulation of optional value
- [Param](#) - Parameter presence and type verification
- [Sound](#) - Sound playback interface
- [Storable](#) - Data store facilities

Import-all shorthand

Libraries

If you want to make all of them available at once, you can simply do the following, and all that good stuff will be available to your code:

```
_ <- fat._
```

While this feature can be convenient when experimenting on the REPL, be aware that it brings in all the library's constants and method names, potentially polluting your global namespace.

fat.std

Alternatively, import the "standard" library, which imports all types (including those from the extra package), as well as named imports from all other packages, like this:

```
_ <- fat.std
```

This is equivalent to:

```
_      <- fat.type._
_      <- fat.extra._
async  <- fat.async
bridge <- fat.bridge
color  <- fat.color
console <- fat.console
curses <- fat.curses
enigma <- fat.enigma
failure <- fat.failure
http   <- fat.http
file   <- fat.file
math   <- fat.math
recode <- fat.recode
sdk    <- fat.sdk
smtp   <- fat.smtp
system <- fat.system
time   <- fat.time
```

Note that importing everything in advance can add unnecessary overhead to the startup time of your program, even if you only need to use a few methods.

As a best practice, consider importing only the specific modules you need, with [named imports](#). This way, you can keep your code clean and concise, while minimizing the risk of naming conflicts or performance issues.

Hacking and more

Under the hood, libraries are built using embedded commands. To gain a deeper understanding and explore the inner workings of the interpreter, dive into [this more advanced topic](#).

async

Asynchronous workers and tasks

Import

```
_ <- fat.async
```

Types

The `async` library introduces the `Worker` type.

Worker

The `Worker` is a simple wrapper around an asynchronous operation.

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>Worker</code>	<code>(task: Method, wait: Number)</code>	Builds a <code>Worker</code> in standby mode

The `Worker` constructor takes two arguments:

- **task**: The method to be executed asynchronously (the method may not take arguments directly, but you may curry those in using two arrows on the definition `-> ->`).
- **wait** (optional): A timeout in milliseconds. If the task does not finish within this time, it is cancelled.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>start</code>	<code><> Worker</code>	Begin the task
<code>cancel</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Cancel the task
<code>await</code>	<code><> Worker</code>	Wait for task completion
<code>isDone</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Check if the task has completed
<code>hasStarted</code>	<code>Boolean</code>	Set by <code>start</code> method
<code>hasAwaited</code>	<code>Boolean</code>	Set by <code>await</code> method
<code>isCanceled</code>	<code>Boolean</code>	Set by <code>cancel</code> method
<code>result</code>	<code>Any</code>	Set by <code>await</code> method

Standalone methods

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>atomic</code>	<code>(op: Method): Any</code>	Execute the operation atomically
<code>selfCancel</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Terminate the execution of the thread
<code>processors</code>	<code><> Number</code>	Get the number of processors

Usage notes

`Worker` instances are mapped to system threads on a one-to-one basis and get executed as per the system's scheduling. This implies that their execution may not always be immediate. To wait for the result of a `Worker`, employ the `await` method.

Unlike in other contexts, in asynchronous code, the `task: Method` executes without access to the scope in which it is created. It can only access properties that have been 'curried' `-> ->` into its execution scope or those that are directly accessible in the global scope.

The global memory limit is shared by all `Workers`, but a completely new context, including a separate stack, is allocated for each one. However, in the event of an irrecoverable or fatal error, such as memory or stack exhaustion by one of the `Workers`, the interpreter will be halted and all threads terminated.

async

to keep maximum performance, avoid using [text interpolation](#) within asynchronous tasks

Examples

```
async <- fat.async
math <- fat.math
time <- fat.time

# Define a slow task
slowTask = (seconds: Number): Text -> -> {
  time.wait(seconds * 1000)
  'done'
}

# Start the task as a Worker
worker = Worker(slowTask(5)).start

# Get the worker result
result1 = worker.await.result # blocks until task is done

# Start a task with timeout
task = Worker(slowTask(5), 3000).start # task should timed out

# Get the task result
result2 = task.await.result # blocks until task is done or timeout occurs
```

the `await` method will raise `ASyncError` if the task times out before completion

atomic

The `atomic` wrapper is a critical tool for ensuring thread safety and data integrity in concurrent programming. When multiple workers or asynchronous tasks access and modify shared resources, race conditions can occur, leading to unpredictable and erroneous outcomes. The `atomic` operation addresses this issue by guaranteeing that the method it wraps is executed atomically. This means the entire operation is completed as a single, indivisible unit, with no possibility of other threads intervening partway through for the same operation. This is particularly important for operations such as incrementing a counter, updating shared data structures or files, or performing any action where the order of execution matters:

```
async.atomic(-> file.append(logFile, line))
```

While `atomic` operations are a powerful tool for ensuring consistency, it's important to be mindful of the potential for contention it introduces. Contention occurs when multiple threads or tasks attempt to execute an operation simultaneously, leading to potential performance bottlenecks as each thread waits its turn. Overuse or unnecessary use of `atomic` operations can significantly degrade the performance of your application by reducing concurrency. Keep only the critical section of code that absolutely requires atomicity enclosed as an `atomic` operation.

under the hood, atomic operations are fundamentally guarded by a single global `mutex`

Async in Web Build

When using `fry` built with Emscripten (for example, when using [FatScript Playground](#)), the platform's limited support for multi-threading affects the `Worker` implementation. To maximize cross-platform code compatibility, `Worker` tasks execute inline and block the main thread when the `start` method is called. This approach compromises the advantages of asynchronous execution but allows a consistent implementation across platforms in many scenarios.

See also

- [Time library](#).

bridge

Bridge between FatScript and external C libraries

the `bridge` library allows FatScript to interface with external C libraries by providing dynamic linking capabilities and foreign function interface (FFI) bindings; this is useful for leveraging performance advantages of C and using existing C libraries in FatScript applications

Import

```
_ <- fat.bridge
```

Types

The `bridge` library introduces two primary types for handling dynamic linking of external libraries and calling foreign functions: `DLL` and `FFI`.

DLL

The `DLL` type represents a handle to a dynamically loaded library.

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>DLL</code>	<code>(filename)</code>	Load a dynamic library

The `DLL` constructor takes the following argument:

- **filename:** The path to the shared object (`.so/.dll`) file to be loaded.

FFI

The `FFI` type allows binding to external functions from the dynamically loaded library, using FatScript's `CType` system to match the function's expected input and output types.

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>FFI</code>	<code>(lib, name, in, out)</code>	Bind to an external function

The `FFI` constructor takes the following arguments:

- **lib:** A `DLL` instance representing the loaded library.
- **name:** A name (`Text`) of the function to bind within the library.
- **in:** A `List/CType` of argument types expected by the function.
- **out:** The `CType` return type of the function.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>call</code>	<code>(args...)</code>	Any Call the bound function

Aliases

- **CPointer:** Represents a memory pointer (`void*`-like), base type is `Chunk`.
- **CType:** Represents C data types in FatScript, base type is `Number`.

CType

The `CType` system maps common C types to corresponding FatScript types, allowing safe interaction with C libraries. The following types are made available in the `cType` scope and implement automatic correspondence with FatScript types:

Name	C type	Correspondence
sint	int	Number
sintP	int*	Number
uint	unsigned int	Number
uintP	unsigned int*	Number
float	float	Number
floatP	float*	Number
double	double	Number
doubleP	double*	Number
schar	char	Chunk
scharP	char*	Chunk
uchar	unsigned char	Chunk
ucharP	unsigned char*	Chunk
sshort	short	Number
sshortP	short*	Number
ushort	unsigned short	Number
ushortP	unsigned short*	Number
slong	long	Number
slongP	long*	Number
ulong	unsigned long	Number
ulongP	unsigned long*	Number
string	char*	Text
void	void (return type)	Void
voidP	void*	Chunk

`string` must be a dynamically allocated, null-terminated char pointer

Standalone methods

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>unsafeCStr</code>	(ptr: CPointer): Text	Read ptr as null-terminated C-string
<code>unsafePeek</code>	(ptr: CPointer, offset: Number, len: Number): Chunk	Read from ptr considering offset and length
<code>detachNode</code>	(node: Any): Void	Release ownership of memory
<code>marshal</code>	(val: Any, type: CType): Chunk	Marshal a FatScript value to a raw C type
<code>unmarshal</code>	(raw: Chunk, type: CType): Any	Unmarshal from a C type back to FatScript
<code>getErrno</code>	<> Number	Return the errno from the last FFI call
<code>sizeof</code>	(type: CType): Number	Get the number of bytes for a given C Type

unsafeCStr

Reads a `CPointer` as a null-terminated C-string and converts it into a FatScript `Text`. This method is useful for interfacing with libraries that return C-strings without explicit length information, taking a managed copy. Unlike `unsafePeek`, `unsafeCStr` automatically determines the string's length using `strlen`. **Warning:** Ensure the pointer points to a null-terminated string to avoid undefined behavior.

unsafePeek

Allows direct reading of raw memory, which can be used to interface with C data structures. **Warning:** This method performs no bounds checking and relies on correct parameters. Misuse can cause system crashes or security vulnerabilities.

detachNode

Relinquishes ownership of memory pointed to by `Text` or `Chunk` to prevent double freeing of memory. Consult external library documentation to understand memory ownership before using `detachNode`, as it's not always necessary.

marshal

bridge

Converts a FatScript value to a raw memory chunk using a specific CType. Useful for composing C structs. Only `string` and `voidP` are valid for marshaling `Text` and `Chunk` as pointers types respectively. **Warning:** Ensure proper handling of buffer pointers to avoid double freeing of memory.

unmarshal

Casts raw memory chunks to specific FatScript types based on CType. Useful for interpreting data returned from C structs. **Warning:** Incorrect usage or incorrect CType can result in undefined behavior or data corruption.

getErrno

The `errno` from the last FFI call is cached and can be retrieved through this method.

sizeof

Determines the memory size (in bytes) of a given CType. This is can be useful for safely using functions like `unsafePeek`.

Example Usage

Loading a library

To load a dynamic library, use the `DLL` type:

```
zlibDLL = DLL('libz.so')
```

This will attempt to load the `libz.so` shared object library (in this example, the `zlib` compression library).

Binding to a function

To bind to a function within the loaded library, use the `FFI` type:

```
compressFFI = FFI(zlibDLL, 'compress', [ucharP, slongP, ucharP, slong], sint)
```

This binds to the `compress` function in the `zlib` library. The argument types and return type are specified using CType.

Calling the function

Once bound, you can call the function using the `call` method:

```
compressedData = compressFFI.call(destBuff, destSize, source, sourceSize)
```

This calls the `compress` function and returns the result.

Full Example: compressing data with zlib

```
_      <- fat.type._
bridge <- fat.bridge

zlibDLL = DLL('libz.so')

{ ucharP, slong, slongP, sint } = bridge.ctype

compressFFI = FFI(zlibDLL, 'compress', [ucharP, slongP, ucharP, slong], sint)

# Compress data
source = 'Hello, zlib compression!'.toChunk
destSize = 256
destBuff = Chunk(256)

compressedData = compressFFI.call(destBuff, destSize, source, source.size)
```

Note that `destSize` uses the `slongP` type mapping, and while it is considered immutable in FatScript, it may be mutated through the function call. This is expected behavior and is way of interfacing FatScript with C.

Advanced raw data manipulation

To have a better understanding of how `bridge` works, you can study the [FFI test case](#) and the sample implementation projects [zlib.fat](#) and [qrcode.fat](#).

bridge

Bridge in Web Build

When using fry built with Emscripten (for example, when using [FatScript Playground](#)), there is no support for this library.

color

ANSI color codes for console

Import

```
_ <- fat.color
```

Constants

- black, 0
- red, 1
- green, 2
- yellow, 3
- blue, 4
- magenta, 5
- cyan, 6
- white, 7
- bright.black, 8
- bright.red, 9
- bright.green, 10
- bright.yellow, 11
- bright.blue, 12
- bright.magenta, 13
- bright.cyan, 14
- bright.white, 15

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
detectDepth	<> Number	Get console color support
to8	(xr: Any, g: Number = \emptyset , b: Number = \emptyset)	Convert RGB to 8-color mode
to16	(xr: Any, g: Number = \emptyset , b: Number = \emptyset)	Convert RGB to 16-color mode
to256	(xr: Any, g: Number = \emptyset , b: Number = \emptyset)	Convert RGB to 256-color mode
to24Bit	(xr: Any, g: Number = \emptyset , b: Number = \emptyset)	Encode RGB for true color

Usage notes

to8, to16, to256 and to24Bit

The parameter `xr` can be an optional text representing the color in HTML format. For example, it can be provided as `'fae830'` or `'#fae830'` (yellow):

```
color <- fat.console
console <- fat.console
```

```
console.log('hey', color.to16('fae830'))
console.log('hey', color.to256('fae830'))
```

However, if `xr` is a number between 0 and 255 representing `r`, then the `g` and `b` parameters will be required:

```
console.log('hey', color.to256(250, 232, 48)) // same result
```

these methods may produce approximations of the original color in 8, 16 or 256 depths and not the exact true color

See also

- [Console library](#)
- [Curses library](#)
- [256 Colors](#)

console

Console input and output operations

Import

```
_ <- fat.console
```

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
log	(msg: Any, fg: Number = 0, bg: Number = 0): Void	Print msg to stdout, with newline
print	(msg: Any, fg: Number = 0, bg: Number = 0): Void	Print msg to stdout, without newline
stderr	(msg: Any, fg: Number = 0, bg: Number = 0): Void	Print msg to stderr, with newline
input	(msg: Any, mode: Text = 0): Text	Print msg and return input of stdin
flush	<> Void	Flush stdout buffer
cls	<> Void	Clear stdout using ANSI escape codes
moveTo	(x: Number, y: Number): Void	Move cursor using ANSI escape codes
isTTY	<> Boolean	Check if stdout is a terminal
showProgress	(label: Text, fraction: Number): Void	Render progress bar, fraction 0 to 1

the methods `log`, `stderr` and `input` ensure thread safety in asynchronous scenarios

Usage notes

output

By default, `stdout` and `stderr` both print to the console. The foreground color (`fg`) and background color (`bg`) parameters are optional.

colors are automatically suppressed if the output buffer is not a TTY

input

The optional `mode` parameter accepts the following values:

- 'plain', plain input (no readline cursor, no history)
- 'quiet', like plain mode, but without feedback
- 'secret', special mode for password input
- `null` (default), with readline and input history

See also

- [Color library](#)
- [Curses library](#)

curses

Terminal-based user interface

although the inspiration is acknowledged, FatScript has it's own way of approaching terminal UI which differs in many ways from the original curses library

Import

```
_ <- fat.curses
```

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
box	(p1: Scope, p2: Scope): Void	Draw square from pos1 to pos2
fill	(p1: Scope, p2: Scope, p: Text = ' '): Void	Fill from pos1 to pos2 with p
clear	<> Void	Clear screen buffer
refresh	<> Void	Render screen buffer
getMax	<> Scope	Return screen size as x, y
printAt	(pos: Scope, msg: Any, width: Number = 0): Void	Print msg at { x, y } pos
makePair	(fg: Number = 0, bg: Number = 0): Number	Create a color pair
usePair	(pair: Number): Void	Apply color pair
frameTo	(cols: Number, rows: Number)	Align view to screen center
setMouse	(enabled: Boolean): Void	Mouse tracking with readKey
readKey	<> Text	Return key pressed
readText	(pos: Scope, width: Number, prev: Text = 0): Text	Start a text box input
flushKeys	<> Void	Flush input buffer
endCurses	<> Void	Exit curses mode

positions (pos) are of form { x: Number, y: Number }

the methods in this library **do not ensure** thread safety in asynchronous scenarios, use either the main thread **or** a single [worker](#) to render console updates

Usage notes

Any method of this library, except `getMax` and `endCurses`, will start curses mode if not yet started. Note that methods such as `log`, `stderr` and `input` from [console](#) library will implicitly call `endCurses`. However, `moveTo`, `print` and `flush` will not change the output mode, and can be paired with curses methods, which can be useful in some circumstances.

The letters `x` and `y` stand for column and row respectively when calling `printAt`, where (0, 0) is the upper-left corner and the result of `getMax` is the just the first coordinate outside the lower-right corner.

special characters on curses only work if a UTF-8 [locale](#) can be set

makePair

You can import the [color](#) library to use color names and create a combination of foreground and background (pair). Pass `null` to apply the default color to the desired parameter.

usePair

The input of this method should be a color pair created with `makePair` method. It leaves this pair enabled until you call it again with a different pair.

readKey

This method is non-blocking and returns `null` if `stdin` is empty, otherwise it will return one character at a time.

Special keys may be detected and return keywords such as:

- arrow keys:
 - up
 - down
 - left
 - right
- edit keys:
 - delete
 - backspace
 - enter
 - space
 - tab
 - backTab (shift+tab)
- control keys:
 - pageUp
 - pageDown
 - home
 - end
 - insert
 - esc
- other:
 - resize (terminal window was resized)
 - mouse:button:column:row:isRelease (when tracking mouse events)

the correct detection of keys can depend on the context or platform

readText

Enters text capture mode using an area demarcated by position and width of the text box. If the text is larger than the space, an automatic text scroll is performed. The full text is returned when `enter` or `tab` is pressed, however, if `esc` is pressed, `null` is returned.

See also

- [MouseEvent type](#)
- [Color library](#)
- [Console library](#)

enigma

Cryptography, hash and UUID methods

Import

```
_ <- fat.enigma
```

Standard methods

These methods are available on all fry builds. Although `derive`, `encrypt`, and `decrypt` help create "non-human-readable" ciphertext, they are not considered cryptographically secure. **DO NOT use them alone to protect sensitive data!**

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>getHash</code>	<code>(msg: Text): Number</code>	Compute a 32-bit hash of text
<code>genUUID</code>	<code><> Text</code>	Generate a UUID (version 4)
<code>genKey</code>	<code>(len: Number): Text</code>	Generate a random key
<code>derive</code>	<code>(secret: Text, salt: Text, iter: Number): Text</code>	Basic key derivation function
<code>encrypt</code>	<code>(msg: Text, key: Text = \emptyset): Text</code>	Encrypt message using key
<code>decrypt</code>	<code>(msg: Text, key: Text = \emptyset): Text</code>	Decrypt message using key

OpenSSL methods

These methods are cryptographically safe and only available in builds that include OpenSSL support. They provide robust tools for handling encryption, decryption, hashing, and key derivation with high-security standards.

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>digest</code>	<code>(data: Chunk, algo: Text = 'sha256'): HugeInt</code>	Compute a secure hash
<code>bytes</code>	<code>(len: Number): Chunk</code>	Generate random bytes
<code>pbkdf2</code>	<code>(secret: Text, salt: Text, iter: Number, algo: Text): HugeInt</code>	Derive key using PBKDF2
<code>hmac</code>	<code>(data: Chunk, key: Chunk, algo: Text): HugeInt</code>	Compute auth-code
<code>encryptAES</code>	<code>(data: Chunk, key: Chunk): Chunk</code>	Encrypt data with AES-256 key
<code>decryptAES</code>	<code>(data: Chunk, key: Chunk): Chunk</code>	Decrypt AES-256 encrypted data

Usage notes

getHash

A 32-bit hash is sufficient to protect against data corruption in up to 100kb. Fry uses `FNV1A_Jesteress`, which is one of the fastest and "good enough" hash algorithm for "long" strings.

genUUID

A UUID, or Universally Unique Identifier, is a 128-bit number used to identify objects or entities in computer systems. The implementation generates random UUIDs following the format of version 4 RFC 4122 specification, though it does not strictly adhere to cryptographically secure randomness standards.

genKey

Generates a random key using the Base64 alphabet.

derive (unsafe)

This deterministic key derivation function outputs a 32-character string using the Base64 alphabet. While it may appear to offer 192 bits of entropy, the effective entropy **is significantly lower** due to the underlying hashing function.

Note: The original intention of this function is also key stretching. It is designed to be used in conjunction with the `encrypt` and `decrypt` functions, providing an additional layer of processing for the keys used in these cryptographic

operations. However, as the method does not provide robust cryptographic security by itself, it is recommended to use more secure key derivation methods for applications that require high standards of data protection.

encrypt/decrypt (unsafe)

These functions can be used with or without a specified key (blank for default key). They employ a simple XOR operation combined with a control hash and are encoded in Base64. These methods are **not cryptographically secure** and should not be used for protecting sensitive data, unless combined with a [one-time pad](#).

Additional details for OpenSSL methods

digest

Supports multiple hash algorithms including sha1, sha224, sha256, sha384, sha512, sha3_224, sha3_256, sha3_384, sha3_512, allowing flexibility depending on security requirements.

bytes

Ideal for creating high-entropy cryptographic keys and initialization vectors (IVs).

pbkdf2

Utilizes a password, salt, and specified number of iterations along with a cryptographic hash function to produce a robust encryption key.

hmac

Ensures data integrity and authenticity using a secret key and the specified hash function.

encryptAES/decryptAES

Operate using AES-256-CCM mode, providing confidentiality and authenticity. The key should be precisely 32 bytes long, obtained from a secure source like the pbkdf2 function, this can typically be achieved like:

```
key: HugeInt = enigma.pbkdf2(...)  
encryptionKey = key.toChunk.fit(32)
```

failure

Error handling and exception management

Import

```
_ <- fat.failure
```

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
trap	<> Void	Apply generic error handler
trapWith	(handler: Method): Void	Set a handler for errors in context
untrap	<> Void	Unset error handler in context
noCrash	(unsafe: Method): Any	Continue on error within unsafe method

Usage notes

When an error is raised if an error handler is found, seeking from the inner execution context to the outer, the handler wrapping the failure is automatically invoked with that error as argument, and the calling context is exited with return value of the error handler.

trapWith

This method binds an error handler to the context of the calling site, e.g. when used inside a method it will protect the logic executed inside the body of that method, and if an error occurs, the method will exit returning whatever is returned by the error handler itself.

you may need to ensure that your error handler will also return a valid type for that context

Example

Define an error handler that prints the error and exits:

```
console <- fat.console
system  <- fat.system
sdk     <- fat.sdk

simpleErrorHandler = (error) -> {
  console.log(error)
  sdk.printStackTrace(10)
  system.exit(system.failureCode)
}
```

Finally, use `trapWith` method to assign the error handler:

```
failure <- fat.failure
failure.trapWith(simpleErrorHandler)
```

Trap it!

You can handle expected errors or pass through the unexpected:

```
failure <- fat.failure
_       <- fat.type.Error

MyError = Error

errorHandler = (e): Number -> e >> {
  MyError => 0 # resolve (expected)
  _      => e  # pass through (unexpected)
}
```


failure

```
unsafeMethod = (n) -> {  
  failure.trapWith(errorHandler)  
  n < 10 ? MyError('arg is less than ten')  
  n - 10  
}
```

In this case the program will not crash if you call `unsafeMethod(5)`, but if you comment out the `trapWith` line, you will see it crashing with `MyError`.

See also

- [Error \(syntax\)](#)
- [Error prototype extensions](#)
- [Flow control](#)

file

File input and output operations

Import

```
_ <- fat.file
```

Type contributions

Name	Signature	Brief
FileInfo	(modTime: Epoch, size: Text)	File metadata

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
basePath	<> Text	Extract path where app was called
resolve	(path: Text): Text	Return canonical name for path
exists	(path: Text): Boolean	Check file exists on provided path
read	(path: Text): Text	Read file from path (text mode)
readBin	(path: Text): Chunk	Read file from path (binary mode)
readSys	(path: Text): Text	Read system/virtual file from path
write	(path: Text, src): Void	Write src to file and return success
append	(path: Text, src): Void	Append to file and return success
remove	(path: Text): Void	Remove files and directories
isDir	(path: Text): Boolean	Check if path is a directory
mkDir	(path: Text, safe: Boolean)	Create a directory
lsDir	(path: Text): List/Text	Get list of files in a directory
stat	(path: Text): FileInfo	Get file metadata

starting with version 3.3.0, in case of an exception, all methods in the `file` library raise `FileError` instead of returning a boolean or null value, providing a more consistent interface with the other standard libraries

Usage notes

write/append

These methods will intelligently handle different data types to optimize file output. For the `Chunk` type, they automatically write in binary mode, and for the `Text` type, as plain text. For other types, they implicitly stringify the `src` value before writing, ensuring all values are handled gracefully.

remove

The behavior is similar to `rm -r`, removing files and directories recursively.

starting with version 3.0.1, symbolic links are not followed; in version 3.0.0, symbolic links were followed; previous versions of `frj` did not implement recursive deletion

mkDir

The behavior is similar to `mkdir -p`, creating intermediate directories when necessary.

If `safe` is set to `true`, the new directory is assigned 0700 permissions, offering more protection, instead of the default 0755 permissions, which offer less protection.

read vs. readSys

file

The `read` method is optimized for reading regular files with predictable sizes, using `stat` to allocate memory efficiently before reading the entire file. In contrast, `readSys` is designed for system or virtual files from directories like `/proc` or `/sys`, where file sizes cannot be determined beforehand. It adjusts memory allocation dynamically during reading.

See also

- [Failure library](#)
- [Recode library](#)

http

HTTP handling framework

Import

```
_ <- fat.http
```

Route

A route is a structure used to map HTTP methods to certain path patterns, specifying what code should be executed when a request comes in. Each route can define a different behavior for each HTTP method (POST, GET, PUT, DELETE).

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Route	(path: Text, post: Method, get: Method, put: Method, delete: Method)	Constructs a Route object
		each implemented method receives an <code>HttpRequest</code> as argument and shall return an <code>HttpResponse</code> object

HttpRequest

An `HttpRequest` represents an HTTP request message. This is what your server receives from a client when it makes a request to your server.

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
HttpRequest	(method: Text, path: Text, headers: List, params: Scope, body: Any)	Constructs an <code>HttpRequest</code> object
		the items <code>params</code> and <code>body</code> may be omitted depending on the request received

HttpResponse

An `HttpResponse` represents an HTTP response message. This is what a server sends back to the client in response to an HTTP request.

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
HttpResponse	(status: Number, headers: List/Text, body: Any)	Constructs an <code>HttpResponse</code> object
		for client mode responses, <code>body</code> will be provided as <code>Text</code> if a textual MIME type can be found in the <code>headers</code> , otherwise it will be provided as <code>Chunk</code>

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
setHeaders	(headers: List): Void	Set headers of requests
post	(url: Text, body, wait): HttpResponse	Create/post body to url
get	(url: Text, wait): HttpResponse	Read/get from url
put	(url: Text, body, wait): HttpResponse	Update/put body to url
delete	(url: Text, wait): HttpResponse	Delete on url
setName	(name: Text): Void	Set user agent/server name
verifySSL	(enabled: Boolean): Void	SSL configuration (client mode)
setSSL	(certPath: Text, keyPath: Text): Void	SSL configuration (server mode)
listen	(port: Number, routes: List/Route, maxMs)	Endpoint provider (server mode)

http

`body`: Any and `wait`: `Number` are always optional parameters, being that if `body` does not fall under `Text` or `Chunk`, it will be automatically converted to JSON during the send process, and `wait` is the maximum waiting time and the default is 30,000ms (30 seconds)

`verifySSL` is enabled by default for the client mode

`setSSL` may not be available, case the system doesn't have OpenSSL

Usage notes

Client mode

In the `HttpResponse.body`, you may need to explicitly parse a JSON response to `Scope` using the `fromJSON` method. To post a native type as JSON, you can encode it using the `toJSON` method; however, this is not strictly necessary, as it will be done implicitly. Both methods are available in the [fat.recode](#) library.

If headers are not set, the default `Content-Type` header for `Chunk` will be `application/octet-stream`, for `Text` will be `text/plain`; `charset=UTF-8` and for other types, it will be `application/json`; `charset=UTF-8` (due to implicit conversion).

You can set custom request headers like so:

```
http <- fat.http

url = ...
token = ...
body = ...

http.setHeaders([
  "Accept: application/json; charset=UTF-8"
  "Content-Type: application/json; charset=UTF-8"
  "Authorization: Bearer " + token # custom header
])

http.post(url, body)
```

setting headers will completely replace previous list with new list

When performing async requests, you may need to call `setHeaders`, `setName`, and configure `verifySSL` within each `Worker`, as these settings are local to each thread.

Server mode

Handling HTTP Responses

You can define the `maxMS` optional parameter, when calling `listen` to restrict how long the server will wait for each request to transfer its contents (inbound connection), returning status 408 if exceeded.

The FatScript server automatically handles common HTTP status codes such as 200, 400, 404, 405, 408, 500, and 501. Being 200 the default when constructing an `HttpResponse` object.

In addition to the common status codes, you can also explicitly return other status codes, such as 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 301, 401, and 403, by specifying the status code in the `HttpResponse` object, for example: `HttpResponse(status = 401)`. For all codes mentioned here, the server provides default plain text bodies. However, you have the option to override these defaults and provide your own custom response bodies when necessary.

By automatically handling these status codes and providing default response bodies, the FatScript server simplifies the development process while still allowing you to have control over the response content when needed.

if the status code doesn't belong to any of the above, the server will return a 500 code

See an example of a simple file HTTP server:

```
_ <- fat.std

# adapt to content location
directory = '/home/user/contentFolder'
```

http

```
# restrict to some extensions only
mediaTypesByExtension = {
  htm = html = 'text/html'
  js = 'application/javascript'
  json = 'application/json'
  css = 'text/css'
  md = 'text/markdown'
  xml = 'application/xml'
  csv = 'text/csv'
  txt = 'text/plain'
  svg = 'image/svg+xml'
  rss = 'application/rss+xml'
  atom = 'application/atom+xml'
  png = 'image/png'
  jpg = jpeg = 'image/jpeg'
  gif = 'image/gif'
  ico = 'image/x-icon'
  webp = 'image/webp'
  woff = 'font/woff'
  woff2 = 'font/woff2'
}

routes: List/Route = [
  Route(
    '*'
    get = (request: HttpRequest): HttpResponse -> {
      path = file.resolve(directory + request.path) # sanitized path
      type = path & path.startsWith(directory) # jailed access
      ? mediaTypesByExtension(path.split('.').(-1))

      path.isEmpty => HttpResponse(status = 404) # not found
      type.isEmpty => HttpResponse(status = 403) # forbidden
      - status = 200
        headers = [ 'Content-Type: {type}' ]
        body = file.readBin(path)
    }
  )
]
)
```

```
http.listen(8080, routes)
```

use `http.listen(0, routes)` to start a server with an auto-assigned port number, and check the actual port assigned to the server through the `$port` embedded command

math

Mathematical operations and functions

Import

```
_ <- fat.math
```

Constants

- e, natural logarithm constant 2.71...
- maxInt, 9007199254740992
- minInt, -9007199254740992
- pi, ratio of circle to its diameter 3.14...

read more about [number precision](#) in FatScript

Basic functions

Name	Signature	Brief
abs	(x: Number): Number	Return absolute value of x
ceil	(x: Number): Number	Return smallest integer $\geq x$
floor	(x: Number): Number	Return largest integer $\leq x$
isInf	(x: Number): Boolean	Return true if x is infinity
isNaN	(x: Any): Boolean	Return true if x is not a number
logN	(x: Number, base: Number = e): Number	Return logarithm of x
random	$\langle \rangle$ Number	Return pseudo-random, where $0 \leq n < 1$
sqrt	(x: Number): Number	Return the square root of x
round	(x: Number): Number	Return the nearest integer to x

Trigonometric functions

Name	Signature	Brief
sin	(x: Number): Number	Return the sine of x
cos	(x: Number): Number	Return the cosine of x
tan	(x: Number): Number	Return the tangent of x
asin	(x: Number): Number	Return the arc sine of x
acos	(x: Number): Number	Return the arc cosine of x
atan	(x: Number, y = 1): Number	Return the arc tangent of x, y
radToDeg	(r: Number): Number	Convert radians to degrees
degToRad	(d: Number): Number	Convert degrees to radians

Hyperbolic functions

Name	Signature	Brief
sinh	(x: Number): Number	Return the hyperbolic sine of x
cosh	(x: Number): Number	Return the hyperbolic cosine of x
tanh	(x: Number): Number	Return the hyperbolic tangent of x

Statistical functions

Name	Signature	Brief
mean	(v: List/Number): Number	Return the mean of a vector
median	(v: List/Number): Number	Return the median of a vector

Name	Signature	Brief
sigma	(v: List/Number): Number	Return the standard deviation of a vector
variance	(v: List/Number): Number	Return the variance of a vector
max	(v: List/Number): Number	Return maximum value in vector
min	(v: List/Number): Number	Return the minimum value in vector
sum	(v: List/Number): Number	Return the sum of vector

Other functions

Name	Signature	Brief
fact	(x: Number): Number	Return the factorial of x
exp	(x: Number): Number	Return e raised to the power of x
sigmoid	(x: Number): Number	Return the sigmoid of x
relu	(x: Number): Number	Return the ReLU of x

Example

```
math <- fat.math # named import
math.abs(-52)   # yields 52
```

See also

- [Number \(syntax\)](#)
- [Number prototype extensions](#)

recode

Data conversion between various formats

Import

```
_ <- fat.recode
```

[type package](#) is automatically imported with this import

Variables

These settings can be used to adjust the behavior of the processing functions:

- csvSeparator, default is , (comma)
- csvQuote, default is " (double quote)

Base64 functions

Name	Signature	Brief
toBase64	(data: Chunk): Text	Encode binary chunk to base64 text
fromBase64	(b64: Text): Chunk	Decode base64 text to original format

JSON functions

Name	Signature	Brief
toJSON	(val: Any): Text	Encode JSON from native types
fromJSON	(json: Text): Any	Decode JSON to native types

with toJSON the native types such as HugeInt, Method, and Chunk will translate into null, while Errors will be converted to text

URL functions

Name	Signature	Brief
toURL	(text: Text): Text	Encode text to URL escaped text
fromURL	(url: Text): Text	Decode URL escaped text to original format
toFormData	(data: Scope): Text	Encode scope to URL encoded Form Data
fromFormData	(data: Text): Scope	Decode URL encoded Form Data to scope

CSV functions

Name	Signature	Brief
toCSV	(header: List/Text, rows: List/Scope): Text	Encode CSV from rows
fromCSV	(csv: Text): List/Scope	Decode CSV into rows

starting with version 4.x.x CSV methods support automatic quoting, escaped quotes, separators and new lines within quotes

RLE functions

Name	Signature	Brief
toRLE	(chunk: Chunk): Chunk	Compress to RLE schema
fromRLE	(chunk: Chunk): Chunk	Decompress from RLE schema

Frost and hot copies

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>toFrostCopy</code>	<code>(item: Any): Any</code>	Creates immutable copy of item
<code>toHotCopy</code>	<code>(item: Any): Any</code>	Creates mutable copy of item

`toFrostCopy` ensures immutability, ideal for capturing "safe" nested data snapshots, while `toHotCopy` allows data to be heated up again, useful where frozen data needs further processing

Other functions

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>inferType</code>	<code>(val: Text): Any</code>	Convert text to void/boolean/number
<code>minify</code>	<code>(src: Text): Text</code>	Minifies FatScript source code

`minify` will replace any `$break` statements (debugger breakpoint) with `()`

To disable the type inference provided by `inferType` for `fromFormData` and `fromCSV`, you can override it globally by using `recode.inferType = -> _` after importing `fat.recode`, or to reactivate it use `recode.inferType = val -> $inferType`.

See also

- [Type package](#)
- [SDK library](#)

sdk

Fry's software development kit utilities

a special library that exposes some of the inner elements of fry interpreter

Import

```
_ <- fat.sdk
```

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
ast	(_): Void	Print abstract syntax tree of node
stringify	(_): Text	Serialize node into JSON-like text
eval	(_): Any	Interpret text as FatScript program
getVersion	<> Text	Return fry version
printStack	(depth: Number): Void	Print execution context stack trace
readLib	(ref: Text): Text	Return fry library source code
typeof	(_): Text	Return type name of node
getTypes	<> List	Return info about declared types
getDef	(name: Text): Any	Return type definition by name
getMeta	<> Scope	Return interpreter's metadata
setKey	(key: Text): Void	Set key for obfuscated bundles
setMem	(n: Number): Void	Set memory limit (node count)
runGC	<> Number	Run GC, return elapsed in milliseconds
quickGC	<> Number	Run single GC cycle and return ms

Usage notes

stringify

While `recode.toJSON` outputs strictly valid JSON, `stringify` is more lax. It is capable of exporting `HugeInt` as hexadecimal numbers (e.g., `0x123abc`), `Chunk` as Base64 encoded, and other types may also have representations more informative than just `NULL`. These representations are designed to allow a richer export for the FatScript environment and are not intended for JSON-compliant serialization.

readLib

```
_ <- fat.sdk
_ <- fat.console
```

```
print(readLib('fat.extra.Date')) # prints the Date library implementation
```

`readLib` cannot see external files, but `read` from [file lib](#) can

setKey

Use preferably on `.fryrc` file like so:

```
_ <- fat.sdk
setKey('secret') # will encode and decode bundles with this key
```

See more about [obfuscating](#).

setMem

Use preferably on `.fryrc` file like so:

sdk

```
_ <- fat.sdk  
setMem(5000) # ~2mb
```

Choosing between full and quick GC

Most simple scripts in FatScript won't need to worry about memory management, as the default settings are designed to provide ample memory capacity and efficient automatic behavior from the start. Generally, the best way to optimize performance is by simply adjusting the memory limit. In some rare cases, such as a game loop or complex iterative processes, you may benefit from explicitly calling the GC.

The `quickGC` method performs a quick and less exhaustive cleanup, making it suitable for scenarios where some flexibility in memory allocation is acceptable. On the other hand, `runGC` ensures a more complete garbage collection, but it can result in longer runtimes depending on factors such as the size and complexity of the memory graph. However, `quickGC` may lead to the accumulation of unclaimed memory, making it less effective in certain contexts. The best way to determine the most appropriate option is to perform comparative tests on your application, simulating real-use scenarios.

run your script with the `-c` flag to benchmark its execution

See more about [memory management](#).

See also

- [Recode library](#)

smtp

SMTP handling framework

this library provides a simple interface for configuring SMTP parameters and sending emails

Import

```
_ <- fat.smtp
```

Types

The `smtp` library introduces the `ContactInfo` type.

ContactInfo

The `ContactInfo` type represents an email contact, which can include an optional name along with the email address.

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>ContactInfo</code>	<code>(email: Text, name: Text = "")</code>	Construct a <code>ContactInfo</code> object

- **email**: The email address of the contact.
- **name** (optional): The name of the contact.

Methods

config

Configures the SMTP settings.

Parameter	Type	Description
<code>from</code>	<code>ContactInfo</code>	An object representing the sender.
<code>server</code>	<code>Text</code>	The SMTP server URL/address.
<code>username</code>	<code>Text</code>	The username for SMTP authentication.
<code>password</code>	<code>Text</code>	The password for SMTP authentication.
<code>useSSL</code>	<code>Boolean</code>	Use SSL/TLS (defaults to true).

raises an error if the configuration fails

send

Sends an email.

Parameter	Type	Description
<code>to</code>	<code>List/ContactInfo</code>	A list of recipients.
<code>subject</code>	<code>Text</code>	The subject of the email.
<code>body</code>	<code>Text</code>	The body of the email.

returns the message UUID on success

Usage notes

Example:

```
smtp <- fat.smtp
```

```
smtp.config(
  from = ContactInfo('sender@example.com', 'Sender Name')
```

smtp

```
server = 'smtps://smtp.example.com:port'
username = 'your_username'
password = 'your_password'
)

smtp.send(
  to = [
    ContactInfo('recipient1@example.com', 'Recipient One')
    ContactInfo('recipient2@example.com') # name is optional
  ]
  subject = 'Test Email'
  body = 'This is a test email sent using fat.smtp.'
)
```

SSL/TLS is enabled by default in the SMTP configuration. If your SMTP server requires SSL/TLS, no additional configuration is needed. However, if your server does not support SSL/TLS, you can disable it by setting `useSSL` to `false` when calling `config`.

SMTP in Web Build

When using `fry` built with Emscripten (for example, when using [FatScript Playground](#)), there is no support for this library.

socket

TCP socket manipulation

optionally supports SSL/TLS (if the OpenSSL library is available)

Import

```
_ <- fat.socket
```

Structures

ClientSocket

Represents a client connection, i.e., a socket connected to a remote server.

Properties

Name	Type	Description
id	Number	Internal file descriptor of the socket
peer	Text	Metadata about the remote endpoint
ssl	Chunk	Internally used for SSL sessions

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief description
receive	(nBytes: Number): Chunk	Reads up to nBytes from socket
send	(data: Chunk): Void	Sends data to the socket
close	<> Void	Closes the connection

`receive(nBytes)` will block until it obtains some data or until the connection is closed

ServerSocket

Represents a socket in server mode, which waits for client connections.

Properties

Name	Type	Description
id	Number	Internal file descriptor of the socket

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief description
accept	(wait: Number): ClientSocket	Waits for a connection for up to wait ms
close	<> Void	Closes the server socket

Standalone methods

Name	Signature	Brief description
connect	(addr, port, useSSL = false): ClientSocket	Connects to a remote server
verifySSL	(enabled: Boolean): Void	SSL configuration (client mode)
setSSL	(certPath: Text, keyPath: Text): Void	SSL configuration (server mode)
bind	(port: Number): ServerSocket	Starts a server on the given port

Usage notes

Client mode

Establishing a connection

Use the `connect(addr, port, useSSL)` function to create a `ClientSocket`. For example:

```
_ <- fat.type._
socket <- fat.socket

con = socket.connect("example.org", 80)
con.send("GET / HTTP/1.1\r\nHost: example.org\r\n\r\n".toChunk)
response = con.receive(1024)
...
con.close
```

Certificate verification

- To enable SSL/TLS, pass `true` to the `useSSL` parameter in `connect`.
- By default, certificate verification is active when using SSL. If you use self-signed certificates on your test server, you can call `verifySSL(false)` to disable verification:

```
socket.verifySSL(false)
con = socket.connect("localhost", 443, true)
...
```

Reading and writing

You can use `send` to send data and `receive` to read data. `send` operations delegate sending to the operating system and return immediately, while `receive` operations block until some message is received or the connection is closed by the other party.

Server mode

Listening on a port

To start a socket in server mode, use `bind(port)`, obtaining a `ServerSocket` object:

```
socket <- fat.socket

server = socket.bind(1234)
...
```

Accepting connections

- Call `server.accept(wait)` to accept client connections. If no connection appears within `wait` milliseconds, it returns `null`.
- Upon obtaining a `ClientSocket` from `accept`, you can interact with the client using `receive`, `send`, and `close`.

```
~ con = server.accept(5000) # waits up to 5 seconds
con != null ? {
  msg = con.receive(256)
  ...
  con.send(Chunk("Hello, client!"))
  con.close
}
```

use `wait` of `-1` for blocking until a new connection starts, use `wait` of `0` for non-blocking

SSL on the server

Before calling `bind`, use `setSSL("cert.pem", "key.pem")` to load a certificate and private key and enable SSL/TLS:

```
socket.setSSL("cert.pem", "key.pem")
server = socket.bind(443)
```


socket

Closing the server

Simply call `server.close` when you want to stop accepting new connections.

See also

- [Async library](#)
- [HTTP library](#)

system

System-level operations and information

Import

```
_ <- fat.system
```

Alias

- `ArgValues`: a list of arguments (Text) from command line

Types

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>CommandResult</code>	(code: <code>ExitCode</code> , out: <code>Text</code>)	Return type of capture

Constants

- `successCode`, 0: `ExitCode`
- `failureCode`, 1: `ExitCode`

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>args</code>	<code><> ArgValues</code>	Return list of args passed from shell
<code>exit</code>	(code: <code>Number</code>): <code>*</code>	Exit program with provided exit code
<code>getEnv</code>	(var: <code>Text</code>): <code>Text</code>	Get env variable value by name
<code>shell</code>	(cmd: <code>Text</code>): <code>ExitCode</code>	Execute cmd in shell, return exit code
<code>capture</code>	(cmd: <code>Text</code>): <code>CommandResult</code>	Capture the output of cmd execution
<code>fork</code>	(args: <code>List/Text</code> , out: <code>Text = ∅</code>)	Start background process, return PID
<code>kill</code>	(pid: <code>Number</code>): <code>Void</code>	Send <code>SIGTERM</code> to process by PID
<code>getLocale</code>	<code><> Text</code>	Get current locale setting
<code>setLocale</code>	(_: <code>Text</code>): <code>Number</code>	Set current locale setting
<code>getMacId</code>	<code><> Text</code>	Get machine identifier (MAC address)
<code>blockSig</code>	(enabled: <code>Boolean</code>): <code>Void</code>	Block <code>SIGINT</code> , <code>SIGHUP</code> and <code>SIGTERM</code>

Usage notes

Heads Up!

It is important to exercise caution and responsibility when using the `getEnv`, `shell`, `capture`, `fork` and `kill` methods. The `system` library provides the capability to execute commands directly from the operating system, which can introduce security risks if not used carefully.

To mitigate potential vulnerabilities, avoid using user input directly in constructing commands passed to these methods. User input should be validated to prevent command injection attacks and other security breaches.

Handling signals

When a `Ctrl+C` interruption occurs, the FatScript interpreter's main thread captures the signal and initiates a cleanup process. During this process, if it detects any running [Workers](#), it will forcibly terminate them to prevent the application from hanging.

For applications requiring more refined control over the shutdown process, FatScript provides an option to block the default signal handling by setting `system.blockSig(true)`. When enabled, the interpreter will not capture `Ctrl+C`. This requires you to implement your own termination mechanisms, possibly via `curses.readKey` or another method.

Other Limitations (multithreading)

While the methods in this library support a variety of programming tasks, they are not optimized for interleaved usage within asynchronous `Workers`. When initiating processes from within threads, opt for `shell/capture` methods, or exclusively use `fork/kill`. Mixing these two method pairs in multithreaded applications can result in unpredictable behavior.

on each call, `shell/capture` will set `SIGCHLD` to its default behavior, while `fork` will ignore this signal to try to avoid zombie processes

fork

The `out` parameter allows redirecting the standard output (`stdout`) to a specified output file. If you wish to discard this output, you can use `"/dev/null"` as an argument.

get/set locale

The `fry` interpreter will attempt to initialize `LC_ALL` locale to `C.UTF-8` and if that locale is not available on the system tries to use `en_US.UTF-8`, otherwise, the default locale will be used.

See more about [locale names](#).

locale configuration applies only to application, and is not persisted after `fry` exits

time

Time and date manipulation

Import

```
_ <- fat.time
```

[number type](#) is automatically imported with this import

Methods

Name	Signature	Brief
setZone	(offset: Number): Void	Set timezone in milliseconds
getZone	<> Number	Get current timezone offset
now	<> Epoch	Get current UTC in Epoch
format	(date: Text, fmt: Text = \emptyset): Epoch	Convert Epoch to date format
parse	(date: Text, fmt: Text = \emptyset): Epoch	Parse date to Epoch
wait	(ms: Number): Void	Wait for milliseconds (sleep)
getElapsed	(since: Epoch): Text	Return elapsed time as text

Usage notes

Epoch

In FatScript time is represented as an arithmetic type so that you can do maths.

You can get the elapsed time between `time1` and `time2` like:

```
elapsed = time2 - time1
```

You can also check if `time2` happens after `time1`, simply like:

```
time2 > time1
```

format

Formats text date as "%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S.milliseconds" (default), when `fmt` is omitted.

milliseconds can only be transformed in default format, otherwise the precision is up to seconds

fmt parameter

The format specification is a text containing a special character sequence called conversion specifications, each of which is introduced by a '%' character and terminated by some other character known as a conversion specifier. All other characters are treated as ordinary text.

Specifier	Meaning
%a	Abbreviated weekday name
%A	Full weekday name
%b	Abbreviated month name
%B	Full month name
%c	Date/Time in the format of the locale
%C	Century number [00-99], the year divided by 100 and truncated to an integer
%d	Day of the month [01-31]
%D	Date Format, same as %m/%d/%y
%e	Same as %d, except single digit is preceded by a space [1-31]
%g	2 digit year portion of ISO week date [00,99]

Specifier	Meaning
%F	ISO Date Format, same as %Y-%m-%d
%G	4 digit year portion of ISO week date
%h	Same as %b
%H	Hour in 24-hour format [00-23]
%I	Hour in 12-hour format [01-12]
%j	Day of the year [001-366]
%m	Month [01-12]
%M	Minute [00-59]
%n	Newline character
%p	AM or PM string
%r	Time in AM/PM format of the locale
%R	24-hour time format without seconds, same as %H:%M
%S	Second [00-61], the range for seconds allows for a leap second and a double leap second
%t	Tab character
%T	24-hour time format with seconds, same as %H:%M:%S
%u	Weekday [1,7], Monday is 1 and Sunday is 7
%U	Week number of the year [00-53], Sunday is the first day of the week
%V	ISO week number of the year [01-53]. Monday is the first day of the week. If the week containing January 1st has four or more days in the new year then it is considered week 1. Otherwise, it is the last week of the previous year, and the next year is week 1 of the new year.
%w	Weekday [0,6], Sunday is 0
%W	Week number of the year [00-53], Monday is the first day of the week
%x	Date in the format of the locale
%X	Time in the format of the locale
%y	2 digit year [00,99]
%Y	4-digit year (can be negative)
%z	UTC offset string with format +HHMM or -HHMM
%Z	Time zone name
%%	% character

Under the hood `format` uses C's [strftime](#) and `parse` uses C's [strptime](#), but the above format specification table applies pretty much both ways.

type._

type._

Prototype extensions for [native types](#):

- [Void](#)
- [Boolean](#)
- [Number](#)
- [HugeInt](#)
- [Text](#)
- [Method](#)
- [List](#)
- [Scope](#)
- [Error](#)
- [Chunk](#)

FatScript **does not** load these definitions automatically into global scope, therefore you have to **explicitly import** those where needed

Importing

If you want to make all of them available at once you can simply write:

```
_ <- fat.type._
```

...or import one-by-one, as needed, e.g.:

```
_ <- fat.type.List
```

Common trait

All types on this package support the following prototype methods:

- apply (constructor)
- isEmpty
- nonEmpty
- size
- toText

Except for `Void`, all other types implement also the method `freeze`.

See also

- [Types\(syntax\)](#)

Void

Void prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Void
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Void	(val: Any)	Return null, just ignore argument

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true, always
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return false, always
size	<> Number	Return 0, always
toText	<> Text	Return 'null' as text

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.Void  
x.isEmpty # true, since x has not been declared
```

See also

- [Void \(syntax\)](#)
- [Type package](#)

Boolean

Boolean prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Boolean
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Boolean	(val: Any)	Coerce value to boolean

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if false
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return false if true
size	<> Number	Return 1 if true, 0 if false
toText	<> Text	Return 'true' or 'false' as text
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable

Examples

```
_ <- fat.type.Boolean

~ x = true
x.isEmpty      # false, since x is true
x.nonEmpty     # true, since x is not empty
x.size         # 1, since true maps to size 1
x.toText       # 'true', converts boolean to text

x.freeze
x = false      # raises an error, x is immutable after freeze

Boolean('false') # yields true, because text is non-empty
Boolean('')      # yields false, because text is empty
```

note that the constructor does not attempt to convert value from text, which is consistent with flow control evaluations, and you can use a simple [case](#) if you need to make conversion from text to boolean

See also

- [Boolean \(syntax\)](#).
- [Type package](#)

Number

Number prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Number
```

Aliases

- Epoch: unix epoch time in milliseconds
- ExitCode: exit status or return code
- Millis: duration in milliseconds

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Number	(val: Any)	Text to number or collection size

performs the conversion from text to number assuming decimal base

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if non-zero
size	<> Number	Return absolute value, same as math.abs
toText	<> Text	Return number as text
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
format	(fmt: Text): Text	Return number as formatted text
truncate	<> Number	Return number discarding decimals

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.Number
x = Number('52') # number: 52
x.toText         # text: '52'
x.format('.2')   # text: '52.00'
```

format

The `format` method is used to convert numbers into strings in various ways. The basic structure of a format specifier is `% [flags][width][.precision][type]`. Here's what each of these components mean:

- `flags` are optional characters that control specific formatting behavior. For example, `0` can be used for zero-padding and `-` for left-justification.
- `width` is an integer that specifies the minimum number of characters to be printed. If the value to be printed is shorter than this number, the result is padded with blank spaces or zeros, depending on the flag used.
- `precision` is an optional number following a `.` that specifies the number of digits to be printed after the decimal point.
- `type` is a character that specifies how the number should be represented. The common types are `f` (fixed-point notation), `e` (exponential notation), `g` (either fixed or exponential depending on the magnitude of the number), and `a` (hexadecimal floating-point notation).

Examples:

Number

- `%5.f`: This will print the number with a total width of 5 characters, with no digits after the decimal point (because the precision is `f`, which means fixed-point, but no number follows the dot). It will be right-justified because no `-` flag is used.
- `%05.f`: Similar to the above, but because the `0` flag is used, the empty spaces will be filled with zeros.
- `%8.2f`: This will print the number with a total width of 8 characters, with 2 digits after the decimal point.
- `%-8.2f`: Similar to the above, but the number will be left-justified because of the `-` flag.
- `%.2e`: This will print the number using exponential notation, with 2 digits after the decimal point.
- `%.2a`: This will print the number using hexadecimal floating-point notation, with 2 digits after the hexadecimal point.
- `%.2g`: This will print the number in either fixed-point or exponential notation, depending on its magnitude, with a maximum of 2 significant digits.

if the `%` symbol is not present, `fmt` is automatically evaluated as `%<fmt>f`

See also

- [Number \(syntax\)](#)
- [Math library](#)
- [Type package](#)

HugeInt

HugeInt prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.HugeInt
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
------	-----------	-------

HugeInt	(val: Any)	Parse number or text to HugInt
---------	------------	--------------------------------

when converting from `Text`, the input is interpreted as a hexadecimal representation

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if non-zero
size	<> Number	Return number of bits to represent
toText	<> Text	Return number as hexadecimal text
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
modExp	(exp: HugeInt, mod: HugeInt): HugeInt	Return modular exponentiation
toNumber	<> Number	Converts to number (with loss)
toChunk	<> Chunk	Encodes to binary representation

Examples

```
_ <- fat.type.HugeInt

# Converting HugeInt
x = 0x1f4 # 500 in hexadecimal
x.toText # returns '1f4'
x.toNumber # returns 500
x.size # 9 bits are required to represent 500

# Modular exponentiation
y = 0x3 # 3 in hexadecimal
z = 0x5 # 5 in hexadecimal
mod = 0x7 # 7 in hexadecimal
y.modExp(z, mod) # 0x5, equivalent to (3^5) % 7
```

Usage notes

Conversion from Number to HugeInt

- The maximum allowed value for `Number` conversion is 2^{53} .
- Attempting to pass a value greater than 2^{53} will raise a `ValueError`.

Conversion from HugeInt to Number

- Values up to $2^{1023} - 1$ can be converted, though some precision loss may occur for very large values.
- If the value exceeds this limit, the result will be `infinity`. This can be verified using the `isInf` method from the [math library](#).

the `math` library also provides the `maxInt` value, which serves to assess potential precision loss; if a number is less than `maxInt`, its conversion from `HugeInt` is considered safe without precision loss

HugeInt

See also

- [HugeInt \(syntax\)](#)
- [Type package](#)

Text

Text prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Text
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Text	(val: Any)	Coerces value to text, same as .toText

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if length is zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if non-zero length
size	<> Number	Return text length
toText	<> Text	Return self value
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
replace	(old: Text, new: Text): Text	Replace old with new (all)
indexOf	(frag: Text): Number	Get fragment index, -1 if absent
contains	(frag: Text): Boolean	Check if text contains fragment
count	(frag: Text): Number	Get repetition count for fragment
startsWith	(frag: Text): Boolean	Check if starts with fragment
endsWith	(frag: Text): Boolean	Check if ends with fragment
split	(sep: Text): List/Text	Split text by sep into list
toLowerCase	<> Text	Return lowercase version of text
toUpperCase	<> Text	Return uppercase version of text
trim	<> Text	Return trimmed version of text
isBlank	<> Boolean	Return true if only whitespaces
match	(re: Text): Boolean	Return text is match for regex
groups	(re: Text): Scope	Return matched regex groups
repeat	(n: Number): Text	Return text repeated n times
overlay	(base: Text, align: Text): Text	Return text overlaid on base
patch	(i, n, val: Text): Text	Inserts val at i, removing n chars
toChunk	<> Chunk	Encodes to binary representation

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.Text
x = 'banana'
x.size # yields 6
x.replace('nana', 'nquet'); # yields 'banquet'
```

regex

When defining regular expressions, prefer to use [raw texts](#) and remember to escape backslashes as needed, ensuring that the regular expressions are interpreted correctly:

```
alphaOnly = "^([:alpha:])+ $"
'abc'.match(alphaOnly) == true

ipAddress = "^( [0-9]{1,3} )\\. ( [0-9]{1,3} )\\. ( [0-9]{1,3} )\\. ( [0-9]{1,3} ) $"
'192.168.1.2'.groups(ipAddress) == {
```

Text

```
_0 = '192.168.1.2'  
_1 = '192'  
_2 = '168'  
_3 = '1'  
_4 = '2'  
}
```

the implemented dialect is [POSIX regex extended](#)

overlay

The default align value (if not provided) is 'left'. Other possible values are 'center' and 'right':

```
'x'.overlay('___')      # 'x__'  
'x'.overlay('___', 'left')  # 'x__'  
'x'.overlay('___', 'center') # 'x__'  
'x'.overlay('___', 'right') # 'x__'
```

the outcome is always the same size as base parameter, the text will be cut if it is longer

See also

- [Text\(syntax\)](#)
- [Type package](#)

Method

Method prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Method
```

Alias

- [Procedure](#): an argument-free function that executes automatically when referenced

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
------	-----------	-------

Method	(val: Any)	Wrap val in a method
--------	------------	----------------------

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return false, always
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true, always
size	<> Number	Return 1, always
toText	<> Text	Return 'Method' text literal
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
arity	<> Number	Return method arity

See also

- [Method \(syntax\)](#)
- [Type package](#)

List

List prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.List
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
List	(val: Any)	Wrap val into a list

the constructor takes a single argument and wraps it into a list, if multiple arguments are passed, only the first argument is considered, and the rest are ignored; which is consistent with FatScript's [arguments handling](#) support

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if length is zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if length is non-zero
size	<> Number	Return list length
toText	<> Text	Return 'List' as text literal
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
join	(sep: Text): Text	Join list with separator into text
flatten	<> List	Flatten list of lists into one list
find	(p: Method): Any	Return first matching item or null
contains	(p: Method): Boolean	Check if list has match for predicate
filter	(p: Method): List	Return sub-list matching predicate
reverse	<> List	Return a reversed copy of the list
shuffle	<> List	Return a shuffled copy of the list
unique	<> List	Return a list of unique items
sort	<> List	Return a sorted copy of the list
sortBy	(key: Any): List	Return a sorted copy of the list *
indexOf	(item: Any): Number	Return item index, -1 if absent
head	<> Any	Return first item, null if empty
tail	<> List	Return all items, but the first
map	(m: Method): List	Functional utility (allows chaining)
reduce	(m: Method, acc: Any): Any	Functional utility
walk	(m: Method): Void	Apply side-effects to each item
patch	(i, n, val: List): List	Insert val at i, removing n items
headOption	<> Option	Return first item, as Option
itemOption	(index: Number): Option	Get item by index, as Option
findOption	(p: Method): Option	Search item by predicate, as Option

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.List
x = [ 'a', 'b', 'c' ]
x.size # yields 3
```

Sorting

The `sort` and `sortBy` methods implement the quicksort algorithm, enhanced with random pivot selection. This approach is known for its efficiency, offering an average-case time complexity of $O(n \log n)$. It demonstrates high performance across most

datasets. For datasets containing duplicate values or keys, stable sorting cannot be guaranteed, and performance may degrade to $O(n^2)$ in the worst case, where all elements are identical or have the same key.

`sortBy` accepts a textual parameter for `key` if it is a list of `Scope`, or a numerical parameter if it is a list of `List` (matrix), representing the index

Reducing

The `reduce` method in FatScript transforms a list into a single value by applying a reducer (`m: Method`) to each element in sequence, starting from an initial accumulator value (`acc: Any`), or from the first element if no value is provided. This method is useful for operations that involve aggregating data from a list.

Characteristics

- **Reducer Method:** The reducer should take the current accumulator value and the current list item, returning the updated accumulator value.
- **Empty List Behavior:** When `reduce` is applied to an empty list without an initial accumulator value, it returns `null`.

restriction: the reducer method will be considered invalid if it does not take two parameters or in case it defines default values for them

Practical example

```
_ <- fat.type.List
sumReducer = (acc: Number, item: Number) -> acc + item
sum = [1, 2, 3].reduce(sumReducer) # yields 6
```

for complex data transformations or when dealing with lists of scopes, carefully structure the reducer to handle the specific data types and desired output

See also

- [List \(syntax\)](#)
- [Option type](#)
- [Type package](#)

Scope

Scope prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Scope
```

Alias

Keyset: a list of keys (List/Text)

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Scope	(val: Any)	Wrap val into a scope

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if size is zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if non-zero size
size	<> Number	Return number of entries
toText	<> Text	Return 'Scope' text literal
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
seal	<> Void	Prevents scope growth
isSealed	<> Boolean	Check if scope is sealed
copy	<> Scope	Return deep copy of scope
keys	<> Keyset	Return list of scope keys
valuesOf	(t: Type): List	Get values matching type t
pick	(keys: Keyset): Scope	Filter scope by keys
omit	(keys: Keyset): Scope	Filter scope removing keys
vmap	(m: Method): Scope	Map values (m = v1 -> v2)
maybe	(key: Text): Option	Return Option wrapped value

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.Scope
x = { num = 12, prop = 'other' }
x.size # yields 2
```

See also

- [Scope \(syntax\)](#)
- [Option type](#)
- [Type package](#)

Error

Error prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Error
```

Aliases

- `AssignError`: assigning a new value to an immutable entry
- `AsyncError`: asynchronous operation failure
- `CallError`: a call is made with insufficient arguments
- `FileError`: file operation failure
- `IndexError`: index is out of list/text bounds
- `KeyError`: the key (name) is not found in scope
- `SyntaxError`: syntax or code structure error
- `TypeError`: type mismatch on method call, return, or assign
- `ValueError`: type may be okay, but content is not accepted

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>Error</code>	<code>(val: Any)</code>	Return val coerced to text wrapped in error

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>isEmpty</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Return true, always
<code>nonEmpty</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Return false, always
<code>size</code>	<code><> Number</code>	Return 0, always
<code>toText</code>	<code><> Text</code>	Return error text val
<code>freeze</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Make the value immutable

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.Error

# Generating an error intentionally
x = Error('ops')
x.toText # yields "Error: ops"

# Inadvertently causing an error
e = undeclared.item # causes a TypeError
e.toText           # yields "TypeError: can't resolve scope of 'item'"
```

Error aliases in practice

```
# Example of AssignError
x = 10
x = 20 # raises "AssignError: reassignment to immutable > x"

# Example of IndexError
list = [ 1, 2, 3 ]
list[5] # raises "IndexError: out of bounds"

# Example of CallError
add(10) # raises "CallError: nothing to call > add > ..."
```

See also

Error

- [Failure library](#)
- [Error \(syntax\)](#)
- [Type package](#)

Chunk

Chunk prototype extensions

Import

```
_ <- fat.type.Chunk
```

Alias

- `ByteArray`: a sequence of bytes (Number [0-255])

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Chunk	(val: Any)	Coerce value to chunk (binary)

if the value is of type `Number`, creates a block of n bytes initialized to zero, where n is the provided number

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>isEmpty</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Return true if size is zero
<code>nonEmpty</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Return true if non-zero size
<code>size</code>	<code><> Number</code>	Return chunk size (in bytes)
<code>toText</code>	<code><> Text</code>	Convert chunk to text format
<code>freeze</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Make the value immutable
<code>toBytes</code>	<code><> ByteArray</code>	Convert chunk to bytes list
<code>toHugeInt</code>	<code><> HugeInt</code>	Build HugeInt from binary data
<code>seek</code>	(frag: Chunk, offset: Number = 0): Number	Return index of first match
<code>seekByte</code>	(byte: Number, offset: Number = 0): Number	Return index of first match
<code>patch</code>	(i, n, val: Chunk): Chunk	Insert val at i, removing n bytes
<code>fit</code>	(len: Number): Chunk	Tuncate to a fixed length

`toText` replaces any invalid UTF-8 sequences with U+FFFD, represented as  in UTF-8

Example

```
_ <- fat.type.Chunk

# Creating a chunk from text
x = Chunk('example')

x.size      # 7, the size in bytes
x.toText    # 'example', represented as text
x.toBytes   # [ 101, 120, 97, 109, 112, 108, 101 ], the UTF-8 values

x.seek(Chunk('am'))      # 2, the position of the match
x.patch(1, 5, Chunk('XY')) # a new chunk 'eXYe'

# Creating a chunk from a number
y = Chunk(5) # creates a chunk of 5 bytes initialized to zero

y.size      # returns 5
y.toBytes   # returns [ 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 ]
```

See also

- [Chunk \(syntax\)](#)

Chunk

- [Type package](#)

extra._

Additional types implemented in vanilla FatScript:

- [Date](#) - Calendar and date handling
- [Duration](#) - Millisecond duration builder
- [Fuzzy](#) - Probabilistic values and fuzzy logic operations
- [HashMap](#) - Quick key-value store
- [Logger](#) - Logging support
- [Memo](#) - Generic memoization utility
- [MouseEvent](#) - Mouse event parser
- [Opaque](#) - Utility for soft protection of data
- [Option](#) - Encapsulation of optional value
- [Param](#) - Parameter presence and type verification
- [Sound](#) - Sound playback interface
- [Storable](#) - Data store facilities

Importing

If you want to make all of them available at once you can simply write:

```
_ <- fat.extra._
```

...or import one-by-one, as needed, e.g.:

```
_ <- fat.extra.Date
```

Date

Calendar and date handling

operations like addition and subtraction of days, months, and years, ensuring accurate handling of various date-related complexities such as leap years and month-end calculations

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Date
```

[time library](#), [math library](#), [Error type](#), [Text type](#), [List type](#), [Number type](#), [Duration type](#) are automatically imported with this import

Date Type

Date offers a comprehensive solution for managing dates, including leap years and time of day.

Properties

- `year`: Number - Year of the date
- `month`: Number - Month of the date
- `day`: Number - Day of the date
- `tms`: Millis - Time of the day in milliseconds

default value points to: 1 of January of 1970

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>fromEpoch</code>	<code>(ems: Epoch): Date</code>	Create a Date instance from an epoch time
<code>isLeapYear</code>	<code>(year: Number): Boolean</code>	Determine if a year is a leap year
<code>normalizeMonth</code>	<code>(month: Number): Number</code>	Normalize the month number
<code>daysInMonth</code>	<code>(year: Number, month: Number): Number</code>	Return number of days in month of year
<code>isValid</code>	<code>(year, month, day, tms): Boolean</code>	Validate the date components
<code>truncate</code>	<code><> Date</code>	Truncate the time of day
<code>toEpoch</code>	<code><> Epoch</code>	Convert the Date instance to epoch time
<code>addYears</code>	<code>(yearsToAdd: Number): Date</code>	Add years to the date
<code>addMonths</code>	<code>(monthsToAdd: Number): Date</code>	Add months to the date
<code>addWeeks</code>	<code>(weeksToAdd: Number): Date</code>	Add weeks to the date
<code>addDays</code>	<code>(daysToAdd: Number): Date</code>	Add days to the date

Usage examples

```
_ <- fat.extra.Date

# Create a Date instance
myDate = Date(2023, 1, 1)

# Add one year to the date
newDate = myDate.addYears(1)

# Add two weeks to a date
datePlusTwoWeeks = myDate.addWeeks(2)

# Create a Date from epoch time (in milliseconds)
# result is influenced by current timezone, see: time.setZone
epochTime = 1672531200000
dateFromEpoch = Date.fromEpoch(Epoch(epochTime))
```


Date

```
# Convert a date to epoch time  
epochFromDate = myDate.toEpoch
```

Duration

Millisecond duration builder

in FatScript time is natively expressed in milliseconds, and this type provides a simple way to express different time magnitudes effortlessly into `Millis`

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Duration
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Duration	(val: Number)	Create a Millis duration converter

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
nanos	<> Millis	Interpret value as nanoseconds
micros	<> Millis	Interpret value as microseconds
millis	<> Millis	Interpret value as milliseconds
seconds	<> Millis	Interpret value as seconds
minutes	<> Millis	Interpret value as minutes
days	<> Millis	Interpret value as days
weeks	<> Millis	Interpret value as weeks

Example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Duration
time <- fat.time

fiveSeconds = Duration(5).seconds
time.wait(fiveSeconds) # sleeps thread for 5 seconds
```

Fuzzy

Probabilistic values and fuzzy logic operations

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Fuzzy
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Fuzzy	(val: Number = 0.5)	Create a Fuzzy probability value

the range from 0 to 1 is ideal for values, however, higher values can still be meaningful in specific operations like conjunction with values within the standard range

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Check if probability is zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Check if probability is greater than zero
size	<> Number	Convert fuzzy value to a percentage scale
toText	<> Text	Convert fuzzy value to a textual percentage
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
and	(other: Fuzzy): Fuzzy Logical AND operation with another fuzzy value	
or	(other: Fuzzy): Fuzzy Logical OR operation with another fuzzy value	
not	<> Fuzzy	Logical NOT operation, inverting the chance
decide	<> Boolean	Decide a boolean outcome within its chance

Usage

```
_ <- fat.extra.Fuzzy

# Creating fuzzy instances
lowChance = Fuzzy(0.25) # 25% chance
highChance = Fuzzy(0.75) # 75% chance

# Applying logical operations
combinedChance = lowChance.and(highChance)
resolvedChance = combinedChance.decide # results in a boolean
```

Inspiration

Introducing the Fuzzy type into FatScript was inspired by the humorous meme language definition, [DreamBerd](#), which offers booleans that can be true, false, or maybe. Here, the maybe keyword translates to Fuzzy().decide, which can be considered an uncommon construct for most programming languages and is analogous to flipping a coin.

Although FatScript is not as esoteric to the extent of storing booleans as "one-and-a-half bits", the concept of providing a "funny" type that allows for modeling uncertainty was an interesting experiment and might actually prove useful in many scenarios. It enhances the language's capabilities to handle operations involving chances and decision-making processes where outcomes are not deterministic. The Fuzzy type is useful for scenarios requiring a nuanced approach to boolean logic, commonly seen in gaming logic, and anywhere probabilistic decisions are needed.

See also

- [Boolean type](#)
- [Math library](#)

HashMap

An optimized in-memory key-value store, serving as a better performance replacement for default Scope implementation, designed for handling large data sets efficiently.

the speed gains will come at the expense of more memory usage

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.HashMap
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
HashMap	(capacity: Number = 97)	Create a HashMap with a specified capacity

the default capacity of 97 is generally efficient for up to 10,000 items

Capacity Optimization

Ideally, you should keep at most about 100 items per 'bucket' in the hash table. In this context, 'capacity' refers to the number of buckets available for your data. Note that this implementation does not automatically adjust its size, so proper initial sizing is crucial. The following table can help determine the optimal capacity for storing n items:

$n < 5000$	$\Rightarrow 53$
$n < 10000$	$\Rightarrow 97$
$n < 20000$	$\Rightarrow 193$
$n < 40000$	$\Rightarrow 389$
$n < 80000$	$\Rightarrow 769$
$n < 160000$	$\Rightarrow 1543$
—	$\Rightarrow 3079$

using prime numbers can help reduce collisions

These values are based on empirical tests and should be adjusted according to your specific data needs and performance goals. Keep in mind that the relationship between capacity and performance is not entirely linear; as the number of items increases, the benefits of further increasing the capacity diminish.

Recommendation

Although the standard FatScript Scope exhibits slower performance for insertions, it excel in data retrieval and updates, outperforming HashMap for small collections (under ~500 items). Therefore, the benefits of using HashMap are most noticeable in scenarios involving frequent inserts on large data sets.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
isEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if length is zero
nonEmpty	<> Boolean	Return true if length is non-zero
size	<> Number	Return hash table length
toText	<> Text	Return 'HashMap/capacity' as text literal
freeze	<> Void	Make the value immutable
set	(key: Text, value: Any): Any	Set a key-value pair in the HashMap
get	(key: Text): Any	Get the value associated with a key
keys	<> Keyset	Return a list of all keys in the HashMap

Example

```
_ <- fat.extra.HashMap
```

HashMap

```
hmap = HashMap()
hmap.set('key1', 'value1')

hmap.get('key1') # yields 'value1'
hmap.keys       # yields [ 'key1' ]
```

Logger

Logging support

from simple console logging to file-based logging

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Logger
```

[console library](#), [color library](#), [file library](#), [time library](#), [sdk library](#), and [type library](#) are automatically imported with this import

Logger Type

Logger provides customizable logging capabilities with various levels and formats.

Properties

- `level`: Text (default 'debug') - Logging level
- `showTime`: Boolean (default true) - Flag to display timestamps

valid levels: 'debug', 'info', 'warn', 'error'

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>setLevel</code>	<code>(level: Text)</code>	Set the logging level
<code>setShowTime</code>	<code>(showTime: Boolean)</code>	Toggle timestamp display in logs
<code>asMessage</code>	<code>(level: Text, args: Scope): Text</code>	Format log message (can be overridden)
<code>log</code>	<code>(msg: Any, fg: Number)</code>	Output message (can be overridden)

Logging methods

- `debug(_1, _2, _3, _4, _5)`: Logs a debug message
- `info(_1, _2, _3, _4, _5)`: Logs an info message
- `warn(_1, _2, _3, _4, _5)`: Logs a warning message
- `error(_1, _2, _3, _4, _5)`: Logs an error message

Subtypes

FileLogger

- Inherits from `Logger`
- Additional Properties:
 - `logfile`: Text (default 'log.txt') - file for logging
 - `withConsole`: Boolean (default false) - also outputs to console
- Overrides `log` to append messages to a file

Usage example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Logger

# Create an instance with custom settings
myLogger = Logger(level = 'info', showTime = false)

# Log an information message
myLogger.info('This is an informational message.')

# Create a FileLogger to log messages to a file
fileLogger = FileLogger('myLog.txt', withConsole = true)
fileLogger.info('Logged to file.')
```

Memo

Generic memoization utility (can also create lazy values)

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Memo
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
Memo	(method: Method)	Create a Memo instance for a method

the arity of the memoized method should be 1 or else 0 (for lazy value)

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
asMethod	<> Method	Return a memoized version of original method
call	(arg: Any): Any	Memoized call; cache and return results

Example

Memo is useful for optimizing functions by caching results. It stores the outcome of function calls and returns the cached result when the same inputs occur again.

```
_ <- fat.extra.Memo

fib = (n: Number) -> {
  n <= 2 => 1
  _      => quickFib(n - 1) + quickFib(n - 2)
}

quickFib = Memo(fib).asMethod

quickFib(50) # 12586269025
```

You can now call `quickFib` as if you were calling `fib`, but with cached results for previously computed inputs.

caveat: may cause memory allocation build-up

MouseEvent

Mouse event parser for `fat.curses.readKey`

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.MouseEvent
```

Constructor

Name	Signature	Brief
MouseEvent	(val: Text)	Parses a readKey event

The `MouseEvent` constructor takes the following argument:

- **val**: The text value returned from `fat.curses.readKey`, which is parsed to extract mouse event data (like click type, position, and release state).

if `val` is not a valid mouse event, `MouseEvent` returns `null`

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
name	<> Text	Get human-readable name for mouse action
code	Text	The code representing the mouse action
x	Number	The X-coordinate of the mouse
y	Number	The Y-coordinate of the mouse
isRelease	Boolean	Is the event a button release?

Event naming

The `name` method can return the following human-readable values based on the event code and modifier keys:

- **Press Actions**: `leftPress`, `middlePress`, `rightPress`
- **Release Actions**: `leftRelease`, `middleRelease`, `rightRelease`
- **Drag Actions**: `leftDrag`, `middleDrag`, `rightDrag`
- **Scroll Actions**: `scrollUp`, `scrollDown`
- **Modifiers**: `Shift+`, `Alt+`, `Ctrl+` (prefixed to the above actions)

Example

`MouseEvent` is useful for converting raw event strings into usable data, like mouse position and action:

```
_ <- fat.extra.MouseEvent
console <- fat.console
curses <- fat.curses

# Enable mouse tracking
curses.setMouse(true)

# Capture a curses events
(~ key = curses.readKey) == Void @ {
  # Wait for an event to happen... (no-op)
}

# Parse the curses event
(mEvt = MouseEvent(key)) => {
  console.log('Mouse event:')
  console.log('  Code: {mEvt.code}')
  console.log('  X: {mEvt.x}')
  console.log('  Y: {mEvt.y}')
```


MouseEvent

```
    console.log(' Released: {mEvt.isRelease}')
    console.log(' Action: {mEvt.name}')
  }
  _ => console.log('Non-mouse event: {key}')
```

See also

- [Curses library](#).

Opaque

Utility for soft protection of data

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Opaque
```

[Scope type](#) is automatically imported along with this import

Prototype

This library introduces the `Opaque` type, designed as a utility for encapsulating data with soft protection. It provides a wrapper around a `SCOPE`, preventing direct access to the underlying structure when serializing while allowing controlled with its members.

The `Opaque` type extends the `Scope` type, inheriting all its members without introducing additional features.

Usage example

```
visible = { ~ a = 1, b = 2 }  
  
# Creating an opaque wrapper  
opaque = Opaque(visible)  
  
# Modifying values in the hidden scope  
opaque.c = 3 # the same as regular scope  
  
# The hidden scope is excluded from serialization at the top level  
recode.toJSON({ opaque, visible }) # '{"opaque":null,"visible":{"a":1,"b":2}}'  
  
# Direct serialization of the hidden scope would still work  
recode.toJSON(opaque) # '{"a":1,"b":2,"c":3}'
```

Performance notes

The `Opaque` type introduces a layer of indirection that could impact performance in scenarios involving frequent access or modifications to the hidden data. Consider using it selectively for scenarios requiring encapsulation, e.g. storing credentials within an instance.

See also

- [Scope type](#)
- [Recode library](#)

Option

Encapsulation of optional value

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Option
```

[Error type](#) is automatically imported along with this import

Types

This library introduces two main constructs: `Some` and `None`, which are special cases of the `Option` type, providing a way to represent optional values, encapsulating the presence (`Some`) or absence (`None`) of a value.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>isEmpty</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Check if the option is <code>None</code>
<code>nonEmpty</code>	<code><> Boolean</code>	Check if the option is <code>Some</code>
<code>size</code>	<code><> Number</code>	Return 1 if <code>Some</code> , 0 if <code>None</code>
<code>toText</code>	<code><> Text</code>	Return the text literal
<code>freeze</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Make the value immutable
<code>get</code>	<code><> Any</code>	Return value or raise <code>NoSuchElement</code>
<code>getOrElse</code>	<code>(default: Any): Any</code>	Return value or default if <code>None</code>
<code>map</code>	<code>(fn: Method): Option</code>	Apply method to contained value
<code>flatMap</code>	<code>(fn: Method/Option): Option</code>	Apply method that returns <code>Option</code>
<code>filter</code>	<code>(predicate: Method): Option</code>	Filter value by predicate
<code>toList</code>	<code><> List</code>	Convert option to <code>List</code>
<code>concrete</code>	<code><> Option</code>	Resolve option to <code>Some</code> or <code>None</code>

Usage example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Option

# Creating options
x = Some(5) # equivalent to Option(5).concrete
y = None() # equivalent to Option().concrete

# Working with options
isEmptyX = x.isEmpty # false
isEmptyY = y.isEmpty # true
valX = x.getOrElse(0) # 5
valY = y.getOrElse(0) # 0

# Applying a transformation
transformedX = x.map(v -> v * 2).getOrElse(0) # 10
transformedY = y.map(v -> v * 2).getOrElse(0) # 0

# Lifting values to option
label: Text = Option(opVal).concrete >> {
  Some => 'some value' # case where opVal is not null
  None => 'no value' # case where opVal is null
}
```

Option in Functional Programming

In `FatScript`, `null` is integrated as a first-class citizen, enabling native types, in most cases, to handle absent values without necessitating additional constructs for safety. Consequently, the `Option` type is included in the `extra` package as a syntactic sugar.

Option

It allows explicit encapsulation of optional values for semantic clarity or adherence to certain functional programming paradigms. An example of its utility is demonstrated in the `Scope` type, which includes a `maybe` method alongside the standard value retrieval syntax:

- `myScope('key')` returns the value associated with `key` or `null` if the key does not exist.
- `myScope.maybe('key')` provides an `Option` wrapped value, distinguishing explicitly between the existence (`Some`) and absence (`None`) of a value.

Semantic handling of missing values

One of the key benefits of using the `Option` type is its ability to handle operations with potentially missing values semantically and safely. This feature is particularly useful in primitive operations or data transformations where `null` values might otherwise lead to errors. For example, consider a scenario where you need to sum a number with a value that may not be present:

```
# Assuming eggsBought is defined and has a value
eggsBought: Number = ...
```

```
# fridge.maybe('egg') retrieves the number of eggs in the fridge as an Option
# If 'egg' is not present, it defaults to 0, avoiding null-related errors
totalEggs: Number = fridge.maybe('egg').getOrElse(0) + eggsBought
```

Performance considerations

The use of `Option` types introduces computational overhead due to function calls needed to manipulate values and additional memory stemming from their underlying structure. While the benefits of safety and expressiveness are significant, the performance cost could become noticeable in tight loops or when processing large datasets.

See also

- [Scope type](#)
- [Error type](#)

Param

Parameter presence and type verification

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Param
```

[Error type](#) is automatically imported with this import

Types

This library introduces the `Param` type and the `Using/UsingStrict` utility for implicit parameter declaration.

Constructors

Both `Param` and `Using/UsingStrict` constructors take two arguments:

- **_exp: Text:** the parameter name to check in context.
- **_typ: Type:** the expected type of the evaluated value.

Additionally `Param` accepts an optional argument:

- **strict: Boolean:** disable [flexible match](#) (default is false).

`Using` has this flag set as `false`, and `UsingStrict` has it set as `true`

Param

The `Param` type provides mechanisms for checking the presence and type of parameters in the execution context.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>get</code>	<code><> Any</code>	Retrieve the parameter if it matches the type

the `get` method throws `KeyError` if the parameter is not defined, and `TypeError` if the type does not match

Example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Param
_ <- fat.type.Text # the desired type must be loaded

currentUser = Param('userId', Text)

...

# Assuming userId is defined in the context and is a text,
# safely retrieve it's value from the current namespace
userId = currentUser.get
```

Using

Apply `Using/UsingStrict` to suppress implicit parameter hints on method declarations for entries expected to be in scope.

alternatively, to suppress warnings about implicit parameters, name the implicit entry starting with an underscore (`_`)

Example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Param
_ <- fat.type.Text

printUserIdFromContext = <> {
```

Param

```
Using('userId', Text)
  console.log(userId)
}
```

if the implicit parameter is missing or mismatched, an error will be raised at runtime when the method is called

See also

- [Extra package](#)

Sound

Sound playback interface

wrapper for command-line audio players using [fork and kill](#)

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Sound
```

Constructor

The Sound constructor takes three arguments:

- **path**: the filepath of your audio file.
- **duration** (optional): the cool off time (in milliseconds) to accept to play again the file, usually you want to set this to the exact duration of your audio.
- **player** (optional): the default player used is `aplay` (common Linux audio utility, only supports wav files), but you could use `ffplay` to play mp3, for example, defining `ffplay = ['ffplay', '-nodisp', '-autoexit', '-loglevel', 'quiet']`, then providing it as argument for your sound instance. In this case the package `ffmpeg` needs to be installed on the system.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
<code>play</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Start player, if not already playing
<code>stop</code>	<code><> Void</code>	Stop player, if still playing

state of "still playing" is inferred from the duration parameter

Example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Sound
time <- fat.time

applause = Sound('applause.wav', 5000);
applause.play
time.wait(5000)
```

note that Sound spawns a child process to play the audio, so it is asynchronous

Sound in Web Build

When using `fry` built with Emscripten (for example, when using [FatScript Playground](#)), this prototype uses embedded commands `$soundPlay` and `$soundStop`, which are only defined in the web build. Therefore, instead of utilizing a CLI audio player through process forking, there is audio support via SDL2/WebAudio.

See also

- [Extra package](#)

Storable

Data store facilities

Import

```
_ <- fat.extra.Storable
```

[file library](#), [sdk library](#), [enigma library](#), [Error type](#), [Text type](#), [Void type](#) and [Method type](#) are automatically imported with this import

Mixins

This library introduces two mixin types: `Storable` and `EncryptedStorable`

Storable

The `Storable` mixin provides methods for storing and retrieving objects in the filesystem using JSON serialization.

Prototype members

Name	Signature	Brief
list	<> Keyset	Get list of ids for stored instances
load	(id: Text): Any	Load an object from the filesystem
save	<> Boolean	Save the current object instance
erase	<> Boolean	Delete the file associated with the id

the `load` and `save` methods throw `FileError` on failure

EncryptedStorable

Extends `Storable` with encryption capabilities for safer data storage. Requires an implementation of `getEncryptionKey` method.

Usage example

```
_ <- fat.extra.Storable

# Define a type that includes Storable (or EncryptedStorable)
User = (
  Storable # Include the Storable mixin

  # EncryptedStorable # alternative implementation
  # getEncryptionKey = (): Text -> '3ncryp1ptM3' # could get via KMS or config

  ## Argument slots
  name: Text
  email: Text

  # Setters return new immutable instance copy with updated field
  setName = (name: Text) -> self + User * { name }
  setEmail = (email: Text) -> self + User * { email }
)

# Create a new user instance
newUser = User('Jane Doe', 'jane.doe@example.com')

# Save the new user
newUser.save

# Update a user's information and save the changes
updatedUser = newUser
```


Storable

```
.setName('Jane Smith')
.setEmail('jane.smith@example.com')
updatedUser.save

# List all saved users
userIds = User.list

# Load a user from the filesystem
userId = userIds(0) # ...or newUser.id
loadedUser = User.load(userId)

# Delete user's data from the filesystem
loadedUser.erase # ...or User.erase(userId)
```

Storable in Web Build

When using fry built with Emscripten (for example, when using [FatScript Playground](#)), this prototype uses embedded commands `$storableSet`, `$storableGet`, `$storableList`, and `$storableRemove`, which are only defined in the web build. Therefore, instead of using the conventional file system for storage, there is special support for using the browser's `localStorage` object.

See also

- [Extra package](#)

Embedded commands

Embedded commands are FatScript's low-level functions that can be invoked with keywords preceded by a dollar sign `$`. These commands are always available, implemented as compiled code, and require no imports.

Unlike methods, they take no explicit arguments, but may read from specific entry names in the current scope, or even from the interpreter's internal state.

Handy ones

Here are some embedded commands that could be useful to know:

- `$break` pauses execution and loads the debugging console
- `$debug` toggles interpreter debug logs (only in some builds)
- `$exit` exits program with provided code
- `$keepDotFry` keeps the config (`.fryrc`) in scope after startup
- `$result` toggles result printing at the end of execution
- `$root` provides a reference to global scope
- `$self` provides a self reference to method/instance scope
- `$bytesUsage` returns maximum of bytes allocated
- `$nodesUsage` returns total of nodes allocated at the moment
- `$isMain` checks if code is executing as main or module
- `$port` retrieves actual port number assigned to the HTTP server

`root` and `self` keywords are automatically lifted into `$root` and `$self`

You can call those directly on your code, like:

```
$exit # terminates the program
```

in order to use other embedded commands you have to study the C implementation of `fry`, as the complete list is not documented, refer to [embedded.c](#) file

Libs under the hood

Standard libraries wrap embedded calls into methods, providing a more ergonomic interface. You don't need to create an execution scope or load arguments into that scope before delegating execution to them.

For example, here's how you can use the `floor` method from [math lib](#):

```
_ <- fat.math
floor(2.53)
```

This method is implemented as:

```
floor = (x: Number): Number -> $floor
```

Under the hood, the `floor` method creates an execution scope and loads an argument as `x` into it. The method then delegates execution to the `$floor` embedded command, which reads the value of `x` from the current scope and returns the floor of that number.

You can achieve the same outcome as above method by doing the following:

```
x = 2.53
$floor # reads value of x from current scope
```

Hacking

You can see which embedded command a library method is calling by looking into the library's implementation via the `readLib` method from the [SDK lib](#). Technically, there is nothing preventing you from calling embedded commands directly.

For example, you could terminate your program by calling `$exit` directly, which will exit with code 0 (default) or, if a numeric entry named `code` exists in the current scope, the value of that entry will be used as the exit code. However, it would be more elegant to import the `fat.system` library and call the `exit` method with the desired exit code:

Embedded commands

```
sys <- fat.system  
sys.exit(0) # exits with code 0
```

This approach makes your code more readable and less prone to errors, and it also provides a better separation of concerns.

It's important to keep in mind that embedded commands are black boxes and not intended for writing common FatScript code. In most cases, you would need to read the [underlying C implementation](#) to better grasp what a command is actually doing.

While it's possible to use embedded commands to gain additional runtime performance by avoiding imports and method calls, this is not recommended due to the loss of code readability. In general, it's better to use the standard libraries and follow best practices for writing clear, maintainable code.