

```
#!/usr/bin/env ruby
```

```
#-----#  
#           Learn to Program           #  
#           by Chris Pine              #  
#           Copyright (c) 2003-2014    #  
#           chris@pine.fm              #  
#-----#
```

```
require 'cgi'  
require 'stringio'
```

```
LINK_ADDR    = '/LearnToProgram/'  
FRLTP_ADDR   = 'http://www.pragprog.com/titles/ltp2/learn-to-program-2nd-edition'  
RUBY_DL_ADDR = 'https://www.ruby-lang.org/en/downloads/'
```

```
TRANSLATIONS = [  
  # ['Japanese'      , 'Shin Nishiyama'      , 'http://www1.tf.chiba-  
  u.jp/~shin/tutorial/'      ],  
  ['French'          , 'Jean-Pierre ANGHEL', 'http://www.ruby-  
doc.org/docs/ApprendreProgrammer/Apprendre_a_Programmer.pdf'],  
  ['Russian'         , 'Mikhail Shokhirev' ,  
'http://www.shokhirev.com/mikhail/ruby/ltp/title.html'      ],  
  ['Danish'          , 'Gunner Carstens'   ,  
'http://gcarst.googlepages.com/komgodtigang'      ],  
  ['Br. Portuguese' , 'Fabio Akita et al.',  
'http://aprendaaprogramar.rubyonrails.com.br/'      ],  
  ['Bosnian'         , 'Rusmir Gadžo'      ,  
'http://sites.google.com/site/rubynabosanskom/'      ],  
  ['Turkish'         , 'Niyazi ATEŞ'       ,  
'http://www.niyaziates.com.tr/rubyindex.html'      ],  
  ['Greek'           , 'Ηλίας Μαργαριτίδης', 'http://www.imargar.gr/wp-  
content/uploads/2011/06/egxeiridiometafraasi.pdf'    ],  
  ['German'          , 'Anja Stiedl'        ,  
'http://www.moccasoft.de/papers/ruby_tutorial/'      ],  
  ['Korean'          , 'engfordev'         , 'http://opentutorials.org/module/11'  
],  
  ['Spanish'         , 'rubysur'           , 'http://rubysur.org/aprende.a.programar/'
```

```

],
  ['Spanish'      , "David O' Rojo"      , 'http://goo.gl/3UcZi'
],
  ['Italian'      , 'Duccio Armenise'      , 'http://nemboweb.com/corsi/imparare-a-
programmare'
],
].sort

```

```

class LearnToProgramTutorial

```

```

  @@HLINE = '<div class="hline">&nbsp;</div>'

```

```

  # If you decide to change coloring or formatting of this tutorial,
  # you'll want to change these to something appropriate.

```

```

  @@NUMBER_COLOR = 'green'

```

```

  @@STRING_COLOR = 'red'

```

```

  @@KEYWORD_COLOR = 'blue'

```

```

  @@INPUT_DESC   = 'dotted box'

```

```

  @@OUTPUT_DESC  = 'grey box'

```

```

  # Delimiter for input to sample code, since it comes out

```

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  # right alongside the output. Must not be html escapable.

```

```

  @@INPUT = "%%'f'o'o'"

```

```

  def initialize

```

```

    @depth = 0

```

```

    @page = []

```

```

  end

```

```

  def getChapter(method)

```

```

    CHAPTERS.each do |chap, title, meth|

```

```

      return chap if (method == meth)

```

```

    end

```

```

    'main'

```

```

  end

```

```

  def selfLink(chap = nil)

```

```

    LINK_ADDR+'chap_'+(chap ? getChapter(chap) : '')+'.html'

```

```

  end

```

```

  def makeLink(name, methodName)

```

```

    '<a href="'+selfLink(methodName)+'">'+name+'</a>'

```

```

  end

```

```

  def puts(string, escapeThis=false)

```

```

    if escapeThis
      string = escapeHTML string
    end
    @page << ' '*@depth+string
  end

  def escapeHTML(string)
    string.gsub(/[&"<>]/, CGI::Util::TABLE_FOR_ESCAPE_HTML__)
  end

  def escapeOutputNotInput(output)
    md = /#{@@INPUT}.*?#{@@INPUT.reverse}/.match output
    if md
      escapeHTML(md.pre_match) +
      escapeHTML(md[0]).sub(/#{@@INPUT}/, '<span class="L2PinputOutput">').sub(/#
      {@@INPUT.reverse}/, '</span>') +
      escapeOutputNotInput(md.post_match)
    else
      escapeHTML output
    end
  end

  def syntaxColor(str) # str has probably already been html-escaped.
    lines = str.split(/\n/)
    # L2Pcomment
    # L2Pstring
    # L2Pnumber
    # L2Pkeyword
    # L2Pdefinition

    lines.collect! do |line|
      #line += ' ' # for splitting... Do we need this?
      md = /'|#/.match line
      if md # Comment or string.
        syntaxColor(md.pre_match) +
        if (md[0] == '#')
          '<span class="L2Pcomment">' + md[0] + md.post_match + '</span>'
        else # Big string time...
          md2 = /(.*?)(^[^\\])(\\*)'/match md.post_match
          if (md2)
            md[0] + '<span class="L2Pstring">' + $1 + $2 + $3 +
            '</span>' + "'" + syntaxColor(md2.post_match)
          else
            md[0]
          end
        end
      end
    end
  end

```

```

    end
  else # No comment nor string.
    keywords = %w[__FILE__ and end in or self unless __LINE__
      begin ensure redo super until BEGIN break do
      false next rescue then when END case else for
      nil retry true while alias elsif if not
      return undef yield]

    keywords.each do |keyword|
      line.gsub!(/(\W|^)(#{keyword})(\W|$)/) do
        $1+'<span class="L2Pkeyword">'+$2+'</span>'+$3
      end
    end

    ['def', 'class', 'module'].each do |keyword|
      line.gsub!(/(\W|^)(#{keyword}) +([\w?]+)/) do
        $1 + '<span class="L2Pkeyword">' + $2 + '</span>' +
          ' <span class="L2Pdefinition">' + $3 + '</span>'
      end
    end

    line.gsub!(/(^|[-{\[ ( ^+%*\/?;])(\d+(\.\d+)?|\.\d+)/) do
      $1+'<span class="L2Pnumber">'+$2+'</span>'
    end

    line
  end
end

lines.join "\n"
end

def input(str)
  str = escapeHTML str
  str.gsub!(/ /, '&nbsp;')
  '<span class="L2Pinput">'+str+'</span>'
end

def code(str)
  str = escapeHTML str
  str.gsub!(/ /, '&nbsp;')
  str = syntaxColor str
  '<span class="L2Pcode">'+str+'</span>'
end

```

```

def output(str)
  str = escapeHTML str
  str.gsub!(/ /, '&nbsp;')
  '<span class="L2Poutput">'+str+'</span>'
end

# This is the cool part...
def executeCode(code, input)
  # Wrap code to catch errors and to stop SystemExit.
  code = <<-END_CODE
    begin
      #{code}
    rescue SystemExit
    rescue Exception => error
      puts error.inspect
    end
  END_CODE

  strIO = StringIO.new

  if !input.empty?
    input = input.join("\n")+"\n"
    input = StringIO.new(input, "r")
    class << strIO; self; end.module_eval do
      ['gets', 'getc', 'read'].each do |meth|
        define_method(meth) do |*params|
          inStr = input.method(meth).call(*params)
          puts @@INPUT+inStr.chomp+(@@INPUT.reverse) # Echo input.
          inStr
        end
      end
    end
  end

  # Pass these methods to strIO:
  kernelMethods = ['puts', 'putc', 'gets']

  # Swap out Kernel methods...
  kernelMethods.each do |meth|
    Kernel.module_eval "alias __temp__tutorial__#{meth}__ #{meth}"
    Kernel.module_eval do
      define_method(meth) do |*params|
        strIO.method(meth).call(*params)
      end
    end
  end
end

```

```

    end
end

begin
  strIO.instance_eval code
rescue Exception => error # Catch parse errors.
  return error.inspect
end

# ...and swap them back in.
kernelMethods.each do |meth|
  Kernel.module_eval "alias #{meth} __temp__tutorial__#{meth}__"
end

strIO.string
end

# Tags (or similar)

def para(attributes = {}, &block)
  method_missing(:p, attributes, &block)
end

def prog(execute = [], remark = nil, fakeOutput = nil, &block)
  if !execute
    return progN(&block)
  end

  run = {:input => execute}
  run[:remark] = remark if remark
  run[:fakeOutput] = fakeOutput if fakeOutput
  progN(run, &block)
end

def progN(*trialRuns)
  code = yield

  # Trim leading whitespace.
  lines = code.split $/
  numSpaces = lines[0].length - lines[0].sub(/ */ , '').length
  lines.each do |line|
    line.sub!(/ {0,#{numSpaces}}/, '')
  end
  code = lines.join($/)
end

```

```

prettyCode = syntaxColor(escapeHTML(code))

# Spit it out.
puts '<pre class="L2PcodeBlock">'+prettyCode+'</pre>'

trialRuns.each do |run|
  if run[:fakeOutput]
    puts '<pre class="L2PoutputBlock">'+escapeHTML(run[:fakeOutput])+'</pre>'
  end
  if run[:remark]
    puts '<p>'+run[:remark]+'</p>'
  end
  output = escapeOutputNotInput(executeCode(code,run[:input]))
  puts '<pre class="L2PoutputBlock">'+$/+output+'</pre>'
end
nil
end

# Makes a tag.
def method_missing(methodSymbol, attributes = {})
  methodName = methodSymbol.to_s

  attribString = ''
  attributes.each do |key, val|
    raise methodName if (key.nil? || val.nil?)
    attribString += ' '+key.to_s+'="'+val+'"'
  end
  if (!block_given?)
    puts '<'+methodName+attribString+' />'
  else
    puts '<'+methodName+attribString+'>'
    @depth += 1
    blockReturn = yield
    puts blockReturn if (blockReturn.kind_of?(String))
    @depth -= 1
    puts '</'+methodName+'>'
  end
  nil
end

#
# TEST PAGE FOR FORMATTING
#

```

```

def generateFormattingPage
  h1 { 'Heading 1' }
  h2 { 'Heading 2' }
  h3 { 'Heading 3' }

  para {'Here\'s some code with fake output:'}
  prog [], '...just kidding, dude...', 'FUNKADELIC!' do <<- 'END_CODE'
    # Here is some 'Ruby' code.
    # 5 is better than 6.
    # def wilma do end if not in, dude.
    #

    '#This shouldn\'t cause any problems.'
    'Neither # should this\\'
    'do end if elsif else case when then while def class'
    'or and not next in'
    'to 3 or not to 3, that is 3.7'
    '' + 'x'+' '+' '+'..'
        '' +'o'

    8
    0.09
    9.9
    5.times {}

    puts 'I love chips.' # yo 'g'
    puts 5.02 + 8 + 0.002 # s'up, muva

    jimmy = ['yoyoyo', 66]
    jimmy.each do |item|
      puts item.inspect
    end

    puts case 'pumpkin'
      when String then 'yep'
      when Fixnum then 'nope'
      else 'maybe'
    end

    def yummy
      if (4 <= 5)
        'Yummm!'
      elsif (4 == 5)
        'Huh?'
      else

```



```

    while (1 == 2)
      puts 'What?'
    end
  end
end

class JustSomeClass
  def initialize
    @var = 5
  end
end

puts Math::PI # Should work.
puts PI       # Shouldn't work.
END_CODE
end

para {'Here\'s some code with input and output:'}
prog ["Chris"', '&26', '<red>'] do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'yoyo...wuddup?'
  puts 'NAME:'
  name = gets.chomp
  puts 'AGE:'
  age = gets.chomp
  puts 'FAVORITE COLOR'
  color = gets.chomp
  puts 'Hello, '+name+', the '+age+'-year-old '+color+' lover.'
  END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Hello there. I love #{input 'inputting VARIOUS things'}. I also get a kick
  out of #{code 'coding various things'}. There's such a thrill in
  seeing all of the exciting #{output 'output you can get'} from a
  well-written program.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}

ul do
  li {"Write a program which asks for a person's first name, then middle,
  then last. Finally, it should greet the person using their full name."}
  li {"Write a program which asks for a person's favorite number.
  Have your program add one to the number, then suggest the result
  as a <em>bigger and better</em> favorite number."}
end

```

```

    (Do be tactful about it, though.)"}
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Once you have finished those two programs (and any others you would like to
try),
    let's learn some more (and some more about) #{makeLink('methods',
:generateMethods)}.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# SETUP
#

def generateSetup
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        When you program a computer, you have to "speak" in a
        language your computer understands: a programming
        language. There are lots and lots of different
        languages out there, and many of them are excellent.
        In this tutorial I chose to use my favorite
        programming language, <em>Ruby</em>.
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        Aside from being my favorite,
        Ruby is also the easiest programming language I have seen
        (and I've seen quite a few). In fact, that's the real
        reason I'm writing this tutorial: I didn't decide to write
        a tutorial, and then choose Ruby because it's my favorite;
        instead, I found Ruby to be so easy that I decided there
        really ought to be a good beginner's tutorial which uses
        it. It's Ruby's simplicity which prompted this tutorial,
        not the fact that it's my favorite.
        (Writing a similar tutorial using
        another language, like C++ or Java, would have required
        hundreds and hundreds of pages.) But don't think that
        Ruby is a beginner's language just because it is easy!
        It is a powerful, professional-strength programming
        language if ever there was one.
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

When you write something in a human language, what is
written is called text. When you write something in a computer
language, what is written is called <dfn>code</dfn>. I
have included lots of examples of Ruby code throughout
this tutorial, most of them complete programs you can
run on your own computer. To make the code easier to
read, I have colored parts of the code different
colors. (For example, numbers are always
<span class="L2Pnumber">#{@@NUMBER_COLOR}</span>
</span>.)

Anything you are supposed to type in will be in a
#{input @@INPUT_DESC}, and anything a program prints
out will be in a #{output @@OUTPUT_DESC}.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If you come across something you don't understand, or you
  have a question which wasn't answered, write it down and
  keep reading! It's quite possible that the answer will
  come in a later chapter. However, if your question was
  not answered by the last chapter, I will tell you where
  you can go to ask it. There are lots of wonderful people
  out there more than willing to help; you just need to know
  where they are.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  But first we need to download and install Ruby onto your
  computer.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Windows Installation'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The Windows installation of Ruby is a breeze. First, you
  need to <a href="#{RUBY_DL_ADDR}">download Ruby</a>.
  There might be a couple of versions to choose from; this tutorial
  is using version #{RUBY_VERSION}, so make sure what you download is at
  least as recent as that. (I would just get the latest
  version available.) Then simply run the installation program.
  It will ask you where you want to install Ruby. Unless you have
  a good reason for it, I would just install it in the default
  location.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

In order to program, you need to be able to write programs and
to run programs. To do this, you will need a text editor and a
command line. My favorite text editor is
<a href="http://www.sublimetext.com/">Sublime Text</a>.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  It would also be a good idea to create a folder somewhere to keep
  all of your programs. Make sure that when you save a program,
  you save it into this folder.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  To get to your command line, select Command Prompt from the
  Accessories folder in your start menu. You will want to
  navigate to the folder where you are keeping your programs.
  Typing #{input 'cd ..'} will take you up one folder, and
  #{input 'cd foldername'} would put you inside the folder
  named <kbd>foldername</kbd>. To see all of the folders
  in your current folder, type #{input 'dir /ad'}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And that's it! You're all set to
  #{makeLink 'learn to program', :generateNumbers}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Macintosh Installation'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If you have Mac OS X 10.2 (Jaguar) or later, then you already have
  Ruby on your system! What could be easier?
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  In order to program, you need to be able to write programs and
  to run programs. To do this, you will need a text editor and a
  command line.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Your command line is accessible through the Terminal
  application (found in Applications/Utilities).
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

For a text editor, you can use whatever one you are familiar
or comfortable with. My favorite text editor is
<a href="http://www.sublimetext.com/">Sublime Text</a>.
If you use TextEdit, however, make sure
you save your programs as text-only! Otherwise your programs
<em>will not work</em>.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And that's it! You're all set to
  #{makeLink 'learn to program', :generateNumbers}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Linux Installation'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  First, you will want to check and see if you have Ruby installed
  already. Type #{input 'which ruby'}. If it says something like
  #{output '/usr/bin/which: no ruby in (...)'}, then you need to
  <a href="#{RUBY_DL_ADDR}">download Ruby</a>,
  otherwise see what version of Ruby you are running with
  #{input 'ruby -v'}. If it is older than the latest stable build
  on the above download page, you might want to upgrade.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If you are the root user, then you probably don't need any
  instructions for installing Ruby. If you aren't, you might want
  to ask your system administrator to install it for you. (That way
  everyone on that system could use Ruby.)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Otherwise, you can just install it so that only you can use it.
  Move the file you downloaded to a temporary directory, like
  <kbd>$HOME/tmp</kbd>. If the name of the file is
  <kbd>ruby-1.6.7.tar.gz</kbd>, you can open it with
  #{input 'tar xzvf ruby-1.6.7.tar.gz'}. Change directory
  to the directory you just created (in this example,
  #{input 'cd ruby-1.6.7'}).
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Configure your installation by typing
  #{input './configure --prefix=$HOME'}). Next type
  #{input 'make'}, which will build your Ruby interpreter.

```

```

    This might take a few minutes. After that is done, type
    #{input 'make install'} to install it.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Next, you'll want to add <kbd>$HOME/bin</kbd> to your
  command search path by editing your <kbd>$HOME/.bashrc</kbd>
  file. (You might have to log out and back in again for
  this to take effect.) After you do that, test your installation:
  #{input 'ruby -v'}. If that tells you what version of Ruby you
  have, you can now delete the files
  in <kbd>$HOME/tmp</kbd> (or wherever you put them).
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And that's it! You're all set to
  #{makeLink 'learn to program', :generateNumbers}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# NUMBERS
#

def generateNumbers
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Now that you've gotten everything #{makeLink('setup', :generateSetup)},
    let's write a program! Open up your favorite text
    editor and type in the following:
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  prog false do <<-END_CODE
    puts 1+2
    END_CODE
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Save your program (yes, that's a program!) as #{input 'calc.rb'}
    (the <strong>.rb</strong> is what we usually put at the end of
    programs written in Ruby). Now run your program by typing #{input 'ruby
calc.rb'}
    into your command line. It should have put a #{output '3'} on your screen.
    See, programming isn't so hard, now is it?
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
end

```

[illegible]

```

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  In practice, most programs don't use floats; only integers.
  (After all, no one wants to look at 7.4 emails, or browse 1.8
  webpages, or listen to 5.24 of their favorite songs...)
  Floats are used more for academic purposes (physics experiments and such)
  and for 3D graphics. Even most money programs use integers; they just
  keep track of the number of pennies!
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Simple Arithmetic'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So far, we've got all the makings of a simple calculator.
  (Calculators always use floats, so if you want your computer
  to act just like a calculator, you should also use floats.) For addition
  and subtraction, we use <kbd>+</kbd> and <kbd>-</kbd>,
  as we saw. For multiplication, we use <kbd>*</kbd>,
  and for division we use <kbd>/</kbd>. Most keyboards have
  these keys in the numeric keypad on the far right side.
  If you have a smaller keyboard or a laptop, though, you can just use
  <kbd>Shift 8</kbd> and <kbd>/</kbd> (same key as the
  <kbd>?</kbd> key). Let's try to expand our calc.rb program a little.
  Type in the following and then run it.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog [], 'This is what the program returns:' do <<-END_CODE
  puts 1.0 + 2.0
  puts 2.0 * 3.0
  puts 5.0 - 8.0
  puts 9.0 / 2.0
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  (The spaces in the program are not important; they just make
  the code easier to read.) Well, that wasn't too surprising.
  Now let's try it with integers:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog [], 'Mostly the same, right?' do <<-END_CODE
  puts 1+2
  puts 2*3
  puts 5-8
  puts 9/2
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```



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    Uh... except for that last one!
    But when you do arithmetic with integers, you'll get integer answers.
    When your computer can't get the "right" answer, it always rounds down.
    (Of course, #{output '4'} <em>is</em> the right answer in integer arithmetic
    for #{code '9/2'}; just maybe not the answer you were expecting.)
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Perhaps you're wondering what integer division is good for. Well, let's
    say you're going to the movies, but you only have $9. Here in
    Portland, you can see a movie at the Bagdad for 2 bucks. How many movies
    can you see there? #{code '9/2'}... #{output '4'} movies. 4.5
    is definitely <em>not</em> the right answer in this case; they will
    not let you watch half of a movie, or let half of you in to
    see a whole movie... some things just aren't divisible.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So now experiment with some programs of your own! If you want
    to write more complex expressions, you can use parentheses.
    For example:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 5 * (12-8) + -15
    puts 98 + (59872 / (13*8)) * -52
    END_CODE
end
h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
para do
    puts 'Write a program which tells you:'
end
ul do
    li {'how many hours are in a year?'}
    li {'how many minutes are in a decade?'}
    li {'how many seconds old are you?'}
    li {'how many chocolates do you hope to eat in your life? <br />'+
        '<em><strong>Warning:</strong> This part of the program could take a
while to compute!</em>'}
end
para do
    puts "Here's a tougher question:"
end
ul do
    li {"If I am #{(Time.now - Time.mktime(1976,8,3)).to_i / 1000000} million

```

```

seconds old, how old am I?"}
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  When you're done playing around with numbers, let's have a look
  at some #{makeLink('letters', :generateLetters)}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# LETTERS
#

def generateLetters
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So we've learned all about #{makeLink('numbers', :generateNumbers)},
    but what about letters? words? text?
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    We refer to groups of letters in a program as <dfn>strings</dfn>. (You can
    think of printed letters being strung together on a banner.)
    To make it easier to see just what part of the code is in a string,
    I'll color strings
    <span class="L2Pcode"><span class="L2Pstring">#{@@STRING_COLOR}</span></span>.
    Here are some strings:
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  prog false do <<-END_CODE
    'Hello.'
    'Ruby rocks.'
    '5 is my favorite number... what is yours?'
    'Snoopy says #%^?&*@! when he stubs his toe.'
    ' '
    ..
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  As you can see, strings can have punctuation, digits, symbols,
  and spaces in them... more than just letters. That last string
  doesn't have anything in it at all; we would call that an
  <dfn>empty string</dfn>.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

    We have been using puts to print numbers;
    let's try it with some strings:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, world!'
  puts ''
  puts 'Good-bye.'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  That worked out well. Now try some strings of your own.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'String Arithmetic'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Just as you can do arithmetic on numbers, you can also do
  arithmetic on strings! Well, sort of... you can add strings, anyway.
  Let's try to add two strings and see what
  puts does with that.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'I like' + 'apple pie.'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Whoops! I forgot to put a space between "I like" and "apple
  pie.".
  Spaces don't matter usually, but they matter inside strings.
  (It's true what they say: computers don't do what you want
  them to do, only what you tell them to do.) Let's try that again:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'I like ' + 'apple pie.'
  puts 'I like' + ' apple pie.'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  (As you can see, it didn't matter which string I added the space to.)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So you can add strings, but you can also multiply them!

```

```

    (By a number, anyway.) Watch this:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog [], '(Just kidding... it really does this:)', 'batting her eyes' do <<-
END_CODE
    puts 'blink ' * 4
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    If you think about it, this makes perfect sense. After all,
    #{code '7*3'} really just means #{code '7+7+7'}, so #{code "'moo'*3"} just
    means #{code "'moo'+'moo'+'moo'"}.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {"#{code '12'} vs #{code "'12'"}"}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Before we get any further, we should make sure we understand the
    difference between <em>numbers</em> and <em>digits</em>.
    #{code '12'} is a number, but #{code "'12'"} is a string of two digits.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Let's play around with this for a while:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 12 + 12
    puts '12' + '12'
    puts '12' + 12
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    How about this:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 2 * 5
    puts '2' * 5
    puts '2' * 5
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    These examples were pretty straightforward. However, if you're not too
    careful with how you mix your strings and your numbers, you might run into...
    END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

end
h2 {'Problems'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  At this point you may have tried out a few things which
  <em>didn't</em> work. If not, here are a few:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts '12' + 12
  puts '2' * '5'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Hmmm... an error message. The problem is that you
  can't really add a number to a string, or multiply a
  string by another string. It doesn't make any more sense than does this:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog false do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Betty' + 12
  puts 'Fred' * 'John'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Something else to be aware of: you can write #{code "'pig'*5"} in a program,
  since it just means #{code '5'} sets of the string #{code "'pig'"} all added
  together. However,
  you <em>can't</em> write #{code "5*'pig'"}, since that means #{code "'pig'"}
  sets of the number #{code '5'}, which is just silly.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Finally, what if I want a program to print out
  #{output 'You\'re swell!'}? We can try this:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog false do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'You're swell!'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Well, <em>that</em> won't work; I won't even try to run it.
  The computer thought we were done with the string.
  (This is why it's nice to have a text editor which does
  <dfn>syntax coloring</dfn> for you.) So how do we let

```

```

    the computer know we want to stay in the string? We have
    to <dfn>escape</dfn> the apostrophe, like this:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 'You\\'re swell!'
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    The backslash is the escape character. In other words, if you have
    a backslash and another character, they are sometimes translated
    into a new character. The only things the backslash escapes,
    though, are the apostrophe and the backslash itself. (If you
    think about it, escape characters must always escape themselves.)
    A few examples are in order here, I think:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 'You\\'re swell!'
    puts 'backslash at the end of a string: \\\\'
    puts 'up\\\\down'
    puts 'up\\down'
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Since the backslash does <em>not</em> escape a #{code "'d'"},
    but <em>does</em> escape itself, those last two strings are
    identical. They don't look the same in the code, but in your
    computer they really are the same.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    If you have any other questions, just
    #{makeLink('keep reading', :generateVariables)}! I couldn't
    answer every question on <em>this</em> page, after all.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# VARIABLES
#

def generateVariables
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

So far, whenever we have `puts`ed a string or a number, the thing we `puts`ed is gone. What I mean is, if we wanted to print something out twice, we would have to type it in twice:

```
END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
end
```

```
prog do <<-END_CODE
```

```
  puts '...you can say that again...'
```

```
  puts '...you can say that again...'
```

```
END_CODE
```

```
end
```

```
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
  It would be nice if we could just type it in once and then hang on to it...
  store it somewhere.
```

```
  Well, we can, of course&mdash;otherwise, I wouldn't have brought it up!
```

```
END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
end
```

```
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
  To store the string in your computer's memory, we need to
  give the string a name. Programmers often refer to this process
  as assignment,
```

```
  and they call the names variables. This variable can be just
  about any sequence of letters and numbers, but the first character
  needs to be a lowercase letter. Let's try that last program again,
  but this time I will give the string the name 'myString' (though I
```

could

```
  just as well have named it 'str' or
```

```
  'myOwnLittleString' or 'henryTheEighth').
```

```
END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
end
```

```
prog do <<-END_CODE
```

```
  myString = '...you can say that again...'
```

```
  puts myString
```

```
  puts myString
```

```
END_CODE
```

```
end
```

```
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
  Whenever you tried to do something to 'myString', the program did it
  to '...you can say that again...' instead. You can think of the
  variable 'myString' as "pointing to" the string
```

```
  '...you can say that again...'. Here's a slightly more interesting
```

example:

```
END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
end
```

```
prog do <<-END_CODE
```

```
  name = 'Patricia Rosanna Jessica Mildred Oppenheimer'
```

```

    puts 'My name is ' + name + '.'
    puts 'Wow! ' + name + ' is a really long name!'
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Also, just as we can assign an object to a variable,
    we can reassign a different object to that variable.
    (This is why we call them variables: because what they
    point to can vary.)
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    composer = 'Mozart'
    puts composer + ' was "da bomb", in his day.'

    composer = 'Beethoven'
    puts 'But I prefer ' + composer + ', personally.'
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Of course, variables can point to any kind of object, not just strings:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    var = 'just another ' + 'string'
    puts var

    var = 5 * (1+2)
    puts var
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    In fact, variables can point to just about anything...
    except other variables.
    So what happens if we try?
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    var1 = 8
    var2 = var1
    puts var1
    puts var2

    puts ''

```



```

    var1 = 'eight'
    puts var1
    puts var2
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So first, when we tried to point {code 'var2'} to {code 'var1'}, it really
    pointed to {code '8'} instead (just like {code 'var1'}
    was pointing to). Then we had {code 'var1'} point to
    {code "'eight'"}, but since {code 'var2'} was never really
    pointing at {code 'var1'}, it stays pointing at {code '8'}.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So now that we've got variables, numbers, and strings, let's learn how to
    {makeLink 'mix them all up', :generateConversion}!
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# CONVERSION
#

def generateConversion
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        We've looked at a few different kinds of objects
        ({makeLink 'numbers', :generateNumbers} and {makeLink 'letters',
:generateLetters}),
        and we made {makeLink 'variables', :generateVariables} to point to them;
        the next thing we want to do is to get them all to play nicely together.
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        We've seen that if we want a program to print {output '25'}, the following
        <em>does <strong>not</strong></em> work, because you can't add
        numbers and strings:
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    prog false do <<-END_CODE
        var1 = 2
        var2 = '5'

        puts var1 + var2
    END_CODE
end

```

```

end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Part of the problem is that your computer doesn't know if you
  were trying to get {output '7'} ({code '2 + 5'}), or if you wanted
  to get {output '25'} ({code "'2' + '5'"}).
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Before we can add these together, we need some way of getting the
  string version of {code 'var1'}, or to get the integer version
  of {code 'var2'}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Conversions'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  To get the string version of an object, we simply write
  {code '.to_s'} after it:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  var1 = 2
  var2 = '5'

  puts var1.to_s + var2
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Similarly, {code 'to_i'} gives the integer version of an object,
  and {code 'to_f'} gives the float version. Let's look at what
  these three methods do (and don't do) a little more closely:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  var1 = 2
  var2 = '5'

  puts var1.to_s + var2
  puts var1 + var2.to_i
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Notice that, even after we got the string version of
  {code 'var1'} by calling {code 'to_s'}, {code 'var1'} was always pointing
  at {code '2'}, and never at {code "'2'"}. Unless we explicitly reassign
  {code 'var1'} (which requires an {code '='} sign), it will point

```

```

    at '2' for the life of the program.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Now let's try some more interesting (and a few just weird) conversions:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts '15'.to_f
  puts '99.999'.to_f
  puts '99.999'.to_i
  puts ''
  puts '5 is my favorite number!'.to_i
  puts 'Who asked you about 5 or whatever?'.to_i
  puts 'Your momma did.'.to_f
  puts ''
  puts 'stringy'.to_s
  puts 3.to_i
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So, this probably gave some surprises. The first one is pretty
  standard, giving #{output '15.0'}.
  After that, we converted the string #{code "'99.999'"} to a float and
  to an integer. The float did what we expected; the integer was, as always,
rounded down.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Next, we had some examples of some... unusual strings being converted
  into numbers. #{code 'to_i'} ignores the first thing it doesn't understand,
  and the rest of the string from that point on. So the first one
  was converted to #{code '5'}, but the others, since they started with
  letters, were ignored completely... so the computer just picks zero.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Finally, we saw that our last two conversions did nothing at all,
  just as we would expect.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Another Look at '+(code 'puts')}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  There's something strange about our favorite method... Take a look at this:
  END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 20
  puts 20.to_s
  puts '20'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Why do these three all print the same thing? Well, the last two
  should, since 20.to_s is "20". But what
  about the first one, the integer 20? For that matter, what
  does it even mean to write out the integer 20? When
  you write a 2 and then a 0 on a piece of paper, you
  are writing down a string, not an integer. The integer 20 is the
number of
  fingers and toes I have; it isn't a 2 followed by a 0.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Well, here's the big secret behind our friend, puts: Before
  puts tries to write out an object, it uses to_s to
  get the string version of that object. In fact, the s in
  puts stands for string; puts really means
  <dfn>put string</dfn>.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  This may not seem too exciting now, but there are many,
  many kinds of objects in Ruby (you'll even learn how
  to make your own!), and it's nice to know what will happen if
  you try to puts a really weird object,
  like a picture of your grandmother, or a music file or something.
  But that will come later...
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  In the meantime, we have a few more methods for you, and they
  allow us to write all sorts of fun programs...
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'The Methods '+(code 'gets')+ ' and '+(code 'chomp')}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If puts means <dfn>put string</dfn>, I'm sure you can guess
  what gets stands for. And just as puts always
  spits out strings, gets will only retrieve strings. And

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```

    whence does it get them?
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    From you! Well, from your keyboard, anyway. Since your keyboard only
    makes strings, that works out beautifully. What actually happens
    is that 'gets' just sits there, reading what you type until
    you press <Enter>. Let's try it out:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['Is there an echo in here?'] do <<-END_CODE
    puts gets
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Of course, whatever you type in will just get repeated back
    to you. Run it a few times and try typing in different things.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Now we can make interactive programs! In this one, type in
    your name and it will greet you:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['Chris'], '<em>Eek!</em> I just ran it&mdash;I typed in my name, and this
is what happened:' do <<-END_CODE
    puts 'Hello there, and what\\'s your name?'
    name = gets
    puts 'Your name is ' + name + '? What a lovely name!'
    puts 'Pleased to meet you, ' + name + '. :)'
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Hmm... it looks like when I typed in the letters <C>,
    <h>, <r>, <i>,
    <s>, and then pressed <Enter>, 'gets'
    got all of the letters in my name <em>and</em> the
    <Enter>! Fortunately, there's a method just for
    this sort of thing: 'chomp'. It takes off any <Enter>s
    hanging out at the end of your string. Let's try that program again,
    but with 'chomp' to help us this time:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['Chris'] do <<-END_CODE
    puts 'Hello there, and what\\'s your name?'

```

```

    name = gets.chomp
    puts 'Your name is ' + name + '? What a lovely name!'
    puts 'Pleased to meet you, ' + name + '. :)'
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Much better! Notice that since #{code 'name'} is pointing to
    #{code 'gets.chomp'}, we don't ever have to say
    #{code 'name.chomp'}; #{code 'name'} was already
    #{code 'chomp'}ed.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
ul do
    li {"Write a program which asks for a person's first name, then middle,
    then last. Finally, it should greet the person using their full name."}
    li {"Write a program which asks for a person's favorite number.
    Have your program add one to the number, then suggest the result
    as a bigger and better favorite number.
    (Do be tactful about it, though)."}
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Once you have finished those two programs (and any others you would like to
try),
    let's learn some more (and some more about) #{makeLink('methods',
:generateMethods)}.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# METHODS
#

def generateMethods
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        So far we've seen a number of different methods,
        #{code 'puts'} and #{code 'gets'}
        and so on (Pop Quiz: List all
        of the methods we have seen so far!
        There are ten of them; the answer is below.),
        but we haven't really talked about what methods are.
        We know what they do, but
        we don't know what they are.
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
end

```

```

end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  But really, that is what they are: things
  that do stuff. If objects (like strings,
  integers, and floats) are the nouns in the Ruby
  language, then methods are like the verbs.
  And, just like in English, you can't have a
  verb without a noun to do the verb.
  For example, ticking isn't something that just
  happens; a clock (or a watch or something)
  has to do it. In English we would say, "The
  clock ticks." In Ruby we would say
  'clock.tick' (assuming that 'clock'
  was a Ruby object, of course).
  Programmers might say we were "calling 'clock''s
  'tick' method,"
  or that we "called 'tick' on 'clock'."
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So, did you take the quiz? Good. Well, I'm
  sure you remembered the methods
  'puts', 'gets', and 'chomp',
  since we just covered those.
  You probably also got our conversion methods,
  'to_i', 'to_f',
  and 'to_s'. However, did you get
  the other four? Why, it's none other
  than our old arithmetic buddies '+',
  '-', '*', and '/'!
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So as I was saying, just as every verb needs
  a noun, so every method needs an object.
  It's usually easy to tell which object is
  performing the method: it's what comes right
  before the dot, like in our 'clock.tick'
  example, or in '101.to_s'.
  Sometimes, however, it's not quite as
  obvious; like with the arithmetic methods. As
  it turns out, '5 + 5' is really
  just a shortcut way of writing '5.+ 5'.
  For example:
END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'hello ' + 'world'
  puts (10 * 9) + 9
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  It isn't very pretty, so we won't ever write
  it like that; however, it's important to
  understand what is really happening.
  (On older versions of Ruby, this code might also give a warning:
  #{output 'warning: parenthesize argument(s) for future version'}).
  It would still run the code just fine, though.)
  This also gives us a deeper understanding
  of why we can do #{code "'pig'*5"} but we
  can't do #{code "5*'pig'"}: #{code "'pig'*5"} is
  telling #{code "'pig'"} to do the multiplying,
  but #{code "5*'pig'"} is telling #{code '5'}
  to do the multiplying. #{code "'pig'"} knows how
  to make #{code '5'} copies of itself and
  add them all together; however, #{code '5'}
  will have a much more difficult time of making
  #{code "'pig'"} copies of itself
  and adding them together.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And, of course, we still have #{code 'puts'}
  and #{code 'gets'} to explain. Where are their
  objects? In English, you can sometimes leave
  out the noun; for example, if a villain
  yells "Die!", the implicit noun is whoever
  he is yelling at. In Ruby, if I say
  #{code "puts 'to be or not to be'"}, what
  I am really saying is
  #{code "self.puts 'to be or not to be'"}.
  So what is #{code 'self'}? It's a special variable
  which points to whatever object you are in.
  We don't even know how to be in
  an object yet, but until we find out, we
  are always going to be in a big object which
  is... the whole program! And lucky for us,
  the program has a few methods of its own,
  like #{code 'puts'} and #{code 'gets'}.
  Watch this:

```



```

    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    iCantBelieveIMadeAVariableNameThisLongJustToPointToA3 = 3
    puts iCantBelieveIMadeAVariableNameThisLongJustToPointToA3
    self.puts iCantBelieveIMadeAVariableNameThisLongJustToPointToA3
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    If you didn't entirely follow all of that,
    that's OK. The important thing to take away from
    all of this is that every method is being
    done by some object, even if it doesn't have
    a dot in front of it. If you understand
    that, then you're all set.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Fancy String Methods'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Let's learn a few fun string methods. You don't
    have to memorize them all; you can
    just look up this page again if you forget
    them. I just want to show you a <em>small</em>
    part of what strings can do. In fact, I
    can't remember even half of the string methods myself—but
    that's fine, because there are great references
    on the internet with all of the string
    methods listed and explained. (I will show
    you where to find them at the end of this tutorial.)
    Really, I don't even <em>want</em> to know
    all the string methods; it's kind of like knowing every
    word in the dictionary. I can speak English
    just fine without knowing every word in
    the dictionary... and isn't that really the whole
    point of the dictionary? So you don't <em>have</em>
    to know what's in it?
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So, our first string method is #{code 'reverse'},
    which gives a backwards version of a string:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    var1 = 'stop'

```

```

var2 = 'stressed'
var3 = 'Can you pronounce this sentence backwards?'

puts var1.reverse
puts var2.reverse
puts var3.reverse
puts var1
puts var2
puts var3
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  As you can see, 'reverse' doesn't reverse the
  original string; it just makes
  a new backwards version of it. That's why 'var1'
  is still ''stop''
  even after we called 'reverse' on 'var1'.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Another string method is 'length', which tells
  us the number of characters (including
  spaces) in the string:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['Christopher David Pine'] do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'What is your full name?'
  name = gets.chomp
  puts 'Did you know there are ' + name.length +
    ' characters in your name, ' + name + '?'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Uh-oh! Something went wrong, and it looks like it happened sometime after the
line
  'name = gets.chomp'... Do you see the problem? See if you can figure
it out.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The problem is with 'length': it gives us a number, but we want a
string. Easy enough,
  we'll just throw in a 'to_s' (and cross our fingers):
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

```

```

prog ['Christopher David Pine'] do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'What is your full name?'
  name = gets.chomp
  puts 'Did you know there are ' + name.length.to_s +
    ' characters in your name, ' + name + '?'
  END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  No, I did not know that. Note: that's the number of
  characters in my name, not the number of letters
  (count 'em). I guess we could write a program which
  asks for your first, middle, and last names individually, and then
  adds those lengths together... hey, why don't you do that! Go ahead,
  I'll wait.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Did you do it? Good! It's nice to program, isn't it?
  After a few more chapters, though, you'll be amazed at
  what you can do.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So, there are also a number of string methods which change the case
  (uppercase and lowercase) of your string. 'uppercase' changes
  every lowercase letter to uppercase, and 'downcase' changes
  every uppercase letter to lowercase. 'swapcase' switches
  the case of every letter in the string, and finally, 'capitalize'
  is just like 'downcase', except that it switches the first
  character to uppercase (if it is a letter).
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

prog do <<-END_CODE
  letters = 'aAbBcCdDeE'
  puts letters.upcase
  puts letters.downcase
  puts letters.swapcase
  puts letters.capitalize
  puts ' a'.capitalize
  puts letters
  END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Pretty standard stuff. As you can see from the line
  "puts ' a'.capitalize", the method 'capitalize'

```

only capitalizes the first `character`, not the first `letter`. Also, as we have seen before, throughout all of these method calls, `{code 'letters'}` remains unchanged. I don't mean to belabor the point, but it's important to understand. There are some methods which `do` change the associated object, but we haven't seen any yet, and we won't for some time.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

The last of the fancy string methods we'll look at are for visual formatting.

The first one, `{code 'center'}`, adds spaces to the beginning and end of the string to make it centered. However, just like you have to tell `{code 'puts'}` what you want it to print, and `{code '+'}` what you want it to add, you have to tell `{code 'center'}` how wide you want your centered string to be. So if I wanted to center the lines of a poem, I would do it like this:

END_PARAGRAPH

end

prog do <<-END_CODE

lineWidth = 50

puts('Old Mother Hubbard'.center(lineWidth))

puts('Sat in her cupboard'.center(lineWidth))

puts('Eating her curds an whey'.center(lineWidth))

puts('When along came a spider'.center(lineWidth))

puts('Which sat down beside her'.center(lineWidth))

puts('And scared her poor shoe dog away'.center(lineWidth))

END_CODE

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Hmmm... I don't think that's how that nursery rhyme goes, but I'm too lazy to look it up. (Also, I wanted to line up the `{code '.center lineWidth'}` part, so I put in those extra spaces before the strings. This is just because I think it is prettier that way. Programmers often have strong feelings about what is pretty in a program, and they often disagree about it. The more you program, the more you will come into your own style.) Speaking of being lazy, laziness isn't always

a bad thing in programming. For example, see how I stored the width of the poem in the variable `{code 'lineWidth'}`? This was so that if I want to go back later and make the poem wider, I only have to change the very top line of the program, instead of every line which does centering. With a very long poem, this could save me a lot of time. That kind of laziness is really a virtue in programming.

END_PARAGRAPH

```

end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So, about that centering... you may have noticed that it isn't quite
  as beautiful as what a word processor would have done. If you really
  want perfect centering (and maybe a nicer font), then you should just use
  a word processor! Ruby is a wonderful tool, but no tool is the right
  tool for every job.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The other two string formatting methods are {code 'ljust'} and
{code 'rjust'}, which stand for <dfn>left justify</dfn> and
<dfn>right justify</dfn>. They are similar to {code 'center'}, except
that they pad the string with spaces on the right and left sides,
respectively. Let's take a look at all three in action:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  lineWidth = 40
  str = '--> text <--'
  puts str.ljust lineWidth
  puts str.center lineWidth
  puts str.rjust lineWidth
  puts str.ljust(lineWidth/2) + str.rjust(lineWidth/2)
END_CODE
end
h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
ul do
  li {"Write an Angry Boss program. It should rudely ask what you want.
  Whatever you answer, the Angry Boss should yell it back to you, and
  then fire you. For example, if you type in {input 'I want a raise.'}, it
  should yell back
  {output 'WHADDAYA MEAN "I WANT A RAISE."?!? YOU\'RE FIRED!!'}"}

  li do
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
      So here's something for you to do in order to play around more with
      {code 'center'}, {code 'ljust'}, and {code 'rjust'}: Write a program
      which will display a Table of Contents so that it looks like this:
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  puts '<pre class="L2PoutputBlock">' +
    '          Table of Contents          ' + $/ +
    '                                     ' + $/ +
    'Chapter 1: Numbers                    page 1' + $/ +

```

```

        'Chapter 2: Letters' + $/ +
        'Chapter 3: Variables' + $/ +
    '</pre>'

end
end

h2 {'Higher Math'}

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    <em>(This section is totally optional. It assumes a fair degree
    of mathematical knowledge. If you aren't interested, you
    can go straight to #{makeLink 'Flow Control', :generateFlowControl}
    without any problems. However, a quick look at the section
    on <strong>Random Numbers</strong> might come in handy.)</em>
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    There aren't nearly as many number methods as there are string methods
    (though I still don't know them all off the top of my head). Here, we'll
    look at the rest of the arithmetic methods, a random number generator,
    and the #{code 'Math'} object, with its trigonometric and transcendental
    methods.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'More Arithmetic'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    The other two arithmetic methods are #{code '**'} (exponentiation)
    and #{code '%'} (modulus). So if you want to say "five squared"
    in Ruby, you would write it as #{code '5**2'}. You can also use
    floats for your exponent, so if you want the square root of 5, you
    could write #{code '5**0.5'}. The modulus method gives you the remainder
    after division by a number. So, for example, if I divide 7 by 3,
    I get 2 with a remainder of 1. Let's see it working in a program:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 5**2
    puts 5**0.5
    puts 7/3
    puts 7%3
    puts 365%7
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    From that last line, we learn that a (non-leap) year has some number

```



```

    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Note that I used rand(101) to get back numbers from 0 to 100, and that rand(1) always gives back 0. Not understanding the range of possible return values is the biggest mistake I see people make with rand; even professional programmers; even in finished products you can buy at the store. I even had a CD player once which, if set on "Random Play," would play every song but the last one... (I wonder what would have happened if I had put in a CD with only one song on it?)
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Sometimes you might want rand to return the same random numbers in the same sequence on two different runs of your program. (For example, once I was using randomly generated numbers to create a randomly generated world for a computer game. If I found a world that I really liked, perhaps I would want to play on it again, or send it to a friend.) In order to do this, you need to set the seed, which you can do with srand. Like this:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    srand 1776
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts ''
    srand 1776
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    puts(rand(100))
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    It will do the same thing every time you seed it with the same number. If you

```


want

to get different numbers again (like what happens if you never use `'srand'`), then just call `'srand 0'`. This seeds it with a really weird number, using (among other things) the current time on your computer, down to the millisecond.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

h2 {"The `'Math'` Object"}

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Finally, let's look at the `'Math'` object. We might as well jump right in:

END_PARAGRAPH

end

prog do <<-END_CODE

puts(Math::PI)

puts(Math::E)

puts(Math.cos(Math::PI/3))

puts(Math.tan(Math::PI/4))

puts(Math.log(Math::E**2))

puts((1 + Math.sqrt(5))/2)

END_CODE

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

The first thing you noticed was probably the `'::'` notation. Explaining the `scope` operator (which is what that is) is really beyond the, uh... scope of this tutorial. No pun intended. I swear. Suffice it to say, you can use `'Math::PI'` just like you would expect to.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

As you can see, `'Math'` has all of the things you would expect a decent scientific calculator to have. And as always, the floats are *really close* to being the right answers.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

So now let's `{makeLink 'flow', :generateFlowControl}`!

END_PARAGRAPH

end

end

#

FLOW CONTROL

#

```

def generateFlowControl
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Ahhhh, flow control. This is where it all comes together. Even though
    this chapter is shorter and easier than the #{makeLink 'methods'},
:generateMethods}
    chapter, it will open up a whole world of programming possibilities.
    After this chapter, we'll be able to write truly interactive
    programs; in the past we have made programs which say different
    things depending on your keyboard input, but after this chapter
    they will actually do different things, too. But
    before we can do that, we need to be
    able to compare the objects in our programs. We need...
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  h2 {'Comparison Methods'}
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Let's rush through this part so we can get to the next
    section, Branching, where all the cool
    stuff happens. So, to see if one object is greater than
    or less than another, we use the methods >
    and <, like this:
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 1 > 2
    puts 1 < 2
    END_CODE
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    No problem. Likewise, we can find out if an object is
    greater-than-or-equal-to another (or less-than-or-equal-to)
    with the methods >= and <=
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  prog do <<-END_CODE
    puts 5 >= 5
    puts 5 <= 4
    END_CODE
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    And finally, we can see if two objects are equal or not
    using == (which means "are these equal?")
    and != (which means "are these different?").
    It's important not to confuse = with ==.

```

```

    #{code '='} is for telling a variable to point at an object
    (assignment), and #{code '=='} is for asking the question: "Are
    these two objects equal?"
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 1 == 1
  puts 2 != 1
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Of course, we can compare strings, too. When strings
  get compared, they compare their <dfn>lexicographical ordering</dfn>,
  which basically means their dictionary ordering. #{code 'cat'}
  comes before #{code 'dog'} in the dictionary, so:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'cat' < 'dog'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  There's a catch, though: the way computers usually do things,
  they order capital letters as coming before lowercase letters.
  (That's how they store the letters in fonts, for example:
  all the capital letters first, then the lowercase ones.)
  This means that it will think #{code "'Zoo'"} comes before #{code "'ant'"}, so
if you
  want to figure out which word would come first in a real dictionary,
  make sure to use #{code 'downcase'} (or #{code 'upcase'} or
  #{code 'capitalize'}) on both words before you try to compare them.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  One last note before <strong>Branching</strong>: The comparison
  methods aren't giving us the strings #{code "'true'"} and
  #{code "'false'"}; they are giving us the special objects #{code 'true'} and
  #{code 'false'}. (Of course, #{code 'true.to_s'} gives us
  #{code "'true'"}, which is why #{code 'puts'} printed #{code "'true'"}.)
  #{code 'true'} and #{code 'false'} are used all the time in...
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Branching'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Branching is a simple concept, but powerful. In fact, it's so simple

```

```

    that I bet I don't even have to explain it at all; I'll just show you:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
run1 = {:input => ['Chris']}
run2 = {:input => ['Chewbacca'], :remark => 'But if we put in a different
name...'}
progN run1, run2 do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, what\\'s your name?'
  name = gets.chomp
  puts 'Hello, ' + name + '.'
  if name == 'Chris'
    puts 'What a lovely name!'
  end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And that is branching.  If what comes after the #{code 'if'} is
  #{code 'true'}, we run the code between the
  #{code 'if'} and the #{code 'end'}.  If what comes after the
  #{code 'if'} is #{code 'false'}, we don't.  Plain and simple.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  I indented the code between the #{code 'if'} and the #{code 'end'}
  just because I think it's easier to keep track of the
  branching that way.  Almost all
  programmers do this, regardless of what language they are
  programming in.  It may not seem much help in this simple
  example, but when things get more complex, it makes a big
  difference.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Often, we would like a program to do one thing if an expression
  is #{code 'true'}, and another if it is #{code 'false'}.  That's
  what #{code 'else'} is for:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
run1 = {:input => ['Chris']}
run2 = {:input => ['Ringo'], :remark => 'Now let\\'s try a different name...'}
progN run1, run2 do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'I am a fortune-teller.  Tell me your name:'
  name = gets.chomp
  if name == 'Chris'
    puts 'I see great things in your future.'
```

```

else
  puts 'Your future is... Oh my! Look at the time!'
  puts 'I really have to go, sorry!'
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Branching is kind of like coming to a fork in the code: Do
  we take the path for people whose {code "name == 'Chris'"},
  or {code 'else'} do we take the other path?
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And just like the branches of a tree, you can have branches
  which themselves have branches:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
run1 = {:input => ['chris', 'yes']}
run2 = {:input => ['Chris'], :remark => 'Fine, I\'ll capitalize it...'}
progN run1, run2 do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, and welcome to 7th grade English.'
  puts 'My name is Mrs. Gabbard. And your name is...?'
  name = gets.chomp

  if name == name.capitalize
    puts 'Please take a seat, ' + name + '.'
  else
    puts name + '? You mean ' + name.capitalize + ', right?'
    puts 'Don\\'t you even know how to spell your name??'
    reply = gets.chomp

    if reply.downcase == 'yes'
      puts 'Hmmpf! Well, sit down!'
    else
      puts 'GET OUT!!'
    end
  end
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Sometimes it might get confusing trying to figure out
  where all of the {code 'if'}s, {code 'else'}s, and
  {code 'end'}s go. What I do is write the {code 'end'}
  <em>at the same time</em> I write the {code 'if'}. So
  as I was writing the above program, this is how it looked

```

```

    first:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog false do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, and welcome to 7th grade English.'
  puts 'My name is Mrs. Gabbard. And your name is...?'
  name = gets.chomp

  if name == name.capitalize
  else
  end
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Then I filled it in with <dfn>comments</dfn>, stuff
  in the code the computer will ignore:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog false do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, and welcome to 7th grade English.'
  puts 'My name is Mrs. Gabbard. And your name is...?'
  name = gets.chomp

  if name == name.capitalize
    # She's civil.
  else
    # She gets mad.
  end
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Anything after a #{code '#'} is
  considered a comment (unless, of course, you
  are in a string). After that, I replaced the comments
  with working code. Some people like to leave the comments
  in; personally, I think well-written code usually speaks
  for itself. I used to use more comments, but the more
  "fluent" in Ruby I become, the less I use them. I actually
  find them distracting much of the time. It's a personal
  choice; you'll find your own (usually evolving) style.
  So my next step looked like this:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog false do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, and welcome to 7th grade English.'
```

```

puts 'My name is Mrs. Gabbard. And your name is...?'
name = gets.chomp

if name == name.capitalize
  puts 'Please take a seat, ' + name + '.'
else
  puts name + '? You mean ' + name.capitalize + ', right?'
  puts 'Don\\'t you even know how to spell your name??'
  reply = gets.chomp

  if reply.downcase == 'yes'
    else
    end
  end
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Again, I wrote down the 'if', 'else', and
'end' all at the same time. It really helps me keep
track of "where I am" in the code. It also makes the job
seem easier because I can focus on one small part, like
filling in the code between the 'if' and the
'else'. The other benefit of doing it this way
is that the computer can understand the program at any
stage. Every one of the unfinished versions of the
program I showed you would run. They weren't finished,
but they were working programs. That way I could test it
as I wrote it, which helped to see how it was coming along
and where it still needed work. When it passed all
of the tests, that's how I knew I was done!
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  These tips will help you write programs with branching,
  but they also help with the other main type of flow control:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Looping'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Often, you'll want your computer to do the same thing over and
  over again&mdash;after all, that's what computers are supposed to
  be so good at.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

When you tell your computer to keep repeating something, you also need to tell it when to stop. Computers never get bored, so if you don't tell it to stop, it won't. We make sure this doesn't happen by telling the computer to repeat certain parts of a program `while` a certain condition is true. This works very similarly to how `if` works:

END_PARAGRAPH

end

```
prog ['Hello?', 'Hi!', 'Very nice to meet you.', 'Oh... how sweet!', 'bye'] do
```

<<-END_CODE

```
  command = ''
```

```
  while command != 'bye'
```

```
    puts command
```

```
    command = gets.chomp
```

```
  end
```

```
  puts 'Come again soon!'
```

END_CODE

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

And that's a loop. (You may have noticed the blank line at the beginning of the output; it's from the first `puts`}, before the first `gets`). How would you change the program to get rid of this first line. Test it! Did it work *exactly* like the program above, other than that first blank line?)

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Loops allow you to do all kinds of interesting things, as I'm sure you can imagine. However, they can also cause problems if you make a mistake. What if your computer gets trapped in an infinite loop? If you think this may have happened, just hold down the `<Ctrl>` key and press `<C>`.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Before we start playing around with loops, though, let's learn a few things to make our job easier.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

h2 {'A Little Bit of Logic'}

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Let's take a look at our first branching program again. What if my wife came home, saw the program, tried it out, and it didn't


```

    tell her what a lovely name <em>she</em> had? Well... she probably
    wouldn't care. But <em>I'd</em> care! So let's rewrite it:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['Katy'] do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, what\\'s your name?'
  name = gets.chomp
  puts 'Hello, ' + name + '.'
  if name == 'Chris'
    puts 'What a lovely name!'
  else
    if name == 'Katy'
      puts 'What a lovely name!'
    end
  end
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  It works... but it isn't a very pretty program. Why not?
  Well, the best
  rule I ever learned in programming was the <dfn>DRY</dfn> rule:
  <dfn>Don't Repeat Yourself</dfn>. I could probably write a small
  book just on why that is such a good rule. In our case, we
  repeated the line #{code "puts 'What a lovely name!'"}. Why is
  this such a big deal? Well, what if I made a spelling mistake
  when I rewrote it? What if I wanted to change it from
  #{code "'lovely'"} to #{code "'beautiful'"} on both lines?
  I'm lazy, remember? Basically, if
  I want the program to do the same thing when it gets
  #{code "'Chris'"} or #{code "'Katy'"}, then it should really
  <em>do the same thing</em>:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['Katy'] do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, what\\'s your name?'
  name = gets.chomp
  puts 'Hello, ' + name + '.'
  if (name == 'Chris' or name == 'Katy')
    puts 'What a lovely name!'
  end
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Much better. In order to make it work, I used #{code 'or'}.
  The other <em>logical operators</em> are #{code 'and'} and

```

```

    #{code 'not'}. It is always a good idea to use parentheses
    when working with these. Let's see how they work:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  iAmChris = true
  iAmPurple = false
  iLikeFood = true
  iEatRocks = false

  puts (iAmChris and iLikeFood)
  puts (iLikeFood and iEatRocks)
  puts (iAmPurple and iLikeFood)
  puts (iAmPurple and iEatRocks)
  puts
  puts (iAmChris or iLikeFood)
  puts (iLikeFood or iEatRocks)
  puts (iAmPurple or iLikeFood)
  puts (iAmPurple or iEatRocks)
  puts
  puts (not iAmPurple)
  puts (not iAmChris )
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The only one of these which might trick you is
  #{code 'or'}. In English, we often use "or" to mean
  "one or the other, but not both." For example, your
  mom might say, "For dessert, you can have pie or cake."
  She did <em>not</em> mean you could have them both!
  A computer, on the other hand, uses #{code 'or'} to mean "one or the other,
  or both." (Another way of saying it is, "at least one of
  these is true.") This is why computers are more fun than
  moms.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}

ul do
  li {'<em>"99 bottles of beer on the wall..."</em> Write a program
    which prints out the lyrics to that beloved classic, that
    field-trip favorite: "99 Bottles of Beer on the Wall."'}
  li {"Write a Deaf Grandma program. Whatever you say
    to grandma (whatever you type in), she should respond with

```

```
#{output 'HUH?! SPEAK UP, SONNY!'}}, unless you shout it (type in
all capitals). If you shout, she can hear you (or at least
she thinks so) and yells back, #{output 'NO, NOT SINCE 1938!'} To
make your program <em>really</em> believable, have grandma
shout a different year each time; maybe any year at random
between 1930 and 1950. (This part is optional, and would be
much easier if you read the section on Ruby's random number
generator at the end of the #{makeLink 'methods', :generateMethods}
chapter.) You can't stop talking to grandma
until you shout #{input 'BYE'}.<br />
<em><strong>Hint:</strong> Don't forget about
</em>#{code 'chomp'}<em>! </em>#{code "'BYE'"}<em>with an
Enter is not the same as </em>#{code "'BYE'"}<em> without
one!</em><br />
<em><strong>Hint 2:</strong> Try to think about what parts
of your program should happen over and over again. All
of those should be in your </em>#{code 'while'}<em> loop.</em>"}

```

- li {"Extend your Deaf Grandma program: What if grandma
doesn't want you to leave? When you shout #{input 'BYE'}, she
could pretend not to hear you. Change your previous
program so that you have to shout #{input 'BYE'} three times
in a row. Make sure to test your program:
if you shout #{input 'BYE'} three times, but not in a row, you
should still be talking to grandma."}
- li {"Leap Years. Write a program which will ask for
a starting year and an ending year, and then #{code 'puts'}
all of the leap years between them (and including them,
if they are also leap years). Leap years are years divisible
by four (like 1984 and 2004). However, years divisible
by 100 are not leap years (such as 1800 and
1900) unless they are divisible
by 400 (like 1600 and 2000, which were in fact leap years).
(Yes, it's all pretty
confusing, but not as confusing as having July in the
middle of the winter, which is what would eventually
happen.)"}

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

When you finish those, take a break! You've learned a lot
already. Congratulations! Are you surprised at the number
of things you can tell a computer to do? A few more chapters
and you'll be able to program just about anything. Seriously!
Just look at all the things you can do now that you couldn't
do without looping and branching.

```

    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Now let's learn about a new kind of
    object, one which keeps track of lists of other objects:
    #{makeLink 'arrays', :generateArrays}.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# ARRAYS AND ITERATORS
#

def generateArrays
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        Let's write a program which asks us to type in as many words
        as we want (one word per line, continuing until we just press
        <kbd>Enter</kbd> on an empty line), and which then repeats
        the words back to us in alphabetical order. OK?
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        So... first we'll&mdash;uh... um... hmmm... Well, we could&mdash;er...
        um...
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        You know, I don't think we can do it. We need a way to store
        an unknown amount of words, and how to keep track of them all
        together, so they don't get mixed up with other variables. We
        need to put them in some sort of a list. We need <dfn>arrays</dfn>.
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
        An array is just a list in your computer. Every slot in
        the list acts like a variable: you can see what object
        a particular slot points to, and you can make it point to a
        different object. Let's take a look at some arrays:
        END_PARAGRAPH
    end
    prog false do <<-END_CODE
        []
        [5]
        ['Hello', 'Goodbye']
    end
end

```

```

    flavor = 'vanilla'          # This is not an array, of course...
    [89.9, flavor, [true, false]] # ...but this is.
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So first we have an empty array, then an array holding
    a single number, then an array holding two strings.
    Next, we have a simple assignment; then an
    array holding three objects, the last
    of which is the array [true, false]. Remember,
    variables aren't objects, so our last array is really
    pointing to float, a string, and an array. Even if we
    were to set flavor to
    point to something else, that wouldn't change the
    array.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    To help us find a particular object in an array, each
    slot is given an index number. Programmers (and, incidentally,
    most mathematicians) start counting from zero, though,
    so the first slot in the array is slot zero. Here's
    how we would reference the objects in an array:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    names = ['Ada', 'Belle', 'Chris']

    puts names
    puts names[0]
    puts names[1]
    puts names[2]
    puts names[3] # This is out of range.
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So, we see that puts names prints each name in
    the array names. Then we use puts names[0]
    to print out the "first" name in the array, and
    puts names[1] to print the "second"... I'm sure this seems
    confusing, but you do get used to it. You just have to really
    start thinking that counting begins at zero, and
    stop using words like "first" and "second".
    If you go out to a five-course meal, don't talk about

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the "first" course; talk about course zero
(and in your head, be thinking #{code 'course[0]'}).
You have five fingers on your right hand, and their
numbers are 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4. My wife and I are
jugglers. When we juggle six clubs, we are juggling
clubs 0-5. Hopefully in the next few months, we'll
be able to juggle club 6 (and thus be juggling seven
clubs between us). You'll know you've got it when you
start using the word "zeroth". :-) Yes, it's a real
word; ask any programmer or mathematician.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Finally, we tried #{code 'puts names[3]'}. just to see what
  would happen. Were you expecting an error? Sometimes when
  you ask a question, your question doesn't make sense (at
  least to your computer); that's when you get an error.
  Sometimes, however, you can ask a question and the answer
  is nothing. What's in slot three? Nothing.
  What is #{code 'names[3]'}? #{code 'nil'}: Ruby's way
  of saying "nothing". #{code 'nil'} is a special object
  which basically means "not any other object." And when you
  #{code 'puts nil'}, it prints out nothing. (Just a new line.)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If all this funny numbering of array slots is getting to
  you, fear not! Often, we can avoid them completely by
  using various array methods, like this one:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {"The Method #{code 'each'}"}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  #{code 'each'} allows us to do something (whatever we
  want) to #{code 'each'} object the array points to. So, if we
  want to say something nice about each language in the array
  below, we'd do this:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  languages = ['English', 'German', 'Ruby']

  languages.each do |lang|
    puts 'I love ' + lang + '!'
    puts 'Don\\'t you?'
  end
end

```

```

end

puts 'And let\\'s hear it for C++!'
puts '...'
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So what just happened? Well, we were able to go through
  every object in the array without using any numbers, so
  that's definitely nice. Translating into English, the above
  program reads something like: For 'each' object
  in 'languages', point the variable 'lang'
  to the object and then 'do' everything I tell you to,
  until you come to the 'end'. (Just so you know,
  C++ is another programming language. It's much harder to
  learn than Ruby; usually, a C++ program will be many times
  longer than a Ruby program which does the same thing.)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You might be thinking to yourself, "This is a lot like
  the loops we learned about earlier." Yep, it's similar.
  One important difference is that the method 'each'
  is just that: a method. 'while' and 'end'
  (much like 'do', 'if', 'else', and all the other
  <span class="L2Pkeyword">#{@@KEYWORD_COLOR}</span>
</span>
  words) are not methods. They are a fundamental part of the Ruby
  language, just like '=' and parentheses; kind of
  like punctuation marks in English.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  But not 'each'; 'each' is just another
  array method. Methods like 'each' which "act like"
  loops are often called <dfn>iterators</dfn>.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  One thing to notice about iterators is that they are
  always followed by 'do'...'end'.
  'while' and 'if' never had a 'do'
  near them; we only use 'do' with iterators.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

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```

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Here's another cute little iterator, but it's not an
  array method... it's an integer method!
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  3.times do
    puts 'Hip-Hip-Hooray!'
  end
  END_CODE
end
h2 {'More Array Methods'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So we've learned #{code 'each'},
  but there are many other array methods... almost as
  many as there are string methods! In fact, some of
  them (like #{code 'length'}, #{code 'reverse'},
  #{code '+'}, and #{code '*'})
  work just like they do for strings, except that they
  operate on the slots of the array rather than the
  letters of the string. Others, like #{code 'last'}
  and #{code 'join'}, are specific to arrays. Still
  others, like #{code 'push'} and #{code 'pop'},
  actually change the array. And just as with
  the string methods, you don't have to remember
  all of these, as long as you can remember where to
  find out about them (right here).
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  First, let's look at #{code 'to_s'} and #{code 'join'}.
  #{code 'join'} works much like #{code 'to_s'} does, except
  that it adds a string in between the array's objects.
  Let's take a look:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  foods = ['artichoke', 'brioche', 'caramel']

  puts foods
  puts
  puts foods.to_s
  puts
  puts foods.join(', ')
  puts

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puts foods.join(' :') + ' 8)'

200.times do
  puts []
end
END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  As you can see, 'puts' treats arrays differently
  from other objects: it just calls 'puts' on each
  of the objects in the array. That's why 'puts'ing
  an empty array 200 times doesn't do anything; the array doesn't
  point to anything, so there's nothing to 'puts'. (Doing
  nothing 200 times is still doing nothing.)
  Try 'puts'ing an array containing other arrays;
  does it do what you expected?
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Also, did you notice that I left out the empty strings when
  I wanted to 'puts' a blank line? It does the same
  thing.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Now let's take a look at 'push', 'pop',
  and 'last'. The methods 'push' and 'pop'
  are sort of opposites,
  like '+' and '-' are. 'push' adds
  an object to the end of your array, and 'pop'
  removes the last object from the array (and tell you
  what it was). 'last' is similar to 'pop'
  in that it tells you what's at the end of the array,
  except that it leaves the array alone.
  Again, 'push' and 'pop' actually
  change the array:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

prog do <<-END_CODE
  favorites = []
  favorites.push 'raindrops on roses'
  favorites.push 'whiskey on kittens'

  puts favorites[0]
  puts favorites.last

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puts favorites.length

puts favorites.pop
puts favorites
puts favorites.length
END_CODE
end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
ul do
  li {"Write the program we talked about at the very beginning
      of this chapter.<br />
      <em><strong>Hint:</strong> There's a lovely
      array method which will give you a sorted version of an
      array: </em>#{code 'sort'}<em>. Use it!</em>"}
  li {"Try writing the above program <em>without</em> using
      the #{code 'sort'} method. A large part of programming is
      solving problems, so get all the practice you can!"}
  li {"Rewrite your Table of Contents program (from the chapter
      on #{makeLink 'methods', :generateMethods}). Start the program
      with an array holding all of the information for your Table
      of Contents (chapter names, page numbers, etc.). Then print
      out the information from the array in a beautifully formatted
      Table of Contents."}
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So far we have learned quite a number of different methods.
  Now it's time to learn how to
  #{makeLink 'make our own', :generateDefMethod}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

end

#
# WRITING METHODS
#

def generateDefMethod
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    As we've seen, loops and iterators allow us to do the
    same thing (run the same code) over and over again.
    However, sometimes we want to do the same thing a
    number of times, but from different places in the program.
    For example, let's say we were writing a questionnaire

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program for a psychology student. From the psychology
students I have known and the questionnaires they have
given me, it would probably go something like this:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['yes','yes','no way!','NO','yes','yes'] do <<-END_CODE
  puts 'Hello, and thank you for taking the time to'
  puts 'help me with this experiment. My experiment'
  puts 'has to do with the way people feel about'
  puts 'Mexican food. Just think about Mexican food'
  puts 'and try to answer every question honestly,'
  puts 'with either a "yes" or a "no". My experiment'
  puts 'has nothing to do with bed-wetting.'
  puts

  # We ask these questions, but we ignore their answers.

  goodAnswer = false
  while (not goodAnswer)
    puts 'Do you like eating tacos?'
    answer = gets.chomp.downcase
    if (answer == 'yes' or answer == 'no')
      goodAnswer = true
    else
      puts 'Please answer "yes" or "no".'
    end
  end
end

  goodAnswer = false
  while (not goodAnswer)
    puts 'Do you like eating burritos?'
    answer = gets.chomp.downcase
    if (answer == 'yes' or answer == 'no')
      goodAnswer = true
    else
      puts 'Please answer "yes" or "no".'
    end
  end
end

  # We pay attention to *this* answer, though.
  goodAnswer = false
  while (not goodAnswer)
    puts 'Do you wet the bed?'
    answer = gets.chomp.downcase
    if (answer == 'yes' or answer == 'no')

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    goodAnswer = true
    if answer == 'yes'
      wetsBed = true
    else
      wetsBed = false
    end
  else
    puts 'Please answer "yes" or "no".'
  end
end

goodAnswer = false
while (not goodAnswer)
  puts 'Do you like eating chimichangas?'
  answer = gets.chomp.downcase
  if (answer == 'yes' or answer == 'no')
    goodAnswer = true
  else
    puts 'Please answer "yes" or "no".'
  end
end

puts 'Just a few more questions...'

goodAnswer = false
while (not goodAnswer)
  puts 'Do you like eating sopapillas?'
  answer = gets.chomp.downcase
  if (answer == 'yes' or answer == 'no')
    goodAnswer = true
  else
    puts 'Please answer "yes" or "no".'
  end
end

# Ask lots of other questions about Mexican food.

puts
puts 'DEBRIEFING:'
puts 'Thank you for taking the time to help with'
puts 'this experiment. In fact, this experiment'
puts 'has nothing to do with Mexican food. It is'
puts 'an experiment about bed-wetting. The Mexican'
puts 'food was just there to catch you off guard'
puts 'in the hopes that you would answer more'

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    puts 'honestly. Thanks again.'
    puts
    puts wetsBed
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    That was a pretty long program, with lots of repetition.
    (All of the sections of code around the questions about Mexican food
    were identical, and the bed-wetting question was only
    slightly different.)
    Repetition is a bad thing. Still, we can't make it into
    a big loop or iterator, because sometimes we have things
    we want to do between questions. In situations like these,
    it's best to write a method. Here's how:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    def sayMoo
        puts 'mooooooooo...'
    end
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Uh... our program didn't {code 'sayMoo'}.
    Why not? Because we didn't tell it to.
    We told it <em>how</em> to {code 'sayMoo'},
    but we never actually said to <em>do</em> it.
    Let's give it another shot:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
    def sayMoo
        puts 'mooooooooo...'
    end

    sayMoo
    sayMoo
    puts 'coin-coin'
    sayMoo
    sayMoo
    END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Ahhh, much better. (Just in case you don't speak
    French, that was a French duck in the middle of the

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program. In France, ducks say <em>"coin-coin"</em>.)
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So we <span class="L2Pkeyword">#{code 'def'}</span>ined
  the method #{code 'sayMoo'}. (Method names, like
  variable names, start with a lowercase letter.
  There are a few exceptions, though, like #{code '+'}
  or #{code '=='}.)
  But don't methods always have to be associated with
  objects? Well, yes they do, and in this case (as with
  #{code 'puts'} and #{code 'gets'}), the method is just
  associated with the object representing
  the whole program. In the next chapter we'll see how to
  add methods to other objects. But first...
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Method Parameters'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You may have noticed that some methods (like
  #{code 'gets'}, #{code 'to_s'}, #{code 'reverse'}...)
  you can just call on an object. However, other methods
  (like #{code '+'}, #{code '-'}, #{code 'puts'}...)
  take <dfn>parameters</dfn> to tell the object how to
  do the method. For example, you wouldn't just say
  #{code '5+'}, right? You're telling #{code '5'} to
  add, but you aren't telling it <em>what</em>
  to add.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  To add a parameter to #{code 'sayMoo'} (let's say, the
  number of moos), we would do this:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def sayMoo numberOfMoos
    puts 'mooooooo...' * numberOfMoos
  end

  sayMoo 3
  puts 'oink-oink'
  sayMoo # This should give an error because the parameter is missing.
END_CODE
end

```

```

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  #{code 'numberOfMoos'} is a variable which points to
  the parameter passed in. I'll say that again, but it's
  a little confusing: #{code 'numberOfMoos'} is a variable
  which points to the parameter passed in. So if I type in
  #{code 'sayMoo 3'}, then the parameter is #{code '3'},
  and the variable #{code 'numberOfMoos'} points to #{code '3'}.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  As you can see, the parameter is now <em>required</em>.
  After all, what is #{code 'sayMoo'} supposed to multiply
  #{code "'moosooooo...'" } by if you don't give it a
  parameter? Your poor computer has no idea.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If objects in Ruby are like nouns in English, and methods
  are like verbs, then you can think of parameters as
  adverbs (like with #{code 'sayMoo'}, where the parameter
  told us <em>how</em> to #{code 'sayMoo'}) or sometimes as
  direct objects (like with #{code 'puts'}, where the
  parameter is <em>what</em> gets #{code 'puts'}ed).
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Local Variables'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  In the following program, there are two variables:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def doubleThis num
    numTimes2 = num*2
    puts num.to_s+' doubled is '+numTimes2.to_s
  end

  doubleThis 44
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The variables are #{code 'num'} and #{code 'numTimes2'}.
  They both sit inside the method #{code 'doubleThis'}.
  These (and all of the variables you have seen
  so far) are <dfn>local variables</dfn>. This means
  that they live inside the method, and they cannot leave.

```

```

    If you try, you will get an error:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def doubleThis num
    numTimes2 = num*2
    puts num.to_s+' doubled is '+numTimes2.to_s
  end

  doubleThis 44
  puts numTimes2.to_s
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Undefined local variable... In fact, we <em>did</em>
  define that local variable, but it isn't local to where
  we tried to use it; it's local to the method.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  This might seem inconvenient, but it actually quite nice.
  While it does mean that you have no access to variables
  inside methods, it also means that they have no access
  to <em>your</em> variables, and thus can't screw them up:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def littlePest var
    var = nil
    puts 'HAHA! I ruined your variable!'
  end

  var = 'You can\\'t even touch my variable!'
  littlePest var
  puts var
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  There are actually <em>two</em> variables in that little
  program named #{code 'var'}: one inside #{code 'littlePest'},
  and one outside of it. When we called #{code 'littlePest var'},
  we really just passed the string from one #{code 'var'} to
  the other, so that both were pointing to the same string.
  Then #{code 'littlePest'} pointed its own <em>local</em>
  #{code 'var'} to #{code 'nil'}, but that did nothing to the

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    #{code 'var'} outside the method.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Return Values'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You may have noticed that some methods give you something
  back when you call them. For example, #{code 'gets'}
  <dfn>returns</dfn> a string (the string you typed in),
  and the #{code '+'} method in #{code '5+3'}, (which is
  really #{code '5.+(3)'}) returns #{code '8'}. The
  arithmetic methods for numbers return numbers, and the
  arithmetic methods for strings return strings.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  It's important to understand the difference between methods
  returning a value to where the method was called, and
  your program outputting information to your screen, like
  #{code 'puts'} does. Notice that #{code '5+3'} returns
  #{code '8'}; it does <strong>not</strong> output
  #{output '8'}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So what <em>does</em> #{code 'puts'} return? We never cared
  before, but let's look at it now:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  returnVal = puts 'This puts returned:'
  puts returnVal
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The first #{code 'puts'} didn't seem to return anything,
  and in a way it didn't; it returned #{code 'nil'}. Though
  we didn't test it, the second #{code 'puts'} did, too;
  #{code 'puts'} always returns #{code 'nil'}. Every method
  has to return something, even if it's just #{code 'nil'}.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Take a quick break and write a program
  to find out what #{code 'sayMoo'} returned.
  END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Were you surprised? Well, here's how it works: the value
  returned from a method is simply the last line of the method. In
  the case of sayMoo, this means it returns
puts 'moosooooo...'*numberOfMoos, which is just
nil since puts always returns
nil. If we wanted all of our methods to
  return the string 'yellow submarine', we
  would just need to put that at the end of
  them:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def sayMoo numberOfMoos
    puts 'moosooooo...'*numberOfMoos
    'yellow submarine'
  end

  x = sayMoo 2
  puts x
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So, let's try that psychology experiment again,
  but this time we'll write a method to ask the questions for us.
  It will need to take the question as a parameter, and return
true if they answered input 'yes' and
false if they answered input 'no'. (Even though
  most of the time we just ignore the answer, it's still a
  good idea for our method to return the answer. This way we
  can use it for the bed-wetting question, too.)
  I'm also going to shorten the greeting and the debriefing,
  just so this is easier to read:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog ['yes', 'yes', 'no way!', 'NO', 'yes', 'yes', 'yes', 'yes', 'yes'] do <<-END_CODE
  def ask question
    goodAnswer = false
    while (not goodAnswer)
      puts question
      reply = gets.chomp.downcase

      if (reply == 'yes' or reply == 'no')
        goodAnswer = true
      end
    end
  end
end

```

```

    if reply == 'yes'
      answer = true
    else
      answer = false
    end
  else
    puts 'Please answer "yes" or "no".'
  end
end

  answer # This is what we return (true or false).
end

puts 'Hello, and thank you for...'
puts

ask 'Do you like eating tacos?'      # We ignore this return value.
ask 'Do you like eating burritos?'
wetsBed = ask 'Do you wet the bed?'  # We save this return value.
ask 'Do you like eating chimichangas?'
ask 'Do you like eating sopapillas?'
ask 'Do you like eating tamales?'
puts 'Just a few more questions...'
ask 'Do you like drinking horchata?'
ask 'Do you like eating flautas?'

puts
puts 'DEBRIEFING:'
puts 'Thank you for...'
puts
puts wetsBed
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Not bad, huh? We were able to add more questions (and
  adding questions is <em>easy</em> now), but our program
  is still quite a bit shorter! It's a big improvement
  &mdash; a lazy programmer's dream.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'One More Big Example'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  I think another example method would be helpful here.
  We'll call this one #{code 'englishNumber'}.
  It will take a number, like #{code '22'},

```

```

and return the english version of it (in this case,
the string "twenty-two"). For now, let's have it
only work on integers from '0' to '100'.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  <em><strong>NOTE:</strong> This method uses a new trick
  to return from a method early using the return keyword,
  and introduces a new twist on branching:
</em><code>'elsif'</code>. It should be clear in context
how these work.</em>
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def englishNumber number
    # We only want numbers from 0-100.
    if number < 0
      return 'Please enter a number zero or greater.'
    end
    if number > 100
      return 'Please enter a number 100 or lesser.'
    end

    numString = '' # This is the string we will return.

    # "left" is how much of the number we still have left to write out.
    # "write" is the part we are writing out right now.
    # write and left... get it? :)
    left = number
    write = left/100 # How many hundreds left to write out?
    left = left - write*100 # Subtract off those hundreds.

    if write > 0
      return 'one hundred'
    end

    write = left/10 # How many tens left to write out?
    left = left - write*10 # Subtract off those tens.

    if write > 0
      if write == 1 # Uh-oh...
        # Since we can't write "tenty-two" instead of "twelve",
        # we have to make a special exception for these.
        if left == 0
          numString = numString + 'ten'

```

```

elseif left == 1
    numString = numString + 'eleven'
elseif left == 2
    numString = numString + 'twelve'
elseif left == 3
    numString = numString + 'thirteen'
elseif left == 4
    numString = numString + 'fourteen'
elseif left == 5
    numString = numString + 'fifteen'
elseif left == 6
    numString = numString + 'sixteen'
elseif left == 7
    numString = numString + 'seventeen'
elseif left == 8
    numString = numString + 'eighteen'
elseif left == 9
    numString = numString + 'nineteen'
end
# Since we took care of the digit in the ones place already,
# we have nothing left to write.
left = 0
elseif write == 2
    numString = numString + 'twenty'
elseif write == 3
    numString = numString + 'thirty'
elseif write == 4
    numString = numString + 'forty'
elseif write == 5
    numString = numString + 'fifty'
elseif write == 6
    numString = numString + 'sixty'
elseif write == 7
    numString = numString + 'seventy'
elseif write == 8
    numString = numString + 'eighty'
elseif write == 9
    numString = numString + 'ninety'
end

if left > 0
    numString = numString + '-'
end
end
end

```

```

write = left # How many ones left to write out?
left  = 0    # Subtract off those ones.

if write > 0
  if write == 1
    numString = numString + 'one'
  elsif write == 2
    numString = numString + 'two'
  elsif write == 3
    numString = numString + 'three'
  elsif write == 4
    numString = numString + 'four'
  elsif write == 5
    numString = numString + 'five'
  elsif write == 6
    numString = numString + 'six'
  elsif write == 7
    numString = numString + 'seven'
  elsif write == 8
    numString = numString + 'eight'
  elsif write == 9
    numString = numString + 'nine'
  end
end

if numString == ''
  # The only way "numString" could be empty is if
  # "number" is 0.
  return 'zero'
end

# If we got this far, then we had a number somewhere
# in between 0 and 100, so we need to return "numString".
numString

end

puts englishNumber( 0)
puts englishNumber( 9)
puts englishNumber(10)
puts englishNumber(11)
puts englishNumber(17)
puts englishNumber(32)
puts englishNumber(88)
puts englishNumber(99)
puts englishNumber(100)

```

```

END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Well, there are certainly a few things about this program
  I don't like. First, it has too much repetition. Second,
  it doesn't handle numbers greater than 100. Third, there
  are too many special cases, too many #{code 'return'}s.
  Let's use some arrays and try to clean it up a bit:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def englishNumber number
    if number < 0 # No negative numbers.
      return 'Please enter a number that isn\'t negative.'
    end
    if number == 0
      return 'zero'
    end

    # No more special cases! No more returns!

    numString = '' # This is the string we will return.

    onesPlace = ['one', 'two', 'three', 'four', 'five',
                  'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine']
    tensPlace = ['ten', 'twenty', 'thirty', 'forty', 'fifty',
                  'sixty', 'seventy', 'eighty', 'ninety']
    teenagers = ['eleven', 'twelve', 'thirteen', 'fourteen', 'fifteen',
                  'sixteen', 'seventeen', 'eighteen', 'nineteen']

    # "left" is how much of the number we still have left to write out.
    # "write" is the part we are writing out right now.
    # write and left... get it? :)
    left = number
    write = left/100 # How many hundreds left to write out?
    left = left - write*100 # Subtract off those hundreds.

    if write > 0
      # Now here's a really sly trick:
      hundreds = englishNumber write
      numString = numString + hundreds + ' hundred'
      # That's called "recursion". So what did I just do?
      # I told this method to call itself, but with "write" instead of
      # "number". Remember that "write" is (at the moment) the number of
      # hundreds we have to write out. After we add "hundreds" to

```

```

# "numString", we add the string ' hundred' after it.
# So, for example, if we originally called englishNumber with
# 1999 (so "number" = 1999), then at this point "write" would
# be 19, and "left" would be 99. The laziest thing to do at this
# point is to have englishNumber write out the 'nineteen' for us,
# then we write out ' hundred', and then the rest of
# englishNumber writes out 'ninety-nine'.

if left > 0
  # So we don't write 'two hundredfifty-one'...
  numString = numString + ' '
end
end

write = left/10          # How many tens left to write out?
left  = left - write*10  # Subtract off those tens.

if write > 0
  if ((write == 1) and (left > 0))
    # Since we can't write "tenty-two" instead of "twelve",
    # we have to make a special exception for these.
    numString = numString + teenagers[left-1]
    # The "-1" is because teenagers[3] is 'fourteen', not 'thirteen'.

    # Since we took care of the digit in the ones place already,
    # we have nothing left to write.
    left = 0
  else
    numString = numString + tensPlace[write-1]
    # The "-1" is because tensPlace[3] is 'forty', not 'thirty'.
  end

  if left > 0
    # So we don't write 'sixtyfour'...
    numString = numString + '-'
  end
end

write = left # How many ones left to write out?
left  = 0    # Subtract off those ones.

if write > 0
  numString = numString + onesPlace[write-1]
  # The "-1" is because onesPlace[3] is 'four', not 'three'.
end

```



```

    # Now we just return "numString"...
    numString
end

puts englishNumber( 0)
puts englishNumber( 9)
puts englishNumber(10)
puts englishNumber(11)
puts englishNumber(17)
puts englishNumber(32)
puts englishNumber(88)
puts englishNumber(99)
puts englishNumber(100)
puts englishNumber(101)
puts englishNumber(234)
puts englishNumber(3211)
puts englishNumber(999999)
puts englishNumber(1000000000000)
END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  <em>Ahhhhh....</em> That's much, much better. The program is
  fairly dense, which is why I put in so many comments. It
  even works for large numbers... though not quite as nicely
  as one would hope. For example, I think "one trillion"
  would be a nicer return value for that last number, or even
  "one million million" (though all three are correct).
  In fact, you can do that right now...
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
ul do
  li {"Expand upon englishNumber'. First, put in
    thousands. So it should return "one thousand"
    instead of "ten hundred" and "ten thousand"
    instead of "one hundred hundred"."}
  li {"Expand upon englishNumber' some more.
    Now put in millions, so you get "one million"
    instead of "one thousand thousand". Then try adding
    billions and trillions. How high can you go?"}
  li {"How about weddingNumber'? It should
    work almost the same as englishNumber', except
    that it should insert the word "and" all over the place,
```

```

    returning things like ''nineteen hundred and seventy and two'',
    or however wedding invitations are supposed to look. I'd give you more
    examples, but I don't fully understand it myself. You might
    need to contact a wedding coordinator to help you."}
  li {"<em>\"Ninety-nine bottles of beer...\"</em>
    Using 'englishNumber' and your old program, write out the
    lyrics to this song the <em>right</em> way this time.
    Punish your computer: have it start at 9999. (Don't pick
    a number too large, though, because writing all of that to
    the screen takes your computer quite a while. A hundred
    thousand bottles of beer takes some time; and if you pick
    a million, you'll be punishing yourself as well!")
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Congratulations! At this point, you are a true
  programmer! You have learned
  everything you need to build huge programs from scratch.
  If you have ideas for programs you would like to write
  for yourself, give them a shot!
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Of course, building everything from scratch can be a
  pretty slow process. Why spend time writing code that
  someone else already wrote?
  Would you like your program to send some email?
  Would you like to save and load files on your computer?
  How about generating web pages for a tutorial where
  the code samples are all automatically tested? ;) Ruby has many different
  {makeLink 'kinds of objects', :generateClasses}
  we can use to help us write better programs faster.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

#
# CLASSES
#

def generateClasses
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    So far we've seen several different kinds, or
    <dfn>classes</dfn>, of objects:
    strings, integers, floats, arrays, and a few special objects

```

```

    ({code 'true'}, {code 'false'}, and {code 'nil'}) which
    we'll talk about later.
    In Ruby, these classes are always capitalized: {code 'String'},
    {code 'Integer'}, {code 'Float'}, {code 'Array'}... etc.
    In general, if we want to create a new object of a
    certain class, we use {code 'new'}:
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  a = Array.new + [12345] # Array addition.
  b = String.new + 'hello' # String addition.
  c = Time.new

  puts 'a = '+a.to_s
  puts 'b = '+b.to_s
  puts 'c = '+c.to_s
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Because we can create arrays and strings using
  {code ' [...] '} and {code "'...'" } respectively, we rarely create
  them using {code 'new'}. (Though it's not really obvious
  from the above example, {code 'String.new'} creates
  an empty string, and {code 'Array.new'} creates an empty
  array.) Also, numbers are special exceptions: you can't
  create an integer with {code 'Integer.new'}. You just have
  to write the integer.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {"The {code 'Time'} Class"}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So what's the story with this {code 'Time'} class?
  {code 'Time'} objects represent moments in time. You can
  add (or subtract) numbers to (or from) times to get new times:
  adding {code '1.5'} to a time makes a new time one-and-a-half
  seconds later:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  time = Time.new # The moment I generated this web page.
  time2 = time + 60 # One minute later.

  puts time
  puts time2
  END_CODE
end

```

```

end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You can also make a time for a specific moment using
  #{code 'Time.mktime'}:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  puts Time.mktime(2000, 1, 1)      # Y2K.
  puts Time.mktime(1976, 8, 3, 10, 11) # When I was born.
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Notice: that's when I was born in Pacific Daylight Savings
  Time (PDT). When Y2K struck, though, it was Pacific
  Standard Time (PST), at least to us West Coasters. The
  parentheses are to group the parameters to #{code 'mktime'}
  together. The more parameters you add, the more accurate your
  time becomes.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You can compare times using the comparison methods
  (an earlier time is <em>less than</em> a later time),
  and if you subtract one time from another, you'll get the
  number of seconds between them. Play around with it!
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
ul do
  li {"One billion seconds... Find out the exact second you
    were born (if you can). Figure out when you will turn (or
    perhaps when you did turn?) one billion seconds old. Then
    go mark your calendar."}
  li {"Happy Birthday! Ask what year a person was born in,
    then the month, then the day. Figure out how old they are
    and give them a big #{output 'SPANK!'} for each birthday
    they have had."}

end

h2 {"The #{code 'Hash'} Class"}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Another useful class is the #{code 'Hash'} class. Hashes
  are a lot like arrays: they have a bunch of slots which

```

can point to various objects. However, `in` an array, the slots are lined up `in` a row, `and` each one is numbered (starting from zero). In a hash, the slots aren't `in` a row (they are just sort of jumbled together), and you can use `any` object to refer to a slot, not just a number. It's good to use hashes `when` you have a bunch of things you want to keep track of, but they don't really fit into an ordered list. For example, the colors I use for different parts of the code which created this tutorial:

END_PARAGRAPH

end

prog do <<-END_CODE

colorArray = [] # same as Array.new

colorHash = {} # same as Hash.new

colorArray[0] = '#{@@STRING_COLOR}'

colorArray[1] = '#{@@NUMBER_COLOR}'

colorArray[2] = '#{@@KEYWORD_COLOR}'

colorHash['strings'] = '#{@@STRING_COLOR}'

colorHash['numbers'] = '#{@@NUMBER_COLOR}'

colorHash['keywords'] = '#{@@KEYWORD_COLOR}'

colorArray.each do |color|
 puts color

end

colorHash.each do |codeType, color|
 puts codeType + ': ' + color

end

END_CODE

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

If I use an array, I have to remember that slot `#{code '0'}` is for strings, slot `#{code '1'}` is for numbers, etc. But if I use a hash, it's easy! Slot `#{code "'strings'"}` holds the color of the strings, of course. Nothing to remember. You might have noticed that `when` we used `#{code 'each'}`, the objects in the hash didn't come out in the same order we put them `in`. Arrays are `for` keeping things `in` order, `not` hashes.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Though people usually use strings to name the slots `in` a hash, you could use any kind of object, even arrays `and` other hashes (though I can't think of why you would want to do this...):

END_PARAGRAPH

```

end
prog false do <<-END_CODE
  weirdHash = Hash.new

  weirdHash[12] = 'monkeys'
  weirdHash[[]] = 'emptiness'
  weirdHash[Time.new] = 'no time like the present'
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Hashes and arrays are good for different things; it's up
  to you to decide which one is best for a particular problem.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Extending Classes'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  At the end of the last chapter, you wrote a method to give
  the English phrase for a given integer. It wasn't an integer
  method, though; it was just a generic "program" method. Wouldn't
  it be nice if you could write something like {code '22.to_eng'}
  instead of {code 'englishNumber 22'}? Here's how you would do
  that:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
# HACK ALERT!!! (I can't get to the global namespace transparently
#               from inside the StringIO object in a mod_ruby script.)
integerClassHack =
  "def to_eng
    if self == 5
      english = 'five'
    else
      english = 'fifty-eight'
    end

    english
  end"

Integer.module_eval integerClassHack # This is the real method definition.
# The following defines a method in "another" integer class:
# END HACK ALERT!!!
prog do <<-END_CODE
  class Integer
    #{integerClassHack}
  end
end

```

```

# I'd better test on a couple of numbers...
puts 5.to_eng
puts 58.to_eng
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Well, I tested it; it seems to work. ;)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So we defined an integer method by jumping into the
  #{code 'Integer'} class, defining the method there,
  and jumping back out. Now all integers have this
  (somewhat incomplete) method. In fact, if you didn't
  like the way a built-in method like
  #{code 'to_s'} worked, you could just
  redefine it in much the same way... but I don't recommend
  it! It's best to leave the old methods alone and to
  make new ones when you want to do something new.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So... confused yet? Let me go over that last program
  some more. So far, whenever we executed any code or
  defined any methods, we did it in the default
  "program" object. In our last program, we left that
  object for the first time and went into the class
  #{code 'Integer'}. We defined a method there (which
  makes it an integer method) and all integers can
  use it. Inside that method we use #{code 'self'}
  to refer to the object (the integer) using the method.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Creating Classes'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  We've seen a number of different classes of objects.
  However, it's easy to come up with kinds of objects
  that Ruby doesn't have. Luckily, creating a new
  class is as easy as extending an old one. Let's say
  we wanted to make some dice in Ruby. Here's how we
  could make the Die class:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  class Die

```

```

    def roll
      1 + rand(6)
    end

  end

  # Let's make a couple of dice...
  dice = [Die.new, Die.new]

  # ...and roll them.
  dice.each do |die|
    puts die.roll
  end
  END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  (If you skipped the section on random numbers,
  #{code 'rand(6)'} just gives a random number between
  #{code '0'} and #{code '5'}.)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And that's it!  Objects of our very own.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  We can define
  all sorts of methods for our objects... but there's
  something missing. Working with these objects feels
  a lot like programming before we learned about
  variables. Look at our dice, for example. We can
  roll them, and each time we do they give us a different
  number. But if we wanted to hang on to that number, we
  would have to create a variable to point to the number.
  It seems like any decent die should be able to <em>have</em>
  a number, and that rolling the die should change the number.
  If we keep track of the die, we shouldn't also have to keep track
  of the number it is showing.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  However, if we try to store the number we rolled in a (local)
  variable in #{code 'roll'}, it will be gone as soon as
  #{code 'roll'} is finished. We need to store the number in

```



```

a different kind of variable:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Instance Variables'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Normally when we want to talk about a string, we will just
  call it a <dfn>string</dfn>. However, we could also call
  it a <dfn>string object</dfn>. Sometimes programmers might
  call it <dfn>an instance of the class 'String'</dfn>, but this
  is just a fancy (and rather long-winded) way of saying
  <dfn>string</dfn>. An <dfn>instance</dfn> of a class is just an
  object of that class.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So instance variables are just an object's variables. A
  method's local variables last until the method is finished.
  An object's instance variables, on the other hand, will
  last as long as the object does. To tell instance variables
  from local variables, they have '@' in front of
  their names:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  class Die

    def roll
      @numberShowing = 1 + rand(6)
    end

    def showing
      @numberShowing
    end

  end

  die = Die.new
  die.roll
  puts die.showing
  puts die.showing
  die.roll
  puts die.showing
  puts die.showing
END_CODE
end

```

```

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Very nice! So #{code 'roll'} rolls the die and
  #{code 'showing'} tells us which number is showing.
  However, what if we try to look at what's showing before
  we've rolled the die (before we've set #{code '@numberShowing'})?
END_PARAGRAPH
end

prog do <<-END_CODE
  class Die

    def roll
      @numberShowing = 1 + rand(6)
    end

    def showing
      @numberShowing
    end

  end

  # Since I'm not going to use this die again,
  # I don't need to save it in a variable.
  puts Die.new.showing
END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Hmm... well, at least it didn't give us an error. Still,
  it doesn't really make sense for a die to be "unrolled", or
  whatever #{output 'nil'} is supposed to mean here. It would
  be nice if we could set up our new die object right when it's
  created. That's what #{code 'initialize'} is for:
END_PARAGRAPH
end

prog do <<-END_CODE
  class Die

    def initialize
      # I'll just roll the die, though we
      # could do something else if we wanted
      # to, like setting the die with 6 showing.
      roll
    end

    def roll
      @numberShowing = 1 + rand(6)
    end
  end
end

```

```

end

def showing
  @numberShowing
end

end

puts Die.new.showing
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  When an object is created, its initialize
  method (if it has one defined) is always called.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Our dice are just about perfect. The only thing that
  might be missing is a way to set which side of a die
  is showing... why don't you write a cheat
  method which does just that! Come back when you're
  done (and when you tested that it worked, of course).
  Make sure that someone can't set the die to have a
  7 showing!
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So that's some pretty cool stuff we just covered. It's tricky,
  though, so let me give another, more interesting example.
  Let's say we want to make a simple virtual pet, a baby
  dragon. Like most babies, it should be able to eat, sleep,
  and poop, which means we will need to be able to feed it,
  put it to bed, and take it on walks. Internally, our dragon
  will need to keep track of if it is hungry, tired, or needs
  to go, but we won't be able to see that when we interact
  with our dragon, just like you can't ask a human baby,
  "Are you hungry?". We'll also add a few other fun ways
  we can interact with our baby dragon, and when he is born
  we'll give him a name. (Whatever you pass into the
  new method is passed into the initialize
  method for you.) Alright, let's give it a shot:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  class Dragon

```

```

def initialize name
  @name = name
  @asleep = false
  @stuffInBelly    = 10 # He's full.
  @stuffInIntestine = 0  # He doesn't need to go.

  puts @name + ' is born.'
end

def feed
  puts 'You feed ' + @name + '.'
  @stuffInBelly = 10
  passageOfTime
end

def walk
  puts 'You walk ' + @name + '.'
  @stuffInIntestine = 0
  passageOfTime
end

def putToBed
  puts 'You put ' + @name + ' to bed.'
  @asleep = true
  3.times do
    if @asleep
      passageOfTime
    end
    if @asleep
      puts @name + ' snores, filling the room with smoke.'
    end
  end
  if @asleep
    @asleep = false
    puts @name + ' wakes up slowly.'
  end
end

def toss
  puts 'You toss ' + @name + ' up into the air.'
  puts 'He giggles, which singes your eyebrows.'
  passageOfTime
end

```

```

def rock
  puts 'You rock ' + @name + ' gently.'
  @asleep = true
  puts 'He briefly dozes off...'
  passageOfTime
  if @asleep
    @asleep = false
    puts '...but wakes when you stop.'
  end
end

private

# "private" means that the methods defined here are
# methods internal to the object. (You can feed
# your dragon, but you can't ask him if he's hungry.)

def hungry?
  # Method names can end with "?".
  # Usually, we only do this if the method
  # returns true or false, like this:
  @stuffInBelly <= 2
end

def poopy?
  @stuffInIntestine >= 8
end

def passageOfTime
  if @stuffInBelly > 0
    # Move food from belly to intestine.
    @stuffInBelly      = @stuffInBelly      - 1
    @stuffInIntestine = @stuffInIntestine + 1
  else # Our dragon is starving!
    if @asleep
      @asleep = false
      puts 'He wakes up suddenly!'
    end
    puts @name + ' is starving! In desperation, he ate YOU!'
    exit # This quits the program.
  end

  if @stuffInIntestine >= 10
    @stuffInIntestine = 0
    puts 'Whoops! ' + @name + ' had an accident...'
  end
end

```

```

end

if hungry?
  if @asleep
    @asleep = false
    puts 'He wakes up suddenly!'
  end
  puts @name + '\'\'s stomach grumbles...'
end

if poopy?
  if @asleep
    @asleep = false
    puts 'He wakes up suddenly!'
  end
  puts @name + ' does the potty dance...'
end

end

pet = Dragon.new 'Norbert'
pet.feed
pet.toss
pet.walk
pet.putToBed
pet.rock
pet.putToBed
pet.putToBed
pet.putToBed
pet.putToBed
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  <em>Whew!</em> Of course, it would be nicer if this was
  an interactive program, but you can do that part later.
  I was just trying to show the parts directly relating to
  creating a new dragon class.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  We saw a few new things in that example. The first is
  simple: 'exit' terminates the program right
  then and there. The second is the word 'private'
  which we stuck right in the middle of our class definition.

```

I could have left it out, but I wanted to enforce the idea of certain methods being things you can do to a dragon, and others which simply happen within the dragon. You can think of these as being "under the hood": unless you are an automobile mechanic, all you really need to know is the gas pedal, the brake pedal, and the steering wheel. A programmer might call those the `<dfn>public interface</dfn>` to your car. How your airbag knows when to deploy, however, is internal to the car; the typical user (driver) doesn't need to know about this.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Actually, for a bit more concrete example along those lines, let's talk about how you might represent a car in a video game (which happens to be my line of work). First, you would want to decide what you want your public interface to look like; in other words, which methods should people be able to call on one of your car objects? Well, they need to be able to push the gas pedal and the brake pedal, but they would also need to be able to specify how hard they are pushing the pedal. (There's a big difference between flooring it and tapping it.) They would also need to be able to steer, and again, they would need to be able to say how hard they are turning the wheel. I suppose you could go further and add a clutch, turn signals, rocket launcher, afterburner, flux capacitor, etc... it depends on what type of game you are making.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Internal to a car object, though, there would need to be much more going on; other things a car would need are a speed, a direction, and a position (at the most basic). These attributes would be modified by pressing on the gas or brake pedals and turning the wheel, of course, but the user would not be able to set the position directly (which would be like warping). You might also want to keep track of skidding or damage, if you have caught any air, and so on. These would all be internal to your car object.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}

ul do

li {"Make an `OrangeTree` class. It should have a

```
#{code 'height'} method which returns its height, and a
#{code 'oneYearPasses'} method, which, when called, ages the tree
one year. Each year the tree grows taller (however much you think
an orange tree should grow in a year), and after some number of
years (again, your call) the tree should die. For the first few
years, it should not produce fruit, but after a while it should,
and I guess that older trees produce more each year than younger
trees... whatever you think makes most sense. And, of course,
you should be able to #{code 'countTheOranges'} (which returns
the number of oranges on the tree), and #{code 'pickAnOrange'}
(which reduces the #{code '@orangeCount'} by one and returns a
string telling you how delicious the orange was, or else it just
tells you that there are no more oranges to pick this year).
Make sure that any oranges you don't pick one year fall off
before the next year."}
```

```
li {"Write a program so that you can interact with your
baby dragon. You should be able to enter commands like
#{input 'feed'} and #{input 'walk'}, and have those methods
be called on your dragon. Of course, since what you are
inputting are just strings, you will have to have some sort
of <dfn>method dispatch</dfn>, where your program checks
which string was entered, and then calls the appropriate method."}
```

```
end
```

```
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
And that's just about all there is to it! But wait a second...
I haven't told you about any of those classes for doing things
like sending an email, or saving and loading files on your
computer, or how to create windows and buttons, or 3D worlds,
or anything! Well, there are just <em>so many</em> classes
you can use that I can't possibly show you them all; I don't
even know what most of them are! What I <em>can</em> tell
you is where to find out more about them, so you can learn
about the ones you want to program with. Before I send you
off, though, there is just one more feature of Ruby you should
know about, something most languages don't have, but which I
simply could not live without:
```

```
#{makeLink 'blocks and procs', :generateBlocksProcs}.
```

```
END_PARAGRAPH
```

```
end
```

```
end
```

```
#
```

```
# BLOCKS AND PROCS
```



```
#

def generateBlocksProcs
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    This is definitely one of the coolest features of Ruby.  Some
    other languages have this feature, though they may call it
    something else (like <dfn>closures</dfn>), but most of the
    more popular ones don't, and it's a shame.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So what is this cool new thing?  It's the ability to take
  a <dfn>block</dfn> of code (code in between #{code 'do'}
  and #{code 'end'}), wrap it up in an object (called a
  <dfn>proc</dfn>), store it in a variable or pass it to a
  method, and run the code in the block whenever you feel
  like (more than once, if you want).  So it's kind of like
  a method itself, except that it isn't bound to an object
  (it <em>is</em> an object), and you can store it or pass
  it around like you can with any object.  I think it's example
  time:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  toast = Proc.new do
    puts 'Cheers!'
  end

  toast.call
  toast.call
  toast.call
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So I created a proc (which I think is supposed to be short for
  "procedure", but far more importantly, it rhymes with "block")
  which held the block of code, then I #{code 'call'}ed the proc
  three times.  As you can see, it's a lot like a method.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Actually, it's even more like a method than I have shown you, because
  blocks can take parameters:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
```

```

prog do <<-END_CODE
  doYouLike = Proc.new do |aGoodThing|
    puts 'I *really* like '+aGoodThing+'!'
  end

  doYouLike.call 'chocolate'
  doYouLike.call 'ruby'
END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Ok, so we see what blocks and procs are, and how to use them, but what's
  the point? Why not just use methods? Well, it's because there are some
  things you just can't do with methods. In particular, you can't pass
  methods into other methods (but you can pass procs into methods), and methods
  can't return other methods (but they can return procs). This is simply
because
  procs are objects; methods aren't.
END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  (By the way, is any of this looking familiar? Yep, you've seen blocks
before... when
  you learned about iterators. But let's talk more about that in a bit.)
END_PARAGRAPH
end

h2 { 'Methods Which Take Procs' }

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  When we pass a proc into a method, we can control how, if, or how many times
we call
  the proc. For example, let's say there's something we want to do before and
after
  some code is run:
END_PARAGRAPH
end

prog do <<-END_CODE
  def doSelfImportantly someProc
    puts 'Everybody just HOLD ON! I have something to do...'
    someProc.call
    puts 'Ok everyone, I\\'m done. Go on with what you were doing.'
  end

  sayHello = Proc.new do
    puts 'hello'
  end

```

```

sayGoodbye = Proc.new do
  puts 'goodbye'
end

doSelfImportantly sayHello
doSelfImportantly sayGoodbye
END_CODE
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Maybe that doesn't appear particularly fabulous... but it is. :-)
  It's all too common in programming to have strict requirements about what
  must be done when. If you want to save a file, for example, you have to
  open the file, write out the information you want it to have, and then close
  the file. If you forget to close the file, Bad Things(tm) can happen. But
  each time you want to save or load a file, you have to do the same thing:
  open the file, do what you really want to do, then close the file.
  It's tedious and easy to forget. In Ruby, saving (or loading) files works
  similarly to the code above, so you don't have to worry about anything but
  what you actually want to save (or load). (In the next chapter I'll show you
  where to find out how to do things like save and load files.)
END_PARAGRAPH
end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You can also write methods which will determine how many times, or even
  if to call a proc. Here's a method which will call the proc passed
in
  about half of the time, and another which will call it twice:
END_PARAGRAPH
end

prog do <<-END_CODE
  def maybeDo someProc
    if rand(2) == 0
      someProc.call
    end
  end

  def twiceDo someProc
    someProc.call
    someProc.call
  end

  wink = Proc.new do
    puts '<wink>'
  end
end

```

```

glance = Proc.new do
  puts '<glance>'
end

maybeDo wink
maybeDo glance
twiceDo wink
twiceDo glance
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  These are some of
  the more common uses of procs which enable us to do things we simply could not
have done
  using methods alone. Sure, you could write a method to wink twice, but you
couldn't write
  one to just do <em>something</em> twice!
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Before we move on, let's look at one last example. So far the procs
  we have passed in have been fairly similar to each other. This time
  they will be quite different, so you can see how much such a method
  depends on the procs passed into it. Our
  method will take some object and a proc, and will call the proc
  on that object. If the proc returns false, we quit; otherwise
  we call the proc with the returned object. We keep doing this
  until the proc returns false (which it had better do eventually,
  or the program will crash). The method will return the last
  non-false value returned by the proc.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def doUntilFalse firstInput, someProc
    input = firstInput
    output = firstInput

    while output
      input = output
      output = someProc.call input
    end

    input
  end
end

```

```

buildArrayOfSquares = Proc.new do |array|
  lastNumber = array.last
  if lastNumber <= 0
    false
  else
    array.pop # Take off the last number...
    array.push lastNumber*lastNumber # ...and replace it with its square...
    array.push lastNumber-1 # ...followed by the next smaller
number.
  end
end

alwaysFalse = Proc.new do |justIgnoreMe|
  false
end

puts doUntilFalse([5], buildArrayOfSquares).inspect
puts doUntilFalse('I\\'m writing this at 3:00 am; someone knock me out!',
alwaysFalse)
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Ok, so that was a pretty weird example, I'll admit. But it shows how
differently
  our method acts when given very different procs.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  The #{code 'inspect'} method is a lot like #{code 'to_s'}, except
  that the string it returns tries to show you the ruby code for
  building the object you passed it. Here it shows us the whole
  array returned by our first call to #{code 'doUntilFalse'}. Also, you might
  notice that we never actually squared that #{code '0'} on the end of that
  array, but since #{code '0'} squared is still just #{code '0'}, we didn't have
to.

  And since #{code 'alwaysFalse'} was, you know, always #{code 'false'},
  #{code 'doUntilFalse'} didn't do anything at all the second time we
  called it; it just returned what was passed in.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 { 'Methods Which Return Procs' }
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  One of the other cool things you can do with procs is to create
  them in methods and return them. This allows all sorts of crazy
  programming power (things with impressive names, like

```

```

<dfn>lazy evaluation</dfn>, <dfn>infinite data structures</dfn>,
and <dfn>currying</dfn>),
but the fact is that I almost never do this in practice, nor
can I remember seeing anyone else do this in their code. I think
it's the kind of thing you don't usually end up having to do in Ruby,
or maybe Ruby just encourages you to find other solutions; I don't
know. In any case, I will only touch on this briefly.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  In this example, #{code 'compose'} takes two procs and returns a new
  proc which, when called, calls the first proc and passes its result
  into the second proc.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def compose proc1, proc2
    Proc.new do |x|
      proc2.call(proc1.call(x))
    end
  end
end

squareIt = Proc.new do |x|
  x * x
end

doubleIt = Proc.new do |x|
  x + x
end

doubleThenSquare = compose doubleIt, squareIt
squareThenDouble = compose squareIt, doubleIt

puts doubleThenSquare.call(5)
puts squareThenDouble.call(5)
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Notice that the call to #{code 'proc1'} had to be inside the
  parentheses for #{code 'proc2'} in order for it to be done first.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 { 'Passing Blocks (Not Procs) into Methods' }
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Ok, so this has been sort of academically interesting, but also

```

sort of a hassle to use. A lot of the problem is that there are three steps you have to go through (defining the method, making the proc, and calling the method with the proc), when it sort of feels like there should only be two (defining the method, and passing the `block` right into the method, without using a proc at all), since most of the time you don't want to use the proc/block after you pass it into the method. Well, wouldn't you know, Ruby has it all figured out for us! In fact, you've already been doing it every time you use iterators.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

I'll show you a quick example first, then we'll talk about it.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

HACK ALERT!!! (I can't get to the global namespace transparently
from inside the StringIO object in a mod_ruby script.)

arrayClassHack =

"def eachEven(&wasABlock_nowAProc)

We start with \"true\" because arrays start with 0, which is even.

isEven = true

self.each do |object|

if isEven

wasABlock_nowAProc.call object

end

isEven = (not isEven) # Toggle from even to odd, or odd to even.

end

end"

Array.module_eval arrayClassHack # This is the real method definition.

The following defines a method in "another" array class:

END HACK ALERT!!!

prog do <<-END_CODE

class Array

#{arrayClassHack}

end

['apple', 'bad apple', 'cherry', 'durian'].eachEven do |fruit|

puts 'Yum! I just love '+fruit+' pies, don\\'t you?'

end

Remember, we are getting the even-numbered elements

of the array, all of which happen to be odd numbers,

```

# just because I like to cause problems like that.
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5].eachEven do |oddBall|
  puts oddBall.to_s+' is NOT an even number!'
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  So to pass in a block to #{code 'eachEven'}, all we had to do was stick
  the block after the method. You can pass a block into any method this
  way, though many methods will just ignore the block. In order to make
  your method not ignore the block, but grab it and turn it into
  a proc, put the name of the proc at the end of your method's parameter
  list, preceded by an ampersand (#{code '&'}). So that part is a little
  tricky, but not too bad, and you only have to do that once (when you
  define the method). Then you can use the method over and over again,
  just like the built-in methods which take blocks, like #{code 'each'}
  and #{code 'times'}. (Remember #{code '5.times do'}...?)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If you get confused, just remember what #{code 'eachEven'} is supposed to do:
call
  the block passed in with every other element in the array. Once
  you've written it and it works, you don't need to think about what it's
  actually doing under the hood ("which block is called when??"); in
  fact, that's exactly why we write methods like this: so we
  never have to think about how they work again. We just use them.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  I remember one time I wanted to be able to time how long different
  sections of a program were taking. (This is also known as
  <dfn>profiling</dfn> the code.) So I wrote a method which takes
  the time before running the code, then it runs it, then it takes
  the time again at the end and figures out the difference. I can't
  find the code right now, but I don't need it; it probably
  went something like this:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def profile descriptionOfBlock, &block
    startTime = Time.now

    block.call

```



```

    duration = Time.now - startTime

    puts descriptionOfBlock+": '+duration.to_s+' seconds'
end

profile '25000 doublings' do
  number = 1

  25000.times do
    number = number + number
  end

  # Show the number of digits in this HUGE number.
  puts number.to_s.length.to_s+' digits'
end

profile 'count to a million' do
  number = 0

  1000000.times do
    number = number + 1
  end
end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  How simple! How elegant! With that tiny method,
  I can now easily time any section of any program that I want to; I
  just throw the code in a block and send it to #{code 'profile'}.
  What could be simpler? In most languages, I would have to explicitly
  add that timing code (the stuff in #{code 'profile'}) around every
  section which I wanted to time. In Ruby, however, I get to keep it
  all in one place, and (more importantly) out of my way!
END_PARAGRAPH
end

h2 {'A Few Things to Try'}
ul do
  li do
    "<em>Grandfather Clock</em>. Write a method which takes a block
    and calls it once for each hour that has passed today. That way, if I
    were to pass in the block #{code "do puts 'DONG!' end"}, it would chime
    (sort of) like a grandfather clock. Test your method
    out with a few different blocks (including the one I just gave you).
    <em><strong>Hint:</strong> You can use
  


```

```

    </em>#{code 'Time.now.hour'}<em> to get the current hour.
    However, this returns a number between </em>#{code '0'}<em> and </em>#{code
'23'}<em>,
    so you will have to alter those numbers in order to get ordinary clock-face
    numbers (</em>#{code '1'}<em> to </em>#{code '12'}<em>).</em>"
end
li do
    para {"<em>Program Logger</em>. Write a method called #{code 'log'}, which
        takes a string description of a block and, of course, a block.
Similar to
        #{code 'doSelfImportantly'}, it should #{code 'puts'} a string telling
        that it has started the block, and another string at the end telling
you
        that it has finished the block, and also telling you what the block
        returned.
        Test your method by sending it a code block. Inside the block, put
<em>another</em>
        call to #{code 'log'}, passing another block to it. (This is called
        <dfn>nesting</dfn>.) In other words, your output should look
something like this:"}
        puts '<pre class="L2PoutputBlock">' +
            'Beginning "outer block"...' + $/ +
            'Beginning "some little block"...' + $/ +
            '..."some little block" finished, returning: 5' + $/ +
            'Beginning "yet another block"...' + $/ +
            '..."yet another block" finished, returning: I like Thai food!' + $/
+
            '..."outer block" finished, returning: false' + $/ +
            '</pre>'
end
li do
    puts "<em>Better Logger</em>. The output from that last logger was kind
        of hard to read, and it would just get worse the more you used it. It
would
        be so much easier to read if it indented the lines in the inner
        blocks. To
        do this, you'll need to keep track of how deeply nested you are every
time
        the logger wants to write something. To do this, use a <dfn>global
variable</dfn>,
        a variable you can see from anywhere in your code. To make a global
variable,
        just precede your variable name with #{code '$'}, like these:
        #{code '$global'}, #{code '$nestingDepth'}, and #{code
'$bigTopPeeWee'}.

```

In the end, your logger should output code like this:"

```
puts '<pre class="L2PoutputBlock">' +
  'Beginning "outer block"...' + $/ +
  '  Beginning "some little block"...' + $/ +
  '    Beginning "teeny-tiny block"...' + $/ +
  '      ..."teeny-tiny block" finished, returning:  lots of love' + $/ +
  '    ..."some little block" finished, returning:  42' + $/ +
  '  Beginning "yet another block"...' + $/ +
  '    ..."yet another block" finished, returning:  I love Indian food!' +
$/ +
  '..."outer block" finished, returning:  true' + $/ +
  '</pre>'
```

end

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Well, that's about all you're going to learn from this tutorial.
Congratulations! You've learned a *lot*! Maybe you don't feel
like you remember everything, or you skipped over some parts... really,
that's just fine. Programming isn't about what you know; it's about
what you can figure out. As long as you know where to find out the
things you forgot, you're doing just fine. I hope you don't think
that I wrote all of this without looking things up every other minute!
Because I did. I also got a lot of help with the code which runs all
of the examples in this tutorial. But where was *I* looking
stuff up, and who was *I* asking for help?

[#{makeLink 'Let me show you...', :generateBeyond}](#)

END_PARAGRAPH

end

end

#

BEYOND THIS TUTORIAL

#

def generateBeyond

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

So where do we go now? If you have a question, who can you
ask? What if you want your program to open a webpage, send
an email, or resize a digital picture? Well, there are many,
many places to find Ruby help. Unfortunately,
that's sort of unhelpful, isn't it? :-)

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```

For me, there are really only three places I look for Ruby help.
If it's a small question, and I think I can experiment on my own
to find the answer, I use <dfn>irb</dfn>. If it's a bigger question,
I look it up in my <dfn>pickaxe</dfn>. And if I just can't figure
it out on my own, then I ask for help on <dfn>ruby-talk</dfn>.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'IRB: Interactive Ruby'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  If you installed Ruby, then you installed irb. To use it, just
  go to your command prompt and type #{input 'irb'}. When you are
  in irb, you can type in any ruby expression you want, and it will tell you
  the value of it. Type in #{input '1 + 2'}, and it will tell you
  #{output '3'}. (Note that you don't have to use #{code 'puts'}.)
  It's kind of like a giant Ruby calculator. When you are done,
  just type in #{input 'exit'}.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  There's a lot more to irb than this, but you can learn all about
  it in the pickaxe.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'The Pickaxe: "Programming Ruby"'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Absolutely <em>the</em> Ruby book to get is "Programming Ruby,
  The Pragmatic Programmer's Guide", by David Thomas and Andrew
  Hunt (the Pragmatic Programmers). While I highly recommend
  picking up the
  <a href="https://www.pragprog.com/book/ruby4/programming-ruby-1-9-2-0">4th
edition</a>
  of this excellent book, with all of
  the latest Ruby covered, you can also get a slightly older
  (but still mostly relevant) version for free online.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  You can find just about everything about Ruby, from the basic
  to the advanced, in this book. It's easy to read; it's comprehensive;
  it's just about perfect. I wish every language had a book of
  this quality. At the back of the book, you'll find a huge section
  detailing every method in every class, explaining it and giving
  examples. I just love this book!
END_PARAGRAPH
end

```

```

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  There are a number of places you can get it (including
  the Pragmatic Programmers' own site), but my favorite place
  is at <a href="http://www.ruby-doc.org/docs/ProgrammingRuby/">ruby-
doc.org</a>.
  That version has a nice table of contents on the side,
  as well as an index. (ruby-doc.org has lots of other
  great documentation as well, such as for the Core API and
  Standard Library... basically, it documents everything Ruby
  comes with right out of the box.
  <a href="http://www.ruby-doc.org/">Check it out.</a>)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And why is it called "the pickaxe"? Well, there's a picture
  of a pickaxe on the cover of the book. It's a silly name, I
  guess, but it stuck.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Ruby-Talk: the Ruby Mailing List'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Even with irb and the pickaxe, sometimes you still can't figure
  it out. Or perhaps you want to know if someone already did
  whatever it is you are working on, to see if you could use it
  instead. In these cases, the place to go is ruby-talk, the Ruby
  Mailing List. It's full of friendly, smart, helpful people.
  To learn more about it, or to subscribe, look
  <a href="http://www.ruby-lang.org/en/community/mailling-lists/">here</a>.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  <strong>WARNING:</strong> There's a <em>lot</em> of mail on the
  mailing list every day. I have mine automatically sent to a
  different mail folder so that it doesn't get in my way. If you
  just don't want to deal with all that mail, though, you don't
  have to! The ruby-talk mailing list is mirrored to the newsgroup
  comp.lang.ruby, and vice versa, so you can see the same messages
  there. Either way, you see the same messages, just in a slightly
  different format.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'Tim Toady'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Something I have tried to shield you from, but which you will
  surely run in to soon, is the concept of TMTOWTDI (pronounced

```

```

    "Tim Toady"): There's More Than One Way To Do It.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Now some will tell you what a wonderful thing TMTOWTDI is, while
  others feel quite differently. I don't really have strong feelings
  about it in general, but I think it's a <em>terrible</em> way to
  teach someone how to program. (As if learning one way to do something
  wasn't challenging and confusing enough!)
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  However, now that you are moving beyond this tutorial, you'll
  be seeing much more diverse code. For example, I can think of
  at least five other ways to make a string (aside from surrounding
  some text in single quotes), and each one works slightly differently.
  I only showed you the simplest of the six.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And when we talked about branching, I showed you 'if',
  but I didn't show you 'unless'. I'll let you figure
  that one out in irb.
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Another nice little shortcut you can use with 'if',
  'unless', and 'while', is the cute one-line version:
  END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  # These words are from a program I wrote to generate
  # English-like babble. Cool, huh?
  puts 'grobably combergearl thememberate' if 5 == 2**2 + 1**1
  puts 'enlestrationshifter supposine' unless 'Chris'.length == 5
  END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  And finally, there is another way of writing methods which take blocks
  (not procs). We saw the thing where we grabbed the block and turned
  it into a proc using the '&block' trick in your parameter list
  when you define the function. Then, to call the block, you just use
  'block.call'. Well, there's a shorter way (though I personally
  find it more confusing). Instead of this:
  END_PARAGRAPH

```

```

end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def doItTwice(&block)
    block.call
    block.call
  end

  doItTwice do
    puts 'murditivent flavitemphan siresent litics'
  end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  ...you do this:
END_PARAGRAPH
end
prog do <<-END_CODE
  def doItTwice
    yield
    yield
  end

  doItTwice do
    puts 'buritiate mustripe lablic acticise'
  end
END_CODE
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  I don't know... what do you think? Maybe it's just me, but...
  #{code 'yield'}?! If it was something like #{code 'call_the_hidden_block'}
  or something, that would make a <em>lot</em> more sense to me.
  A lot of people say #{code 'yield'} makes sense to them. But
  I guess that's what TMTOWTDI is all about: they do it their way,
  and I'll do it my way.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
h2 {'THE END'}
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Use it for good and not evil. :-) And if you found this tutorial
  useful (or confusing, or if you found an error),
  <a href="mailto:chris@pine.fm">let me know</a>!
END_PARAGRAPH
end
end

```

```

#
# MAIN
#

def generateMain
  h2 { 'A Place to Start for the Future Programmer' }
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    I guess this all began back in 2002. I was thinking
    about teaching programming, and what a great language
    Ruby would be for learning how to program. I mean, we were
    all excited about Ruby because it was powerful, elegant, and
    really just fun, but it seemed to me that it would also
    be a great way to get into programming in the first place.
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Unfortunately, there wasn't much Ruby documentation
    geared for newbies at the time. Some of us
    in the community were talking about what such a
    "Ruby for the Nuby" tutorial would
    need, and more generally, how to teach programming at all.
    The more I thought about this, the more I had to say (which
    surprised me a bit). Finally, someone said, "Chris,
    why don't you just write a tutorial instead of talking about
    it?" So I did.
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    And it wasn't very good. I had all these ideas that were good
    <em>in theory</em>, but the actual task of making a great
    tutorial for non-programmers was vastly more challenging than
    I had realized. (I mean, it seemed good to me, but I already
    knew how to program.)
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    What saved me was that I made it really easy for people to
    contact me, and I always tried to help people when they got
    stuck. When I saw a lot of people getting stuck in one place,
    I'd rewrite it. It was a lot of work, but it slowly got better
    and better.
    END_PARAGRAPH
  end
  para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

```



```

A couple of years later, it was getting pretty good. :-) So
good, in fact, that I was ready to pronounce it finished, and
move on to something else. And right about then came an
opportunity to turn the tutorial into a book. Since it was
already basically done, I figured this would be no problem.
I'd just clean up a few spots, add some more exercises, maybe
some more examples, a few more chapters, run it by 50 more
reviewers...
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  It took me another year, but now I think it's really
  <em>really</em> good, mostly because of the hundreds of
  brave souls who have helped me write it.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  What's here on this site is the original tutorial, more or less
  unchanged since 2004. For the latest and greatest, you'll
  want to check out <a href="#{FRLTP_ADDR}">the book</a>.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
puts @@HLINE
h2 { 'Thoughts For Teachers' }
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  There were a few guiding principles that I tried to stick to.
  I think they make the learning process much smoother;
  learning to program is hard enough as it is. If you're
  teaching or guiding someone on the road to hackerdom, these
  ideas might help you, too.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  First, I tried to separate concepts as much as possible,
  so that the student would only have to learn
  one concept at a time. This was difficult at first, but a little
  <em>too</em> easy after I had some practice. Some things must be
  taught before others, but I was amazed at how little of
  a precedence hierarchy there really is. Eventually, I just had to
  pick an order, and I tried to arrange things so that each
  new section was motivated by the previous ones.
END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
  Another principle I've kept in mind is to teach only one way

```

to do something. It's an obvious benefit in a tutorial for people who have never programmed before. For one thing, one way to do something is easier to learn than two. Perhaps the more important benefit, though, is that the fewer things you teach a new programmer, the more creative and clever they have to be in their programming. Since so much of programming is problem solving, it's crucial to encourage that as much as possible at every stage.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

I have tried to piggy-back programming concepts onto concepts the new programmer already has; to present ideas in such a way that their intuition will carry the load, rather than the tutorial. Object-Oriented programming lends itself to this quite well. I was able to begin referring to "objects" and different "kinds of objects" pretty early in the tutorial, slipping those phrases in at the most innocent of moments. I wasn't saying anything like "everything in Ruby is an object," or "numbers and strings are kinds of objects," because these statements really don't mean anything to a new programmer. Instead, I would talk about strings (not "string objects"), and sometimes I would refer to "objects", simply meaning "the things in these programs." The fact that all these *things* in Ruby *are* objects made this sort of sneakiness on my part work so well.

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

Although I wanted to avoid needless OO jargon, I wanted to make sure that, if they did need to learn a word, they learned the right one. (I don't want them to have to learn it twice, right?) So I called them "strings," not "text." Methods needed to be called something, so I called them "methods."

END_PARAGRAPH

end

para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH

As far as the exercises are concerned, I think I came up with some good ones, but you can never have too many. Honestly, I bet I spent half of my time just trying to come up with fun, interesting exercises. Boring exercises absolutely kill any desire to program, while the perfect exercise creates an itch the new programmer can't help but scratch. In short, you just can't spend too much time coming up with good

```

    exercises.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
puts @@HLINE
h2 { 'About the Original Tutorial' }
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    The pages of the tutorial (and even this page) are generated by a
    <a href="#{LINK_ADDR}?ShowTutorialCode=true">big Ruby program</a>,
    of course.  :-)
    All of the
    code samples were automatically run,
    and the output shown is the output they generated.
    I think this is the best, easiest, and
    certainly the coolest way to make sure that all of the
    code I present works <em>exactly</em> as I say it does.
    You don't have to worry that I might have copied the output
    of one of the examples
    wrong, or forgotten to test some of the code; it's all been tested.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do
    '<a href="http://ruby-lang.org">'+
        ''+
        '</a>'
end
puts @@HLINE
h2 { 'Acknowledgements' }
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    Finally, I'd like to thank everyone on the ruby-talk mailing list
    for their thoughts and encouragement, all of my wonderful
    reviewers for their help in making the book far better than
    I could have alone, my dear wife especially
    for being my main reviewer/tester/guinea-pig/muse,
    Matz for creating this fabulous language, and the Pragmatic Programmers
    for telling me about it&mdash;and, of course, for publishing
    my book!
    END_PARAGRAPH
end
para do <<-END_PARAGRAPH
    If you notice any errors or typos, or have any comments or
    suggestions or good exercises I could include, please
    <a href="mailto:chris@pine.fm">let me know</a>.
    END_PARAGRAPH
end

```

```

end

# menu helpers

def menuBookLink
  para(:class=>'fancyMenuText') { 'Buy the <em>improved</em>' }
  para(:class=>' wideMenuText') { 'expanded' }
  para(:class=>'fancyMenuText') { 'version:' }
  puts "<a href=\"#{FRLTP_ADDR}\">"
    img(class: 'shadowed', width: '200', height: '240', src:
'/images/LTP2_cover.jpg', alt: 'Learn to Program, Second Edition')
  puts '</a>'
  para(:class=>'fancyMenuText') { '<em>answers now included!</em>' }
end

def menuTOC
  para { '&laquo; the original tutorial &raquo;' }

  ol(:start=>'0') do
    CHAPTERS.sort_by{|x| x[0]}.each do |aChapNum, aTitle, aMethod|
      if aChapNum < 'A'
        li { makeLink(aTitle, aMethod) }
      end
    end
  end
end

def menuTranslations
  para { '&laquo; translations &raquo;' }

  table do
    TRANSLATIONS.each do |trans|
      by = ('by '+trans[1]).gsub(' ', '&nbsp;').gsub('-', '&#8209;')
      tr do
        td { para(class: 'translink') {"<a href=#{trans[2]}>#{trans[0]}</a>"} }
        td { para { by } }
      end
    end
  end
end

#

```

```

# MAIN PAGE GENERATION
#

def generate(chap, title, generatingMethod)
  srand(12345 + 54321 * chap.to_i)
  chap = chap.sub(/^0/, '')

  pageTitle = if title.nil?
    'Learn to Program, by Chris Pine'
  else
    title + ' - Learn to Program'
  end

  puts '<!DOCTYPE html>'
  html do
    head do
      meta(charset: 'UTF-8')
      link(:href=>LINK_ADDR+'tutorial.css', :type=>'text/css', :rel=>'Stylesheet',
:media=>'screen')
      link(href: 'https://fonts.googleapis.com/css?family=Libre+Baskerville', rel:
'stylesheet', type: 'text/css')
      link(href: 'https://fonts.googleapis.com/css?
family=Source+Code+Pro&subset=latin-ext,latin', rel: 'stylesheet', type:
'text/css')
      title { pageTitle }
      script(type: 'text/javascript') do
        puts ""
        puts "var _gaq = _gaq || [];"
        puts "_gaq.push(['_setAccount', 'UA-28406155-1']);"
        puts "_gaq.push(['_trackPageview']);"
        puts ""
        puts "(function() {"
        puts "  var ga = document.createElement('script'); ga.type =
'text/javascript'; ga.async = true;"
        puts "  ga.src = ('https:' == document.location.protocol ? 'https://ssl' :
'http://www') + '.google-analytics.com/ga.js';"
        puts "  var s = document.getElementsByTagName('script')[0];
s.parentNode.insertBefore(ga, s);"
        puts "})();"
        puts ""
      end
    end # head
    body do
      div do
        header do

```

```

    puts '<a href="'+LINK_ADDR+'"'>'
    puts 'Learn to Program'
    puts '</a>'
end
main do
  if chap != 'main'
    h1 {title}
    h3 {'Chapter ' + chap}
    puts @@HLINE
  end
  method(generatingMethod).call
end
footer do
  puts @@HLINE
  para do
    '<a href="https://twitter.com/OtherChrisPine" class="twitter-follow-
button" data-show-count="false" data-size="large">Follow @OtherChrisPine</a>'
  end
  para {"&copy; 2003-#{Time.now.year} Chris Pine"}
  script(type: 'text/javascript') do
    "!function(d,s,id){var js,fjs=d.getElementsByTagName(s)
[0],p=/^http:/.test(d.location)?'http':'https';if(!d.getElementById(id))
{js=d.createElement(s);js.id=id;js.src=p+'://platform.twitter.com/widgets.js';fjs.pa
rentNode.insertBefore(js,fjs);}}(document, 'script', 'twitter-wjs');"
  end
end
end
nav do
  menuBookLink

  img(class: 'divider', width: '150', src: '/images/divider.svg', alt:
'divider')

  menuTOC

  img(class: 'divider', width: '150', src: '/images/divider.svg', alt:
'divider')

  menuTranslations
end
end # body
end # html

@page.join("\n")+"\n"
end

```

```

end

# 'format' is a hidden page for testing formatting.
CHAPTERS = [
  ['main' , nil , :generateMain ],
  ['00' , 'Getting Started' , :generateSetup ],
  ['01' , 'Numbers' , :generateNumbers ],
  ['02' , 'Letters' , :generateLetters ],
  ['03' , 'Variables and Assignment' , :generateVariables ],
  ['04' , 'Mixing It Up' , :generateConversion ],
  ['05' , 'More About Methods' , :generateMethods ],
  ['06' , 'Flow Control' , :generateFlowControl ],
  ['07' , 'Arrays and Iterators' , :generateArrays ],
  ['08' , 'Writing Your Own Methods' , :generateDefMethod ],
  ['09' , 'Classes' , :generateClasses ],
  ['10' , 'Blocks and Procs' , :generateBlocksProcs ],
  ['11' , 'Beyond This Tutorial' , :generateBeyond ],
  ['format', 'Formatting Page' , :generateFormattingPage],
]

CHAPTERS.each do |chap, title, meth|
  page = LearnToProgramTutorial.new
  out = page.generate(chap, title, meth)

  filename = "#{chap}.html"
  filename = 'chap_'+filename if chap < 'A'
  filename = File.expand_path(File.join(File.dirname(__FILE__), filename))

  puts "Writing #{filename}..."
  File.write(filename, out)
end

puts "Done!"

```