

The fOOrth User's Guide and Reference

An RPN, object oriented language that is not FORTH.

by Peter Camilleri

Last Update: May 14, 2015

Covering fOOrth version 0.0.3

Status: Preliminary

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Introduction

About the name fOOrth

The name of programming language fOOrth is an example of a malamanteau¹. That is a portmanteau of a malapropism.

The portmanteau portion of this is the mash-up of FORTH² and the “OO” of object oriented programming³ systems. It is short, easy to pronounce, slightly witty, and a unique opportunity to describe an actual word as being a malamanteau.

The malapropism involved is quite simply that fOOrth is not FORTH. While the acronym FNF, for fOOrth is **Not FORTH**, is also short, it is not at all easy to pronounce as fOOrth.

How fOOrth came to be

I have had a fascination with stack based, postfix notation programming environments going back over 30 years. This started with those awesome calculators by Hewlett Packard⁴. I could never afford to buy one, but I was always intrigued by their elegant, expressive power compared with more conventional calculators.

Later, as part of a college course I was tasked with creating a programming language interpreter. I must admit I was struggling with this task. Then one Sunday afternoon, while visiting my Uncle Sal, I began working away at his Radio Shack TRS-80 in Basic. In the course of a two hour programming session, I had created a tiny stack based calculator. Inspired by the simplicity of this simple interpreter, I was able to design a fuller version that ran on the Universities PDP-10 mainframe in APL. Yes it ran fairly slowly. The odd thing was that compared to the other students efforts, it ran amazingly *fast*! The simplicity of the syntax meant that little time was wasted parsing and analyzing the source text.

On a more serious note, I have actually been involved in a major project developed in FORTH during which I came to admire and appreciate the expressive power of the language. While the project was not successful in the end, this was largely a consequence of the nearly impossible goals we had set for ourselves and not a reflection of FORTH. Well not much of a reflection on FORTH as we'll see next.

FORTH today is about as dead a language as you are going to find. Like other extinctions throughout history, this can be traced by its utter failure to adapt to changing conditions. When FORTH was born, most computers were very primitive. They had very little processing power, microscopic memory resources and mass storage, and lacked any form of operating system, file storage, or peripherals; user interfaces were upper case only ASCII subsets. In this environment FORTH was an excellent choice. Systems were tiny and FORTH fit those systems well, and its

1 Malamanteau, see XKCD 739 at <http://xkcd.com/739/>, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xkcd#Recurring_items

2 See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Forth_\(programming_language\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Forth_(programming_language)), http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Charles_H._Moore

3 See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object-oriented_programming

4 See <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hewlett-Packard>, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HP_calculators, and <http://www.hpmuseum.org/>

supporters liked things that way. As computers improved, FORTH stood still. File systems, floating point math, memory management, improved user interfaces all came to everyday computers, but not to FORTH.

FORTH was still efficient and fast, but computers continued to get more and more memory, processing power, and advanced I/O. FORTH was static, stationary, and dying. To this day, FORTH is *still* largely an upper case only language. Just recently. I remember watching in disbelief a video in which a spokesperson for the company Green Arrays, Inc⁵ stated that an enhancement to their FORTH oriented processor would be to *limit* the addressable memory to a mere 64 words. How out of touch with reality do you have to be to think that such limited memory is an *asset*?

So if FORTH is so stone age, primitive and extinct, why do this fOOrth thing? It goes back to the heart of fOOrth and FNF. Remember, fOOrth is *not* FORTH. In spite of its problems, the expressive elegance of FORTH cannot be denied. The fOOrth system is an attempt to project where FORTH might have gone had its supporters been more progressive. The fOOrth system is dedicated to destroying limitations, not exalting them.

Given all that has been written, there is still one inescapable fact. FORTH did possess a simplicity and clarity that made it attractive. The fOOrth language needs to retain this essential simplicity as much as possible while avoiding the corner-cutting that made FORTH miserable for many tasks. The fOOrth language needs to retain this sense of small, understated elegance.

Finally, fOOrth is inspired by the development of Object Oriented⁶ and Message Passing⁷ paradigms⁸ pioneered in the Smalltalk⁹ programming language. While Smalltalk, is a fairly obscure language today, there can be no doubt of its tremendous impact on modern programming language thought and design.

In the following sections, the underlying principles of fOOrth will be examined to provide a basis for a detailed look at the architecture, features, and facilities of the language system.

Goals and Principles

To move forward, fOOrth has adopted a few basic goals and principles. These are:

- 1) A Simple, Easy-to-Understand syntax that is none the less, expressive and compact:
 - Source code in fOOrth is free-form with no line oriented limitations or rules.
 - Support is given to the easy representation of common literal data such as strings, integers, floating point numbers, rational numbers, and complex numbers.
- 2) Safe Data and Data Structures:
 - Simple, reliable arithmetic. In fOOrth, integer operations never overflow. Rational values can be represented exactly, complex numbers are supported, and conversions between numeric types are simple.
 - Strings grow as needed without the need to allocate space or worry about overflow.

5 See Green Arrays, Inc. at <http://www.greenarraychips.com/>

6 See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object-oriented_programming

7 See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Message_passing

8 See <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paradigm>

9 See <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Smalltalk>

- Data containers such as arrays and hashes grow as needed. Out of range subscripts cannot access undefined memory regions.

3) Message Passing:

- In fOOrth all actions take the form of messages sent to a receiver.
- The routing of messages is specified by the exact type of the message.
- Message receivers include data items on the stack as well as the virtual machine object associated with the current thread of execution.
- Messages for which no routing specification can be found, generate an error at compile time.

4) Object Oriented Design:

- Support class based inheritance, with a non-cyclic (single inheritance) tree derived from a common base Object class.
- Support late binding and polymorphism through message interface compatibility or “duck” typing.

5) Meta programming:

- Support extensible language constructs by making the compiler an accessible part of the system.

6) Reliability:

- Errors should be detected as soon as possible.

7) Building on the host language:

- The fOOrth language is built upon the Ruby language. To leverage this, fOOrth has the ability to build proxy connections to Ruby classes and facilities.

Report Card

Naturally, it remains to be seen how well fOOrth is at actually accomplishing these lofty goals and living up to these principles. It may be imagined that at some later date, this guide could contain a “report card” examining this topic. For now, this matter is left as an exercise for the reader.

Special Note of Thanks

This project, as well as this User Guide owe a huge debt of gratitude to the Wikipedia¹⁰ project. Throughout this guide, entries from the free encyclopedia are used to illustrate and amplify many crucial concepts. Wikipedia is supported by donations and I urge all to add their support. I am proud to do so myself each year.

¹⁰ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page

Installation

Ruby

The fOOrth system is written in Ruby, so, at this time, the first step in installing fOOrth is to install Ruby. The question that then arises is what version of Ruby is required? To date, fOOrth has been tested under:

- ruby 1.9.3p484 (2013-11-22) [i386-mingw32]
- ruby 2.1.5p273 (2014-11-13 revision 48405) [i386-mingw32]
- Rubinius – to be tested!
- JRuby – to be tested too!

Given the versions that I know work, I am hopeful the 2.0.x and 2.1.x will likely work too. I can state with a great deal of confidence that fOOrth will NOT work with any MRI 1.8.x or older and 1.9.1 and 1.9.2 are very doubtful as well, but the confidence there is a lot less.

Installing Ruby is beyond the scope of this documentation, but some excellent references to assist in this endeavor are:

<http://www.railsinstaller.org/en>

Yes, this installer does install the Ruby and the Rails web framework, but includes comprehensive support for gem, git, devkit, rake, rdoc and other tools and is the easiest, most comprehensive choice for Windows or Mac (pre OSX Mavericks) users.

<http://rubyinstaller.org/>

Another comprehensive Ruby installation site for Windows and useful extensions not included above.

<https://www.ruby-lang.org/en/documentation/installation/>

A comprehensive source for installing or even compiling Ruby on all platforms. This is also a hub of information on what is available in the world of Ruby.

Of course, fOOrth is built on Ruby, so it makes sense to understand the underlying foundation. For this this web site is invaluable: <https://www.ruby-lang.org/en/>.

fOOrth

The fOOrth language is delivered in the form of a Ruby gem¹¹. An easy-to-use package that

¹¹ This is not true. Until a reasonably stable code base exists the gem will not be available to avoid wasting a lot of repository space. Until then, the only way to get fOOrth is from github. See the source archive section below.

delivers code with version management facilities. This gem is hosted on the web site Ruby Gems¹². Once Ruby is installed, installing fOOrth is as simple as the following command:

```
gem install fOOrth
```

That's it! It should be that simple!

Running fOOrth

Once fOOrth is installed, there are several options for running the language environment. These are:

Rake:

From the base folder of the gem (where the file rakefile.rb is located) simply enter the following from the command prompt:

```
rake run
```

This will then run up an interactive, command line session in fOOrth.

Demo.rb:

In the base folder of the gem there is a file demo.rb. If the fOOrth gem has been installed on the local system, this can be copied to any convenient folder and run with:

```
ruby demo.rb
```

This will also run up an interactive, command line session in fOOrth.

Testing

No code is well written that does not include a comprehensive set of tests and fOOrth is no exception. The tests in fOOrth are divided into two main sections: the unit tests which focus on testing the underlying Ruby support code and integration testing which takes a more wholistic approach and largely tests fOOrth with fOOrth code. To run these unit and integration tests, respectively, use the following commands:

```
rake test  
rake integration
```

¹² Ruby Gems is located at <http://rubygems.org/>

Known Issues

When testing under MRI Ruby 2.1.5, there is a known issue with the integration test suite. In particular, if the internal rake command that launches the test exceeds 1022 characters, the test will hang with no error. The only way to abort this error is to interrupt the test, typically by hitting a control-C character.

As a work-around, the names of the integration test files have been given a bit of a trim (the word library was shortened to lib) in order to limbo dance under the 1022 character limitation.

In the long run, there seems to be no fix for version 2.1.5 available. It may be that a switch to version 2.1.6 may be required to correct this issue properly.

Source Archive

The source code archive for fOOrth may currently be found on the github repository at the address: <https://github.com/PeterCamilleri/fOOrth>.

First Steps

The fOOrth system can operate in a number of ways, but the classic mode is as an interactive programming environment. In this interactive system, the user enters commands in a text session. These are executed and any results appear as output to the screen. For example:

```
>4 5 + .  
9  
>
```

The “>” is a command prompt, the code entered was “4 5 + .” and the output was “9”. Drilling down a little deeper, fOOrth uses postfix notation, sometimes referred to as reverse polish notation^{13 14}. In more conventional languages, infix or algebraic notation is used. To add 4 and 5 we would write 4 + 5. The addition operator being infix or between the operands. In postfix notation, the operands come first and the operator follows or is postfixed. Thus “4 5 +”.

Now infix algebra requires all sorts of complex operator precedence rules as well as parenthesis to override those precedence rules. Postfix notation needs no such complexity. Postfix notation is well supported by a simple stack¹⁵ data structure and this is built into fOOrth in the form of its data stack.

Consider the example code in greater detail yet:

Tokens	4	5	+	.
Output				'9'
Data Stack	4	5	9	
		4		

Expressions that require parenthesis in infix notation, are written without them in postfix notation. Consider the following expressions:

Infix	Postfix	Result
2+3*4	2 3 4 * +	14
(2+3)*4	2 3 + 4 *	20

Note how the postfix version is simply read from left to right without having to jump about the expression and apply complex rules. So far, at this level, fOOrth appears to be identical to

¹³ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reverse_Polish_notation

¹⁴ The reason it is called Reverse Polish Notation (RPN) is that it is the reverse of the prefix notation created by Polish logician Jan Łukasiewicz (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jan_%C5%81ukasiewicz), whose name is utterly unpronounceable by non-Polish speakers. I know. I tried. Even with Polish coaching, I never got it right.

¹⁵ [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack_\(abstract_data_type\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stack_(abstract_data_type))

FORTH. However this is not the case. To understand how this is so, consider the original addition of 4 and 5 at a deeper (but still abstract) level, contrasting the actions of fOOrth with a hypothetical FORTH implementation.

Language Tokens	Abstract Pseudo-Code Generated	
	FORTH	fOOrth
4	Push_integer 4	Push_integer 4
5	Push_integer 5	Push_integer 5
+	$T_1 = \text{Pop_integer}$ $T_2 = \text{Pop_integer}$ $T_3 = \text{Add_integers } T_2, T_1$ Push_integer T_3	$T_1 = \text{Pop_object}$ $T_2 = \text{Pop_object}$ $T_3 = T_2.\text{Add}(T_1)$ Push_object T_3
.	$T_1 = \text{Pop_integer}$ Print_integer T_1	$T_1 = \text{Pop_object}$ $T_1.\text{Print_object}$

In FORTH, the + operator is hardwired as the integer addition operator. In fOOrth, the + operator is a message sent to a data item (or object) on the stack. The implementation of that operator is determined by how that object is programmed to respond to that message.

When incorrect data are sent to the FORTH “+” or the “.” words, they blindly proceed without regard for the incorrect results generated. FORTH has little to no error checking and usually handles errors by hanging or crashing. In fOOrth, each message that is sent, must be understood by its receiver. Errors are reported as soon as they occur.

The Syntax and Style of fOOrth

Syntax

In most programming languages most of the outline of the code and its major control structures is a function of the syntax enforced by the parser. In languages like Smalltalk, FORTH, and fOOrth this is not the case. The parser only supports the barest essentials required to create expressions, the rest is a consequence of the actions taken by those expressions. In FORTH, the only constructs recognized by the parser are code “words” and numeric literals. In fOOrth, a bit more is done with the parser supporting “words”, numeric literals, string literals, and comments. Thus syntax plays a minor role in fOOrth. It is more semantic than syntactic in nature.

Spaces

In general, fOOrth language tokens or words are separated by spaces. Other languages allow operators and punctuation to abut identifiers and literal values. In fOOrth this is generally not permitted. Thus

```
4 5 + .      // Correct, prints out 9
4 5+.        // Incorrect, produces the error F10: ?5+.? as in what's this?
```

In fOOrth, there are three exceptions to this rule: Comments, String literals and Numeric literals.

Comments

The fOOrth language supports two types of comments. Embedded comments may be placed inline between other language elements as in this silly example:

```
4 (four) 5 (five) + (add) . (print)
```

Note that unlike FORTH, there is no need to place a space after the leading “(“ character.

The other form of comment is lifted from C++ and is started a “//” and ends at the end of the line.

```
4 5 + .      // Prints out 9!
```

String Literals

In fOOrth special support is provided for embedded string literal. Any fOOrth method that ends with a “ character is assumed to contain an embedded string. No space is required between the the “ and the start of the string. The string ends with a matching trailing “ character. Some examples of methods with embedded strings are:

```
."Hello World"    // Print Hello World
)"ls -al"         // Shell out the command: ls -al
"ABCD"            // The string literal "ABCD"
```

Further discussion of string literals is found in section String – String Literal below.

Numeric Literals

Many sorts of numeric literals require various sorts of punctuation as part of the number being specified. These are placed inline with no spaces as in these examples:

```
-10  99.1  -3.0E21  1/3  2+3i  -2-2i
```

Further information on these literals is found in the sections “Complex”, “Float”, “Integer”, and “Rational”.

A fOOrth Calculator

Since fOOrth was in part inspired by the powerful RPN calculators manufactured by companies like Hewlett Packard, let's start delving deeper into fOOrth using its interactive mode as a kind of super-calculator.

The Basics

To begin, run up fOOrth (see section Running fOOrth above). Lets see what comes up initially.

```
C:\Sites\fOOrth>rake run
Welcome to fOOrth: fO(bject)O(riented)rth.

fOOrth Reference Implementation Version: 0.0.3

Session began on: 2015-01-24 at 11:39am

>
```

The last line has a “>” which is a prompt for input. To facilitate this use of the language, we now enter the `)show` command.

```
>) show

[]
>
```

For clarity, user input is shown bold and underlined. This emphasis is for clarity in text only, and does not occur in the actual interactive session.

Also note the `[]` after the command. This is a data dump that will help us keep track of the contents of the stack. No data is shown between the brackets because at this time the data stack is empty. Lets dive right in and try some calculating:

```
>4 5 6

[4, 5, 6]
>*

[4, 30]
>+

[34]
>.
34
[]
```

In the above, the numbers 4 5 6 are entered to the stack, then 5 and 6 are multiplied, then 4 and 30 are added. Finally, the result, 34, is printed out to the screen (with the “.” dot command), leaving an empty stack once more.

Naturally, computations are not limited to integer values, but may include floating point, rational and even complex data. Some example computational sequences with these data types are shown in the next screen capture sequence:

```
>4.0E3 50.0 6000.0
[4000.0, 50.0, 6000.0]
>*
[4000.0, 300000.0]
>±
[304000.0]
>.
304000.0
[]
>1/2 2/3 4/5
[(1/2), (2/3), (4/5)]
>*
[(1/2), (8/15)]
>±
[(31/30)]
>.
31/30
[]
>1+2i 3+4i 5+6i
[(1+2i), (3+4i), (5+6i)]
>*
[(1+2i), (-9+38i)]
>±
[(-8+40i)]
>.
-8+40i
[]
>
```

The fOOrth language supports many common math operations. In addition to the four basic operators (add +, subtract -, multiply *, and divide /) there are (remainder mod, exponentiation **) as well as trigonometric, logarithmic and other operators too numerous to mention. Most will be found in the class reference section for the Numeric class.

Stack Manipulation

All RPN calculators (and even most non-RPN ones) include a number of operations for manipulating the stack. In fOOrth, these operations are pretty much lifted verbatim from FORTH. These operations are performed directly by the Virtual Machine, again, just like FORTH would have done. Here are some brief examples of the most common sorts of operations plus a look at them in action interactively:

drop – discard the top element of the stack.

```
>1 2 3  
[1, 2, 3]  
>drop  
[1, 2]  
>
```

dup – duplicate the top reference or value. Note that any referenced data is NOT duplicated. See the section Cloning Around for further details.

```
>"apple"  
["apple"]  
>dup  
["apple", "apple"]  
>
```

nip – grab the second element of the stack and discard it.

```
>1 99 2  
[1, 99, 2]  
>nip  
[1, 2]  
>
```

over – grab the second element of the stack and push a duplicate of it to the top of the stack.

```
>"apple" "pie"  
["apple", "pie"]  
>over  
["apple", "pie", "apple"]  
>
```

pick – pick the stack element indexed by the top stack element and make a duplicate of that the new top element of the stack.

```
>1 2 3 4  
[1, 2, 3, 4]  
>2 pick  
[1, 2, 3, 4, 3]  
>
```

swap – exchange the top two elements of the stack. Just like the old $x \leftrightarrow y$ calculator key

```
> 1 2  
[1, 2]  
> swap  
[2, 1]  
>
```

tuck – take the top element of the stack and tuck a duplicate of it under the second element.

```
> 1 2  
[1, 2]  
> tuck  
[2, 1, 2]  
>
```

The Return Stack

The astute reader and scholar of FORTH will note the absence of the FORTH return stack. Quite simply, the return stack is not necessary in fOOrth and would serve little purpose. Early versions of fOOrth did indeed have such a stack, but it was not utilized in anyway. In FORTH, the return stack serves three purposes:

1. To store return addresses for word calls. In fOOrth this is handled by the Ruby virtual machine.
2. To store context for control structures. In fOOrth the context mechanism provides for a far richer and more reliable set of control, compile, and data structures.
3. As an escape valve when the stack has become too crowded and an need to put data “someplace” brings the return stack into service. In fOOrth local and instance variables provide a much more flexible and less error prone alternative. In addition, the object oriented concept of “self” often allows for a great deal of code simplification.

Programming

The very best calculators not only excelled at computations, they also allowed actions to chained together and stored. They were programmable. This feature extends the reach of these devices and got them banned from the examination room at school. The fOOrth language calculator is eminently programmable.

Let us start with the simplest form of programming, the creation of virtual machine methods. This closely corresponds to the creation of “words” in FORTH. As an example lets us create a very simple method called double that doubles a value. The transcript follows:

```
>: double dup + ;  
[]
```

```

>4 double .
8
[]
>"apple" double .
appleapple
[]
>

```

The colon is used to start a definition on the virtual machine. This is followed by the name of the method, in this case “double”. The body of the definition follows and finally the semi-colon closes off the definition. This is all classic FORTH code.

When we enter 4 double . we get an answer of 8, just as expected. The differences to classic FORTH begin to show when we enter the "apple" double . command. Instead of an error or some crazy number, or a crash, we get the string “appleapple”. The double method “doubled up” the string.

This is a result of the fact the the + operator in the double method is not hardwired to integer addition as it would be in FORTH, but is sent to the receiver where it is processed according to the rules of that receiver. For an integer, that is integer addition. For a string that is string addition, usually called concatenation.

Control Structures

Now recording programming steps is all well and good, but any decent calculator also has the ability to make decisions and perform repetitive tasks, and fOOrth does not disappoint!

The if statement:

While a calculator might have settled for a conditional “goto” statement, fOOrth has a fully structured “if” statement. It is in RPN however so the Boolean expression comes before the “if” operator as in this example:

```

>: is_five 5 = if . "It is five!" else . "Nope, it is not five" then ;

>4 is_five
Nope, it is not five
>5 is_five
It is five!

```

In this example, a method called is_five is created that takes different actions based on a test of the input argument. The “if” statement defines two local methods, “else” and “then”. A more formal look at the “if” statement is:

<boolean expression> if <>true clause> {else <>false clause>} then

Where the { } indicate an optional component.

The switch statement

Now, fOOrth, FORTH and Smalltalk share a shortcoming. They all have difficulty dealing with chained if then elsif elsif elsif end situations. They tend to cascade many levels of nesting inside

the “else” clauses. For a real example of this the following code is presented. This ugly_if¹⁶ code uses nested “if” statements to select from three choices with a default.

```
// ugly_if.fooorth - ugly nested if statements
: choose_path
  dup 1 = if
    drop ."path 1"
  else
    dup 2 = if
      drop ."path 2"
    else
      dup 3 = if
        drop ."path 3"
      else
        drop ."Invalid path selected"
      then
    then
  then
then
cr ;
```

To alleviate this problem fOOrth has the switch construct. Consider instead, the following snippet¹⁷ of code:

```
// switch.fooorth -- switch statement sample
: choose_path
  switch
    dup 1 = if drop ."path 1" break then
    dup 2 = if drop ."path 2" break then
    dup 3 = if drop ."path 3" break then
    drop ."Invalid path selected"
  end
cr ;
```

The purpose of the switch ... end control structure is to group together a number of statements. In addition to the “end” keyword, the switch clause defines the “break” verb. The purpose of the break (and its related ?break) verb is to skip past any remaining statements to the just past the “end”.

When run (both versions produce the same output, but switch.fooorth is shown in this example) we see:

```
> load"docs/snippets/switch.fooorth"
Loading file: docs/snippets/switch.fooorth
Completed in 0.0 seconds

> 1 choose_path
path 1

> 2 choose_path
path 2

> 42 choose_path
Invalid path selected
```

¹⁶ The file is ugly_if.fooorth which may be found in the docs/sippets folder.

¹⁷ The file is switch.fooorth which may be found in the docs/sippets folder.

The do statement

Another major feature of a good programmable calculator is the ability to automate repetitive operations. In fOOrth, the “do” statement borrows heavily from FORTH, but there are some crucial differences. A classic snippet of code might look like this:

```
>0 10 do i . space loop  
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
```

This prints out the numbers from 1 through 9 to the terminal session. The “do” and “loop” commands mark the boundaries of the loop; The “i” command is used to retrieve the current loop counter value. For nested loops, the “j” command retrieves the value of the outer loops counter value. By default, the “loop” command adds one to the loop value. For more flexible looping, the “+loop” command allows an arbitrary increment value to be specified.

So far, fOOrth “do” loops are just like FORTH. However, a significant difference between fOOrth and FORTH is how the end condition is determined. In FORTH, the loop terminates when the current loop value is exactly equal to the end value. In fOOrth, the condition is tripped when the current loop value is greater than or equal to the end value. An example of this in action is the following broken code:

```
>10 0 do i . space loop
```

In fOOrth, this code does nothing because the end condition is met at the start of the loop. In FORTH it goes looping off crazily until the loop counter overflows and counts up to zero. That can be a very long time indeed and is as close to an infinite loop as does not matter.

-i and -j

In solving one problem, often a new problem is created, and this is no exception. The astute reader will be wondering how a loop would be constructed that counts *backwards*! The broken code above does nothing and so does the classical way of reverse counting in FORTH:

```
>10 0 do i . space -1 +loop
```

To resolve this issue, fOOrth provides reverse counter versions of the loop variables. The reverse counter for “i” is “-i” and the reverse counter for “j” is “-j”. Thus the fOOrth version of this code is simply:

```
>0 10 do -i . space loop  
9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0
```

Now both the forward and reverse loop variables are available so it is possible to process *both* directions at once in a single loop.

```
>0 10 do i -i * . space loop  
0 8 14 18 20 20 18 14 8 0
```

A simple example of looping in action can be seen in the `times_table`¹⁸ example file. Here is the source code:

```
// Print out a classic times table.

cr
." * |" 1 13 do i .fmt"%3d" . space loop cr
."-----+ " "-" 47 * . cr

1 13 do
  i .fmt"%2d" . ." |"

  1 13 do
    i j * .fmt"%3d" . space
  loop

  cr
loop
cr
```

Most of this code is devoted to making the output look nice, but the core of the code are the nested do loops both counting from 1 to 12. As can be seen, the inner loop counter is accessed via the “i” method and the outer counter is accessed via the “j” method. And here is the output!

```
> load"docs/snippets/times_table"
Loading file: docs/snippets/times_table.foorth

* | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
---+-----
1 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
2 | 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 24
3 | 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30 33 36
4 | 4 8 12 16 20 24 28 32 36 40 44 48
5 | 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60
6 | 6 12 18 24 30 36 42 48 54 60 66 72
7 | 7 14 21 28 35 42 49 56 63 70 77 84
8 | 8 16 24 32 40 48 56 64 72 80 88 96
9 | 9 18 27 36 45 54 63 72 81 90 99 108
10 | 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120
11 | 11 22 33 44 55 66 77 88 99 110 121 132
12 | 12 24 36 48 60 72 84 96 108 120 132 144

Completed in 0.21 seconds
```

Now we're all ready for those math tests!

¹⁸ The file is `times_table.foorth` which may be found in the `docs/sippets` folder.

The begin statement

The “do” loop is great for cases where the iteration action is based on counting. For loops *not* based on counting there is the “begin” statement. The “begin” keyword is balanced against one of the following locally defined terminating keywords:

- begin ... until – loops until the top of stack is true.
- begin ... again – loops indefinitely
- begin ... repeat – same as above.

Now it will be noticed that two of the configurations loop indefinitely. This is not desirable, so to handle this case the “while” verb exists. The “while” method exits the loop if the top of stack is false. A begin ... {until/again/repeat} loop may have multiple while sub-clauses.

A simple (simplistic) example of this type of loop in action is seen in the int_log2¹⁹ snippet:

```
// A simple integer log2
: ilog2 .to_i 2/ 0 swap
  begin
    dup 0> while
      2/ swap 1+ swap
    again
  drop ;
```

A sample run is shown below:

```
> load"docs/snippets/int_log2"
Loading file: docs/snippets/int_log2.foorth
Completed in 0.005 seconds

> 8 ilog2 .
3
> 18 ilog2 .
4
> 0 ilog2 .
0
> 1 ilog2 .
0
> 3 ilog2 .
1
> 4 ilog2 .
2
```

Data Memory

Even the most rudimentary calculators are equipped with some data storage, even if it is the primitive STO, RCL, M+, M-, and MCLR. In real programming systems, data storage is rather more complex, more than can fit into this already too long section. In fOOrth, considerable flexibility exists in the use of data memory. The following section examine this topic in several categories.

¹⁹ The file is int_log2.foorth which may be found in the docs/snippets folder.

Data Storage in fOOrth

Typing

While the data itself is strongly typed in fOOrth, the data storage (variables etc) are not. Data of any sort may be placed into a variable. This closely reflects how Ruby does things. FORTH in contrast is a completely type less language with no type checking at any point or on any level.

All of this begs the question though: What is a data type? In fOOrth, data types are compatible if they respond to the required set of messages. This is covered in more detail later, but for now we can simply say that the type of a datum is determined by the operations it supports. This is often called Duck Typing²⁰. Again, fOOrth borrows heavily from Ruby.

Declarations

In Ruby, there are no formal declarations of variables. There are times when the extreme flexibility of Ruby forces the programmer to write a preemptive assignment statement to force the language to do the right thing, but there are no variable declarations²¹. In fOOrth, variables are always declared and they are always given an initial value. The general form of one of these declarations is:

```
<value> <defining_word:> <variable_name>
```

The details of this declaration are filled in by the following sections.

Scoping

In all programming languages, variables have a life span, or scope of existence. The fOOrth language supports four scoping options. These are described below:

Local Scope

The local scoping option allows variables to exist locally within a single method. Typically, local variables are created near the beginning of the method, their initial values may be literals, computed values or may be taken from arguments to the the method.

Methods: `val:` and `var:`

Regex for valid local variable names: `/^[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/22`

Notes: Local variables are only accessible inside the methods they are defined in, after the point in the code where they are defined.

²⁰ From the adage: If it quacks like a duck, swims like a duck, and waddles like a duck... it's a duck!

²¹ Many think that the `attr_reader`, `attr_writer`, and `attr_accessor` macros of Ruby are variable declarations, but they are not. They simply define access methods for a variable, not the variable itself.

²² See Appendix B for more information on Regular Expressions.

Instance Scope

Instance scoped variables are associated with instances of objects. As such, these methods are only accessible inside methods of those objects. Instance variables are distinguished by the leading “@” sign in their names. Instance variables can only be created in such methods as well, with the `.init` method being the most popular since it is called to initialize a new instance of the object.

Methods: `val@:` and `var@:`

Regex for valid local variable names: `/^@[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/`

Notes: Instance values/variables are only accessible in environments where the “self” entity is the object where they exist. This is the case of a method or a `where{...}` clause of that object.

Thread Scope

Thread variables are associated with the thread in which they are defined. As such they are accessible anywhere within that thread. Thread variables are distinguished by the leading “#” sign in their names. Thread variables may be created at any point within the thread.

Methods: `val#:` and `var#:`

Regex for valid local variable names: `/^#[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/`

Notes: When a new thread is created, it receives a copy of the thread variables in the thread that created it.

Global Scope

Global variables may be accessed at any point after they have been defined. Global variables are distinguished by the leading “\$” sign in their names.

Methods: `val$:` and `var$:`

Regex for valid local variable names: `/^\[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/`

Notes: Global variables are considered bad in many circles.

Referencing

This one is a bit tricky. Most programming languages have the concept of the value *of* a variable and a reference *to* a variable. In “C”, documentation speaks of “lvalues” and “rvalues”. These labels describe the role (left and right value) played in the classic “C” assignment statement:

```
<lvalue> = <rvalue>;
```

In “C” there is the further concept of being able to create a reference to a variable using the “&” operator. This operator allows the programmer to create a reference (via a pointer) to a the variable in question.

Ruby on the other hand has no explicit support for references. Variables themselves are always

values and there exists no way to generate a reference to a variable. It is true that the Ruby interpreter must have access to a reference to a variable in order to perform an assignment, but this capability is kept locked up in the internals of the language.

In fOOrth, the ability to use references and values is explicitly available to the programmer through the “var” and “val” keyword roots²³. To create a variable that holds a reference, use:

```
<value> var: <var_name>
```

For example:

```
0 var: score
```

To create a value simply substitute the var: version as in this example:

```
10 val: max_score
```

The first example creates a variable “score” that is a reference to the value, currently 0. The second creates a variable “max_score” with a value of 10. Next we examine how referencing affects the code that is needed to use these variables:

Task	<i>var</i>	<i>val</i>
Sample Declarations	0 var: score	10 val: max_score
Just what is being declared?	A method (called score) that pushes a reference to the value (0) onto the stack.	A method (called max_score) that pushes the value (10) onto the stack.
Retrieve the value of the variable.	score @	max_score
Update the value of the variable.	1 score !	-- ²⁴
Get a reference to the variable.	score	-- ²⁵

As can be seen in the above table, var scope is more capable than val scope. It is also slower, more complex, and more verbose. For most uses, the greater capabilities of the var scope are not required. Thus it is expected that for most applications val scope will be the predominant form utilized.

In most programming languages, including Ruby, val or value variables are called constants. In Ruby, this title is a falsehood due to the issue of data mutation, covered in the next section.

Mutation

In motion pictures, mutants are sometimes the good “guys”, but regardless of that, wherever mutations are involved, trouble always seems to follow them. That also holds true for fOOrth

²³ For simplicity, the examples here assume local scope, but the examples would work in the same manner with global, thread, or instance scoping.

²⁴ This operation is not available for value variables.

²⁵ This operation is also not available for value variables.

and the underlying Ruby base language. In fOOrth, all datum are divided into two major classifications: Immutable and Mutable. Simply put, immutable values are those that retain their value when operations are applied to them. Mutable values do not have this property. In fOOrth, numbers (of all sorts), boolean values (true and false) and the special value nil, are all immutable. Everything else *is* mutable. It is noteworthy that character strings in particular fall into the mutable camp.

For comparison, consider this first example with immutable data:

```
>5 val$: $iv $iv .
5
>$iv 6 + .
11
>$iv .
5
>
```

In this example, a value of 5 is created. An addition operation with 6 is performed, yielding 11. Nonetheless, the original value of 5 is NOT mutated by this operation. Now consider a similar scenario with mutable data:

```
>"Hello" val$: $mv $mv .
Hello
>$mv " World" << .
Hello World
>$mv .
Hello World
```

In this case, the string variable IS mutated by the concatenation "<<", operator. If one were relying on the \$mv value to be constant, this would be a severe setback. Now to be clear, there is a non-mutating concatenation operator, "+". As shown below, it does NOT mutate the string:

```
>"Hello" val$: $mv $mv .
Hello
>$mv " World" + .
Hello World
>$mv .
Hello
>
```

So why have both? Why not always avoid the mutation? Simply put, the non-mutating version is slower because it must create a copy of the string to avoid modifying the original. There is a trade-off between mutation and efficiency. With immutable data, there is no need for trade-offs or two versions of operations. Operations on immutable data are always immutable AND efficient!

The fOOrth language does provide ways to explicitly control or at least work around mutation issues. This is discussed in the next section on Cloning Data.

Cloning Data

Since some data in fOOrth are mutable, it is sometimes necessary to create copies of that data so that operations can be performed that do not corrupt the “original” data. The fOOrth language system has a number of data duplication methods that meet various needs. These methods are summarized below:

Method	Stack Before	Stack After	Description	Time Used	Copy Depth
dup	x	x x	Duplicate the data without any copying.	Least	None
copy	x	x x'	Duplicate the data with a shallow copy.	Moderate	One Level
.copy	x	x'	Replace the data with a shallow copy.		
clone	x	x x''	Duplicate the data with a deep copy.	Most	All Levels
.clone	x	x''	Replace the data with a deep copy.		

Deep vs Shallow Copy

To examine the differences in the copying strategies, consider the following three different scenarios:

1. No Copying
2. Shallow Copying
3. Deep Copying

No Copying

In the following example session, the first line creates a value, “\$expo” with an array as value. The first element of the array is the string “Expo” and the second element is the number 67. To show this, the value is printed out. The second statement creates a value “\$ecopy” with the same value as “\$expo”. The next two statements²⁶ change the 67 to a 99 and append the string “sure” to the string “Expo”. The final two statements display “\$ecopy” (the copy) and “\$expo” (the original).

```
>[ "Expo" 67 ] val$: $expo $expo .  
["Expo", 67]  
>$expo val$: $ecopy $ecopy .  
["Expo", 67]  
>99 1 $ecopy .[!]!  
  
>0 $ecopy .[!@ "sure" <<  
  
>$ecopy .
```

²⁶ For more information on array access words, please see the Array section below.

```
["Exposure", 99]
>$expo .
["Exposure", 99]
```

As can be seen, both have been modified in the same way because the two values (“\$expo” and “\$ecopy”) both reference the same mutable array.

Shallow Copying

This session is the same as the previous except that the “.copy” method is applied to the value before it is used to create “\$ecopy”. The “.copy” creates a copy of the array but not the data elements in that array.

```
>[ "Expo" 67 ] val$: $expo $expo .
["Expo", 67]
>$expo .copy val$: $ecopy $ecopy .
["Expo", 67]
>99 1 $ecopy .[]!

>0 $ecopy .[]@ "sure" <<

>$ecopy .
["Exposure", 99]
>$expo .
["Exposure", 67]
```

As can be seen, the results are mixed. Since a copy of the array was made, the number 67 is not changed in the original. The string, “Expo” however is still mutated to “Exposure” since no copy of it was made. Of course we could have used the non-mutating version of string concatenation. This would have resulted in the following, somewhat longer code:

```
>0 $ecopy .[]@ "sure" + 0 $ecopy .[]!
```

Since the string is not being mutated, but instead, a new string is being created, it is necessary to store this new string back into the array explicitly.

In this new statement, the “0 \$ecopy .[]@” retrieves the existing string, the “"sure" +” performs the non-mutating concatenation, and the “0 \$ecopy .[]!” stores the string value just computed back into the array.

Note: For simple mutable data like strings, this shallow copy is fully sufficient to protect against any unwanted data mutation. However, for more complex data with multiple levels of information (like arrays, hashes, or user defined classes) a more thorough copying method is needed.

Deep Copying

In the final example session, the “.copy” is replaced with “.clone”. This performs a deep copy that copies the array and its contents (and any of the contents’ contents etc, etc...²⁷).

```
>[ "Expo" 67 ] val$: $expo $expo .
```

²⁷ From “The King and I”, please see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_King_and_I

```

["Expo", 67]
>$expo.clone val$: $ecopy $ecopy .
["Expo", 67]
>99 1 $ecopy .[]!

>0 $ecopy .[]@ "sure" <<

>$ecopy .
["Exposure", 99]
>$expo .
["Expo", 67]

```

As can be seen, the original value “\$expo” is not modified in anyway by changes made to its clone in “\$ecopy”.

Partial Copying

The clone commands in fOOrth have allowance for the fact that it is not always desirable to copy all of the data members when a clone is made. This is handled with the “.clone_exclude” method. Any object that defines this method is able to exclude certain data from the copying process.

If the “.clone_exclude” is defined as a shared method for a class, then all instances of that class share the same exclusions. On the other hand if it is defined exclusively for a single object, only that object is affected.

The “.clone_exclude” method returns an array of items to be excluded from the copying process. For most objects, these are the names of instance variables as strings. For arrays and hashes, these are the specific index values to be skipped over during the copying. Note that if the named variables or index values do not occur in the object being cloned, no action is taken. Some examples follow:

```

(Clone exclusions in a class.)
class: MyClass
MyClass .: .init "a" val@: @a "b" val@: @b ;
MyClass .: .clone_exclude [ "b" ] ;

```

In the above, when instances of MyClass are cloned, the variable @a will also be cloned, while @b will not. The @b variable will be shared between the originals and the clones.

```

(Clone exclusions in an array.)
[ "apple" "banana" ] val$: $test_array
$test_array .: .clone_exclude [ 1 ] ;

```

In this case, when the array is cloned, the contents of the array except for location 1 will also be cloned. The contents of position 1 will be shared between the originals and the clones.

```

(Clones exclusions in a hash.)
{ 0 "apple" -> 1 "banana" -> } val$: $test_hash
test_hash .: .clone_exclude [ 1 ] ;

```

Again in this case, the contents of the hash except for the entry indexed by 1 will also be cloned. The contents of index 1 will be shared between the originals and the clones.

Permissive Copying

In Ruby, if an attempt is made to clone an immutable data item like a number, an error occurs. The justification for this uncharacteristic strictness are not at all clear, but it means that the clone operation must be applied with great care.

In fOOrth, this is not the case. When clone or copy are applied to immutable data, the data is returned without modification or error. The reasoning here is simple. The data in question are already immutable so nothing needs to be done. Doing nothing is not an invalid operation. So fOOrth does precisely that and the program continues without error.

Handling Exceptions

Error handling is an essential, if unpopular, part of all programming tasks. This section focuses on the use of the exceptions mechanism to simplify and streamline error handling.

When exceptions are not employed, code must be written that detects an error and returns an “error code”. Further code must then be written to detect these error codes and either process them, or propagate up the call chain until they can be handled at the appropriate level. In this approach, it is not uncommon for error handling code to be so voluminous that it obscures the “main” flow of the code.

Exceptions are an error handling mechanism designed to separate out error handling from error detection and to simplify code structures. When errors are detected, they can be “thrown”. No error codes need be returned. Exceptions are simply “caught” and processed at the appropriate level. The exception system handles the propagation of errors without the need to write additional code.

The Nature of Exceptions in fOOrth

Exceptions is one area where fOOrth is very different than Ruby²⁸. In Ruby, exceptions are objects that are part of an elaborate hierarchy of exception classes, one class for each type of exception. In fact, there are so many exception classes that the majority of classes in the Ruby environment are exception classes. In fOOrth exceptions are simply messages sent from the error detector to the error processor. These messages take the form of a string with a leading part that is structured and a trailing part that is free form and hopefully descriptive.

Consider a typical exception message in fOOrth:

```
E15: divided by 0
```

The two components of this message are clearly visible. The structured section consists of “E15:” and identifies the exception. The unstructured section “divided by 0” describes the nature of the exception. The use of these sections is examined further under the topic “Determining the Type of Error”, below.

Handling Errors

Consider the following three methods²⁹ that display $50/(n-5)$ for values of n from 0 to 9:

```
(Exceptions in action)
(Phase One - Living Dangerously)
: danger
  0 10 do
    50 i 5 - / . space
  loop ;
```

²⁸ Even so, fOOrth exceptions are implemented using the Ruby exception mechanisms.

²⁹ These examples are in the file exception.foorth in the docs/snippets folder.

```

(Phase Two - Living Tediously)
: tedium
0 10 do
  50 i 5 -
  dup 0<> if
    / . space
  else
    drop drop ."oops "
  then
loop ;

(Phase Three - Living Exceptionally)
: safety
0 10 do
  try
    50 i 5 - / . space
  catch
    drop ."oops "
  end
loop ;

```

The first method called “danger” ignores errors totally³⁰. It just runs without a care because, surely, what could possibly go wrong? The second method called “tedium”, adds some extra code to detect a possible error condition (like division by zero) and print out a helpful message, “oops”. The last method called “safety” contains the potentially dangerous code in a “try” clause. If any error should be detected, the “catch” clause is executed which also prints out the vitally important “oops” message.

Let's see what happens when we try out these three methods...

```

>danger
-10 -13 -17 -25 -50
E15: divided by 0
>tedium
-10 -13 -17 -25 -50 oops 50 25 16 12
>safety
-10 -13 -17 -25 -50 oops 50 25 16 12
>

```

The living dangerously (danger) code bombs out with an error. Not good. The results from the tedious (tedium) and exceptional (safety) code are the same. The difference is that the exceptional code is clearer and more concise and the tedious code is well... tedious.

The basic try block

The bare basics of an exception handled code block is:

```
try (dangerous code here) catch (error recovery code here) end
```

Note that the dangerous code may include nested method calls, control structures, etc.

³⁰ Well it's more complex than that. It is more accurate to say that when exceptions occur and no handler is found, the default exception handler is executed which takes safe, default actions that may or may not be desirable to the correct operation of the program that had the error.

Furthermore these entities must be complete. You cannot have part of a loop or conditional statement. That would generate an error at compile time.

Determining the kind of error

In fOOrth, the catch clause catches all errors³¹. Often, different corrective action is required depending on the type of error. To determine the type of error, fOOrth uses the error code prefix. This prefix is a string consists of a leading upper-case letter, followed by a two digit code, optional followed by a comma and a sub-code, finally ending with a colon (":").

The defined error codes are specified below in the sections: fOOrth Native Exception Codes, Application Error Codes, and Ruby Mapped Exception Codes.

To facilitate the checking of error codes in the catch clause, the local method "?" is used. This method has an embedded string that is matched against the current error to see if there is a match. Consider the case of the divide by zero error from the previous examples. The following statements will all test for this error:

```
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E" if (action) then
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E1" if (action) then
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E15" if (action) then
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E15:" if (action) then
```

Whereas the following would NOT process that error:

```
(stuff omitted) catch ?"F" if (action) then
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E2" if (action) then
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E**" if (action) then
(stuff omitted) catch ?"E15,12" if (action) then
```

So far, the examples have focused on handling a single type of exception using an if statement. A more general approach utilizes the switch statement(see Control Structures, the switch statement above for more details). An example follows:

```
try
  (dangerous code)
catch
  switch
    ?"F30:" if (action 1) break then
    ?"E15:" if (action 2) break then
    bounce (See Passing the buck, below)
  end
end
```

Passing the buck

Given that many types of exceptions exist, it will naturally occur that an exception handler will probably not handle all possible conditions. To deal with this situation, the "bounce" verb allows

³¹ This is not actually true. There are some errors like "fatal" that are not caught because they are in effect not recoverable and catching these errors and trying to recover would lead to even worse problems. Other missed exceptions are simply gaps in the implementation and will eventually be handled correctly in a later version of the fOOrth language system.

an exception handler to relaunch or bounce the exception to the exception handler at the next higher level in the call chain. The last example in the previous section shows this in action.

The handler processes exceptions of type F30 and E15 itself. All other types of exceptions are bounced up the call chain.

Tying Up Loose Ends

An important aspect of programming is the management of resources. A large part of that task involves freeing up, closing, deleting, or otherwise retiring objects used in by the program. While useful, exceptions can bypass this clean-up work. Avoiding this problem is the reason for the “finally” keyword.

In a try block, the finally section represents code that is performed after the dangerous code runs, regardless of the success of that code. The finally section always gets the last word. Consider this fourth³² method in the exceptions³³ file:

```
(Phase Four - Cleaning Up After Yourself)
: cleanup
  "temp.txt" OutStream .create val: out_file
  ."File opened" cr

  try
    ."Danger comes next." cr
    1 0 / out_file .
    ."Danger has passed." cr

    out_file .close
    ."File closed" cr
  end ;
```

This method opens a file, tries to write the result of a dangerous calculation to it, and then, finally, closes the file. Along the way, the chatty code gives progress reports so that we can follow its progress in this perilous task. So, let's see what happens when this code is run.

```
> load"docs/snippets/exception.foorth"
Loading file: docs/snippets/exception.foorth
Completed in 0.02 seconds

> cleanup
File opened
Danger comes next.
File closed

E15: divided by 0
```

The file is opened, upcoming danger is announced but never passed, and then the file is closed. We then see the default exception handler telling us what went wrong. The key here is that the file was closed even though an error was encountered.

³² That's fourth and not FORTH.

³³ This example is in the file exception.foorth in the docs/snippets folder.

Summary

The try block brings all the elements discussed in the previous sections as laid out below. Note that the order of sections is important. A catch section cannot follow a finally section.

```
try
  (dangerous code)
(optional) catch
  (exception handler with optional ?"Err Code" and bounce)
(optional) finally
  (cleanup code goes here)
end
```

The last example in our file³⁴, shows all of these sections working together:

```
(Phase Five - All Together Now)
: last_example
  "temp.txt" OutStream .create val: out_file
  ."File opened" cr

  try
    ."Danger comes next." cr
    1 0 / out_file .
    ."Danger has passed." cr
  catch
    drop
    ."Error detected." cr
  finally
    out_file .close
    ."File closed" cr
  end ;
```

And here is the output for this code:

```
>last_example
File opened
Danger comes next.
Error detected.
File closed

>
```

Note how the error is caught (displaying “Error detected”) and then cleanup actions are performed (displaying “File closed”). Unlike the fourth³⁵ method, there is no uncaught exception and the default exception handler is not utilized. Instead the example exits gracefully.

³⁴ This example is in the file exception.footh in the docs/snippets folder.

³⁵ Still not the FORTH method.

Generating Errors

So far our code has been responding to errors and handling them as needed. The question arises: What if we need to take on the role of whistle-blower³⁶ when we detect an error? In fOOrth, exceptions are messages sent from the detector to the handler. So, just as strings are caught to handle exceptions, they are thrown to generate them.

Consider the following security testing code³⁷:

```
(Is the password secure?)
: test_password (password -- )
  "1234" = if
    throw"U10: Change the combination on my luggage!"
  then ;
```

When run we get:

```
> )load"docs/snippets/throw.foorth"
Loading file: docs/snippets/throw.foorth
Completed in 0.01 seconds

> "1234" test_password

U10: Change the combination on my luggage!

> "secret" test_password

>
```

This code performs a check of the parameter password against the presidential standard of "1234" and throws an exception if there is a match, otherwise the code does nothing.

Summary

It really is that simple. There are two "flavours" of the throw method:

```
"X99: Error Msg" .throw
throw"X99: Error Msg"
```

The first form is needed when the message string needs to be constructed or contains variable information. The second form is simpler and more succinct.

³⁶ Fortunately, this role is not nearly so perilous in fOOrth as it is when taking on the military-industrial oilagarchy.

³⁷ This example is in the file throw.foorth in the docs/snippets folder.

fOOrth Native Exception Codes:

Exception codes generated within fOOrth all take the form “F99:” (an “F”, 2 digits, and a colon) followed by a descriptive message.

Code			Description
F			Generic fOOrth Native Exception Code for All Errors.
F	1		Compile Time Errors.
F	1	0	Syntax Error.
F	1	1	Specification Error.
F	1	2	Control Structure Nesting Error
F	1	3	Invalid Operation for Target.
F	2		Message Passing Errors
F	2	0	Message Not Understood by the Receiver.
F	2	1	Control Structure is Not Supported by the Receiver.
F	3		Data Underflow Errors
F	3	0	Virtual Machine Data Stack Underflow
F	3	1	Stack/Queue Underflow
F	4	0	Data Conversion Error
F	4	1	Invalid loop increment value: <value>
F	5		I/O Errors
F	5	0	Error Opening a File for Reading
F	5	1	Error Opening a File for Writing
F	6		Thread Errors
F	6	0	Duplicate Virtual Machines
F	9	0	Internal Compiler Data Structure Error

Application Error Codes:

In general, convention indicates that application specific error codes begin with an upper case letter³⁸ and a two digit code. Further any optional sub-code is placed after a comma (“,”). Some possible interpretations of leading letters is shown below:

Code			Description
A			Generic Application Errors.
C			Communication Errors.
D			Database Errors.
I			Internal Errors.
N			Network Errors.
U			User/Authentication Errors.
X			Unknown or Unspecified Errors.

Ruby Mapped Exception Codes:

Exceptions generated by Ruby are mapped to fOOrth exceptions. There are a lot of Ruby exceptions, so it is a rather lengthy map.

Code			Subcode	Description
S				Generic Ruby Mapped Exception Code for Signal Exceptions.
S	0	1		Interrupt (Typically Control-C)
E				Generic Ruby Mapped Exception Code for All Standard Errors.
E	0	1		Argument Error
E	0	1	, 01	Gem::Requirement::Bad Requirement Error
E	0	2		Encoding Error
E	0	2	, 01	Encoding::Compatibility Error
E	0	2	, 02	Encoding::Converter Not Found Error
E	0	2	, 03	Encoding::Invalid Byte Sequence Error
E	0	2	, 04	Encoding::Undefined Conversion Error
E	0	3		Fiber Error

³⁸ It is strongly recommended that prefix codes starting in “E”, “F”, and “S” be avoided.

Code			Subcode	Description
E	0	4		I/O Error
E	0	4	, 01	EOF Error
E	0	5		Index Error
E	0	5	, 01	Key Error
E	0	5	, 02	Stop Iteration Error
E	0	6		Local Jump Error
E	0	7		Math::Domain Error
E	0	8		Name Error
E	0	8	, 01	No Method Error
E	0	9		Range Error
E	0	9	, 01	Float Domain Error
E	1	0		Regular Expression Error
E	1	1		Runtime Error
E	1	1	, 01	Gem::Exception
E	1	1	, 01,01	Gem::Command Line Error
E	1	1	, 01,02	Gem::Dependency Error
E	1	1	, 01,03	Gem::Dependency Removal Exception
E	1	1	, 01,04	Gem::Dependency Resolution Error
E	1	1	, 01,05	Gem::Document Error
E	1	1	, 01,06	Gem::End Of YAML Exception
E	1	1	, 01,07	Gem::File Permission Error
E	1	1	, 01,08	Gem::Format Exception
E	1	1	, 01,09	Gem::Gem Not Found Exception
E	1	1	, 01,09,01	Gem::Specific Gem Not Found Exception
E	1	1	, 01,10	Gem::Gem Not In Home Exception
E	1	1	, 01,11	Gem::Impossible Dependencies Error

Code			Subcode	Description
E	1	1	, 01,12	Gem::Install Error
E	1	1	, 01,13	Gem::Invalid Specification Exception
E	1	1	, 01,14	Gem::Operation Not Supported Error
E	1	1	, 01,15	Gem::Remote Error
E	1	1	, 01,16	Gem::Remote Installation Canceled
E	1	1	, 01,17	Gem::Remote Installation Skipped
E	1	1	, 01,18	Gem::Remote Source Exception
E	1	1	, 01,19	Gem::Ruby Version Mismatch ³⁹
E	1	1	, 01,20	Gem::Unsatisfiable Dependency Error
E	1	1	, 01,21	Gem::Verification Error
E	1	2		System Call Error ⁴⁰
E	1	2	, E2BIG	
E	1	2	, EACCES	
E	1	2	, EADDRINUSE	
E	1	2	, EADDRNOTAVAIL	
E	1	2	, EAFNOSUPPORT	
E	1	2	, EAGAIN	
E	1	2	, EAGAINWaitReadable	
E	1	2	, EAGAINWaitWritable	
E	1	2	, EALREADY	
E	1	2	, EBADF	
E	1	2	, EBUSY	
E	1	2	, ECHILD	
E	1	2	, ECONNABORTED	
E	1	2	, ECONNREFUSED	
E	1	2	, ECONNRESET	
E	1	2	, EDEADLK	
E	1	2	, EDESTADDRREQ	
E	1	2	, EDOM	
E	1	2	, EDQUOT	

³⁹ This exception is only supported in Ruby 2.1.x and later.

⁴⁰ System Call errors are wrappers around operating system error codes. As these vary by operating system, the list that follows is typical, but by no means exhaustive or required. Refer to operating system error code documentation for more information on these errors.

Code			Subcode	Description
E	1	2	, EEXIST	
E	1	2	, EFAULT	
E	1	2	, EFBIG	
E	1	2	, EHOSTDOWN	
E	1	2	, EHOSTUNREACH	
E	1	2	, EILSEQ	
E	1	2	, EINPROGRESS	
E	1	2	, EINPROGRESSWaitReadable	
E	1	2	, EINPROGRESSWaitWritable	
E	1	2	, EINTR	
E	1	2	, EINVAL	
E	1	2	, EIO	
E	1	2	, EISCONN	
E	1	2	, EISDIR	
E	1	2	, ELOOP	
E	1	2	, EMFILE	
E	1	2	, EMLINK	
E	1	2	, EMSGSIZE	
E	1	2	, ENAMETOOLONG	
E	1	2	, ENETDOWN	
E	1	2	, ENETRESET	
E	1	2	, ENETUNREACH	
E	1	2	, ENFILE	
E	1	2	, ENOBUFS	
E	1	2	, ENODEV	
E	1	2	, ENOENT	
E	1	2	, ENOEXEC	
E	1	2	, ENOLCK	
E	1	2	, ENOMEM	
E	1	2	, ENOPROTOOPT	
E	1	2	, ENOSPC	
E	1	2	, ENOSYS	
E	1	2	, ENOTCONN	
E	1	2	, ENOTDIR	
E	1	2	, ENOTEMPTY	

Code			Subcode	Description
E	1	2	, ENOTSOCK	
E	1	2	, ENOTTY	
E	1	2	, ENXIO	
E	1	2	, EOPNOTSUPP	
E	1	2	, EPERM	
E	1	2	, EPNOSUPPORT	
E	1	2	, EPIPE	
E	1	2	, EPROCLIM	
E	1	2	, EPROTONOSUPPORT	
E	1	2	, EPROTOTYPE	
E	1	2	, ERANGE	
E	1	2	, EREMOTE	
E	1	2	, EROFS	
E	1	2	, ESHUTDOWN	
E	1	2	, ESOCKTNOSUPPORT	
E	1	2	, ESPIPE	
E	1	2	, ESRCH	
E	1	2	, ESTALE	
E	1	2	, ETIMEDOUT	
E	1	2	, ETOOMANYREFS	
E	1	2	, EUSERS	
E	1	2	, EWOULDBLOCK	
E	1	2	, EWOULDBLOCKWaitReadable	
E	1	2	, EWOULDBLOCKWaitWritable	
E	1	2	, EXDEV	
E	1	2	, NOERROR	Nothing to see here. Move along, move along.
E	1	3		Thread Error
E	1	4		Type Error
E	1	5		Zero Division Error

The Class Tree

In many regards, fOOrth is a traditional, class based, object oriented programming language in the family of thought founded by Smalltalk. Objects are all members of a class, and classes are related to one another by inheritance. A single class, Object is the root of the entire tree of classes. This nested hierarchy of classes is illustrated below:

```
Object
  Array
  Class
  FalseClass
  Hash
  InStream
  NilClass
  Numeric
    Complex
    Float
    Integer
      Bignum
      Fixnum
    Rational
  OutStream
  Procedure
  Queue
  String
  Thread
  TrueClass
  VirtualMachine
```

A Brief Overview of Key OO Concepts

A detailed study of object oriented programming principles is far beyond the scope of this User's Guide. What follows is a very brief overview of these concepts as they apply to fOOrth.

Classes

Classes act as templates for the creation of objects. In common parlance, these objects are denoted as instances of their classes. The classes themselves are instances of the class Class. The class Class is unique in that it is an instance of itself. This unusual condition is shared by all Smalltalk like languages. Class based object oriented programming is utilized by the vast majority of modern programming languages.

Inheritance

Classes (other than Object) inherit behaviors from their ancestor or parent classes. Thus the capabilities of objects is able to “layer” over the capabilities of their parent classes.

Methods

All code in fOOrth is contained in methods. A method is a fragment of code that an object uses to respond to a message that has been sent to that object. In fOOrth there are three sorts of methods:

- Shared: Methods that are common to all instances of the class that contains them.
- Exclusive: Methods that are defined for one and only one object (and all of its clones that are created *after* the exclusive method is defined.).
- Local: Methods that are created in a context and are accessible only in that context. When the context concludes, these methods are no longer accessible.

Late Binding and Polymorphism

In fOOrth, the connection between a message and the object that is to receive that message does not occurs until the message is actually sent at run time. The receivers of messages need only be capable of responding to them. Thus polymorphism is achieved through message interface compatibility or “duck” typing.

Prototypes

While class based inheritance is the classical approach to sharing behaviors, there is another way this can be done: Prototype Based Inheritance.

In this approach, a prototypical object is created and its attributes are set up once. Then when more instances of this object are needed, it is simply cloned. The clones can then function as separate entities from the original. They can even have additional attributes added to them and can then serve as prototypes themselves. In this way prototype based inheritance is also supported.

The primary language based on prototypes is ECMAScript⁴¹ (aka JavaScript).

⁴¹ Even though Ruby tolerates prototype based programming, it does not really embrace it.

Method Mapping

In fOOrth, method names are represented as simple strings. In the underlying Ruby implementation, specialized “symbol” objects are used for this task. In running fOOrth on top of an existing Ruby system, there were a number of issues that needed to be resolved.

1. The strings used by fOOrth needed to be converted to Ruby symbols to allow code to be executed in Ruby.
2. The symbols used indirectly by fOOrth can not be allowed to conflict with the myriad of symbols already in use by Ruby. Symbol collisions would cause the language system to fail catastrophically as methods were redefined in an incoherent manner.
3. The mapping of symbols had to allow some strings to map to known symbols so that Ruby code could be constructed that uses those symbols for internal actions.

In the reference implementation of fOOrth this mapping task is the responsibility of the SymbolMap class. This class creates mappings in one of two ways:

1. By default, a symbol is generated of the form `:_dddd` where `dddd` represents a counting sequence of digits (not limited to four digits by the way). Since Ruby has no methods or symbols defined in this way, the odds of a symbol space collision are very low indeed.
2. The alternative is to explicitly specify the symbol used in the mapping. This special case is used when Ruby code needs to send or otherwise use a fOOrth symbol. In this case, the programmer is responsible for ensuring that no name space collisions occur.

Exploring the mapping system

The user is able to explore the symbol table through two command commands provided for that purpose, the `)map` and `)unmap` methods. These are demonstrated below:

```
> )map "+"
+ => _016

> )unmap "_016"
_016 <= +
```

In the above example, the addition (“+”) operator maps to the symbol `_016`. The next line shows `_016` mapping back to addition. The next example shows a method name with a “custom” mapping:

```
> )map ".init"
.init => foorth_init

> )unmap "foorth_init"
foorth_init <= .init
```

Another command for exploring the symbol mapping space is the `)entries` command. This

command generates a listing of all symbols currently defined in the system at that point in time. The command generates a paginated, formatted output.

```
> )entries
Symbol Map Entries =
!          .[]!          .getc          .reverse          0>
!:         .[]@          .gets          .right          0>=
"          .abs          .hypot          .right?          1+
... <voluminous output deleted>
```

An example of the output of the)entries command is found in the section Appendix A – Symbol Glossary.

Context

Whenever code is executed in anyway in fOOrth, whether interactively, loading a file, or compiling a method, it does so in the presence of a context. In fOOrth, the context is a nested description of the current system's conditions. When a new level of nesting is encountered, an new layer of context is added.

The context concept is useful for keeping track of important information for the compiler. Among this information is:

Tag	Description
virtual machine	The VM associated with this context.
mode	The compiler mode: execute, deferred or compile modes.
ctrl	The control tag associated with this nest structure.
cls	The class that is the target of this operation.
obj	The object that is the target of this operation.
action	A pending action to be performed when a control structure is completed.
local methods	Any local (or context) methods defined.

Note that most elements of context are optional and do not always occur.

Exploring Context

At this time, the context system is not available at the fOOrth programming level, however, a few methods are available for exploring the context system. The first is the command `)context`. This command lists the current context information at the console. For example:

```
> )context
```

```
Context level 1
virtual machine => VirtualMachine instance <Main>
mode => execute
```

Now, context is largely used by the compiler, so another method `)context!` is more useful. This method had the immediate attribute, meaning that it executes, even when the mode is deferred or compiling. This allows us to take a peek at the context inside of the working compiler. Consider these examples:

```
> true if )context! else )context! then
```

```
Context level 2
```

```

ctrl => if
mode => deferred
"else" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x21eaf30>
"then" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x21eaea0>

Context level 1
virtual machine => VirtualMachine instance <Main>
mode => execute

Context level 2
ctrl => if
mode => deferred
"then" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x21eaea0>

Context level 1
virtual machine => VirtualMachine instance <Main>
mode => execute

```

The first `)context!` executes in the body of the “if” clause and the second one executes in the body of the “else” clause. Note how a local method “else” is defined in the first block, but is no longer defined in the second context listing. This reflects the fact that only one “else” clause is allowed in a “if” statement.

Another example is a simple method:

```

>: fred )context! dup + ;

Context level 2
mode => compile
ctrl => :
action => #<Proc:0x22702e0@C:/.../compile_library.rb:17 (lambda)>
virtual machine => VirtualMachine instance <Main>
"var:" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x22700d0>
"val:" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x2270010>
"var@:" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x226bed0>
"val@:" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x226bd98>
"super" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x226bc00>
";" => #<Xf0Orth::LocalSpec:0x226bb10>

Context level 1
virtual machine => VirtualMachine instance <Main>
mode => execute

```

The context activity reflects the activities of the compiler in compiling the code. The mode is compile mode, the ctrl is a “:” since that started the compile, an action is pending to attach the method when the compilation is completed and several local methods are defined. These include methods for local and instance data, access to the super-method, and the “;” that ends the compilation process.

The `)context!` method may be used to gain insight into the compilation process. Since it executes immediately, it does not affect the code generated.

Tracking the Virtual Machine

As important as the context is to the state of the compiler, it is only part of the story. The other major player in this drama is the Virtual Machine itself. So fOOrth provides two introspection methods to reveal key points in the state of the VM. These commands are `)vm` and its immediate version `)vm!`.

The following is the VM state at the console prompt:

```
> )vm

VirtualMachine instance <Main>
  Ruby      = #<XfOOrth::VirtualMachine:0x22049a0>
  Stack     = []
  Nesting   = 1
  Quotes    = 0
  Debug     = false
  Show      = false
  Force     = false
  Start     = 2015-05-03 09:49:08 -0400
  Source    = The console.
  Buffer     = ")vm"
```

The snippets file `show.foorth` reveals the tracking of code sources when loading code:

```
> )load"docs/snippets/show
Loading file: docs/snippets/show.foorth

VirtualMachine instance <Main>
  Ruby      = #<XfOOrth::VirtualMachine:0x22049a0>
  Stack     = []
  Nesting   = 1
  Quotes    = 0
  Debug     = false
  Show      = false
  Force     = false
  Start     = 2015-05-03 09:49:08 -0400
  Source    = A file: docs/snippets/show.foorth
  Buffer     = ")vm"
Completed in 0.1 seconds
```

As can be seen, the VM has its vital stack, source, and tracking for quotes and structure nesting as well as various optional modes.

Note that the Force flag is a hold-over from FORTH. This flag overrides the immediate status of the next word compiled, forcing it to be compiled rather than executed. At this point, this feature is not employed in fOOrth. Like the return stack, this may be removed at some point if it does not prove useful.

Routing

Message routing in fOOrth has two separate but interrelated aspects: When methods are being defined a method specification must be created and stored in the appropriate location. This creates routing information. Then when methods are being compiled into code, the compiler must be able to locate the correct method specification so that the correct output code is generated. This uses routing information.

The key responsibility of these specifications is to determine the message receiver when the method is compiled. This is one area where the terse, concise RPN of fOOrth can be a liability. The lack of redundancy sometimes makes it difficult to determine the intended message receiver.

In FORTH, this is never an issue since all words exist as subroutines of the virtual machine. In fOOrth, a number of factors determine the type of method and thus its routing. These are:

1. The defining word used to create the method.
2. The receiver of the defining word used to create the method.
3. The name of the method.

The various method mapping and routing targets are reflected in the ways by which methods may be defined. These next sections review the types of methods, their mapping and routing, and how they are used in the fOOrth language system.

Virtual Machine Methods

Virtual Machine methods are the part of fOOrth that comes closest to classical FORTH. In these methods the target of the method is the current virtual machine associated with the executing thread and the compiler that created the method in the first place. Since there is always a virtual machine present, these methods are never out-of-context. This allows these methods alone to support immediate mode in which methods are executed even when the system is in a deferred or compile state.

To define a standard Virtual Machine method use:

```
: name (method body here) ;
```

To define an immediate method use this similar format:

```
!: name (method body here) ;
```

The rules for naming virtual machine methods are the most liberal. They must not contain spaces, and if a " is present it is the last character in the name and a string literal is part of the method name when run. See String Literals in the section the Syntax and Style of fOOrth.

Shared Methods

Shared methods are those methods that are shared by all the member of a class and its sub-classes. All of the different sorts of shared methods a defined using the following construction:

```
A_Class .: method_name (method body here) ;
```

The method name may not contain spaces. Further the method name is responsible for determining the routing used and any embedded string data.

The lead character determines the routing:

- “.” - indicates that the message is routed to the top-of-stack element (TOS)
- “~” - indicates that the message is routed to the “self” entity of the method (see the section Self below). Since these messages are only routed to the object itself, they are in effect private methods.
- Other – these methods are used to implement dyadic operators. To do this they are routed to the next element on the stack (NOS). This corresponds to the “left binding” of dyadic operators.

The presence of a " character in the method name indicates a trailing string is embedded in the method name. See String Literals in the section the Syntax and Style of fOOrth. Shared methods add an additional criteria on the use of embedded strings:

If the shared method is routed to TOS and there is an embedded string, then the class of the method must be String, otherwise an error is reported.

Exclusive Methods

Exclusive methods are defined on an individual object as opposed to all the instances of a class of objects. All of the different sorts of shared methods are defined using the following construction:

```
an_object .:: method_name (method body here) ;
```

The method name may not contain spaces. Further the method name is responsible for determining the routing used and any embedded string data.

The lead character determines the routing:

- “.” - indicates that the message is routed to the top-of-stack element (TOS)
- “~” - indicates that the message is routed to the “self” entity of the method (see the section Self below). Since these messages are only routed to the object itself, they are in effect private methods.
- Other – these methods are used to implement dyadic operators. To do this they are routed to the next element on the stack (NOS). This corresponds to the “left binding” of dyadic operators.

The presence of a " character in the method name indicates a trailing string is embedded in the method name. See String Literals in the section the Syntax and Style of fOOrth. Shared

methods add an additional criteria on the use of embedded strings:

If the shared method is routed to TOS and there is an embedded string, then the class of the method must be String, otherwise an error is reported.

Shared Stub Methods

– Not currently implemented.

Exclusive Stub Methods

– Not currently implemented.

Local Methods

– Not currently implemented.

The various combinations of the above are summarized below:

Defining Word	DW Receiver	Method Name	Message Routing	Notes
:	N/A	any ⁴²	VM ⁴³	A virtual machine method.
::	A Class	.name	TOS ⁴⁴	A public shared instance method.
	A Class	~name	Self ⁴⁵	A private shared instance method.
	A Class	other	NOS ⁴⁶	A public shared dyadic operator.
	N/A	invalid ⁴⁷	N/A	Not allowed: Error
:::	A Class	.name	TOS	A public class method
	An Object	.name	TOS	An public exclusive instance method.
	A Class	~name	Self	A private class method
	An Object	~name	Self	A private exclusive instance method.
	A Class	other	NOS	A public class exclusive dyadic operator
	An Object	other	NOS	A public exclusive dyadic operator
	N/A	invalid	N/A	Not allowed: Error
tbd⁴⁸	N/A	other	Context	A context local method.

42 The names of Virtual Machine methods have no restrictions except that they contain no spaces.

43 The message receiver is the Virtual Machine.

44 The message receiver is the Top element of the Data Stack.

45 The message receiver is the implicit “self” of the method owner.

46 The message receiver is the Second element of the Data Stack.

47 Any method beginning with an upper case letter or \$ or # or @ is invalid and will generate an error.

48 At this time, local methods are cannot be defined by the programmer. They are all builtin methods.

Routing Internals

As code is being compiled, the specification for each method must be located. This task is performed by the virtual machine's linked list of context objects. This is the sensible place for this to occur as routing is context sensitive.

The process of routing involves searching for the specification in an ordered list of places. This list is sensitive to the name of the method being processed as well as the target of the compilation process and any local, context sensitive definitions. This is summarized below:

Method	.name	~name	@name	\$name	#name	other
Filter Regex	/^\./	/^~/	/^@/	/^\\$/	/^#/	Other
Search List	Object VM TOS	Target Class Target Object VM Self	Target Class Target Object VM Error	Global Error	VM Error	Local Object VM Global Error

Where the search list entries are defined as:

Search Location	Search Description
Object	Search the class Object for a specification.
VM	Search the class VirtualMachine for a specification.
Target Class	Search the class targeted by this compile action (if any) for a specification. Note this also searches any parent classes of the target class.
Target Object	Search the object targeted by this compile action (if any) for a specification. Note this also searches the object's class and any parent classes of the that class.
Local	Search the compiler context tree for a specification.
Global	Search the global name space for a specification.
TOS	Assume that this method uses TOS routing and create a temporary default specification.
Self	Assume that this method uses Self routing and create a temporary default specification.
Error	Unable to find a specification. Signal an error. (See Spec Error below)

Spec Errors

When compiling a token into a method or looking it up to executed interactively, the fOOrth virtual machine performs several checks based on the text of the language token. A Spec Error is reported when this search is unable to locate a specification for the token. A Spec Error takes the form:

```
error "Unable to find a spec for #{@name} (#{@symbol.inspect})"
```

There are two basic ways that a spec error may be encountered:

Method is Out of Context

The first of these is that the programmer has written code that contains context sensitive methods, outside of that context. As a classic case of this consider the “if” and the “else” methods. Normally “else” only makes sense if there is an “if” for it to be “bound” to. Thus if you simply enter “else” there are potentially two outcomes:

```
>else  
  
F10: ?else?
```

Or:

```
>else  
  
F11: Unable to find a spec for else (:_305)
```

In the first case, the system has never encountered an “if” statement, so “else” is completely undefined. In the second case, “if” statements have been encountered, but the “else” is out of context. Given how common “if” statements are, this second error message is far more likely, but for rarer control structures, the first error may be seen.

Incorrect Routing Information

The second way to get a spec error is caused by the routing information not being set up correctly. To be clear, this should not happen. They are a sort of internal compiler error that things are not quite right. As such this version needs to be reported as a bug.

As this error should not happen, there is currently no example of this case. However, should one occur, it would likely take the form of a spec error on a method that *should* be in the correct context.

Self

Whenever code executes in the fOOrth language system, there is an object that “owns” that code. Even code run at the console interactively belongs to an object.

In fOOrth, the “self” method gives the programmer explicit access to this owning object. Let's try this from the console:

```
>self .  
VirtualMachine instance <Main>
```

The console code is run in the context of an instance of a Virtual Machine named “Main”. What about some methods? Here is a simple method:

```
>: show_self self . ;  
  
>show_self  
VirtualMachine instance <Main>
```

This has the same owner which is not unexpected as show_self is a virtual machine method. How about something more interesting:

```
>class: MyClass MyClass .: .show_self self .name . ;  
  
>MyClass .new .show_self  
MyClass instance
```

For this shared method on the class MyClass, self is an instance of MyClass.

Applying Self

So far, the self value seems pretty academic. Let's see the ways this value affects fOOrth code:

1. The self is the target for self routed methods. These are methods that begin with “~” (see Shared Methods and Exclusive Methods above). The use of self routing has big savings. There is no need to retrieve the value, “~” methods can act on it without any preamble. There is no need to worry about where the receiver is on the stack, self is always available.
2. For TOS routed methods, access to self is as simple as “self .method_name”. This was done in the MyClass example above. The self value is a free value that does not to be declared.
3. When instance values and variables (see Data Storage in fOOrth above) are created, they are always applied to the self object. Access to these values and variables is also in reference to self. Thus, by default, these data are only directly accessible inside methods of the object holding those data.
4. In some methods that take a block, the self in the block is often very useful. A good example of this is in file I/O classes line InStream (see below). The InStream .open{ ... }

method for example. In the block (delimited by the { and } characters) self is defined to be the InStream instance. This allows easy access to the file data with “~” methods.

Changing Self

There are times that we all wished we were someone else. In a fOOrth program there are instances where it would be advantageous to have self be something else. This is accomplished using the .with{ ... } construction. A few simple examples:

```
>"Test String" .with{ self .name . }  
String instance  
>MyClass .new .with{ self .name . }  
MyClass instance
```

The receiver of the “.with{” method becomes the “self” within the block it defines. The uses of these control structures include those listed above, but there are some additional points specific to this application:

1. By applying a .with{ ... } clause, the program gains access to “~” methods of the target. In addition, it also allows access to instance values and variables of that object. On the downside, it removes access to “~” methods and instance values and variables of the method the .where{ ... } clause was contained in.
2. This clause makes it easy to define new instance values and variables to an individual object. This is much easier to do than creating an exclusive method and then executing it once. This facilitates the setup of prototype objects (see Prototypes above).
3. A .with{ ... } clause can be used to take a value and give easy access to that value within the executed block without having to create a local value.
4. Access to the self value is generally faster than other forms of access. Thus this construct can yield performance enhancements.

Boolean Data

In fOOrth, there is no class called Boolean. Instead, the functionality of Boolean logic are built into other classes, and not always the class you'd expect. Thus Boolean data could use a little explanation and clarification.

What values represent true and false

This is fundamental to the operation of fOOrth and in this area, fOOrth pretty much follows Ruby's lead. Here is a complete overview of what constitutes true and false:

False Values	True Values
false nil	Everything else!

That's it. In particular, the number 0, and the empty string are true, and *not* false.

Processing Boolean Data

In processing Boolean data, fOOrth takes the common approach of processing from the perspective of the true or false message receiver. This technique goes back to the very earliest object oriented programming systems. What may surprise is where this processing takes place. This is illustrated below:

False Processing	True Processing
FalseClass NilClass	Object

Note that while false processing occurs in FalseClass and NilClass, true processing occurs in Object and not TrueClass. In fact the only purpose for TrueClass is to be the class for the value true. It has no methods of its own. All of the work processing true values is in the Object class.

Boolean Constants

Boolean value constants are: true, false and nil. These values may be used in any context.

Numeric Data

The fOOrth language system has an elaborate level of support for numeric data that bears close examination in its own right. The numeric class tree consists of these classes:

Class	Description
Numeric	The abstract base class for all concrete numeric values.
Complex	Complex numbers in the form $a+bi$ where “a” and “b” represent real numbers and “i” represents the square root of -1.
Float	The class of floating point numbers based on the IEEE standard.
Integer	An abstract class for whole numbers
Bignum ⁴⁹	The class of really really big whole numbers
Fixnum	The class of whole number that fit into one memory word.
Rational	Rational number in the form a/b where “a” and “b” are whole number and “b” is not zero.

In this system most operations are defined at the level of numeric with a few exceptions:

- Integer defines a few “bit” oriented operations that are specific to whole numbers.
- Complex stubs out several methods that require values to be comparable as magnitudes. Complex numbers are not magnitudes so these operations are invalid. See the Complex class below for more details on the methods that are affected.

⁴⁹ The presence of the Bignum and FixNum classes is a case of the Ruby implementation “leaking” through to the fOOrth language. For operations on integer values, the use of the Integer class is strongly recommended.

Array

Inheritance: Array ← Object

```
Array Class Methods =
.new_size .new_value .new_values

Array Shared Methods =
! .+midlr .-midlr .left .midlr .right <<
+ .+right .-right .length .min .shuffle @
.+left .-left .[]! .max .pp .sort
.+mid .-mid .[]@ .mid .reverse .strmax

Helper Methods =
.each{ .map{ .new .new{ .select [
```

Array objects⁵⁰ are collections of data indexed by an integer value from 0 through N where N is an arbitrary, non-negative, non-stellar, whole number. The fOOrth language system supports the creation of array literals and has several methods for putting data into and pulling data out of arrays.

Array Literals

Array literals are supported by the virtual machine method “[” and a locally defined method “]”. The general usage is:

```
[ (data generating code goes here) ]
```

Where the data generation code is code that deposits zero or more data elements onto the stack. When the closing “]” is encountered, these data elements are scooped up and placed into an array at the top of the stack. Here are some illustrations of array literals in action:

```
>[ ] .
[]
>[ (data generating code goes here) ] .
[]
>[ 1 2 3 ] .
[1, 2, 3]
>[ 2 "for" 1 true ] .
[2, "for", 1, true]
```

Some points of interest:

- The first two examples both create “empty” arrays with zero data elements.
- Array data do NOT need to be the same “type” of data. Mixing is allowed.
- Any statements that generate data are permitted. Consider:

⁵⁰ Please see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Array_data_structure for more information.

```
>[ 1 11 do i loop ] .
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
>[ 1 11 do i dup * loop ] .
[1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100]
```

- Array literals may be nested. Just be sure to properly nest the brackets.

```
>[ 1 2 [ 3 ] ] .
[1, 2, [3]]
```

Class Methods

[Array] .new [[]]

Routing: TOS

This method is actually the default implementation inherited from the Object class. It creates a new, array object with zero data elements. It is equivalent to the array literal “[]”.

Code	Result
Array .new	[]
[]	[]

[size Array] .new{ ... } [[d₁, d₂, d₃ ... d_{size}]]

Routing: TOS

This method overrides the stub inherited from the Object class. It creates an array of size elements where the values are from the block. If no value is left on the stack, nil is used as the value. The current element index is available in the block via the local method “x”.

Code	Result
10 Array .new{ x }	[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

Local Methods:

[] x [current_element_index]

Routing: Compiler Context.

This local method retrieves the index of the current array element. This maybe used to compute the value of each element as a function of its position in the array.

`[] ... }`

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method closes the array initialization block.

`[size Array] .new_size [[01, 02, 03 ... 0size]]`

Routing: TOS

This method creates an array of the specified size, pre-filled with the value zero.

Code	Result
<code>5 Array .new_size</code>	<code>[0, 0, 0, 0, 0]</code>

`[value Array] .new_value [[value]]`

Routing: TOS

This method creates an array with a single element, value. It is equivalent to the expression “[value]”.

Code	Result
<code>42 Array .new_value</code>	<code>[42]</code>

`[value size] .new_values [[value1, value2, value3 ... valuesize]]`

Routing: TOS

This method creates an array of the specified size and pre-filled with the specified value.

Note: If the value used is mutable, be warned that the same value is used for *all* of the array elements and a change to one element will affect *all* of them.

Code	Result
<code>false 5 Array .new_values</code>	<code>[false, false, false, false, false]</code>
<code>"Hello" 3 Array .new_values</code>	<code>["Hello", "Hello", Hello]</code>

Instance Methods

[value array] ! []

Routing: TOS

This method overrides the stub method defined in Object. The store data operator is normally used to store a new value via a data reference. It happens to also work with arrays, but this is an edge case. When applied to an array, the value is stored in the data element indexed by the value zero (0).

Note: This also happens to be the implementation of the “!” operator used with references in general. In that context, this method updates the value associated with a reference.

Code	Result
7 some_array !	(some_array[0] equals 7)
42 myvar !	(Updates the value of myvar to 42)

[array object] + [array]

Routing: NOS

This method overrides the stub defined in the Object class. For arrays, the plus operation is defined as concatenation. The result is a new array with the object appended. If the object is also an array, the elements of that array are concatenated.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
[1 2] 3 +	[1, 2, 3]
[1 2] [3 4] +	[1, 2, 3, 4]
[1 2] [[3 4]] +	[1, 2, [3, 4]]

[width source_array target_array] .+left [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes the first (leftmost) width elements from a copy of the target array and replaces them with the elements from the source array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
2 [9] [1 2 3] .+left	[9, 2, 3]

[posn width source_array target_array] .+mid [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes width elements from the target array starting at position “posn”. It then inserts the elements from the source array into the “gap”, creating a new array in the process.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
1 2 [5] [1 2 3 4] .+mid	[1, 5, 4]

[left right source_array target_array] .+midlr [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes elements from the target array starting at position “left” and ending at position “right” counting from the end of the array. It then inserts the elements from the source array into the “gap”, creating a new array in the process.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
1 1 [8 9] [1 2 3 4 5] .+midlr	[1, 8, 9, 5]

[width source_array target_array] .+right [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes the last (rightmost) width elements from the target array and replaces them with the elements of the source array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
3 [8 9] [1 2 3 4 5] .+right	[1, 2, 8, 9]

[width array] .-left [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes the first (leftmost) width elements from a copy of the source array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
3 [1 2 3 4 5] .-left	[4, 5]

[posn width array] .-mid [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes width elements from a copy of the array starting at position “posn”.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
1 2 [1 2 3 4 5] .-mid	[1, 4, 5]

[left right array] .-midlr [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes elements from the target array starting at position “left” and ending at position “right” counting from the end of the array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
1 1 [1 2 3 4 5 6] .-midlr	[1, 6]

[width array] .-right [array]

Routing: TOS

This method removes the last (rightmost) width elements from a copy of the array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
2 [1 2 3 4 5 6] .-right	[1, 2, 3, 4]

[value index array] .[]! []

Routing: TOS

Store the specified value at the index of the array.

Note: This method *does* mutate the array.

Code	Result
"Hello" 5 \$myarray .[]!	("Hello" is stored at location 5 of myarray.)

[index array] .[]@ [value]

Routing: TOS

Retrieve the value stored in the array at the specified index. If the index does not correspond to a location within the array, the value nil is returned instead.

Code	Result
1 [1 2 3 4] .[]@	2
11 [1 2 3 4] .[]@	nil

[an_array] .each{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This method is the array item iterator. It processes each element of the array in turn, calling the embedded block with the value and index of the current array item.

This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine.

Code	Result
["1" "2" "3" "4"] .each{ v x 1+ * . space }	(Prints out:) 1 22 333 4444

Local Methods:

[] v [current_element_value]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the value of the array element currently being processed.

Code	Result
["1" "2" "3" "4"] .each{ v . space }	(Prints out:) 1 2 3 4

[] x [current_element_index]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the index of the array element currently being processed.

Code	Result
["1" "2" "3" "4"] .each{ x . space }	(Prints out:) 0 1 2 3

[] .each{ ... } []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the .each{ ... } block.

[width array] .left [array]

Routing: TOS

This method returns an array containing the first (leftmost) width elements of the given array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
3 [1 2 3 4 5 6 7] .left	[1, 2, 3]

[array] .length [count]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the number of elements contained in the given array.

Code	Result
[1 2 3 4] .length	4
[] .length	0

[an_array].map{ ... } [an_array]

Routing: VM

Construct a new array, applying the transformation block to each element. The `.map` method processes each element of the array in turn, calling the embedded block with the value and index of the current array item. The value returned by the block is used to populate the new array. If no value is returned, an error occurs.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
["1" "2" "3" "4"] .map{ v x 1+ * }	["1", "22", "333", "4444"]
[1 2 3 4] .map{ v .odd? if v else 0 then }	[1, 0, 3, 0]
[1 2 3 4] .map{ v .odd? if v then }	F30: Data Stack Underflow: pop

Local Methods:

[] v [current_element_value]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the value of the array element currently being processed.

Code	Result
["1" "2" "3" "4"] .map{ v 2 * }	["11", "22", "33", "44"]

[] x [current_element_index]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the index of the array element currently being processed.

Code	Result
["1" "2" "3" "4"] .map{ x 1+ 2* }	[2, 4, 6, 8]

[] .map{ ... } []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the `.map{ ... }` block.

[array] .max [value]

Routing: TOS

This method scans through the array searching for the element with the largest value. The type of the result will match the type of the first element of the array. If comparison with other values is not supported, an error is raised.

Code	Result
[1 6 2 3 4 5] .max	6
["1" 6 2 3 4 5] .max	"6"
[1 2 3 4 "apple"] .max	F40: Cannot coerce a String instance to an Integer instance

[posn width array] .mid [array]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts width elements from a copy of the array starting at position "posn". If more elements are requested than exist in the array, only available elements are returned. If the start "posn" is not a valid element index, then the value nil is returned.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
2 2 [1 2 3 4 5 6] .mid	[3, 4]
2 9 [1 2 3 4 5 6] .mid	[3, 4, 5, 6]
9 2 [1 2 3 4 5 6] .mid	nil

[left right array] .midlr [array]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts elements from the target array starting at position "left" and ending at position "right" counting from the end of the array. If the left and right are such that no elements are included, an empty array is returned. If the indexes are outside of the array, nil is returned.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
1 1 [1 2 3 4] .midlr	[2, 3]
3 3 [1 2 3 4] .midlr	[]
8 8 [1 2 3 4] .midlr	nil

[array] .min [value]

Routing: TOS

This method scans through the array searching for the element with the smallest value. The type of the result will match the type of the first element of the array. If comparison with other values is not supported, an error is raised.

Code	Result
<code>[1 6 2 3 4 5] .min</code>	1
<code>["1" 6 2 3 4 5] .min</code>	"1"
<code>[1 2 3 4 "apple"] .min</code>	F40: Cannot coerce a String instance to an Integer instance

[array] .pp []

Routing: TOS

This method is a pretty printer for arrays. The data in the array is displayed with in columns for an 80 character wide display and a blank line every 50 lines. The primary use of this method was in preparing the lists of method names used in this guide. No value is returned.

Code	Result
<code>[1 2 3 4 5] .pp</code>	Displays "1 2 3 4 5"

[array] .reverse [array]

Routing: TOS

This method creates a copy of the array with the elements reversed.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
<code>[1 2 3 4] .reverse</code>	[4, 3, 2, 1]

[width array] .right [array]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts the last (rightmost) width elements from a copy of the array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
2 [1 2 3 4] .right	[3, 4]

[an_array] .select{ ... } [an_array]

Routing: TOS

This method is used to select elements from an array and place them in a new array. If the block of the select returns true, the element is copied. If it returns false, the element is omitted. If no value is returned, an error occurs.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
[1 2 3 4] .select{ v even? }	[2, 4]
[1 2 3 4] .select{ }	F30: Data Stack Underflow: pop

Local Methods:

[] v [current_element_value]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the value of the array element currently being processed.

Code	Result
[1 2 3 4] .select{ v .odd? }	[1, 3]

[] x [current_element_index]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the index of the array element currently being processed.

Code	Result
[1 2 3 4] .map{ x .odd? }	[2, 4]

`[] .select{ ... } [after]`

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the `.select{ ... }` block.

`[array] .shuffle [array]`

Routing: TOS

This method creates a new array with the elements of the source array shuffled.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
<code>[1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9] .shuffle</code>	<code>[3, 1, 5, 7, 4, 8, 6, 9, 2]</code> (Typical result)

`[array] .sort [array]`

Routing: TOS

Given an array, return a sorted copy of that array. Note that the elements of the array must be comparison compatible or an error is returned.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
<code>[4 1 5 3 6 0] .sort</code>	<code>[0, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6]</code>
<code>[4 1 5 3 "6" 0] .sort</code>	<code>[0, 1, 3, 4, 5, "6"]</code>
<code>["5" 5 nil 4] .sort</code>	F12: A NilClass instance does not support <=>.
<code>[1 4 nil 7] .sort</code>	F40: Cannot coerce a NilClass instance to an Integer instance

`[array] .strmax [width]`

Routing: TOS

Given an array, this method determines the width of the largest string representation of an element. This method is a helper method for the `.pp` pretty print method.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original array.

Code	Result
<code>[1 100 3 44] .strmax</code>	<code>3</code>

[array object] << [array]

Routing: NOS

This method appends the object to the array. If the object is an array, the array and not the elements are appended.

NOTE: This method DOES mutate the source array.

Code	Result
[1 2 3] 4 <<	[1, 2, 3, 4]
[1 2 3] [4 5] <<	[1, 2, 3, [4, 5]]

[array] @ [value]

Routing: TOS

This method overrides the stub method defined in Object. The fetch data operator is normally used to fetch a value from a data reference. It happens to also work with arrays, but this is an edge case. When applied to an array, the value is fetched from the data element indexed by the value zero (0).

Note: This also happens to be the implementation of the “@” operator used with references in general. In that context, this method retrieves the value associated with a reference.

Code	Result
[1 2 3 4] @	1
myvar @	an_object

Class

Inheritance: Class ← Object

```
Class Shared Methods =
)methods      .is_class?      .parent_class .to_s
)stubs        .new            .subclass:

Helper Methods =
.:            .class          .is_class?      :class
```

The Class class is the class of all classes. That is to say, all classes are instances of the class Class. The Class class is unique in that it is an instance of itself!⁵¹ In fOOrth, classes are one way in which behaviors, state, inputs, and outputs can be shared among instances of like objects. The methods of the Class class mostly deal with the creation of new classes, and populating those classes with the methods and data needed to accomplish useful work.

Instance Methods

[a_class] .: method_name ... ; []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define new methods on the specified class. These methods execute within the context of an instance of the hosting class. The text of the method name determines the type of method being created. The following rules apply to the first character of the name: A “.” indicates a public method, a “~” indicates a private method, “A” through “Z”, “@”, “\$”, or “#” are not allowed. All others indicate a dyadic operator with NOS routing. See the section Routing above for more details.

Code	Result
Object .: .one 1 ;	(Creates a public method .one)
Object .: ~two 2 ;	(Creates a private method ~two)
MyClass .: + (omitted) ;	(Creates a dyadic (NOS) method +)
Object .: BAD ;	F10: Invalid name for a method: BAD
String .: twaddle" (stuff) ;	(Creates a method with an embedded string.
55 .: foobar (stuff) ;	F13: The target of .: must be a class
Object .: twiddle" (stuff) ;	F13: Creating a string method twiddle" on a Object

⁵¹ All in all, a real class act! See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_\(computer_programming\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(computer_programming))

Local Methods:

[undefined] super [undefined]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Invoke the definition of this method in the nearest parent class of this class that defines a method of the same name. The arguments to the super method must match those of the parent class's implementation of this method. The return values will also be those of the parent class. If no parent class defines a method of the same name as this one, an error is generated.

Code	Result
<pre>class: MyClass MyClass .: .name "Hi from " super + ; MyClass .new .name .</pre>	Hi from MyClass instance
<pre>class TestClass TestClass .: .broken super ; TestClass .new .broken</pre>	F20: A TestClass instance does not understand .broken (:_309).

[value] val: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local value in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
<pre>10 val: limit</pre>	(Creates a value named limit set to 10)

[value] var: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local variable in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
<pre>10 var: limit</pre>	(Creates a variable named limit set to 10)

[value] val@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
<pre>10 val@: @limit</pre>	(Creates an instance value named @limit set to 10)

[value] var@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var@: @limit	(Creates an instance variable named @limit initially set to 10)

[] ... ; []

Routing: Compiler Context.

Close off the method definition.

[a_class] .is_class? [true]

Routing: TOS

This method answers true when sent to a class object because classes are classes!

Code	Result
Object .is_class?	true

[unspecified a_class] .new [an_instance_of_a_class]

Routing: TOS

Create a new instance of the target class. When the instance of the class is created, the .init method is called on that instance. The unspecified arguments listed above, are the optional arguments to this .init method. The class Object defines a default implementation of the .init method that uses no arguments and takes to no action.

Code	Result
Object .new	an_object_instance

[a_class] .parent_class [a_class or nil]

Routing: TOS

Get the parent class of the given class. If there is no parent class (as is the case for the Object class) then return nil.

Code	Result
<code>Complex .parent_class</code>	Numeric class
<code>Object .parent_class</code>	nil

[a_class] .subclass: subclass_name []

Routing: TOS

Create a subclass of the given class. The name of the new class must conform to the follow regex:

```
/^[A-Z] [A-Za-z0-9]+$/
```

This means the the name must start with an upper case letter followed by zero or more upper and lower case letters or digits. Note the underscores “_” are not allowed.

Code	Result
<code>Object .subclass: MyClass</code>	(Creates the class MyClass, a subclass of Object)
<code>Object .subclass: wrong</code>	F10: Invalid class name wrong

[a_class] .to_s [string]

Routing: TOS

Converts the class to a string.

Code	Result
<code>Object .to_s</code>	“Object”
<code>class: MyClass MyClass .to_s</code>	“MyClass”

[] class: class_name []

Routing: VM

This helper method is a shortcut for creating new classes. The expression

```
class: MyClass
```

is equivalent to

```
Object .subclass MyClass.
```

The name of the new class must conform to the follow regex:

```
/^[A-Z] [A-Za-z0-9]+$ /
```

This means the the name must start with an upper case letter followed by one or more upper and lower case letters or digits. Note the underscores “_” are not allowed.

Code	Result
class: MyClass	(Creates the class MyClass, a subclass of Object)
class: wrong	F10: Invalid class name wrong

Commands

The following are also methods, however, they are designed primarily for interacting directly with the operator in the form of commands. Commands are distinguished by the leading “)” in their name⁵².

[a_class])methods []

Routing: TOS

List the active methods defined for this class. Stubs are *not* included in this listing.

Code	Result
Object)methods	(A pretty formatted list of methods is displayed)

⁵² This convention is a throwback and homage to the command syntax of the APL language on the old PDP-10.

[a_class])stubs []

Routing: TOS

List the stub methods defined for this class. Stubs are place holder methods that serve one of two purposes:

1. They are abstract methods in a base class that exist so that a sub-class may replace the stub with an actual method. The stub ensures that the compiler uses the correct routing when using the method.
2. They are sentries for methods in a base class that are not valid to be performed on a particular sub-class. For example, many methods of the Numeric class are not valid in its sub-class Complex.

Code	Result
Object)methods	(A pretty formatted list of stubs is displayed)

Complex

Inheritance: Complex ← Numeric ← Object

```
Complex Shared Methods =  
.cbrt .e** .split .sqrt  
  
Helper Methods =  
.to_x .to_x! complex  
  
Complex Shared Stubs =  
.ceil .emit .floor .round < <= <=> > >= mod
```

A complex number⁵³ is a number expressed in the form $a+bi$, where a and b are real numbers and i is the square root of -1 . Like other sub-classes of the Numeric class, the Complex class inherits most of its functionality from its parent class. There is one major area where this does not apply. All other Numeric sub-classes are magnitudes. As magnitudes, they may be compared for greater than, less than, etc. While Complex numbers contain magnitudes (accessed via the `.magnitude` method) they are NOT themselves magnitudes. Thus comparison operations (other than equality or inequality) and many other types of operations are not valid for Complex values.

Complex Literals

Complex literals are supported directly by the compiler. Any number ending in 'i' is considered to be a complex number. The regular expression detecting potential complex numbers is:

```
/\di$/
```

Some example values follow:

Literal ⁵⁴	Value ⁵⁵
7i	0+7i
-7i	0-7i
3.7i	0+3.7i
1/2i	0+1/2i
-3-7i	-3-7i
3+7i	3+7i

⁵³ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Complex_number

⁵⁴ No spaces are permitted within the literal.

⁵⁵ The real and imaginary parts may be integers, floats or rational numbers. See the respective sections for more details on those types of literals.

Instance Methods

[a_complex] .cbrt [a_complex]^{1/3}

Routing: TOS.

Find the cube root of the complex numeric value.

Code	Result
8+0i .cbrt	2.0+0.0i

[a_complex] .e [e^{a_complex}]**

Routing: TOS.

Compute the value of e raised to the power of the complex numeric value.

Code	Result
1+1i .e**	1.4686939399158851+2.2873552871788423i

[a_complex] .split [real_part imaginary_part]

Routing: TOS.

Split a complex number into its two component parts.

Code	Result
3+4i .split	3, 4

[a_complex] .sqrt [a_complex]^{1/2}

Routing: TOS.

Find the square root of the complex numeric value.

Code	Result
2+2i .sqrt	1.5537739740300374+0.6435942529055827i

[an_object] .to_x [a_complex or nil]

Routing: TOS

This is a helper method of the Object class. Try to convert the object into a Complex. If this is not possible, return nil. Contrast with .to_x!

Code	Result
5 .to_x	5+0i
5.2 .to_x	5.2+0i
"5" .to_x	5+0i
1+2i .to_x	1+2i
"apple" .to_x	nil

[an_object] .to_x! [a_complex]

Routing: TOS

This is a helper method of the Object class. Try to convert the object into a Complex. If this is not possible, raise an error. Contrast with .to_x

Code	Result
5 .to_x!	5+0i
5.2 .to_x!	5.2+0i
"5" .to_x!	5+0i
1+2i .to_x!	1+2i
"apple" .to_x!	Cannot convert a String instance to a Complex instance

[real_part imaginary_part] complex [a_complex]

Routing: VM

This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine class. Given two numbers, create a complex number. If this cannot be done, an error occurs.

Code	Result
4 5 complex	4+5i
"apple" 5 complex	F40: Cannot coerce a String instance, Fixnum instance to a Complex

Instance Stubs

A number of methods are stubbed out in the Complex class. All of them are invalid operations because Complex numbers are not magnitudes. These stubbed out methods are:

`.ceil .emit .floor .round < <= <=> > >= mod`

FalseClass

Inheritance: FalseClass ← Object

```
FalseClass Shared Methods =  
&&      ^^      not      ||  
  
Helper Methods =  
false
```

The FalseClass is the class behind the value false. The value false is used to process a number of Boolean oriented operations. The NilClass serves as a surrogate false value and duplicates the functionality of false.

FalseClass Literals

Instances of the class FalseClass are available though the Virtual Machine helper method “false”.

Instance Methods

[false object] && [false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical AND for the case where the first operand is false. Always false.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the Object and NilClass classes.

Code	Result
false false &&	false
false true &&	false
true false &&	false
true true &&	true

[false object] ^^ [true or false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical, exclusive OR for the case where the first operand is false. This takes on the value of the second operand converted to a Boolean value.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the Object and NilClass classes.

Code	Result
false false ^^	false
false true ^^	true
true false ^^	true
true true ^^	false

[false object] || [true or false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical, inclusive OR for the case where the first operand is false. This takes on the value of the second operand converted to a Boolean value.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the Object and NilClass classes.

Code	Result
false false	false
false true	true
true false	true
true true	true

Float

Inheritance: Float ← Numeric ← Object

```
No unique methods defined.
```

```
Helper Methods =  
.to_f    .to_f!
```

Float⁵⁶ or floating point data are an approximation of the mathematical set of Real numbers. In fact, this approximation is based on the IEEE-754⁵⁷ Double Precision data type. The Float class inherits its functionality from the Numeric class.

Float Literals

Like other numeric literals, float literals are implemented directly by the parser. Any number with an embedded '.' is considered to be a float. The regular expression that detects potential float point numbers is:

```
/\d\.\d/
```

Some example values follow:

Literal ⁵⁸	Value
7.0	7.0
7.0E3	7000.0
7.0E-3	0.007
-7.0	-7.0
-7.0E3	-7000.0
-7.0E-3	-0.007

⁵⁶ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Floating_point

⁵⁷ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IEEE_floating_point

⁵⁸ No spaces are permitted within the literal.

Instance Methods

[an_object] .to_f [a_float or nil]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object to a float. If this is not possible, return nil. Contrast with .to_f! This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
"43.1" .to_f	43.1
99 .to_f	99.0
"apple" .to_f	nil

[an_object] .to_f! [a_float]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object to a float. If this is not possible raise an error. Contrast with .to_f This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
"43.1" .to_f!	43.1
99 .to_f!	99.0
"apple" .to_f!	Cannot coerce a String instance to a Float instance

Hash

Inheritance: Hash ← Object

```
Hash Shared Methods =  
.[]!      .[]@      .keys      .pp      .strmax2      .values  
  
Helper Methods =  
.each{    {
```

Hash⁵⁹ objects are collections of data indexed by a value. This can be a number, a string or any other sort of value. The fOOrth language system supports the creation of hash literals and has several methods for putting data into and pulling data out of hashes.

Hash Literals

Hash literals are supported by the virtual machine method “{” and the locally defined methods “->” and “}”. The general usage is:

```
{ (key/value generating code goes here) }
```

Where the data generation code is code that deposits zero or more key value pairs onto the stack. The opening “{” creates an empty hash. The “->” method takes a key and a value from the stack and adds this key/value pair to the hash. When the closing “}” is encountered, the operation is wrapped up. Here are some illustrations of hash literals in action:

```
>{ } .  
{ }  
>{ 1 2 -> 2 3 -> 3 5 -> 4 7 -> 5 11 -> } .  
{1=>2, 2=>3, 3=>5, 4=>7, 5=>11}
```

Some points of interest:

- The first example creates an “empty” hash with zero data elements.
- Hash key and data do NOT need to be the same “type” of data. Mixing is allowed.
- Any statements that generate key/data pairs are permitted. Consider:

```
>{ 0 10 do i i -> loop } .  
{0=>0, 1=>1, 2=>2, 3=>3, 4=>4, 5=>5, 6=>6, 7=>7, 8=>8, 9=>9}  
>{ 0 10 do i i dup * -> loop } .  
{0=>0, 1=>1, 2=>4, 3=>9, 4=>16, 5=>25, 6=>36, 7=>49, 8=>64, 9=>81}
```

⁵⁹ Please see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hash_table for more information.

Instance Methods

[value index hash] .[]! []

Routing: TOS

Store the specified value at the index of the hash.

Note: This method *does* mutate the hash.

Code	Result
"Hello" 5 \$myhash .[]!	("Hello" is stored with key 5 in myhash.)

[index hash] .[]@ [value]

Routing: TOS

Retrieve the value stored in the hash at the specified index. If the index does not correspond to a location within the hash, the value nil is returned instead.

Code	Result
1 { 1 2 -> 3 4 -> } .[]@	2
11 { 1 2 -> 3 4 -> } .[]@	nil

[a_hash] .each{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This method is the hash item iterator. It processes each element of the hash in turn, calling the embedded block with the value and index of the current hash item.

This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine.

Code	Result
{ 0 "1" -> 1 "2" -> 2 "3" -> 3 "4" -> } .each{ v x 1+ * . space }	(Prints out:) 1 22 333 4444

Local Methods:

[] v [current_element_value]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the value of the hash element currently being processed.

Code	Result
<pre>{ 0 "1" -> 1 "2" -> 2 "3" -> 3 "4" -> } .each{ v . space }</pre>	(Prints out:) 1 2 3 4

[] x [current_element_index]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the index of the hash element currently being processed.

Code	Result
<pre>{ 0 "1" -> 1 "2" -> 2 "3" -> 3 "4" -> } .each{ x . space }</pre>	(Prints out:) 0 1 2 3

[before] .each{ ... } [after]

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the `.each{ ... }` block.

[a_hash] .keys [an_array]

Routing: TOS

This method gathers up the keys in a hash and places them in an array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the hash.

Code	Result
<pre>{ 1 2 -> 3 4 -> } .keys</pre>	[1, 3]

[hash] .pp []

Routing: TOS

This method is a pretty printer for hashes. The data in the hash is displayed with in columns for an 80 character wide display and a blank line every 50 lines. The primary use of this method was in preparing the lists of method names used in this guide. No value is returned.

Code	Result
<pre>{ 1 2 -> 4 555 -> } .pp</pre>	Displays "1=>2 4=>555"

[hash] .strmax2 [width]

Routing: TOS

Given an hash, this method determines the width of the largest string representation of the keys and of the values. This method is a helper method for the .pp pretty print method.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the original hash.

Code	Result
<pre>{ 1 2 -> 4 555 -> } .strmax2</pre>	1 3

[a_hash] .values [an_array]

Routing: TOS

This method gathers up the values in a hash and places them in an array.

Note: This method does *not* mutate the hash.

Code	Result
<pre>{ 1 2 -> 3 4 -> } .values</pre>	[2, 4]

InStream

Inheritance: InStream ← Object

```
InStream Class Methods =  
  .get_all .open  
  
InStream Shared Methods =  
  .close .getc .gets ~getc ~gets  
  
Helper Methods =  
  .open{  
  
InStream Class Stubs =  
  .new
```

The InStream class is used to support the reading of information from text files in an accessible file system.

Class Methods

[file_name InStream] .get_all [[“line 1”, ... “line N”]]

Routing: TOS

This method opens the file of the given name for reading, reads the entire file into an array of lines of text in that array, then closes the file.

Note: If the file being read is large, a large amount of data will be read.

Code	Result
"test.txt" InStream .get_all	["Line 1", "Line 2", "Line 3"]
"bad.txt" InStream .get_all	F50: Unable to open the file bad.txt for reading all.

[file_name InStream] .open [an_instream]

Routing: TOS

This method opens the file of the given name for reading. It returns an instance of a InStream object that may be used for reading data from that file. The programmer is responsible for managing that instance at all times. A typical strategy is to use a local value to hold this instance.

Note: The programmer is responsible for ensuring that the file object is finally closed.

Code	Result
"test.txt" InStream .open val: rf	(Creates a local value rf with an InStream instance.)
"bad.txt" InStream .open	F50: Unable to open the file bad.txt for reading.

[file_name InStream] .open{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This is actually a Virtual Machine method proxy for InStream. This method opens the file of the given name for reading, it then executes the code block (between the { and }) with self set to the opened file for the duration of the block. Finally, it closes the file.

Notes:

- The InStream instance is automatically (and always) closed at the end of the code block.
- This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine.

Code	Result
"test.txt" InStream .open{ ~gets }	"Line 1"

Instance Methods

[an_instream] .close []

Routing: TOS

This method closes of the file associated with the InStream instance.

Code	Result
fv .close	(Closes the file stored in the value fv. See .open above)

[an_instream] .getc [a_character]

Routing: TOS

This method reads a single character from the file connected to an instance of an InStream.

Code	Result
<code>fv .getc</code>	<code>"L"</code>

[an_instream] .gets [a_string]

Routing: TOS

This method reads a line of text from the file connected to an instance of an InStream.

Code	Result
<code>fv .getc</code>	<code>"Line 1"</code>

[] ~getc [a_character]

Routing: Self

This method reads a character of text from the file connected to an instance of an InStream that is the current "self" value. This most typically happens in the code block of an `.open{ ... }` method or an exclusive method added to an InStream instance.

Code	Result
<code>"test.txt" InStream .open{ ~getc }</code>	<code>"L"</code>

[] ~gets [a_string]

Routing: Self

This method reads a line of text from the file connected to an instance of an InStream that is the current "self" value. This most typically happens in the code block of an `.open{ ... }` method or an exclusive method added to an InStream instance.

Code	Result
<code>"test.txt" InStream .open{ ~gets }</code>	<code>"Line 1"</code>

Class Stubs

The following method is stubbed out in the InStream class and not available: `.new`

Integer

Inheritance: Integer ← Numeric ← Object

```
Integer Shared Methods =  
.even? .lcm 2* << and or  
.gcd .odd? 2/ >> com xor  
  
Helper Methods  
.to_i .to_i!
```

Integers⁶⁰ are numbers that may be represented without any division or fractional components. In fOOrth, integers behave much more like the abstract integers of mathematics than those traditionally associated with computers. Unlike common computer integers⁶¹, fOOrth integers have no preset capacity or limit. They are able to expand to accommodate data as needed without concern for issues such as overflow. It is however true, that given a finite computer memory sub-system, such expansion cannot go on without limit, still the limit is a rather ginormous.

Integer Literals

Like other numeric literals, integer literals are implemented directly by the parser. The parser does not have a specific rule for parsing integer literals. The parser will attempt to parse a language token as an integer when all other avenues of parsing have failed. Thus, like FORTH, in fOOrth integer literals are the parse of last resort.

Some examples follow:

Literal ⁶²	Value
7	7
-7	-7
445556678789933	445556678789933
0xff	255
0xffffffffffff	1099511627775
0xDeadBeef	3735928559

Instance Methods

⁶⁰ See <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integer>

⁶¹ See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integer_\(computer_science\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integer_(computer_science))

⁶² No spaces are permitted within the literal.

[an_integer] .even? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

This method returns true if the integer is even and false if it is odd.

Code	Result
2 .even?	true
3 .even?	false

[an_integer an_integer] .gcd [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the greatest common divisor of the two integers.

Code	Result
50 6 .gcd	2
2345 2890 .gcd	5

[an_integer an_integer] .lcm [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the lowest common denominator of the two integers.

Code	Result
50 6 .lcm	150
9 15 .lcm	45
-5 12 .lcm	60

[an_integer] .odd? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

This method returns true if the integer is odd and false if it is even.

Code	Result
2 .odd?	false
3 .odd?	true

[an_object] .to_i [an_integer or nil]**Routing:** TOS

Try to convert the object to an integer. If this is not possible, return nil. Contrast with .to_i! This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
"43.1" .to_i	43
99 .to_i	99
"apple" .to_i	nil

[an_object] .to_i! [an_integer]**Routing:** TOS

Try to convert the object to an integer. If this is not possible raise an error. Contrast with .to_i This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
"43.1" .to_i!	43
99 .to_i!	99
"apple" .to_i!	Cannot coerce a String instance to an Integer instance

[an_integer] 2* [an_integer]**Routing:** TOS

Double the value of the integer.

Code	Result
13 2*	26

[an_integer] 2/ [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

Halve the value of the integer. Note that integer division is employed with rounding down towards negative infinity.

Code	Result
7 2/	3
-7 2/	-4

[an_integer an_integer] << [an_integer]

Routing: NOS

Shift the integer value left by the number of positions indicated. A shift count of zero takes no action. A negative shift count shifts right by the number of positions indicated.

Note: When shifting right, rounding toward negative infinity is used.

Code	Result
4 14 <<	65536
4 0 <<	4
4 -1 <<	2
-10 3 <<	-80
-10 5 <<	-320
-10 -3 <<	-2
-10 -5 <<	-1

[an_integer an_integer] >> [an_integer]

Routing: NOS

Shift the integer value right by the number of positions indicated. A shift count of zero takes no action. A negative shift count shifts left by the number of positions indicated.

Note: When shifting right, rounding toward negative infinity is used.

Code	Result
4 1 >>	2
4 0 >>	4
4 -1 >>	8
-10 3 >>	-2
-10 5 >>	-1
-10 -3 >>	-80
-10 -5 >>	-320

[an_integer an_integer] and [an_integer]

Routing: NOS

Compute the bit-wise and function of the two integer values.

Code	Result
15 40 and	8

[an_integer] com [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the bit-wise complement of the integer value.

Code	Result
34 com	-35
0 com	-1

[an_integer an_integer] or [an_integer]

Routing: NOS

Compute the bit-wise inclusive or function of the two integer values.

Code	Result
15 40 or	47

[an_integer an_integer] xor [an_integer]

Routing: NOS

Compute the bit-wise exclusive or function of the two integer values.

Code	Result
15 40 xor	39

NilClass

Inheritance: NilClass ← Object

```
NilClass Shared Methods =  
&&    ^^    nil<>    nil=    not    ||
```

The value nil of the class NilClass is a placeholder for nothing, that is the absence of all data. In other languages like “C” NULL is a special pointer value with restrictions on its use. In fOOrth, nil is just another object with a very bad reputation!

Note that in Boolean expressions, nil is treated as an alias for false.

NilClass Literals

Instances of the NilClass are available through the Virtual Machine helper method “nil”.

Instance Methods

[nil object] && [false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical AND for the case where the first operand is nil. Always false.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the Object and FalseClass classes.

Code	Result
nil true &&	false

[nil object] ^^ [true or false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical, exclusive OR for the case where the first operand is nil. This takes on the value of the second operand converted to a Boolean value.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the Object and FalseClass classes.

Code	Result
nil false ^^	false
nil true ^^	true

[nil object] || [true or false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical, inclusive OR for the case where the first operand is nil. This takes on the value of the second operand converted to a Boolean value.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the Object and FalseClass classes.

Code	Result
nil false	false
nil true	true

Numeric

Inheritance: Numeric ← Object

```
Numeric Shared Methods =
*          .asinh      .denominator .polar      0<      2/
**         .atan       .e**        .r2d       0<=     <
+          .atan2      .emit       .real      0<=>    <=
-          .atanh      .floor      .round     0<>    <=>
.1/x       .c2p        .hypot      .sin       0=      >
.10**      .cbrt       .imaginary .sinh      0>      >=
.2**       .ceil       .ln         .sleep     0>=     mod
.abs       .conjugate  .log10    .sqr       1+      neg
.acos      .cos        .log2     .sqrt      1-
.acosh     .cosh       .magnitude .tan       2*
.angle     .cube       .numerator .tanh      2+
.asin      .d2r        .p2c      /       2-
```

```
Helper Methods =
.to_n      .to_n!
```

The Numeric class is the abstract base class for numeric data. It is the location for the vast majority of methods that act on such data. In use, data will be instances of Complex, Float, Integer (via Bignum and Fixnum), and Rational data.

Special Numeric Values

[] -infinity [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the value -Infinity.

Code	Result
-infinity	-Infinity

[] dpr [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the degrees per radians constant onto the stack. This has a value of 180/pi.

Code	Result
dpr	57.29577951308232

[] e [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the value e, the base of the natural logarithms, onto the stack.

Code	Result
e	2.718281828459045

[] epsilon [a_float]

Routing: VM

This smallest float such that $1.0 + \text{epsilon} \neq 1.0$

Code	Result
epsilon	2.220446049250313e-16

[] infinity [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the value Infinity.

Code	Result
-infinity	Infinity

[] max_float [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the value of the largest allowed floating point number, currently this is 1.7976931348623157e+308 on the current test environment.

Code	Result
max_float	1.7976931348623157e+308

[] min_float [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the value of the smallest, non-zero, floating point number, currently this is 2.2250738585072014e-308 on the current test environment.

Code	Result
min_float	2.2250738585072014e-308

[] nan [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the special value Not-A-Number NaN.

Code	Result
nan	NaN

[] pi [a_float]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the famous value pi, the ratio of a circle's circumference to its diameter, onto the stack.

Code	Result
pi	3.141592653589793 ⁶³

⁶³ In 1897, several attempts were made to legislate the value of pi to a number of incorrectly computed values. Fortunately, these efforts were unsuccessful.

Instance Methods

[a_numeric a_numeric] * [a_numeric]

Routing: NOS

The multiplication operator is implemented by this method.

Code	Result
10 3 *	30
22.7 1.5 *	34.05
22.7 3/2 *	34.05
3/2 4/5 *	6/5
2+3i 3+4i *	-6+17i

[a_numeric a_numeric] ** [a_numeric]

Routing: NOS

The exponentiation operator is implemented by this method. Note the the second operand, the power, is converted to a Float first.

Code	Result
2 10 **	1024
3 4 **	81
2 1/2 **	1.4142135623730951

[a_numeric a_numeric] + [a_numeric]

Routing: NOS

The addition operator is implemented by this method.

Code	Result
1 1 +	2
1.0 7.2 +	8.2
1/2 1/3 +	5/6
1+2i 1+3i +	2+5i

[a_numeric a_numeric] - [a_numeric]

Routing: NOS

The subtraction operator is implemented by this method.

Code	Result
1 1 -	0
1.0 7.2 -	-6.2
1/2 1/3 -	1/6
1+2i 1+3i -	0-1i

[a_numeric] .1/x [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the value of 1/x for the numeric argument. Note that division by zero produces an error in most cases except for 0.0 which produces Infinity.

Code	Result
2 .1/x	0
2.0 .1/x	0.5
0 .1/x	E15: divided by 0
0.0 .1/x	Infinity

[a_numeric] .10 [a_float]**

Routing: TOS

This method computes 10^x for the numeric argument.

Code	Result
3 .10**	1000.0
1/3 .10**	2.154434690031884
-3 .10**	0.001

[a_numeric] .2 [a_float]**

Routing: TOS

This method computes 2^x for the numeric argument.

Code	Result
10 .2**	1024.0
-3 .2**	0.125
1+1i .2**	1.5384778027279442+1.2779225526272695i

[a_numeric] .abs [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the absolute value of the argument number. Note that for complex numbers, this is the magnitude of the argument.

Code	Result
1 .abs	1
1.0 .abs	1.0
1/1 .abs	1/1
-1 .abs	1
1+1i .abs	1.4142135623730951

[a_numeric] .acos [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the arc-cosine ($\cos(x)^{-1}$) of the value. That is it computes the angle in radians whose cosine is the argument⁶⁴.

Code	Result
1 .acos	0.0
0 .acos	1.5707963267948966

⁶⁴ Please see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inverse_trigonometric_functions for more details on inverse trigonometric functions.

[a_numeric] .acosh [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the arc-hyperbolic-cosine ($\cosh(x)^{-1}$) of the value. That is it computes the angle in radians whose hyperbolic-cosine is the argument⁶⁵.

Code	Result
1 .acosh	0.0

[a_numeric] .angle [a_float]

Routing: TOS

For complex numbers, this method computes the phase angle in radians of the number. For non complex numbers, this angle is zero for positive values and pi for negative ones.

Code	Result
1+1i .angle	0.7853981633974483
1 .angle	0.0
-1 .angle	3.141592653589793

[a_numeric] .asin [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the arc-sine ($\sin(x)^{-1}$) of the value. That is it computes the angle in radians whose sine is the argument.

Code	Result
1 .asin	1.5707963267948966
0 .asin	0.0

⁶⁵ Please see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inverse_hyperbolic_function for more details on inverse hyperbolic trigonometric functions.

[a_numeric] .asinh [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the arc-hyperbolic-sine ($\sinh(x)^{-1}$) of the value. That is it computes the angle in radians whose hyperbolic-sine is the argument

Code	Result
1 .asinh	0.881373587019543

[a_numeric] .atan [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the arc-tangent ($\tan(x)^{-1}$) of the value. That is it computes the angle in radians whose tangent is the argument.

Code	Result
1 .atan	0.7853981633974483

[a_numeric a_numeric] .atan2 [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This is the two argument version of atan (arc-tangent).

For any real number arguments x , y not both equal to zero, $\text{atan2}(y, x)$ is the angle in radians between the positive x -axis of a plane and the point given by the coordinates (x, y) on it. The angle is positive for counter-clockwise angles (upper half-plane, $y > 0$), and negative for clockwise angles (lower half-plane, $y < 0$)⁶⁶.

Code	Result

66 From <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Atan2>.

[a_numeric] .atanh [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the arc-hyperbolic-tangent ($\tanh(x)^{-1}$) of the value. That is it computes the angle in radians whose hyperbolic-tangent is the argument

Code	Result
0 .atanh	0.0
1 .atanh	Infinity

[a_numeric a_numeric] .c2p [a_float a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method converts a two dimensional Cartesian coordinate to its equivalent Polar coordinate. On input the arguments are x, y. On output, the results are magnitude, angle (in radians).

Code	Result
1 1 .c2p	1.4142135623730951, 0.7853981633974483

[a_numeric] .cbrt [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the cube root ($X^{1/3}$) of the value.

Code	Result
8 .cbrt	2.0
-8 .cbrt	-2.0

[a_numeric] .ceil [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the smallest integer that is greater than or equal to the argument.

Code	Result
55.5 .ceil	56
-55.5 .ceil	55

[a_numeric] .conjugate [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the complex conjugate of the argument. For non-complex data, this has no effect.

Code	Result
2+3i .conjugate	2-3i
42 .conjugate	42

[a_numeric] .cos [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the cosine⁶⁷ of the argument angle in radians.

Code	Result
0 .cos	1.0
pi .cos	-1.0

[a_numeric] .cosh [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the hyperbolic-cosine⁶⁸ of the argument angle in radians.

Code	Result
0 .cosh	0.0

[a_numeric] .cube [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the cube (X^3) of the number.

Code	Result
3 .cube	27
3.0 .cube	27.0

⁶⁷ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trigonometric_functions for further information.

⁶⁸ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hyperbolic_function for further information.

[a_numeric] .d2r [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method converts the argument number from degrees to radians.

Code	Result
180 .d2r	3.141592653589793

[a_numeric] .denominator [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts the denominator from the rational argument. If the argument is a float or complex, it extracts the denominator of the rationalized equivalent of that number. If the argument is an integer, the denominator is always one.

Code	Result
1/3 .denominator	3
2.5 .denominator	2
1.5+2.25i .denominator	4
7 .denominator	1

[a_numeric] .e [a_float]**

Routing: TOS

This method computes the value of e raised to the power of the argument (e^x).

Code	Result
1 .e**	2.718281828459045
10 .e**	22026.465794806718

[a_numeric] .emit []

Routing: TOS

This method emits a character with the code of numeric argument.

Code	Result
65 .emit	(Prints an "A")

[a_numeric] .floor [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the largest integer that is less than or equal to the argument.

Code	Result
2.3 .floor	2
-2.3 .floor	-3

[a_numeric a_numeric] .hypot [a_float]

Routing: TOS

Given two lengths, this method computes the length of the hypotenuse.

Code	Result
3 4 .hypot	5.0

[a_numeric] .imaginary [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts the imaginary component of a complex number. For non-complex numbers this is always zero.

Code	Result
1+2i .imaginary	2
1-2i .imaginary	-2
42 .imaginary	0

[a_numeric] .ln [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the natural logarithm (\log_e) of the given value.

Code	Result
1 .ln	0.0
e .ln	1.0
10 .ln	2.302585092994046

[a_numeric] .log10 [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the base 10 logarithm (\log_{10}) of the given value.

Code	Result
1 .log10	0.0
e .log10	0.4342944819032518
10 .log10	1.0

[a_numeric] .log2 [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the base 2 logarithm (\log_2) of the given value.

Code	Result
2 .log2	0.0
e .log2	1.4426950408889634
10 .log2	3.321928094887362

[a_numeric] .magnitude [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the magnitude of a complex value. For non-complex values, it computes the absolute value of the argument.

Code	Result
3+4i .magnitude	5.0
-3 .magnitude	3

[a_numeric] .numerator [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts the numerator from the rational argument. If the argument is a float or complex, it extracts the numerator of the rationalized equivalent of that number. If the argument is an integer, the numerator is the same as the number.

Code	Result
1/3 .numerator	1
2.5 .numerator	5
1.5+2.25i .numerator	6+9i
7 .numerator	7

[a_numeric a_numeric] .p2c [a_float a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method converts a two dimensional Polar coordinate to its equivalent Cartesian coordinate. On input the arguments are magnitude, angle (in radians). On output, the results are x, y.

Code	Result
1 pi .p2c	1.2246063538223773e-16, -1.0
1 0 .p2c	0.0, 1.0

[a_numeric] .polar [a_float a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method converts a complex number to a magnitude and an angle (in radians). For non-complex data, the result is the absolute value of the number and zero radians for positive values and pi radians for negative values.

Code	Result
1+1i .polar	1.4142135623730951, 0.7853981633974483
5 .polar	5, 0
-5 .polar	5, 3.141592653589793

[a_numeric] .r2d [a_float]

Routing: TOS

Convert a angle value from radians to degrees.

Code	Result
Pi .r2d	180.0

[a_numeric] .real [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method returns the real component of a complex number. For non-complex number, it simply returns the number unchanged.

Code	Result
4+2i .real	4

[a_numeric] .round [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

This method rounds the argument number to the nearest integer.

Code	Result
4.1 .round	4
4.5 .round	5
4.9 .round	5
-4.1 .round	-4
-4.5 .round	-5
-4.9 .round	-5

[a_numeric] .sin [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the sine of the argument angle in radians.

Code	Result
0 .sin	0.0
pi 2/ .sin	1.0

[a_numeric] .sinh [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the hyperbolic-sine of the argument angle in radians.

Code	Result
0 .sinh	0.0
pi 2/ .sin	2.3012989023072947

[a_numeric] .sleep []

Routing: TOS

This method will put the current thread to sleep for the specified number of seconds. See the Thread class for more details.

[a_numeric] .sqr [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the square of the argument value.

Code	Result
4 .sqr	16
2/3 .sqr	4/9
1+1i .sqr	0+2i

[a_numeric] .sqrt [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the square root of the argument value.

Code	Result
16 .sqrt	4.0
4/9 .sqrt	0.6666666666666666

[a_numeric] .tan [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the tangent of the argument angle in radians.

Code	Result
0 .tan	0.0
pi 4 / .tan	0.9999999999999999

[a_numeric] .tanh [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method computes the hyperbolic-tangent of the argument angle in radians.

Code	Result
0 .tanh	0.0
1.0E6 .tanh	1.0

[an_object] .to_n [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into the appropriate type of Numeric value. If this is not possible, return nil instead. Contrast with .to_n! This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
2 .to_n	2
2.0 .to_n	2.0
"2" .to_n	2
"2.0" .to_n	2.0
"1/2" .to_n	1/2
"1+2i" .to_n	1+2i
"apple" .to_n	nil

[an_object] .to_n! [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into the appropriate type of Numeric value. If this is not possible, raise an error. Contrast with .to_n This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
2 .to_n!	2
2.0 .to_n!	2.0
"2" .to_n!	2
"2.0" .to_n!	2.0
"1/2" .to_n!	1/2
"1+2i" .to_n!	1+2i
"apple" .to_n!	Cannot convert a String instance to a Numeric instance

[a_numeric a_numeric] / [a_numeric]

Routing: NOS

This method implements the division operator.

Code	Result
3 4 /	0
3.0 4 /	0.75
1 0 /	E15: divided by 0
1.0 0 /	Infinity
2/3 3 /	2/9

[a_numeric] 0< [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is this number less than zero?

Code	Result
3 0<	false
0 0<	false
-3 0<	true

[a_numeric] 0<=[a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is this number less than or equal to zero?

Code	Result
3 0<=	false
0 0<=	true
-3 0<=	true

[a_numeric] 0<=> [1, 0, or -1]

Routing: TOS

Perform a “three outcome” comparison of the value with zero.

Code	Result
3 0<=>	1
0 0<=>	0
-3 0<=>	-1

[a_numeric] 0<> [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is the number not equal to zero?

Code	Result
3 0<>	true
0 0<>	false
-3 0<>	true

[a_numeric] 0= [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is the number equal to zero?

Code	Result
3 0=	true
0 0=	false
-3 0=	true

[a_numeric] 0> [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is the number greater than zero?

Code	Result
3 0=	true
0 0=	false
-3 0=	false

[a_numeric] 0>= [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is the number greater than or equal to zero?

Code	Result
3 0=	true
0 0=	true
-3 0=	false

[a_numeric] 1+ [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Add one to the number

Code	Result
2 1+	3
1/3 1+	4/3

[a_numeric] 1- [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Subtract one from the number

Code	Result
2 1-	1
1/3 1-	-2/3

[a_numeric] 2* [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Multiply the number by two.

Code	Result
2 2*	4
1/3 2*	2/3

[a_numeric] 2+ [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Add two to the number

Code	Result
2 2+	4
1/3 2+	7/3

[a_numeric] 2- [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Subtract two from the number

Code	Result
2 2-	0
1/3 2-	-5/3

[a_numeric] 2/ [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Divide the number by two. Note that for integers, rounding down toward negative infinity is employed.

Code	Result
2 2/	1
1/3 2/	1/6
3 2/	1
-3 2/	-2
3.0 2/	1.5
-3.0 2/	-1.5

[a_numeric a_numeric] < [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first number less than the second?

Code	Result
3 0 <	false
0 0 <	false
-3 0 <	true

[a_numeric a_numeric] <= [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first number less than or equal to the second?

Code	Result
3 0 <=	false
0 0 <=	true
-3 0 <=	true

[a_numeric a_numeric] <=> [-1, 0, or 1]

Routing: NOS

Perform a “three outcome” comparison of the first value with the second value.

Code	Result
3 0 <=>	1
0 0 <=>	0
-3 0 <=>	-1

[a_numeric a_numeric] > [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first number greater than the second number.

Code	Result
3 0 >	true
0 0 >	false
-3 0 >	false

[a_numeric a_numeric] >= [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first number greater than or equal to the second number.

Code	Result
3 0 >=	true
0 0 >=	true
-3 0 >=	false

[a_numeric a_numeric] mod [a_numeric]

Routing: NOS

Compute the modulus (or remainder) of dividing the first number by the second.

Code	Result
5 3 mod	2
5.0 3.0 mod	2.0
7/3 1/4 mod	1/12
20.5 6 mod	2.5
10 0 mod	E15: divided by 0
10.0 0.0 mod	E15: divided by 0

[a_numeric] neg [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Compute zero minus the number.

Code	Result
5 neg	-5
2.3 neg	-2.3
1/3 neg	-1/3

Object

Inheritance: Object ← nil

```
Object Shared Methods =
&&          .init          .to_i!          .to_x!          min
)methods    .is_class?     .to_n          <>          nil<>
.           .name          .to_n!          =            nil=
.class      .strlen        .to_r          ^^          not
.clone      .to_f          .to_r!          distinct?    ||
.clone_exclude .to_f!      .to_s          identical?
.copy       .to_i          .to_x          max
```

The Object class is the root of the class tree. All other classes inherit from the Object class and gain its methods and functionality.

Instance Methods

[object_a object_b] && [true or false]

Routing: NOS

Logical AND for the case where the first operand is true. This takes on the value of the second operand converted to a Boolean value.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the NilClass and FalseClass classes.

Code	Result
false false &&	false
false true &&	false
true false &&	false
true true &&	true

[object] . []

Routing: TOS.

Print out the object on the console using the default formatting.

Code	Result
42 .	(Prints out the answer to life, the universe and everything.)

[an_object] .:: method_name ... ; []

Routing: VM.

Start defining an exclusive (singleton in Ruby parlance) method on the receiver object. The form of this definition takes the form:

```
<an object> .:: <method name> <code goes here> ;
```

For information on how the name affects the type of method created, see the section Routing above.

Notes

- Copies and clones of the affected object retain any additional methods added to that object before it was copied or cloned. See Cloning Data above for more details.
- Not all objects support exclusive methods. If that is the case then an error occurs.

Code	Result
Array .new .name .	(Prints) Array instance
[3] val\$: \$vv \$vv .:: .name "Fred" ; \$vv .name .	(Prints) Fred
\$vv .copy .name .	(Prints) Fred
5 .:: foo 10 ;	F13: Exclusive methods not allowed for type: Fixnum

Local Methods:

[value] val: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local value in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 val: limit	(Creates a value named limit set to 10)

[value] var: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local variable in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var: limit	(Creates a variable named limit set to 10)

[value] val@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 val@: @limit	(Creates an instance value named @limit set to 10)

[value] var@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var@: @limit	(Creates an instance variable named @limit initially set to 10)

[] super []

Routing: Self.

Call the previously defined method for this object. This allows a method to do all the things that the parent method did with customization of the parameters and additional pre and post actions.

[] ::: method_name ... ; []

Routing: Compiler Context.

Close off the compilation and its context. The method definition is terminated by this trailing semi-colon. After this method, this and the above local methods are no longer available.

[an_object] .class [a_class]

Routing: TOS.

Get the class of the receiver object.

Code	Result
1/2 .class	Rational
"apple" .class	String
Nil .class	NilClass

[an_object] .clone [an_object']

Routing: TOS.

Create a clone of receiver object. This clone is accomplished by performing a deep copy of the object, and all of its instance data and any data referenced by that data. The deep copy process has loop and cyclic graph detection to avoid going off into an infinite recursion. This contrasts with the VirtualMachine word “clone” which combines the actions of “dup .clone”.

See Cloning Data above for more details.

Code	Result
@title .clone ": " @name <<	(By cloning @title, the string is not mutated.)

[] .clone_exclude [an_array_of_exclusions]

Routing: TOS

This method is part of the fOOrth implementation of the full clone protocol. This method is seldom called directly, instead it is called as a result of a call to the clone or .clone methods.

The purpose of the .clone_exclude method is to specify those data members that are excluded from the cloning process. For instance variables this is an array of strings with the names of those variables.

It is expected that sub-classes of the Object class will override this method and return an exclusion list appropriate for their needs.

Code Definition Example	Result
MyClass .: .clone_exclude ["@foo"] ;	(The variable @foo will not be cloned.)

[an_object] .copy [an_object']

Routing: TOS

Create a copy of receiver object. This copy is accomplished by performing a shallow copy of the object, and all of its instance data but not any data referenced by that data. This contrasts with the VirtualMachine word “copy” which combines the actions of “dup .copy”.

See Cloning Data above for more details.

Code	Result
@title .clone ": " @name <<	(By cloning @title, the string is not mutated.)

[unspecified an_object] .init [unspecified]

Routing: TOS

The “.init” method is never called directly. Instead, this method is called by the “.new” method of the Class class. Its purpose is to perform any needed setup on the object being created. Parameters to the “.new” appear as parameters to the “.init” method. It is expected that user defined classes will override the “.init” method default in Object which takes no action.

In a hierarchy of classes, access to earlier versions of the .init method is possible with the super method (see super, a local method of “.” in Class and “...” in Object).

Code Definition Example	Result
MyClass .: .init val@: @name ;	(Creates an initialization method that takes an argument as the initial value for the name. In use it would appear as the usage example.
Usage Example	
"Peter Camilleri" MyClass .new	(Creates an instance of the MyClass class with the @name value set to the string “Peter Camilleri”)

[an_object] .is_class? [false]

Routing: TOS

Is this Object a Class? No! Returns false. See the version of this method in Class for a more positive slant on things.

Code	Result
Object .is_class	true
42 .is_class	false

[an_object] .name [a_string]**Routing:** TOS

Get the name of the object. For Class objects, this is the name of the class. For other objects, this is the name of their class followed by “instance”. For Virtual Machine instances, the name of the VM is also appended.

Code	Result
Object .name	“Object”
100 .name	“Fixnum instance”
vm .name	“VirtualMachine instance <Main>”

[an_object] .strlen [integer]**Routing:** TOS

If the object is a string, determine the length of a string, else determine the length of the string created when the object is converted to a string (see .to_s for further info).

Code	Result
"ABCD" .strlen	4
100 .strlen	3
Object .strlen	6

[an_object] .to_f [a_float or nil]**Routing:** TOS

Try to convert the object to a float. See the Float class for more details.

[an_object] .to_f! [a_float]**Routing:** TOS

Try to convert the object to a float. See the Float class for more details.

[an_object] .to_i [an_integer or nil]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object to an integer. See the Integer class for more details.

[an_object] .to_i! [an_integer]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object to an integer. If this is not possible raise an error. Contrast with .to_i!
See the Integer class for more details.

[an_object] .to_n [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into the appropriate type of Numeric value. See the Numeric class for more details.

[an_object] .to_n! [a_numeric]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into the appropriate type of Numeric value. See the Numeric class for more details.

[an_object] .to_r [a_rational or nil]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into a Rational. See the Rational class for more details.

[an_object] .to_r! [a_rational]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into a Rational. See the Rational class for more details.

[an_object] .to_s [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Convert the object to a string. See the String class for more details.

[an_object] .to_x [a_complex or nil]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into a Complex. See the Complex class for more details.

[an_object] .to_x! [a_complex]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into a Complex. See the Complex class for more details.

[object_a object_b] <> [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Return true if object_a does not equal object_b, else return false.

Code	Result
42 42 <>	false
42 43 <>	true
"5" 5 <>	true
["5"] ["5"] <>	false
["5"] ["6"] <>	true

[object_a object_b] = [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Return true if object_a is equal to object_b, else return false.

Code	Result
42 42 =	true
42 43 =	false
"5" 5 =	false
["5"] ["5"] =	true
["5"] ["6"] =	false

[object_a object_b] ^^ [true or false]

Routing: NOS.

Logical, exclusive OR for the case where the first operand is true. This takes on the opposite of the value of the second operand converted to a Boolean value.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the NilClass and FalseClass classes.

Code	Result
false false ^^	false
false true ^^	true
true false ^^	true
true true ^^	false

[object_a object_b] distinct? [true or false]

Routing: NOS.

Return true if the objects a and b have distinct identities or values, else return false

Code	Result
4 5 distinct?	true
4 4 distinct?	false
"hi" dup distinct?	false
"hi" "ho" distinct?	true
"hi" "hi" distinct?	true

[object_a object_b] identical? [true or false]**Routing:** NOS.

Return true if the objects a and b have identical identities and values, else return false

Code	Result
4 5 identical?	false
4 4 identical?	true
"hi" dup identical?	true
"hi" "ho" identical?	false
"hi" "hi" identical?	false

[object_a object_b] max [either object_a or object_b]**Routing:** NOS

Return the larger or object_a or object_b. The object_b parameter is coerced to the same type as object_a for the comparison only. If the objects are equal in value, then object_b is returned.

Code	Result
4 5 max	5
4 "5" max	"5"
4 2 max	4
4 "apple" max	Cannot coerce a String instance to an Integer instance

[object_a object_b] min [either object_a or object_b]**Routing:** NOS

Return the smaller or object_a or object_b. The object_b parameter is coerced to the same type as object_a for the comparison only. If the objects are equal in value, then object_b is returned.

Code	Result
4 5 min	4
4 "5" min	4
4 2 min	2
4 "apple" min	Cannot coerce a String instance to an Integer instance

[an_object] nil<> [true]

Routing: TOS

Is this object not equal to nil for the case where the object is not equal to nil. Always true, see NilClass for the flip side of this method.

Code	Result
nil nil<>	false
false nil<>	true
0 nil<>	true
"" nil<>	true

[an_object] nil= [false]

Routing: TOS

Is this object equal to nil for the case where the object is not equal to nil. Always false, see NilClass for the flip side of this method.

Code	Result
nil nil=	true
false nil=	false
0 nil=	false
"" nil=	false

[an_object] not [false]

Routing: TOS

Return the logical opposite for object for the case where the object is true. Always false, see FalseClass and NilClass for the flip sides of this method.

Code	Result
nil not	true
false not	true
true not	false
0 not	false
"" not	false

[object_a object_b] || [true]

Routing: NOS.

Logical, inclusive OR for the case where the first operand is true. This is true.

Note: Other parts of this method are implemented in the NilClass and FalseClass classes.

Code	Result
false false &&	false
false true &&	true
true false &&	true
true true &&	true

Commands

[an_object])methods []

Routing: TOS.

Display a formatted listing of the methods defined to the given object. This method is very similar to the)methods method defined in Class, except for the labeling of exclusive methods.

```
>[ 3 ] val$: $vv
>$vv .:: .name "Fred" ;
>$vv .name .
Fred
>$vv )methods
Exclusive Methods =
.name

Array Shared Methods =
!      .+midlr  .-midlr  .left    .midlr   .right   <<
+      .+right  .-right  .length  .min     .shuffle @
.+left  .-left   .[]!    .max     .pp      .sort
.+mid   .-mid   .[]@    .mid     .reverse .strmax
```

OutStream

Inheritance: OutStream ← Object

```
OutStream Class Methods =
.append .create

OutStream Shared Methods =
.      .cr      .space      ~      ~cr      ~space
.close .emit    .spaces     ~"     ~emit    ~spaces

Helper Methods =
.append{ .create{

OutStream Class Stubs =
.new
```

The OutStream class is used to support the writing of information to files in an accessible file system.

Class Methods

[file_name OutStream] .append [an_outstream]

Routing: TOS

This method opens the file of the given name for appending. It returns an OutStream instance that may be used for writing data to that file. If the file in question does not exist, it is created. The programmer is responsible for managing that instance at all times. A typical strategy is to use a local value to hold that instance.

Note: The programmer is also responsible for ensuring that the file object is finally closed or data may be lost.

Code	Result
"test.txt" OutStream .append val: wf	(Creates a local value wf with an OutStream instance.

[file_name OutStream] .append{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This is actually a method proxy for OutStream. This method opens the file of the given name for appending, it then executes the code block (between { and }) with self set to the opened file for the duration of the block. Finally it closes the file.

Code	Result
<pre>"test.txt" OutStream .append{ ~"Hello" ~cr }</pre>	(Appends Hello to the file.)

[file_name OutStream] .create [an_outstream]

Routing: TOS

This method create a file of the given name for output. It returns an OutStream instance that may be used for writing data to that file. If the file in question exists, it is replaced. The programmer is responsible for managing that instance at all times. A typical strategy is to use a local value to hold that instance.

Note: The programmer is also responsible for ensuring that the file object is finally closed or data may be lost.

Code	Result
<pre>"test.txt" OutStream .create val: wf</pre>	(Creates a local value wf with an OutStream instance.)

[file_name OutStream] .create{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This is actually a method proxy for OutStream. This method creates a file of the given name for appending (if the file in question exists, it is replaced), it then executes the code block (between { and }) with self set to the opened file for the duration of the block. Finally it closes the file.

Code	Result
<pre>"test.txt" OutStream .create{ ~"Hello" ~cr }</pre>	(Create file with Hello.)

Instance Methods

[an_object an_outstream] . []

Routing: TOS

Print out the object to the output stream using the default formatting.

Code	Result
42 wf .	(Writes “42” to the output)

[an_outstream] .close []

Routing: TOS

Close the output stream object. After this, the file will not accept further data.

Code	Result
wf .close	(Close the file.)
"Hello" wf .	IOError detected: closed stream (See told ya!)

[an_outstream] .cr []

Routing: TOS

Add a new-line character to the output stream.

Code	Result
wf .cr	(Adds a new-line character to the output)

[a_number an_outstream] .emit [after]

Routing: TOS

Emits the number as a character to the output stream.

Code	Result
65 wf .emit	(Adds a letter “A” to the output)

[an_outstream] .space []

Routing: TOS

Adds a space to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>wf .space</code>	(Adds a space to the output)

[count an_outstream] .spaces []

Routing: TOS

Adds the specified number of spaces to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>5 wf .spaces</code>	(Adds five spaces to the output)

[an_object] ~ []

Routing: Self

Print out the object to the output stream using the default formatting.

Code	Result
<code>42 ~</code>	(Writes “42” to the output)

[] ~" ... " []

Routing: Self

Print out the embedded string to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>~"Hello"</code>	(Writes “Hello” to the output)

[] ~cr []

Routing: Self

Add a new-line character to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>~cr</code>	(Adds a new-line character to the output)

[a_number] ~emit []

Routing: Self

Emits the number as a character to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>65 ~emit</code>	

[] ~space []

Routing: Self

Adds a space to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>~space</code>	(Adds a space to the output)

[count] ~spaces []

Routing: Self

Adds the specified number of spaces to the output stream.

Code	Result
<code>5 ~spaces</code>	(Adds five spaces to the output)

Class Stubs

The following method is stubbed out as it is not supported by the OutputStream class.

.new

Procedure

Inheritance: Procedure \leftarrow Object

```
Procedure Shared Methods =  
  .call  .start  
  
Helper Methods =  
{}
```

The procedure class is used to represent anonymous methods, not tied to either the virtual machine or any object. They are objects in and of themselves and can be passed as arguments to methods or returned as values from methods.

Procedure Literals

Procedure literals are supported by the virtual machine method “{” and a locally defined method “}”. The general usage is:

```
{ (procedure body) }
```

To be clear on the semantics involved: execution of a procedure literal pushes an instance of a procedure object onto the stack.

A valid management strategy is to place these procedures into values. For example:

```
{ dup * } var$: $proc
```

Instance Methods

[a_procedure] .call [unspecified]

Routing: TOS

Call the code in the procedure. The current self value is used as the self value of the procedure.

Code	Result
3 \$proc (see above) .call	6

[unspecified a_procedure] .start [a_thread]

Routing: TOS

Start the procedure object in its own thread. Any additional data on the stack is copied to the stack of the new virtual machine created with the new thread instance.

Code	Result
3 {{ \$proc .call . }} .start	#<Thread:0x211f2a8> (Prints out 6)

Queue

Inheritance: Queue ← Object

```
Queue Shared Methods =  
.clear .empty? .length .pend .pop .push
```

The queue class implements a data “pipeline” which permits data objects to be inserted into the queue and retrieved from the queue in the order they were inserted. Queues are especially useful in buffering data for use by a producer thread to a consumer thread.

Queue objects are created using the default implementation of the .new method in the Object class.

Instance Methods

[a_queue] .clear []

Routing: TOS

This method removes the data elements from the queue.

Code	Result
@q .clear	(The queue is cleared.)

[a_queue] .empty? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Is this queue empty?

Code	Result
@q .empty?	true or false

[a_queue] .length [count]

Routing: TOS

How many data elements reside in the queue?

Code	Result
@q .length	Count

[a_queue] .pend [an_object]

Routing: TOS

Wait for a data element in the queue. This method is intended for use by a “consumer” thread and enables it to wait for data to process from a “producer” thread.

Warning: If this operation creates a deadlock this may result in a fatal error or a program lock-up.

Code	Result
@q .pend	an_object

[a_queue] .pop [an_object]

Routing: TOS

Get a data element from the queue.

Note: If the queue is empty when this method is invoked, an error is raised.

Code	Result
@q .pop	an_object
@q .pop	F31: Queue Underflow: .pop

[an_object a_queue] .push []

Routing: TOS

Add a data element to the queue.

Code	Result
42 @q .push	(The data 42 is added to the queue)

Rational

Inheritance: Rational ← Numeric ← Object

```
Rational Shared Methods =  
  .split  
  
Helper Methods =  
  .to_r      .to_r!      rational
```

Rational numbers⁶⁹ are those numbers that may be represented as a/b where a and b are both integers. Since rational numbers are implemented with fOOrth integers, they are not subject to (most) sizing restrictions and can thus represent numbers large and small with no loss of precision. Rational numbers inherit most of their methods from the Numeric class.

Rational Literals

Rational literals are supported directly by the compiler. Any number with an embedded '/' is considered to be a rational number. The regular expression detecting potential rational numbers is:

```
/\d\/\d/
```

Some example values follow:

Literal ⁷⁰	Value ⁷¹
1/2	1/2
1.2/3	2/5

Instance Methods

[a_rational] .split [numerator denominator]

Routing: TOS.

Split a rational number into its two component parts.

Code	Result
1/2 .split	1 2
3/4 .split	3 4

⁶⁹ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rational_number

⁷⁰ No spaces are permitted within the literal.

⁷¹ The numerator may be an integer or a float, the denominator must be an integer. See the respective sections for more details on those types of literals.

[an_object] .to_r [a_rational or nil]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into a Rational. If this is not possible, return nil. Contrast with .to_r!
This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
2 .to_r	2/1
2.5 .to_r	5/2
"2.5" .to_r	5/2
"5/2" .to_r	5/2
"apple" .to_r	nil

[an_object] .to_r! [a_rational]

Routing: TOS

Try to convert the object into a Rational. If this is not possible, raise an error. Contrast with .to_r
This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
2 .to_r	2/1
2.5 .to_r	5/2
"2.5" .to_r	5/2
"5/2" .to_r	5/2
"apple" .to_r	Cannot convert a String instance to a Rational instance

[numerator denominator] rational [a_rational]

Routing: VM

This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine class. Given a numerator and denominator, create a rational number. This method is quite flexible in accepting a wide variety of numeric input. If, for some reason, the conversion cannot be performed, an error occurs.

Code	Result
3 4 rational	3/4
3.5 4 rational	7/8
4 3.5 rational	8/7
1+2i 3 rational	1/3+2/3i
3.1 4 rational	6980579422424269/9007199254740992
"apple" 3 rational	F40: Cannot coerce a String instance, Fixnum instance to a Rational

Stack

Inheritance: Stack ← Object

```
Stack Shared Methods =  
.clear .empty? .length .peek .pop .push
```

The stack class implements a data “well” which permits data objects to be inserted into the stack and retrieved in the reverse of the order they were inserted. Stacks are *not* thread safe and should not be used to communicate between threads.

Stack objects are created using the default implementation of the .new method in the Object class.

Instance Methods

[a_stack] .clear []

Routing: TOS

Clear out the data elements of the stack.

Code	Result
@s .clear	(The stack is cleared)

[a_stack] .empty? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

description

Code	Result
@s .empty?	true or false

[a_stack] .length [count]

Routing: TOS

How many data elements are in this stack?

Code	Result
@s .length	count

[a_stack] .peek [an_object]

Routing: TOS

Peek at the top-of-stack data element without removing it. Note that if there is no element to peek at, an error is thrown.

Code	Result
@s .peek	an_object
@s .peek	F31: Stack Underflow: .peek

[a_stack] .pop [an_object]

Routing: TOS

Get the top-of-stack data element. Note that if there is no element to get, an error is thrown.

Code	Result
@s .pop	an_object
@s .pop	F31: Stack Underflow: .pop

[an_object a_stack] .push []

Routing: TOS

Push a data element onto the stack

Code	Result
42 @s .push	(Push 42 onto the stack)

String

Inheritance: String ← Object

```
String Shared Methods =
*      .-left      .emit      .lines      .posn      .strip      <=>
+      .-mid       .eval      .ljust      .reverse   .throw      >
."      .-midlr    .fmt       .load      .right     .to_lower   >=
.+left  .-right    .fmt"     .lstrip    .right?    .to_upper
.+mid   .call      .left     .mid       .rjust     <
.+midlr .cjust     .left?    .mid?     .rstrip    <<
.+right .contains? .length   .midlr    .split     <=

Helper Methods =
.each{      .to_s      "
```

The String class provides a wide range of character and string manipulating capabilities.

String Literals

String literals are directly supported by the compiler. Any method with a " character in it contains an embedded string literal. See String Literals in The Syntax and Style of fOOrth above. The most basic string literal uses a virtual machine macro ", but all methods with embedded strings work in a similar manner. It is illustrated below.

```
"string contents go here"
```

Within the string literal, characters usually represent themselves, but there are exceptions to this called escape sequences. Escape sequences allow the string literal to contain characters that do not fit the normal rules. These are shown below:

Escape Sequence	Interpretation
\ "	A single " character
\\	A single \ character
\ ⁷²	The string is continued on next line.
\n	A newline character.
\xFF ⁷³	An 8 bit character value.
\uFFFF ⁷⁴	A 16 bit character value.

⁷² This is a backslash character followed by the end-of-line character(s).

⁷³ The FF represents a two digit hexadecimal value.

⁷⁴ The FFFF represents a four digit hexadecimal value.

Embedded String Literals

Any method ending with a double quote mark (") will contain an embedded string literal. In effect the string value contained therein becomes an argument of the method that contains it.

It is important to understand that in methods with embedded strings, that string is pushed onto the stack *before* the method is invoked. Thus the top-of-stack will always be that string literal.

Multi-line String Literals

In fOOrth, string literals can span multiple lines by use of the backslash (\) character. In order for this to work, the backslash character needs to be the last character on the line. The string literal then picks up on the next line at the first non-blank character. For example:

```
> ) show

[]
> "4567\

[]
> " 666"

["4567666"]
```

Note first how leading spaces on the continuation line are removed. Also note how a " is added to the prompt to remind the user that a string is in the process of being entered.

Lazy String Literals

A special case exists where a string is started on a line, and neither terminated with a closing double quote mark or a line extension mark, backslash. In this case, the fOOrth language performs a lazy string termination, closing the string and removing any trailing blank characters. This is shown below:

```
> "Test

> _
Test
> ) "ls
Gemfile      demo.rb      fOOrth.reek  license.txt  rdoc        t.txt
Gemfile.lock docs      integration  pkg          reek.txt    test.foorth
README.md    fOOrth.gemspec lib          rakefile.rb  sire.rb     tests
```

Format Strings

The string formatting facility is a direct transplant of the Ruby mechanisms for the same⁷⁵. A format string is a string with optional text and zero or more format sequences. The data being formatted may be in one of two forms. Either a discrete object or an array⁷⁶ of objects may be formatted, however, a lone object may only be used if the formatting string contains no more

⁷⁵ The documentation for this feature is largely taken from the Ruby1.9.3-p448 Core API Reference.

⁷⁶ Ruby supports formatting data from hashes, but fOOrth does not.

than one format sequence. The structure of a format sequence is shown below with elements in brackets representing optional components.

```
%[flags][width][.precision]type
```

The type parameter is a single character that describes the data being formatted. There are three major groups of types: Integer, Float, and Other.

Integer Format Types

Type	Format Description
b	Convert argument as a binary number. Negative numbers will be displayed as a two's complement prefixed with '..1'.
B	Equivalent to 'b', but uses an uppercase 0B for prefix if the alternative format indicated by # is active.
d	Convert argument as a decimal number.
i	Identical to 'd'.
o	Convert argument as an octal number. Negative numbers will be displayed as a two's complement prefixed with '..7'.
u	Identical to 'd'.
x	Convert argument as a hexadecimal number. Negative numbers will be displayed as a two's complement prefixed with '..f' (representing an infinite string of leading 'ff's).
X	Equivalent to 'x', but uses uppercase letters.

Float Format Types

Type	Format Description
e	Convert floating point argument into exponential notation with one digit before the decimal point as [-]d.ddddde[+-]dd. The precision specifies the number of digits after the decimal point (defaulting to six).
E	Equivalent to 'e', but uses an uppercase E to indicate the exponent.
f	Convert floating point argument as [-]ddd.dddddd, where the precision specifies the number of digits after the decimal point.
g	Convert a floating point number using exponential form if the exponent is less than -4 or greater than or equal to the precision, or in dd.dddd form otherwise. The precision specifies the number of significant digits.
G	Equivalent to 'g', but use an uppercase 'E' in exponent form.
a	Convert floating point argument as [-]0xh.hhhhp[+-]dd, which is consisted from optional sign, "0x", fraction part as hexadecimal, "p", and exponential part as decimal.
A	Equivalent to 'a', but use uppercase 'X' and 'P'.

Other Format Types

Type	Format Description
c	Argument is the numeric code for a single character or a single character string itself.
p	Convert the argument to a string using the Ruby argument.inspect.
s	Argument is a string to be substituted. If the format sequence contains a precision, at most that many characters will be copied.
%	A percent sign itself will be displayed. No argument taken. That is %% displays as a single % sign.

Formatting Flags

The flags are zero or more optional characters that modify how the formatting is done. Flags tend to be specific to certain types.

Flag	Applies to:	Description
space	Integer or Float	Leave a space at the start of non-negative numbers. For 'o', 'x', 'X', 'b' and 'B', use a minus sign with absolute value for negative values.
(digit)\$	All	Specifies the absolute argument number for this field. Absolute and relative argument numbers cannot be mixed in a format string.
#	BboxX aAeEfgG	Use an alternative format. For the conversions 'o', increase the precision until the first digit will be '0' if it is not formatted as complements. For the conversions 'x', 'X', 'b' and 'B' on non-zero, prefix the result with "0x", "0X", "0b" and "0B", respectively. For 'a', 'A', 'e', 'E', 'f', 'g', and 'G', force a decimal point to be added, even if no digits follow. For 'g' and 'G', do not remove trailing zeros.
+	Integer or Float	Add a leading plus sign to non-negative numbers. For 'o', 'x', 'X', 'b' and 'B', use a minus sign with absolute value for negative values.
-	All	Left-justify the result of this conversion.
0	Integer or Float	Pad with zeros, not spaces. For 'o', 'x', 'X', 'b' and 'B', radix-1 is used for negative numbers formatted as complements.
*	All	Use the next argument as the field width. If negative, left-justify the result. If the asterisk is followed by a number and a dollar sign, use the indicated argument as the width.

The width is an optional numeric value that specifies the minimum size of the formatting field. Finally the optional precision specification is used to specify the number of digits past the decimal point for floating point data.

Examples

The following illustrates a very few of the possible formatting options:

Code	Result
1234 .fmt"%10d"	" 1234"
1234 .fmt"%-10d"	"1234 "
1234 .fmt"%010d"	"0000001234"
1234 .fmt"%x"	"4d2"
1234 .fmt"%X"	"4D2"
1234 .fmt"%#x"	"0x4d2"
1234 .fmt"%#X"	"0X4D2"
12.34 .fmt"%f"	"12.340000"
12.34 .fmt"%2f"	"12.34"
12.34 .fmt"%6.2f"	" 12.34"
12.34e6 .fmt"%g"	"1.234e+07"
12.34e6 .fmt"%#g"	"1.23400e+07"
"Hello World" .fmt"%s"	"Hello World"
"Hello World" .fmt"%15s"	" Hello World"
"Hello World" .fmt"%15.5s"	" Hello"
[5 100] .fmt"%*d"	" 100"
[6 2 12.34] .fmt"%*.*f"	" 12.34"
100 .fmt"% 4d%%"	" 100%"
-100 .fmt"% 4d%%"	"-100%"

Instance Methods

[a_string count] * [a_string]

Routing: NOS

Create a string with the original string repeated count times

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"*" 10 *	"*****"
"Knock Knock Penny " 3 *	"Knock Knock Penny Knock Knock Penny Knock Knock Penny "

[a_string an_object] + [a_string]

Routing: NOS

Create a new string that is the concatenation of the original string and the object, converted to a string if needed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"Hello " "World" +	"Hello World"
"Hello " 42 +	"Hello 42"

[] ."a string" []

Routing: TOS

Print the embedded string.

Code	Result
."Hello World"	(Prints Hello World)

[width an_object a_string] .+left [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Replace width characters on the left part of the string with the object, converted to a string if needed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 "123" "abcdefg" .+left	"123defg"
2 4552 "XX is the answer" .+left	"4552 is the answer"

[posn width an_object a_string] .+mid [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Replace width characters, starting at posn of the string with the object, converted to a string if needed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 2 "XXXX" "abcdefgh" .+mid	"abcXXXXfgh"

[left_posn right_posn an_object a_string] .+midlr [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Replace the characters, starting at left_posn and ending at right_posn (counted from the right), of the string with the object, converted to a string if needed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 3 "XXXX" "abcdefgh" .+midlr	"abcXXXXfgh"

[width an_object a_string] .+right [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Replace width characters on the right part of the string with the object, converted to a string if needed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 "123" "abcdefg" .+right	"abcd123"

[width a_string] .-left [a_string]

Routing:

Remove the width characters from the left of the string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 "abcdefg" .-left	"defg"

[posn width a_string] .-mid [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Remove width characters from the string starting at the specified position.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
2 4 "abcdefg" .-mid	"abg"

[left_posn right_posn a_string] .-midlr [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Delete the characters, starting at left_posn and ending at right_posn (counted from the right), of the string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
1 1 "abcdefg" .-midlr	"ag"

[width a_string] .-right [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Delete width characters from the right of the string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
2 "abcdefg" .-right	"abcde"

[a_string] .call [unspecified]

Routing: TOS

Execute the string as code.

Code	Result
"2 7 +" .call	9

[width a_string] .cjust [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a string with the given string centered in a field of the specified width.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
10 "abcd" .cjust	" abcd "

[sub_string a_string] .contains? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Return true if a_string contains the sub_string, else return false.

Code	Result
"bcd" "abcdefg" .contains?	true
"b3d" "abcdefg" .contains?	false

[a_string].each{ ... } []

Routing: VM

This method is the string iterator. It processes each character in the string in turn, calling the embedded block with the value and index of the current array item.

This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine.

Code	Result
"Hello" .each{ v x + . space }	(Prints out H0 e1 l2 l3 o4)

Local Methods:

[] v [current_element_value]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the character currently being processed.

Code	Result
"Hello" .each{ v dup + . space }	(Prints out HH ee ll ll oo)

[] x [current_element_index]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the index currently being processed.

Code	Result
"Hello" .each{ x . space }	(Prints out 0 1 2 3 4)

[] .each{ ... } []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the .each{ ... } block.

[a_string].emit []

Routing: TOS

Print the first character of the string

Code	Result
"abcd" .emit	(Prints "a")

[a_string].eval [unspecified]

Routing: TOS

Execute the string as code.

Code	Result
"2 7 +" .eval	9

[an_object a_string].fmt [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a string version of the object using the specified formatting string.

See Format Strings above for more details.

Code	Result
1234 "%X" .fmt	"4D2"

[an_object].fmt"a string" [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a string version of the object using the embedded formatting string.

See Format Strings above for more details.

Code	Result
1234 .fmt"%X"	"4D2"

[width a_string].left [a_string]

Routing: TOS

This method returns the left most width characters from the string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
2 "abcdefg" .left	"ab"

[sub_string a_string] .left? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

This method determines if the string starts with the sub-string.

Code	Result
"abc" "abcdefg" .left?	true
"ab3" "abcdefg" .left?	false

[a_string] .length [count]

Routing: TOS

How many characters are in this string? Note that this count is of characters and not bytes.

Code	Result
"abc" .length	3
"ab\uFFFFc" .length	4

[a_string] .lines [a_array]

Routing: TOS

This method takes a string with optional embedded line feeds and produces an array of strings broken at those line feeds.

Note: The array strings do *not* contain any line feed characters.

Code	Result
"qwer" .lines	["qwer"]
"qwer\nasdf\nzxcv\n" .lines	["qwer", "asdf", "zxcv"]
"qwer\nasdf\nzxcv" .lines	["qwer", "asdf", "zxcv"]

[width a_string] .ljust [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a string with the given string left justified in a field of the specified width.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
10 "abcd" .ljust	"abcd "

[a_string] .load [unspecified]

Routing: TOS

This method loads the file with the name given in the string. If no file type is specified, a type of “.foorth” is used as the default. The file is interpreted as fOOrth source code.

Note: This command is similar to the command)load”name” except that it does not report or provide feedback to the console.

Code	Result
"docs/snippets/times_table" .load	(loads the file times_table.foorth)

[a_string] .lstrip [a_string]

Routing: TOS

This method strips of any leading spaces on the left of the string

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
" abc " .lstrip	"abc "

[posn width a_string] .mid [a_string]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts width characters starting at the specified position in the string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 2 "abcdefg" .mid	"de"

[posn sub_string a_string] .mid? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Return true if a_string contains the sub_string at the indicated position. Otherwise return false.

Code	Result
2 "cde" "abcdefgh" .mid?	true
3 "cde" "abcdefgh" .mid?	false

[left_posn right_posn a_string] .midlr [a_string]

Routing: TOS

This method extracts width characters starting left_posn and ending at right_posn (counted from the end of the string) from the specified string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
2 2 "abcdefgh" .midlr	"cdef"

[sub_string a_string] .posn [a_posn or nil]

Routing: TOS

This method returns the first position that sub_string occurs within the specified string. If the sub_string does *not* occur, then nil is returned.

Code	Result
"cde" "abcdefgh" .posn	2
"cdx" "abcdefgh" .posn	nil

[a_string] .reverse [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a new string with the characters reversed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"Able was I ere I saw Elba" .reverse	"ableI was I ere I saw elbA"
"pup" .reverse	"pup"
"dog" .reverse	"god"

[width a_string] .right [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Return the width number of characters at the end (right side) of the string.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
3 "abcdefgh" .right	"fgh"

[sub_string a_string] .right? [a_boolean]

Routing: TOS

Does the string end with the characters of sub_string?

Code	Result
"fgh" "abcdefgh" .right?	true
"f4h" "abcdefgh" .right?	false

[width a_string] .rjust [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a string with the given string right justified in a field of the specified width.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
10 "abcd" .rjust	" abcd"

[a_string] .rstrip [a_string]

Routing: TOS

This method strips of any trailing spaces on the right of the string

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
" abc " .rstrip	" abc"

[a_string].split [an_array]

Routing: TOS

Given a string, create an array of strings by splitting along spaces. Multiple spaces still create only one split.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"abc def 123" .split	["abc", "def", "123"]
"abc def 123" .split	["abc", "def", "123"]
"abcdef123" .split	["abcdef123"]

[a_string].strip [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a string with leading and trailing spaces removed.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
" abc " .strip	"abc"

[a_string].throw []

Routing: TOS

Signal an exception.

Note: This method is similar to the Virtual Machine method throw".

Code	Result
"A35: Grundle Skew Error" .throw	(Throws an error A35)

[a_string].to_lower [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a new string with all the characters converted to lower case.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"AbCd" .to_lower	"abcd"

[an_object] .to_s [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Convert the object to a string. This is a helper method of the Object class.

Code	Result
2 .to_s	"2"
2.5 .to_s	"2.5"
5/2 .to_s	"5/2"
"apple" .to_s	"apple"

[a_string] .to_upper [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Create a new string with all the characters converted to upper case.

Note: The original string is *not* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"AbCd" .to_upper	"ABCD"

[a_string a_string] < [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first string less than the second one?

Code	Result
"B" "A" <	false
"B" "B" <	false
"A" "B" <	true

[a_string an_object] << [a_string]

Routing: NOS

Append the string representation of the object onto the first string

Note: The original string *is* mutated by this operation.

Code	Result
"ABC" "DEF" <<	"ABCDEF"
"ABC" 42 <<	"ABC42"

[a_string a_string] <= [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first string less than or equal to the second one?

Code	Result
"B" "A" <=	false
"B" "B" <=	true
"A" "B" <=	true

[a_string a_string] <=> [1, 0, -1]

Routing: NOS

Perform a “three outcome” comparison of the first value with the second value.

Code	Result
"B" "A" <=>	1
"B" "B" <=>	0
"A" "B" <=>	-1

[a_string a_string] > [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first string greater than the second one?

Code	Result
"B" "A" >	true
"B" "B" >	false
"A" "B" >	false

[a_string a_string] >= [a_boolean]

Routing: NOS

Is the first string greater than or equal to the second one?

Code	Result
"B" "A" >=	true
"B" "B" >=	true
"A" "B" >=	false

Thread

Inheritance: Thread ← Object

```
Thread Class Methods =  
  .current  .list  .main  
  
Thread Shared Methods =  
  .vm  
  
Helper Methods =  
  .new{      .sleep  .start  pause
```

The Thread class is largely used to facilitate the management of the threads in a multi-threaded application. It also provides methods to access the main thread and to retrieve the virtual machine of a given thread.

Class Methods

[Thread] .current [a_thread]

Routing: TOS

Get the current thread.

Code	Result
Thread .current	#<Thread:0x14dc3c0>

[Thread] .list [an_array]

Routing: TOS

Get a array of all currently running threads.

Code	Result
Thread .list	[#<Thread:0x14dc3c0 run>]

[Thread] .main [a_thread]

Routing: TOS

Get the main (first) thread of this application.

Code	Result
<code>Thread .main</code>	<code>#<Thread:0x14dc3c0></code>

[a_string Thread] .new{ ... } [a_thread]

Routing: VM

This method is used to create a named thread with the name coming from the string and the body specified in the { ... } body. The thread is returned to the caller.

This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine.

Code	Result
<code>"Fred" Thread .new{ } threads }</code>	(Displays) <code>#<Thread:0x144c3c0> vm = <Main></code> <code>#<Thread:0x21ec5f8> vm = <Fred></code>

Instance Methods

[a_thread] .vm [a_virtual_machine]

Routing: TOS

Retrieve the virtual machine associated with the thread.

Code	Result
<code>{{ Thread .list . }} .start .vm</code>	<code>#<XfOOrth::VirtualMachine:0x1bb6898></code>

[a_numeric] .sleep []

Routing: TOS

This method will put the current thread to sleep for the specified number of seconds. This is a helper of the Numeric class.

Code	Result
1 .sleep	(Sleep for one second)
0.1 .sleep	(Sleep for one tenth of a second)
1/1000 .sleep	(Sleep for one millisecond)

[unspecified a_procedure] .start [a_thread]

Routing: TOS

Start the procedure object in its own thread. Any additional data on the stack is copied to the stack of the new virtual machine created with the new thread instance. This is a helper method of the Procedure class.

Code	Result
3 {{ \$proc .call . }} .start	#<Thread:0x211f2a8> (Prints out 6)

[] pause []

Routing: VM

This method causes the current thread to pause briefly to allow a chance for other threads to run. This is a helper method of the Virtual Machine.

Code	Result
pause	(The thread pauses briefly)

TrueClass

Inheritance: TrueClass ← Object

```
No unique methods defined.
```

```
Helper Methods =  
true
```

The TrueClass is used to implement the true constant value. In spite of this, the functionality of true values is actually contained in the Object class.

TrueClass Literals

Instances of the TrueClass are made available by the Virtual Machine helper method “true”.

VirtualMachine

Inheritance: VirtualMachine ← Object

```
VirtualMachine Shared Methods =
!:(      )noshow   .::      .with{   dpr      over      tuck
"        )quit     .append{  :        drop     pause     val#:
)"       )restart  .create{  ?dup    dup      pi       val$:
)classes )show     .dump     [        e        pick     var#:
)context )start    .each{    accept   epsilon  rational var$:
)context! )threads .elapsed  accept"  false    rot      vm
)debug    )time    .map{     begin    if       self     {
)elapsed  )unmap"  .new{     class:   infinity space    {{
)entries  )version .open{    clear    load"    spaces
)globals )vm      .restart  clone    max_float swap
)irb      )vm!     .select{  complex  min_float switch
)load"    )words   .start    copy     nan      throw"
)map"     -infinity.to_s  cr      nil      true
)nodebug  .:       .vm_name  do        nip     try
```

The Virtual Machine is the center of activity of the fOOrth language system. It contains the stack, compiler, symbol mapping facility, context tracking and many other essential services utilized by the the entire class hierarchy. The same is also somewhat true of the Object class. The distinction between these is a matter of scope. The Object class is system wide. The virtual machine exists as a distinct instance per thread. Thus the virtual machine is better suited to managing the large scope of activities that are on a per-thread basis.

Since every thread must have exactly one virtual machine, it also serves as a universal routing target. Thus the virtual machine is used heavily by the compiler in the implementation of control and data literal structures.

The virtual machine is also the target for almost all user command level methods for the same reason.

Instance Methods

[] !: method_name ... ; []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define a method on the virtual machine. These methods execute immediately even when in deferred or compile modes.

Notes

- There are pretty much no restrictions on the name except that it not contain spaces and any " signals an embedded string (which is also immediate).
- This part of the fOOrth language system is still under development.

Code	Result
!: one 1 ;	(Creates an immediate VM method one)

Local Methods:

[undefined] super [undefined]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Invoke the definition of this method in the nearest parent class of this class that defines a method of the same name. The arguments to the super method must match those of the parent class's implementation of this method. The return values will also be those of the parent class. If no parent class defines a method of the same name as this one, an error is generated.

Note: This method is rarely useful in Virtual Machine methods because so few of them override a parent method.

[value] val: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local value in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 val: limit	(Creates a value named limit set to 10)

[value] var: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local variable in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var: limit	(Creates a variable named limit set to 10)

[value] val@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 val@: @limit	(Creates an instance value named @limit set to 10)

[value] var@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var@: @limit	(Creates an instance variable named @limit initially set to 10)

[] ... ; []

Routing: Compiler Context.

Close off the method definition.

[] " ... " [a_string]

Routing: VM

This is the string literal support method of the Virtual Machine. Please see class String Literals for more information.

[] -infinity [-Infinity]

Routing: VM

Please see Numeric – Special Numeric Values, above, for more information.

[a_class] .: method_name ... ; []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define new methods on the specified class. Please see the Class class for more details.

[an_object] .: []

Routing: VM.

Start defining an exclusive (singleton in Ruby parlance) method on the receiver object. Please see the Object class for more details.

[a_class] .append{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .append{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: OutStream

[a_class] .create{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .create{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: OutStream

[a_virtual_machine] .dump []

Routing: TOS

This debug method displays a “dump” of crucial data in the given virtual machine. See Tracking the Virtual Machine above for mere details.

Code	Result
vm .dump	(Displays a dump of the virtual machine)

[a_collection] .each{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .each{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: Array, Hash, and String.

[a_virtual_machine] .elapsed [a_float]

Routing: TOS

This method returns the number of seconds since the virtual machine was started or restarted.

Code	Result
vm .elapsed	68.952106 (Example only)

[an_array] .map{ ... } [an_array]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .map{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: Array.

[unspecified] .new{ ... } [an_object]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .new{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: Array and Thread.

[file_name a_class] .open{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .open{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: InStream.

[a_virtual_machine] .restart []

Routing: TOS

Reset the start time of the virtual machine to now.

Code	Result
vm .restart	

[an_array] .select{ ... } [an_array]

Routing: VM

A support routine for classes supporting the .select{ ... } protocol.

This is currently implemented in: Array.

[a_virtual_machine] .to_s [a_string]

Routing: TOS

Convert the virtual machine to a string. This method overrides the default implementation in the Object class.

Code	Result
vm .to_s	"VirtualMachine instance <Main>"

[a_virtual_machine] .start [a_date_time]

Routing: TOS

Get the start time of the virtual machine.

Code	Result
vm .start	a_time_object

[before] .vm_name [after]

Routing: VM

Return the name of the virtual machine as a string.

Code	Result
<code>vm .vm_name</code>	"Main"

[an_object] .with{ ... } [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This method is used to override the default value of "self" in a block of code. The argument object is used as the "self" for the duration of the block. This allows access to ~ methods and instance data. It can also be a handy short-form access to the object. See the section Self for more details.

Code	Result
<code>42 .with{ 0 5 do i self + . space loop }</code>	(Prints) 42 43 44 45 46
<code>Object .new .with{ 10 var@: @limit self val\$: \$count }</code>	(Creates an instance of the Object class, adds the instance variable, @limit and sets the global value \$count to it.)

[] : method_name ... ; []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define a method on the virtual machine. These methods execute normally with to the current mode.

Notes

- There are pretty much no restrictions on the name except that it not contain spaces and any " signals an embedded string.
- This type of fOOrth method most closely resembles a classical FORTH word.

Code	Result
<code>: double dup + ;</code>	(Create the double method)

Local Methods:

[undefined] super [undefined]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Invoke the definition of this method in the nearest parent class of this class that defines a method of the same name. The arguments to the super method must match those of the parent class's implementation of this method. The return values will also be those of the parent class. If no parent class defines a method of the same name as this one, an error is generated.

Note: This method is rarely useful in Virtual Machine methods because so few of them override a parent method.

[value] val: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local value in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 val: limit	(Creates a value named limit set to 10)

[value] var: local_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method defines a local variable in the current method.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var: limit	(Creates a variable named limit set to 10)

[value] val@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 val@: @limit	(Creates an instance value named @limit set to 10)

[value] var@: @instance_name []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method creates an instance value in the instance of the host class.

See Data Storage in fOOrth, above, for more details on values and variables.

Code	Result
10 var@: @limit	(Creates an instance variable named @limit initially set to 10)

[] ... ; []

Routing: Compiler Context.

Close off the method definition.

[an_object] ?dup [an_object an_object] or [false/nil]

Routing: VM

Duplicate the top element of the stack unless it is false or nil.

Code	Result
43 ?dup	43, 43
true ?dup	true, true
false ?dup	false false
nil ?dup	nil nil

[] [...] [an_array]

Routing: VM

This method is used to create array literal. See Array Literals above for more details.

[] accept [a_string]

Routing: VM

With a prompt of '? ', get a line of text from the console.

Code	Result
accept	a_string

[] accept" ... " [a_string]

Routing: VM

Using the embedded string as a prompt, get a line of text from the console

Code	Result
<code>accept"Enter cost"</code>	<code>a_string</code>

[] begin ... until/again/repeat []

Routing: VM

These methods are used to support arbitrary loops in fOOrth. There are three types of methods involved: begin, option while expression, and ending.

The begin method, marks the start of the loop.

The optional while method bails out of the loop if its argument is false. Zero or more while methods may be present in one loop.

Finally the ending methods until, again, or repeat, mark the end of the loop. The until method will exit the loop if given a true parameter. The again and repeat methods rely on a while method to terminate the loop.

This statement may be structured in many ways, here are a few examples:

```
(loop ends when condition is true)
begin (body) (condition) until

(loop end when condition is false)
begin (body) (condition) while (body) again

(loop end when condition1 or condition2 are false)
begin (body) (condition1) while (body) (condition2) while (body) again

(loop end when condition1 is false or condition2 is true)
begin (body) (condition1) while (body) (condition2) until
```

Where (body) represents the loop body code, and (condition) is a loop test or exit criteria. See the begin statement above for more details.

Local Methods:

[a_boolean] while []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method exits the loop if the boolean is false.

begin ... [a_boolean] until []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the loop. Further, it ends the loop if the boolean is true.

[] begin ... again []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the loop. This method is interchangeable with repeat.

[] begin ... repeat []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the loop. This method is interchangeable with again.

[] class: class_name []

Routing: VM

This method is used to create new classes. See the Class class for more details.

[an_object] clone [an_object an_object]

Routing: VM

Take the top element of the stack and create a clone (deep copy) of it. The original object becomes the second element on the stack.

Code	Result
"apple" clone	"apple", "apple"
"apple" clone distinct?	true

[real_part imaginary_part] complex [a_complex]

Routing: VM

Given two numbers, create a complex number. See the Complex class for more details.

[an_object] copy [an_object an_object]

Routing: VM

Take the top element of the stack and create a (shallow) copy of it. The original object becomes the second element on the stack.

Code	Result
"apple" clone	"apple", "apple"
"apple" clone distinct?	true

[] cr []

Routing: VM

Send a new line character to the console.

Code	Result
cr	(A new line is sent)

[start_value end_stop] do ... loop/+loop []

Routing: VM

The do loop is used to facilitate counted iteration in fOOrth. In general, looping proceeds from the start_value up to the end_stop-1. Access to the iteration value is provided by the "i" method while "-i" supplies the reverse iteration value. The related "j" and "-j" methods allow access to an "outer" loop iteration value. Finally the "loop" method closes off the loop body and adds one to the iteration value, while "+loop" allows the iteration step to be specified.

Note: In order to work correctly the "-i"/"-j" methods require the end_stop to be one more than the last value iterated.

See the do statement above for more information.

Code	Result
0 10 do i . space loop	(Prints 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9)
0 10 do -i . space loop	(Prints 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0)
0 9 do i . space 2 +loop	(Prints 0 2 4 6 8)
0 9 do -i . space 2 +loop	(Prints 8 6 4 2 0)
0 10 do -i . space 2 +loop	(Prints 9 7 5 3 1)

Local Methods:

`[] i [iteration_value]`

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the iteration value of the do loop. See above.

`[] j [iteration_value]`

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the iteration value of an outer loop. This is to support nested loops. If there is no outer loop, the value zero is returned.

Code	Result
<pre>0 2 do 0 2 do i . .", " j . space loop loop</pre>	(Prints 0,0 1,0 0,1 1,1)
<pre>0 2 do j . space loop</pre>	(Prints 0 0)

`[] -i [iteration_value]`

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the reverse iteration value. Specifically, this is computed as:

```
(start_value + end_stop - 1) - i.
```

Code	Result
<pre>10 20 do -i . space loop</pre>	(Prints 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10)

`[] -j [iteration_value]`

Routing: Compiler Context.

Get the reverse iteration value of an outer loop. This supports reverse outer nested loops. If there is no outer loop, the value zero is returned.

Code	Result
<pre>0 2 do 0 2 do -i . .", " -j . space loop loop</pre>	(Prints 1,1 0,1 1,0 0,0)
<pre>0 2 do j . space loop</pre>	(Prints 0 0)

[] do ... loop []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the loop.

[step_value] do ... +loop []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method increments the loop index by the specified value and marks the end of the loop. If the step value is not a number or is less than or equal to zero, an error occurs.

Code	Result
0 10 do i . space 2 +loop	(Displays 0 2 4 6 8)
0 10 do i . space "apple" +loop	F40: Cannot convert a String instance to a Numeric instance
0 10 do i . space 0 +loop	F41: Invalid loop increment value: 0

[] dpr [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[an_object] drop []

Routing: VM

Drop the top-of-stack element. If there is no such element, an error occurs.

Code	Result
1 2 3 drop	1 2
drop	F30: Data Stack Underflow: pop

[an_object] dup [an_object an_object]

Routing: VM

Duplicate the top-of-stack element. This only duplicates references, not the data itself

Code	Result
4 dup	4 4
"apple" dup	"apple" "apple"
"apple" dup identical?	true
"apple" dup distinct?	false

[] e [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[] epsilon [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[] false [false]

Routing: VM

A helper method for FalseClass. See FalseClass literals for more information.

[a_boolean] if ... then [unspecified]

Routing: VM

The “if” method implements the classic if statement in fOOrth. The if statement is used for cases where one or two branches are required. Where an arbitrary number of code branches, please see the switch statement below. The generalized layout of the if statement is:

```
(a condition) if (true clause) else (false clause) then
```

Where the else clause is optional, and only one of them is allowed. See the if statement above for more details.

Code	Result
2 odd? if ."ODD" else ."EVEN" then	(Prints EVEN)
3 odd? if ."ODD" else ."EVEN" then	(Prints ODD)
true if space else cr else ."?" then	F11: Unable to find a spec for else (:_304)

Local Methods:

[] else []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This marks the beginning of the optional else clause.

[] if ... then []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This marks the end of the if statement.

[] infinity [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[] load"file_name" [unspecified]

Routing: VM

This methods loads a forth source file, executing the code contained therein. If no file type is given, a type of ".forth" is used as a default.

Note: This method is similar to the)load" command except that it does not provide feedback to the console.

Code	Result
load"my_file.forth"	(Loads my_file.forth)
load"my_file"	(Loads my_file.forth)
load"my_file."	(Loads my_file.)

[] max_float [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[] min_float [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[] nan [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[before] nil [nil]

Routing: VM

A helper method for NilClass. See NilClass Literals for more information.

[object_a object_b] nip [object_b]

Routing: VM

Drop the next-of-stack element. The top-of-stack element is not affected.

Code	Result
1 2 3 nip	1 3

[object_a object_b] over [object_a object_b object_a]

Routing: VM

Push the next-of-stack element onto the stack. This becomes the new top-of-stack element.

Code	Result
1 2 3 over	1 2 3 2

[] pause []

Routing: VM

Pause the current thread. See the Thread class above for more details.

[] pi [a_float]

Routing: VM

A helper method for Numeric. See Special Numeric Values for more information.

[index] pick [an_object]

Routing: VM

This method picks off the item on the stack selected by the index, where 1 represents the top-of-stack, 2 the next-of-stack, etc. Attempting to read elements deeper than the total stack or “before” the top-of-stack generate an error.

Code	Result
1 2 3 1 pick	1, 2, 3, 3
1 2 3 3 pick	1, 2, 3, 1
1 2 3 "apple" pick	F40: Cannot coerce a String instance to an Integer instance
1 2 3 0 pick	F30: Data Stack Underflow: peek

[numerator denominator] rational [a_rational]

Routing: VM

Convert a numerator and denominator into a rational number. See the Rational class for more details.

[object_a object_b object_c] rot [object_b object_c object_a]

Routing: VM

This method “rotates” the top three elements on the stack

Code	Result
1 2 3 rot	2 3 1

[] self [a_object]

Routing: VM

This method pushes the current “owner” object onto the stack.

See the section Self, above, for more details.

Code	Result
> <u>self</u>	VirtualMachine instance <Main>
4 .with{ self }	4
class: MyClass MyClass .: .who_r_u self ; MyClass .new .who_r_u .name	“MyClass instance”

[] space []

Routing: VM

Prints a space character on the console.

Code	Result
space	(Prints a space)

[count] spaces []

Routing: VM

Prints count spaces on the console.

Code	Result
1 . 5 spaces 1 .	(Prints 1 1)

[object_a object_b] swap [object_b object_a]

Routing: VM

This method exchanges (swaps) the top two elements of the stack.

Code	Result
1 2 swap	2 1

[unspecified] switch ... end [unspecified]

Routing: VM

The switch statement is used to create a program decision point with an arbitrary number of code branches. Recall that the if statement is used for cases where one or two branches suffice.

In general, the switch statement is bound by the key words “switch” and “end”. In between, arbitrary code is permitted with two additional local methods: “break” and “?break”. When a break is executed, the program “jumps” to the end of the switch and exits. The ?break is the same except that this jump action is only taken if its argument is not false or nil.

The switch statement is laid out along the following lines:

```
switch
  condition1 if action1 break then
  condition2 if action2 break then
  condition3 ?break
  condition4 if action4 break then

  (etc)

  default_action_here
end
```

There are many possible ways to utilize the switch statement, the above is merely one example. See the switch statement above for more details.

Local Methods:

[] break []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method breaks out of the switch code block.

[a_boolean] ?break []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method breaks out of the switch code block if the argument is true, else it takes no action.

[] switch ... end []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method marks the end of the switch block.

[] throw"Error Message" []

Routing: VM

This method is used to send exception messages. These messages consist of strings with a formal error code followed by a free-form descriptive message.

See Handling Exceptions above for more details.

Code	Result
throw"U01: Invalid User Id."	(Throws the exception U01)

[] true [true]

Routing: VM

A helper method for TrueClass. See TrueClass Literals for more information.

Code	Result
true	true

[unspecified] try ... end [unspecified]

Routing: VM

The try block is used to control and contain exceptions. The try block is composed of three sections:

- The try section that contains the potentially error prone code.
- The optional catch section that responds to and processes exceptions.
- The optional finally section that performs clean-up actions regardless of whether any exceptional conditions were encountered.

A simple example try block is:

```
: ttry
  try swap dup . ." / " swap dup . ." = " / .
  catch
    switch
      ?"E15" if clear ."Error" break then
        bounce
      end
    finally
      cr ."Done!" cr
    end ;
```

```

>100 2 ttry
100 / 2 = 50
Done!

>10 0 ttry
10 / 0 = Error
Done!

```

See Handling Exceptions above for more details.

Local Methods:

[] catch []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method starts the exception handling portion of the try block.

[] ?"error_code" [a_boolean]

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method matches the error code of the current exception with the embedded string. The strings are compared only as far as the length of the embedded string. If the sub-strings match, true is returned, else false. This method is only permitted in the catch section.

Code	Result
? "E"	(Matches all errors codes starting with "E")
? "E05"	(Matches all "E05" codes, Index Error)
? "E05, 01"	(Matches all "E05,01" codes, Key Error)

[] bounce []

Routing: Compiler Context.

Relaunch the current error so that some higher level catch clause can deal with it. This method is only permitted in the catch section.

[] error [a_string]

Routing: Compiler Context.

Retrieve the full text of the current error message. This method is only permitted in the catch section.

[] finally []

Routing: Compiler Context.

This method starts the cleanup section of the try block. The finally section is always executed regardless of caught or un-caught exceptions that may occur.

[before] try ... end [after]

Routing: Compiler Context.

The method closes off the try block.

[object_a object_b] tuck [object_b object_a object_b]

Routing: VM

This method tucks the top element of the stack under the second element.

Code	Result
1 2 tuck	2 1 2

[an_object] val#: thread_data_name []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define a thread local value. This value is available at all points in this thread. A copy of this value will be made in any threads created after this value is created. The name of the value created must conform to the following regex:

```
/^#[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/
```

This means the the name must start with a “#” and a lower case letter followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits or underscores “_”.

See Data Storage in fOOrth – Scoping, for more details on this topic.

Code	Result
42 val#: #answer	(Creates the thread value #answer)
42 val#: wrong	F10: Invalid val name wrong

[an_object] val\$: global_data_name []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define a global value. This value is available to all points in the fOOrth program. The name of the value created must conform to the following regex:

```
/^\$[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/
```

This means the the name must start with a “\$” and a lower case letter followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits or underscores “_”.

See Data Storage in fOOrth – Scoping, for more details on this topic.

Code	Result
42 val\$: \$answer	(Creates the global value \$answer)
42 val\$: wrong	F10: Invalid val name wrong

[an_object] var#: thread_data_name []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define a thread local variable. This variable is available at all points in this thread. A copy of this variable will be made in any threads created after this variable is created. The name of the variable created must conform to the following regex:

```
/^#[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/
```

This means the the name must start with a “#” and a lower case letter followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits or underscores “_”.

See Data Storage in fOOrth – Scoping, for more details on this topic.

Code	Result
42 var#: #answer	(Creates the thread variable #answer)
42 var#: wrong	F10: Invalid var name wrong

[an_object] var\$: global_data_name []

Routing: VM

This method is used to define a global variable. This variable is available to all points in the fOOrth program. The name of the variable created must conform to the following regex:

```
/^\$[a-z][a-z0-9_]*$/
```

This means the the name must start with a “\$” and a lower case letter followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits or underscores “_”.

See Data Storage in fOOrth – Scoping, for more details on this topic.

Code	Result
42 var\$: \$answer	(Creates the global variable \$answer)
42 var\$: wrong	F10: Invalid var name wrong

[] vm [a_virtual_machine]

Routing: VM

Get the current thread's virtual machine instance.

Code	Result
vm .name	“VirtualMachine instance <Main>”

[] { ... } [a_hash]

Routing: VM

This is a helper method for creating Hash objects. See Hash Literals above for more details.

[] {{ ... }} [a_procedure]

Routing: VM

This is a helper method for creating Procedure objects. See Procedure Literals above for more details.

Commands

[])" ... " []

Routing: VM

This command submits the embedded string as input to the console's command processor.

```
>)"ls"
Gemfile          demo.rb          f0Orth.reek    license.txt    rdoc          t.txt
Gemfile.lock     docs          integration    pkg           reek.txt     test.f0orth
README.md        f0Orth.gemspec lib           rakefile.rb   sire.rb      tests

>)"git status"
On branch master
Your branch is up-to-date with 'origin/master'.

Changes not staged for commit:
  (use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)
  (use "git checkout -- <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)

        modified:   docs/The_f0Orth_User_Guide.odt
        modified:   lib/f0Orth/compiler.rb
        modified:   lib/f0Orth/compiler/parser.rb

no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")
```

Note: This command can be used to do very naughty things to the host computer.

[])classes []

Routing: VM

Generate a list of the classes in the system. For example:

```
>)classes
Array          Fixnum          NilClass       Queue           TrueClass
Bignum         Float           Numeric        Rational        VirtualMachine
Class          Hash           Object         Stack
Complex        InStream       OutStream      String
FalseClass     Integer        Procedure      Thread
```

[])context []

Routing: VM

Display the compiler context at execution of the)context command. See the section Context for more details.

[])context! []

Routing: VM

Display the compiler context at compiling of the)context command. See the section Context for more details.

[])debug []

Routing: VM

This method activates debug mode in which greater detail of compiler activity is displayed. For example:

```
>debug

>2 3 + 4 * .
Tags=[] Code="vm.push(2); "
Tags=[] Code="vm.push(3); "
Tags=[:stub] Code="vm.swap_pop._016(vm); "
Tags=[] Code="vm.push(4); "
Tags=[:stub] Code="vm.swap_pop._018(vm); "
Tags=[] Code="vm.pop._092(vm); "
20
>: double dup + ;
Tags=[:immediate] Code="vm._075(vm); "
begin_compile_mode
Tags=[:macro] Code="vm.push(vm.peak()); "
Tags=[:stub] Code="vm.swap_pop._016(vm); "
Tags=[:immediate] Code="vm.context[:_309].does.call(vm); "
double => lambda {|vm| vm.push(vm.peak()); vm.swap_pop._016(vm); }
end_compile_mode

>5 double .
Tags=[] Code="vm.push(5); "
Tags=[] Code="vm._310(vm); "
Tags=[] Code="vm.pop._092(vm); "
10
>
```

This command is canceled by the)nodebug command.

[])elapsed []

Routing: VM

Display how much time has elapsed since the current virtual machine was started.

```
> )elapsed  
Elapsed time is 606.454005 seconds
```

[])entries []

Routing: VM

Display the entries of the symbol table. See Appendix A for an example.

[])globals []

Routing: VM

Display the currently defined global values and variables and the strings they map to.

```
> 42 val$: $zz  
  
> )globals  
$zz (_304)
```

[])irb []

Routing: VM

Launch into an interactive Ruby debug session:

```
> irb  
  
Starting an IRB console for f00rth.  
Enter quit to return to f00rth.  
  
irb(main):001:0>
```

This command is canceled by the IRB quit command.

[])load" ... " []

Routing: VM

Load the file named in the embedded string. This unlike load" this method provides user feedback of the loading process.

```
>)load"docs/snippets/ugly_if"
Loading file: docs/snippets/ugly_if.foorth
Completed in 0.01 seconds
```

[])map" ... " []

Routing: VM

Display the mapping information (if any) for the embedded string. See the section Exploring the Mapping System above for more information.

[])nodebug []

Routing: VM

Disable the debug mode described above.

[])noshow []

Routing: VM

Disable the show mode described below.

[])quit []

Routing: VM

Exit the fOOrth language system:

```
>)quit

Quit command received. Exiting fOOrth.

C:\Sites\fOOrth>
```

[])restart []

Routing: VM

Reset the virtual machine start time to now.

[])show []

Routing: VM

When this command is active, the contents of the stack are displayed after each command is processed.

```
> )show
```

```
> 1 2 3
```

```
[1, 2, 3]
```

```
> ±
```

```
[1, 5]
```

```
> *
```

```
[5]
```

This command is canceled by the)noshow command.

[])start []

Routing: VM

Display the start time of the virtual machine.

```
> )start
```

```
Start time is 2015-05-10 17:26:25 -0400
```

[])threads []

Routing: VM

Display the currently executing threads in the fOOrth system.

```
> )threads
```

```
#<Thread:0x1aec3b0> vm = <Main>
```

[])time []

Routing: VM

Display the current time.

```
>)time  
It is now: 2015-05-10 at 05:35pm
```

[])unmap" ... " []

Routing: VM

Display the reverse mapping information (if any) for the embedded string. See the section Exploring the Mapping System above for more information.

[])version []

Routing: VM

Display the version string of the fOOrth language system.

```
>)version  
fOOrth language system version = 0.0.3
```

[])vm []

Routing: VM

Display a virtual machine dump at execution of the)vm command. See the section Context for more details.

[])vm! []

Routing: VM

Display a virtual machine dump at compilation of the)vm command. See the section Context for more details.

[])words []

Routing: VM

Display the active methods defined for this virtual machine:

>)words

VirtualMachine Shared Methods =

!:)noshow	:::	.with{	dpr	nip	try
")quit	.append{	:	drop	over	tuck
)")restart	.create{	?dup	dup	pause	val#:
)classes)show	.dump	[e	pi	val\$:
)context)start	.each{	accept	epsilon	pick	var#:
)context!)threads	.elapsed	accept"	false	rational	var\$:
)debug)time	.map{	begin	fred	rot	vm
)elapsed)unmap"	.new{	class:	if	self	{
)entries)version	.open{	clear	infinity	space	{{
)globals)vm	.restart	clone	load"	spaces	
)irb)vm!	.select{	complex	max_float	swap	
)load")words	.start	copy	min_float	switch	
)map"	-infinity	.to_s	cr	nan	throw"	
)nodebug	::	.vm_name	do	nil	true	

Appendix A – Symbol Glossary

Symbol Map Entries =

!	.[]!	.getc	.reverse	0>
!:	.[]@	.gets	.right	0>=
"	.abs	.hypot	.right?	1+
&&	.acos	.imaginary	.rjust	1-
)"	.acosh	.init	.round	2*
)classes	.alive?	.is_class?	.rstrip	2+
)context	.angle	.join	.select{	2-
)context!	.append	.keys	.shuffle	2/
)debug	.append{	.lcm	.sin	:
)elapsed	.asin	.left	.sinh	<
)entries	.asinh	.left?	.sleep	<<
)globals	.atan	.length	.sort	<=
)irb	.atan2	.lines	.space	<=>
)load"	.atanh	.list	.spaces	<>
)map"	.c2p	.ljust	.split	=
)methods	.call	.ln	.sqr	>
)nodebug	.cbrt	.load	.sqrt	>=
)noshow	.ceil	.log10	.start	>>
)quit	.cjust	.log2	.status	?dup
)restart	.class	.lstrip	.strip	@
)show	.clear	.magnitude	.strlen	Array
)start	.clone	.main	.strmax	Bignum
)stubs	.clone_exclude	.map{	.strmax2	Class
)threads	.close	.max	.subclass:	Complex
)time	.conjugate	.mid	.tan	FalseClass
)unmap"	.contains?	.mid?	.tanh	Fixnum
)version	.copy	.midlr	.throw	Float
)vm	.cos	.min	.to_f	Hash
)vm!	.cosh	.name	.to_f!	InStream
)words	.cr	.new	.to_i	Integer
*	.create	.new_size	.to_i!	NilClass
**	.create{	.new_value	.to_lower	Numeric
+	.cube	.new_values	.to_n	Object
-	.current	.new{	.to_n!	OutStream
-infinity	.d2r	.numerator	.to_r	Procedure
.	.denominator	.odd?	.to_r!	Queue
."	.dump	.open	.to_s	Rational
.+left	.e**	.open{	.to_upper	Stack
.+mid	.each{	.p2c	.to_x	String
.+midlr	.elapsed	.parent_class	.to_x!	Thread
.+right	.emit	.peek	.values	TrueClass
.-left	.empty?	.pend	.vm	VirtualMachine
.-mid	.eval	.polar	.vm_name	[
.-midlr	.even?	.pop	.with{	^^
.-right	.exit	.posn	/	accept
.1/x	.floor	.pp	0<	accept"
.10**	.fmt	.push	0<=	and
.2**	.fmt"	.r2d	0<=>	begin
::	.gcd	.real	0<>	class:
:::	.get_all	.restart	0=	clear

clone	identical?	nil=	swap	{{
com	if	nip	switch	
complex	infinity	not	throw"	~
copy	load"	or	true	~"
cr	max	over	try	~cr
distinct?	max_float	pause	tuck	~emit
do	min	pi	val#:	~getc
dpr	min_float	pick	val\$:	~gets
drop	mod	rational	var#:	~space
dup	nan	rot	var\$:	~spaces
e	neg	self	vm	
epsilon	nil	space	xor	
false	nil<>	spaces	{	

Appendix B – Regular Expressions

Elements of syntax in this guide are expressed using regular expressions. While regular expressions are powerful and concise, they are also cryptic and non-intuitive. This summary provides a brief overview of those subset of regular expression elements used in this guide. It only provides a thread-bare overview of the subject of regular expressions and the reader is encouraged to seek further information on this complex subject.⁷⁷

Expression Character	Description
.	Any character except newline
[A-Z]	Any uppercase alphabetical character.
[A-Za-z0-9_]	Any alphanumeric or underscore character.
\.	A single '.' character.
\/	A single '/' character
\\$	A single '\$' character.
\d	A digit (0..9)
x*	0 or more repetitions of the X expression.
x+	1 or more repetitions of the X expression.
^	The beginning of the line or string.
\$	The end of the line or string
other	Non-regex commands are expressions for themselves.

⁷⁷ For an excellent, interactive, free regular expression development tool see Rubular at <http://rubular.com/>

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Edit History:

PCC – December 14, 2014 – Initial draft of User's Guide started.

– Stored here for use throughout. Delete before release.

[before] word [after] Routing: description	
Code	Result

Local Methods:

[before] word [after] (h4) Routing: Compiler Context. description	
Code	Result

Code	Result