

# 1 The Node Binary

## 1.1 Common Command Line Arguments

```
1  # only check syntax
2  node --check app.js
3  node -c app.js
4
5  # evaluate (but don't print)
6  node --eval "1+1"
7  node -e "console.log(1+1)"
8  2
9  node -e "console.log(1+1); 0"
10 2
11
12 # evaluate and print
13 node -e "console.log(1+1)"
14 2
15 undefined
16
17 node -p "console.log(1+1); 0"
18 2
19 0
```

## 1.2 Module availability

All Node core modules can be accessed by their namespaces within the code evaluation context - no require required:

```
1  node -p "fs.readdirSync('.').filter((f) => /\.js$/).test(f)"
2  []
```

## 1.3 Preloading files

```
1  // preload.js
2  console.log('preload.js: this is preloaded')
3
4  // app.js
5  console.log('app.js: this is the main file')
6
```

```
1  // CommonJS
2  node -r ./preload.js app.js
3  node --require ./preload.js app.js
4
```

```
5 // ES modules
6 node --loader ./preload.js app.js
```

## 1.4 Stack trace limit

By default, only the first 10 stack frames are shown, which can lead to the root cause of the error not being shown.

In this case, modify the V8 option `--stack-trace-limit`:

```
1 node --stack-trace-limit=20 file.js
```

## 2 Debugging and Diagnostics

Start node in debugging mode:

```
1 node --inspect file.js # runs immediately
2 node --inspect-brk file.js # breakpoint at start of program
```

## 3 Core JavaScript Concepts

### 3.1 Types

Everything besides the following primitive types is an object - functions and arrays, too, are objects.

#### 3.1.1 Primitive Types

```
1 // The null primitive is typically used to describe
2 // the absence of an object...
3 // Null
4 null
5
6 // Undefined
7 // ... whereas undefined is the absence
8 // of a defined value.
9 // Any variable initialized without a value will be undefined.
10 // Any expression that attempts access of a non-existent
11 // property on an object will result in undefined.
12 // A function without a return statement will return undefined.
13 // undefined
14
15 // Number
16 // The Number type is double-precision floating-point format.
17 // It allows both integers and decimals but
```

```

18 // has an integer range of  $-2^{53}-1$  to  $2^{53}-1$ .
19 1, 1.5, -1e4, NaN
20
21 // BigInt
22 // The BigInt type has no upper/lower limit on integers.
23 1n, 9007199254740993n
24
25 // String
26 'str', "str", `str ${var}`
27
28 // Boolean
29 true, false
30
31 // Symbol
32 // Symbols can be used as unique identifier keys in objects.
33 //The Symbol.for method creates/gets a global symbol.
34 Symbol('description'), Symbol.for('namespace')...
35
36

```

### 3.1.2 Object

An object is a set of key value pairs, where values can be any primitive type or an object (including functions, since functions are objects). Object keys are called properties.

All JavaScript objects have prototypes. A prototype is an implicit reference to another object that is queried in property lookups. If an object doesn't have a particular property, the object's prototype is checked for that property. and so on. This is how inheritance in JavaScript works.

### 3.1.3 Functions

```

1 // this refers to the object on which the function was called,
2 // not the object the function was assigned to
3 const obj = { id: 999, fn: function () { console.log(this.id) } }
4 const obj2 = { id: 2, fn: obj.fn }
5 obj2.fn() // prints 2
6 obj.fn() // prints 999
7
8 // Functions have a call method that can be used
9 // to set their this context. See
10 /**
11 * Calls a method of an object,

```

```

12      * substituting another object for the current object.
13      * @param thisArg The object to be used as the current object.
14      * @param argArray A list of arguments to be passed to the method.
15      */
16      call(this: Function, thisArg: any, ...argArray: any[]): any;
17
18      function fn() { console.log(this.id) }
19      const obj = { id: 999 }
20      const obj2 = { id: 2 }
21      fn.call(obj2) // prints 2
22      fn.call(obj) // prints 999
23
24      /*
25      *Lambda functions do not have their own this context.
26      * Wwhen this is *referenced inside a function,
27      * it refers to the this of the
28      *nearest parent non-lambda function.
29      */
30      function fn() {
31          return (offset) => {
32              console.log(this.id + offset)
33          }
34      }
35      const obj = { id: 999 }
36      const offsetter = fn.call(thisArg = obj)
37      console.log(typeof(offsetter)); // function
38      offsetter(1) // 1000
39

```

Lambda functions do not have a prototype.

## 3.2 Prototypal Inheritance

### 3.2.1 Prototypal inheritance - functional

Create a prototype chain:

```

1      const wolf = {
2          howl: function () { console.log(this.name + ': awoooooooo') }
3      }
4
5      const dog = Object.create(wolf, {
6          woof: { value: function() { console.log(this.name + ': woof') } }
7      })

```

```

8
9     const rufus = Object.create(dog, {
10         name: {value: 'Rufus the dog'}
11     })
12
13     rufus.woof() // prints "Rufus the dog: woof"
14     rufus.howl() // prints "Rufus the dog: awoooooooooo"

```

A Property Descriptor is a JavaScript object that describes the characteristics of the properties on another object.

```

1     const propdesc = Object.getOwnPropertyDescriptors(rufus);
2     console.log(propdesc);
3
4     // output
5     {
6         name: {
7             value: 'Rufus the dog',
8             writable: false,
9             enumerable: false,
10            configurable: false
11        }
12    }
13
14
15     const name = Object.getOwnPropertyDescriptor(rufus, "name");
16     console.log(name);
17
18     // output
19
20     {
21         value: 'Rufus the dog',
22         writable: false,
23         enumerable: false,
24         configurable: false
25     }
26

```

### 3.2.2 Prototypal inheritance - using constructor

Creating an object with a specific prototype object can also be achieved by calling a function with the new keyword.

The constructor approach to creating a prototype chain is to define properties on a function's prototype object and then call that function with new.

Define how to create the parent object:

```
1  function Wolf (name) {  
2      this.name = name  
3  }  
4  
5  Wolf.prototype.howl = function () {  
6      console.log(this.name + ': awoooooooooo')  
7  }
```

Define a function to set up the inheritance chain:

```
1  function inherit (proto) {  
2      function ChainLink(){}  
3      ChainLink.prototype = proto  
4      return new ChainLink()  
5  }
```

Define how to obtain a child object:

```
1  function Dog (name) {  
2      Wolf.call(this, name + ' the dog')  
3  }  
4  
5  Dog.prototype = inherit(Wolf.prototype)  
6  
7  Dog.prototype.woof = function () {  
8      console.log(this.name + ': woof')  
9  }  
10
```

Create a child object():

```
1  const rufus = new Dog('Rufus')  
2  
3  rufus.woof() // prints "Rufus the dog: woof"  
4  rufus.howl() // prints "Rufus the dog: awoooooooooo"
```

In JavaScript runtimes that support EcmaScript 5+ the Object.create function could be used to the same effect:

```

1
2  function Dog (name) {
3      Wolf.call(this, name + ' the dog')
4  }
5
6  Dog.prototype = Object.create(Wolf.prototype)
7
8  Dog.prototype.woof = function () {
9      console.log(this.name + ': woof')
10 }

```

Node.js has a utility function: `util.inherits` that is often used in code bases using constructor functions.

```

1
2  const util = require('util')
3
4  function Dog (name) {
5      Wolf.call(this, name + ' the dog')
6  }
7
8  Dog.prototype.woof = function () {
9      console.log(this.name + ': woof')
10 }
11
12 // sets the prototype of Dog.prototype to Wolf.prototype
13 util.inherits(Dog, Wolf)
14

```

In contemporary Node.js, `util.inherits` uses the EcmaScript 2015 (ES6) method `Object.setPrototypeOf` under the hood.

```

1  Object.setPrototypeOf(Dog.prototype, Wolf.prototype)

```

### 3.2.3 Prototypal inheritance - class-based

The `class` keyword is syntactic sugar that actually creates a function, `new()`, that is to be used as a constructor. Internally, it creates prototype chains.

Usage:

```

1  class Wolf {
2      constructor (name) {
3          this.name = name
4      }
5      howl () { console.log(this.name + ': awoooooooooo') }
6  }
7
8  class Dog extends Wolf {
9      constructor(name) {
10         super(name + ' the dog')
11     }
12     woof () { console.log(this.name + ': woof') }
13 }
14
15 const rufus = new Dog('Rufus')

```

### 3.3 Inheritance provided by closures

Below, the spread operator is used. The spread operator splits arrays into their members, and object into properties. When spreading objects, the properties are added as key-value pairs.

```

1  function wolf (name) {
2      const howl = () => {
3          console.log(name + ': awoooooooooo')
4      }
5      return { howl: howl }
6  }
7
8  function dog (name) {
9      name = name + ' the dog'
10     const woof = () => { console.log(name + ': woof') }
11     return {
12         ...wolf(name),
13         woof: woof
14     }
15 }
16 const rufus = dog('Rufus')
17
18 console.log(rufus)
19 // { howl: [Function: howl], woof: [Function: woof] }
20 rufus.woof()

```



```

21 // "Rufus the dog: woof"
22 rufus.howl()
23 // "Rufus the dog: awoooooooooooo"

```

## 4 Packages and Dependencies

### 4.1 Specifying a SemVer range

- Prefix the version with a caret (^) to include everything that does not increment the first non-zero portion of semver. Example: ^8.14.1 is the same as 8.x.x.  
Note: caret behavior is different for 0.x versions, for which it will only match patch versions.
- Use the tilde symbol to include everything greater than a particular version in the same minor range. Example: ~2.2.0 matches 2.2.0 and 2.2.1 (highest existing minor version).
- Specify a range of versions. Example: >2.1 matches 2.2.0, 2.2.1, ... Note: There must be spaces on either side of hyphens.
- Use || to combine multiple sets of versions. Example: ^2 <2.2 || > 2.3.

## 5 Module System

### 5.1 Detecting Main Module in CJS

In some situations we may want a module to be able to operate both as a program and as a module that can be loaded into other modules.

When a file is the entry point of a program, it's the main module. We can detect whether a particular file is the main module.

```

1 // imports
2
3 if (require.main === module) {
4   // ...
5 } else {
6   const myfunc = (str) => {
7     // ...
8   }
9   module.exports = myfunc
10 }

```

The "start" script in the package.json file executes node index.js. When a file is called with node that file is the *entry point of a program*.

```
1   npm start
2
3   // or:
4   node index.js
5
6   // app starts
```

If it is loaded as a module, it will export function myfunc:

```
1   $node -p 'require("./index.js")'
2   [Function: myfunc]
3
4   $ node -p 'require("./index.js")("test")'
5   TSET
```

## 5.2 Converting a Local CJS File to a Local ESM File

When using ECMA Script modules in a CJS application, module files need to have the .mjs extension.

```
1   node -e "fs.renameSync('./format.js', './format.mjs');"
2   node -p "fs.readdirSync('.').join('\t');"

```

require() cannot be used with ESM modules.

Instead, we need to change it to a dynamic import() which is available in all CommonJS modules.

This is due to CJS loading modules synchronously, while ESM loads modules asynchronously. As a consequence, ESM can import CJS, but CJS cannot require ESM since that would break the synchronous constraint.

### 5.2.1 Aside: Static and Dynamic Imports

Assume we have a file utils.mjs

```
1   // Default export
2   export default () => {
3       console.log('Hi from the default export!');
4   };
5
6   // Named export `doStuff`
7   export const doStuff = () => {
8       console.log('Doing stuff');
9   };

```

This is a static import:

```
1 import * as module from './utils.mjs';
```

Whereas this is a dynamic import:

```
1 // returns a Promise
2 import('./utils.mjs')
3 .then((module) => {
4     module.default();
5     // logs 'Hi from the default export!'
6     module.doStuff();
7     // logs 'Doing stuff'
8 });
9
10 // or
11 (async () => {
12     const moduleSpecifier = './utils.mjs';
13     const module = await import(moduleSpecifier)
14     module.default();
15     // logs 'Hi from the default export!'
16     module.doStuff();
17     // logs 'Doing stuff'
18 })();
19
```

## 5.3 Converting a CJS Package to an ESM Package

### 5.3.1 Specify module type

We can opt-in to ESM-by-default by adding a type field to the package.json and setting it to "module". Our package.json should look as follows:

```
1 {
2     "name": "my-package",
3     "version": "1.0.0",
4     "main": "index.js",
5     "type": "module",
6     //...
7 }
8
```

### 5.3.2 Exports in ESM

Whereas in CJS, we assigned a function to `module.exports`:

```
1 module.exports = myfunc
```

in ESM we use the `export default` keyword and follow with a function expression to set a function as the main export:

```
1 export default (str) => {  
2   return somefunc(str);  
3 }
```

The default exported function is synchronous again, as it should be.

Note: ESM exports must be statically analyzable; and this means they can't be conditionally declared. The `export` keyword only works at the top level.

EcmaScript Modules were primarily specified for browsers, implying that there is no concept of a main module in the spec (since modules are initially loaded via HTML, which could allow for multiple script tags).

We can however infer that a module is the first module executed by Node by comparing `process.argv[1]` (which contains the execution path of the entry file) with `import.meta.url`.

```
1 const isMain = process.argv[1] &&  
2   await realpath(fileURLToPath(import.meta.url)) ===  
3   await realpath(process.argv[1])
```

One compelling feature of modern ESM is *Top-Level Await (TLA)*. Since all ESM modules load asynchronously it's possible to perform related asynchronous operations as part of a module's initialization.

TLA allows the use of the `await` keyword in an ESM modules scope at the top level, in addition to the standard usage within `async` functions.

With a dynamic import, if we want to use an imported module as default export, we have to reassign the `default` property to it. That's because dynamic imports return a promise which resolves to an object. If there's a default export in a module, the `default` property of that object will be set to it.

```
1 if (isMain) {  
2   const { default: pino } = await import('pino')  
3   const logger = pino()  
4   //  
5 }  
6  
7 export default (str) => {
```

```

8     return format.upper(str).split('').reverse().join('')
9 }

```

### 5.3.3 Importing modules

With static imports, different import possibilities exist:

- Implicitly import a module's default export

```

1     // the default export of the url module is assigned
2     // to the url reference.
3     import url from 'url'
4

```

- Import a specific named export from a module

```

1     import { realpath } from 'fs/promises'
2

```

- If there are no default exports, just individual ones, the following syntax is used:

```

1     import * as format from './format.js'
2

```

If a module *does* have a default export and that same syntax - `import * as` - is used to load it, the resulting object will have a default property holding the default export.

Note: ESM does not support loading modules without a full file extension.

## 5.4 Resolving a Module Path in CJS

The `require` function has a method called `require.resolve`. This can be used to determine the absolute path for any required module.

Example:

```

1     # package resolution
2     # no path given: looks into node-modules
3     require('pino') => /home/key/code/[...]/app/node_modules/pino/pino.js
4     require('standard') => /[...]/app/node_modules/standard/index.js

```

```

5
6   # directory resolution
7   # resolves to index.js!
8   require('.') => /home/key/code/[...]/app/index.js
9   require('../app') => /home/key/code/[...]/app/index.js
10
11  # file resolution
12  # path given: resolves to local file
13  # both with and without extension work
14  require('./format') => /home/key/code/[...]/app/format.js
15  require('./format.js') => /home/key/code/[...]/app/format.js
16
17  # core APIs resolution
18  require('fs')      => fs
19  require('util')    => util
20

```

## 5.5 Resolving a Module Path in ESM

Currently there is experimental support for an `import.meta.resolve` function which returns a promise that resolves to the relevant file:// URL for a given valid input. Since this is experimental, and behind the `--experimental-import-meta-resolve` flag, we'll discuss an alternative approach to module resolution inside an EcmaScript Module.

We can use the ecosystem `import-meta-resolve` module to get the best results for now.

```

import resolve from 'import-meta-resolve'
console.log( 'import pino', '=', await resolve('pino', import.meta.url) )
console.log( 'import tap', '=', await resolve('tap', import.meta.url) )

```

```

1   import { resolve } from 'import-meta-resolve'
2
3   console.log(
4     `import 'pino`,
5     '=>',
6     await resolve('pino', import.meta.url)
7   )
8
9   // If a package's package.json exports field defines
10  // an ESM entry point, the require.resolve function will still
11  // resolve to the CJS entry point because require is a CJS API.
12  // import-meta-resolve has a workaround
13  console.log(

```

```

14   `import 'tap'`,
15   '=>',
16   await resolve('tap', import.meta.url)
17   )
18
19   // resolved to [...]tap/dist/esm/index.js
20
21

```

## 6 Asynchronous Control Flow

### 6.1 Callbacks

Here, the `readFile` function schedules a task, which is to read the given file. When the file has been read, the `readFile` function will call the function provided as the second argument.

The second argument to `readFile` is a function that has two parameters, `err` and `contents`. This function will be called when `readFile` has completed its task. If there was an error, then the first argument passed to the function will be an error object representing that error, otherwise it will be null. If the `readFile` function is successful, the first argument (`err`) will be null and the second argument (`contents`) will be the contents of the file.

```

1   const { readFile } = require('fs')
2
3   // __filename holds the path of the file currently being executed
4   readFile(__filename, (err, contents) => {
5       if (err) {
6           console.error(err)
7           return
8       }
9       console.log(contents.toString())
10  })

```

This yields a way to achieve parallel execution in Node.js:

```

1   const { readFile } = require('fs')
2   const [ bigFile, mediumFile, smallFile ] =
3       Array.from(Array(3)).fill(__filename)
4
5   const print = (err, contents) => {
6       if (err) {

```

```

7         console.error(err)
8         return
9     }
10    console.log(contents.toString())
11  }
12  readFile(bigFile, print)
13  readFile(mediumFile, print)
14  readFile(smallFile, print)

```

Here the smallest file will be printed first, even though it's scheduled to be read last.

If instead we wanted to use serial execution, let's say we wanted bigFile to print first, then mediumFile even though they take longer to load than smallFile, we'd have to place the callbacks inside each other:

```

1  readFile(bigFile, (err, contents) => {
2    print(err, contents)
3    readFile(mediumFile, (err, contents) => {
4      print(err, contents)
5      readFile(smallFile, print)
6    })
7  })

```

Thus, serial execution with callbacks is achieved by waiting for the callback to call before starting the next asynchronous operation.

## 6.2 Promises

A promise is an object that represents an asynchronous operation. It's either pending or settled, and if it is settled it's either resolved or rejected.

Being able to treat an asynchronous operation as an object is a useful abstraction. For instance, instead of passing a function that should be called when an asynchronous operation completes into another function (e.g., a *callback*), a *promise* that represents the asynchronous operation can be returned from a function instead.

This is a callback-based approach:

```

1
2  function myAsyncOperation (cb) {
3    doSomethingAsynchronous((err, value) => { cb(err, value) })
4  }
5
6  myAsyncOperation(functionThatHandlesTheResult)
7

```



---

This is the same in promise form:

```
1
2  function myAsyncOperation () {
3      return new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
4          // doSomethingAsynchronous expects a callback
5          doSomethingAsynchronous((err, value) => {
6              if (err) reject(err)
7              else resolve(value)
8          })
9      })
10 }
11
12 const promise = myAsyncOperation()
13 // next up: do something with promise
14
15
```

This gets a lot nicer with the `promisify` function from the `util` module:

```
1
2  const { promisify } = require('util')
3  const doSomething = promisify(doSomethingAsynchronous)
4  function myAsyncOperation () {
5      return doSomething()
6  }
7
8  const promise = myAsyncOperation()
9
```

Promise success or failure are handled using `then` and `catch`:

```
1
2  const promise = myAsyncOperation()
3  // then and catch always return a promise, so they can be chained
4  promise
5  .then((value) => { console.log(value) })
6  .catch((err) => { console.error(err) })
7
```

Below, we have the same `readFile` operation as in the last section, but the `promisify` function is used to convert a callback-based API to a promise-based one.

```
1
2  const { promisify } = require('util')
3  const { readFile } = require('fs')
4
5  const readFileProm = promisify(readFile)
6
7  const promise = readFileProm(__filename)
8
9  promise.then((contents) => {
10     console.log(contents.toString())
11 })
12
13 promise.catch((err) => {
14     console.error(err)
15 })
```

However, using `promisify` with `fs` is not necessary, since `fs` already exports a `promises` object with promise-based versions. Using this, we can write

```
1
2  const { readFile } = require('fs').promises
3
4  readFile(__filename)
5    .then((contents) => {
6      console.log(contents.toString())
7    })
8    .catch(console.error)
```

Here, even though an intermediate promise is created by the first `then`, we still only need the one `catch` handler, as rejections are propagated.

Promises also allow for an easy serial execution pattern:

```
1
2  readFile(bigFile)
3  // returns a promise for reading mediumFile
4  .then((contents) => {
5    print(contents)
6    return readFile(mediumFile)
7  })
8  //returns a promise for reading smallFile
```

```

9     .then((contents) => {
10         print(contents)
11         return readFile(smallFile)
12     })
13     // returns itself
14     .then(print)
15     .catch(console.error)
16

```

If parallel execution is desired, `Promise.all` can be used to wait for all tasks to be handled. `Promise.all` takes an array of promises and returns a promise that resolves when all promises have been resolved. That returned promise resolves to an array of the values for each of the promises. This will give the same result of asynchronously reading all the files and concatenating them in a prescribed order.

```

1
2     const readers = files.map((file) => readFile(file))
3
4     Promise.all(readers)
5         .then(print)
6         .catch(console.error)
7

```

If one of the promises were to fail, `Promise.all` would reject, and any successfully resolved promises are ignored. If we want more tolerance of individual errors, `Promise.allSettled` can be used:

```

1
2     const { readFile } = require('fs').promises
3     const files = [__filename, 'not a file', __filename]
4     const print = (results) => {
5         results
6             .filter(({status}) => status === 'rejected')
7             .forEach(({reason}) => console.error(reason))
8         const data = results
9             .filter(({status}) => status === 'fulfilled')
10            .map(({value}) => value)
11         const contents = Buffer.concat(data)
12         console.log(contents.toString())
13     }
14
15     const readers = files.map((file) => readFile(file))
16

```

```
17 Promise.allSettled(readers)
18   .then(print)
19   .catch(console.error)
20
```

The `Promise.allSettled` function returns an array of objects representing the settled status of each promise. Each object has a `status` property, which may be `rejected` or `fulfilled`. Objects with a `rejected` status will contain a `reason` property containing the error associated with the rejection. Objects with a `fulfilled` status will have a `value` property containing the resolved value.

Finally, if we want promises to run in parallel independently, we can either use `Promise.allSettled` or simply execute each of them with their own `then` and `catch` handlers:

```
1 readFile(bigFile).then(print).catch(console.error)
2 readFile(mediumFile).then(print).catch(console.error)
3 readFile(smallFile).then(print).catch(console.error)
```

### 6.3 Async/Await

An `async` function always returns a promise. The promise will resolve to whatever is returned inside the `async` function body.

The `await` keyword can only be used inside of `async` functions. Calling `await` will pause the execution of the `async` function until the awaited promise is resolved. The resolved value of that promise will be returned from an `await` expression.

Here's an example of the same `readFile` operation from the previous section, but this time using an `async` function:

```
1
2 const { readFile } = require('fs').promises
3
4 async function run () {
5   const contents = await readFile(__filename)
6   console.log(contents.toString())
7 }
8
9 run().catch(console.error)
10
```

An `async` function always returns a promise, so we call the `catch` method to ensure that any rejections within the `async` function are handled.

This is how serial execution would work with async/await. Both variants print ABC:

```
1
2  async function run () {
3      print(await readFile(bigFile))
4      print(await readFile(mediumFile))
5      print(await readFile(smallFile))
6  }
7
8  run().catch(console.error)
9
```

Here is a serial execution example promisifying a "normal" function:

```
1 // see https://yieldcode.blog/post/implementing-promisable-set-timeout/
2
3 function setTimeoutPromise(cb, ms) {
4     return new Promise((resolve) => {
5         setTimeout(() => resolve(cb()), ms);
6     });
7 }
8
9 const print = (err, contents) => {
10     if (err) console.error(err)
11     else console.log(contents )
12 }
13
14 const opA = async (cb) => {
15     //setTimeout(() => {
16         await setTimeoutPromise(() => {
17             cb(null, 'A')
18         }, 500)
19     }
20 }
21
22 const opB = async (cb) => {
23     await setTimeoutPromise(() => {
24         cb(null, 'B')
25     }, 250)
26 }
27
28 const opC = async (cb) => {
29     await setTimeoutPromise(() => {
30         cb(null, 'C')
```

```

31     }
32
33     function sleep(delay) {
34         return new Promise(resolve => setTimeout(resolve, delay));
35     }
36
37     const run = async () => {
38         // option 1, using then()
39         opA(print).then(() => {
40             // opC needs to be called inside this!!
41             opB(print).then(() => {
42                 opC(print)})
43         })
44     };
45
46     await sleep(3000);
47
48     // option 2, using await
49     await opA(print);
50     await opB(print);
51     await opC(print);
52 }
53
54 run()

```

If the output only has to be ordered, but the order in which asynchronous operations resolves is immaterial, we can again use `Promise.all` but this time await the promise that `Promise.all` returns:

```

1
2     async function run () {
3         const readers = files.map((file) => readFile(file))
4         const data = await Promise.all(readers)
5         print(Buffer.concat(data))
6     }
7
8     run().catch(console.error)
9

```

To get the exact same parallel operation behavior as in the initial callback example, so that the files are printed as soon as they are loaded, we have to create the promises, use a `then` handler and then await the promises later on:

```

1
2  async function run () {
3      const big = readFile(bigFile)
4      const medium = readFile(mediumFile)
5      const small = readFile(smallFile)
6
7      big.then(print)
8      medium.then(print)
9      small.then(print)
10
11     await small
12     await medium
13     await big
14 }
15
16 run().catch(console.error)
17

```

This will ensure the contents are printed out chronologically, according to the time it took each of them to load.

To get that behavior with the timeout example, we rewrite the code as follows. Note no then handlers are needed:

```

1  // see https://yieldcode.blog/post/implementing-promisable-set-timeout/
2
3  function setTimeoutPromise(cb, ms) {
4      return new Promise((resolve) => {
5          setTimeout(() => resolve(cb()), ms);
6      });
7  }
8
9  const print = (err, contents) => {
10     if (err) console.error(err)
11     else console.log(contents )
12 }
13
14 const opA = async (cb) => {
15     //setTimeout(() => {
16         await setTimeoutPromise(() => {
17             cb(null, 'A')
18         }, 500)
19     }
20

```

```

21     const opB = async (cb) => {
22         await setTimeoutPromise(() => {
23             cb(null, 'B')
24         }, 250)
25     }
26
27     const opC = async (cb) => {
28         await setTimeoutPromise(() => {
29             cb(null, 'C')
30         }, 125)
31     }
32
33     const run = async () => {
34
35         const A = opA(print);
36         const B = opB(print);
37         const C = opC(print);
38
39         await A;
40         await B;
41         await C;
42
43     }
44
45     run()
46

```

If the complexity for parallel execution grows it may be better to use a callback based approach and wrap it at a higher level into a promise so that it can be used in an async/await function:

```

1
2     const { promisify } = require('util')
3     const { readFile } = require('fs')
4     const [ bigFile, mediumFile, smallFile ] =
5         Array.from(Array(3)).fill(__filename)
6
7     const read = promisify((cb) => {
8         let index = 0
9         const print = (err, contents) => {
10             index += 1
11             if (err) {
12                 console.error(err)

```



```

13         if (index === 3) cb()
14         return
15     }
16     console.log(contents.toString())
17     if (index === 3) cb()
18 }
19 readFile(bigFile, print)
20 readFile(mediumFile, print)
21 readFile(smallFile, print)
22 })
23
24 async function run () {
25     await read()
26     console.log('finished!')
27 }
28
29 run().catch(console.error)

```

Here the read function returns a promise that resolves when all three parallel operations are done.

## 6.4 Canceling Asynchronous Operations

To cancel asynchronous operations, Node core has embraced the [AbortController](#) with AbortSignal Web APIs.

While AbortController with AbortSignal can be used for callback-based APIs, it's generally used in Node to solve for the fact that promise-based APIs return promises:

```

1
2     import { setTimeout } from 'timers/promises'
3
4     const ac = new AbortController()
5     const { signal } = ac
6     const timeout = setTimeout(1000, 'will NOT be logged', { signal })
7
8     setImmediate(() => {
9         ac.abort()
10    })
11
12    try {
13        console.log(await timeout)
14    } catch (err) {
15        // ignore abort errors:

```

```

16     if (err.code !== 'ABORT_ERR') throw err
17   }
18

```

The AbortController constructor is a global, so we instantiate it and assign it to the `ac` constant. An AbortController instance has an AbortSignal instance on its `signal` property. We pass this via the `options` argument to `timers/promises setTimeout`; internally the API will listen for an abort event on the signal instance and then cancel the operation if it is triggered.

Many parts of the Node core API accept a `signal` option, including `fs`, `net`, `http`, `events`, `child_process`, `readline` and `stream`.

## 7 Event System

The EventEmitter constructor in the `events` module is the functional backbone of many Node core API's. For instance, HTTP and TCP servers are an event emitter, a TCP socket is an event emitter, HTTP request and response objects are event emitters. In this chapter, we'll explore how to create and consume EventEmitters.

### 7.1 Creating an Event Emitter

To be able to create an EventEmitter, either import it like this

```

1
2   // the events module exports an EventEmitter constructor
3   import { EventEmitter } from 'node:events';
4
5   // this should work in .cjs files, but yields undefined
6   // const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
7

```

or like so:

```

1
2   // in modern node the events module is
3   // the EventEmitter constructor, too :
4   import EventEmitter from 'node:events';
5
6   // see events.js:
7   /*
8   class EventEmitter<T extends EventMap<T> = DefaultEventMap> {
9     constructor(options?: EventEmitterOptions);
10    // ...

```

```

11     }
12
13     import internal = require("node:events");
14     namespace EventEmitter {
15         // Should just be `export { EventEmitter }`,
16         // but that doesn't work in TypeScript 3.4
17         export { internal as EventEmitter };
18         // ...
19     }
20
21     // resp.
22     const EventEmitter = require('events')
23

```

To create an EventEmitter instance, inherit from the EventEmitter class:

```

1
2     class MyEmitter extends EventEmitter {}
3
4     const myEmitter = new MyEmitter();
5     myEmitter.on('event', () => {
6         console.log('an event occurred!');
7     });
8     myEmitter.emit('event');
9

```

## 7.2 Emitting Events

To emit an event call the emit method:

```

1
2     const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
3     const myEmitter = new EventEmitter()
4     // arguments: event namespace, 2/3: passed to listener
5     myEmitter.emit('an-event', some, args)
6

```

## 7.3 Listening for Events

```

1
2  const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
3
4  const ee = new EventEmitter()
5  ee.on('close', () => { console.log('close event fired!') })
6  ee.emit('close')
7

```

Process additional arguments passed to emit like so:

```

1
2  ee.on('add', (a, b) => { console.log(a + b) }) // logs 13
3  ee.emit('add', 7, 6)
4

```

Listeners are called in the order they are registered. `prependListener` is used to add a listener in top position.

```

1
2  const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
3  const ee = new EventEmitter()
4  ee.on('my-event', () => { console.log('1st') })
5  ee.on('my-event', () => { console.log('2nd') })
6  ee.prependListener('my-event', () => { console.log('really 1st') })
7  ee.emit('my-event')
8

```

To have a listener called at most once, use `eventEmitter.once()` instead of `on()`.

```

1
2  const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
3  const ee = new EventEmitter()
4  ee.once('my-event', () => { console.log('my-event fired') })
5  ee.emit('my-event')
6  ee.emit('my-event')
7  ee.emit('my-event')
8

```

To remove listeners, use `removeListener("eventName", listenerVar)`.  
Call `removeAllListeners("eventName")` to remove them all.

```

1
2  const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
3  const ee = new EventEmitter()
4
5  const listener1 = () => { console.log('listener 1') }
6  const listener2 = () => { console.log('listener 2') }
7
8  ee.on('my-event', listener1)
9  ee.on('my-event', listener2)
10
11  setInterval(() => {
12      ee.emit('my-event')
13  }, 200)
14
15  setTimeout(() => {
16      ee.removeListener('my-event', listener1)
17  }, 500)
18
19  setTimeout(() => {
20      ee.removeListener('my-event', listener2)
21  }, 1100)
22

```

## 7.4 The error Event

Emitting an 'error' event on an event emitter will cause the event emitter to throw an exception if a listener for the 'error' event has not been registered.

Here a crash will not occur:

```

1
2  const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
3  const ee = new EventEmitter()
4
5  process.stdin.resume() // keep process alive
6
7  ee.on('error', (err) => {
8      console.log('got error:', err.message )
9  })
10
11  ee.emit('error', new Error('oh oh'))
12

```

---

## 7.5 Promise-Based Single Use Listener and AbortController

When awaiting an event, AbortController can be used as an escape hatch.

```
1
2  import { once, EventEmitter } from 'events'
3  import { setTimeout } from 'timers/promises'
4
5  const uneventful = new EventEmitter()
6
7  const ac = new AbortController()
8  const { signal } = ac
9
10  setTimeout(500).then(() => ac.abort())
11
12  try {
13    await once(uneventful, 'ping', { signal })
14    console.log('pinged!')
15  } catch (err) {
16    // ignore abort errors:
17    if (err.code !== 'ABORT_ERR') throw err
18    console.log('canceled')
19  }
20
```

## 8 Handling Errors

### 8.1 Native Error Constructors

Error is the native constructor for generating an error object. To create an error, call new Error and pass a string as a message:

```
1  new Error('this is an error message')
```

There are six other native error constructors that inherit from the base Error constructor, these are:

```
1  EvalError
2  SyntaxError
```

```
3   RangeError
4   ReferenceError
5   TypeError
6   URIError
```

There's mainly two errors that are likely to be thrown in library or application code: `RangeError` and `TypeError`.

## 8.2 Custom Errors: Set error code on Error object

```
1   function doTask (amount) {
2       if (typeof amount !== 'number')
3           throw new TypeError('amount must be a number')
4       if (amount <= 0)
5           throw new RangeError('amount must be greater than zero')
6       if (amount % 2) {
7           const err = Error('amount must be even')
8           err.code = 'ERR_MUST_BE_EVEN'
9           throw err
10      }
11      return amount / 2
12  }
```

## 8.3 Custom Errors: Inheriting from Error

```
1   class OddError extends Error {
2       constructor (varName = '') {
3           super(varName + ' must be even')
4       }
5       get name () { return 'OddError' }
6   }
7
8   // can additionally add a code
9   class OddError extends Error {
10      constructor (varName = '') {
11          super(varName + ' must be even')
12          this.code = 'ERR_MUST_BE_EVEN'
13      }
14      get name () {
15          return 'OddError [' + this.code + ']'
16      }
17  }
```

```
16     }
17 }
```

## 8.4 Try/Catch

We can separately handle different kinds of errors like so:

```
1  try {
2      const result = doTask(4)
3      console.log('result', result)
4  } catch (err) {
5      if (err instanceof TypeError) {
6          console.error('wrong type')
7      } else if (err instanceof RangeError) {
8          console.error('out of range')
9      } else if (err instanceof OddError) {
10         console.error('cannot be odd')
11     } else {
12         console.error('Unknown error', err)
13     }
14 }
```

However, it is more reliable to throw and check for error codes:

```
1  function codify (err, code) {
2      err.code = code
3      return err
4  }
5
6  function doTask (amount) {
7      if (typeof amount !== 'number') throw codify(
8          new TypeError('amount must be a number'),
9          'ERR_AMOUNT_MUST_BE_NUMBER'
10         )
11      if (amount <= 0) throw codify(
12          new RangeError('amount must be greater than zero'),
13          'ERR_AMOUNT_MUST_EXCEED_ZERO'
14         )
15      if (amount % 2) throw new OddError('amount')
16      return amount/2
17  }
18
```



```

19   try {
20     const result = doTask(4)
21     result()
22     console.log('result', result)
23   } catch (err) {
24     if (err.code === 'ERR_AMOUNT_MUST_BE_NUMBER') {
25       console.error('wrong type')
26     } else if (err.code === 'ERR_AMOUNT_MUST_EXCEED_ZERO') {
27       console.error('out of range')
28     } else if (err.code === 'ERR_MUST_BE_EVEN') {
29       console.error('cannot be odd')
30     } else {
31       console.error('Unknown error', err)
32     }
33   }

```

It's important to keep in mind that try/catch cannot catch errors that are thrown in a callback function that is called at some later point. Consider the following:

```

1   // WARNING: NEVER DO THIS:
2   try {
3     setTimeout(() => {
4       const result = doTask(3)
5       console.log('result', result)
6     }, 100)
7   } catch (err) {
8     // ...
9   }

```

An easy fix is to move the try/catch into the body of the callback function:

```

1   setTimeout(() => {
2     try {
3       const result = doTask(3)
4       console.log('result', result)
5     } catch (err) {
6       // ...
7     }
8   }, 100)

```

## 8.5 Rejected Promises

Assuming a function that accepts a Promise:

```
1  function doTask (amount) {
2      return new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
3          if (typeof amount !== 'number') {
4              reject(new TypeError('amount must be a number'))
5              return
6          }
7          if (amount <= 0) {
8              //
9          }
10         if (amount % 2) {
11             //
12         }
13         resolve(amount/2)
14     })
15 }
```

to catch rejections we have to use a catch clause:

```
1  doTask(3)
2      .then((result) => {
3          //
4      })
5      .catch((err) => {
6          //
7      })
```

When the throw appears inside a promise handler, that will not be an exception, that is, it won't be an error that is synchronous. Instead it will be a rejection: The then or catch handler will return a *new promise* that rejects as a result of a throw within the handler.

Example:

```
1  doTask(4)
2      .then((result) => {
3          throw Error('spanner in the works')
4      })
5      .catch((err) => {
6          //
7      })
```

---

Here the catch clause does not run, and an error is thrown.

## 8.6 Async Try/Catch

The same try/catch works for async/await, as async/await is nothing but syntactic sugar around Promise.

For example:

```
1  async function run () {  
2    try {  
3      //  
4    } catch (err) {  
5      //  
6    }  
7  }
```

If a throw occurs in an async function, the returned promise rejects. This means that with async/await, we can simply throw again. As a result, the code looks exactly like synchronous code, apart from the async keyword itself:

```
1  async function doTask (amount) {  
2    if (typeof amount !== 'number')  
3      throw new TypeError('amount must be a number')  
4    if (amount <= 0)  
5      throw new RangeError('amount must be greater than zero')  
6    if (amount % 2) throw new OddError('amount')  
7    return amount/2  
8  }
```

In consequence, async/await can conveniently be nested:

```
1  async function doTask (amount) {  
2    if //  
3    if // ...  
4    // fetch something from a server  
5    const result = await asyncFetchResult(amount)  
6    return result  
7  }
```

Here, if the promise returned from asyncFetchResult rejects, this will cause the promise returned from doTask to reject. Thus, one catch block can be used to handle all cases.

## 8.7 Error Propagation

Error propagation is where, instead of handling the error, we make it the responsibility of the caller instead. Here is an example handling known errors but propagating unknown ones:

```
1
2 // custom error definitions ....
3
4 async function doTask (amount) {
5   if (/* ... */) throw new TypeError(/* ...
6   if (/* ... */) throw new RangeError(/* ...
7   if (/* ... */) throw new OddError(/* ...
8   return amount/2
9 }
10
11 async function run () {
12   try {
13     const result = await doTask(4)
14     console.log('result', result)
15   } catch (err) {
16     if // ...
17   } else if // ...
18   } else if // ...
19     // unknown error
20   } else {
21     throw err
22   }
23 }
24
25 // catch remaining errors
26 run().catch((err) => { console.error('Error caught', err) })
```

Here is the equivalent example using a callback:

```
1
2 // now takes a callback
3 function doTask (amount, cb) {
4   if (/* ... */) {
5     cb( // .... throw some Error
6     return
7   }
8   if (/* ... */) {
9     cb( // .... throw some Error
```

```

10         return
11     }
12     if (/* ... */ {
13         cb(Error('some other error'))
14         return
15     }
16     // first argument (Error) is null, pass result as second!
17     cb(null, amount/2)
18 }
19
20 // 1. passes an error-first callback to doTask()
21 // 2. later, calls its own caller using the passed-in argument cb
22 // beware: cb is not the callback passed to doTask!
23 function run (cb) {
24     // callback passed to doTask() is created by run()!
25     doTask(4, (err, result) => {
26         // if error, check code
27         // if not a known one pass on as-is
28         // first argument (Error) is not null
29         if (err) {
30             if (err.code === // ...
31                 cb(Error('wrong type'))
32             } else if (err.code === // ...
33                 cb(Error('out of range'))
34             } else if // ...
35                 cb(Error('cannot be odd'))
36             } else {
37                 cb(err)
38             }
39             return
40         }
41
42         // do some real stuff with result
43         console.log('result', result)
44     })
45 }
46
47 run((err) => {
48     if (err) console.error('Error caught', err);
49 })
50
51

```

## 9 Buffers

A buffer object is both an instance of `Buffer` and an instance (at the second degree) of `Uint8Array` (8 bytes of unsigned integers between 0-255; subclass of non-instantiable `TypedArray`). In consequence, methods from `Uint8Array` as well as those from `Buffer` are available.

To safely create a buffer (meaning, zeroed-out bytes), we use `Buffer.alloc(num_bytes)`. Buffers can conveniently be converted into/from strings:

```
1  \\ not required, but recommended
2  const { Buffer } = require('node:buffer');
3
4  const buffer = Buffer.from('hello world')
5  buffer
6
7  // <Buffer 68 65 6c 6c 6f 20 77 6f 72 6c 64>
8
```

### 9.1 Buffer creation

The default character set is UTF-8, which uses up to 4 bytes:

```
1  // U+1F440 not displayed by tex
2  // length of string: ???
3  // https://mathiasbynens.be/notes/javascript-unicode
4  console.log('<EYES>'.length)
5  // 2
6
7  // utf-8 encoding uses 8 bytes
8  console.log(Buffer.from('<EYES>').length)
9  // 4
10 Buffer.from('U+1F440')
11 <Buffer f0 9f 91 80>
```

But a different character set can be specified:

```
1  Buffer.from("U+00fc")
2  <Buffer c3 bc>
3
4  Buffer.from("U+00fc", "ascii")
5  <Buffer fc>
6
7  Buffer.from("U+00fc", "utf16le")
```

```
8 <Buffer fc 00>  
9
```

## 9.2 Character encodings

The *character encodings* currently supported by Node.js are the following:

- 'utf8' (alias: 'utf-8')
- 'utf16le' (alias: 'utf-16le'): each character in the string will be encoded using either 2 or 4 bytes. Node.js only supports the little-endian variant of UTF-16.
- 'latin1': = ISO-8859-1. This character encoding only supports the Unicode characters from U+0000 to U+00FF. Each character is encoded using a single byte.

Converting a *Buffer into a string* using one of the above is referred to as *decoding*, and converting a *string into a Buffer* is referred to as *encoding*.

The following legacy character encodings are also supported:

- 'ascii': For 7-bit ASCII data only. When encoding a string into a Buffer, this is equivalent to using 'latin1'. When decoding a Buffer into a string, using this encoding will additionally unset the highest bit of each byte before decoding as 'latin1'. Generally, there should be no reason to use this encoding, as 'utf8' (or, if the data is known to always be ASCII-only, 'latin1') will be a better choice when encoding or decoding ASCII-only text. It is only provided for legacy compatibility.
- 'binary': Alias for 'latin1'. The name of this encoding can be very misleading, as all of the encodings listed here convert between strings and binary data. For converting between strings and Buffers, typically 'utf8' is the right choice.
- 'ucs2', 'ucs-2': Aliases of 'utf16le'. UCS-2 used to refer to a variant of UTF-16 that did not support characters that had code points larger than U+FFFF. In Node.js, these code points are always supported.

## 9.3 Binary-to-text encodings

Node.js also supports the following *binary-to-text* encodings. For binary-to-text encodings, the naming convention is reversed: Converting a *Buffer into a string* is typically referred to as *encoding*, and converting a *string into a Buffer* as *decoding*.

- 'base64': Base64 encoding. Whitespace characters such as spaces, tabs, and new lines contained within the base64-encoded string are ignored.
- 'base64url': base64url encoding as specified in RFC 4648, Section 5. When encoding a Buffer to a string, this encoding will omit padding.

- 'hex': Encode each byte as two hexadecimal characters. Data truncation may occur when decoding strings that do not exclusively consist of an even number of hexadecimal characters. See below for an example.

Example:

```
1
2 // utf-8 encoding of ASCII STRING
3 Buffer.from("8J+RgA==")
4 <Buffer 38 4a 2b 52 67 41 3d 3d>
5
6 // EYES is 8J+RgA== in base64
7 // utf-8 encoding of base64 decoding
8 Buffer.from("8J+RgA==", "base64")
9 <Buffer f0 9f 91 80>
10
11 // same as
12 Buffer.from('<EYES>')
13 <Buffer f0 9f 91 80>
14
15
```

## 10 Appendix

### 10.1 JavaScript Function Definitions

From: <https://dmitripavlutin.com/6-ways-to-declare-javascript-functions/>

#### 10.1.1 Function declaration

A function *declaration* starts with function.

An important property of this syntax is its *hoisting* mechanism. Hoisting allows the function to be used before its declaration.

```
1 function isNil(value) {
2     return value == null;
3 }
```

#### 10.1.2 Function expression (unnamed)

An unnamed *expression* containing the word *function*.



```

1
2 // create a method on an object
3 { sum: function() {...},
4   //
5 }
6
7 // use as a callback
8 array.map(function(...) {...})
9

```

### 10.1.3 Function expression (named)

A named *expression* containing the word *function*.

```

1
2 const isTruthy = function(value) {
3   return !!value;
4 }
5 // or
6 let count = function(...) {...}
7

```

### 10.1.4 Shorthand method definition

Like a function definition/expression, but missing the word *function*.

```

1
2 const collection = {
3   items: [],
4   add(...items) {
5     this.items.push(...items);
6   },
7   get(index) {
8     return this.items[index];
9   }
10 };
11
12 collection.add('C', 'Java', 'PHP');
13

```

### 10.1.5 Arrow function

The arrow function does not itself create its execution context, but takes it lexically (contrary to function expression or function declaration, which create their own this depending on invocation).

```
1
2   const absValue = (number) => {
3       if (number < 0) {
4           return -number;
5       }
6       return number;
7   }
8
```

### 10.1.6 Generator function

The generator function in JavaScript returns a Generator object. Its syntax is similar to function expression, function declaration, or method declaration, but it requires a star character \*.

```
1
2   const obj = {
3       *indexGenerator() {
4           var index = 0;
5           while(true) {
6               yield index++;
7           }
8       }
9   }
10
```

```
1   he events module exports an EventEmitter constructor:
2
3   const { EventEmitter } = require('events')
4
5   In modern node the events module is the EventEmitter constructor as well:
6
7   const EventEmitter = require('events')
8
9   Both forms are fine for contemporary Node.js usage.
10
```

```
11 To create a new event emitter, call the constructor with new:
12
13 const myEmitter = new EventEmitter()
14
15 A more typical pattern of usage with EventEmitter, however, is to inherit from it:
16
17 class MyEmitter extends EventEmitter {
18     constructor (opts = {}) {
19         super(opts)
20         this.name = opts.name
21     }
22 }
23
```

1

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