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Preface

Text here.

Intended Audience

Text here.

What Is Covered

Text and chapter by chapter description here.

Typographical Conventions

This book is written in an enhanced version of Texinfo, the GNU documentation formatting language. A single Texinfo source file is used to produce both the printed and online versions of a program's documentation. Because of this, the typographical conventions are slightly different than in other books you may have read.

Examples you would type at the command-line are preceded by the common shell primary and secondary prompts, '\$' and '>'. Input that you type is shown $like\ this$. Output from the command is preceded by the glyph " \dashv ". This typically represents the command's standard output. Error messages, and other output on the command's standard error, are preceded by the glyph "[error]". For example:

```
$ echo hi on stdout

¬ hi on stdout
$ echo hello on stderr 1>&2

[error] hello on stderr
```

In the text, command names appear in this font, while code segments appear in the same font and quoted, 'like this'. Options look like this: -f. Some things are emphasized like this, and if a point needs to be made strongly, it is done like this. The first occurrence of a new term is usually its definition and appears in the same font as the previous occurrence of "definition" in this sentence. Finally, file names are indicated like this: /path/to/our/file.

Acknowledgements

1 Introduction

Ruby is \dots

A dynamic, open source programming language with a focus on simplicity and productivity. It has an elegant syntax that is natural to read and easy to write.

2 Documentation

Here you will find pointers to manuals, tutorials and references that will come in handy when you feel like coding in Ruby.

Appendix A "Ruby-Doc", page 77,

2.1 Installing Ruby

Installation Methods

There are several ways to install Ruby:

- Package Manager: When you are on a UNIX-like operating system, using your systems package manager is the easiest way of getting started. However, the packaged Ruby version usually is not the newest one.
- **Installers**: can be used to install a specific or multiple Ruby versions. There is also an installer for Windows.
- Managers help you to switch between multiple Ruby installations on your system.
- Source: And finally, you can also build Ruby from source.

The following overview lists available installation methods for different needs and platforms.

2.1.1 Package Management Systems

If you cannot compile your own Ruby, and you do not want to use a third-party tool, you can use your systems package manager to install Ruby.

Certain members in the Ruby community feel very strongly that you should never use a package manager to install Ruby and that you should use tools instead. While the full list of pros and cons is outside of the scope of this page, the most basic reason is that most package managers have older versions of Ruby in their official repositories. If you would like to use the newest Ruby, make sure you use the correct package name, or use the tools described further below instead.

2.1.1.1 Homebrew (OS X)

Homebrew

On macOS (High) Sierra and OS X El Capitan, Ruby 2.0 is included.

Many people on OS X use Homebrew as a package manager. It is really easy to get a newer version of Ruby using Homebrew:

\$ brew install ruby

This should install the latest Ruby version.

2.1.2 Installers

If the version of Ruby provided by your system or package manager is out of date, a newer one can be installed using a third-party installer. Some of them also allow you to install multiple versions on the same system; associated managers can help to switch between the different Rubies. If you are planning to use RVM as a version manager you do not need a separate installer, it comes with its own.

2.1.2.1 ruby-build

ruby-build

rbenv

ruby-build is a plugin for rbenv (see Section 2.1.3.2 "rbenv", page 4, that allows you to compile and install different versions of Ruby into arbitrary directories. ruby-build can also be used as a standalone program without rbenv. It is available for OS X, Linux, and other UNIX-like operating systems.

2.1.2.2 ruby-install

ruby-install version manager chruby version switcher

```
ruby-install
chruby
```

ruby-install allows you to compile and install different versions of Ruby into arbitrary directories. There is also a sibling, chruby (see Section 2.1.3.1 "chruby", page 4), which handles switching between Ruby versions. It is available for OS X, Linux, and other UNIX-like operating systems.

2.1.3 Managers

Many Rubyists use Ruby managers to manage multiple Rubies. They confer various advantages but are not officially supported. Their respective communities are very helpful, however.

2.1.3.1 chruby

chruby allows you to switch between multiple Rubies. chruby can manage Rubies installed by ruby-install (see Section 2.1.2.2 "ruby-install", page 4) or even built from source.

2.1.3.2 rbenv

rbenv

ruby-build

rbenv allows you to manage multiple installations of Ruby. It does not support installing Ruby, but there is a popular plugin named ruby-build (see Section 2.1.2.1 "ruby-build", page 4) to install Ruby. Both tools are available for OS X, Linux, or other UNIX-like operating systems.

2.1.3.3 RVM ("Ruby Version Manager")

RVM

RVM allows you to install and manage multiple installations of Ruby on your system. It can also manage different gemsets. It is available for OS X, Linux, or other UNIX-like operating systems.

2.1.3.4 uru

Uru

Uru is a lightweight, multi-platform command line tool that helps you to use multiple Rubies on OS X, Linux, or Windows systems.

2.1.4 Building From Source

Ruby 2.5.1

Ruby Github

Of course, you can install Ruby from source. Download and unpack a tarball, then just do this:

- \$./configure
- \$ make
- \$ sudo make install

By default, this will install Ruby into /usr/local. To change, pass the --prefix=DIR option to the ./configure script.

Using the third-party tools or package managers might be a better idea, though, because the installed Ruby wont be managed by any tools.

Installing from the source code is a great solution for when you are comfortable enough with your platform and perhaps need specific settings for your environment. Its also a good solution in the event that there are no other premade packages for your platform.

2.1.4.1 Releases Page

Releases Page

For more information about specific releases, particularly older releases or previews, see the Releases page.

This page lists individual Ruby releases.

Ruby 2.5.1 Released

ruby-2.1.5.tar.gz

Posted by naruse on 28 Mar 2018

This release includes some bug fixes and some security fixes.

- CVE-2017-17742: HTTP response splitting in WEBrick
- CVE-2018-6914: Unintentional file and directory creation with directory traversal in tempfile and tmpdir
- CVE-2018-8777: DoS by large request in WEBrick
- CVE-2018-8778: Buffer under-read in String#unpack
- CVE-2018-8779: Unintentional socket creation by poisoned NUL byte in UNIXServer and UNIXSocket
- CVE-2018-8780: Unintentional directory traversal by poisoned NUL byte in Dir
- Multiple vulnerabilities in RubyGems

2.1.4.2 Branches Page

Branches Page

Information about the current maintenance status of the various Ruby branches can be found on the Branches page.

This page lists the current maintenance status of the various Ruby branches. This is a preliminary list of Ruby branches and their maintenance status. The shown dates are inferred from the English versions of release posts or EOL announcements.

The Ruby branches or release series are categorized below into the following phases:

- normal maintenance (bug fix): Branch receives general bug fixes and security fixes.
- security maintenance (security fix): Only security fixes are backported to this branch.
- eol (end-of-life): Branch is not supported by the ruby-core team any longer and does not receive any fixes. No further patch release will be released.
- preview: Only previews or release candidates have been released for this branch so far.

Ruby 2.6

```
https://cache.ruby-lang.org/pub/ruby/2.6/ruby-2.6.0-preview2.tar.gz
ruby-2.6.0-preview2
status: preview
release date:
```

Ruby 2.5

```
https://cache.ruby-lang.org/pub/ruby/2.5/ruby-2.5.1.tar.gz
status: normal maintenance
release date: 2017-12-25
```

Ruby 2.4

```
https://cache.ruby-lang.org/pub/ruby/2.4/ruby-2.4.4.tar.gz
status: normal maintenance
release date: 2016-12-25
```

Ruby 2.3

```
https://cache.ruby-lang.org/pub/ruby/2.3/ruby-2.3.7.tar.gz
status: security maintenance
release date: 2015-12-25
```

EOL date: scheduled for 2019-03-31

Ruby 2.2

status: eol

release date: 2014-12-25 EOL date: 2018-03-31

2.1.4.3 Ruby Issue Tracking System

Bugs

How to report a bug

How To Report

Ruby Trunk

Ruby Trunk

All Issues

2.2 Developing Ruby

Ruby Core

Now is a fantastic time to follow Rubys development. With the increased attention Ruby has received in the past few years, theres a growing need for good talent to help enhance Ruby and document its parts. So, where do you start?

Ruby Core

The topics related to Ruby development covered here are:

- "Developing Ruby", page 7,
- "Developing Ruby", page 7,
- "Patch by Patch", page 7,
- Rules for Core Developers

Using Subversion to Track Ruby Development

Getting the latest Ruby source code is a matter of an anonymous checkout from the Subversion repository. From your command line:

```
$ svn co https://svn.ruby-lang.org/repos/ruby/trunk ruby
```

The ruby directory will now contain the latest source code for the development version of Ruby (ruby-trunk). Currently patches applied to the trunk are backported to the stable 2.5, 2.4, and 2.3 branches (see below).

If youd like to follow patching of Ruby 2.5, you should use the ruby_2_5 branch when checking out:

```
$ svn co https://svn.ruby-lang.org/repos/ruby/branches/ruby_2_5
```

This will check out the respective development tree into a ruby_2_5 directory. Developers working on the maintenance branches are expected to migrate their changes to Rubys trunk, so often the branches are very similar, with the exception of improvements made by Matz and Nobu to the language itself.

If you prefer, you may browse Rubys Subversion repository via the web.

How to Use Git With the Main Ruby Repository

Those who prefer to use Git over Subversion can find instructions with the mirror on GitHub, both for those with commit access and everybody else.

Improving Ruby, Patch by Patch

The core team maintains an issue tracker for submitting patches and bug reports to Matz and the gang. These reports also get submitted to the Ruby-Core mailing list for discussion, so you can be sure your request wont go unnoticed. You can also send your patches straight to the mailing list. Either way, you are encouraged to take part in the discussion that ensues.

Please look over the Patch Writers Guide for some tips, straight from Matz, on how to get your patches considered.

Steps for Building a Patch

2.3 Getting Started

2.3.1 Try Ruby!

Try Ruby!

An interactive tutorial that lets you try out Ruby right in your browser. This 15-minute tutorial is aimed at beginners who want to get a feeling of the language.

2.3.2 Official FAQ

The official frequently asked questions.

FAQ

This document contains Frequently Asked Questions about Ruby with answers.

This FAQ is based on The Ruby Language FAQ originally compiled by Shugo Maeda and translated into English by Kentaro Goto. Thanks to Zachary Scott and Marcus Stollsteimer for incorporating the FAQ into the site and for a major overhaul of the content.

- General questions
- How does Ruby stack up against?
- Installing Ruby
- Variables, constants, and arguments
- Section 2.3.2.1 "FAQ Iterators", page 8,
- Section 2.3.2.2 "FAQ Syntax", page 10,
- Methods
- Classes and modules
- Built-in libraries
- Extension library
- Other features

2.3.2.1 FAQ Iterators

What is an iterator?

An iterator is a method which accepts a block or a Proc object. In the source file, the block is placed immediately after the invocation of the method. Iterators are used to produce user-defined control structures — especially loops.

Lets look at an example to see how this works. Iterators are often used to repeat the same action on each element of a collection, like this:

```
data = [1, 2, 3]
data.each do |i|
  puts i
end
```

The each method of the array data is passed the do ... end block, and executes it repeatedly. On each call, the block is passed successive elements of the array.

You can define blocks with { ... } in place of do ... end.

```
data = [1, 2, 3]
data.each { |i|
  puts i
}
```

This code has the same meaning as the last example. However, in some cases, precedence issues cause $do \dots end$ and $\{\dots\}$ to act differently.

```
foobar a, b do \dots end # foobar is the iterator. foobar a, b { \dots } # b is the iterator.
```

This is because { ... } binds more tightly to the preceding expression than does a do ... end block. The first example is equivalent to 'foobar(a, b) do ... end', while the second is 'foobar(a, b { ... })'.

How can I pass a block to an iterator?

You simply place the block after the iterator call. You can also pass a Proc object by prepending & to the variable or constant name that refers to the Proc.

How is a block used in an iterator?

This section or parts of it might be out-dated or in need of confirmation.

There are three ways to execute a block from an iterator method:

1. the yield control structure;

The yield statement calls the block, optionally passing it one or more arguments.

```
def my_iterator
  yield 1, 2
end

my_iterator {|a, b| puts a, b }
```

2. calling a Proc argument (made from a block) with call;

If a method definition has a block argument (the last formal parameter has an ampersand (&) prepended), it will receive the attached block, converted to a Proc object. This may be called using prc.call(args).

```
def my_iterator(&b)
  b.call(1, 2)
end

my_iterator {|a, b| puts a, b }
```

3. using Proc.new followed by a call.

and

Proc.new (or the equivalent proc or lambda calls), when used in an iterator definition, takes the block which is given to the method as its argument and generates a procedure object from it. (proc and lambda are effectively synonyms.)

[Update needed: lambda behaves in a slightly different way and produces a warning 'tried to create Proc object without a block'.]

```
def my_iterator
  Proc.new.call(3, 4)
  proc.call(5, 6)
  lambda.call(7, 8)
end

my_iterator {|a, b| puts a, b }
```

Perhaps surprisingly, Proc.new and friends do not in any sense consume the block attached to the method — each call to Proc.new generates a new procedure object out of the same block.

You can tell if there is a block associated with a method by calling block_given?.

What does Proc.new without a block do?

Proc.new without a block cannot generate a procedure object and an error occurs. In a method definition, however, Proc.new without a block implies the existence of a block at the time the method is called, and so no error will occur.

How can I run iterators in parallel?

See http://blade.nagaokaut.ac.jp/cgi-bin/scat.rb/ruby/ruby-talk/5252

2.3.2.2 FAQ Syntax

```
List of FAQ items:
```

```
"FAQ Syntax", page 10,
"FAQ Syntax", page 11,
"FAQ Syntax", page 11,
"FAQ Syntax", page 11,
"FAQ Syntax", page 11,
"FAQ Syntax", page 12,
"FAQ Syntax", page 12,
"FAQ Syntax", page 12,
"FAQ Syntax", page 12,
"FAQ Syntax", page 13,
```

What is the difference between an immediate value and a reference?

Fixnum, true, nil, and false are implemented as immediate values. With immediate values, variables hold the objects themselves, rather than references to them.

Singleton methods cannot be defined for such objects. Two Fixnums of the same value always represent the same object instance, so (for example) instance variables for the Fixnum with the value 1 are shared between all the 1's in the system. This makes it impossible to define a singleton method for just one of these.

What is the difference between nil and false?

First the similarity: **nil** and **false** are the only two objects that evaluate to **false** in a boolean context. (In other words: they are the only "falsy" values; all other objects are "truthy".)

However, nil and false are instances of different classes (NilClass and FalseClass), and have different behavior elsewhere.

We recommend that *predicate methods* (those whose name ends with a question mark) return true or false. Other methods that need to indicate failure should return nil.

The Empty String

An empty string ("") returns true in a conditional expression! In Perl, its false. Its very simple: in Ruby, only nil and false are false in conditional contexts.

You can use empty?, compare the string to "", or compare the strings size or length to 0 to find out if a string is empty.

A Symbol Object

What does : name mean?

A colon followed by a name generates a *Symbol object* which corresponds one-to-one with the identifier. During the duration of a program's execution the same Symbol object will be created for a given name or string. Symbols can also be created with "name".intern or "name".to_sym.

Symbol objects can represent identifiers for methods, variables, and so on. Some methods, like define_method, method_missing, or trace_var, require a symbol. Other methods, e.g. attr_accessor, send, or autoload, also accept a string.

Due to the fact that they are created only once, Symbols are often used as hash keys. String hash keys would create a new object for every single use, thereby causing some memory overhead. There is even a special syntax for symbol hash keys:

```
person_1 = { :name => "John", :age => 42 }
person_2 = { name: "Jane", age: 24 } # alternate syntax
```

Symbols can also be used as enumeration values or to assign unique values to constants:

```
status = :open # :closed, ...
NORTH = :NORTH
SOUTH = :SOUTH
```

How can I access the value of a symbol?

To get the value of the variable corresponding to a symbol, you can use symbol.to_s or "#{symbol}" to get the name of the variable, and then eval that in the scope of the symbol to get the variables contents:

```
a = "This is the content of 'a'"
b = eval("#{:a}")
a.object_id == b.object_id # => true

You can also use:
b = binding.local_variable_get(:a)

If your symbol corresponds to the name of a method, you can use send:
class Demo
    def hello
        "Hello, world"
    end
end

demo = Demo.new
    demo.send(:hello)
```

Or you can use Object#method to return a corresponding Method object, which you may then call:

```
m = demo.method(:hello) # => #<Method: Demo#hello>
m.call # => "Hello, world"
```

Is loop a control structure?

Although loop looks like a control structure, it is actually a method defined in Kernel. The block which follows introduces a new scope for local variables.

Ruby doesn't have a post-test loop

Ruby does not have a do { ... } while construct, so how can I implement loops that test the condition at the end?

Clemens Hintze says: "You can use a combination of Rubys begin ... end and the while or until statement modifiers to achieve the same effect:

```
i = 0
begin
  puts "i = #{i}"
  i += 1
end until i > 4
```

Why cant I pass a hash literal to a method: p {}?

The {} is parsed as a block, not a Hash constructor. You can force the {} to be treated as an expression by making the fact that it's a parameter explicit: p({}).

I cant get def pos=(val) to work!

I have the following code, but I cannot use the method pos = 1.

```
def pos=(val)
  @pos = val
  puts @pos
end
```

Methods with = appended must be called with an explicit receiver (without the receiver, you are just assigning to a local variable). Invoke it as self.pos = 1.

What is the difference between 1 and 1?

They have the same meaning. In a single quoted string, only \' and \\ are transformed and other combinations remain unchanged.

However, in a double quoted string, "1" is the byte 001 (an octal bit pattern), while "1" is the two character string containing a backslash and the character "1".

What is the difference between .. and ...?

... includes the right hand side in the range, while ... does not:

```
(5..8).to_a # => [5, 6, 7, 8]
(5...8).to_a # => [5, 6, 7]
```

What is the difference between or and ||?

```
p(nil | | "Hello") prints "Hello", while p(nil or "Hello") gives a parse error. Why? or has a very low precedence; p((nil or "Hello")) will work.
```

The precedence of $\circ r$ is for instance also lower than that of =, whereas $|\cdot|$ has a higher precedence:

```
foo = nil || "Hello"  # parsed as: foo = (nil || "Hello")
foo  # => "Hello"

# but perhaps surprisingly:

foo = nil or "Hello"  # parsed as: (foo = nil) or "Hello"
foo  # => nil
```

or (and similarly and) is best used, not for combining boolean expressions, but for control flow, like in:

```
do_something or raise "some error!"
```

where do_something returns false or nil when an error occurs.

Does Ruby have function pointers?

A Proc object generated by Proc.new, proc, or lambda can be referenced from a variable, so that variable could be said to be a function pointer. You can also get references to methods within a particular object instance using object.method.

What is the difference between load and require?

load will load and execute a Ruby program (*.rb).

require loads Ruby programs as well, but will also load binary Ruby extension modules (shared libraries or DLLs). In addition, require ensures that a feature is never loaded more than once.

Does Ruby have exception handling?

Ruby supports a flexible exception handling scheme:

```
begin
statements which may raise exceptions
rescue [exception class names]
statements when an exception occurred
rescue [exception class names]
statements when an exception occurred
ensure
statements that will always run
end
```

If an exception occurs in the begin clause, the rescue clause with the matching exception name is executed. The ensure clause is executed whether an exception occurred or not. rescue and ensure clauses may be omitted.

If no exception class is designated for a rescue clause, StandardError exception is implied, and exceptions which are in a is_a? relation to StandardError are captured.

This expression returns the value of the begin clause.

The latest exception is accessed by the global variable \$! (and so its type can be determined using \$!.type).

2.3.2.3 FAQ Methods

How does Ruby choose which method to invoke?

```
Are +, -, *, ... operators?
```

Where are ++ and --?

What is a singleton method?

All these objects are fine, but does Ruby have any simple functions?

So where do all these function-like methods come from?

Can I access an objects instance variables?

Whats the difference between private and protected?

How can I change the visibility of a method?

Can an identifier beginning with a capital letter be a method name?

Calling super gives an ArgumentError.

How can I call the method of the same name two levels up?

How can I invoke an original built-in method after redefining it?

What is a destructive method?

Why can destructive methods be dangerous?

Can I return multiple values from a method?

2.3.2.4 FAQ Classes and Modules

Can a class definition be repeated?

Are there class variables?

What is a class instance variable?

What is the difference between class variables and class instance variables?

Does Ruby have class methods?

What is a singleton class?

What is a module function?

What is the difference between a class and a module?

Can you subclass modules?

Give me an example of a mixin

Why are there two ways of defining class methods?

What is the difference between include and extend?

What does self mean?

2.3.2.5 FAQ Built-In Libraries

What does instance_methods(false) return?

How do random number seeds work?

I read a file and changed it, but the file on disk has not changed.

How can I process a file and update its contents?

I wrote a file, copied it, but the end of the copy seems to be lost.

How can I get the line number in the current input file?

How can I use less to display my programs output?

What happens to a File object which is no longer referenced?

I feel uneasy if I dont close a file.

How can I sort files by their modification time?

How can I count the frequency of words in a file?

How can I sort strings in alphabetical order?

How can I expand tabs to spaces?

How can I escape a backslash in a regular expression?

What is the difference between sub and sub!?

Where does \Z match?

What is the difference between thread and fork?

How can I use Marshal?

How can I use trap?

2.3.2.6 FAQ Extension Library

How can I use Ruby interactively?

Is there a debugger for Ruby?

How can I use a library written in C from Ruby?

Can I use Tcl/Tk in Ruby?

Tk won't work. Why?

Can I use gtk+ or xforms interfaces in Ruby?

How can I do date arithmetic?

2.3.2.7 FAQ Other Features

What does a? b: c mean?

How can I count the number of lines in a file?

What do MatchData#begin and MatchData#end return?

How can I sum the elements in an array?

How can I use continuations?

2.3.3 Ruby Koans

Ruby Koans

The Koans walk you along the path to enlightenment in order to learn Ruby. The goal is to learn the Ruby language, syntax, structure, and some common functions and libraries. We also teach you culture.

2.3.4 Whys (Poignant) Guide to Ruby

Why's Guide to Ruby

An unconventional but interesting book that will teach you Ruby through stories, wit, and comics. Originally created by why the lucky stiff, this guide remains a classic for Ruby learners.

2.3.5 Ruby in Twenty Minutes

Ruby in Twenty Minutes

A nice tutorial covering the basics of Ruby. From start to finish it shouldnt take you more than twenty minutes. It makes the assumption that you already have Ruby installed. (If you do not have Ruby on your computer install it before you get started.)

2.3.5.1 Interactive Ruby

Ruby comes with a program that will show the results of any Ruby statements you feed it. Playing with Ruby code in interactive sessions like this is a terrific way to learn the language.

Open up IRB (which stands for Interactive Ruby).

The second line is just IRBs way of telling us the result of the last expression it evaluated. To print:

```
irb(main):002:0> puts "Hello World"

⊢ Hello World

⇒ nil
⊢ irb(main):003:0>
```

puts is the basic command to print something out in Ruby. But then whats the '=> nil' bit? Thats the result of the expression. puts always returns nil, which is Rubys absolutely-positively-nothing value.

2.3.5.2 Defining Methods

Define a method:

```
irb(main):010:0> def hi
irb(main):011:1> puts "Hello World!"
irb(main):012:1> end
=> :hi
```

The code 'def hi' starts the definition of the method. The next line is the body of the method. Finally, the last line end tells Ruby were done defining the method. Rubys response \dashv => :hi tells us that it knows we're done defining the method.

Try running that method a few times:

```
irb(main):013:0> hi
Hello World!
=> nil
irb(main):014:0> hi()
Hello World!
=> nil
```

If the method doesn't take parameters that's all you need. You can add empty parentheses if youd like, but theyre not needed.

Define Method with a Parameter

What if we want to say hello to one person, and not the whole world? Just redefine hi to take a name as a parameter.

```
irb(main):015:0> def hi(name)
irb(main):016:1> puts "Hello #{name}!"
irb(main):017:1> end
=> :hi
irb(main):018:0> hi("Matz")
Hello Matz!
=> nil
```

What's the #{name} bit? That's Ruby's way of inserting something into a string. The bit between the braces is turned into a string (if it isnt one already) and then substituted into the outer string at that point. You can also use this to make sure that someone's name is properly capitalized:

```
irb(main):019:0> def hi(name = "World")
irb(main):020:1> puts "Hello #{name.capitalize}!"
irb(main):021:1> end
=> :hi
irb(main):022:0> hi "chris"
Hello Chris!
=> nil
irb(main):023:0> hi
```

```
Hello World!
=> nil
```

A couple of other tricks to spot here. One is that we're calling the method without parentheses again. If it's obvious what youre doing, the parentheses are optional. The other trick is the default parameter World. What this is saying is "If the name isn't supplied, use the default name of "World".

Create a Class

What if we want a real greeter around, one that remembers your name and welcomes you and treats you always with respect. You might want to use an object for that. Lets create a Greeter class.

```
irb(main):024:0> class Greeter
irb(main):025:1>
                   def initialize(name = "World")
irb(main):026:2>
                     @name = name
irb(main):027:2>
                   end
irb(main):028:1>
                   def say_hi
irb(main):029:2>
                     puts "Hi #{@name}!"
irb(main):030:2>
                   end
irb(main):031:1>
                   def say_bye
                     puts "Bye #{@name}, come back soon."
irb(main):032:2>
irb(main):033:2>
irb(main):034:1> end
=> :say_bye
```

The new keyword here is class. This defines a new class called **Greeter** and a bunch of methods for that class. Also notice **@name**. This is an instance variable, and is available to all the methods of the class. As you can see its used by **say_hi** and **say_bye**.

Create an Object

Now lets create a greeter object and use it:

```
irb(main):035:0> greeter = Greeter.new("Pat")
=> #<Greeter:0x16cac @name="Pat">
irb(main):036:0> greeter.say_hi
Hi Pat!
=> nil
irb(main):037:0> greeter.say_bye
Bye Pat, come back soon.
=> nil
```

Instance Variables

Instance variables are hidden away inside the object. Theyre not terribly hidden, you see them whenever you inspect the object, and there are other ways of accessing them, but Ruby uses the good object-oriented approach of keeping data sort-of hidden away.

So what methods do exist for Greeter objects?

```
'Object#instance_methods'
irb(main):039:0> Greeter.instance_methods
```

We only defined two methods. Whats going on here? Well this is all of the methods for Greeter objects, a complete list, including ones defined by ancestor classes. If we want to just list methods defined for Greeter we can tell it to not include ancestors by passing it the parameter false, meaning we dont want methods defined by ancestors.

```
'Object#instance_methods(false)'
   irb(main):040:0> Greeter.instance_methods(false)
   => [:say_hi, :say_bye]
So lets see which methods our greeter object responds to:
'Object#respond_to?'
   irb(main):041:0> greeter.respond_to?("name")
   => false
   irb(main):042:0> greeter.respond_to?("say_hi")
   => true
   irb(main):043:0> greeter.respond_to?("to_s")
```

So, it knows say_hi, and to_s (meaning convert something to a string, a method that's defined by default for every object), but it doesn't know name.

2.3.5.3 Altering Classes

But what if you want to be able to view or change the name? Ruby provides an easy way of providing access to an object's variables.

```
'attr_accessor :name'
  irb(main):044:0> class Greeter
  irb(main):045:1> attr_accessor :name
  irb(main):046:1> end
  => nil
```

In Ruby, you can open a class up again and modify it. The changes will be present in any new objects you create and even available in existing objects of that class. So, lets create a new object and play with its **@name** property.

```
irb(main):047:0> greeter = Greeter.new("Andy")
=> #<Greeter:0x3c9b0 @name="Andy">
```

```
irb(main):048:0> greeter.respond_to?("name")
=> true
irb(main):049:0> greeter.respond_to?("name=")
=> true
irb(main):050:0> greeter.say_hi
Hi Andy!
=> nil
irb(main):051:0> greeter.name="Betty"
=> "Betty"
irb(main):052:0> greeter
=> #<Greeter:0x3c9b0 @name="Betty">
irb(main):053:0> greeter.name
=> "Betty"
irb(main):054:0> greeter.say_hi
Hi Betty!
=> nil
```

Using attr_accessor defined two new methods for us, name to get the value, and name= to set it.

2.3.5.4 Large Class Definition

What if we had some kind of MegaGreeter that could either greet the world, one person, or a whole list of people? Lets write this one in a file instead of directly in the interactive Ruby interpreter IRB.

```
{ri20min.rb} =
  #!/usr/bin/env ruby

class MegaGreeter
  attr_accessor :names

  <MegaGreeter—Initialize Method>
   <MegaGreeter—say_hi Method>
   <MegaGreeter—say_bye Method>
end

if __FILE__ == $0
  <MegaGreeter—Main Script>
end
```

The following table lists called chunk definition points.

Initialize Method

```
<MegaGreeter—Initialize Method> =
    # Create the object
    def initialize(names = "World")
        @names = names
    end
```

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

say_hi Method

The say_hi method has become a bit more complicated. It now looks at the @names instance variable to make decisions. If it's nil, it just prints out three dots. No point greeting nobody, right?

If the @names object responds to each, it is something that you can iterate over, so iterate over it and greet each person in turn. Finally, if @names is anything else, just let it get turned into a string automatically and do the default greeting.

```
<MegaGreeter—say_hi Method> =

# Say hi to everybody
def say_hi
    if @names.nil?
        puts "..."
    elsif @names.respond_to?("each")
        # @names is a list of some kind, iterate!
        @names.each do |name|
            puts "Hello #{name}!"
        end
    else
        puts "Hello #{@names}!"
    end
end
```

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

The Iterator

Lets look at that iterator in more depth:

```
@names.each do |name|
  puts "Hello #{name}!"
end
```

each is a method that accepts a block of code then runs that block of code for every element in a list, and the bit between do and end is just such a block. A block is like an anonymous function or lambda. The variable between pipe characters is the parameter for this block.

What happens here is that for every entry in a list, name is bound to that list element, and then the expression puts '"Hello #{name}!"' is run with that name.

Internally, the each method will essentially call yield "Albert", then yield "Brenda" and then yield "Charles", and so on.

The Real Power of Blocks

The real power of blocks is when dealing with things that are more complicated than lists. Beyond handling simple housekeeping details within the method, you can also handle setup, teardown, and errorsall hidden away from the cares of the user.

say_bye Method

The say_bye method doesn't use each; instead it checks to see if @names responds to the join method, and if so, uses it. Otherwise, it just prints out the variable as a string.

Duck Typing

This method of not caring about the actual type of a variable, just relying on what methods it supports is known as *Duck Typing*, as in "if it walks like a duck and quacks like a duck...". The benefit of this is that it doesn't unnecessarily restrict the types of variables that are supported. If someone comes up with a new kind of list class, as long as it implements the join method with the same semantics as other lists, everything will work as planned.

```
<MegaGreeter—say_bye Method> \equiv
```

```
# Say bye to everybody
def say_bye
  if @names.nil?
   puts "..."
  elsif @names.respond_to?("join")
    # Join the list elements with commas
   puts "Goodbye #{@names.join(", ")}. Come back soon!"
  else
   puts "Goodbye #{@names}. Come back soon!"
  end
end
```

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

MegaGreeter Main Script

Theres one final trick to notice, and thats the line:

```
if __FILE__ == $0
```

__FILE__ is the magic variable that contains the name of the current file. \$0 is the name of the file used to start the program. This check says "If this is the main file being used..." This allows a file to be used as a library, and not to execute code in that context, but if the file is being used as an executable, then execute that code.

```
<MegaGreeter—Main Script> =
    mg = MegaGreeter.new
    mg.say_hi
    mg.say_bye
```

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

2.3.5.5 Run MegaGreeter

Run the program ri20min.rb as 'ruby ri20min.rb'. The output should be:

```
Hello World!
Goodbye World. Come back soon!
Hello Zeke!
Goodbye Zeke. Come back soon!
Hello Albert!
Hello Brenda!
Hello Charles!
Hello Dave!
Hello Engelbert!
Goodbye Albert, Brenda, Charles, Dave, Engelbert. Come back soon!
...
```

2.3.6 Ruby from Other Languages

Ruby from Other Languages

This document contains two major sections. The first attempts to be a rapid-fire summary of what you can expect to see when going from language X to Ruby. The second section tackles the major language features and how they might compare to what youre already familiar with.

2.3.6.1 To Ruby From C and C++

Everything Is Differerent

It's difficult to write a bulleted list describing how your code will be different in Ruby from C or C++ because it's quite a large difference. One reason is that the Ruby runtime does so much for you. Ruby seems about as far as you can get from C's "no hidden mechanism"

principle—the whole point of Ruby is to make the human's job easier at the expense of making the runtime shoulder more of the work.

Ruby is Quicker to Code But Slower to Execute

That said, for one thing, you can expect your Ruby code to execute much more slowly than "equivalent" C or C++ code. At the same time, your head will spin at how rapidly you can get a Ruby program up and running, as well as at how few lines of code it will take to write it. Ruby is much much simpler than C++.

Dynamically Typed

Ruby is dynamically typed, rather than statically typed—the runtime does as much as possible at run-time. For example, you don't need to know what modules your Ruby program will "link to" (that is, load and use) or what methods it will call ahead of time.

Extension Modules

Happily, it turns out that Ruby and C have a healthy symbiotic relationship. Ruby supports so-called extension modules. These are modules that you can use from your Ruby programs (and which, from the outside, will look and act just like any other Ruby module), but which are written in C. In this way, you can compartmentalize the performance-critical parts of your Ruby software, and smelt those down to pure C.

And, of course, Ruby itself is written in C.

Similarities With C

- You may program procedurally if you like (but it will still be object-oriented behind the scenes).
- Most of the operators are the same (including the compound assignment and also bitwise operators). Though, Ruby doesnt have ++ or --.
- Ruby has __FILE__ and __LINE__.
- You can also have constants, though theres no special const keyword. Const-ness is enforced by a naming convention instead names starting with a capital letter are for constants.
- Strings go in double-quotes and are mutable
- Just like man pages, you can read most docs in your terminal window though using the ri command.
- Youve got the same sort of command-line debugger available.

Similarities with C++

- Youve got mostly the same operators (even ::). << is often used for appending elements to a list. One note though: with Ruby you never use -> it's always just ..
- public, private, and protected do similar jobs.
- Inheritance syntax is still only one character, but it's < instead of :.
- You may put your code into "modules", similar to how namespace in C++ is used.
- Exceptions work in a similar manner, though the keyword names have been changed to protect the innocent.

Differences From C

- You dont need to compile your code. You just run it directly.
- Objects are strongly typed (and variable names themselves have no type at all).
- Theres no macros or preprocessor; no casts; no pointers (nor pointer arithmetic); no typedefs, sizeof, or enums.
- There are no header files. You just define your functions (usually referred to as "methods") and classes in the main source code files.
- Theres no #define. Just use constants instead.
- All variables live on the heap. Further, you dont need to free them yourself the garbage collector takes care of that.
- Arguments to methods (i.e. functions) are passed by value, where the values are always object references.
- It's 'require 'foo' instead of '#include <foo>' or '#include "foo"'.
- You cannot drop down to assembly.
- Theres no semicolons ending lines.
- You go without parentheses for if and while condition expressions.
- Parentheses for method (i.e. function) calls are often optional.
- You dont usually use braces just end multi-line constructs (like while loops) with an end keyword.
- The do keyword is for so-called blocks. Theres no "do statement" like in C.
- The term *block* means something different. It's for a block of code that you associate with a method call so the method body can call out to the block while it executes.
- There are no variable declarations. You just assign to new names on-the-fly when you need them.
- When tested for truth, only false and nil evaluate to a false value. Everything else is true (including 0, 0.0, and "0").
- There is no char they are just 1-letter strings.
- Strings dont end with a null byte.
- Array literals go in brackets instead of braces.
- Arrays just automatically get bigger when you stuff more elements into them.
- If you add two arrays, you get back a new and bigger array (of course, allocated on the heap) instead of doing pointer arithmetic.
- More often than not, everything is an expression (that is, things like while statements actually evaluate to an rvalue).

Differences from C++

- Theres no explicit references. That is, in Ruby, every variable is just an automatically dereferenced name for some object.
- Objects are strongly but *dynamically* typed. The runtime discovers *at runtime* if that method call actually works.
- The constructor is called initialize instead of the class name.

- All methods are always virtual.
- "Class" (static) variable names always begin with @@ (as in @@total_widgets).
- You dont directly access member variables all access to public member variables (known in Ruby as *attributes*) is via methods.
- It's self instead of this.
- Some methods end in a ? or a !. It's actually part of the method name.
- There's no multiple inheritance per se. Though Ruby has *mixins* (i.e. you can "inherit" all instance methods of a module).
- There are some enforced case-conventions (ex. class names start with a capital letter, variables start with a lowercase letter).
- Parentheses for method calls are usually optional.
- You can re-open a class anytime and add more methods.
- Theres no need of C++ templates (since you can assign any kind of object to a given variable, and types get figured out at runtime anyway). No casting either.
- Iteration is done a bit differently. In Ruby, you don't use a separate iterator object (like vector<T>::const_iterator iter). Instead you use an iterator method of the container object (like each) that takes a block of code to which it passes successive elements.
- Theres only two container types: Array and Hash.
- Theres no type conversions. With Ruby though, youll probably find that they arent necessary.
- Multithreading is built-in, but as of Ruby 1.8 they are green threads (implemented only within the interpreter) as opposed to native threads.
- A unit testing lib comes standard with Ruby.

2.3.6.2 To Ruby From Java

Ruby is Less Verbose

Java is mature. It's tested. And it's fast (contrary to what the anti-Java crowd may still claim). It's also quite verbose. Going from Java to Ruby, expect your code size to shrink down considerably. You can also expect it to take less time to knock together quick prototypes.

Similarities with Java

- Memory is managed for you via a garbage collector.
- Objects are strongly typed.
- There are public, private, and protected methods.
- There are embedded doc tools (Ruby's is called RDoc). The docs generated by rdoc look very similar to those generated by javadoc.

Differences From Java

• You don't need to compile your code. You just run it directly.

- There are several different popular third-party GUI toolkits. Ruby users can try WxRuby, FXRuby, Ruby-GNOME2, Qt, or the bundled-in Ruby Tk for example.
- You use the end keyword after defining things like classes, instead of having to put braces around blocks of code.
- You have require instead of import.
- All member variables are private. From the outside, you access everything via methods.
- Parentheses in method calls are usually optional and often omitted.
- Everything is an object, including numbers like 2 and 3.14159.
- Theres no static type checking.
- Variable names are just labels. They don't have a type associated with them.
- There are no type declarations. You just assign to new variable names as-needed and they just "spring up" (i.e. 'a = [1,2,3]' rather than 'int[] a = {1,2,3};').
- Theres no casting. Just call the methods. Your unit tests should tell you before you even run the code if youre going to see an exception.
- It's 'foo = Foo.new("hi")' instead of 'Foo foo = new Foo("hi")'.
- The constructor is always named initialize instead of the name of the class.
- You have "mixins" instead of interfaces.
- YAML tends to be favored over XML.
- It's nil instead of null.
- == and equals() are handled differently in Ruby. Use == when you want to test "equivalence" in Ruby (equals() in Java). Use equal?() when you want to know if two objects are "the same" (== in Java).

2.3.6.3 To Ruby From Perl

Perl is awesome. Perl's docs are awesome. The Perl community is — awesome. However, the language is fairly large and arguably complex. For those Perlers who long for a simpler time, a more orthogonal language, and elegant OO features built-in from the beginning, Ruby may be for you.

Similarities with Perl

- Youve got a package management system, somewhat like CPAN (though its called RubyGems).
- Regexes are built right in.
- There's a fairly large number of commonly-used built-ins.
- Parentheses are often optional.
- Strings work basically the same.
- Theres a general delimited string and regex quoting syntax similar to Perls. It looks like %q{this} (single-quoted), or %Q{this} (double-quoted), and %w{this for a single-quoted

list of words}. You %Q|can| %Q(use) %Q^other^ delimiters if you like.

- Youve got double-quotish variable interpolation, though it "looks #{like} this" (and you can put any Ruby code you like inside that #{}).
- Shell command expansion uses 'backticks'.
- Youve got embedded doc tools (Rubys is called rdoc).

Differences From Perl

- You don't have the context-dependent rules like with Perl.
- A variable isn't the same as the object to which it refers. Instead, it's always just a reference to an object.
- Although \$ and @ are used as the first character in variable names sometimes, rather than indicating type, they indicate scope (\$ for globals, @ for object instance, and @@ for class attributes).
- Array literals go in brackets instead of parentheses.
- Composing lists of other lists does not flatten them into one big list. Instead you get an array of arrays.
- It's def instead of sub.
- There's no semicolons needed at the end of each line. Incidentally, you end things like function definitions, class definitions, and case statements with the end keyword.
- Objects are strongly typed. Youll be manually calling foo.to_i, foo.to_s, etc., if you need to convert between types.
- Theres no eq, ne, lt, gt, ge, nor le.
- Theres no diamond operator (<>). You usually use IO.some_method instead.
- The fat comma => is only used for hash literals.
- Theres no undef. In Ruby you have nil. nil is an object (like anything else in Ruby). It's not the same as an undefined variable. It evaluates to false if you treat it like a boolean.
- When tested for truth, only false and nil evaluate to a false value. Everything else is true (including 0, 0.0, and "0").

2.3.6.4 To Ruby From PHP

PHP is in widespread use for web applications, but if you want to use Ruby on Rails or just want a language thats more tailored for general use, Ruby is worth a look.

Similarities with PHP

- Ruby is dynamically typed, like in PHP, so you dont need to worry about having to declare variables.
- There are classes, and you can control access to them like in PHP 5 (public, protected and private).
- Some variables start with \$, like in PHP (but not all).
- There's eval, too.
- You can use string interpolation. Instead of doing "\$foo is a \$bar", you can do "#{foo} is a #{bar}" like in PHP, this doesnt apply for single-quoted strings.

- Theres heredocs.
- Ruby has exceptions, like PHP 5.
- Theres a fairly large standard library.
- Arrays and hashes work like expected, if you exchange array() for { and }: array('a' => 'b') becomes {'a' => 'b'}.
- true and false behave like in PHP, but null is called nil.

Differences From PHP

- Theres strong typing. Youll need to call to_s, to_i etc. to convert between strings, integers and so on, instead of relying on the language to do it.
- Strings, numbers, arrays, hashes, etc. are objects. Instead of calling abs(-1) its -1.abs.
- Parentheses are optional in method calls, except to clarify which parameters go to which method calls.
- The standard library and extensions are organized in modules and classes.
- Reflection is an inherent capability of objects; you don't need to use Reflection classes like in PHP 5.
- Variables are references.
- Theres no abstract classes or interfaces.
- Hashes and arrays are not interchangeable.
- Only false and nil are false: 0, array() and "" are all true in conditionals.
- Almost everything is a method call, even raise (throw in PHP).

2.3.6.5 To Ruby From Python

Python is another very nice general purpose programming language. Going from Python to Ruby, you'll find that there's a little bit more syntax to learn than with Python.

Similarities With Python

- Theres an interactive prompt (called irb).
- You can read docs on the command line (with the ri command instead of pydoc).
- There are no special line terminators (except the usual newline).
- String literals can span multiple lines like Python's triple-quoted strings.
- Brackets are for lists, and braces are for dicts (which, in Ruby, are called "hashes").
- Arrays work the same (adding them makes one long array, but composing them like this 'a3 = [a1, a2]' gives you an array of arrays).
- Objects are strongly and dynamically typed.
- Everything is an object, and variables are just references to objects.
- Although the keywords are a bit different, exceptions work about the same.
- Youve got embedded doc tools (Rubys is called rdoc).
- There is good support for functional programming with first-class functions, anonymous functions, and closures.

Differences From Python

- Strings are mutable.
- You can make constants (variables whose value you dont intend to change).
- There are some enforced case-conventions (ex. class names start with a capital letter, variables start with a lowercase letter).
- There's only one kind of list container (an Array), and it's mutable.
- Double-quoted strings allow escape sequences (like \t) and a special "expression substitution" syntax (which allows you to insert the results of Ruby expressions directly into other strings without having to "add " + "strings " + "together"). Single-quoted strings are like Python's r"raw strings".
- There are no "new style" and "old style" classes. Just one kind. (Python 3+ doesnt have this issue, but it isnt fully backward compatible with Python 2.)
- You never directly access attributes. With Ruby, its all method calls.
- Parentheses for method calls are usually optional.
- There's public, private, and protected to enforce access, instead of Python's _ voluntary_ underscore __convention__.
- "mixins" are used instead of multiple inheritance.
- You can add or modify the methods of built-in classes. Both languages let you open up and modify classes at any point, but Python prevents modification of built-ins Ruby does not.
- Youve got true and false instead of True and False (and nil instead of None).
- When tested for truth, only false and nil evaluate to a false value. Everything else is true (including 0, 0.0, "", and []).
- It's elsif instead of elif.
- It's require instead of import. Otherwise though, usage is the same.
- The usual-style comments on the line(s) above things (instead of docstrings below them) are used for generating docs.
- There are a number of shortcuts that, although give you more to remember, you quickly learn. They tend to make Ruby fun and very productive.
- Theres no way to unset a variable once set (like Python's del statement). You can reset a variable to nil, allowing the old contents to be garbage collected, but the variable will remain in the symbol table as long as it is in scope.
- The yield keyword behaves differently. In Python it will return execution to the scope outside the function's invocation. External code is responsible for resuming the function. In Ruby yield will execute another function that has been passed as the final argument, then immediately resume.
- Python supports just one kind of anonymous functions, lambdas, while Ruby contains blocks, Procs, and lambdas.

2.3.7 Important Language Features

Here are some pointers and hints on major Ruby features you'll see while learning Ruby.

2.3.7.1 Pointers on Iteration

Two Ruby features that are a bit unlike what you may have seen before, and which take some getting used to, are "blocks" and iterators. Instead of looping over an index (like with C, C++, or pre-1.5 Java), or looping over a list (like Perl's for (@a) {...}, or Python's for i naList: ...), with Ruby you'll very often instead see:

```
some_list.each do |this_item|
  # We're inside the block.
  # deal with this_item.
end
```

For more info on each and its friends

- collect,
- find,
- inject,
- sort,

etc., see ri Enumerable (and then ri Enumerable#some_method).

2.3.7.2 Everything has a value

Theres no difference between an expression and a statement. Everything has a value, even if that value is nil. This is possible:

2.3.7.3 Symbols are not lightweight Strings

Many Ruby newbies struggle with understanding what Symbols are, and what they can be used for.

Symbols can best be described as identities. A symbol is all about who it is, not what it is. Fire up irb and see the difference:

```
irb(main):001:0> :george.object_id == :george.object_id
=> true
irb(main):002:0> "george".object_id == "george".object_id
=> false
irb(main):003:0>
```

The object_id methods returns the identity of an Object. If two objects have the same object_id, they are the same (point to the same Object in memory).

As you can see, once you have used a Symbol once, any Symbol with the same characters references the same Object in memory. For any given two Symbols that represent the same characters, the object_ids match.

Now take a look at the String (george). The object_ids don't match. That means they're referencing two different objects in memory. Whenever you use a new String, Ruby allocates memory for it.

If you're in doubt whether to use a Symbol or a String, consider whats more important: the identity of an object (i.e. a Hash key), or the contents (in the example above, george).

2.3.7.4 Everything is an Object

```
"Everything is an object" isn't just hyperbole. Even classes and integers are objects, and you can do the same things with them as with any other object:
```

```
# This is the same as
# class MyClass
# attr_accessor :instance_var
# end
MyClass = Class.new do
   attr_accessor :instance_var
end
```

2.3.7.5 Variable Constants

Constants are not really constant. If you modify an already initialized constant, it will trigger a warning, but not halt your program. That isn't to say you should redefine constants, though.

2.3.7.6 Naming conventions

Ruby enforces some naming conventions. If an identifier starts with a capital letter, it is a constant. If it starts with a dollar sign (\$), it is a global variable. If it starts with @, it is an instance variable. If it starts with @@, it is a class variable.

Method names, however, are allowed to start with capital letters. This can lead to confusion, as the example below shows:

```
Constant = 10
def Constant
   11
end
```

Now Constant is 10, but Constant() is 11.

2.3.7.7 Keyword arguments

Like in Python, since Ruby 2.0 methods can be defined using keyword arguments:

```
def deliver(from: "A", to: nil, via: "mail")
   "Sending from #{from} to #{to} via #{via}."
end

deliver(to: "B")
# => "Sending from A to B via mail."
deliver(via: "Pony Express", from: "B", to: "A")
# => "Sending from B to A via Pony Express."
```

2.3.7.8 The universal truth

In Ruby, everything except nil and false is considered true. In C, Python and many other languages, 0 and possibly other values, such as empty lists, are considered false. Take a look at the following Python code (the example applies to other languages, too):

```
# in Python
if 0:
    print("0 is true")
else:
    print("0 is false")
This will print '0 is false'. The equivalent Ruby:
    # in Ruby
    if 0
        puts "0 is true"
    else
        puts "0 is false"
    end
Prints '0 is true'.
```

2.3.7.9 Access modifiers are Methods

Access modifiers apply until the end of scope.

```
In the following Ruby code,
  class MyClass
    private
    def a_method; true; end
    def another_method; false; end
  end
```

You might expect another_method to be public. Not so. The private access modifier continues until the end of the scope, or until another access modifier pops up, whichever comes first. By default, methods are public:

```
class MyClass
  # Now a_method is public
  def a_method; true; end

private

# another_method is private
  def another_method; false; end
end
```

- public,
- private and
- protected

are really methods, so they can take parameters. If you pass a Symbol to one of them, that methods visibility is altered.

2.3.7.10 Method access

In Java, public means a method is accessible by anyone. protected means the class's instances, instances of descendant classes, and instances of classes in the same package can access it, but not anyone else; and private means nobody besides the class's instances can access the method.

Ruby differs slightly. public is, naturally, public. private means the method(s) are accessible only when they can be called without an explicit receiver. Only self is allowed to be the receiver of a private method call.

protected is the one to be on the lookout for. A protected method can be called from a class or descendant class instances, but also with another instance as its receiver. Here is an example (adapted from The Ruby Language FAQ):

```
class Test
 # public by default
 def identifier
   99
 end
 def ==(other)
   identifier == other.identifier
 end
end
t1 = Test.new # => #<Test:0x34ab50>
t2 = Test.new # => #<Test:0x342784>
t1 == t2
             # => true
# now make 'identifier' protected; it still works
# because protected allows 'other' as receiver
class Test
 protected :identifier
end
t1 == t2 # => true
# now make 'identifier' private
class Test
 private :identifier
end
t1 == t2
# NoMethodError: private method 'identifier' called for #<Test:0x342784>
```

2.3.7.11 Classes are open

Ruby classes are open. You can open them up, add to them, and change them at any time. Even core classes, like Fixnum or even Object, the parent of all objects. Ruby on Rails defines a bunch of methods for dealing with time on Fixnum. Watch:

```
class Fixnum
  def hours
    self * 3600 # number of seconds in an hour
  end
  alias hour hours
end
# 14 hours from 00:00 January 1st
# (aka when you finally wake up ;)
Time.mktime(2006, 01, 01) + 14.hours # => Sun Jan 01 14:00:00
```

2.3.7.12 Funny method names

In Ruby, methods are allowed to end with question marks or exclamation marks. By convention, methods that answer questions end in question marks (e.g. Array#empty?, which returns true if the receiver is empty). Potentially "dangerous" methods by convention end with exclamation marks (e.g. methods that modify self or the arguments, exit!, etc.). Not all methods that change their arguments end with exclamation marks, though. Array#replace replaces the contents of an array with the contents of another array. It doesn't make much sense to have a method like that that doesn't modify self.

2.3.7.13 Singleton methods

Singleton methods are per-object methods. They are only available on the Object you defined it on.

```
class Car
  def inspect
    "Cheap car"
  end
end

porsche = Car.new
porsche.inspect # => Cheap car
def porsche.inspect
  "Expensive car"
end

porsche.inspect # => Expensive car
# Other objects are not affected
other_car = Car.new
other_car.inspect # => Cheap car
```

2.3.7.14 Missing methods

Ruby doesn't give up if it can't find a method that responds to a particular message. It calls the method_missing method with the name of the method it couldn't find and the arguments. By default, method_missing raises a NameError exception, but you can redefine it to better fit your application, and many libraries do. Here is an example:

The code above just prints the details of the call, but you are free to handle the message in any way that is appropriate.

2.3.7.15 Message passing, not function calls

A method call is really a "message" to another object:

```
# This
1 + 2
# Is the same as this ...
1.+(2)
# Which is the same as this:
1.send "+", 2
```

2.3.7.16 Blocks are Objects

Blocks (closures, really) are heavily used by the standard library. To call a block, you can either use yield, or make it a Proc by appending a special argument to the argument list, like so:

```
def block(&the_block)
    # Inside here, the_block is the block passed to the method
    the_block # return the block
end
adder = block { |a, b| a + b }
# adder is now a Proc object
adder.class # => Proc
```

You can create blocks outside of method calls, too, by calling Proc.new with a block or calling the lambda method.

Similarly, methods are also Objects in the making:

```
method(:puts).call "puts is an object!"
# => puts is an object!
```

2.3.7.17 Operators are syntactic sugar

Most operators in Ruby are just syntactic sugar (with some precedence rules) for method calls. You can, for example, override Fixnums + method:

```
class Fixnum
  # You can, but please don't do this
  def +(other)
    self - other
  end
end
```

You dont need C++'s operator+, etc.

You can even have array-style access if you define the [] and []= methods. To define the unary + and - (think '+1' and '-2'), you must define the +0 and -0 methods, respectively. The operators below are not syntactic sugar, though. They are not methods, and cannot be redefined:

```
=, .., ..., not, &&, and, ||, or, ::
```

In addition, '+=, *=' etc. are just abbreviations for 'var = var + other_var', 'var = var * other_var', etc. and therefore cannot be redefined.

2.3.8 Learning Ruby

Learning Ruby

A thorough collection of Ruby study notes for those who are new to the language and in search of a solid introduction to Rubys concepts and constructs.

2.3.9 Ruby Essentials

Ruby Essentials

Ruby Essentials is a free on-line book designed to provide a concise and easy to follow [sic] guide to learning Ruby.

2.3.9.1 Interactive Ruby Execution

Interactive Ruby code is entered using the irb tool.

Once irb is installed, launch it as follows:

```
$ irb
irb(main):001:0>
Now, we can begin to execute Ruby code:
irb(main):001:0> puts 'Hello Ruby'
Hello Ruby
=> nil
irb(main):002:0>
```

2.3.9.2 Block Ruby Commenets

Multiple lines of text or code can be defined as comments using the Ruby =begin and =end comment markers. These are known as the comment block markers.

2.3.9.3 Variable Scope

Scope defines where in a program a variable is accessible. Ruby has four types of variable scope, plus one constant type. Each variable type is declared by using a special character at the start of the variable name as outlined in the following table.

local	[a-z] or $$
global	\$
instance	0
class	@@
constant	[A-Z]

Detecting The Scope Of A Variable

Sometimes you need to find out the scope programmatically. A useful technique to find out the scope of a variable is to use the defined? method. defined? will return the scope of the variable referenced, or nil if the variable is not defined in the current context.

```
x = 10
=> 10
defined? x
=> "local-variable"

$x = 10
=> 10
defined? $x
=> "global-variable"
```

Predefined Global Variables

```
See "Files API", page 78,
$@
           The location of latest error
$_
           The string last read by gets
$.
           The line number last read by interpreter
           The string last matched by regexp
$&
$~
           The last regexp match, as an array of subexpressions
$n
           The nth subexpression in the last match (same as $~[n])
$=
           The case-insensitivity flag
$/
           The input record separator
$\
           The output record separator
$0
           The name of the ruby script file currently executing
```

- ****** The command line arguments used to invoke the script
- \$\$ The Ruby interpreter's process ID
- \$? The exit status of last executed child process

2.3.10 Learn to Program

Learn to Program

A wonderful little tutorial by Chris Pine for programming newbies. If you don't know how to program, start here.

Learn Ruby the Hard Way

2.4 Manuals

2.4.1 Ruby User's Guide

Translated from the original Japanese version written by Yukihiro Matsumoto (the creator of Ruby), this version, by Goto Kentaro and Mark Slagell, is a nice overview of many aspects of the Ruby language.

Ruby User's Guide

2.4.1.1 On What Ruby Is

Ruby is "an interpreted scripting language for quick and easy object-oriented programming" — what does this mean?

interpreted scripting language:

- ability to make operating system calls directly
- powerful string operations and regular expressions
- immediate feedback during development

quick and easy:

- variable declarations are unnecessary
- variables are not typed
- syntax is simple and consistent
- memory management is automatic

object oriented programming:

- everything is an object
- classes, methods, inheritance, etc.
- singleton methods
- "mixin" functionality by module
- iterators and closures

also:

- multiple precision integers
- convenient exception processing

- dynamic loading
- threading support

2.4.1.2 On Simple Examples

Factorial in Ruby

Let's write a function to compute factorials. The mathematical definition of n factorial is:

Command Line Arguments — In Array ARGV

ARGV is an array which contains the command line arguments, and to_i converts a character string to an integer.¹

The end Statement

You may notice the repeated occurrence of end. Ruby has been called "Algol-like" because of this. (Actually, the syntax of ruby more closely mimics that of a language named Eiffel.)

Takeaway — return Statement Optional

You may also notice the lack of a return statement.

[A return statement] is unneeded because a ruby function returns the last thing that was evaluated in it. Use of a return statement here is permissible but unnecessary.

Running fact.rb

Ruby can deal with any integer which is allowed by your machine's memory. So 400! can be calculated:

```
% ruby fact.rb 1
```

¹ Ruby does not convert strings into integers automatically like perl does.

```
% ruby fact.rb 5
120
% ruby fact.rb 40
815915283247897734345611269596115894272000000000
% ruby fact.rb 400
64034522846623895262347970319503005850702583026002959458684
44594280239716918683143627847864746326467629435057503585681
08482981628835174352289619886468029979373416541508381624264
61942352307046244325015114448670890662773914918117331955996
44070954967134529047702032243491121079759328079510154537266
72516278778900093497637657103263503315339653498683868313393
52024373788157786791506311858702618270169819740062983025308
59129834616227230455833952075961150530223608681043329725519
48526744322324386699484224042325998055516106359423769613992
31917134063858996537970147827206606320217379472010321356624
61380907794230459736069956759583609615871512991382228657857
95493616176544804532220078258184008484364155912294542753848
03558374518022675900061399560145595206127211192918105032491\\
```

The Input/Evaluation Loop

When you invoke ruby with no arguments, it reads commands from standard input and executes them after the end of input:

```
% ruby
puts "hello world"
puts "good-bye world"
^D
hello world
good-bye world
```

Ruby Evaluation Program — eval.rb

Ruby also comes with a program called eval.rb (see Section B.1 "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154) that allows you to enter ruby code from the keyboard in an interactive loop, showing you the results as you go. It will be used extensively through the rest of this guide. You should use this enhanced eval.rb that adds visual indenting assistance, warning reports, and color highlighting.

Here is a short eval.rb session:

```
% ruby eval.rb
ruby> puts "Hello, world."
Hello, world.
    nil
ruby> exit
```

'hello world' is produced by puts. The next line, in this case nil, reports on whatever was last evaluated:

No Distinction Between Statement and Expression

Ruby does not distinguish between statements and expressions, so evaluating a piece of code basically means the same thing as executing it.

Here, nil indicates that puts does not return a meaningful value. Note that we can leave this interpreter loop by saying exit, although C-D still works too.

2.4.1.3 On Strings

Quoting Strings

```
A string may be double-quoted ('"...") or single-quoted (''...').
```

Double- and single-quoting have different effects in some cases. A double-quoted string allows character escapes by a leading backslash, and the evaluation of embedded expressions using #{}. A single-quoted string does not do this interpreting; what you see is what you get.

String Methods

You can concatenate strings with +, and repeat a string many times with *.

Here are some things you can do with strings.

```
Concatenation
```

 $Extracting\ substrings$

```
ruby> herb = "parsley"
    "parsley"
ruby> herb[0,1]
    "p"
ruby> herb[-2,2]
    "ey"
ruby> herb[0..3]
    "pars"
ruby> herb[-5..-2]
    "rsle"
```

Testing for equality:

```
"foo" == "foo" ⇒ 'true'
"foo" == "bar" ⇒ 'false'
```

2.4.1.4 On Puzzle Program

```
# save this as guess.rb
words = ['foobar', 'baz', 'quux']
secret = words[rand(3)]

print "guess? "
while guess = STDIN.gets
    guess.chop!
    if guess == secret
        puts "You win!"
        break
    else
        puts "Sorry, you lose."
    end
    print "guess? "
end
puts "The word was ", secret, "."
```

New Control Structure while

In this program, a new control structure, while, is used. The code between while and its corresponding end will execute repeatedly as long as some specified condition remains true. In this case, 'guess=STDIN.gets' is both an active statement (collecting a line of user input and storing it as guess), and a condition (if there is no input, guess, which repesents the value of the whole 'guess=STDIN.gets' expression, has a nil value, causing while to stop looping).

Standard Input Object — STDIN

STDIN is the standard input object. Usually, 'guess=gets' does the same thing as 'guess=STDIN.gets'. In line 5 we read one line from standard input by the method STDIN.gets. If EOF (end of file) occurs while getting the line, gets returns nil. So the code associated with this while will repeat until it sees 'D signifying the end of input.

guess.chop!

guess.chop! in line 6 deletes the last character from guess; in this case it will always be a newline character, gets includes that character to reflect the user's return keystroke, but we're not interested in it.

Printing Variables

In line 15 we print the secret word. We have written this as a puts (put string) statement with two arguments, which are printed one after the other; but it would have been equally effective to do it with a single argument, writing secret as #{secret} to make it clear that it is a variable to be evaluated, not a literal word to be printed:

```
puts "the word is #{secret}."
```

It builds a single string and presents it as a single argument to puts.

print vs puts

Also, we are by now used to the idea of using puts for standard script output, but this script uses print instead, in lines 4 and 13. They are not quite the same thing. print outputs exactly what it is given; puts also ensures that the output line ends. Using print in lines 4 and 13 leaves the cursor next to what was just printed, rather than moving it to the beginning of the next line. This creates a recognizable prompt for user input. In general, the four output calls below are equivalent:

Flushing Standard Output

Sometimes a text window is programmed to *buffer* output for the sake of speed, collecting individual characters and displaying them only when it is given a **newline** character. So if the guessing game script misbehaves by not showing the prompt lines until after the user supplies a guess, *buffering* is the likely culprit. To make sure this doesn't happen, you can "flush" the output as soon as you have printed the prompt. It tells the standard output device (an object named *STDOUT*), "don't wait; display what you have in your buffer right now." '04 print "guess?"; STDOUT.flush'.

2.4.1.5 Regular Expressions

Program To Help Experiment With Regular Expressions

Here is a little program to help you experiment with regular expressions. Store it as regx.rb and run it by typing ruby regx.rb at the command line.

The program requires input twice, once for a string and once for a regular expression. The string is tested against the regular expression, then displayed with all the matching parts highlighted in reverse video.

```
{regx.rb} =
    # Requires an ANSI terminal!

st = "\033[7m"
    en = "\033[m"

puts "Enter an empty string at any time to exit."
```

```
while true
  print "str> "; STDOUT.flush; str = gets.chop
  break if str.empty?
  print "pat> "; STDOUT.flush; pat = gets.chop
  break if pat.empty?
  re = Regexp.new(pat)
  puts str.gsub(re,"#{st}\\&#{en}")
end
```

Explication of regx.rb

The break Statement

In line 6, the condition for while is hardwired to true, so it forms what looks like an infinite loop. However we put break statements in the 8th and 10th lines to escape the loop.

if Modifiers

```
break if str.empty?
break if pat.empty?
```

These two breaks are also an example of if modifiers. An if modifier executes the statement on its left hand side if and only if the specified condition is satisfied. This construction is unusual in that it operates logically from right to left, but it is provided because for many people it mimics a similar pattern in natural speech. It also has the advantage of brevity, as it needs no end statement to tell the interpreter how much of the following code is supposed to be conditional. An if modifier is conventionally used in situations where a statement and condition are short enough to fit comfortably together on one script line.

Note the difference in the user interface compared to the string-guessing script. This one lets the user quit by hitting the **Return** key on an empty line. We are testing for emptiness of the input string, not for its nonexistence.

Nondestructive chops vs Destructive chops!

In lines 7 and 9 we have a non-destructive chop; again, we're getting rid of the unwanted newline character we always get from gets. Add the exclamation point, and we have a destructive chop. What's the difference? In ruby, we conventionally attach ! or ? to the end of certain method names. The exclamation point (!, sometimes pronounced aloud as "bang!") indicates something potentially destructive, that is to say, something that can change the value of what it touches. chop! affects a string directly, but chop gives you a chopped copy without damaging the original.

chomp And chomp!

You'll also sometimes see chomp and chomp! used. These are more selective: the end of a string gets bit off only if it happens to be a newline. So for example, "XYZ".chomp! does nothing. If you need a trick to remember the difference, think of a person or animal tasting something before deciding to take a bite, as opposed to an axe chopping indiscriminately.

Predicate Method Naming Convention

The other method naming convention appears in lines 8 and 10. A question mark (?, sometimes pronounced aloud as "huh?") indicates a *predicate* method, one that can return either true or false.

Regular Expressions At Work

Line 11 creates a regular expression object out of the string supplied by the user. The real work is finally done in line 12, which uses gsub to globally substitute each match of that expression with itself, but surrounded by ansi markups; also the same line outputs the results.

In line 12 we see \\&. This is a little tricky. Since the replacement string is in double quotes, the pair of backslashes will be interpreted as a single backslash; what gsub actually sees will be \&, and that happens to be a special code that refers to whatever matched the pattern in the first place. So the new string, when displayed, looks just like the old one, except that the parts that matched the given pattern are highlighted in inverse video.

The = Matching Operator

=~ is a matching operator with respect to regular expressions; it returns the position in a string where a match was found, or nil if the pattern did not match.

```
ruby> "abcdef" = ^ /d/
   3
ruby> "aaaaaa" = ^ /d/
   nil
```

2.4.1.6 On Arrays And Hashes

Creating An Array

You can create an array by listing some items within square brackets ([]) and separating them with commas. Ruby's arrays can accommodate diverse object types. 'ary = [1, 2, "3"]' \Rightarrow '[1, 2, "3"]'

Concatenating and Repeating Arrays

Arrays can be concatenated or repeated just as strings can. 'ary + ["foo", "bar"]' \Rightarrow '[1, 2, "3", "foo", "bar"]'; 'ary * 2' \Rightarrow '[1, 2, "3", 1, 2, "3"]'.

Referring To Elements of Arrays

We can use index numbers to refer to any part of a array. 'ary[0]' \Rightarrow '1'; 'ary[0,2]' \Rightarrow '[1, 2]'; 'ary[0..1]' \Rightarrow '[1, 2]'.

Converted To And From Strings

Arrays can be converted to and from strings, using join and split respectively. 'str = ary.join(":")' \Rightarrow '"1:2:3"'. 'str.split(":")' \Rightarrow '["1", "2", "3"]'.

Hashes

An associative array has elements that are accessed not by sequential index numbers, but by keys which can have any sort of value. Such an array is sometimes called a hash or dictionary; in the ruby world, we prefer the term hash. A hash can be constructed by quoting pairs of items within curly braces ({}). You use a key to find something in a hash, much as you use an index to find something in an array.

```
ruby> h = \{1 \Rightarrow 2, "2" \Rightarrow "4"\}
   {1=>2, "2"=>"4"}
ruby> h[1]
   2
ruby> h["2"]
   "4"
ruby> h[5]
   nil
ruby> h[5] = 10
                    # appending an entry
ruby> h
   {5=>10, 1=>2, "2"=>"4"}
ruby> h.delete 1 # deleting an entry by key
   2
ruby> h[1]
   nil
ruby> h
   {5=>10, "2"=>"4"}
```

2.4.1.7 On Control Structures

The case Statement

We use the case statement to test a sequence of conditions. This is superficially similar to switch in C and Java but is considerably more powerful, as we shall see.

Testing For A Range Of Values

2..5 is an expression which means the *range* between 2 and 5, inclusive. The following expression tests whether the value of i falls within that range: (2..5) === i.

The Relationship Operator

case internally uses the *relationship* operator === to check for several conditions at a time. In keeping with ruby's object oriented nature, === is interpreted suitably for the object that appeared in the when condition.

For example, the following code tests string equality in the first when, and regular expression matching in the second when.

The while Statement

Ruby provides convenient ways to construct loops, although you will find in the next chapter that learning how to use iterators will make it unnecessary to write explicit loops very often.

A while is a repeated if. We used it in our word-guessing puzzle and in the regular expression programs (see the previous chapter); there, it took the form 'while condition ... end' surrounding a block of code to be repeated while condition was true. But while and if can as easily be applied to individual statements: 'puts "It's zero." if i==0' \Rightarrow 'It's zero.' and 'puts i+=1 while i<3' \Rightarrow '1 2 3'.

Negated Conditions

Sometimes you want to negate a test condition. An unless is a negated if, and an until is a negated while.

Interrupting A Loop

There are four ways to interrupt the progress of a loop from inside.

- 1. First, break means, as in C, to escape from the loop entirely.
- 2. Second, next skips to the beginning of the next iteration of the loop (corresponding to C's continue).
- 3. Third, ruby has redo, which restarts the current iteration.
- 4. The fourth way to get out of a loop from the inside is return. An evaluation of return causes escape not only from a loop but from the method that contains the loop. If an argument is given, it will be returned from the method call, otherwise nil is returned.

The following is C code illustrating the meanings of break, next, and redo:

The for Statement

C programmers will be wondering by now how to make a for loop. Ruby's for can serve the same purpose, but adds some flexibility. The loop below runs once for each element in a collection (array, hash, numeric sequence, etc.), but doesn't make the programmer think about indices:

```
for elt in collection
   # ... here, elt refers to an element of the collection
end
```

The collection can be a range of values (this is what most people mean when they talk about a for loop):

for Equivalent To each

But we're getting ahead of ourselves. for is really another way of writing each, which, it so happens, is our first example of an iterator. The following two forms are equivalent:

```
# If you're used to C or Java, you might prefer this.
for element in collection
   ...
end

# A Smalltalk programmer might prefer this.
collection.each {|element|
   ...
}
```

Iterators can often be substituted for conventional loops, and once you get used to them, they are generally easier to deal with.

2.4.1.8 Ruby User's Guide On Iterators

Iterators are not an original concept with ruby. They are in common use in object-oriented languages. They are also used in Lisp, though there they are not called iterators. However the concept of iterator is an unfamiliar one for many so it should be explained in more detail.

An iterator is something that does the same thing many times.

Ruby Allows Us To Define Iterators

So every OOP language includes some facilities for iteration. Some languages provide a special class for this purpose; ruby allows us to define iterators directly.

Iterators In String

Ruby's String type has some useful iterators:

each_byte is an iterator for each character in the string. Each character is substituted
into the local variable c: '"abc".each_byte{|c| printf "<%c>", c}; print "\n"'.

The each_byte iterator is both conceptually simpler and more likely to continue to work even if the String class happens to be radically modified in the future. One benefit of iterators is that they tend to be robust in the face of such changes; indeed that is a characteristic of good code in general.

Another iterator of String is each_line: '"a\nb\nc\n".each_line{||| print 1}'.

The tasks that would take most of the programming effort in C (finding line delimiters, generating substrings, etc.) are easily tackled using iterators.

The for statement appearing in the previous chapter does iteration by way of an each iterator. String's each works the same as each_line, so let's rewrite the above example with for:

Control Structures retry And redo

We can use a control structure **retry** in conjunction with an iterated loop, and it will retry the loop from the beginning. **redo** causes just the current iteration of the loop to be redone.

yield In Iterators

yield occurs sometimes in a definition of an iterator. yield moves control to the block of code that is passed to the iterator (this will be explored in more detail in the chapter about procedure objects).

The following example defines an iterator repeat, which repeats a block of code the number of times specified in an argument.

With retry, one can define an iterator which works something like ruby's standard while.

Summary On Iterarors

There are a few restrictions, but you can write your original iterators; and in fact, whenever you define a new data type, it is often convenient to define suitable iterators to go with it. In this sense, the above examples are not terribly useful. We can talk about practical iterators after we have a better understanding of what classes are.

2.4.1.9 On Object-Oriented Thinking

Ruby claims to be an object oriented scripting language; but what exactly does *object oriented* mean? Rather than sum it too quickly, let's think for a moment about the traditional programming paradigm.

Traditionally, a programming problem is attacked by coming up with some kinds of *data* representations, and procedures that operate on that data. Under this model, data is inert, passive, and helpless; it sits at the complete mercy of a large procedural body, which is active, logical, and all-powerful.

The problem with this approach is that programs are written by programmers, who are only human and can only keep so much detail clear in their heads at any one time. As a project gets larger, its procedural core grows to the point where it is difficult to remember how the whole thing works. Minor lapses of thinking and typographical errors become more likely to result in well-concealed bugs. Complex and unintended interactions begin to emerge within the procedural core, and maintaining it becomes like trying to carry around an angry squid without letting any tentacles touch your face. There are guidelines for programming that can help to minimize and localize bugs within this traditional paradigm, but there is a better solution that involves fundamentally changing the way we work.

What object-oriented programming does is to let us delegate most of the mundane and repetitive logical work to the data itself; it changes our concept of data from passive to active. Put another way,

- We stop treating each piece of data as a box with an open lid that lets us reach in and throw things around.
- We start treating each piece of data as a working machine with a closed lid and a few well-marked switches and dials.

What is described above as a "machine" may be very simple or complex on the inside; we can't tell from the outside, and we don't allow ourselves to open the machine up (except when we are absolutely sure something is wrong with its design), so we are required to do

things like flip the switches and read the dials to interact with the data. Once the machine is built, we don't want to have to think about how it operates.

You might think we are just making more work for ourselves, but this approach tends to do a nice job of preventing all kinds of things from going wrong.

It's worth noting here that the use of an OO language will not enforce proper OO design. Indeed it is possible in any language to write code that is unclear, sloppy, ill-conceived, buggy, and wobbly all over. What ruby does for you (as opposed, especially, to C++) is to make the practice of OO programming feel natural enough that even when you are working on a small scale you don't feel a necessity to resort to ugly code to save effort. We will be discussing the ways in which ruby accomplishes that admirable goal as this guide progresses; the next topic will be the "switches and dials" (object methods) and from there we'll move on to the "factories" (classes).

2.4.1.10 On Methods

What Is A Method?

What is a *method*? In OO programming, we don't think of operating on data directly from outside an object; rather, objects have some understanding of how to operate on themselves (when asked nicely to do so). You might say we pass messages to an object, and those messages will generally elicit some kind of an action or meaningful reply. This ought to happen without our necessarily knowing or caring how the object really works inside. The tasks we are allowed to ask an object to perform (or equivalently, the messages it understands) are that object's methods.

Invoking Methods Of An Object

In ruby, we invoke a method of an object with dot notation (just as in C++ or Java). The object being talked to is named to the left of the dot. '"abcdef".length'. Intuitively, this string object is being asked how long it is. Technically, we are invoking the length method of the object abcdef.

Other objects may have a slightly different interpretation of length, or none at all. Decisions about how to respond to a message are made on the fly, during program execution, and the action taken may change depending on what a variable refers to. What we mean by length can vary depending on what object we are talking about.

Polymorphism

An array knows something about what it means to be an array. Pieces of data in ruby carry such knowledge with them, so that the demands made on them can automatically be satisfied in the various appropriate ways. This relieves the programmer from the burden of memorizing a great many specific function names, because a relatively small number of method names, corresponding to concepts that we know how to express in natural language, can be applied to different kinds of data and the results will be what we expect. This feature of OO programming languages (which, IMHO, Java has done a poor job of exploiting) is called *polymorphism*.

Errors Are Raised

When an object receives a message that it does not understand, an error is raised: 'ERR: (eval):1: undefined method 'length' for 5(Fixnum)'. So it is necessary to know what methods are acceptable to an object, though we need not know how the methods are processed.

Arguments To A Method

If arguments are given to a method, they are generally surrounded by parentheses, 'object.method(arg1, arg2)', but they can be omitted if doing so does not cause ambiguity, 'object.method arg1, arg2'.

The Special Variable self

There is a special variable self in ruby; it refers to whatever object calls a method. This happens so often that for convenience the self. may be omitted from method calls from an object to itself: 'self.method_name(args...)' is the same as 'method_name(args...)'.

What we would think of traditionally as a function call is just this abbreviated way of writing method invocations by self. This makes ruby what is called a pure object oriented language.

2.4.1.11 On Classes

In OO programming terminology, a category of objects like "dog" is called a class, and some specific object belonging to a class is called an instance of that class.

Making An Object From A Class

Generally, to make an object in ruby or any other OO language, first one defines the characteristics of a class, then creates an instance. To illustrate the process, let's first define a simple Dog class.

In ruby, a class definition is a region of code between the keywords class and end. A def inside this region begins the definition of a method of the class, which as we discussed in the previous chapter, corresponds to some specific behavior for objects of that class.

Make A New Instance From A Class Definition

Now that we have defined a Dog class, we can use it to make a dog:

```
ruby> pochi = Dog.new
#<Dog:0xbcb90>
```

We have made a new instance of the class Dog, and have given it the name pochi. The new method of any class makes a new instance. Because pochi is a Dog according to our class definition, it has whatever properties we decided a Dog should have. Since our idea of Dog-ness was very simple, there is just one trick we can ask pochi to do.

```
ruby> pochi.speak
Bow Wow
    nil
```

Making a new instance of a class is sometimes called *instantiating* that class. We need to have a dog before we can experience the pleasure of its conversation; we can't merely ask the Dog class to bark for us.

2.4.1.12 On Inheritance

Our classification of objects in everyday life is naturally hierarchical. We know that all cats are mammals, and all mammals are animals. Smaller classes *inherit* characteristics from the larger classes to which they belong. If all mammals breathe, then all cats breathe.

We can express this concept in ruby:

Though we didn't specify how a Cat should breathe, every cat will inherit that behavior from the Mammal class since Cat was defined as a subclass of Mammal. (In OO terminology, the smaller class is a *subclass* and the larger class is a *superclass*.) Hence from a programmer's standpoint, cats get the ability to breathe for free; after we add a **speak** method, our cats can both breathe and speak.

```
ruby> tama = Cat.new
  #<Cat:Oxbd80e8>
ruby> tama.breathe
inhale and exhale
  nil
ruby> tama.speak
Meow
  nil
```

Differential Programming

There will be situations where certain properties of the superclass should not be inherited by a particular subclass. Though birds generally know how to fly, penguins are a flightless subclass of birds.

```
| end
| def fly
| puts "I am flying."
| end
| end
nil
ruby> class Penguin<Bird
| def fly
| fail "Sorry. I'd rather swim."
| end
| end
nil</pre>
```

Rather than exhaustively define every characteristic of every new class, we need only to append or to redefine the differences between each subclass and its superclass. This use of inheritance is sometimes called *differential programming*. It is one of the benefits of object-oriented programming.

2.4.1.13 On Redefinition of Methods

In a subclass, we can change the behavior of the instances by redefining superclass methods.

```
ruby> class Human
        def identify
          puts "I'm a person."
        end
       def train_toll(age)
          if age < 12
            puts "Reduced fare.";
            puts "Normal fare.";
          end
        end
    end
  nil
ruby> Human.new.identify
I'm a person.
  nil
ruby> class Student1<Human
       def identify
    puts "I'm a student."
        end
    | end
  nil
ruby> Student1.new.identify
I'm a student.
  nil
```

Suppose we would rather enhance the superclass's identify method than entirely replace it. For this we can use super.

super lets us pass arguments to the original method. It is sometimes said that there are two kinds of people . . .

```
ruby> class Dishonest<Human
        def train_toll(age)
          super(11) # we want a cheap fare.
    end
  nil
ruby> Dishonest.new.train_toll(25)
Reduced fare.
  nil
ruby> class Honest<Human
        def train_toll(age)
          super(age) # pass the argument we were given
    | end
  nil
ruby> Honest.new.train_toll(25)
Normal fare.
  nil
```

2.4.1.14 On Access Control

Earlier, we said that ruby has no functions, only methods. However there is more than one kind of method. In this chapter we introduce access controls.

Consider what happens when we define a method in the "top level", not inside a class definition. We can think of such a method as analogous to a function in a more traditional language like C.

Our new method would appear not to belong to any class, but in fact ruby gives it to the Object class, which is a superclass of every other class. As a result, any object should now be able to use that method. That turns out to be true, but there's a small catch: it is a *private* method of every class. We'll discuss some of what this means below, but one consequence is that it may be invoked only in function style, as here:

This rather cleverly preserves ruby's pure-OO nature (functions are still object methods, but the receiver is self implicitly) while providing functions that can be written just as in a more traditional language.

Rationale For Private Methods: Encapsulation

A common mental discipline in OO programming, which we have hinted at in an earlier chapter, concerns the separation of specification and implementation, or what tasks an object is supposed to accomplish and how it actually accomplishes them. The internal workings of an object should be kept generally hidden from its users; they should only care about what goes in and what comes out, and trust the object to know what it is doing internally. As such it is often helpful for classes to have methods that the outside world does not see, but which are used internally (and can be improved by the programmer whenever desired, without changing the way users see objects of that class). In the trivial example below, think of engine as the invisible inner workings of the class.

nil

We might have expected test.engine(6) to return 12, but instead we learn that engine is inaccessible when we are acting as a user of a Test object. Only other Test methods, such as times_two, are allowed to use engine. We are required to go through the public interface, which consists of the times_two method. The programmer who is in charge of this class can change engine freely (here, perhaps by changing b*2 to b+b, assuming for the sake of argument that it improved performance) without affecting how the user interacts with Test objects. This example is of course much too simple to be useful; the benefits of access controls become more clear only when we begin to create more complicated and interesting classes.

2.4.1.15 On Singleton Methods

The behavior of an instance is determined by its class, but there may be times we know that a particular instance should have special behavior. In most languages, we must go to the trouble of defining another class, which would then only be instantiated once. In ruby we can give any object its own methods. A method given only to a single object is called a singleton method.

Singleton methods are often used for elements of a graphic user interface (GUI), where different actions need to be taken when different buttons are pressed.

Singleton methods are not unique to ruby, as they appear in CLOS, Dylan, etc. Also, some languages, for example, Self and NewtonScript, have singleton methods only. These are sometimes called *prototype-based* languages.

2.4.1.16 On Modules

Modules in ruby are similar to classes, except:

- A module can have no instances.
- A module can have no subclasses.
- A module is defined by module ... end.

Actually... the Module class of module is the superclass of the Class class of class. Got that? No? Let's move on.

Module As Collection

There are two typical uses of modules. One is to collect related methods and constants in a central location. The Math module in ruby's standard library plays such a role:

```
ruby> Math.sqrt(2)
    1.41421
ruby> Math::PI
    3.14159
```

The :: operator tells the ruby interpreter which module it should consult for the value of a constant (conceivably, some module besides Math might mean something else by PI). If we want to refer to the methods or constants of a module directly without using ::, we can include that module:

```
ruby> include Math
    Object
```

```
ruby> sqrt(2)
1.41421
ruby> PI
3.14159
```

Module As Mixin

Another use of modules is called *mixin*. Some OO programming languages, including C++, allow *multiple inheritance*, that is, inheritance from more than one superclass. A real-world example of multiple inheritance is an alarm clock; you can think of alarm clocks as belonging to the class of clocks and also the class of things with buzzers.

Ruby purposely does not implement true multiple inheritance, but the *mixin technique* is a good alternative. Remember that modules cannot be instantiated or subclassed; but if we **include** a module in a class definition, its methods are effectively appended, or *mixed* in, to the class.

Mixin As Properties

Mixin can be thought of as a way of asking for whatever particular properties we want to have. For example, if a class has a working each method, mixing in the standard library's Enumerable module gives us sort and find methods for free.

Modules Instead Of Multiple Inheritance

This use of modules gives us the basic functionality of multiple inheritance but allows us to represent class relationships with a simple tree structure, and so simplifies the language implementation considerably (a similar choice was made by the designers of Java).

2.4.1.17 On Procedure Objects (Procs)

It is often desirable to be able to specify responses to unexpected events. As it turns out, this is most easily done if we can pass blocks of code as arguments to other methods, which means we want to be able to treat code as if it were data.

A new procedure object is formed using proc:

Now what quux refers to is an object, and like most objects, it has behavior that can be invoked. Specifically, we can ask it to execute, via its call method:

```
nil
ruby> run quux
About to call a procedure...
QUUXQUUXQUUX!!!
There: finished.
    nil
The trap method lets us assign the response of our choice to any system signal.
ruby> inthandler = proc{ puts "^C was pressed." }
    #<Proc:0x401730a4>
ruby> trap "SIGINT", inthandler
    #<Proc:0x401735e0>
```

Normally pressing ^C makes the interpreter quit. Now a message is printed and the interpreter continues running, so you don't lose the work you were doing. (You're not trapped in the interpreter forever; you can still exit by typing exit.)

Anonymous Procedure Objects

A final note before we move on to other topics: it's not strictly necessary to give a procedure object a name before binding it to a signal. An equivalent anonymous procedure object would look like 'trap "SIGINT", proc{ puts "^C was pressed." }', or more compactly still, 'trap "SIGINT", 'puts "^C was pressed."'. This abbreviated form provides some convenience and readability when you write small anonymous procedures.

2.4.1.18 On Variables

Ruby has three kinds of variables, one kind of constant and exactly two pseudo-variables. The variables and the constants have no type. While untyped variables have some drawbacks, they have many more advantages and fit well with ruby's quick and easy philosophy.

No Variable Declarations

Variables must be declared in most languages in order to specify their type, modifiability (i.e., whether they are constants), and scope; since type is not an issue, and the rest is evident from the variable name as you are about to see, we do not need variable declarations in ruby.

The first character of an identifier categorizes it at a glance:

Table 2.1: List of Variable Identifiers

Pseudo-Variables

The only exceptions to the above are ruby's pseudo-variables: self, which always refers to the currently executing object, and nil, which is the meaningless value assigned to uninitialized variables. Both are named as if they are local variables, but self is a global

variable maintained by the interpreter, and nil is really a constant. As these are the only two exceptions, they don't confuse things too much.

You may not assign values to self or nil. main, as a value of self, refers to the top-level object.

2.4.1.19 On Global Variables

A global variable has a name beginning with \$. It can be referred to from anywhere in a program. Before initialization, a global variable has the special value nil.

Global variables should be used sparingly. They are dangerous because they can be written to from anywhere. Overuse of globals can make isolating bugs difficult; it also tends to indicate that the design of a program has not been carefully thought out. Whenever you do find it necessary to use a global variable, be sure to give it a descriptive name that is unlikely to be inadvertently used for something else later (calling it something like \$foo as above is probably a bad idea).

Global Variables Can Be Traced

One nice feature of a global variable is that it can be traced; you can specify a procedure which is invoked whenever the value of the variable is changed.

```
ruby> trace_var :$x, proc{puts "$x is now #{$x}"}
    nil
ruby> $x = 5
$x is now 5
5
```

When a global variable has been rigged to work as a trigger to invoke a procedure whenever changed, we sometimes call it an *active variable*. For instance, it might be useful for keeping a GUI display up to date.

List Of Major System Variables

```
$!
                latest error message
$
                location of error
$_
                string last read by gets (has local scope)
$.
                line number last read by interpreter
$&
                string last matched by regexp
$~
                the last regexp match, as an array of subexpressions (has local scope)
\$n
                the nth subexpression in the last match (same as \P[n])
$=
                case-insensitivity flag
$/
                input record separator
$\
                output record separator
$0
                the name of the ruby script file
$*
                the command line arguments
$$
                interpreter's process ID
$?
                exit status of last executed child process
```

Table 2.2: List of Major System Variables

2.4.1.20 On Instance Variables

An instance variable has a name beginning with @, and its scope is confined to whatever object self refers to. Two different objects, even if they belong to the same class, are allowed to have different values for their instance variables. From outside the object, instance variables cannot be altered or even observed (i.e., ruby's instance variables are never public) except by whatever methods are explicitly provided by the programmer. As with globals, instance variables have the nil value until they are initialized.

Instance Variables Are Not Declared

Instance variables do not need to be declared. This indicates a flexible object structure; in fact, each instance variable is dynamically appended to an object when it is first assigned.

2.4.1.21 On Local Variables

A local variable has a name starting with a lower case letter or an underscore character (_). Local variables do not, like globals and instance variables, have the value nil before initialization.

The first assignment you make to a local variable acts something like a declaration. If you refer to an uninitialized local variable, ruby will report an error: 'ERR: (eval):1: undefined local variable or method 'foo' for main(Object)'.

Generally, the scope of a local variable is one of:

```
proc{ ... }
loop{ ... }
def ... end
class ... end
module ... end
the entire script (unless one of the above applies)
```

defined? is an operator which checks whether an identifier is defined. It returns a description of the identifier if it is defined, or nil otherwise.

Procedure objects that live in the same scope share whatever local variables also belong to that scope. Here, the local variable bar is shared by main and the procedure objects p1 and p2:

```
ruby> bar=nil
    nil
ruby> p1 = proc{|n| bar=n}
    #<Proc:0x8deb0>
ruby> p2 = proc{bar}
    #<Proc:0x8dce8>
ruby> p1.call(5)
    5
ruby> bar
    5
ruby> p2.call
    5
```

Note that the bar=nil at the beginning cannot be omitted; it ensures that the scope of bar will encompass p1 and p2. Otherwise p1 and p2 would each end up with its own local variable bar, and calling p2 would have resulted in an 'undefined local variable or method' error. We could have said bar=0 instead, but using nil is a courtesy to others who will read your code later. It indicates fairly clearly that you are only establishing scope, because the value being assigned is not intended to be meaningful.

Proc Objects Are Closures

A powerful feature of procedure objects follows from their ability to be passed as arguments: shared local variables remain valid even when they are passed out of the original scope.

Ruby is particularly smart about scope. It is evident in our example that the contents variable is being shared between the reader and writer. But we can also manufacture multiple reader-writer pairs using box as defined above; each pair shares a contents variable, and the pairs do not interfere with each other.

```
ruby> reader_1, writer_1 = box
    [#<Proc:0x40172820>, #<Proc:0x4017280c>]
ruby> reader_2, writer_2 = box
    [#<Proc:0x40172668>, #<Proc:0x40172654>]
ruby> writer_1.call(99)
    99
ruby> reader_1.call
    99
ruby> reader_2.call # nothing is in this box yet
    nil
```

This kind of programming could be considered a perverse little object-oriented framework. The box method acts something like a class, with get and set serving as methods (except those aren't really the method names, which could vary with each box instance) and contents being the lone instance variable. Of course, using ruby's legitimate class framework leads to much more readable code.

2.4.1.22 On Class Constants

A constant has a name starting with an uppercase character. It should be assigned a value at most once. In the current implementation of ruby, reassignment of a constant generates a warning but not an error (the non-ANSI version of eval.rb does not report the warning).

Class Constants Accessible Outside Class

Constants may be defined within classes, but unlike instance variables, they are accessible outside the class.

```
ruby> class ConstClass
          C1=101
      C2=102
          C3=103
          def show
            puts "#{C1} #{C2} #{C3}"
          end
      end
     nil
  ruby> C1
  ERR: (eval):1: uninitialized constant C1
  ruby> ConstClass::C1
     101
  ruby> ConstClass.new.show
  101 102 103
     nil
Constants can also be defined in modules.
  ruby> module ConstModule
          C1=101
          C2=102
          C3 = 103
          def showConstants
            puts "#{C1} #{C2} #{C3}"
          end
      end
     nil
  ruby> C1
  ERR: (eval):1: uninitialized constant C1
  ruby> include ConstModule
     Object
  ruby> C1
     101
  ruby> showConstants
  101 102 103
  ruby> C1=99 # not really a good idea
     99
  ruby> C1
```

```
99
ruby> ConstModule::C1
101
ruby> ConstModule::C1=99 # .. this was not allowed in earlier versions
(eval):1: warning: already initialized constant C1
99
ruby> ConstModule::C1 # "enough rope to shoot yourself in the foot"
99
```

2.4.1.23 On Exception Processing and rescue

An executing program can run into unexpected problems. A file that it wants to read might not exist; the disk might be full when it wants to save some data; the user may provide it with some unsuitable kind of input.

A robust program will handle these situations sensibly and gracefully. Meeting that expectation can be an exasperating task. C programmers are expected to check the result of every system call that could possibly fail, and immediately decide what is to be done.

This is such a tiresome practice that programmers can tend to grow careless and neglect it, and the result is a program that doesn't handle exceptions well. On the other hand, doing the job right can make programs hard to read, because there is so much error handling cluttering up the meaningful code.

begin And rescue Blocks

In ruby, as in many modern languages, we can handle exceptions for blocks of code in a compartmentalized way, thus dealing with surprises effectively but not unduly burdening either the programmer or anyone else trying to read the code later. The block of code marked with begin executes until there is an exception, which causes control to be transferred to a block of error handling code, which is marked with rescue. If no exception occurs, the rescue code is not used. The following method returns the first line of a text file, or nil if there is an exception:

```
def first_line( filename )
  begin
    file = open("some_file")
    info = file.gets
    file.close
    info # Last thing evaluated is the return value
  rescue
    nil # Can't read the file? then don't return a string
  end
end
```

There will be times when we would like to be able to creatively work around a problem. Here, if the file we want is unavailable, we try to use standard input instead:

```
begin
  file = open("some_file")
rescue
  file = STDIN
```

```
begin
  # ... process the input ...
rescue
  # ... and deal with any other exceptions here.
end
```

retry can be used in the rescue code to start the begin code over again. It lets us rewrite the previous example a little more compactly:

```
fname = "some_file"
begin
  file = open(fname)
  # ... process the input ...
rescue
  fname = "STDIN"
  retry
end
```

raiseing Exceptions

Every ruby library raises an exception if any error occurs, and you can raise exceptions explicitly in your code too. To raise an exception, use raise. It takes one argument, which should be a string that describes the exception. The argument is optional but should not be omitted. It can be accessed later via the special global variable \$!.

2.4.1.24 On Exception Processing And ensure

There may be cleanup work that is necessary when a method finishes its work. Perhaps an open file should be closed, buffered data should be flushed, etc. If there were always only one exit point for each method, we could confidently put our cleanup code in one place and know that it would be executed; however, a method might return from several places, or our intended cleanup code might be unexpectedly skipped because of an exception.

For this reason we add another keyword to the begin...rescue...end scheme, which is ensure. The ensure code block executes regardless of the success or failure of the begin block.

```
file = open("/tmp/some_file", "w")
begin
  # ... write to the file ...
```

```
rescue
# ... handle the exceptions ...
ensure
file.close # ... and this always happens.
end
```

It is possible to use ensure without rescue, or vice versa, but if they are used together in the same begin...end block, the rescue must precede the ensure.

2.4.1.25 On Accessors

We briefly discussed instance variables in an earlier chapter, but haven't done much with them yet. An object's instance variables are its *attributes*, the things that distinguish it from other objects of the same class. It is important to be able to write and read these attributes; doing so requires methods called attribute accessors. We'll see in a moment that we don't always have to write accessor methods explicitly, but let's go through all the motions for now. The two kinds of accessors are writers and readers.

Accessors: Writers And Readers

```
ruby> class Fruit
       def set_kind(k) # a writer
         @kind = k
       end
       def get_kind # a reader
         @kind
       end
    end
  nil
ruby> f1 = Fruit.new
  #<Fruit:0xfd7e7c8c>
ruby> f1.set_kind("peach") # use the writer
   "peach"
ruby> f1.get_kind
                           # use the reader
   "peach"
ruby> f1
                           # inspect the object
  #<Fruit:0xfd7e7c8c @kind="peach">
```

Simple enough; we can store and retrieve information about what kind of fruit we're looking at. But our method names are a little wordy. The following is more concise, and more conventional:

```
ruby> f2 = Fruit.new
    #<Fruit:0xfd7e7c8c>
ruby> f2.kind = "banana"
    "banana"
ruby> f2.kind
    "banana"
```

The inspect Method

A short digression is in order. You've noticed by now that when we try to look at an object directly, we are shown something cryptic like '#<an0bject:0x83678>'. This is just a default behavior, and we are free to change it. All we need to do is add a method named inspect. It should return a string that describes the object in some sensible way, including the states of some or all of its instance variables.

to_s And p Methods

A related method is to_s (convert to string), which is used when printing an object. In general, you can think of inspect as a tool for when you are writing and debugging programs, and to_s as a way of refining program output. eval.rb (see Section B.1 "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154, uses inspect whenever it displays results. You can use the p method to easily get debugging output from programs.

```
# These two lines are equivalent:
p anObject
puts anObject.inspect
```

Making Accessors

Since many instance variables need accessor methods, Ruby provides convenient shortcuts for the standard forms.

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Shortcut} & \textbf{Effect} \\ \textbf{attr\_reader} : \textbf{v} & \text{def v; } \boldsymbol{\dot{\dot{\textbf{y}}}} \text{ end} \\ \textbf{attr\_writer} : \textbf{v} & \text{def v=(value); } \boldsymbol{\dot{=}} \textbf{value; end} \\ \textbf{attr\_accessor} : \textbf{v} & \text{attr\_reader} : \textbf{v; attr\_writer} : \textbf{v} \\ \textbf{attr\_accessor} : \textbf{v; attr\_accessor} : \textbf{w} \end{array}
```

Table 2.3: List of Accessor Shortcuts

Let's take advantage of this and add freshness information. First we ask for an automatically generated reader and writer, and then we incorporate the new information into inspect:

If nobody eats our ripe fruit, perhaps we should let time take its toll.

But while playing around here, we have introduced a small problem. What happens if we try to create a third piece of fruit now? Remember that instance variables don't exist until values are assigned to them.

```
ruby> f3 = Fruit.new
ERR: failed to convert nil into String
```

It is the inspect method that is complaining here, and with good reason. We have asked it to report on the kind and condition of a piece of fruit, but as yet f3 has not been assigned either attribute. If we wanted to, we could rewrite the inspect method so it tests instance variables using the defined? method and then only reports on them if they exist, but maybe that's not very useful; since every piece of fruit has a kind and condition, it seems we should make sure those always get defined somehow. That is the topic of the next chapter.

2.4.1.26 On Object Initialization

Our Fruit class from the previous chapter had two instance variables, one to describe the kind of fruit and another to describe its condition. It was only after writing a custom inspect method for the class that we realized it didn't make sense for a piece of fruit to lack those characteristics. Fortunately, ruby provides a way to ensure that instance variables always get initialized.

Default Argument Values in initialize

Whenever Ruby creates a new object, it looks for a method named initialize and executes it. So one simple thing we can do is use an initialize method to put default values into all the instance variables, so the inspect method will have something to say.

There will be times when a default value doesn't make a lot of sense. Is there such a thing as a default kind of fruit? It may be preferable to require that each piece of fruit have its kind specified at the time of its creation. To do this, we would add a formal argument to the initialize method. For reasons we won't get into here, arguments you supply to new are actually delivered to initialize.

Above we see that once an argument is associated with the initialize method, it can't be left off without generating an error. If we want to be more considerate, we can use the argument if it is given, or fall back to default values otherwise.

You can use default argument values for any method, not just initialize. The argument list must be arranged so that those with default values come last.

Object Reflection, Variable-Length Argument Lists, Method Overloading

Sometimes it is useful to provide several ways to initialize an object. Although it is outside the scope of this tutorial, ruby supports object reflection and variable-length argument lists, which together effectively allow method overloading.

2.4.1.27 On Nuts And Bolts

Statement Delimiters

Some languages require some kind of punctuation, often a semicolon (;), to end each statement in a program. Ruby instead follows the convention used in shells like sh and csh. Multiple statements on one line must be separated by semicolons, but they are not required at the end of a line; a linefeed is treated like a semicolon. If a line ends with a backslash (\), the linefeed following it is ignored; this allows you to have a single logical line that spans several lines.

Comments

Why write comments? Although well written code tends to be self-documenting, it is often helpful to scribble in the margins, and it can be a mistake to believe that others will be able to look at your code and immediately see it the way you do. Besides, for practical purposes, you yourself are a different person within a few days anyway; which of us hasn't gone back to fix or enhance a program after the passage of time and said, I know I wrote this, but what in blazes does it mean?

Some experienced programmers will point out, quite correctly, that contradictory or outdated comments can be worse than none at all. Certainly, comments shouldn't be a substitute for readable code; if your code is unclear, it's probably also buggy. You may find that you need to comment more while you are learning ruby, and then less as you become better at expressing your ideas in simple, elegant, readable code.

Ruby follows a common scripting convention, which is to use a pound symbol (#) to denote the start of a comment. Anything following an unquoted #, to the end of the line on which it appears, is ignored by the interpreter.

Also, to facilitate large comment blocks, the ruby interpreter also ignores anything between a line starting with =begin and another line starting with =end.

Organizing Your Code

#!/usr/bin/env ruby

Ruby's unusually high level of dynamism means that classes, modules, and methods exist only after their defining code runs. If you're used to programming in a more static language, this can sometimes lead to surprises.

```
# The below results in an "undefined method" error:
puts successor(3)

def successor(x)
   x + 1
```

end

Although the interpreter checks over the entire script file for syntax before executing it, the def successor ... end code has to actually run in order to create the successor method. So the order in which you arrange a script can matter.

This does not, as it might seem at first glance, force you to organize your code in a strictly bottom-up fashion. When the interpreter encounters a method definition, it can safely include undefined references, as long as you can be sure they will be defined by the time the method is actually invoked:

```
# Conversion of fahrenheit to celsius, broken
# down into two steps.

def f_to_c(f)
    scale(f - 32.0) # This is a forward reference, but it's okay.
end

def scale(x)
    x * 5.0 / 9.0
end

printf "%.1f is a comfortable temperature.\n", f_to_c(72.3)
```

So while this may seem less convenient than what you may be used to in Perl or Java, it is less restrictive than trying to write C without prototypes (which would require you to always maintain a partial ordering of what references what). Putting top-level code at the bottom of a source file always works. And even this is less of an annoyance than it might at first seem. A sensible and painless way to enforce the behavior you want is to define a main function at the top of the file, and call it from the bottom.

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

def main
    # Express the top level logic here...
end

# ... put support code here, organized as you see fit ...
main # ... and start execution here.
```

load And require

It also helps that ruby provides tools for breaking complicated programs into readable, reusable, logically related chunks. We have already seen the use of include for accessing modules (see Section 2.4.1.16 "On Modules", page 59. You will also find the load and require facilities useful.

load works as if the file it refers to were copied and pasted in (something like the #include preprocessor directive in C).

require is somewhat more sophisticated, causing code to be loaded at most once and only when needed.

2.4.2 Ruby Programming Wikibook

Ruby Programming Wikibook

A free online manual with beginner and intermediate content plus a thorough language reference.

2.4.3 Programming Ruby

The Programmatic Programmer's Guide

Programming Ruby

What This Book Is

This book is a tutorial and reference for the Ruby programming language. Use Ruby, and you'll write better code, be more productive, and enjoy programming more.

What Ruby Is

Take a true object-oriented language, such as Smalltalk. Drop the unfamiliar syntax and move to more conventional, file-based source code. Now add in a good measure of the flexibility and convenience of languages such as Python and Perl.

You end up with Ruby.

Ruby is OO

OO aficionados will find much to like in Ruby: things such as pure object orientation (everything's an object), metaclasses, closures, iterators, and ubiquitous heterogeneous collections. Smalltalk users will feel right at home (and C++ and Java users will feel jealous).

Ruby is Perl and Python

At the same time, Perl and Python wizards will find many of their favorite features: full regular expression support, tight integration with the underlying operating system, convenient shortcuts, and dynamic evaluation.

Principle of Lease Surprise

Ruby follows the Principle of Least Surprise — things work the way you would expect them to, with very few special cases or exceptions.

Ruby is a "Transparent" Language

We call Ruby a "transparent" language. By that we mean that Ruby doesn't obscure the solutions you write behind lots of syntax and the need to churn out reams of support code just to get simple things done. With Ruby you write programs close to the problem domain. Rather than constantly mapping your ideas and designs down to the pedestrian level of most languages, with Ruby you'll find you can express them directly and express them elegantly. This means you code faster. It also means your programs stay readable and maintainable.

Ruby is a "Scripting" Language

What exactly is a scripting language? Frankly we don't know if it's a distinction worth making. In Ruby, you can access all the underlying operating system features. You can do

the same stuff in Ruby that you can in Perl or Python, and you can do it more cleanly. But Ruby is fundamentally different. It is a true programming language, too, with strong theoretical roots and an elegant, lightweight syntax. You could hack together a mess of "scripts" with Ruby, but you probably won't. Instead, you'll be more inclined to engineer a solution, to produce a program that is easy to understand, simple to maintain, and a piece of cake to extend and reuse in the future.

Ruby is a General Purpose Programming Language

Although we have used Ruby for scripting jobs, most of the time we use it as a general-purpose programming language. We've used it to write GUI applications and middle-tier server processes, and we're using it to format large parts of this book. Others have used it for managing server machines and databases. Ruby is serving Web pages, interfacing to databases and generating dynamic content. People are writing artificial intelligence and machine learning programs in Ruby, and at least one person is using it to investigate natural evolution. Ruby's finding a home as a vehicle for exploratory mathematics. And people all over the world are using it as a way of gluing together all their different applications. It truly is a great language for producing solutions in a wide variety of problem domains.

Should I Use Ruby?

However, Ruby is probably more applicable than you might think. It is easy to extend, both from within the language and by linking in third-party libraries. It is portable across a number of platforms. It's relatively lightweight and consumes only modest system resources. And it's easy to learn; we've known people who've put Ruby code into production systems within a day of picking up drafts of this book. We've used Ruby to implement parts of an X11 window manager, a task that's normally considered severe C coding. Ruby excelled, and helped us write code in hours that would otherwise have taken days.

2.5 Editors and IDEs

2.6 Further Reading

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Table 2.2: List of Major System Variables	 62
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Appendix A Ruby-Doc

Help and documentation for the Ruby programming language.

- Ruby-Doc Core Reference Home
- Core API

These are the API documents for the base classes and modules in the current stable release of Ruby 2.5.

• Standard Library API

These are the API documents for the standard library classes and modules in version 2.5

• Getting Started

A collection of resources for those just starting out with Ruby.

- Ruby-Doc Downloads
- The Ruby Specification Project

A.1 API Documentation

This is the API documentation for Ruby 2.5.1.

Section A.1.1 "Files API", page 78,

Section A.1.2 "Classes And Modules API", page 79,

Section A.1.3 "Methods API", page 85,

A.1.1 Files API

Grammar http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/_lib/racc/rdoc/grammar_en_rdoc.
html

Contributing

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/contributing_rdoc.html

DTrace Probes

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/dtrace_probes_rdoc.html

Extension http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/extension_rdoc.html

Globals http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/globals_rdoc.html

Keywords http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/keywords_rdoc.html

Marshall http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/marshal_rdoc.html

RegExp http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/regexp_rdoc.html

Security http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/security_rdoc.html

Standard Library

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/standard_library_rdoc.html

Syntax http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax_rdoc.html

Assignment

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/assignment_rdoc.html

Calling Methods

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/calling_methods_rdoc.
html

Control Expressions

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/control_expressions_rdoc. html

Exceptions

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/exceptions_rdoc.html

Literals http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/literals_rdoc.html

Methods http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/methods_rdoc.html

Miscellaneous

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/miscellaneous_rdoc.html

Modules and Classes

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/modules_and_classes_rdoc. html

Precedence

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/precedence_rdoc.html

Refinements

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/refinements_rdoc.html

README http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/sample/drb/README_rdoc.html

A.1.2 Classes And Modules API

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          Process::getpriority (Class Method)
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          File::realdirpath (Class Method)
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rectangular
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          Process/Sys::seteuid (Class Method)
          Process/Sys::setgid (Class Method)
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          Process::setpgid (Class Method)
setpgid
          Process::setpgrp (Class Method)
setpgrp
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          Process::setpriority (Class Method)
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          Process::setproctitle (Class Method)
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          Process/Sys::setresgid (Class Method)
setresuid
          Process/Sys::setresuid (Class Method)
```

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setrlimit
          Process::setrlimit (Class Method)
          Process/Sys::setruid (Class Method)
setruid
setsid
          Process::setsid (Class Method)
          Process/Sys::setuid (Class Method)
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          File::setuid? (Class Method)
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          ENV::shift (Class Method)
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          Integer::sqrt (Class Method)
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          Math::sqrt (Class Method)
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          Math::tanh (Class Method)
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          ENV::to_hash (Class Method)
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          Process::waitpid (Class Method)
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          File::world_writable? (Class Method)
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```

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%	Numeric#% (Instance Method)
%	String#% (Instance Method)
&	Array#& (Instance Method)
&	FalseClass#& (Instance Method)
&	Integer#& (Instance Method)
&	NilClass#& (Instance Method)
&	${\tt Process/Status\#\&~(Instance~Method)}$
&	TrueClass#& (Instance Method)
*	Array#* (Instance Method)
*	Complex#* (Instance Method)
*	Float#* (Instance Method)
*	<pre>Integer#* (Instance Method)</pre>
*	Rational#* (Instance Method)
*	String#* (Instance Method)
**	Complex#** (Instance Method)
**	Float#** (Instance Method)
**	<pre>Integer#** (Instance Method)</pre>
**	Rational #** (Instance Method)
+	Array#+ (Instance Method)
+	Complex#+ (Instance Method)
+	Float#+ (Instance Method)
+	Integer#+ (Instance Method)
+	Rational#+ (Instance Method)
+	String#+ (Instance Method)
+	Time#+ (Instance Method)
+0	Numeric#+0 (Instance Method)
+0	String#+0 (Instance Method)
_	Array#- (Instance Method)
_	Complex#- (Instance Method)
_	Float#- (Instance Method)
_	Integer#- (Instance Method)

Rational#- (Instance Method)

-	Time#- (Instance Method)
-0	Complex#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	Float#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	<pre>Integer#-0 (Instance Method)</pre>
-0	Numeric#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	Rational#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	String#-0 (Instance Method)
/	Complex#/ (Instance Method)
/	Float#/ (Instance Method)
/	Integer#/ (Instance Method)
/	Rational#/ (Instance Method)
<	Comparable#< (Instance Method)
<	Float#< (Instance Method)
<	Hash#< (Instance Method)
<	<pre>Integer#< (Instance Method)</pre>
<	Module#< (Instance Method)
<<	Array#<< (Instance Method)
<<	IO#<< (Instance Method)
<<	<pre>Integer#<< (Instance Method)</pre>
<<	Queue#<< (Instance Method)
<<	${\tt SizedQueue\#<<}~(Instance~Method)$
<<	String#<< (Instance Method)
<=	${\tt Comparable\#<=}~({\tt Instance~Method})$
<=	Float#<= (Instance Method)
<=	Hash#<= (Instance Method)
<=	<pre>Integer#<= (Instance Method)</pre>
<=	Module#<= (Instance Method)
<=>	Array#<=> (Instance Method)
<=>	File/Stat#<=> (Instance Method)
<=>	Float#<=> (Instance Method)
<=>	<pre>Integer#<=> (Instance Method)</pre>
<=>	<pre>Module#<=> (Instance Method)</pre>
<=>	Numeric#<=> (Instance Method)

```
<=>
          Object#<=> (Instance Method)
          Rational #<=> (Instance Method)
<=>
<=>
          String#<=> (Instance Method)
          Symbol#<=> (Instance Method)
<=>
<=>
          Time#<=> (Instance Method)
          Array#== (Instance Method)
          BasicObject#== (Instance Method)
          Comparable == (Instance Method)
          Complex#== (Instance Method)
          Encoding/Converter#== (Instance Method)
          Exception#== (Instance Method)
          Float#== (Instance Method)
          Hash#== (Instance Method)
==
          Integer#== (Instance Method)
==
          MatchData#== (Instance Method)
          Method#== (Instance Method)
          Module#== (Instance Method)
          Process/Status#== (Instance Method)
==
          Random#== (Instance Method)
==
          Range#== (Instance Method)
          Rational #== (Instance Method)
          Regexp#== (Instance Method)
          String#== (Instance Method)
          Struct#== (Instance Method)
          Symbol#== (Instance Method)
          UnboundMethod#== (Instance Method)
          FalseClass#=== (Instance Method)
          Float#=== (Instance Method)
          Integer#=== (Instance Method)
          Method#=== (Instance Method)
          Module#=== (Instance Method)
          NilClass#=== (Instance Method)
          Object#=== (Instance Method)
===
```

```
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           Range#=== (Instance Method)
           Regexp#=== (Instance Method)
           String#=== (Instance Method)
           Symbol#=== (Instance Method)
           TrueClass#=== (Instance Method)
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           Symbol#=~ (Instance Method)
           Comparable#> (Instance Method)
>
>
           Float#> (Instance Method)
           Hash#> (Instance Method)
>
           Integer#> (Instance Method)
>
>
           Module#> (Instance Method)
           Comparable#>= (Instance Method)
           Float#>= (Instance Method)
           Hash#>= (Instance Method)
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           Integer#>= (Instance Method)
>=
           Module#>= (Instance Method)
>=
>>
           Integer#>> (Instance Method)
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Float
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Integer
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          Proc#[] (Instance Method)
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          Array#[] = (Instance Method)
[]=
          Hash#[] = (Instance Method)
[]=
          ObjectSpace/WeakMap#[] = (Instance Method)
[]=
          String#[] = (Instance Method)
          Struct#[] = (Instance Method)
[]=
          Thread#[] = (Instance Method)
[]=
          FalseClass#^ (Instance Method)
          Integer#^ (Instance Method)
          NilClass#^ (Instance Method)
          TrueClass#^ (Instance Method)
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          Kernel#__dir__ (Instance Method)
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          BasicObject#__id__ (Instance Method)
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          Module#attr_reader (Instance Method)
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          File/Stat#blockdev? (Instance Method)
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          IO#bytes (Instance Method)
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          Random#bytes (Instance Method)
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          String#bytes (Instance Method)
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          Symbol#casecmp? (Instance Method)
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          Numeric#ceil (Instance Method)
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          FileTest#chardev? (Instance Method)
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          IO#chars (Instance Method)
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          File#chmod (Instance Method)
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          Range#inspect (Instance Method)
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inspect
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max=	${\tt SizedQueue\#max=}~(Instance~Method)$
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to_f
          Complex#to_f (Instance Method)
          Float#to_f (Instance Method)
to_f
          Integer#to_f (Instance Method)
to_f
          NilClass#to_f (Instance Method)
to_f
          Rational#to_f (Instance Method)
to_f
          String#to_f (Instance Method)
to_f
          Time#to_f (Instance Method)
to_f
          Array#to_h (Instance Method)
to_h
to_h
          Enumerable#to_h (Instance Method)
to_h
          Hash#to_h (Instance Method)
to_h
          NilClass#to_h (Instance Method)
to_h
          Struct#to_h (Instance Method)
          Hash#to_hash (Instance Method)
to_hash
to_i
          ARGF#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
          Complex#to_i (Instance Method)
          Float#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
to_i
          IO#to_i (Instance Method)
          Integer#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
          NilClass#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
          Process/Status#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
to_i
          Rational#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
          String#to_i (Instance Method)
          Time#to_i (Instance Method)
to_i
to_int
          Float#to_int (Instance Method)
```

to_int	<pre>Integer#to_int (Instance Method)</pre>
to_int	Numeric#to_int (Instance Method)
to_io	ARGF#to_io (Instance Method)
to_io	IO#to_io (Instance Method)
to_path	Dir#to_path (Instance Method)
to_path	File#to_path (Instance Method)
to_proc	Hash#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_proc	Method#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_proc	Proc#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_proc	Symbol#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_r	Complex#to_r (Instance Method)
to_r	Float#to_r (Instance Method)
to_r	<pre>Integer#to_r (Instance Method)</pre>
to_r	NilClass#to_r (Instance Method)
to_r	Rational#to_r (Instance Method)
to_r	String#to_r (Instance Method)
to_r	Time#to_r (Instance Method)
to_s	ARGF#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Array#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Complex#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	<pre>Encoding#to_s (Instance Method)</pre>
to_s	Exception#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	FalseClass#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Fiber#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Float#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	<pre>Hash#to_s (Instance Method)</pre>
to_s	<pre>Integer#to_s (Instance Method)</pre>
to_s	MatchData#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Method#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Module#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	NilClass#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Object#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s	Proc#to_s (Instance Method)

```
Process/Status#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          Range#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          Rational#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          Regexp#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          String#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          Struct#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
to_s
          Symbol#to_s (Instance Method)
          Thread#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          Thread/Backtrace/Location#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          Time#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          TrueClass#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          UnboundMethod#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          UncaughtThrowError#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          String#to_str (Instance Method)
to_str
          String#to_sym (Instance Method)
to_sym
to_sym
          Symbol#to_sym (Instance Method)
to_write_io
          ARGF#to_write_io (Instance Method)
          String#tr (Instance Method)
tr
          String#tr! (Instance Method)
tr!
          String#tr_s (Instance Method)
tr_s
          String#tr_s! (Instance Method)
tr_s!
trace_points
          RubyVM/InstructionSequence#trace_points (Instance Method)
trace_var
          Kernel#trace_var (Instance Method)
transfer Fiber#transfer (Instance Method)
transform_keys
          Hash#transform_keys (Instance Method)
transform_keys!
          Hash#transform_keys! (Instance Method)
transform_values
          Hash#transform_values (Instance Method)
transform_values!
          Hash#transform_values! (Instance Method)
```

transpose

```
Array#transpose (Instance Method)
          Kernel#trap (Instance Method)
trap
          File#truncate (Instance Method)
truncate
          Float#truncate (Instance Method)
truncate
          Integer#truncate (Instance Method)
truncate
          Numeric#truncate (Instance Method)
truncate
          Rational#truncate (Instance Method)
truncate
          Object#trust (Instance Method)
trust
try_lock Mutex#try_lock (Instance Method)
tty?
          IO#tty? (Instance Method)
          Time#tuesday? (Instance Method)
tuesday?
          Time#tv_nsec (Instance Method)
tv_nsec
          Time#tv_sec (Instance Method)
tv sec
tv_usec
          Time#tv_usec (Instance Method)
uid
          File/Stat#uid (Instance Method)
          Method#unbind (Instance Method)
unbind
undef_method
          Module#undef_method (Instance Method)
undump
          String#undump (Instance Method)
ungetbyte
          IO#ungetbyte (Instance Method)
          IO#ungetc (Instance Method)
ungetc
unicode_normalize
          String#unicode_normalize (Instance Method)
unicode normalize!
          String#unicode_normalize! (Instance Method)
unicode_normalized?
          String#unicode_normalized? (Instance Method)
          Array#uniq (Instance Method)
uniq
          Enumerable#uniq (Instance Method)
uniq
          Enumerator/Lazy#uniq (Instance Method)
uniq
          Array#uniq! (Instance Method)
uniq!
          Mutex#unlock (Instance Method)
unlock
          String#unpack (Instance Method)
unpack
```

```
unpack1
          String#unpack1 (Instance Method)
unshift
          Array#unshift (Instance Method)
untaint
          Object#untaint (Instance Method)
untrace_var
          Kernel#untrace_var (Instance Method)
          Object#untrust (Instance Method)
untrust
untrusted?
          Object#untrusted? (Instance Method)
          String#upcase (Instance Method)
upcase
          Symbol#upcase (Instance Method)
upcase
upcase!
          String#upcase! (Instance Method)
          Hash#update (Instance Method)
update
          Integer#upto (Instance Method)
upto
upto
          String#upto (Instance Method)
          Time#usec (Instance Method)
usec
          Module#using (Instance Method)
using
          Time#utc (Instance Method)
utc
utc?
          Time#utc? (Instance Method)
utc_offset
          Time#utc_offset (Instance Method)
valid_encoding?
          String#valid_encoding? (Instance Method)
value
          Thread#value (Instance Method)
          UncaughtThrowError#value (Instance Method)
value
          Hash#value? (Instance Method)
value?
          Hash#values (Instance Method)
values
          ObjectSpace/WeakMap#values (Instance Method)
values
          Struct#values (Instance Method)
values
values_at
          Array#values_at (Instance Method)
values_at
          Hash#values_at (Instance Method)
values_at
          MatchData#values_at (Instance Method)
values_at
          Struct#values_at (Instance Method)
```

```
wait
          ConditionVariable#wait (Instance Method)
          Thread#wakeup (Instance Method)
wakeup
warn
          Kernel#warn (Instance Method)
          Warning#warn (Instance Method)
warn
wday
          Time#wday (Instance Method)
wednesday?
          Time#wednesday? (Instance Method)
with_index
          Enumerator#with_index (Instance Method)
with_object
          Enumerator#with_object (Instance Method)
world_readable?
          File/Stat#world_readable? (Instance Method)
world_readable?
          FileTest#world_readable? (Instance Method)
world_writable?
          File/Stat#world_writable? (Instance Method)
world_writable?
          FileTest#world_writable? (Instance Method)
writable?
          File/Stat#writable? (Instance Method)
writable?
          FileTest#writable? (Instance Method)
writable_real?
          File/Stat#writable_real? (Instance Method)
writable_real?
          FileTest#writable_real? (Instance Method)
          ARGF#write (Instance Method)
write
          IO#write (Instance Method)
write
write
          Warning/buffer#write (Instance Method)
write_nonblock
          IO#write_nonblock (Instance Method)
          Time#yday (Instance Method)
yday
year
          Time#year (Instance Method)
          Proc#yield (Instance Method)
yield
yield_self
          Object#yield_self (Instance Method)
```

zero?	File/Stat#zero? (Instance Method)
zero?	FileTest#zero? (Instance Method)
zero?	Float#zero? (Instance Method)
zero?	Numeric#zero? (Instance Method)
zip	Array#zip (Instance Method)
zip	Enumerable#zip (Instance Method)
zip	Enumerator/Lazy#zip (Instance Method)
zone	Time#zone (Instance Method)
1	Array# (Instance Method)
1	FalseClass# (Instance Method)
1	Integer# (Instance Method)
1	NilClass# (Instance Method)
1	TrueClass# (Instance Method)
~	Complex#~ (Instance Method)
~	Integer#~ (Instance Method)
~	Regexp#~ (Instance Method)

A.1.4 Beginner Core Topics

Syntax http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax_rdoc.html

Control Expressions

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/control_expressions_rdoc. html

Assignment

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/assignment_rdoc.html

Methods http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/methods_rdoc.html

Modules and Classes

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/modules_and_classes_rdoc. html

Operator Precedence

http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/doc/syntax/precedence_rdoc.html

Appendix B Utility Programs

Here are some utility programs that I either found or created.

B.1 Ruby Eval Utility

```
See "On Simple Examples", page 42, eval.rb
```

NOTE: This program's original name is eval.rb. However, there is a name conflict with eval. In order to allow this program to be run as an executable while sitting in the bin directory, I need to change its name to soemthing other than eval. Of course, eval.rb would work, but I would like a simple name without an extension. Therefore, I am using rbeval as a compromise. This is handled by <code>@post_create</code> when creating an executable in the bin directory. The original file will be moved into src with its original eval.rb intact.

```
\{eval.rb\} \equiv
   #! /usr/local/bin/ruby
   # Ruby interactive input/eval loop
   # Written by matz
                         (matz@netlab.co.jp)
   # Modified by Mark Slagell (slagell@ruby-lang.org)
       with suggestions for improvement from Dave Thomas
                         (Dave@Thomases.com)
   # NOTE - this file has been renamed with a .txt extension to
   # allow you to view or download it without the rubyist.net
   # web server trying to run it as a CGI script. You will
   # probably want to rename it back to eval.rb.
   module EvalWrapper
     < eval - EvalWrapper - Constants >
     <eval—EvalWrapper-Indentation Deltas>
     # On exit, restore normal screen colors.
     END { print Norm,"\n" }
     # Execution starts here.
```

```
indent=0
                     # Top of main loop.
       while true
         < eval - Main - Get\ Line >
         < eval—Main-Process\ Line>
                     # Bottom of main loop
       end
       print "\n"
     end # module
The following table lists called chunk definition points.
Chunk name
                              First definition point
< eval-EvalWrapper-Constants >
                              See "eval.rb Module Code", page 155.
< eval-EvalWrapper-Indentation
                              See "eval.rb Indentation Deltas Code", page 155.
Deltas>
<eval—Main-Get Line>
                              See "eval.rb Main Get Line Code", page 156.
<eval—Main-Process Line>
                              See "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 156.
B.1.1 eval.rb Module Code
< eval-EvalWrapper-Constants > \equiv
     # Constants for ANSI screen interaction. Adjust to your liking.
     Norm = "\033[0m"]
     PCol
            = Norm
                              # Prompt color
                              # yellow
     Code = "\033[1;32m"]
                              # cyan
            = "\033[0;36m"
     Prompt = PCol+"ruby> "+Norm
                      | "+Norm
     PrMore = PCol+"
     Ispace = "
                              # Adjust length of this for indentation.
            = "033[A\\033[K" # Move cursor up and erase line]
This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.
B.1.2 eval.rb Indentation Deltas Code
<eval—EvalWrapper-Indentation Deltas> \equiv
     # Return a pair of indentation deltas. The first applies before
     # the current line is printed, the second after.
     def EvalWrapper.indentation( code )
       case code
       when /^\s*(class|module|def|if|case|while|for|begin)\b[^_]/
```

increase indentation because of keyword

when $/^\s*end\b[^_]/$

```
[-1,0]
                   # decrease because of end
       when /{\s*(\l.*\l)?\s*$/}
                    # increase because of '{'
         [0,1]
       when /^\s*\}/
         [-1,0] # decrease because of '}'
       when /^\s*(rescue|ensure|elsif|else)\b[^_]/
         [-1,1]
                   # decrease for this line, then come back
       else
         [0,0]
                    # we see no reason to change anything
       end # case
     end # def
This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.
B.1.3 eval.rb Main Get Line Code
<eval-Main-Get Line> \equiv
     # Print prompt, move cursor to tentative indentation level, and get
     # a line of input from the user.
     if( indent == 0 )
       expr = ''; print Prompt # (expecting a fresh expression)
     else
                                 # (appending to previous lines)
       print PrMore
     end
     print Ispace * indent,Code
     line = gets
     print Norm
This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.
B.1.4 eval.rb Main Process Line Code
```

```
< eval-Main-Process\ Line> <math>\equiv
      <eval—Main-Process Line-If Not Line>
      <eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line>
This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.
The following table lists called chunk definition points.
```

```
Chunk name
                                      First definition point
<eval—Main-Process Line-If Not See "eval.rb If Not Line Code", page 157.</pre>
Line >
```

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line> See "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 157.

B.1.4.1 eval.rb If Not Line Code

```
<eval—Main-Process Line-If Not Line> =
  if not line
    # end of input (^D) - if there is no expression, exit, else
    # reset cursor to the beginning of this line.
  if expr == '' then break else print "\r" end
```

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 156.

B.1.4.2 eval.rb If Is Line Code

```
<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line> =
   else

# Append the input to whatever we had.
   expr << line
   <eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line_Indentation>
   <eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line_Worth Evaluating?>
```

end # if not line

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 156.

The following table lists called chunk definition points.

```
Chunk name
                                First definition point
< eval — Main — Process
                        Line-Is See "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 157.
Line\_Indentation >
< eval — Main — Process
                        Line-Is See "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 158.
Line_Worth Evaluating?>
### Indentation ###
<eval-Main-Process Line-Is Line_-Indentation> \equiv
     # Determine changes in indentation, reposition this line if
     # necessary, and adjust indentation for the next prompt.
     begin
        ind1,ind2 = indentation( line )
        if( ind1 != 0 )
          indent += ind1
          print Wipe,PrMore,(Ispace*indent),Code,line,Norm
        end
        indent += ind2
```

```
# On error, restart the main loop.
       print Eval, "ERR: Nesting violation\n", Norm
       indent = 0
       redo
     end # begin
This chunk is called by <eval-Main-Process Line-Is Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb If Is Line
Code", page 157.
### Something Worth Evaluating? ###
<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line_Worth Evaluating?> ≡
     # Okay, do we have something worth evaulating?
     if (indent == 0) && (expr.chop = ^{-} /[^; \t\n\r\f]+/)
       begin
         result = eval(expr, TOPLEVEL_BINDING).inspect
         if $! # no exception, but $! non-nil, means a warning
           print Eval,$!,Norm,"\n"
            $!=nil
         end
                          ",result,Norm,"\n"
         print Eval,"
       rescue ScriptError, StandardError
         $! = 'exception raised' if not $!
         print Eval, "ERR: ",$!, Norm, "\n"
       end
       break if not line
     end # if
This chunk is called by <eval-Main-Process Line-Is Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb If Is Line
```

Code", page 157.

The following line is executed after jrtangle runs.

@post_create eval.rb chmod +x eval.rb && mv eval.rb src && ln src/eval.rb bin/rbeval

B.2 API Utility

The purpose of this little utility is to assist with the construction of the API tables; that is, it will help insert @item labels, and perhaps assist with constructing URL's if I am lucky. I am writing it using the GAWK programming language to refresh my knowledge of AWK (and get to know GAWK's extra features).

```
{apiutil.awk} = #! /usr/bin/env gawk -f
```

B.1.5 eval.rb Post Create

```
<aprivatil—BEGIN Block>
<aprivatil—BEGINFILE Block>
<aprivatil—MAIN Block>
<aprivatil—ENDFILE Block>
<aprivatil—END Block>
```

The following table lists called chunk definition points.

Chunk name First definition point See "apiutil awk BEGIN Block", page 159. See "apiutil awk BEGINFILE BLOCK", page 159. See "apiutil awk END Block", page 165. See "apiutil awk ENDFILE Block", page 165. See "apiutil awk ENDFILE Block", page 165. See "apiutil awk MAIN Block", page 159.

B.2.1 apiutil.awk BEGIN Block

```
< apiutil -BEGIN \ Block> \equiv
BEGIN \ \{ \\ < apiutil -BEGIN-Variable \ Defns> \\ < apiutil -BEGIN-Ord \ Function \ Init> \}
```

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158. The following table lists called chunk definition points.

```
Chunk name First definition point See "apiutil—BEGIN-Ord Function Init" See "apiutil Ord Function", page 165. See "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160.
```

B.2.2 apiutil.awk BEGINFILE BLOCK

This will allow this filename to be changed a little more easily.

```
<apiutil—BEGINFILE Block> =
BEGINFILE {
    newfile = FILENAME".new"
}
```

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

B.2.3 apiutil.awk MAIN Block

```
<april-MAIN Block-Main Loop>
```

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158. The following table lists called chunk definition points.

```
Chunk name

<aprival — MAIN Block—Convert Symbols () Function Definition", page 166.

bols Function Defn>

<aprival — MAIN Block—Main Loop>
<aprival — MAIN Block—Ord Function
Defn>

See "apiutil awk MAIN Block", page 160.

See "apiutil Ord Function", page 166.

See "apiutil Ord Function", page 166.
```

Main Loop Variable Definitions

I will define the main loop variables first. The variables start and end hold regular expression strings that target the two tables I want to process. The variable started flags whether the code is inside a table (1) or not (0).

```
<apiutil—BEGIN-Variable Defns> =
    start = "^@float Table,table:api-.*$"
    end = "^@end table$"
    started = 0
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

Main Outer Loop Definitions

The MAIN block does two things: passes over unchanged whatever is not inside a target table, and processes the contents of a target table. It uses the flag started to pass through the beginning and ending lines basically unchanged as well¹.

```
< apiutil-MAIN\ Block-Main\ Loop> \equiv # process whatever is in between the 'start' and 'end' of a table
```

¹ In fact one line is added at the end of the table to account for better style

```
$0 ~ start, $0 ~ end {

# Upon first entering a table, set the 'started' flag true (1)
if (started == 0) {
    started = 1
    next
}

<aprival-Main Block-Main Loop-Inside>
}
```

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

The called chunk <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside> is first defined at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161.

Preliminary and Post Processing of the Inside of a Table

Once inside the main loop, do some preliminary processing and checking. Make sure @ signs are properly escaped, and ignore the @table line. Also check for the end of the table, add a newline, and reset the started flag.

```
<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside> =
    # ignore the @table line
    if ($0 ~ /^@table/) {
        print $0 > newfile
        next
    }

    # at the end of a table, add an empty line for better style
    # and turn off the 'started' flag
    if ($0 ~ end) {
        print "\n"$0 > newfile
        started = 0
        next
    }

# make sure any special symbols are properly escaped
    gsub(/@/, /@@/)
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162.

This chunk is called by *<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop>*; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160.

Main Processing Loop Definition

The real work is done on lines that are in the middle of the tables. There is first a regular expression check to make sure something that is not a Texinfo command (which begin with 0) is on the line because some lines are empty and are just ignored;

```
<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside> +=
    # process lines with content
    if ($0 ~ /^[CM]?[[:graph:]]+.*$/) {
        <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing>
        # ignore empty lines
} else {
        print > newfile
}
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160.

The called chunk <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing> is first defined at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162.

Inside the Main Processing Loop

After it finds a non-empty, non-command line, GAWK parses it into the array arr using the function match. This regexp is fairly busy. There are many parentheses because several parts of the regexp are optional, requiring an extra set around the optional parts, and extra parentheses are required to strip away a parenthesized word (ironically). The optional sections are marked by question marks (?s).

The first part of each line contains a marker indicating what kind of element the thing is. In the Classes table, the marker is either a C or an M. In the Methods table, the marker is either a pair of colons (::) or a hash (#).

Explanation of the main regexp

The main entry from either table is obtained by grabbing everything that is not a right parenthesis (() or a space. In the Class table, this is everything on the line. In the Method table, this is everything up until the parenthesized class name in which the method is defined. Likewise, this parenthesized class is obtained by grabbing everything up until the closing parenthesis.

Finally, each parsed parenthesized regexp is inserted into the array **arr** and available for use after the parsing.

- 1. arr[1]: Identification of either class or method; it will contain one of C, M, ::, or #.
- 2. arr[2]: Main entry; it will contain the name of a class (for the Class table, or the name of a method (for the Method table).
- 3. arr[3]: ignored parenthesized class (optional)
- 4. arr[4]: a method's class (optional); it will contain the name of the class within which a method is defined.

```
# print "1-"(arr[1])"-2-"(arr[2])"-3-"(arr[3])"-4-"(arr[4])"|"
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 165.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161.

Variable Definitions

When parsing the lines of text obtained from copying the library page, the initial letters and symbols can be translated into meaningful words using the hash classmethod.

```
<apiutil—BEGIN-Variable Defns> +=
    classmethod["C"] = "Class"
    classmethod["M"] = "Module"
    classmethod["::"] = "Class Method"
    classmethod["#"] = "Instance Method"
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

Additionally, a method's designator can be used to help form URL's pointing to the method definition.

```
< apiutil - BEGIN-Variable\ Defns> + \equiv
methid["::"] = "-c-"
methid["#"] = "-i-"
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

Stitching Together the Parts

Once the parsing has been completed, the parts are stitched together and printed with appropriate commands surrounding them, i.e., **@item** or **@code**, etc.

The variable itemurl will be used to stitch together the URL that will be the main @item content; it begins with the base url as defined in the BEGIN block:

```
<apiutil—BEGIN-Variable Defns> +≡
baseurl = "http://ruby-doc.org/core-2.5.1/"
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

baseurl starts the itemurl definition:

```
<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing> +≡
     itemurl = (baseurl)
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 165.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161.

Processing the arr Array

The additional parts of the array arr will be added to itemurl to create a complete and linkable URL into Ruby's core library pages.

The code now continues processing the arr array parts. If arr[4]) exists, then the code is currently processing the Method table, and since the parts are different than the Class table, it must differentiate between them.

arr[4] will be empty for a Class table element, and so it can be reformatted somewhat for a Method table element by placing its contents inside a @code format.

The Method links require most symbols to be hexadecimal equivalents of their ASCII code number. Therefore, I made a function called convertsymbols() that will iterate over a method name and convert any symbols (with the exception of the underscore) into hexadecimal ASCII, separated by dashes. When this name is inserted into the URL, it links directly to the proper method inside the class documentation.

```
<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing> +≡
     if (length(arr[4]) > 0) {
```

#process the Method table

method = arr[2]

}

```
class = arr[4]
 gsub(/::/, "/", class)
 methwsymbols = convertsymbols(method)
  itemurl = "@item @url{"(itemurl)(class)".html#method"(methid[arr[1]])(methwsymbols)"
 detail = "@code{"(class)(arr[1])(method)"} ("(classmethod[arr[1]])")"
} else {
 # process the Class table
 class = arr[2]
 itemurl = "@item @url{"(itemurl)(class)".html,"(arr[2])"}"
 detail = (classmethod[arr[1]])
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 165.

This chunk is called by <aputil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk" MAIN Block", page 161.

Printing the Table Items

The code is printing a Qtable element, and it contains both an Qitem column and a detail column.

```
<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing> +=
    print itemurl > newfile
    print detail > newfile
```

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161.

B.2.4 apiutil.awk ENDFILE Block

```
<apiutil—ENDFILE Block> =
ENDFILE {
    system("mv -v "FILENAME" "FILENAME".bak && mv -vi "FILENAME".new "FILENAME)
}
```

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

B.2.5 apiutil.awk END Block

```
< apiutil-END \; Block> \equiv END { print "All done" }
```

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

B.2.6 apiutil Ord Function

I need to turn symbols (like = and +) into their hexadecimal numbers inside Method URL links. I found this ord function in GAWK's documentation. See Section "Ordinal Functions" in GAWK. It consists of an initialization segment, in which a hash of symbols and their corresponding ASCII codes is assembled, and a function that, given either an ord number or a char symbol, returns the opposite. I will put the initialization code into the BEGIN segment, and the function definition into the MAIN block.

The ord Function Initialization Segments

The <code>_ord_init()</code> initialization function is called from the BEGIN block, but is defined at the bottom of the MAIN block along with the other <code>ord</code> functions.

```
<apiutil—BEGIN-Ord Function Init> =
    # initialize the _ord_ and _chr_ function's ASCII symbol table
_ord_init()
```

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil Ord Function", page 166.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

The ord() and chr() Function Definitions

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil Ord Function", page 166.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

B.2.7 convertsymbols() Function Definition

This function, convertsymbols(), takes a method name and converts all symbols in the following ranges into their hexadecimal equivalents:

- ASCII 0x20 (SP) and ASCII 0x2f (/)
- ASCII 0x3a (:) and ASCII 0x40 (@)
- ASCII 0x5b ([) and ASCII 0x5e (^)
- ASCII 0x7b ({) and ASCII 0x7e (~)

<apiutil─MAIN Block-Convert Symbols Function Defn> ≡

the 'convertsymbol()' function: given a method name, convert symbols

```
# into hexadecimal separated by dashes
function convertsymbols(meth,\
  converted, low1, high1, low2, high2, low3, high3, low4, high4, c, f, i, o) {
 # ASCII ranges to look for
 low1 = 0x20 # SP
 high1 = 0x2f # /
 low2 = 0x3a # :
 high2 = 0x40 # 0
 low3 = 0x5b # [
 high3 = 0x5e # ^ (leave _ alone)
 low4 = 0x7b # {
 high4 = 0x7e \# ~
  # this flag places dashes between symbols
 dash = 0
 f[1] = "-"
  # this will hold the converted name
  converted = ""
 # iterate over the characters in 'meth', converting the symbols
  for (i = 1; i <= length(meth); i++) {</pre>
   c = substr(meth, i, 1)
    # this is a decimal number internally, but is converted to hexadecimal
    # by the "%x" format string
    o = ord(c)
    if ( (o >= low1 && o <= high1) ||
         (o >= low2 && o <= high2) ||
         (o >= low3 && o <= high3) ||
         (o >= low4 && o <= high4) ) {
      # do not place a dash if a symbol is the first character
      converted = (converted)(sprintf("%s%X", f[dash], o))
    } else {
      converted = (converted)(c)
   if (dash == 0) { dash = 1 }
 return converted
}
```

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

B.2.8 apiutil Makefile Target

Add a target for running apiutil.awk in the Makefile. Note that the directory ./bin is created in the @initial_setup environment (see Section C.1 "Initial Setup", page 169) and is made executable by a @post_create command (see Section C.2 "Post Create", page 169), both of which were added by the TexiwebJR program.

```
<Makefile—Utility Targets> \equiv 
# apiutil.awk
###########
.PHONY : apiutil
apiutil :
    bin/apiutil.awk Ruby2_5.twjr
```

This chunk is also defined in "Utility Targets", page 172.

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

Appendix C Initial Setup and Post Create

TexiwebJr has a couple of new utility commands for working with files:

- @initial_setup
- @post_create

C.1 Initial Setup

TexiwebJR added a new command @initial_setup that executes some commands in the shell prior to jrtangle or jrweave processing a file. This can be used to create directories into which the command @post_create can move specified files (see Section C.2 "Post Create", page 169).

Since these commands do not show up in a woven document, I have placed them into a little @example environment here:

```
@initial_setup
mkdir -p src
mkdir -p bin
@end initial_setup
```

Set up some directories into which files can be moved, and add a little shell script to add ./bin to PATH (but it can only be run from the command line as source setpath.sh).

```
{setpath.sh} =
    #! /usr/bin/env bash
    # setpath.sh USAGE 'source setpath.sh'
    export PATH=./bin:$PATH
```

C.2 Post Create

Make apiutil.awk executable and move it into bin. It can be run either by executing the make target 'apiutil' (as 'make apiutil') or by running the command from the ./bin directory. Note that there is a little shell script that will add ./bin to the path environment variable, which must be run "by hand" as 'source setpath.sh'.

@post_create apiutil.awk chmod -v +x apiutil.awk && mv apiutil.awk src && ln -vf src/apiut

Appendix D The Makefile

```
{Makefile} ≡
    # MAKEFILE FILE CHUNKS
    ################

<Makefile—Variable Definitions>

<Makefile—Default Target>

<Makefile—TWJR Targets>

<Makefile—Utility Targets>

<Makefile—Utility Targets>
```

The following table lists called chunk definition points.

D.1 Makefile Variable Definitions

```
<Makefile—Variable Definitions> =
    # VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
    ################
FILE := Ruby2_5
SHELL := /bin/bash
```

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

D.2 Default Rule

The default rule is to create a PDF document and all HTML files. This assumes that the TEXI file has been generated and updated by hand first. Therefore, the target TWJR will run both jrtangle and jrweave, while the target WEAVE or alternatively TEXI will run just jrweave on the .twjr file. Thereafter, you can update the .texi file and run the default.

```
<Makefile—Default Target>  # DEFAULT Target
   ######################
.PHONY : default TWJR TANGLE WEAVE TEXI INFO PDF HTML
.PHONY : twjr tangle weave texi info pdf html
default : INFO PDF HTML
```

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

D.3 TWJR Targets

<Makefile-TWJR Targets $> \equiv$

```
# TWJR TARGETS
###############
TWJR : twjr
twjr : tangle weave
TANGLE : tangle
tangle : $(FILE).twjr
    jrtangle $(FILE).twjr
WEAVE : weave
weave : TEXI
TEXI : texi
texi : $(FILE).texi
$(FILE).texi : $(FILE).twjr
    jrweave $(FILE).twjr > $(FILE).texi
INFO : info
info : $(FILE).info
$(FILE).info : $(FILE).texi
    makeinfo $(FILE).texi
openinfo : INFO
    emacs $(FILE).info
PDF : pdf
pdf : $(FILE).pdf
$(FILE).pdf : $(FILE).texi
    pdftexi2dvi --build=tidy --build-dir=build --quiet $(FILE).texi
openpdf : PDF
    open $(FILE).pdf
HTML : html
html: $(FILE)/index.html
$(FILE)/index.html : $(FILE).texi
    makeinfo --html $(FILE).texi
openhtml: HTML
    open $(FILE)/index.html
```

D.4 Utility Targets

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil Makefile Target", page 168.

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

D.5 Clean Targets

```
<Makefile—Clean Targets> \equiv
     # CLEAN TARGETS
     ###############
     .PHONY : clean veryclean dirclean distclean worldclean
         rm -vf *~ .*~ \#*\#
     # clean tex detritus
     texclean : clean
         rm -vf *.{dvi,aux,log,toc,cp,cps,pg,pgs}
     # remove all dirs except HTML; remove *.{rb,sh} files from toplevel
     dirclean : clean
         for file in *; do [ -d $$file ] && [ $${file##$(FILE)*} ] && rm -vfr $$file; done;
         rm -vf *.{rb,sh}
     # remove everything except .twjr, .texi, and Makefile
     distclean : dirclean
         for file in *; do [[ $$file =~ twjr|texi|Makefile ]] && : || rm -vrf $$file ; done
     worldclean : distclean
         rm -fr $(FILE).{texi,info*,pdf} $(FILE)/
```

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

Appendix E Code Chunk Summaries

This appendix presents alphabetical lists of all the file definitions, the code chunk definitions, and the code chunk references.

E.1 Source File Definitions

```
{Makefile}
           This chunk is defined in "The Makefile", page 170.
{apiutil.awk}
           This chunk is defined in "API Utility", page 158.
{eval.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.
{fact.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "On Simple Examples", page 41.
{guess.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "On Puzzle Program", page 44.
{regx.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Regular Expressions", page 45.
{ri20min.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 21.
{setpath.sh}
           This chunk is defined in "Initial Setup", page 169.
```

E.2 Code Chunk Definitions

<MegaGreeter—say_bye Method>

This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 23.

 $< MegaGreeter - say_hi Method >$

This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 22.

<april-BEGIN Block>

This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

<apiutil—BEGIN-Ord Function Init>

This chunk is defined in "apiutil Ord Function", page 165.

 $< apiutil -- BEGIN-Variable\ Defns>$

Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 163.

 $< apiutil — BEGINFILE\ Block>$

This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk BEGINFILE BLOCK", page 159.

 $< apiutil-END\ Block>$

This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk END Block", page 165.

<apiutil—ENDFILE Block>

This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk ENDFILE Block", page 165.

<april-MAIN Block>

This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

 $< apiutil-MAIN\ Block-Convert\ Symbols\ Function\ Defn>$

This chunk is defined in "convertsymbols() Function Definition", page 166.

<april-MAIN Block-Main Loop>

This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160.

<april-MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>

Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing>

Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 162, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 164, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 165.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Ord Function Defn>

Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil Ord Function", page 166, and "apiutil Ord Function", page 166.

< eval-EvalWrapper-Constants >

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Module Code", page 155.

 $< eval-EvalWrapper-Indentation\ Deltas>$

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Indentation Deltas Code", page 155.

 $< eval - Main - Get\ Line >$

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Main Get Line Code", page 156.

- <eval—Main-Process Line>
 - This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 156.
- <eval—Main-Process Line-If Not Line>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Not Line Code", page 157.

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 157.

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line_Indentation>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 157.

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line_Worth Evaluating?>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 158.

E.3 Code Chunk References

< Makefile—Clean Targets>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

< Make file - Default Target >

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

 $< Makefile - TWJR \ Targets >$

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

<Makefile—Utility Targets>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

< Makefile—Variable Definitions>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 170.

<MegaGreeter—Initialize Method>

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

 $< MegaGreeter-Main\ Script>$

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

<MegaGreeter—say_bye Method>

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

 $< MegaGreeter - say_hi~Method >$

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 21.

<april-BEGIN Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

<april-BEGIN-Ord Function Init>

This chunk is called by *apiutil—BEGIN Block*>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

$< apiutil - BEGIN-Variable\ Defns>$

This chunk is called by *apiutil—BEGIN Block*>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 159.

<april-BEGINFILE Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

$< apiutil-END\ Block>$

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

<april-ENDFILE Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

<april-MAIN Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 158.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Convert Symbols Function Defn>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

<april-MAIN Block-Main Loop>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

<april-MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 160.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block—Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 161.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Ord Function Defn>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 159.

< eval - EvalWrapper - Constants >

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.

$< eval-EvalWrapper-Indentation\ Deltas>$

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.

< $eval-Main-Get\ Line>$

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.

<eval—Main-Process Line>

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 154.

 $< eval-Main-Process\ Line-If\ Not\ Line>$

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 156.

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line>

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 156.

< $eval-Main-Process\ Line-Is\ Line_Indentation>$

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 157.

< $eval-Main-Process\ Line-Is\ Line_Worth\ Evaluating?>$

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 157.

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