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This is Edition $0.6\mathrm{b}$ of Ruby 2.5 Information and Documentation.

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Preface

Think think think think . . .

Intended Audience

The combination of the power of a pure object-oriented language with the convenience of a scripting language makes Ruby a favorite tool of intelligent, forward-thinking programmers.

Programming Ruby, by Dave Thomas and Chad Fowler and Andy Hunt

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 81,

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 Ruby Help Tools

The RDoc system includes the command-line tools rdoc and ri for generating and displaying online documentation.

ri (Ruby Index) and RDoc (Ruby Documentation)¹ are a closely related pair of tools for providing documentation about Ruby programs. ri and rdoc are standalone programs; you run them from the command line. The Ruby ri tool is used to view the Ruby documentation off-line. RDoc produces HTML and online documentation for Ruby projects.

RDoc rdoc

2.2.1 RDoc

end

RDoc and the tool rdoc are a program documentation system. RDoc produces HTML and command-line documentation for Ruby projects. If you put comments in your program files (Ruby or C) in the prescribed RDoc format, rdoc scans your files, extracts the comments, organizes them intelligently (indexed according to what they comment on), and creates nicely formatted documentation from them. You can see RDoc markup in many of the C files in the Ruby source tree and many of the Ruby files in the Ruby installation.

2.2.1.1 Writing Documentation for RDoc

To write documentation for RDoc place a comment above the class, module, method, constant, or attribute you want documented:

```
##
# This class represents an arbitrary shape by a series of points.

class Shape

##
# Creates a new shape described by a +polyline+.
#
# If the +polyline+ does not end at the same point it started at the
# first pointed is copied and placed at the end of the line.
#
# An ArgumentError is raised if the line crosses itself, but shapes may
# be concave.

def initialize polyline
# ...
```

Not to be confused with the Ruby Programming Language Documentation at Ruby-Doc (see Appendix A "Ruby-Doc", page 81)

end

Comment Markup Formats

The default comment markup format is the RDoc::Markup format. TomDoc, Markdown and RD format comments are also supported.

Directives

Comments can contain directives that tell RDoc information that it cannot otherwise discover through parsing. See RDoc::Markup@Directives to control what is or is not documented, to define method arguments or to break up methods in a class by topic. See RDoc::Parser::Ruby for directives used to teach RDoc about metaprogrammed methods.

Documentation Coverage Report

To determine how well your project is documented run rdoc -C lib to get a documentation coverage report. rdoc -C1 lib includes parameter names in the documentation coverage report.

2.2.1.2 Generating Documention

Create documentation using the rdoc command:

```
$ rdoc --help
$ rdoc [options] [names...]
```

A typical use might be to generate documentation for a package of Ruby source. The command rdoc generates documentation for all the Ruby and C source files in and below the current directory. These will be stored in a documentation tree starting in the subdirectory doc.

You can make this slightly more useful for your readers by having the index page contain the documentation for the primary file.

```
$ rdoc --main README.rdoc
```

To generate documentation programmatically:

```
gem 'rdoc'
require 'rdoc/rdoc'

options = RDoc::Options.new
# see RDoc::Options

rdoc = RDoc::RDoc.new
rdoc.document options
# see RDoc::RDoc
```

2.2.1.3 Markup Directives

Directives are keywords surrounded by : characters.

Controlling what is documented

:nodoc: / :nodoc: all

This directive prevents documentation for the element from being generated. For classes and modules, methods, aliases, constants, and attributes directly within the affected class or module also will be omitted. By default, though, modules and classes within that class or module will be documented. This is turned off by adding the all modifier.

Method arguments

:arg: or :args: parameters

Overrides the default argument handling with exactly these parameters.

Sections

Sections allow you to group methods in a class into sensible containers. If you use the sections 'Public', 'Internal' and 'Deprecated' (the three allowed method statuses from Tom-Doc) the sections will be displayed in that order placing the most useful methods at the top. Otherwise, sections will be displayed in alphabetical order.

:category: section

Adds this item to the named section overriding the current section. Use this to group methods by section in RDoc output while maintaining a sensible ordering (like alphabetical).

Other directives

:markup: type

Overrides the default markup type for this comment with the specified markup type. For Ruby files, if the first comment contains this directive it is applied automatically to all comments in the file.

Unless you are converting between markup formats you should use a .rdoc_options file to specify the default documentation format for your entire project. See Saved Options at RDoc::Options for instructions.

2.2.2 ri Help System

The name stands for Ruby Interactive (not to be confused with Interactive Ruby).

The Ruby ri tool is used to view the Ruby documentation off-line. Open a command window and invoke ri followed by the name of a Ruby class, module or method. ri will display documentation for you. You may specify a method name without a qualifying class or module name, but this will just show you a list of all methods by that name (unless the method is unique). Normally, you can separate a class or module name from a method name with a period. If a class defines a class method and an instance method by the same name, you must instead use :: to refer to a class method or # to refer to the instance method. Here are some example invocations of ri:

ri Array

ri Array.sort

```
ri Hash#each
ri Math::sqrt
```

ri dovetails with RDoc: It gives you a way to view the information that RDoc has extracted and organized. Specifically (although not exclusively, if you customize it), ri is configured to display the RDoc information from the Ruby source files. Thus on any system that has Ruby fully installed, you can get detailed information about Ruby with a simple command-line invocation of ri. Some more information is available here:

Classes

To see a list of all the classes for which ri has documentation, type the following: ri -c. Then try accessing the documentation for a sample class: ri Hash. Next, try viewing the documentation for a given method, for example, one from the Array class, rather than Hash, just to give as much variety as possible: ri 'Array#<<'. You will sometimes need to quote the method name, in this case <<, to avoid the shell interpreting certain metacharacters.

In one of your shell's start-up files, you may care to alias ri to 'ri -f ansi', which will ensure you get a nice coloured display (as in the example above) when displaying documentation.

2.2.3 The Ruby Debugger

The Ruby debugger is a library loaded into Ruby at run-time. This is done as follows:

```
ruby -r debug [
options
] [
programfile
] [
arguments
```

The debugger can do all the usual sorts of things you would expect it to, such as set breakpoints, step into and over code, print out the call stack, etc.

2.3 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 10,
- "Developing Ruby", page 11,
- "Patch by Patch", page 11,
- 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

2.4 Getting Started

2.4.1 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.

2.4.2 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 2.4.2.1 "FAQ Iterators", page 12,
- Section 2.4.2.2 "FAQ Syntax", page 14,
- Methods
- Classes and modules
- Built-in libraries
- Extension library
- Other features

2.4.2.1 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 ... end # foobar is the iterator. foobar a, b \{ \ldots \} # 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

2.4.2.2 FAQ Syntax

```
List of FAQ items:
```

```
"FAQ Syntax", page 14,
"FAQ Syntax", page 14,
"FAQ Syntax", page 14,
"FAQ Syntax", page 15,
"FAQ Syntax", page 15,
"FAQ Syntax", page 16,
"FAQ Syntax", page 17,
"FAQ Syntax", page 17,
"FAQ Syntax", page 17,
```

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 doesnt 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 or 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).

2.4.2.3 FAQ Methods

How does Ruby choose which method to invoke?

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

Where are ++ and --?
```

What is a singleton method?

A singleton method is an instance method associated with one specific object. You create a singleton method by including the object in the definition:

```
class Foo; end

foo = Foo.new
bar = Foo.new

def foo.hello
   puts "Hello"
end

foo.hello
⇒Hello

bar.hello
⇒ prog.rb:11:in '<main>': undefined method 'hello' for #<Foo:0x000000010f5a40> (NoMethodError)

See "FAQ Classes and Modules", page 19.
```

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?

2.4.2.4 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?

A singleton method of a class object is called a *class method* (see "FAQ Methods", page 18). (Actually, the class method is defined in the metaclass, but that is pretty much transparent).

Another way of looking at it is to say that a class method is a method whose receiver is a class.

It all comes down to the fact that you can call class methods without having to have instances of that class (objects) as the receiver.

```
class Foo
  def self.test
    "this is foo"
  end
end

# It is invoked this way.

Foo.test # => "this is foo"

this every leaf to the is a class mather.
```

In this example, Foo.test is a class method.

Instance methods which are defined in class Class can be used as class methods for every(!) class.

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?

You can define a class method in the class definition, and you can define a class method at the top level.

```
class Demo
  def self.class_method
  end
end

def Demo.another_class_method
end
```

There is only one significant difference between the two. In the class definition you can refer to the classs constants directly, as the constants are within scope. At the top level, you have to use the Class::CONST notation.

What is the difference between include and extend?

What does self mean?

2.4.2.5 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?

2.4.2.6 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?

2.4.2.7 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?

2.4.3 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.

2.4.4 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.

2.4.5 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.)

2.4.5.1 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.

2.4.5.2 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
irb(main):032:2>        puts "Bye #{@name}, come back soon."
irb(main):033:2>    end
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'
```

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")
   => true
```

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.

2.4.5.3 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.

2.4.5.4 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.

```
Chunk name

<megaGreeter—Initialize Method>
<megaGreeter—Main Script>
<megaGreeter—say_bye Method>
<megaGreeter—say_hi Method>
<megaGreeter—sa
```

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 26.

$say_hi Method$

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 26.

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> =

# 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 26.

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> \equiv
       mg = MegaGreeter.new
       mg.say_hi
       mg.say_bye
       # Change name to be "Zeke"
       mg.names = "Zeke"
       mg.say_hi
       mg.say_bye
       # Change the name to an array of names
       mg.names = ["Albert", "Brenda", "Charles",
                   "Dave", "Engelbert"]
       mg.say_hi
       mg.say_bye
       # Change to nil
       mg.names = nil
       mg.say_hi
       mg.say_bye
```

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 26.

2.4.5.5 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!
...
```

2.4.6 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.

2.4.6.1 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.

2.4.6.2 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).

2.4.6.3 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").

2.4.6.4 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).

2.4.6.5 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.

2.4.7 Important Language Features

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

2.4.7.1 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 in aList: ...), 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).

2.4.7.2 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:

2.4.7.3 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).

2.4.7.4 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
```

2.4.7.5 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.

2.4.7.6 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.

2.4.7.7 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."
```

2.4.7.8 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'.
```

2.4.7.9 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.

2.4.7.10 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>
```

2.4.7.11 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
```

2.4.7.12 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.

2.4.7.13 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
```

2.4.7.14 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.

2.4.7.15 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
```

2.4.7.16 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!
```

2.4.7.17 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 +@ and -@ 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.

2.4.8 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.

2.4.9 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.

2.4.9.1 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>
```

2.4.9.2 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*.

2.4.9.3 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.

```
\begin{array}{ccc} local & & & [a-z] \ or \ \_ \\ global & & & \\ instance & & & \\ class & & & & \\ constant & & & [A-Z] \end{array}
```

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 82,
\$@	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 $\tilde{n}[n]$
\$=	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

2.4.10 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

2.5 Manuals

Manuals

2.5.1 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

2.5.1.1 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

2.5.1.2 On Simple Examples

puts fact(ARGV[0].to_i)

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.²

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 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

² Ruby does not convert strings into integers automatically like perl does.

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 D.1 "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189) 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.

2.5.1.3 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

```
'word = "fo" + "o"' \Rightarrow '"foo"'
```

```
Repetition 'word = word * 2' \Rightarrow '"foofoo"'
Extracting characters
           (note that characters are integers in ruby)
           'word[0]' \Rightarrow '102' '# 102 is ASCII code of 'f''
           'word[-1]' \Rightarrow '111' '# 111 is ASCII code of 'o''
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" \Rightarrow 'true'
           "foo" == "bar" \Rightarrow 'false'
2.5.1.4 On Puzzle Program
{guess.rb} ≡
     # 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? "
     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'.

2.5.1.5 Regular Expressions

```
ruby> chab "Maybe this? {0x35}"  # wrong kind of brackets
  false
ruby> chab "Or this? <0x38z7e>"  # bogus hex digit
  false
ruby> chab "Okay, this: <0xfc0004>."
    true
```

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.

```
# 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
```

2.5.1.6 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
   10
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"}
```

2.5.1.7 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.

```
ruby> case 'abcdef'
    | when 'aaa', 'bbb'
    | puts "aaa or bbb"
    | when /def/
    | puts "includes /def/"
    | end
includes /def/
    nil
```

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.

2.5.1.8 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{|1| 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.

2.5.1.9 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).

2.5.1.10 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.

2.5.1.11 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.

2.5.1.12 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:

```
| end
```

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.

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.

2.5.1.13 On Redefinition of Methods

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

```
end
       def train_toll(age)
          if age < 12
           puts "Reduced fare.";
          else
            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
    l 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 . . .

2.5.1.14 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:

We are not allowed to explicitly apply the method to an object:

```
ruby> "fish".square(5)
ERR: (eval):1: private method 'square' called for "fish":String
```

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.

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.

2.5.1.15 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.

2.5.1.16 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).

2.5.1.17 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:

```
ruby> quux.call
  QUUXQUUXQUUX!!!
     nil
So, after all that, can quux be used as a method argument? Sure.
  ruby> def run( p )
          puts "About to call a procedure..."
          p.call
          puts "There: finished."
       end
     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
```

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

#<Proc:0x401735e0>

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.

2.5.1.18 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.

2.5.1.19 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 <i>nth</i> subexpression in the last match (same as $^{r}[n]$)
\$=	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

2.5.1.20 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.

2.5.1.21 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> writer.call(2)
2
ruby> reader.call
2
```

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.

2.5.1.22 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.

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

2.5.1.23 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
end

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 \$!.

2.5.1.24 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.

2.5.1.25 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

```
| @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:

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 D.1 "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189, 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

ruby> f2

"a ripe banana"
ruby> f2.time_passes

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

Shortcut Effect attr_reader :v def v; ; end attr_writer :v def v=(value); *=value; end attr_accessor :v attr_reader :v; attr_writer :v attr_accessor :v, :w attr_accessor :v; attr_accessor :w

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:

```
ruby> class Fruit
           attr_accessor :condition
           def inspect
             "a #{@condition} #{@kind}"
           end
       end
     nil
  ruby> f2.condition = "ripe"
     "ripe"
  ruby> f2
     "a ripe banana"
If nobody eats our ripe fruit, perhaps we should let time take its toll.
  ruby> class Fruit
           def time_passes
             @condition = "rotting"
           end
       end
     nil
```

```
"rotting"
ruby> f2
    "a rotting banana"
```

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.

2.5.1.26 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.

2.5.1.27 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

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 2.5.1.16 "On Modules", page 64. You will also find the load and require facilities useful.

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.

2.5.2 Ruby Programming Wikibook

Ruby Programming Wikibook

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

2.5.3 The Pragmatic 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.

2.6 Editors and IDEs

2.7 Further Reading

 $Programming \ Ruby, \ by \ Marek \ Hulan, \ et \ al., \ contains \ succinct \ advanced \ information \ about \ Ruby. \ \ (See \ item \ Programming Ruby \ in \ "Bibliography", \ page \ 213.)$

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 82,

Section A.1.2 "Classes And Modules API", page 83,

Section A.1.3 "Methods API", page 89,

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

ARGF Class

ArgumentError

Class

Array Class

BasicObject

Class

Binding Class

Class Class

ClosedQueueError

Class

Comparable

Module

Complex Class

Complex::compatible

Class

ConditionVariable

Class

Continuation

Class

Data Class

Dir Class

ENV Class

EOFError Class

Encoding Class

Encoding::CompatibilityError

Class

Encoding::Converter

Class

Encoding::ConverterNotFoundError

Class

Encoding::InvalidByteSequenceError

Class

Encoding::UndefinedConversionError

Class

EncodingError

Class

Enumerable

Module

Enumerator

Class

Enumerator::Generator

Class

Enumerator::Lazy

Class

Enumerator::Yielder

Class

Errno Module

Exception

Class

FalseClass

Class

Fiber Class

FiberError

Class

File Class

File::Constants

Module

File::Stat

Class

FileTest Module

Float Class

FloatDomainError

Class

FrozenError

Class

GC Module

GC::Profiler

Module

Hash Class

IO Class

IO::EAGAINWaitReadable

Class

IO::EAGAINWaitWritable

Class

IO::EINPROGRESSWaitReadable

Class

IO::EINPROGRESSWaitWritable

Class

IO::EWOULDBLOCKWaitReadable

Class

IO::EWOULDBLOCKWaitWritable

Class

IO::WaitReadable

Module

IO::WaitWritable

Module

IOError Class

IndexError

Class

Integer Class

Interrupt

Class

Kernel Module

KeyError Class

LoadError

Class

LocalJumpError

Class

Marshal Module

MatchData

Class

Math Module

Math::DomainError

Class

Method Class

Module Class

Mutex Class

NameError

Class

NilClass Class

NoMemoryError

Class

NoMethodError

Class

 ${\tt NotImplementedError}$

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Numeric Class

Object Class

ObjectSpace

Module

ObjectSpace::WeakMap

Class

Proc Class

Process Module

Process::GID

Module

Process::Status

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Process::Sys

Module

Process::UID

Module

Process::Waiter

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Random Class

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 ${\it Class}$

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          Process/Sys::setresuid (Class Method)
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**	Complex*** (Instance Method)
**	Float#** (Instance Method)
**	<pre>Integer#** (Instance Method)</pre>
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+	Array#+ (Instance Method)
+	Complex#+ (Instance Method)
+	Float#+ (Instance Method)
+	Integer#+ (Instance Method)
+	Rational#+ (Instance Method)
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+0	Numeric#+0 (Instance Method)
+0	String#+0 (Instance Method)
_	Array#- (Instance Method)
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-0	Float#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	Integer#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	Numeric#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	Rational#-0 (Instance Method)
-0	String#-0 (Instance Method)
/	Complex#/ (Instance Method)
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<	Comparable#< (Instance Method)
<	Float#< (Instance Method)
<	Hash#< (Instance Method)
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<=>
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<=>
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           Integer#>= (Instance Method)
>=
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>=
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           Integer#>> (Instance Method)
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Complex
           Kernel#Complex (Instance Method)
Float
           Kernel#Float (Instance Method)
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Integer
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Rational
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each
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max=	${\tt SizedQueue\#max=}~({\tt Instance~Method})$
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          Kernel#set_trace_func (Instance Method)
set_trace_func
          Thread#set_trace_func (Instance Method)
setbyte
          String#setbyte (Instance Method)
setgid?
          File/Stat#setgid? (Instance Method)
setgid?
          FileTest#setgid? (Instance Method)
setuid?
          File/Stat#setuid? (Instance Method)
          FileTest#setuid? (Instance Method)
setuid?
          Array#shift (Instance Method)
shift
shift
          Hash#shift (Instance Method)
shift
          Queue#shift (Instance Method)
shift
          SizedQueue#shift (Instance Method)
          Array#shuffle (Instance Method)
shuffle
shuffle!
          Array#shuffle! (Instance Method)
          ConditionVariable#signal (Instance Method)
signal
signaled?
          Process/Status#signaled? (Instance Method)
signo
          SignalException#signo (Instance Method)
singleton_class
          Object#singleton_class (Instance Method)
singleton_class?
          Module#singleton_class? (Instance Method)
```

```
singleton_method
          Object#singleton_method (Instance Method)
singleton_method_added
          BasicObject#singleton_method_added (Instance Method)
singleton_method_removed
          BasicObject#singleton_method_removed (Instance Method)
singleton_method_undefined
          BasicObject#singleton_method_undefined (Instance Method)
singleton_methods
          Object#singleton_methods (Instance Method)
size
          Array#size (Instance Method)
          Enumerator#size (Instance Method)
size
          File#size (Instance Method)
size
          File/Stat#size (Instance Method)
size
          FileTest#size (Instance Method)
size
          Hash#size (Instance Method)
size
          Integer#size (Instance Method)
size
          MatchData#size (Instance Method)
size
          ObjectSpace/WeakMap#size (Instance Method)
size
          Queue#size (Instance Method)
size
          Range#size (Instance Method)
size
          SizedQueue#size (Instance Method)
size
          String#size (Instance Method)
size
          Struct#size (Instance Method)
size
          Symbol#size (Instance Method)
size
size?
          File/Stat#size? (Instance Method)
          FileTest#size? (Instance Method)
size?
skip
          ARGF#skip (Instance Method)
          Kernel#sleep (Instance Method)
sleep
          Mutex#sleep (Instance Method)
sleep
slice
          Array#slice (Instance Method)
slice
          Hash#slice (Instance Method)
          String#slice (Instance Method)
slice
          Symbol#slice (Instance Method)
slice
```

```
slice!
          Array#slice! (Instance Method)
slice!
          String#slice! (Instance Method)
slice_after
          Enumerable#slice_after (Instance Method)
slice_after
          Enumerator/Lazy#slice_after (Instance Method)
slice_before
          Enumerable#slice_before (Instance Method)
slice_before
          Enumerator/Lazy#slice_before (Instance Method)
slice_when
          Enumerable#slice_when (Instance Method)
slice_when
          Enumerator/Lazy#slice_when (Instance Method)
socket?
          File/Stat#socket? (Instance Method)
          FileTest#socket? (Instance Method)
socket?
          Array#sort (Instance Method)
sort
          Enumerable#sort (Instance Method)
sort
          Array#sort! (Instance Method)
sort!
          Enumerable#sort_by (Instance Method)
sort_by
sort_by! Array#sort_by! (Instance Method)
          Regexp#source (Instance Method)
source
source_encoding
          Encoding/Converter#source_encoding (Instance Method)
source_encoding
          Encoding/InvalidByteSequenceError#source_encoding (Instance Method)
source_encoding
          Encoding/UndefinedConversionError#source_encoding (Instance Method)
source_encoding_name
          Encoding/InvalidByteSequenceError#source_encoding_name
                                                                       (Instance
          Method)
source_encoding_name
          Encoding/UndefinedConversionError#source_encoding_name
                                                                       (Instance
          Method)
source_location
          Method#source_location (Instance Method)
source_location
          Proc#source_location (Instance Method)
```

```
source_location
          UnboundMethod#source_location (Instance Method)
          Kernel#spawn (Instance Method)
spawn
split
          String#split (Instance Method)
          Kernel#sprintf (Instance Method)
sprintf
squeeze
          String#squeeze (Instance Method)
squeeze!
          String#squeeze! (Instance Method)
          Kernel#srand (Instance Method)
srand
start_with?
          String#start_with? (Instance Method)
stat
          IO#stat (Instance Method)
          SystemExit#status (Instance Method)
status
          Thread#status (Instance Method)
status
          Numeric#step (Instance Method)
step
          Range#step (Instance Method)
step
          File/Stat#sticky? (Instance Method)
sticky?
sticky?
          FileTest#sticky? (Instance Method)
stop?
          Thread#stop? (Instance Method)
          Process/Status#stopped? (Instance Method)
stopped?
          Process/Status#stopsig (Instance Method)
stopsig
          Hash#store (Instance Method)
store
          Time#strftime (Instance Method)
strftime
          MatchData#string (Instance Method)
string
strip
          String#strip (Instance Method)
strip!
          String#strip! (Instance Method)
          Kernel#sub (Instance Method)
sub
          String#sub (Instance Method)
sub
          String#sub! (Instance Method)
sub!
          Time#subsec (Instance Method)
subsec
          Integer#succ (Instance Method)
succ
          String#succ (Instance Method)
SILCC
          Symbol#succ (Instance Method)
succ
          Time#succ (Instance Method)
succ
```

succ! String#succ! (Instance Method) Process/Status#success? (Instance Method) success? SystemExit#success? (Instance Method) success? Array#sum (Instance Method) SIIM Enumerable#sum (Instance Method) sum String#sum (Instance Method) sum Time#sunday? (Instance Method) sunday? super_method Method#super_method (Instance Method) super_method UnboundMethod#super_method (Instance Method) superclass Class#superclass (Instance Method) String#swapcase (Instance Method) swapcase swapcase Symbol#swapcase (Instance Method) swapcase! String#swapcase! (Instance Method) File/Stat#symlink? (Instance Method) symlink? symlink? FileTest#symlink? (Instance Method) sync IO#sync (Instance Method) IO#sync= (Instance Method) sync= synchronize Mutex#synchronize (Instance Method) syscall Kernel#syscall (Instance Method) sysread IO#sysread (Instance Method) sysseek IO#sysseek (Instance Method) Kernel#system (Instance Method) system syswrite IO#syswrite (Instance Method) UncaughtThrowError#tag (Instance Method) tag Object#taint (Instance Method) taint tainted? Object#tainted? (Instance Method) take Array#take (Instance Method) Enumerable#take (Instance Method) take Enumerator/Lazy#take (Instance Method) take

```
take_while
          Array#take_while (Instance Method)
take_while
          Enumerable#take_while (Instance Method)
take_while
          Enumerator/Lazy#take_while (Instance Method)
          Object#tap (Instance Method)
tap
          ARGF#tell (Instance Method)
tell
tell
          Dir#tell (Instance Method)
          IO#tell (Instance Method)
tell
terminate
          Thread#terminate (Instance Method)
          Process/Status#termsig (Instance Method)
termsig
          Kernel#test (Instance Method)
test
thread_variable?
          Thread#thread_variable? (Instance Method)
thread_variable_get
          Thread#thread_variable_get (Instance Method)
thread_variable_set
          Thread#thread_variable_set (Instance Method)
thread_variables
          Thread#thread_variables (Instance Method)
throw
          Kernel#throw (Instance Method)
thursday?
          Time#thursday? (Instance Method)
          Integer#times (Instance Method)
times
to_a
          ARGF#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          Array#to_a (Instance Method)
          Enumerable#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          Hash#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          MatchData#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          NilClass#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          RubyVM/InstructionSequence#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          Struct#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
          Time#to_a (Instance Method)
to_a
```

```
Array#to_ary (Instance Method)
to_ary
to_binary
          RubyVM/InstructionSequence#to_binary (Instance Method)
          Complex#to_c (Instance Method)
to_c
to_c
          NilClass#to_c (Instance Method)
          Numeric#to_c (Instance Method)
to_c
to_c
          String#to_c (Instance Method)
to_enum
          Enumerator/Lazy#to_enum (Instance Method)
          Object#to_enum (Instance Method)
to_enum
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)
to_hash
          Hash#to_hash (Instance Method)
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	Integer#to_int (Instance Method)
to_int	Numeric#to_int (Instance Method)
to_io	ARGF#to_io (Instance Method)
to_io	<pre>IO#to_io (Instance Method)</pre>
to_path	Dir#to_path (Instance Method)
to_path	File#to_path (Instance Method)
to_proc	${\tt Hash\#to_proc}~({\rm Instance}~{\rm Method})$
to_proc	Method#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_proc	Proc#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_proc	Symbol#to_proc (Instance Method)
to_r	<pre>Complex#to_r (Instance Method)</pre>
to_r	Float#to_r (Instance Method)
to_r	<pre>Integer#to_r (Instance Method)</pre>
to_r	${\tt NilClass\#to_r}~({\rm Instance}~{\rm Method})$
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	Encoding#to_s (Instance Method)
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	<pre>MatchData#to_s (Instance Method)</pre>
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
          Symbol#to_s (Instance Method)
to_s
          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 Ruby Gems

Ruby Gems

Ruby Gems Github Home

About

'RubyGems.org' is the Ruby communitys gem hosting service. Instantly publish your gems and then install them. Use the API to find out more about available gems. Become a contributor and improve the site yourself.

Guides

Learn how RubyGems works, and how to make your own.

The RubyGems software allows you to easily download, install, and use ruby software packages on your system. The software package is called a *gem* which contains a packaged Ruby application or library.

Gems can be used to extend or modify functionality in Ruby applications. Commonly theyre used to distribute reusable functionality that is shared with other Rubyists for use in their applications and libraries. Some gems provide command line utilities to help automate tasks and speed up your work.

B.1 Ruby Gem Guides

Guides

- RUBYGEMS BASICS
- WHAT IS A GEM?
- MAKE YOUR OWN GEM
- GEMS WITH EXTENSIONS
- NAME YOUR GEM
- PUBLISHING YOUR GEM
- SECURITY PRACTICES
- SSL CERTIFICATE UPDATE
- PATTERNS
- SPECIFICATION REFERENCE
- COMMAND REFERENCE
- RUBYGEMS API
- RUBYGEMS.ORG API
- RUBYGEMS.ORG API V2.0
- RUN YOUR OWN GEM SERVER
- RESOURCES
- CONTRIBUTING TO RUBYGEMS
- FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

- PLUGINS
- CREDITS
- COMMON VULNERABILITIES AND EXPOSURES
- RELEASING RUBYGEMS

B.1.1 Ruby Gems Basics

The gem command allows you to interact with RubyGems.

Ruby 1.9 and newer ships with RubyGems built-in. Download RubyGems. To upgrade to the latest RubyGems: '\$ gem update --system'.

B.1.2 What Is A Gem?

STRUCTURE OF A GEM

Each gem has a

- name,
- version, and
- platform.

For example, the rake gem has a 0.8.7 version (from May, 2009). Rakes platform is ruby, which means it works on any platform Ruby runs on.

Platforms

Platforms are based on the CPU architecture, operating system type and sometimes the operating system version. Examples include 'x86-mingw32' or 'java'. The platform indicates the gem only works with a ruby built for the same platform. RubyGems will automatically download the correct version for your platform. See gem help platform for full detail.

Components

Inside gems are the following components:

- Code (including tests and supporting utilities)
- Documentation
- gemspec

Code Organization

Each gem follows the same standard structure of code organization:

```
% tree freewill
freewill/
bin/
    freewill
lib/
    freewill.rb
test/
    test_freewill.rb
README
```

```
Rakefile freewill.gemspec
```

Here, you can see the major components of a gem:

lib	The lib directory contains the code for the gem
test	The test or spec directory contains tests, depending on which test framework the developer uses
Rakefile	A gem usually has a Rakefile, which the rake program uses to automate tests, generate code, and perform other tasks.
bin	This gem also includes an executable file in the bin directory, which will be loaded into the users PATH when the gem is installed.
README	Documentation is usually included in the README and inline with the code. When you install a gem, documentation is generated automatically for you. Most gems include RDoc documentation, but some use YARD docs instead.

gemspec The final piece is the gemspec, which contains information about the gem. The gems files, test information, platform, version number and more are all laid out here along with the authors email and name.

Table B.1: Table of RubyGem Components

The Gemspec

The gemspec specifies the information about a gem such as its name, version, description, authors and homepage.

Heres an example of a gemspec file.

```
% cat freewill.gemspec
Gem::Specification.new do |s|
 s.name
               = 'freewill'
               = '1.0.0'
 s.version
 s.summary
               = "Freewill!"
 s.description = "I will choose Freewill!"
            = ["Nick Quaranto"]
 s.authors
               = 'nick@quaran.to'
 s.email
               = 'http://example.com/freewill'
 s.homepage
               = ["lib/freewill.rb", ...]
 s.files
end
```

B.1.3 Make a Gem

NOTE: Many people use Bundler to create Gems. You can learn how to do that by reading the *Developing a RubyGem using Bundler* guide on the Bundler website.

Introduction to Making a Gem

Creating and publishing your own gem is simple thanks to the tools baked right into RubyGems. Lets make a simple "hello world" gem, and feel free to play along at home! The code for the gem were going to make here is up on GitHub Hello World.

B.1.3.1 Your First Gem

I started with just one Ruby file for my hola gem, and the gemspec. Youll need a new name for yours (maybe hola_yourusername) to publish it. Check the Patterns guide for basic recommendations to follow when naming a gem.

```
% tree
.
hola.gemspec
lib
hola.rb
```

lib Directory

Code for your package is placed within the lib directory. The convention is to have one Ruby file with the same name as your gem, since that gets loaded when require 'hola' is run. That one file is in charge of setting up your gems code and API.

hola.rb

The code inside of lib/hola.rb is pretty bare bones. It just makes sure that you can see some output from the gem:

```
{hola.rb} =
    class Hola
        def self.hi
        puts "Hello world!"
        end
    end
```

@post_create hola.rb mkdir -p src/gems/hola/lib/ && mv hola.rb src/gems/hola/lib

hola.gemspec

The gemspec defines whats in the gem, who made it, and the version of the gem. Its also your interface to 'RubyGems.org'. All of the information you see on a gem page (like jekylls) comes from the gemspec.

```
s.files = ["lib/hola.rb"]
s.homepage =
  'http://rubygems.org/gems/hola'
s.license = 'MIT'
end
```

@post_create hola.gemspec mv hola.gemspec src/gems/hola/ && cd src/gems/hola

NOTE: The description member can be much longer than you see in this example. If it matches '/^== [A-Z]/' then the description will be run through RDocs markup formatter for display on the RubyGems web site. Be aware though that other consumers of the data might not understand this markup.

Look familiar? The gemspec is also Ruby, so you can wrap scripts to generate the file names and bump the version number. There are lots of fields the gemspec can contain. To see them all check out the full reference.

build and install A Gem From The Gemspec

After you have created a gemspec, you can build a gem from it. Then you can install the generated gem locally to test it out.

```
% gem build hola.gemspec
Successfully built RubyGem
Name: hola
Version: 0.0.0
File: hola-0.0.0.gem

% gem install ./hola-0.0.0.gem
Successfully installed hola-0.0.0
1 gem installed
The final step is to require the gem and use it:
    % irb
    >> require 'hola'
    => true
    >> Hola.hi
    Hello world!
```

B.1.3.2 Requiring More Files

B.1.3.3 Adding An Executable

B.1.3.4 Writing Tests

B.1.3.5 Documenting Your Code

Appendix C Resources

Here are some additional resources that I have found helpful.

C.1 Programming Ruby by Hulan

Programming Ruby (See item ProgrammingRuby in "Bibliography", page 213.) By Marek Hulan, Marek Jelen, Ivan Necas, Version 0.2 September 25, 2017.

C.1.1 Ruby Basics

C.1.1.1 Installation - Running - About

Installation on Mac OS

The simplest way to install Ruby on macOS is to use homebrew package manager:

\$ brew install ruby

In case there is a need to have multiple installations rbenv (see Section 2.1.3.2 "rbenv", page 4) is a good tool to use. Another popular tool is called rvm (see Section 2.1.3.3 "RVM ("Ruby Version Manager")", page 4, but nowadays they do too much magic and we recommend using rbenv instead.

Running Ruby

Usually you put ruby and related commands on PATH so you do not need to always specify the whole path to the executable. With tools like rbenv this is done for you.

\$ ruby script.rb

Interactive Ruby

Ruby comes with an interactive interpreter called irb (see Section 2.4.5.1 "Interactive Ruby", page 22), which allows you to enter commands and see results instantly.

\$ irb

About Ruby

Interpreted

The Ruby code is interpreted when the script is load, there is no compile phase.

Universal Ruby can be used for writing scripts, one-liners, web applications and even for mobile and desktop applications.

Fully Object oriented

In Ruby everything is an object and you send messages to those objects.

Everything Is An Expression

Everything command in Ruby has a return value.

Atomic memory management

MRI is the Ruby reference implementation, with several other implementations like JRuby, Rubinius, IronRuby or MagLev. As well, there is ISO standard implemented in mruby.

Strongly Typed

There are some implicit conversions (e.g. every object has to_s method to provide string representation) but in most cases in case you try to operate on different types Ruby will complain, unless such operation is explicitly provided.

Dynamically Typed

The type of a variable is defined by the value assigned to that variable. There is no explicit type information in the code.

What is written in Ruby?

- programming languages: Ruby (Rubinius),
- compilers (LessJS)
- web applications: Github, Gitlab, Redmine, BaseCamp
- devops tools: Puppet/Chef/Vagrant
- cloud platforms: OpenShift (v2)
- cloud management: Foreman, ManageIQ
- VIM/Emacs scripts
- static pages generators Jekyll
- programming tools

C.1.1.2 Language Conventions

Class Names

Class names are in "CamelCase"

File Names

File names reflect class names in "snake_case" format

Method Names

method names are also "snake_case"

Constants

constants are in UPPER_SNAKE_CASE

Indentation

indent by 2 spaces

Boolean Values

methods returning boolean values end with ? (question mark)

Mutation

methods mutating state end with ! (exclamation mark)

C.1.1.3 Data Types

In Ruby everything is an object, including arrays or numbers. However there are special syntax shorthands to create instances of special classes.

Strings

String are create by quoting the characters.

Numbers

Ruby has two basic number classes Fixnum and Float.

Empty Value nil

Special value that represents "nothing" is nil.

In a boolean expression, nil is considered false, i.e. its only of two possible values that are not considered true.

Boolean

There is either true or false.

Arrays

An Array is an ordered sequence of values. There are no restrictions on what types can be in a single array.

Hashes

A Hash is a structure that maps keys to a values.

```
{"a" => true, "b": false} # => {"a"=>true, :b=>false}
```

Hash Styles

There are two approaches how to write the mapping, either *rocket* style: 'key => value' or *json* style: 'key: value'.

Rocket Style Preferred

However with the json style the value is converted to symbol, so in case you need to use String or some other type, or get the name of the key from a variable, you need to use the rocket style. Several well-known coding guidelines recommend (and enforce) using rockets everywhere.

Symbols

Symbol is a keyword. It always maps to the same object instance.

C.1.1.4 Methods and Variables

Methods

Methods are called using the "dot" operator.

Operators are actually methods.

```
3 + 3 # => 6
3.+(3) # => 6
```

```
[1,2][0] #=> 1
[1,2].[](0) # => 1
```

Variables

Global Global variables are prefixed with \$.

Classes have class variables prefixed with **@@**.

You should prefer @instance_variables in class-level methods, as they have

more predicatable behavior.

Instance Objects have instance variables prefixed with Q.

Local Local variables are simple identifiers with no prefix.

Constant Constants are in all UPPER_CASE.

C.1.1.5 Conditions

```
Everything is true except false (and nil). if and unless (if's negative)
```

Modifier Statements

Ruby has inline method of using conditionals called modifier statements.

```
puts "Hello" if true
puts "Hello" unless false
```

"it's number"

end

Ternary Operator

```
'experssion? 'was evaluated true': 'was evaluated false'
```

Case Statement

Another way to do conditions is to use case statement.

```
case input
  when 'q', 'e'
    quit
  when 'f'
    format
  else
    help
  end
case statement can also check on a variable's class.
  case var
  when String
    "it's string"
  when Class
    "it's class"
  when Number
```

```
Another way to use the case statement is to use it as if and elsif.
        when a == "a"
          "a equals a"
        when b == "b"
          "b equals b"
     end
C.1.1.6 Logical Operators
Logical Expressions
and
           && and
\mathbf{or}
           || or
           ! not
not
Comparison Operators
equal
           ==
not equal
           !=
less than
greater than
less than or equal
greater than or equal
regular expression match
C.1.1.7 Regular Expressions
Regular expression literals are enclosed between /.../:
'string = \('.)*:(.)+/ # sets $1 a $2'.
   String has a match method:
'data = string.match(/^(.):(d+)$/) # sets data[1] and data[2]'.
C.1.1.8 Loops
           repeats as long as the condition is true.
while
                while a < b
                   a += 1
                end
```

do loop at least once

begin

```
a += 1
end while a < b

a += 1 while a < b # inline loop
until repeats as long as a condition is false
    until a > b
    a += 1
end
```

C.1.1.9 Methods

Method Return Value

Methods always return a value. If a method does not explicitly return using the return keyword, then the return value is the value of the last expression.

Method Arguments

```
def mth1(a, b=1) # argument default value
end

def meth2(*args) # accepts multiple arguments in Array args
end

def meth3(a, b, *args) # must have at least 2 arguments
end
```

C.1.1.10 Using Code From Other Files

require Loads code from another file. Ruby keeps track of required files (in the \$" global variable) and skips loading files that would be loaded 2nd time.

Files are looked up using Rubys $load\ path$, which is represented using an array in $LOAD_PATH$ and ::

loads code from another file, but does not keep track of loaded files.

Allowed Extensions

The following file extensions can be omitted:

```
'rb, so, o, dll, bundle, jar'
```

C.1.1.11 Blocks

Blocks are not executed when defined, but have to be called through the call method (though the calling of the call method is most of the time hidden).

Arrays have a method called each that accepts a block and calls the block for every single element in the array.

```
arr = [1,2,3,4]
arr.each do |el|
  puts el
```

```
# alternative syntax
arr.each { |el| puts el }
```

Block Scope

Blocks have access to their enclosing environment, and create their own scope internally.

Yield Statement

Any method can accept a block and call it using yield.

```
def mth
  return nil unless block_given?
  yield
end
```

This method will return nil if no block was given or will call the block without any argument and the return value of the block will be return from the method.

Block Arguments Using Prefix &

Method may also accept blocks using a named argument which is prefixed by &.

```
def mth(num, &block)
  block.call(num)
end
```

C.1.1.12 Objects

Everything is an object. Even a class is an instance of Class. Objects can have methods (def) and instance variables (@).

Attributes

To allow instance variables to be accessible from outside their defining class, define them using attributes.

```
class Hello
  attr_reader :one
  attr_writer :two
  attr_accessor :three
end
```

C.1.1.13 Inheritance

Ruby has single *object inheritance*. All methods, including constructors, are inherited. Methods can be *overridden* in children. **super** keyword is used to call the overridden method.

```
class A

def a

"hello"

end
```

```
end
puts A.new.a # => hello

class B < A
end

puts B.new.a # => hello

class C < A
   def a
       super + " world"
   end

end

puts C.new.a # => hello world
```

Class Variables

Class variables should not be used "because of some pitfalls in their inheritance."

C.1.1.14 Modules

Modules are a way to organize your classes in a similar fashion to namespaces. Classes can be included into modules or into other classes.

```
class A
  class B
  end
end

module Some
  class Thing
  end
end
```

Mixins

Modules are used as *mixins* to provide a form of multiple inheritance. When module is included in a class, all methods defined in that module are available in the class as instance methods.

```
module Helper
def something
end
end
class An
include Helper
end
```

```
A.new.something

When a module is used with extend, the methods are included as class methods.

module Helper
def something
end
end

class A
extend Helper
end

A.something
```

C.1.1.15 Method Access

By default methods are public, but methods can be made explicitly protected or private.

```
class A
  def public_method
  end

protected

def protected_method
  end

private

def private_method
  end
end
end
```

C.1.1.16 Duck Typing

Duck typing is coding by behavior rather than identify.

```
class Hunter
  def shoot(animal)
    animal.respond_to?(:quack) && bang!
  end
end
```

If an animal "quacks", then it will be shot like a duck.

C.1.1.17 Exceptions

Exceptions represent a special state in the execution of a program. When an exception is raised, it will "bubble up" (rise through) the stack until it is "caught".

raise And rescue Exceptions

Exceptions are explicitly raised using the raise keyword: 'raise "This is not expected"'.

On the other hand when an exception needs to be caught, a code block can be extended with a rescue statement that is called when an exception is caught and optionally with an ensure block that is called after both exceptional and non-exceptional states. Unless an exception class is specified explicitly after the rescue keyword, the StandardError class and its ancestors are rescued.

```
begin
  raise "This is not expected"
rescue => e
  puts e.message
ensure
  puts "always"
end
```

Inherit From StandardError

Dont inherit directly from an Exception class; instead, use StandardError. The direct descendants of Exception are usually exceptions one doesn't want to rescue from, such as SystemExit or NoMemoryError.

C.1.2 Advanced Ruby

C.1.2.1 Return Values

In Ruby everything is an expression — it executes and returns some value, the result of its execution. For example:

What is the result of the last expression? It could be obvious — "we defined class A". But not really. The fact we have defined a class is only an effect of the expression; not the result. A result is a value returned from the expression itself.

```
class A; end # \Rightarrow nil
```

The result is simply nil. Its similar to the expression "a" if false $\# \Rightarrow \text{nil}$ above. The condition is evaluated as false and there is no else so there is nothing to return, so the result is nil. In this case a class was defined, but there was nothing returned, as the body of the class was empty, so the result is nil. Lets modify the example to return a value:

```
class A; 1; end # \Rightarrow 1 class A; 1; "hello"; end # \Rightarrow "hello" class A; self; end # \Rightarrow A
```

It was said that "the return value of a method is the result of its last expression." Its obvious that in this example its very similar. It can be generalized for all structures, even though sometimes it may not be obvious on first sight:

The return value is the result of the last expression.

C.1.2.2 Context

Context: Current Context

In Ruby everything is executed in some context. This *context* is known as the *current* object and is always represented by self.

```
self.class # ⇒ Object

class B
   self
end
# ⇒ Class

class A
   def call
       self
end
end

A.new.call # ⇒ #<A:some number>
```

C.1.2.3 Class

Open Classes: Monkey Patching

Unlike most languages, Ruby classes are open for modifications. Developers can modify behavior of classes defined by frameworks or Ruby itself. This technique is called *monkey patching*.

```
class Clazz
  def call
    "A"
  end
end

class Clazz
  def call
    "B"
  end
end

Clazz.new.call # \Rightarrow "B"
```

What Is A Class?

Lets start with a definition:

Classes are instances of class Class.

Everything in Ruby is an object . . . even a class.

```
class A
   def self.call
      " A "
   end
end
B = Class.new
def B.call
   "called"
end
                 \# \Rightarrow "called"
A.call
                 # \Rightarrow "called"
B.call
A.object_id # \Rightarrow [some number]
B.object_id # \Rightarrow [some number]
                 \# \Rightarrow \mathtt{Class}
A.class
B.class
                 \# \Rightarrow \mathtt{Class}
```

Class A was defined using the class keyword and then a class method was defined. Class B was created by creating a new instance of the Class class and the object was assigned to constant B. As both of those classes are objects, its possible to check their class and the ID of the objects.

Inheritance

In Ruby classes can inherit from each other, though Ruby has only single-class inheritance—its not possible to inherit from multiple classes, only from one.

```
class A
  def call
    "called"
  end
end

class B < A
end

C = Class.new(B)

B.new.call # \( \Rightarrow \) "called"
C.new.call # \( \Rightarrow \) "called"</pre>
```

Mixins

When some class needs to inherit from multiple classes, its not possible, but Ruby provides a workaround through mixins. It is possible to include many Modules into a class; the methods defined in those modules will become part of the lookup path as if they were defined in the class.

```
module Methods
  def call
    "called"
  end
end

class A
  include Methods
end

A.new.call # \Rightarrow "called"
```

Class Introspections

Ruby allows many introspections on classes and many other objects.

name

There is method name defined on a class that returns the name of the current class.

```
Array.name # \Rightarrow "Array"

[].class.name # \Rightarrow "Array"
```

methods

Its possible to list methods of an object:

```
class A
  def call
  end
end
```

A.new.methods # \Rightarrow array of methods

C.1.2.4 Advanced Methods

As everything else in Ruby even methods are instances of class Method.

Extracting Methods

Sometimes it is useful to pass around only a method instead of the whole object. Ruby allows extraction of a method for later usege.

```
class A
  def call(arg1)
    self
  end
end

meth = A.new.method(:call) # \Rightarrow #<Method: A#call>
```

In the example method call from class A was extracted. The method is still bound to the instance of class A and the method will be evaluated in the context of the object

(self will be the instance). The method can be executed by calling the call method with appropriate arguments.

```
meth.call("some string") # \Rightarrow #<A:some_number>
```

Checking Method Existence

Because Ruby is a very dynamic language, its not possible to know in advance what kind of arguments will be received. In most cases the developer should not care what class the argument is, but whether the argument responds to a method.

Duck Typing

Do not care what the object is; only care whether it behaves as expected.

This technique is called "Duck typing."

```
class A
  def call
  end
end

a = A.new
a.respond_to?(:call) # $\Rightarrow$ true
a.respond_to?(:wtf) # $\Rightarrow$ false
```

Dynamic Method Calling

Lets define a class with a method, create an instance and call the method.

```
class A
def call
end
end
A.new.call
```

The method is called, but the developer had to know the name of the method beforehand . . . in the time the code is written. What if the method name is not known and there has to be some method called. Do not be surprised; this is a very common use-case in Ruby.

```
class A
  def call(arg1)
  end
end

a = A.new
a.call("some string")
a.send(:call, "some string")
```

Well, not so identical. When you use the **send** method on an object, you effectively bypass the access modifiers.

Access Modifiers

Ruby has three access levels; public is default, protected and private.

```
class A
  def public_method
  end
  protected
  def protected_method
  end
  private
  def private_method
  end
end
a = A.new
a.public_method
                               # \Rightarrow nil
a.protected_method
                               \# \Rightarrow \texttt{NoMethodError}: protected method 'protected_method' call
a.private_method
                               \# \Rightarrow \texttt{NoMethodError}: private method 'private_method' called .
a.send(:public_method)
                               # \Rightarrow nil
a.send(:protected_method) # \Rightarrow nil
a.send(:private_method)
                               \#\Rightarrow nil
```

Defining methods programmatically

The way to define methods using the def keyword shown before is not the only one. Its also possible to define a method in a more dynamic way. It makes sense. We can inspect methods of an object, we can extract methods of an object and also call methods of an object in a dynamic way. To dynamically define a method use the define_method method of a class.

However, Class.define_method is private. To get around this obstacle, its possible to use the send method and bypass the access modifier.

```
class A
end

a = A.new

logic = Proc.new do
   "data"
end

A.send(:define_method, :some_method_name, logic)
a.some_method_name # \Rightarrow "data"
```

Missing Methods

Every object can define special method_missing method that is called whenever there is a call to undefined method on that object.

```
class A
  def method_missing(name, *args, &block)
    puts "method #{name} called with args #{args.inspect}"
  end
end
A.new.something("a") # \Rightarrow method something called with args ["a"]
```

C.1.2.5 Advanced Objects

Objects complement classes:

Objects define state while classes define behavior.

Behavior is defined as a class; then an object is created for that class to hold the state. Every object has to be of some class.

Creating A New Object

To create an object of a class there is the new method on respective class.

```
class Dog
end

dog = Dog.new
```

Defining Methods

In the example above many methods were defined in simple or more fancy styles. But lets get back to the core and try to define a method.

```
class A
  def call
  end
end
```

Here we use def keyword to define a method call. Where will def define the method? The answer is simple and complex.

def defines methods into the nearest class.

So in the previous example the nearest class is A. That is obvious from next example where the current context is returned and inspected:

```
var = class A; self; end
var.class # ⇒ Class
var.name # ⇒ "A"
```

OK, so the the current context is a Class and thus it is obvious that the nearest class is this class. Now lets try to define a class method:

```
class A
  def self.call
```

```
"string"
end
end
```

Where will Ruby define the method now?? It is a bit more complicated. To understand this, we have to explain something else first.

Eigenclass

To understand how Ruby works, we have to understand what eigenclasses are. Lets start with simple definition:

Every object in Ruby has it's own eigenclass => an instance of Class

Why is this important? Because, while the eigenclasses are basically invisible to developers, they take an important part in method lookups.

When Ruby is trying to look up a method, it follows a basic chain (will be described a bit later). What is important is that before the class the object is linked to, there is the one more class — the objects eigenclass. Every single object in Ruby has its own eigenclass and because Classes are objects as well, eigenclasses has their own eigenclasses as well.

The closest class to an object is not it's class but it's eigenclass.

Back to the example we were talking about:

```
class A
    def self.call
        "string"
    end
end
To see it more clearly we can rewrite this example identically as:
    class A
    end

def A.call
    "string"
end
```

These two expressions are identical. To understand why it is important to understand this:

```
class A
end
scope = class A
  self
end
A == scope # \Rightarrow true
```

But back to the original question . . . where is the method going to be defined? In the context of the instance of the class A. The important part in the above statement is the phrase *instance of*. What is the closest class to an instance (object)? As stated above its its eigenclass. Now you might have guessed that from implementation point of view:

There are no class methods in Ruby

What would be called a class method is only an instance method defined on the eigenclass associated with object representing the class.

So eigenclass is some stealth object that we can not see? Not really. Ruby has ways to access eigenclasses.

```
eigenclass = class << some_object
  self
end
eigenclass = some_object.singleton_class</pre>
```

Now that we can access eigenclasses, lets see how we could define "class methods" (instance methods in the eigenclass).

```
class A
  def self.call
    "called"
  end
end
class B
  class << self
    def call
      "called"
    end
  end
end
D = Class.new
class << D
  def call
    "called"
  end
end
```

All those examples are identical.

Method Lookups

Now that you know where and how are methods defined, lets see how methods are looked up. Lets see how the class hierarchy looks for class:

```
SomeClass -> Class -> Module -> Object -> BasicObject
and for objects
  object -> SomeClass -> Object -> BasicObject
Though in reality it is a bit more complex.
  Eigenclasses are not visible as classes of objects.
  o1 = Object.new
```

```
def o1.meth
  "string"
end

o1.meth # \Rightarrow "string"
o1.class # \Rightarrow Object

o2 = Object.new

o2.meth # \Rightarrow undefined method 'meth'
o2.class # => Object
```

This example shows that having two instances of same objects. Both can behave differently because in the case of o1 the method is stored in the eigenclass, that is not accessible by o2.

Eigenclasses are used when a specific behavior of an object is expected.

C.1.3 Ruby Testing

Writing automated tests for code is essential. The Ruby community emphasizes it and most projects are well covered. A TDD is also popular among rubyist.

C.1.3.1 Testing Frameworks

Today the *de facto* standard is to use the Minitest testing framework. You can see RSpec still being used too, but Minitest already offers the same capabilities and more. Both can be easily used for TDD. For BDD theres the popular ecosystem called Cucumber which started as a Ruby gem but quickly evolved into a polyglot tool.

C.1.3.2 Minitest

Th syntax you can see in tests can be in two forms. Either something we call Testunit (aka junit) or spec that was taken from Rspec. The internal implementation is the same for both and its mostly a matter of taste. Tests are regular ruby scripts that test other scripts. Test are usually to be found in the test/directory, and the file name should reflect test class defined inside, e.g. morse_coder_test.rb.

Testunit Syntax

```
require 'minitest/autorum'
require 'morse_coder.rb'

class MorseCoderTest < Minitest::Test
  def setup
    @coder = MorseCoder.new(...)
  end

def test_encode_for_single_letters
    assert_equal ".-", @coder.encode "a"
    assert_equal "-...", @coder.encode "b"
  end</pre>
```

end

Minitest::Test

A test class should inherit from Minitest::Test so test helpers (assertions) are available. Testing methods must start with test_. Other methods are regular methods that can be used from testing methods, e.g. to build some fixtures.

There are a few method names with special meaning. In the example you can see a method with the name setup. This method gets automatically executed before every testing method. Similarly theres a teardown method that gets executed after each testing method. Its usually used for cleaning up any mess the testing method created.

Assertions

skip() One testing method can contain more than one assertion. The first assertion failure stops the method being run and marks the test as a failure (F). If method raises an exception the result of the test is marked as an error (E). If all assertions defined in the method pass, the test succeeds (.). If you plan to implement the test later you can skip the test by calling skip("Sorry, Im lazy").

The simplest assertion is one testing a boolean value:

assert @something

assert refute

This will succeed if @something is considered true, but fail otherwise. The negative form is refute, e.g. the following would pass: 'refute false'.

You could obvisouly add tests like assert '@something == 'that I expect' but it would generate very generic messages on failures. You can specify custome message by passing extra argument like this:

assert @something == 'that I expect', '@something does not match expected string'

but its always better to use assert helper that matches the use-case best. The following example demonstrates how to check equality of two values; the failure message would automatically include information about what @something is and what it was expected to be.

```
assert_equal @something, 'that I expect'
```

Useful assert helpers are listed in the example below. All of them can be found in the Minitest documentation.

```
assert arg
          arg is true
refute arg
          arg is false
assert_equal
           expected, actual
assert_includes
          collection, object
assert_kind_of
          class, object
assert_nil
          object
assert_match
           expected, actual
assert_raises
           exception_class, &block
  Table C.1: Table of Assertion Helpers
```

Spec Syntax

Spec Syntax

Subjectively better structured, less repeating, more readable and TDD supporting syntax can be used. See the following example.

```
require 'minitest/autorun'
require 'morse_coder.rb'

describe MorseCoder do
  let(:coder) { MorseCoder.new(...) }

  describe 'single letters encoding' do
   let(:a) { coder.a }
   let(:b) { coder.b }

  specify { a.must_equal '.-' }
  specify { b.must_equal '-...' }
  end
end
```

describe block before let specify must_\$assert wont_\$assert describe block wraps logical block. Each such block can have its own before (aka setup). With let we define a method that can be called later within any nested block. let is lazy. specify accepts a block that uses assertion helpers in form of must_\$assert or wont_\$assert. There are many other extensions to this language so it reads more naturally.

Note that since the implementation is the same, you can combine both at the same time.

Output Of Test Run

```
Run options: --seed 25127

# Running tests:
..S....F......

Finished tests in 101.524752s, 6.4319 tests/s, 9.0618 assertions/s
63 tests, 92 assertions, 1 failures, 0 errors, S skips

1) Failure:
TestConnector#test_connection [./connector.rb:5]:
    Expected: nil
    Actual: "that I expect"
```

The seed is random number representing the order of test. Note that your tests should be order-independent.

Running Multiple Test Files

Its common to have more than just one test file in project. To run all tests at once we can use Rake. Usually tests are put in test directory in the project tree structure. In such setup we can easily define test tasks in a Rakefile. Rake provides a built-in class for this; we just need to configure it. Just put following into your Rakefile:

```
require 'rake/testtask'

Rake::TestTask.new do |t|
   t.libs << 'test'
   t.test_files = Dir.glob('test/**/*_test.rb')
   t.verbose true
end</pre>
```

We can run rake test which will load a run all ruby scripts with _test suffix in the test directory including all of its subdirectories. If you prefer test to be the default rake task, add following to the Rakefile:

```
task :default => [ :test ]
```

Now you can run all tests just by running rake.

Another common practise is to have one file that is loaded at start, usually named test_helper.rb. This file contains everything that is needed for all tests, like requiring additional testing libraries. You can also put require minitest/autorun there. Just note that you need to require 'test_helper' as first line of every test file.

Test Coverage

To get a good overview of what needs test coverage its useful to setup code coverage check. A simplecov gem can generate an HTML report. Just put the following on top of your test_helper.rb:

```
require 'simplecov'
SimpleCov.start
you can also define a minimum coverage in percents:
SimpleCov.minimum_coverage 95
```

Now when you run your test suite, a new directory called coverage will be created. See coverage/index.html for details how well your code is covered with tests.

Stubbing

Sometimes we dont want to call the entire method chain when we test — just a single method behavior. This applies especially in unit testing where we test just small piece of code. Since Ruby is a dynamic language, its easy to cut off some methods. This is called *stubbing* (leaving stubs).

Lets look at the following example:

```
class TemperatureMeter
  def measure(output)
    temp = rand(21) + 20
    output.puts temp
    temp
  end
end
```

The test covering this should call the method measure and verify it returns a reasonable temperature. We dont want our test to print anything to STDOUT. We can stub out puts method easily like this:

```
def test_measure
  meter = TemperatureMeter.new
STDOUT.stub(:puts, nil) do
  result = meter.measure(STDOUT)
  assert_kind_of Fixnum, result
  assert_includes 20..40, result
end
end
```

With this stubbing, the puts method is replaced by a new empty method that returns the second argument, in this case nil. The stub is applied only within the stub block.

Mocking

Mocking is related to stubbing. Imagine we wanted to check that a measure method really called puts on the output object. The method is written in a way that it accepts a custom output object, which makes testing easy. We can simply pass any object that implements the method puts, e.g. a file handler, socket or our own testing object. Or we can use mock. Mock is a blank object on which we can define expectations.

For example we can create a mock instance and specify that its method puts should be called exactly once during the test.

```
def test_measure_print_the_value
  meter = TemperatureMeter.new
```

```
mock = Minitest::Mock.new
 mock.expect(:puts, nil, [20..40])
 result = meter.measure(mock)
 mock.verify
end
```

The first expect argument is the name of the method to be called, the second is the return value, and the third is the array containing arguments which the puts should be called.

You could also stub the rand method to return lets say 0 and then setup an expectation that mocks puts method will receive 20 as a parameter to print. But the range also works so the mock accepts any value between 20 and 40.

You have to call verify on mock so it runs assertions on how many times the expected method was called. To expect another call of puts, just define new expectation with .expect.

Stubbing Network Calls

If your app communicates with external services over HTTP you most likely need to fake the communication in your test suite. Reasons include performance, spamming of remote services, avoiding credentials leaks, error state testing. Constructing the whole net/http response object can be complicated. Luckily there are tools that can help you greatly.

webmock Gem

First is the webmock gem. It provides helpers to stub low-level methods easily. To use it, install the gem and just add following to your tests.

```
require 'webmock/minitest'
  stub_request(:get, 'www.example.com')
  First is the
  Net::HTTP.get('www.example.com', '/') # this will succeed
You can also specify more conditions to match the request as well as the return value:
```

stub_request(:post, 'www.example.com').with(:body => 'ping').to_return(:body =>

```
'pong')
Custome headers can be added too. Webmock works with high level libraries such as the
```

popular Restclient gem.

vcr

Another useful tool is vcr. The name was chosen because of analogy with videocassette recorder. It can record a real network communication and replay it later. This can be nicely used in tests. You only record the communication once during writing tests and replay it while running tests in the future or on a CI server. You can have multiple communications recorded and just swap cassettes for each test. Example follows:

```
require 'vcr'
VCR.configure do |config|
  config.cassette_library_dir = "fixtures/vcr_cassettes" # storage for cassetes
  config.hook_into :webmock # webmock integration
```

```
end

class VCRTest < Minitest::Test
  def test_example_dot_com
    VCR.use_cassette("success_info") do
       response = Net::HTTP.get_response(URI('http://www.example.com/'))
       assert_match /Example Domain/, response.body
    end
  end
end</pre>
```

C.1.3.3 Testing Web Applications

If you work on web applications, you can also easily test the interaction like users will interact through web browser. This is useful when you write integration tests. A de facto standard is the capybara gem that provides drivers for various browser backends. The simplest driver to setup is RackTest, so you can start with it as long as your app uses rack.

Selenium driver Firefox Poltergeist driver PhantomJS If you need advanced stuff like testing pages with asynchronous requests through AJAX you can use Selenium driver which runs Firefox in headless mode. If you want to run such tests on CI server without X11 server, theres Poltergeist driver using PhantomJS.

An example of simple test, supposing my_app.rb contains rack-based app (e.g. using Sinatra).

```
require 'minitest/autorun'
require 'capybara/dsl'
require './my_app.rb'
Capybara.app = MyApp
Capybara.default_driver = :rack_test
class MyAppTest < Minitest::Test</pre>
  include Capybara::DSL
  def test_index
    visit '/'
    click_link 'login'
   fill_in('Login', with: 'Marek')
   fill_in('Password', with: 'secret')
    click_button('Submit')
    assert page.has_selector('div p.success')
    assert page.has_content?('Welcome Marek')
  end
  def teardown
    Capybara.reset_sessions!
    Capybara.use_default_driver
```

end end

C.1.3.4 Cucumber

We can use the Cucumber framework for testing using the BDD approach. It allows us to write the behavior specification in a natural language style first and then convert it to tests step-by-step. Imagine youd describe a feature like this:

```
Feature: logout of logged in user
```

```
Scenario: User can log out from app
Given I'm logged in as user ares
And I'm on host list page
When I click logout link
Then I should see logout notification
```

Its a valid cucumber test (aka feature) which only needs implementing those steps, using capybara for example.

```
Given(/^I'm logged in as user (.*)$/) do |user|
  visit '/'
  fill_in "login", with: user
  fill_in "password", with: 'testpassword'
  click_button 'login'
end

Given(/^I'm on (.*) (.*) page$/) do |resource, action|
  visit "/#{resource}/#{action}"
end

When(/^I click (.*) link$/) do |identifier|
  click_link identifier
end

Then(/^I should see logout notification$/) do
  assert page.has_content 'div p.logout_notification'
end
```

One advantage that it brings is, that your tests are live documentation too.

Appendix D Utility Programs

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

D.1 Ruby Eval Utility

```
See "On Simple Examples", page 47, 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.

```
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
while true  # Top of main loop.

<eval—Main-Get Line>
  <eval—Main-Process Line>

end  # Bottom of main loop
print "\n"
end # module
```

The following table lists called chunk definition points.

```
Chunk name

<eval—EvalWrapper-Constants>
<eval—EvalWrapper-Indentation
Deltas>
<eval—Main-Get Line>
<eval—Main-Process Line>

First definition point
See "eval.rb Module Code", page 190.
See "eval.rb Indentation Deltas Code", page 190.
See "eval.rb Main Get Line Code", page 191.
See "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 191.
```

D.1.1 eval.rb Module Code

```
< eval-EvalWrapper-Constants> <math>\equiv
```

Constants for ANSI screen interaction. Adjust to your liking.

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.

D.1.2 eval.rb Indentation Deltas Code

```
<eval—EvalWrapper-Indentation Deltas> \( \)
# 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[^_]/
    [0,1] # 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 189.
D.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
       print PrMore
                                 # (appending to previous lines)
     end
     print Ispace * indent,Code
     line = gets
```

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.

D.1.4 eval.rb Main Process Line Code

print Norm

```
<eval—Main-Process Line> \(\) \( \) 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 189.
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 192.
Line>
```

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line> See "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 192.

D.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 191.

D.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 191.

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 192.
Line_Indentation>
< eval — Main — Process
                        Line-Is See "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 193.
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 192.
### 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 192.

D.1.5 eval.rb Post Create

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

D.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
```

```
<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

<apiutil—BEGIN Block>
<apiutil—BEGIN Block>
<apiutil—END Block>
<apiutil—END Block>
<apiutil—ENDFILE Block>
<apiutil—ENDFILE Block>
<apiutil—ENDFILE Block>
<apiutil—MAIN Block>
See "apiutil.awk ENDFILE Block", page 200.
<apiutil—MAIN Block>
See "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.
```

D.2.1 apiutil.awk BEGIN Block

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193. The following table lists called chunk definition points.

```
Chunk name

<a href="first-definition-point">First definition point</a>
<a href="first-definition-point">See "apiutil Ord Function", page 200.</a>
```

D.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 193.

D.2.3 apiutil.awk MAIN Block

```
<apiutil—MAIN Block> =
    ############
# MAIN BLOCK #
    ###########

# pass through whatever is not in a target table
    started == 0 { print > newfile }
```

```
<\!apiutil-\!-\!MAIN\;Block\!-\!Main\;Loop\!>
```

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193. The following table lists called chunk definition points.

```
Chunk name

<aprill - MAIN Block-Convert Symbols (Definition Point See "convert symbols (Definition"), page 201.

bols Function Defin>

<aprill - MAIN Block-Main Loop>
<aprill - MAIN Block-Ord Function Definition", page 195.

See "apiutil ord Function", page 201.

See "apiutil Ord Function", page 201.
```

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 198, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.

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
}

<aputil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>
}
```

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.

The called chunk <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside> is first defined at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 196.

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 197.

This chunk is called by *<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop>*; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 195.

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 196.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 195.

The called chunk <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing> is first defined at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 197.

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.

```
\arrowvert < apiutil — MAIN Block — Main Loop-Inside \_Processing > \equiv
cm = match(\$0, /([CM]|[:#]+)?([^( ]+)(\s\(([^)]+)\))?/, arr)
\# for debugging
```

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

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 200.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 196.

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 195, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.

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 195, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.

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 195, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—BEGIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.

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 197, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 200.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 196.

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 197, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 200.

This chunk is called by <aputil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk" MAIN Block", page 196.

Printing the Table Items

The code is printing a **Ctable** element, and it contains both an **Citem** 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 197, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 196.

D.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 193.

D.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 193.

D.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 194.

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil Ord Function", page 201.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.

The ord() and chr() Function Definitions

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil Ord Function", page 201.

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.

D.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 194.

D.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 E.1 "Initial Setup", page 204) and is made executable by a @post_create command (see Section E.2 "Post Create", page 204), both of which were added by the TexiwebJR program.

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

This chunk is also defined in "Utility Targets", page 207.

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

Appendix E Initial Setup and Post Create

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

- @initial_setup
- @post_create

E.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 E.2 "Post Create", page 204).

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
```

E.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 F 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.

```
Chunk nameFirst definition point<Makefile—Clean Targets>See "Clean Targets", page 207.<Makefile—Default Target>See "Default Rule", page 205.<Makefile—TWJR Targets>See "TWJR Targets", page 206.<Makefile—Utility Targets>See "apiutil Makefile Target", page 203.<Makefile—Variable Definitions>See "Makefile Variable Definitions", page 205.
```

F.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 205.

F.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 \equiv =

```
# 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 205.

F.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

F.4 Utility Targets

This chunk is also defined in "apiutil Makefile Target", page 203.

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

F.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 205.

Appendix G Code Chunk Summaries

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

G.1 Source File Definitions

```
{Makefile}
           This chunk is defined in "The Makefile", page 205.
{apiutil.awk}
           This chunk is defined in "API Utility", page 193.
{eval.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.
{fact.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "On Simple Examples", page 45.
{guess.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "On Puzzle Program", page 48.
{hola.gemspec}
           This chunk is defined in "Your First Gem", page 161.
{hola.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Your First Gem", page 161.
{regx.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Regular Expressions", page 50.
{ri20min.rb}
           This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 26.
{setpath.sh}
           This chunk is defined in "Initial Setup", page 204.
```

G.2 Code Chunk Definitions

```
<a href="Makefile"></a> Clean Targets</a>
This chunk is defined in "Clean Targets", page 207.
<a href="Makefile"></a> This chunk is defined in "Default Rule", page 205.
<a href="Makefile"></a> This chunk is defined in "TWJR Targets", page 206.
<a href="Makefile"></a> Utility Targets
Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil Makefile Target", page 203, and "Utility Targets", page 207.
<a href="Makefile"></a> Variable Definitions
This chunk is defined in "Makefile Variable Definitions", page 205.
```

- < $MegaGreeter-Initialize\ Method>$
 - This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 26.
- <MegaGreeter-Main Script>
 - This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 28.
- <MegaGreeter—say_bye Method>
 - This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 28.
- $< MegaGreeter say_hi~Method >$
 - This chunk is defined in "Large Class Definition", page 27.
- <april-BEGIN Block>
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.
- <april-BEGIN-Ord Function Init>
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil Ord Function", page 200.
- $< apiutil -- BEGIN-Variable\ Defns>$
 - Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 195, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 198.
- $< apiutil BEGINFILE\ Block>$
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk BEGINFILE BLOCK", page 194.
- <april-END Block>
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk END Block", page 200.
- <apiutil—ENDFILE Block>
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk ENDFILE Block", page 200.
- <april-MAIN Block>
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.
- <apiutil—MAIN Block-Convert Symbols Function Defn>
 - This chunk is defined in "convertsymbols() Function Definition", page 201.
- <april-MAIN Block-Main Loop>
 - This chunk is defined in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 195.
- <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>
 - Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 196, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 197.
- <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing>
 - Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 197, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 199, and "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 200.
- <apiutil—MAIN Block-Ord Function Defn>
 - Multiple definitions occur in "apiutil Ord Function", page 201, and "apiutil Ord Function", page 201.
- < eval-EvalWrapper-Constants >
 - This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Module Code", page 190.

- < eval—EvalWrapper-Indentation Deltas>
 - This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Indentation Deltas Code", page 190.
- <eval—Main-Get Line>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Main Get Line Code", page 191.

 $< eval-Main-Process\ Line>$

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 191.

<eval—Main-Process Line-If Not Line>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Not Line Code", page 192.

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 192.

<eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line_Indentation>

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 192.

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

This chunk is defined in "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 193.

G.3 Code Chunk References

<Makefile—Clean Targets>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

< Makefile—Default Target>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

<Makefile—TWJR Targets>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

<Makefile—Utility Targets>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

<Makefile—Variable Definitions>

This chunk is called by {Makefile}; see its first definition at "The Makefile", page 205.

< $MegaGreeter-Initialize\ Method>$

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 26.

<MegaGreeter—Main Script>

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 26.

<MegaGreeter—say_bye Method>

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 26.

<MegaGreeter—say_hi Method>

This chunk is called by {ri20min.rb}; see its first definition at "Large Class Definition", page 26.

 $< apiutil — BEGIN \ Block >$

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193.

<apiutil—BEGIN-Ord Function Init>

This chunk is called by *apiutil—BEGIN Block*>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.

<april-BEGIN-Variable Defns>

This chunk is called by *<apiutil—BEGIN Block>*; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk BEGIN Block", page 194.

 $< apiutil -- BEGINFILE\ Block>$

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193.

<april-END Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193.

<april-ENDFILE Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193.

<apiutil—MAIN Block>

This chunk is called by {apiutil.awk}; see its first definition at "API Utility", page 193.

<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 194.

<april-MAIN Block-Main Loop>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.

 $< apiutil-MAIN\ Block-Main\ Loop-Inside>$

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 195.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside_Processing>

This chunk is called by <aputil—MAIN Block-Main Loop-Inside>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 196.

<apiutil—MAIN Block-Ord Function Defn>

This chunk is called by <apiutil—MAIN Block>; see its first definition at "apiutil.awk MAIN Block", page 194.

< eval - EvalWrapper - Constants >

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.

 $< eval-EvalWrapper-Indentation\ Deltas>$

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.

< eval — Main — $Get\ Line>$

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.

 $< eval-Main-Process\ Line>$

This chunk is called by {eval.rb}; see its first definition at "Ruby Eval Utility", page 189.

<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 191.

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

This chunk is called by <eval—Main-Process Line>; see its first definition at "eval.rb Main Process Line Code", page 191.

< 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 192.

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

This chunk is called by <*eval—Main-Process Line-Is Line*>; see its first definition at "eval.rb If Is Line Code", page 192.

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Marek Hulan, Marek Jalen, Ivan Necas, Programming Ruby, Version 0.2, September 25, 2017.

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