



RUBY

IN A NUTSHELL

A Desktop Quick Reference

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with translated text by David L. Reynolds, Jr.



Ruby in a Nutshell

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Foreword

Ruby is an object-oriented programming language developed for the purpose of making programming both enjoyable and fast. With its easy-to-use interpreter, easy-to-understand syntax, complete object-oriented functionality, and powerful class libraries, Ruby has become a language that can be used in a broad range of fields: from text processing and CGI scripts to professional, large-scale programs.

As a programmer and a programming-language geek, I know what makes me happy while programming, and I designed Ruby with these elements in mind. I based the language on an object-oriented paradigm, provided a solid feature set (e.g., exceptions, iterators, etc.), and made sure to keep things consistent and balanced. Ruby will help you concentrate on solving problems. It is straightforward and not the least bit enigmatic.

It's my sincere hope that this book will help you enjoy programming in Ruby.

Happy programming!

—Yukihiro "Matz" Matsumoto, Japan

Preface

Ruby in a Nutshell is a practical reference covering everything from Ruby syntax to the specifications of its standard class libraries. With portability and convenience in mind, I have arranged it into a concise tool that provides just the information you need while programming. Although this book is based on Ruby 1.6.5, its contents should remain applicable to future versions of Ruby, and many of the changes that will be included in Version 1.8 are shown in [Chapter 6](#).

This book covers all the built-in features and standard bundled libraries of Ruby. It isn't an introductory book; rather it works best sitting top of your desk when you program in Ruby. The book assumes you have prior programming experience, preferably in Ruby. System programming experience may be required to understand some parts of the book, for example, network programming using sockets.

This book doesn't cover the Ruby C API for extending and embedding Ruby, nor does it cover additional libraries, e.g., those available from RAA (<http://www.ruby-lang.org/en/raa.html>). For information on these topics, please consult the online documents available at <http://www.ruby-lang.org>, other books, or you can wait for O'Reilly to publish books on them. :-)

How This Book Is Organized

[Chapter 1](#) briefly introduces the Ruby programming language, highlights the language features, and discusses what makes Ruby unique.

[Chapter 2](#) describes Ruby language syntax and covers command-line options, environment variables, lexical convention, literals, variables, operators, methods, control structures, object-oriented programming, and security.

[Chapter 3](#) describes the core functionality built into the standard Ruby interpreter. This part contains descriptions for more than 800 built-in methods in 42 classes and modules.

[Chapter 4](#) describes the useful libraries that come with the standard Ruby distribution, from network access via HTTP and CGI programming to data persistence using the DBM library.

[Chapter 5](#) describes the tools that come with the standard Ruby distribution—debugger, profiler, and `irb` (Interactive Ruby)—and some useful tools not bundled with the Ruby standard distribution.

[Chapter 6](#) describes the features added to the development version of Ruby (1.7). Those features aren't yet available in the current stable Version 1.6.5 but will be in the next stable version (1.8).

Conventions Used in This Book

The following conventions are used in this book:

Italic

Used for strings to be replaced for particular value.

Constant width

Indicates command-line options; environment variable names; fragments of Ruby code, i.e., names and reserved words, including method names, variable names, class names, etc.; examples; user input.

[]

Text in brackets is usually optional.

...

Text followed by an ellipsis can be any number of sequences of the text.

[...] or { ... }

Ellipses between brackets or braces refers to omitted text.



This icon designates a note, which is an important aside to the nearby text.



This icon designates a warning relating to the nearby text.

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Thanks to David L. Reynolds, Jr., the translator of O'Reilly Japan's Ruby Pocket Reference (from which this book was derived). He not only decrypted the mysterious Oriental language but also fixed bugs in the book and polished up descriptions. I would also like to thank the technical reviewers, Colin Steele and Todd Faulkner; they helped take a pocket reference and expand it to the full-sized book you are reading.

Finally, thanks to my family, who endured their husband/father spending too many hours before the computer.

-- A wife of noble character who can find? She is worth far more than rubies.

Proverbs 31:10

Chapter 1. Introduction

Ruby has been readily adopted by programmers in Japan and has had much documentation written for it in Japanese. As programmers outside of Japan learn about the benefits of Ruby, there is a growing need for documentation in English. The first book I wrote for O'Reilly, Ruby Pocket Reference, was in Japanese. Since then Ruby has changed significantly. To meet the needs of non-Japanese programmers, we translated, updated, and expanded Ruby Pocket Reference into Ruby in a Nutshell.

Ruby is an object-oriented programming language that makes programming both enjoyable and fast. With the easy-to-use interpreter, familiar syntax, complete object-oriented functionality, and powerful class libraries, Ruby has become a language that can be applied to a broad range of fields from text processing and CGI scripts to professional, large-scale programs.

While Ruby is easy to learn, there are many details that you can't be expected to remember. This book presents those details in a clean and concise format. It is a reference to keep next to your desktop or laptop, designed to make Ruby even easier to use.

For those of you who are new to Ruby, there are several online tutorials available to get you started: Ruby's home page (<http://www.ruby-lang.org>) is a good starting point as it offers Ruby tutorials and the Ruby Language FAQ.

1.1 Ruby's Elegance

Ruby is a genuine object-oriented scripting language designed from the ground up to support the OOP model.

Most modern languages incorporate aspects of object-oriented programming. Because Ruby was designed from the beginning to support OOP, most programmers feel it is elegant, easy to use, and a pleasure to program. Everything in Ruby is an object; there's no exception.

While Ruby is object-oriented, you can also use Ruby to do procedural programming. But as you do, Ruby is secretly turning your nifty procedures into methods on a globally accessible object.

Throughout the development of the Ruby language, I've focused my energies on making programming faster and easier. To do so, I developed what I call the principle of least surprise. All features in Ruby, including object-oriented features, are designed to work as ordinary programmers (e.g., me) expect them to work. Here are some of those features:

Interpretive programming

No compilation is needed; you can edit and feed your program to the interpreter. The faster development cycle helps you enjoy the programming process.

Dynamic programming

Almost everything in Ruby is done at runtime. Types of variables and expressions are determined at runtime as are class and method definitions. You can even generate programs within programs and execute them.

Familiar syntax

If you've been programming in Java, Perl, Python, C/C++, or even Smalltalk, Ruby's syntax is easy to learn. The following simple factorial function illustrates how easily you can decipher its meaning:

```
def factorial(n)
  if n == 0
    return 1
  else
    return n * factorial(n-1)
  end
end
```

Iterators

The iterator feature for loop abstraction is built into the language, which means a block of code can be attached to a method call. The method can call back the block from within its execution. For example, `Array` has the `each` method to iterate over its contents. With this feature, you don't need to worry about the loop counter or boundary condition.

```
ary = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

```
ary.each do |i|
  puts i*2
end # prints 2,3,4,8,10 for each line
```

A block is used not only for loops. It can be used for various purposes including the `select` method of `Array`, which uses blocks to choose values that satisfy conditions from contents:

```
ary = [1,2,3,4,5]
ary = ary.select do |i|
  i % 2 == 0
end # returns array of even numbers.
```

Exceptions

Just as you'd expect in a modern OOP language, Ruby provides language-level support for exception handling. For example, an attempt to open a file that doesn't exist raises an exception, so that your program doesn't run, assuming an unmet precondition. This feature obviously enhances the reliability of your programs. Exceptions can be caught explicitly using the `rescue` clause of the `begin` statement:

```
begin
  f = open(path)
rescue
  puts "#{path} does not exist."
  exit 1
end
```

Class libraries

Ruby comes with a strong set of bundled class libraries that cover a variety of domains, from basic datatypes (strings, arrays, and hashes) to networking and thread programming. The following program retrieves the current time string from the local host via a network socket connection:

```
require "socket"
print TCPSocket.open("localhost", "daytime").gets
```

In addition to bundled libraries, if you go to <http://www.ruby-lang.org/en/raa.html> shows a list of the many unbundled useful libraries along with applications and documentation. Since Ruby is rather young, the number of libraries available is smaller than that of Perl, for example, but new libraries are becoming available each day.

Portable

Ruby ports to many platforms, including Unix, DOS, Windows, OS/2, etc. Ruby programs run on many platforms without modification.

Garbage collection

Object-oriented programming tends to allocate many objects during execution. Ruby's garbage collector recycles unused object automatically.

Built-in security check

Ruby's taint model provides safety when handling untrusted data or programs.

1.2 Ruby in Action

Like Python or Perl, Ruby is a scripting language. Scripting languages offer some great advantages over other languages, such as C++ and Java. They allow programmers to show off a lot of programming concepts and principles in a relatively small amount of space. Ruby does this, while maintaining code readability.

```
# the "Hello World."
print "Hello World.\n"
# output file contents in reverse order
print File::readlines(path).reverse
# print lines that contains the word "Ruby".
while line = gets( )
  if /Ruby/ =~ line
    print line
  end
end
# class and methods
class Animal
  def legs
    puts 4
  end
end
class Dog<Animal
  def bark
    puts "bow!"
  end
end
fred = Dog::new
fred.legs          # prints 4
fred.bark         # prints bow!
# exception handling
begin
  printf "size of %s is %d\n", path, File::size(path)
rescue
  printf "error! probably %s does not exist\n", path
end
# rename all files to lowercase names
ARGV.each {|path| File::rename(path, path.downcase)}
# network access
require 'socket'
print TCPSocket::open("localhost", "daytime").read
# Ruby/Tk
require 'tk'
TkButton.new(nil, 'text'=>'hello', 'command'=>'exit').pack
```

```
Tk.mainloop()
```

Chapter 2. Language Basics

Ruby does what you'd expect it to do. It is highly consistent, and allows you to get down to work without having to worry about the language itself getting in your way.

2.1 Command-Line Options

Like most scripting language interpreters, Ruby is generally run from the command line. The interpreter can be invoked with the following options, which control the environment and behavior of the interpreter itself:

`ruby [options] [-] [programfile] [argument ...]`

`-a`

Used with `-n` or `-p` to split each line. Split output is stored in `$F`.

`-c`

Checks syntax only, without executing program.

`-C dir`

Changes directory before executing (equivalent to `-X`).

`-d`

Enables debug mode (equivalent to `-debug`). Sets `$DEBUG` to `true`.

`-e prog`

Specifies `prog` as the program from the command line. Specify multiple `-e` options for multiline programs.

`-F pat`

Specifies `pat` as the default separator pattern (`$;`) used by `split`.

`-h`

Displays an overview of command-line options (equivalent to `-help`).

`-i [ext]`

Overwrites the file contents with program output. The original file is saved with the extension `ext`. If `ext` isn't specified, the original file is deleted.

`-I dir`

Adds `dir` as the directory for loading libraries.

`-K [kcode]`

Specifies the multibyte character set code (`e` or `E` for EUC (extended Unix code); `s` or `S` for SJIS (Shift-JIS); `u` or `U` for UTF-8; and `a`, `A`, `n`, or `N` for ASCII).

`-l`

Enables automatic line-end processing. Chops a newline from input lines and appends a newline to output lines.

`-n`

Places code within an input loop (as in `while gets; ... end`).

-0[*octal*]

Sets default record separator (\$/) as an octal. Defaults to \0 if *octal* not specified.

-p

Places code within an input loop. Writes \$_ for each iteration.

-r *lib*

Uses require to load *lib* as a library before executing.

-s

Interprets any arguments between the program name and filename arguments fitting the pattern -xxx as a switch and defines the corresponding variable.

\$xxx.-S

Searches for a program using the environment variable PATH.

-T [level]

Sets the level for tainting checks (1 if level not specified). Sets the \$SAFE variable.

-v

Displays version and enables verbose mode (equivalent to --verbose).

-w

Enables verbose mode. If programfile not specified, reads from STDIN.

-x [dir]

Strips text before #!ruby line. Changes directory to *dir* before executing if *dir* is specified.

-X *dir*

Changes directory before executing (equivalent to -c).

-y

Enables parser debug mode (equivalent to --yydebug).

--copyright

Displays copyright notice.

--debug

Enables debug mode (equivalent to -d).

--help

Displays an overview of command-line options (equivalent to -h).

--version

Displays version.

--verbose

Enables verbose mode (equivalent to `-v`). Sets `$VERBOSE` to true.

--yydebug

Enables parser debug mode (equivalent to `-Y`).



Single character command-line options can be combined. The following two lines express the same meaning:

```
ruby -ne 'print if /Ruby/' /usr/share/dict/words  
ruby -n -e 'print if /Ruby/' /usr/share/dict/words
```

2.2 Environment Variables

In addition to using arguments and options on the command line, the Ruby interpreter uses the following environment variables to control its behavior. The `ENV` object contains a list of current environment variables.

DLN_LIBRARY_PATH

Search path for dynamically loaded modules.

HOME

Directory moved to when no argument is passed to `Dir::chdir`. Also used by `File::expand_path` to expand "`~`".

LOGDIR

Directory moved to when no arguments are passed to `Dir::chdir` and environment variable `HOME` isn't set.

PATH

Search path for executing subprocesses and searching for Ruby programs with the `-S` option. Separate each path with a colon (semicolon in DOS and Windows).

RUBYLIB

Search path for libraries. Separate each path with a colon (semicolon in DOS and Windows).

RUBYLIB_PREFIX

Used to modify the `RUBYLIB` search path by replacing prefix of library `path1` with `path2` using the format `path1;path2` or `path1path2`. For example, if `RUBYLIB` is:

`/usr/local/lib/ruby/site_ruby`

and `RUBYLIB_PREFIX` is:

`/usr/local/lib/ruby;f:/ruby`

Ruby searches `f:/ruby/site_ruby`. Works only with DOS, Windows, and OS/2 versions.

RUBYOPT

Command-line options passed to Ruby interpreter. Ignored in taint mode (where `$SAFE` is greater than 0).

RUBYPATH

With `-S` option, search path for Ruby programs. Takes precedence over `PATH`. Ignored in taint mode (where `$SAFE` is greater than 0).

RUBYSHELL

Specifies shell for spawned processes. If not set, SHELL or COMSPEC are checked.

2.3 Lexical Conventions

Ruby programs are composed of elements already familiar to most programmers: lines, whitespace, comments, identifiers, reserved words, literals, etc. Particularly for those programmers coming from other scripting languages such as Perl, Python or tcl, you'll find Ruby's conventions familiar, or at least straightforward enough not to cause much trouble.

2.3.1 Whitespace

We'll leave the thorny questions like "How much whitespace makes code more readable and how much is distracting?" for another day. If you haven't already caught onto this theme, the Ruby interpreter will do pretty much what you expect with respect to whitespace in your code.

Whitespace characters such as spaces and tabs are generally ignored in Ruby code, except when they appear in strings. Sometimes, however, they are used to interpret ambiguous statements. Interpretations of this sort produce warnings when the `-w` option is enabled.

`a + b`

Interpreted as `a+b` (`a` is a local variable)

`a +b`

Interpreted as `a (+b)` (`a`, in this case, is a method call)

2.3.2 Line Endings

Ruby interprets semicolons and newline characters as the ending of a statement. However, if Ruby encounters operators, such as `+`, `-`, or backslash at the end of a line, they indicate the continuation of a statement.

2.3.3 Comments

Comments are lines of annotation within Ruby code that are ignored at runtime. Comments extend from `#` to the end of the line.

`# This is a comment.`

Ruby code can contain embedded documents too. Embedded documents extend from a line beginning with `=begin` to the next line beginning with `=end`. `=begin` and `=end` must come at the beginning of a line.

```
=begin
This is an embedded document.
=end
```

2.3.4 Identifiers

Identifiers are names of variables, constants, and methods. Ruby distinguishes between

identifiers consisting of uppercase characters and those of lowercase characters. Identifier names may consist of alphanumeric characters and the underscore character (_). You can distinguish a variable's type by the initial character of its identifier.

2.3.5 Reserved Words

The following list shows the reserved words in Ruby:

BEGIN	do	next	then
END	else	nil	true
alias	elsif	not	undef
and	end	or	unless
begin	ensure	redo	until
break	false	rescue	when
case	for	retry	while
class	if	return	yield
def	in	self	_ _FILE_ _
defined?	module	super	_ _LINE_ _

These reserved words may not be used as constant or local variable names. They can, however, be used as method names if a receiver is specified.

2.4 Literals

I've often wondered why we programmers are so enamored with literals. I'm waiting for the day when a language comes along and introduces "figuratives." In the interim, the rules Ruby uses for literals are simple and intuitive, as you'll see the following sections.

2.4.1 Numbers

Strings and numbers are the bread and butter of literals. Ruby provides support for both integers and floating-point numbers, using classes Fixnum, Bignum, and Float.

2.4.1.1 Integers

Integers are instances of class Fixnum or Bignum:

```
123                      # decimal
1_234                     # decimal with underline
0377                      # octal
0xff                      # hexadecimal
0b1011                     # binary
?a                         # character code for 'a'
12345678901234567890     # Bignum: an integer of infinite length
```

2.4.1.2 Floating-point numbers

Floating-point numbers are instances of class Float:

```
123.4                     # floating point value
1.0e6                      # scientific notation
4E20                        # dot not required
4e+20                       # sign before exponential
```

2.4.2 Strings

A string is an array of bytes (octets) and an instance of class String:

```
"abc"
```

Double-quoted strings allow substitution and backslash notation.

```
'abc'
```

Single-quoted strings don't allow substitution and allow backslash notation only for \\ and \ '.

2.4.2.1 String concatenation

Adjacent strings are concatenated at the same time Ruby parses the program.

```
"foo" "bar"                 # means "foobar"
```

2.4.2.2 Expression substitution

`#$var` and `#@var` are abbreviated forms of `#{ $var }` and `#{ @var }`. Embeds value of expression in `{ . . . }` into a string.

2.4.2.3 Backslash notation

In double-quoted strings, regular expression literals, and command output, backslash notation can be represent unprintable characters, as shown in [Table 2-1](#).

Table 2-1. Backslash notations

Sequence	Character represented
\n	Newline (0x0a)
\r	Carriage return (0x0d)
\f	Formfeed (0x0c)
\b	Backspace (0x08)
\a	Bell (0x07)
\e	Escape (0x1b)
\s	Space (0x20)
\nnn	Octal notation (<i>n</i> being 0-7)
\xnn	Hexadecimal notation (<i>n</i> being 0-9, a-f, or A-F)
\cx, \C-x	Control-x
\M-x	Meta-x (<i>c</i> 0x80)
\M-\C-x	Meta-Control-x
\x	Character <i>x</i>

`command`

Converts command output to a string. Allows substitution and backslash notation

2.4.2.4 General delimited strings

The delimiter ! in expressions like this: `%q! . . . !` can be an arbitrary character. If the delimiter is any of the following: ([{ <, the end delimiter becomes the corresponding closing delimiter, allowing for nested delimiter pairs.

`%!foo!`

`%Q!foo!`

Equivalent to double quoted string "foo"

`%q!foo!`

Equivalent to single quoted string 'foo'

`%x!foo!`

Equivalent to `foo` command output

2.4.2.5 here documents

Builds strings from multiple lines. Contents span from next logical line to the line that starts with the delimiter.

```
<<FOO
FOO
```

Using quoted delimiters after <<, you can specify the quoting mechanism used for String literals. If a minus sign appears between << and the delimiter, you can indent the delimiter, as shown here:

```
puts <<FOO                      # String in double quotes ( " ")
    hello world
    FOO
    puts <<"FOO"                 # String in double quotes ( " ")
    hello world
    FOO
    puts <<'FOO'                  # String in single quotes ( ' ')
    hello world
    FOO
    puts <<`FOO`                  # String in backquotes ( ` )
    hello world
    FOO
    puts <<-FOO                   # Delimiter can be indented
        hello world
        FOO
```

2.4.3 Symbols

A symbol is an object corresponding to an identifier or variable:

```
:foo                      # symbol for 'foo'
:$foo                     # symbol for variable '$foo'
```

2.4.4 Arrays

An array is a container class that holds a collection of objects indexed by an integer. Any kind of object may be stored in an array, and any given array can store a heterogeneous mix of object types. Arrays grow as you add elements. Arrays can be created using `array.new` or via literals. An array expression is a series of values between brackets []:

```
[]
```

An empty array (with no elements)

```
[1, 2, 3]
```

An array of three elements
[1, [2, 3]]

A nested array

2.4.4.1 General delimited string array

You can construct arrays of strings using the shortcut notation, %w. Only whitespace characters and closing parentheses can be escaped in the following notation:

```
%w(foo bar baz)           # [ "foo", "bar", "baz" ]
```

2.4.5 Hashes

A hash is a collection of key-value pairs or a collection that is indexed by arbitrary types of objects.

A hash expression is a series of key=>value pairs between braces.

```
{key1 => val1, key2 => val2}
```

2.4.6 Regular Expressions

Regular expressions are a minilanguage used to describe patterns of strings. A regular expression literal is a pattern between slashes or between arbitrary delimiters followed by %r:

```
/pattern/  
/pattern/im          # option can be specified  
%r!/usr/local!      # general delimited regular expression
```

Regular expressions have their own power and mystery; for more on this topic, see O'Reilly's Mastering Regular Expressions by Jeffrey E.F. Friedl.

2.4.6.1 Regular-expression modifiers

Regular expression literals may include an optional modifier to control various aspects of matching. The modifier is specified after the second slash character, as shown previously and may be represented by one of these characters:

i

Case-insensitive

o

Substitutes only once

x

Ignores whitespace and allows comments in regular expressions

m

Matches multiple lines, recognizing newlines as normal characters

2.4.6.2 Regular-expression patterns

Except for control characters, (+ ? . * ^ \$ () [] { } | \), all characters match themselves. You can escape a control character by preceding it with a backslash.

Regular characters that express repetition (* + { }) can match very long strings, but when you follow such characters with control characters ?, you invoke a nongreedy match that finishes at the first successful match (i.e., +, *, etc.) followed by ? (i.e., +?, *?, etc.).

^

Matches beginning of line.

\$

Matches end of line.

.

Matches any single character except newline. Using m option allows it to match newline as well.

[...]

Matches any single character in brackets.

[^...]

Matches any single character not in brackets.

re*

Matches 0 or more occurrences of preceding expression.

re+

Matches 1 or more occurrences of preceding expression.

re?

Matches 0 or 1 occurrence of preceding expression.

re{ n}

Matches exactly n number of occurrences of preceding expression.

re{ n, }

Matches n or more occurrences of preceding expression.

re{ n, m}

Matches at least n and at most m occurrences of preceding expression.

a| b

Matches either a or b .

(re)

Groups regular expressions and remembers matched text.

(?imx)

Temporarily toggles on `i`, `m`, or `x` options within a regular expression. If in parentheses, only that area is affected.

(?-imx)

Temporarily toggles off `i`, `m`, or `x` options within a regular expression. If in parentheses, only that area is affected.

(?: *re*)

Groups regular expressions without remembering matched text.

(?imx: *re*)

Temporarily toggles on `i`, `m`, or `x` options within parentheses.

(?-imx: *re*)

Temporarily toggles off `i`, `m`, or `x` options within parentheses.

(?#...)

Comment.

(?= *re*)

Specifies position using a pattern. Doesn't have a range.

(?! *re*)

Specifies position using pattern negation. Doesn't have a range.

(?> *re*)

Matches independent pattern without backtracking.

\w

Matches word characters.

\W

Matches nonword characters.

\s

Matches whitespace. Equivalent to `[\t\n\r\f]`.

\S

Matches nonwhitespace.

\d

Matches digits. Equivalent to [0-9].

\D

	Matches nondigits.
\A	Matches beginning of string.
\Z	Matches end of string. If a newline exists, it matches just before newline.
\z	Matches end of string.
\G	Matches point where last match finished.
\b	Matches word boundaries when outside brackets. Matches backspace (0x08) when inside brackets.
\B	Matches nonword boundaries.
\n, \t, etc.	Matches newlines, carriage returns, tabs, etc.
\1...\9	Matches <i>n</i> th grouped subexpression.
\10...	Matches <i>n</i> th grouped subexpression if it matched already. Otherwise refers to the octal representation of a character code.

2.5 Variables

There are five types of variables in Ruby: global, instance, class, locals and constants. As you might expect, global variables are accessible globally to the program, instance variables belong to an object, class variables to a class and constants are, well... constant. Ruby uses special characters to differentiate between the different kinds of variables. At a glance, you can tell what kind of variable is being used.

Global Variables

\$foo

Global variables begin with \$. Uninitialized global variables have the value `nil` (and produce warnings with the `-w` option). Some global variables have special behavior. See [Section 3.1](#) in [Chapter 3](#).

Instance Variables

@foo

Instance variables begin with @. Uninitialized instance variables have the value `nil` (and produce warnings with the `-w` option).

Class Variables

@@foo

Class variables begin with @@ and must be initialized before they can be used in method definitions. Referencing an uninitialized class variable produces an error. Class variables are shared among descendants of the class or module in which the class variables are defined. Overriding class variables produce warnings with the `-w` option.

Local Variables

foo

Local variables begin with a lowercase letter or _. The scope of a local variable ranges from `class`, `module`, `def`, or `do` to the corresponding `end` or from a block's opening brace to its close brace { }. The scope introduced by a block allows it to reference local variables outside the block, but scopes introduced by others don't. When an uninitialized local variable is referenced, it is interpreted as a call to a method that has no arguments.

Constants

FOO

Constants begin with an uppercase letter. Constants defined within a class or module can be accessed from within that class or module, and those defined outside a class or module can be accessed globally. Constants may not be defined within methods. Referencing an uninitialized constant produces an error.

Making an assignment to a constant that is already initialized produces a warning, not an error. You may feel it contradicts the name "constant," but remember, this is listed under "variables."

Pseudo-Variables

In addition to the variables discussed, there are also a few pseudo-variables. Pseudo-variables have the appearance of local variables but behave like constants. Assignments may not be made to pseudo-variables.

`self`

The receiver object of the current method

`true`

Value representing `true`

`false`

Value representing `false`

`nil`

Value representing "undefined"; interpreted as `false` in conditionals

`_FILE_`

The name of the current source file

`_LINE_`

The current line number in the source file

Assignment

`target = expr`

The following elements may assign targets:

Global variables

Assignment to global variables alters global status. It isn't recommended to use (or abuse) global variables. They make programs cryptic.

Local variables

Assignment to uninitialized local variables also serves as variable declaration. The variables start to exist until the end of the current scope is reached. The lifetime of local variables is determined when Ruby parses the program.

Constants

Assignment to constants may not appear within a method body. In Ruby, re-assignment to constants isn't prohibited, but it does raise a warning.

Attributes

Attributes take the following form:

`expr.attr`

Assignment to attributes calls the `attr=` method of the result of `expr`.

Elements

Elements take the following form:

`expr [arg ...]`

Assignment to elements calls the `[]=` method of the result of `expr`.

Parallel Assignment

`target [, target ...][, *target] = expr [, expr ...][, *expr]`

Targets on the left side receive assignment from their corresponding expressions on the right side. If the last left-side target is preceded by `*`, all remaining right-side values are assigned to the target as an array. If the last right-side expression is preceded by `*`, the array elements of expression are expanded in place before assignment.

If there is no corresponding expression, `nil` is assigned to the target. If there is no corresponding target, the value of right-side expression is just ignored.

Abbreviated Assignment

`target op = expr`

This is the abbreviated form of:

`target = target op expr`

The following operators can be used for abbreviated assignment:

`+= -= *= /= %= **= <<= >>= &= |= ^= &&= ||=`

2.6 Operators

Ruby supports a rich set of operators, as you'd expect from a modern language. However, in keeping with Ruby's object-oriented nature, most operators are in fact method calls. This flexibility allows you to change the semantics of these operators wherever it might make sense.

2.6.1 Operator Expressions

Most operators are actually method calls. For example, `a + b` is interpreted as `a .+ (b)`, where the `+` method in the object referred to by variable `a` is called with `b` as its argument.

For each operator (`+ - * / % ** & | ^ << >> && | |`), there is a corresponding form of abbreviated assignment operator (`+= -=` etc.)

Here are the operators shown in order of precedence (highest to lowest) :

```
:
[]
**
+(unary) -(unary) ! ~
* / %
+ -
<< >>
&
| ^
> >= < <=
<=> == === != =~ !~
&&
|| ...
?: ...
= (and abbreviated assignment operators such as +=, -=, etc.)
not
and or
```

2.6.1.1 Nonmethod operators

The following operators aren't methods and, therefore, can't be redefined:

```
...
!
not
```

&&
and
||
or
:::
=
+ =, - =, (and other abbreviated assignment operators)
? : (ternary operator)

2.6.1.2 Range operators

Range operators function differently depending on whether or not they appear in conditionals, if expressions, and while loops.

In conditionals, they return true from the point right operand is true until left operand is true:

expr1 .. expr2

Evaluates *expr2* immediately after *expr1* turns true.

expr1 ... expr2

Evaluates *expr2* on the iteration after *expr1* turns true.

In other contexts, they create a range object:

expr1 .. expr2

Includes both expressions (*expr1 <= x <= expr2*)

expr1 ... expr2

Doesn't include the last expression (*expr1 <= x < expr2*)

2.6.1.3 Logical operators

If the value of the entire expression can be determined with the value of the left operand alone, the right operand isn't evaluated.

&& and

Returns true if both operands are true. If the left operand is false, returns the value of the left operand, otherwise returns the value of the right operand.

|| or

Returns true if either operand is true. If the left operand is true, returns the value of the left operand, otherwise returns the value of the right operand.

The operators and and or have extremely low precedence.

2.6.1.4 Ternary operator

Ternary `? :` is the conditional operator. It's another form of the `if` statement.

`a ? b : c`

If `a` is `true`, evaluates `b`, otherwise evaluates `c`. It's best to insert spaces before and after the operators to avoid mistaking the first part for the method `a?` and the second part for the symbol `:c`.

2.6.1.5 `defined?` operator

`defined?` is a special operator that takes the form of a method call to determine whether or not the passed expression is defined. It returns a description string of the expression, or `nil` if the expression isn't defined.

`defined? variable`

True if `variable` is initialized

```
foo = 42
defined? foo      # => "local-variable"
defined? $_       # => "global-variable"
defined? bar      # => nil (undefined)
```

`defined? method_call`

True if a method is defined (also checks arguments)

```
defined? puts      # => "method"
defined? puts(bar) # => nil (bar is not defined here)
defined? unpack     # => nil (not defined here)
```

`defined? super`

True if a method exists that can be called with `super`

```
defined? super      # => "super" (if it can be called)
defined? super      # => nil      (if it cannot be)
```

`defined? yield`

True if a code block has been passed

```
defined? yield     # => "yield" (if there is a block passed)
defined? yield     # => nil      (if there is no block)
```

2.7 Methods

Methods are the workhorses of Ruby; all of your carefully crafted algorithms live in methods on objects (and classes). In Ruby, "method" means both the named operation (e.g. "dump") and the code that a specific class provides to perform an operation.

Strictly speaking, Ruby has no functions, by which I mean code not associated with any object. (In C++, this is what you might call a "global-scope function".) All code in Ruby is a method of some object. But Ruby allows you the flexibility of having some methods appear and work just like functions in other languages, even though behind the scenes they're still just methods.

Normal Method Calls

```
obj .method ([expr ...[, *expr [, &expr ]]])  
obj .method [expr ...[, *expr [, &expr ]]]  
obj ::method ([expr ...[, *expr [, &expr ]]])  
obj ::method [expr ...[, *expr [, &expr ]]]  
method ([expr ...[, *expr [, &expr ]]])  
method [expr ...[,  
*expr [, &expr ]]]
```

Calls a method. May take as arguments any number of `expr` followed by `*expr` and `&expr`. The last expression argument can be a hash declared directly without braces. `*expr` expands the array value of that expression and passes it to the method. `&expr` passes the `Proc` object value of that expression to the method as a block. If it isn't ambiguous, arguments need not be enclosed in parentheses. Either `.` or `::` may be used to separate the object from its method, but it is customary in Ruby code to use `::` as the separator for class methods.

Calls a method of `self`. This is the only form by which private methods may be called.

Within modules, module methods and private instance methods with the same name and definition are referred to by the general term module functions. This kind of method group can be called in either of the following ways:

```
Math.sin(1.0)
```

or:

```
include Math  
sin(1.0)
```



You can append `!` or `?` to the name of a Ruby method. Traditionally, `!` is appended to a method that requires more caution than the variant of the same name without `!`. A question mark `?` is appended to a method that determines the state of a Boolean value, `true` or `false`.

Attempting to call a method without specifying either its arguments or parentheses in a context in which a local variable of the same name exists results in the method call being interpreted as a reference to the local variable, not a call to the method.

2.7.1 Specifying Blocks with Method Calls

Methods may be called with blocks of code specified that will be called from within the method.

```
method_call {|[variable [, variable ...]]|} code  
method_call do [|[variable [, variable ...]]|] code end
```

Calls a method with blocks specified. The code in the block is executed after a value is passed from the method to the block and assigned to the variable (the block's argument) enclosed between `||`.

A block introduces its own scope for new local variables. The local variables that appear first in the block are local to that block. The scope introduced by a block can refer local variables of outer scope; on the other hand, the scope introduced by `class`, `module` and `def` statement can't refer outer local variables.

The form `{ ... }` has a higher precedence than `do ... end`. The following:

```
identifier1 identifier2 {|variable| code}
```

actually means:

```
identifier1(identifier2 {|variable| code})
```

On the other hand:

```
identifier1 identifier2 do |variable| code end
```

actually means:

```
identifier1(identifier2) do |variable| code end
```

def Statement

```
def method([arg ..., arg =default ..., *arg , &arg ])
code
[rescue [exception_class [, exception_class ...]] [=] variable ] [then]
code ...
[else
code ]
[ensure
code ]
end
```

Defines a method. Arguments may include the following:

`arg`

Mandatory argument.

`arg=default`

Optional argument. If argument isn't supplied by that which is calling the method, the `default` is assigned to `arg`. The `default` is evaluated at runtime.

`* arg`

If there are remaining actual arguments after assigning mandatory and optional arguments, they are assigned to `arg` as an array. If there is no remainder, empty array is assigned to `arg`.

`& arg`

If the method is invoked with a block, it is converted to a `Proc` object, then assigned to `arg`. Otherwise, `nil` is assigned.

Operators can also be specified as method names. For example:

```
def +(other)
  return self.value + other.value
end
```

You should specify `+=` or `-@` for a single plus or minus, respectively. As with a `begin` block, a method definition may end with `rescue`, `else`, and `ensure` clauses.

2.7.2 Singleton Methods

In Ruby, methods can be defined that are associated with specific objects only. Such methods are called singleton methods. Singleton methods are defined using `def` statements while specifying a receiver.

Defines a singleton method associated with a specific object specified by a receiver. The `receiver` may be a constant (literal) or an expression enclosed in parentheses.

def Statement for Singleton Methods

```
def
  receiver.method ([arg ..., arg =default ..., *arg , &arg ])
  code
[rescue [exception_class [, exception_class ...]] [=] variable ] [then]
  code ]...
[else
  code ]
[ensure
  code ]
end
```



A period `.` after `receiver` can be replaced by two colons `::`. They work the same way, but `::` is often used for class methods.

A restriction in the implementation of Ruby prevents the definition of singleton methods associated with instances of the `Fixnum` or `Symbol` class.

```
a = "foo"
def a.foo
  printf "%s(%d)\n", self, self.size
end
a.foo      # "foo" is available for a only
```

2.7.3 Method Operations

Not only can you define new methods to classes and modules, you can also make aliases to the methods and even remove them from the class.

alias Statement

```
alias new old
```

Creates an alias `new` for an existing method, operator or global variable, specified by `old`. This functionality is also available via `Module#alias_method`. When making an alias of a method, it refers the current definition of the method.

```
def foo
  puts "foo!"
end
alias foo_orig foo
def foo
  puts "new foo!"
end
foo          # => "new foo!"
foo_orig     # => "foo!"
```

undef Statement

```
undef method ...
```

Makes method defined in the current class undefined, even if the method is defined in the superclass. This functionality is also available via `Module#undef_method`.

```
class Foo
def foo
end
end
class Bar<Foo
# Bar inherits "foo"
undef foo
end
b = Bar.new
b.foo      # error!
```

2.7.4 Other Method-Related Statements

The following statements are to be used within method definitions. The `yield` statement executes a block that is passed to the method. The `super` statement executes the overridden method of the superclass.

yield Statement

```
yield([expr ...])
yield [expr ...]
```

Executes the block passed to the method. The expression passed to `yield` is assigned to the block's arguments. Parallel assignment is performed when multiple expressions are passed. The output of the block, in other words the result of the last expression in the block, is returned.

super Statement

```
super
super([expr ...])
superexpr ...
```

`super` executes the method of the same name in the superclass. If neither arguments nor parentheses are specified, the method's arguments are passed directly to the superclass method. In other words, a call to `super()`, which passes no arguments to the superclass method, has a different meaning from a call to `super`, where neither arguments nor parentheses are specified.

2.8 Control Structures

Ruby offers control structures that are pretty common to modern languages, but it also has a few unique ones.

if Statement

```
if conditional [then]
code
[elsif conditional [then]
code]...
[else
code]
end
```

Executes *code* if the *conditional* is true. True is interpreted as anything that isn't `false` or `nil`. If the *conditional* isn't true, *code* specified in the *else* clause is executed. An `if` expression's *conditional* is separated from *code* by the reserved word `then`, a newline, or a semicolon. The reserved word `if` can be used as a statement modifier.

```
code if conditional
```

Executes *code* if *conditional* is true.

unless Statement

```
unless conditional [then]
code
[else
code]
end
```

Executes *code* if *conditional* is false. If the *conditional* is true, *code* specified in the *else* clause is executed. Like `if`, `unless` can be used as a statement modifier.

```
code unless conditional
```

Executes *code* unless *conditional* is true.

case Statement

```
case expression
[when expression [, expression ...] [then]
code]...
[else
code]
end
```

Compares the *expression* specified by `case` and that specified by `when` using the `==` operator and executes the *code* of the `when` clause that matches. The *expression* specified by the `when` clause is evaluated as the left operand. If no `when` clauses match, `case` executes the *code* of the *else* clause. A `when` statement's *expression* is separated from *code* by the reserved word `then`, a newline, or a semicolon.

while Statement

```
while conditional      [do]
  code
end
```

Executes *code* while *conditional* is true. A while loop's *conditional* is separated from *code* by the reserved word do, a newline, \, or a semicolon. The reserved word while can be used as statement modifier.

```
code    while conditional
```

Executes *code* while *conditional* is true.

```
begin code    end while conditional
```

If a while modifier follows a begin statement with no rescue or ensure clauses, *code* is executed once before *conditional* is evaluated.

until Statement

```
until conditional      [do]
  code
end
code    until conditional
begin
  code
end until conditional
```

Executes *code* while *conditional* is false. An until statement's *conditional* is separated from code by the reserved word do, a newline, or a semicolon. Like while, until can be used as statement modifier.

Executes *code* while *conditional* is false.

If an until modifier follows a begin statement with no rescue or ensure clauses, *code* is executed once before *conditional* is evaluated.

for Statement

```
for variable  [, variable ...] in expression      [do]
  code
end
```

Executes *code* once for each element in *expression*. Almost exactly equivalent to:

```
expression.each do |variable[, variable...]| code end
```

except that a for loop doesn't create a new scope for local variables. A for loop's *expression* is separated from *code* by the reserved word do, a newline, or a semicolon.

break Statement

```
break
```

Terminates a while/until loop. Terminates a method with an associated block if called within the block (with the method returning nil).

next Statement

`next`

Jumps to the point immediately before the evaluation of a loop's conditional. Terminates execution of a block if called within a block (with `yield` or `call` returning `nil`).

`redo Statement`

`redo`

Jumps to the point immediately after the evaluation of the loop's conditional. Restarts `yield` or `call` if called within a block.

`retry Statement`

`retry`

Repeats a call to a method with an associated block when called from outside a `rescue` clause.

Jumps to the top of a `begin/end` block if called from within a `rescue` clause.

`begin Statement`

```
begin
  code
  [rescue exception_class [, exception_class ...]] [=> variable] [then]
  code]...
[else
  code]
[ensure
  code]
end
```

The `begin` statement encloses `code` and performs exception handling when used together with the `rescue` and `ensure` clauses.

When a `rescue` clause is specified, exceptions belonging to the `exception_class` specified are caught, and the `code` is executed. The value of the whole `begin` enclosure is the value of its last line of code. If no `exception_class` is specified, the program is treated as if the `StandardError` class had been specified. If a `variable` is specified, the exception object is stored to it. The `rescue` `exception_class` is separated from the rest of the code by the reserved word `then`, a newline, or a semicolon. If no exceptions are raised, the `else` clause is executed if specified. If an `ensure` clause is specified, its `code` is always executed before the `begin/end` block exits, even if for some reason the block is exited before it can be completed.

`rescue Statement`

```
code rescue expression
```

Evaluates the `expression` if an exception (a subclass of `StandardError`) is raised during the execution of the `code`. This is exactly equivalent to:

```
begin
```

```
code
rescue StandardError
  expression
end
```

raise method

```
raise exception_class , message
raise exception_object
raisemessage
raise
```

Raises an exception. Assumes RuntimeError if no *exception_class* is specified. Calling *raise* without arguments in a *rescue* clause re-raises the exception. Doing so outside a rescue clause raises a message-less RuntimeError.

BEGIN Statement

```
BEGIN {
code
}
```

Declares *code* to be called before the program is run.

END Statement

```
END {
code
}
```

Declares *code* to be called at the end of the program (when the interpreter quits).

2.9 Object-Oriented Programming

Phew, seems like a long time since I introduced Ruby as "the object-oriented scripting language," eh? But now you have everything you need to get the nitty-gritty details on how Ruby treats classes and objects. After you've mastered a few concepts and Ruby's syntax for dealing with objects, you may never want to go back to your old languages, so beware!

2.9.1 Classes and Instances

All Ruby data consists of objects that are instances of some class. Even a class itself is an object that is an instance of the `Class` class. As a general rule, new instances are created using the `new` method of a class, but there are some exceptions (such as the `Fixnum` class).

```
a = Array::new  
s = String::new  
o = Object::new
```

class Statement

```
class class_name [ < superclass ]  
code  
end
```

Defines a class. A `class_name` must be a constant. The defined class is assigned to that constant. If a class of the same name already exists, the class and `superclass` must match, or the `superclass` must not be specified, in order for the features of the new class definition to be added to the existing class. `class` statements introduce a new scope for local variables.

2.9.2 Methods

Class methods are defined with the `def` statement. The `def` statement adds a method to the innermost class or module definition surrounding the `def` statement. A `def` statement outside a class or module definition (at the top level) adds a method to the `Object` class itself, thus defining a method that can be referenced anywhere in the program.

When a method is called, Ruby searches for it in a number of places in the following order:

1. Among the methods defined in that object (i.e., singleton methods).
2. Among the methods defined by that object's class.
3. Among the methods of the modules included by that class.
4. Among the methods of the superclass.
5. Among the methods of the modules included by that superclass.

6. Repeats Steps 4 and 5 until the top-level object is reached.

2.9.3 Singleton Classes

Attribute definitions for a specific object can be made using the class definition construction. Uses for this form of class definition include the definition and a collection of singleton methods.

```
class << object
  code
end
```

Creates a virtual class for a specific object, defining the properties (methods and constants) of the class using the class definition construction.

2.9.4 Modules

A module is similar to a class except that it has no superclass and can't be instantiated. The `Module` class is the superclass of the `Class` class.

module Statement

```
module module_name
  code
end
```

A `module` statement defines a module. `module_name` must be a constant. The defined module is assigned to that constant. If a module of the same name already exists, the features of the new module definition are added to the existing module. `module` statements introduce a new scope for local variables.

2.9.5 Mix-ins

Properties (methods and constants) defined by a module can be added to a class or another module with the `include` method. They can also be added to a specific object using the `extend` method. See `Module#include` in [Section 3.4.9](#), and the `Object#extend` in [Section 3.4.1](#).

2.9.6 Method Visibility

There are three types of method visibility:

Public

 Callable from anywhere

Protected

Callable only from instances of the same class

Private

Callable only in functional form (i.e., without the receiver specified)

Method visibility is defined using the `public`, `private`, and `protected` methods in classes and modules.

`public([symbol . . .])`

Makes the method specified by `symbol` public. The method must have been previously defined. If no arguments are specified, the visibility of all subsequently defined methods in the class or module is made public.

`protected([symbol...])`

Makes the method specified by `symbol` protected. The method must have been previously defined. If no arguments are specified, the visibility of all subsequently defined methods in the class or module is made protected.

`private([symbol...])`

Makes the method specified by `symbol` private. The method must have been previously defined. If no arguments are specified, the visibility of all subsequently defined methods in the class or module is made private.

2.9.7 Object Initialization

Objects are created using the `new` method of each object's class. After a new object is created by the `new` method, the object's `initialize` method is called with the arguments of the `new` method passed to it. Blocks associated with the `new` method are also passed directly to `initialize`. For consistency, you should initialize objects by redefining the `initialize` method, rather than the `new` method. The visibility of methods named `initialize` is automatically made private.

2.9.8 Attributes

Attributes are methods that can be referenced and assigned to externally as if they were variables. For example, the `Process` module attribute `egid` can be manipulated in the following way:

```
Process.egid      # Reference  
Process.egid=id  # Assignment
```

These are actually two methods, one that takes no argument and another with a name ending with `=` that takes one argument. Methods that form such attributes are referred to as accessor methods.

2.9.9 Hooks

Ruby notifies you when a certain event happens, as shown in [Table 2-2](#).

Table 2-2. Events and their hook methods

Event	Hook method	Of
Defining an instance method	method_added	Class
Defining a singleton method	singleton_method_added	Object
Make subclass	inherited	Superclass

These methods are called *hooks*. Ruby calls hook methods when the specific event occurs (at runtime). The default behavior of these methods is to do nothing. You have to override the method if you want to do something on a certain event:

```
class Foo
  def Foo::inherited(sub)
    printf "you made subclass of Foo, named %s\n", sub.name
  end
end
class Bar<Foo  # prints "you made subclass of Foo, named Bar"
end
```

There are other types of hook methods used by the mix-in feature. They are called by `include` and `extend` to do the actual mixing-in, as shown in [Table 2-3](#). You can use these as hooks, but you have to call `super` when you override them.

Table 2-3. Mix-In hook methods

Event	Hook method	Of	From
Mixing in a module	append_features	Mix-in module	Module#include
Extending a object	extend_object	Mix-in module	Object#extend

Ruby 1.7 and later provide more hooks. See [Chapter 6](#) for more information on future versions.

2.10 Security

Ruby is portable and can easily use code distributed across a network. This property gives you tremendous power and flexibility but introduces a commensurate burden: how do you use this capability without possibly causing damage?

Part of the answer lies in Ruby's security system, which allows you to "lock down" the Ruby environment when executing code that may be suspect. Ruby calls such data and code *tainted*. This feature introduces mechanisms that allow you to decide how and when potentially "dangerous" data or code can be used inside your Ruby scripts.

2.10.1 Restricted Execution

Ruby can execute programs with security checking turned on. The global variable `$SAFE` determines the level of the security check. The default safe level is 0, unless specified explicitly by the command-line option `-T`, or the Ruby script is run `setuid` or `setgid`.

`$SAFE` can be altered by assignment, but it isn't possible to lower the value of it:

```
$SAFE=1                      # upgrade the safe level  
$SAFE=4                      # upgrade the safe level even higher  
$SAFE=0                      # SecurityError! you can't do it
```

`$SAFE` is thread local; in other words, the value of `$SAFE` in a thread may be changed without affecting the value in other threads. Using this feature, threads can be sandboxed for untrusted programs.

```
Thread::start {                # starting "sandbox" thread  
  $SAFE = 4                  # for this thread only  
  ...                        # untrusted code  
}
```

Level 0

Level 0 is the default safe level. No checks are performed on tainted data.

Any externally supplied string from `IO`, environment variables, and `ARGV` is automatically flagged as tainted.

The environment variable `PATH` is an exception. Its value is checked, and tainted only if any directory in it is writable by everybody.

Level 1

In this level, potentially dangerous operations using tainted data are forbidden. This is a suitable level for programs that handle untrusted input, such as CGI.

- Environment variables RUBYLIB and RUBYOPT are ignored at startup.
- Current directory (.) isn't included in \$LOAD_PATH.
- The command-line options -e, -i, -I, -r, -s, -S, and -X are prohibited.
- Process termination if the environment variable PATH is tainted.
- Invoking methods and class methods of Dir, IO, File, and FileTest for tainted arguments is prohibited.
- Invoking test, eval, require, load, and trap methods for tainted argument is prohibited.

Level 2

In this level, potentially dangerous operations on processes and files are forbidden, in addition to all restrictions in level 1. The following operations are prohibited:

```
Dir:::chdir  
Dir:::chroot  
Dir:::mkdir  
Dir:::rmdir  
File:::chown  
File:::chmod  
File:::umask  
File:::truncate  
File#lstat  
File#chmod  
File#chown  
File#truncate  
File#flock  
IO#ioctl  
IO#fctrl  
  
Methods defined in the FileTest module  
Process::fork  
Process::setpgid  
Process::setsid
```

```
Process::setpriority
Process::egid=
Process::kill
load from a world-writable directory
syscall
exit!
trap
```

Level 3

In this level, all newly created objects are considered tainted, in addition to all restrictions in Level 2.

- All objects are created tainted.
- Object#untaint is prohibited.
- Proc objects retain current safe level to restore when their call methods are invoked.

Level 4

In this level, modification of global data is forbidden, in addition to all restrictions in Level 3. eval is allowed again in this level, since all dangerous operations are blocked in this level.

```
def safe_eval(str)
Thread::start {
    $SAFE = 4
    eval(str)
}.value
end
eval('1 + 1')          # => 2
eval('system "rm -rf /"') # SecurityError
```

The following operations are prohibited:

- Object#taint
- autoload, load, and include
- Modifying Object class

- Modifying untainted objects
- Modifying untainted classes or modules
- Retrieving meta information (e.g., variable list)
- Manipulating instance variables
- Manipulating threads other than current
- Accessing thread local data
- Terminating process (by `exit`, `abort`)
- File input/output
- Modifying environment variables
- `srand`

Chapter 3. Built-in Library Reference

We will now explore the core functionality that is built into the standard Ruby interpreter. You will find descriptions of more than 800 built-in methods in 42 classes and modules. Topics covered include predefined variables, predefined global constants, and built-in functions.

3.1 Predefined Variables

Ruby's predefined (built-in) variables affect the behavior of the entire program, so their use in libraries isn't recommended. The values in most predefined variables can be accessed by alternative means.

\$!

The last exception object raised. The exception object can also be accessed using => in `rescue` clause.

\$@

The stack backtrace for the last exception raised. The stack backtrace information can retrieved by `Exception#backtrace` method of the last exception.

\$/

The input record separator (newline by default). `gets`, `readline`, etc., take their input record separator as optional argument.

\$\

The output record separator (`nil` by default).

\$,

The output separator between the arguments to print and `Array#join` (`nil` by default). You can specify separator explicitly to `Array#join`.

\$;

The default separator for `split` (`nil` by default). You can specify separator explicitly for `String#split`.

\$.

The number of the last line read from the current input file. Equivalent to `ARGF.lineno`.

\$<

Synonym for `ARGF`.

\$>

Synonym for `$defout`.

\$0

The name of the current Ruby program being executed.

\$\$

The `process.pid` of the current Ruby program being executed.

\$?

The exit status of the last process terminated.

\$:

Synonym for \$LOAD_PATH.

\$DEBUG

True if the -d or --debug command-line option is specified.

\$defout

The destination output for print and printf (\$stdout by default).

\$F

The variable that receives the output from split when -a is specified. This variable is set if the -a command-line option is specified along with the -p or -n option.

\$FILENAME

The name of the file currently being read from ARGF. Equivalent to ARGF.filename.

\$LOAD_PATH

An array holding the directories to be searched when loading files with the load and require methods.

\$SAFE

The security level. See [Section 2.10](#).

0

No checks are performed on externally supplied (tainted) data. (default)

1

Potentially dangerous operations using tainted data are forbidden.

2

Potentially dangerous operations on processes and files are forbidden.

3

All newly created objects are considered tainted.

4

Modification of global data is forbidden.

\$stdin

Standard input (STDIN by default).

\$stdout

Standard output (STDOUT by default).

`$stderr`

Standard error (STDERR by default).

`$VERBOSE`

True if the `-v`, `-w`, or `--verbose` command-line option is specified.

`$-x`

The value of interpreter option `-x` (`x=0, a, d, F, i, K, l, p, v`).

The following are local variables:

`$_`

The last string read by `gets` or `readline` in the current scope.

`$~`

`MatchData` relating to the last match. `Regex#match` method returns the last match information.

The following variables hold values that change in accordance with the current value of `$~` and can't receive assignment:

`$n ($1, $2, $3...)`

The string matched in the `n`th group of the last pattern match. Equivalent to `m[n]`, where `m` is a `MatchData` object.

`$&`

The string matched in the last pattern match. Equivalent to `m[0]`, where `m` is a `MatchData` object.

`$``

The string preceding the match in the last pattern match. Equivalent to `m.pre_match`, where `m` is a `MatchData` object.

`$'`

The string following the match in the last pattern match. Equivalent to `m.post_match`, where `m` is a `MatchData` object.

`$+`

The string corresponding to the last successfully matched group in the last pattern match.

3.2 Predefined Global Constants

TRUE, FALSE, and NIL are backward-compatible. It's preferable to use `true`, `false`, and `nil`.

TRUE

Synonym for `true`.

FALSE

Synonym for `false`.

NIL

Synonym for `nil`.

ARGF

An object providing access to virtual concatenation of files passed as command-line arguments or standard input if there are no command-line arguments. A synonym for `$<`.

ARGV

An array containing the command-line arguments passed to the program. A synonym for `$*`.

DATA

An input stream for reading the lines of code following the `__END__` directive. Not defined if `__END__` isn't present in code.

ENV

A hash-like object containing the program's environment variables. `ENV` can be handled as a hash.

RUBY_PLATFORM

A string indicating the platform of the Ruby interpreter, e.g., `i686-linux`.

RUBY_RELEASE_DATE

A string indicating the release date of the Ruby interpreter, e.g., `2001-09-19`.

RUBY_VERSION

A string indicating the version of the Ruby interpreter, e.g., `1.6.5`.

STDERR

Standard error output stream. Default value of `$stderr`.

STDIN

Standard input stream. Default value of `$stdin`.

STDOUT

Standard output stream. Default value of \$stdout.

TOPLEVEL_BINDING

A Binding object at Ruby's top level.

3.3 Built-in Functions

Since the Kernel module is included by Object class, its methods are available everywhere in the Ruby program. They can be called without a receiver (functional form), therefore, they are often called functions.

abort

Terminates program. If an exception is raised (i.e., \$! isn't nil), its error message is displayed.

Array(*obj*)

Returns *obj* after converting it to an array using to_ary or to_a.

at_exit { ... }

Registers a block for execution when the program exits. Similar to END statement (referenced in [Section 2.8](#)), but END statement registers the block only once.

autoload(*classname*, *file*)

Registers a class *classname* to be loaded from file the first time it's used. *classname* may be a string or a symbol.

autoload :Foo, "foolib.rb".

binding

Returns the current variable and method bindings. The Binding object that is returned may be passed to the eval method as its second argument.

block_given?

Returns true if the method was called with a block.

callcc {| *c*|...}

Passes a Continuation object *c* to the block and executes the block. callcc can be used for global exit or loop construct.

```
def foo(c)
  puts "in foo"          #
  c.call                  # jump out
  puts "out foo"         # this line never be executed
end
callcc{|c| foo(c)}      # prints "in foo"
```

caller([*n*])

Returns the current execution stack in an array of the strings in the form *file:line*. If *n* is specified, returns stack entries from *n*th level on down.

catch(*tag*) { ... }

Catches a nonlocal exit by a throw called during the execution of its block.

```
def throwing(n)
  throw(:exit, n+2)
end
catch(:exit) {
  puts "before throwing"
  throwing(5)
  puts "after throwing"  # this line never be executed
} # returns 7
```

`chomp([rs=$/])`

Returns the value of variable `$_` with the ending newline removed, assigning the result back to `$_`. The value of the newline string can be specified with `rs`.

```
$_ = "foo\n"  
chomp                         # $_ => "foo"  
$_ = "foo"  
chomp                         # no chomp
```

`chomp!([rs=$/])`

Removes newline from `$_`, modifying the string in place.

`chop`

Returns the value of `$_` with its last character (one byte) removed, assigning the result back to `$_`.

```
$_ = "foo\n"  
chop                          # $_ => "foo"  
$_ = "foo"  
chop                          # $_ => "fo"
```

`chop!`

Removes the last character from `$_`, modifying the string in place.

`eval(str[, scope[, file, line]])`

Executes `str` as Ruby code. The binding in which to perform the evaluation may be specified with `scope`. The filename and line number of the code to be compiled may be specified using `file` and `line`.

`exec(cmd[, arg...])`

Replaces the current process by running the command `cmd`. If multiple arguments are specified, the command is executed with no shell expansion.

```
exec "echo *"                  # wild card expansion  
exec "echo", "*"               # no wild card expansion
```

`exit([result=0])`

Exits program, with `result` as the status code returned.

`exit!([result=0])`

Kills the program bypassing exit handling such as `ensure`, etc.

`fail(...)`

See `raise(...)`

`Float(obj)`

Returns `obj` after converting it to a float. Numeric objects are converted directly; `nil` is converted to 0.0; strings are converted considering 0x, 0b radix prefix. The rest are converted using `obj.to_f`.

```
Float(1)                      # => 1.0  
Float(nil)                     # => 0.0  
Float("1.5")                   # => 1.5  
Float("0xaa")                  # => 170.0
```

`fork`

`fork { ... }`

Creates a child process. `nil` is returned in the child process and the child process' ID (integer) is returned in the parent process. If a block is specified, it's run in the child process.

```
# traditional fork
if cpid = fork
  # parent process
else
  # child process
  exit!           # child process termination
end
# fork using a block
fork {
  # child process
  # child terminates automatically when block finish
}
format( fmt[, arg...])
```

See `sprintf`.

`gets([rs=$/])`

Reads the filename specified in the command line or one line from standard input. The record separator string can be specified explicitly with `rs`.

```
# easiest cat(1) imitation
while gets
  print $_          # gets updates $_
end
```

`global_variables`

Returns an array of global variable names.

`gsub(x, y)`

`gsub(x) { ... }`

Replaces all strings matching `x` in `$_` with `y`. If a block is specified, matched strings are replaced with the result of the block. The modified result is assigned to `$_`. See `String#gsub` in the next section.

`gsub!(x, y)`

`gsub!(x) { ... }`

Performs the same substitution as `gsub`, except the string is changed in place.

`Integer(obj)`

Returns `obj` after converting it to an integer. Numeric objects are converted directly; `nil` is converted to 0; strings are converted considering `0x`, `0b` radix prefix. The rest are converted using `obj.to_i`.

<code>Integer(1.2)</code>	<code># => 1</code>
<code>Integer(1.9)</code>	<code># => 1</code>
<code>Integer(nil)</code>	<code># => 0</code>
<code>Integer("55")</code>	<code># => 55</code>
<code>Integer("0xaa")</code>	<code># => 170</code>

`lambda { | x | ... }`

`proc {| x|...}`

`lambda`

`proc`

Converts a block into a `Proc` object. If no block is specified, the block associated with the calling method is converted.

`load(file[, private=false])`

Loads a Ruby program from `file`. Unlike `require`, it doesn't load extension libraries. If `private` is `true`, the program is loaded into an anonymous module, thus protecting the namespace of the calling program.

`local_variables`

Returns an array of local variable names.

`loop {...}`

Repeats a block of code.

`open(path[, mode="r"])`

`open(path[, mode="r"]) {| f|...}`

Opens a `file`. If a block is specified, the block is executed with the opened stream passed as an argument. The file is closed automatically when the block exits. If `path` begins with a pipe `|`, the following string is run as a command, and the stream associated with that process is returned.

`p(obj)`

Displays `obj` using its `inspect` method (often used for debugging).

`print([arg...])`

Prints `arg` to `$defout`. If no arguments are specified, the value of `$_` is printed.

`printf(fmt[, arg...])`

Formats `arg` according to `fmt` using `sprintf` and prints the result to `$defout`. For formatting specifications, see `sprintf` for detail.

`proc {| x|...}`

`proc`

See `lambda`.

`putc(c)`

Prints one character to the default output (`$defout`).

`puts([str])`

Prints string to the default output (`$defout`). If the string doesn't end with a newline, a newline is appended to the string.

```
puts "foo"           # prints: foo\n
      puts "bar\n"       # prints: bar\n
```

`raise(...)`

`fail(...)`

Raises an exception. Assumes `RuntimeError` if no exception class is specified. Calling `raise` without arguments in a rescue clause re-raises the exception. Doing so outside a rescue clause raises a message-less `RuntimeError`. `fail` is an obsolete name for `raise`. See "raise method" in

[Chapter 2.](#)

`rand([max=0])`

Generates a pseudo-random number greater than or equal to 0 and less than *max*. If *max* is either not specified or is set to 0, a random number is returned as a floating-point number greater than or equal to 0 and less than 1. `srand` may be used to initialize pseudo-random stream.

```
rand(10)          # => 8 (initialized by arbitrary seed)
srand(42)         # initialize pseudo random stream
rand              # => 0.7445250001
rand              # => 0.3427014787
srand(42)         # re-initialize pseudo random stream
rand              # => 0.7445250001 (repeated random value)
rand              # => 0.3427014787 (repeated random value)
```

`readline([rs=$/])`

Equivalent to `gets` except it raises an `EOFError` exception on reading EOF.

`readlines([rs=$/])`

Returns an array of strings holding either the filenames specified as command-line arguments or the contents of standard input.

`require(lib)`

Loads the library (including extension libraries) *lib* when it's first called. `require` will not load the same library more than once. If no extension is specified in *lib*, `require` tries to add `.rb`, `.so`, etc., to it.

`scan(re)`

`scan(re) { |x| ... }`

Equivalent to `$_._.scan`. See `String#scan` in the next section.

`select(reads[], writes=nil[], excepts=nil[], timeout=nil]])`

Checks for changes in the status of three types of IO objects—input, output, and exceptions—which are passed as arrays of IO objects. `nil` is passed for arguments that don't need checking. A three-element array containing arrays of the IO objects for which there were changes in status is returned. `nil` is returned on timeout.

`set_trace_func(proc)`

Sets a handler for tracing. *proc* may be a string or *Proc* object. `set_trace_func` is used by the debugger and profiler.

`sleep([sec])`

Suspends program execution for *sec* seconds. If *sec* isn't specified, the program is suspended forever.

```
sleep 1
sleep 1.5      # wait for 1.5 sec.
```

`split([sep[, max]])`

Equivalent to `$_._.split`. See `String#split` in the next section.

`sprintf(fmt[, arg...])`

`format(fmt[, arg...])`

Returns a string in which *arg* is formatted according to *fmt*. Formatting specifications are essentially the same as those for `sprintf` in the C programming language. Conversion specifiers (% followed by conversion field specifier) in *fmt* are replaced by formatted string of corresponding argument.

The following conversion specifiers, are supported by Ruby's format:

b

Binary integer

c

Single character

d,i

Decimal integer

e

Exponential notation (e.g., 2.44e6)

E

Exponential notation (e.g., 2.44E6)

f

Floating-point number (e.g., 2.44)

g

use %e if exponent is less than -4, %f otherwise

G

use %E if exponent is less than -4, %f otherwise

o

Octal integer

s

String, or any object converted using `to_s`

u

Unsigned decimal integer

x

Hexadecimal integer (e.g., 39ff)

X

Hexadecimal integer (e.g., 39FF)

Optional flags, width, and precision can be specified between % and conversion field specifiers.

```
 sprintf("%s\n", "abc")          # => "abc\n"      (simplest form)
 sprintf("d=%d", 42)             # => "d=42"       (decimal output)
 sprintf("%04x", 255)            # => "00ff"       (width 4, zero padded)
 sprintf("%8s", "hello")         # => "    hell"   (space padded)
 sprintf("%.2s", "hello")        # => "he"         (trimmed by precision)
```

`rand([seed])`

Initializes an array of random numbers. If `seed` isn't specified, initialization is performed using the time and other system information for the seed. Also see `rand`.

`String(obj)`

Returns `obj` after converting it to a string using `obj.to_s`.

```
String(1)                      # => "1"  
String(Object)                  # => "Object"  
String("1.5")                  # => "1.5"
```

`syscall(sys[, arg...])`

Calls an operating system call function specified by number `sys`. The numbers and meaning of `sys` is system-dependant.

`system(cmd[, arg...])`

Executes `cmd` as a call to the command line. If multiple arguments are specified, the command is run directly with no shell expansion. Returns `true` if the return status is 0 (success).

```
system "echo *"                # wild card expansion  
system "echo", "* *"          # no wild card expansion
```

`sub(x, y)`

`sub(x) {...}`

Replaces the first string matching `x` in `$_` with `y`. If a block is specified, matched strings are replaced with the result of the block. The modified result is assigned to `$_`. See `String#sub` in [Section 3.4](#).

`sub!(x, y)`

`sub!(x) {...}`

Performs the same replacement as `sub`, except the string is changed in place.

`test(test, f1[, f2])`

Performs one of the following file tests specified by the character `test`. In order to improve readability, you should use `File` class methods (for example `File::readable?`) rather than this function. Here are the file tests with one argument:

?r

Is `f1` readable by the effective uid of caller?

?w

Is `f1` writable by the effective uid of caller?

?x

Is `f1` executable by the effective uid of caller?

?o

Is `f1` owned by the effective uid of caller?

?R

Is `f1` readable by the real uid of caller?

?W

Is `f1` writable by the real uid of caller?

?X

Is *f1* executable by the real uid of caller?

?O

Is *f1* owned by the real uid of caller?

?e

Does *f1* exist?

?z

Does *f1* have zero length?

?s

File size of *f1*(nil if 0)

?f

Is *f1* a regular file?

?d

Is *f1* a directory?

?l

Is *f1* a symbolic link?

?p

Is *f1* a named pipe (FIFO)?

?S

Is *f1* a socket?

?b

Is *f1* a block device?

?c

Is *f1* a character device?

?u

Does *f1* have the setuid bit set?

?g

Does *f1* have the setgid bit set?

?k

Does *f1* have the sticky bit set?

?M

Last modification time for *f1*.

?A

Last access time for *f1*.

?C

Last inode change time for *f1*.

File tests with two arguments are as follows:

?=

Are modification times of *f1* and *f2* equal?

?>

Is the modification time of *f1* more recent than *f2* ?

?<

Is the modification time of *f1* older than *f2* ?

?-

Is *f1* a hard link to *f2* ?

throw(*tag*[, *value*=nil])

Jumps to the `catch` function waiting with the symbol or string *tag*. *value* is the return value to be used by `catch`.

trace_var(*var*, *cmd*)

trace_var(*var*) {...}

Sets tracing for a global variable. The variable name is specified as a symbol. *cmd* may be a string or Proc object.

```
trace_var(:$foo) { |v|
  printf "$foo changed to %s\n", v
}
$foo = 55          # prints: $foo changed to 55
```

trap(*sig*, *cmd*)

trap(*sig*) {...}

Sets a signal handler. *sig* may be a string (like SIGUSR1) or an integer. SIG may be omitted from signal name. Signal handler for EXIT signal or signal number 0 is invoked just before process termination.

cmd may be a string or Proc object. If *cmd* is IGNORE or SIG_IGN, the signal will be ignored. If *cmd* is DEFAULT or SIG_DFL, the default signal handler defined by the operating system will be invoked.

```
trap("USR1") {
  puts "receives SIGUSR1"
}
# prints message if SIGUSR1 is delivered to the process.
```

untrace_var(*var*[, *cmd*])

Removes tracing for a global variable. If *cmd* is specified, only that command is removed.

3.4 Built-in Library

Ruby's built-in library provides you with a rich set of classes that form the foundation for your Ruby programs. There are classes for manipulating text (`String`), operating system services and abstractions (`IO`, `File`, `Process`, etc.), numbers (`Integer`, `Fixnum`, etc.), and so on.

Using these basic building blocks, you can build powerful Ruby programs. But wait, in the next chapter, I lay out the Standard Library, which extends Ruby's flexibility.

3.4.1 Objects

Ruby couldn't lay claim to being an "object-oriented scripting language" without providing fundamental tools for OOP. This basic support is provided through the `Object` class.

<i>Object</i>	<i>Superclass of all classes</i>
---------------	----------------------------------

`Object` is the parent class of all other classes. When a method is defined at the top level, it becomes a private method of this class, making it executable by all classes as if it were a function in other languages.

Included Modules

`Kernel`

Private Instance Methods

`initialize`

Initializes an object. Any block and arguments associated with the new method are passed directly to `initialize`. It's assumed that this method will be redefined by subclasses for object initialization.

<i>Kernel</i>	<i>Module containing built-in functions</i>
---------------	---

`Kernel` is the module in which Ruby's built-in functions are defined as module functions. Since it's included in `Object`, `Kernel` is indirectly included in all classes.

Private Instance Methods

Function-like methods are private methods of `Kernel`. Although the following methods fall into the same category, they are more similar to standard private instance methods than function-like methods.

`remove_instance_variable(name)`

Removes instance variable specified by `name`.

Instance Methods

`o == other`

Determines if the values are equal.

`o === other`

Comparison operator used by `case` statement (compares equality or confirms class membership).

`o =~ other`

Checks for pattern matches. The definition in Kernel calls `==`.

`o.class`

`o.type`

Returns the class of the object `o`.

`o.clone`

Creates a copy of the object `o` (in as far as possible, including singleton methods).

`o.display([out=$defout])`

Prints the object. The output is specified in the argument.

`o.dup`

Creates a copy of the object (copying the content).

`o.eql?(obj)`

Performs a hash comparison. In order for `eql?` to return `true`, the hash value of both objects must have equal hash values.

`o.equal?(obj)`

Returns `true` if the two objects are the same.

`o.extend(mod)`

Adds module features (instance methods, etc.) of `mod` to the object `o`.

`o.freeze`

Freezes the object `o`, preventing further modification.

`o.frozen?`

Returns `true` if the object is frozen.

`o.hash`

Creates a hash value for the object `o`. Used together with `eql?` when the object is used as the key of a hash.

`o.id`

`o. __id __`

Returns the unique identifier value (integer) of the object `o`.

`o.inspect`

Returns the human readable string representation of the object `o`.

`o.instance_eval(str)`

`o.instance_eval { ... }`

Evaluates the string or block in the context of the object. Features of the object, such as its instance variables, can be accessed directly.

`o.instance_of?(c)`

Returns `true` if `o` is an instance of the class `c`.

`o.instance_variables`

Returns an array of the object's instance variable names.

`o.kind_of?(mod)`

`o.is_a?(mod)`

Returns `true` if the object is an instance of `mod`, one of its descendants, or includes `mod`.

`o.method(name)`

Returns a `Method` object corresponding to `name`. An exception is raised if the corresponding method doesn't exist.

```
plus = 1.method(:+)
plus.call(2)      # => 3 (1+2)
```

`o.methods`

`o.public_methods`

Returns an array of the object's public method names.

`o.nil?`

Returns `true` if `o` is `nil`.

`o.private_methods`

Returns an array of the object's private method names.

`o.protected_methods`

Returns an array of the object's protected method names.

`o.public_methods`

See `o.methods`.

`o.respond_to?(name)`

Returns `true` if method named `name` exists in the object `o`.

`o.send(name[, arg...])`

`o.__send__(name[, arg...])`

Calls the method named `name` in the object.

`o.singleton_methods`

Returns an array of the object's singleton method names.

`o.taint`

Marks the object as tainted (unsafe).

`o.tainted?`

Returns `true` if the object `o` is tainted.

`o.to_a`

Returns an array representation of the object `o`. For objects that can't be naturally converted into an array, an array containing that `o` as the sole element is returned.

`o.to_s`

Returns a string representation of the object.

`o.type`

See `o.class`.

`o.untaint`

Removes the taint from the object.

3.4.2 Strings and Regular Expressions

Death, taxes, and ... processing text. Yes, these are virtually inescapable in a programmer's life. In Ruby, I share your pain. Using the `String`, `Regexp`, and `MatchData` classes, Ruby provides sharp tools to slice, dice, and manipulate text to your heart's content.

`String`

Character String class

`String` is one of Ruby's basic datatypes, which contain arbitrary sequences of bytes. `String` can contain `\0`.

Included Module

`Enumerable`, `Comparable`

Class Method

`String::new(str)`

Creates a string.

Instance Methods

Methods of the `String` class ending in `!` modify their receiver and return a string if modification took place, otherwise `nil`. Methods without a `!` return a modified copy of the string.

`~ s`

Attempts to match pattern `s` against the `$_` variable. This method is obsolete.

`s % arg`

An abbreviated form of `sprintf(s, arg...)`. Multiple elements are specified using an array.

`s * n`

Returns a string consisting of `s` copied end to end `n` times.

`s + str`

Returns a string with `str` concatenated to `s`.

`s << str`

Concatenates `str` to `s`.

`s =~ x`

Performs a regular expression match. If `x` is a string, it's turned into a `Regexp` object.

`s[n]`

Returns the code of the character at position `n`. If `n` is negative, it's counted as an offset from the end of the string.

`s[n..m]`

`s[n, len]`

Returns a partial string.

```
"bar"[1..2]    # => "ar"  
"bar"[1..-1]   # => "ar"  
"bar"[-2..2]   # => "ar"  
"bar"[-2..-1]  # => "ar"  
"bar"[1,2]     # => "ar"  
"bar"[-1, 1]   # => "r"
```

`s[n]=value`

Replaces the `n` th element in the string with `value`. `value` may be a character code or string.

`s[n..m]=str`

`s[n, len]=str`

Replaces a part of the string with `str`.

`s.capitalize`

`s.capitalize!`

Returns a copy of `s` with the first character converted to uppercase and the remainder to lowercase.

```
"fooBar".capitalize           # => "Foobar"
```

`s.center(w)`

Returns a string of length `w` with `s` centered in the middle. `s` is padded with spaces if it has a length of less than `w`.

```
"foo".center(10)            # => "    foo    "  
"foo".center(2)             # => "foo"
```

`s.chomp([rs=$/])`

`s.chomp!([rs=$/])`

Deletes the record separator from the end of the string. The record separator string can be specified with `rs`.

```
"foo\n".chomp                # => "foo"  
"foo".chomp                  # => "foo" (no chomp)  
a = "foo\n"  
a.chomp!                      # => "foo"  
a                           # => "foo" (original changed)  
a = "foo"  
a.chomp!                      # => nil (no chomp)
```

`s.chop`

`s.chop!`

Deletes the last character (byte) from the string.

```
"foo\n".chop                # => "foo"  
"foo".chop                  # => "fo" (last byte chopped off)
```

`s.concat(str)`

Concatenates `str` to the string.

`s.count(str...)`

Returns the number of occurrences of the characters included in `str` (intersection of `str` if multiple

str given) in *s*. *str* is negated if *str* starts with `^`. The sequence *c1-c2* means all characters between *c1* and *c2*.

```
"123456789".count("2378")          # => 4  
"123456789".count("2-8", "^4-6")  # => 4
```

s.crypt(salt)

Encrypts the string *s* using a one way hash function. *salt* is a two-character string for seed. See `crypt(3)`.

s.delete(str...)

s.delete!(str...)

Deletes the characters included in *str* (intersection of *str* if multiple *str* given) from *s*. Uses the same rules for building the set of characters as *s.count*.

```
"123456789".delete("2378")          # => "14569"  
"123456789".delete("2-8", "^4-6")  # => "14569"
```

s.downcase

s.downcase!

Replaces all uppercase characters in the string with lowercase characters.

s.dump

Returns version of string with all nonprinting and special characters converted to backslash notation.

s.each([rs=\$/] { |line| ... }

s.each_line([rs=\$/] { |line| ... }

Invokes the block for each line in *s*. The record separator string can be specified with *rs*.

s.each_byte { | byte| ... }

Invokes the block for each byte in *s*.

s.empty?

Returns `true` if *s* has a length of 0.

s.gsub(x, y)

s.gsub(x) { ... }

s.gsub!(x, y)

s.gsub!(x) { ... }

Replaces all strings matching *x* in the string with *y*. If a block is specified, matched strings are replaced with the result of the block.

```
"hello world".gsub(/[aeiou]/, ".")      # => "h.ll. w.rld"  
"hello world".gsub(/ [aeiou] /){ |x| x.upcase } # => "hEllO wOrld"
```

s.hex

Treats *s* as a string of hexadecimal digits and returns its integer value.

s.include?(x[, pos=0])

Returns `true` if *str* is present in *s*. *x* may be an integer representing the character code, a string, or a regular expression. If *pos* is given, the search is started at offset *pos*.

s.index(x[, pos=0])

Returns the index of *x* in string *s*, or `nil` if *x* isn't present. *x* may be an integer representing the

character code, a string, or a pattern. If *pos* is given, the search is started at offset *pos*.

`s.intern`

Returns the symbol corresponding to *s*.

`s.length`

See `s.size`.

`s.ljust(w)`

Returns a string of length *w* with *s* left-justified. *s* is padded with spaces if it has a length of less than *w*.

`s.next`

`s.next!`

`s.succ`

`s.succ!`

Retrieves the next logical successor of the string *s*.

"aa".succ	# => "ab"
"99".succ	# => "100"
"a9".succ	# => "b0"
"Az".succ	# => "Ba"
"zz".succ	# => "aaa"

`s.oct`

Treats *s* as a string of octal digits and returns its integer value. If *s* begins with 0x, it's treated as a hexidecimal string; if *s* begins with 0b, it's treated as a binary string.

`s.replace(str)`

Replaces contents of *s* with that of *str*.

s = "abc"	
s.replace("foobar")	# => "foobar"
s	# => "foobar" (contents replaced)

`s.reverse`

`s.reverse!`

Reverses the characters in the string *s*.

`s.rindex(x[, pos])`

Returns the index of last occurrence of *x* in *s* as calculated from the end of the string, or `nil` if *x* isn't present. *x* may be an integer representing the character code, a string, or a pattern. If *pos* is given, the search is ended at offset *pos*.

`s.rjust(w)`

Returns a string of length *w* with *s* right-justified. *s* is padded with spaces if it has a length of less than *w*.

"foo".rjust(10)	# => " foo"
"foo".rjust(2)	# => "foo"

`s.scan(re)`

`s.scan(re) { |x| ... }`

Attempts to match the regular expression *re*, iterating through the string *s*. `scan` returns an array

containing either arrays, which hold the matched results from groups, or strings, which represent the matched results if there were no groups in the expression. If a block is specified, it executes, iterating through each element in the array that would have been returned had `scan` been called without a block.

```
"foobarbaz".scan(/(ba)(.)/)  # => [ ["ba", "r"], ["ba", "z"] ]  
"foobarbaz".scan(/(ba)(.)/) { |s| p s}  
# prints:  
#   [ "ba", "r" ]  
#   [ "ba", "z" ]
```

`s.size`

`s.length`

Returns the length of the string.

`s.slice(n)`

`s.slice(n.. m)`

`s.slice(n, len)`

Returns a partial string.

`s.slice!(n)`

`s.slice!(n.. m)`

`s.slice!(n, len)`

Deletes the partial string specified and returns it.

```
a = "0123456789"  
p a.slice!(1,2)          # "12"  
p a                      # "03456789"  
s.split([ sep[, max]])
```

Splits the contents of the string using `sep` as the delimiter and returns the resulting substrings as an array. If `sep` isn't specified, whitespace (or the value of `$`; if it isn't `nil`) is used as the delimiter. If `max` is specified, the string is split into a maximum of `max` elements.

```
"a b c".split           # => [ "a", "b", "c" ]  
"a:b:c".split(/:/)       # => [ "a", "b", "c" ]  
"a:b:c:::".split(/:/, 4) # => [ "a", "b", "c", "", ":" ]  
"a:b:c:::".split(/:/, -1) # => [ "a", "b", "c", "", "" ]  
"abc".split("//")        # => [ "a", "b", "c" ]  
  
s.squeeze([ str... ])  
s.squeeze!([ str... ])
```

Reduces all running sequences of the same character included in `str` (intersection of `str` if multiple `str` given) to a single character. If `str` isn't specified, running sequences of all characters are reduced to a single character.

```
"112233445".squeeze      # => "12345"  
"112233445".squeeze("1-3") # => "123445"
```

`s.strip`

`s.strip!`

Deletes leading and trailing whitespace.

`s.sub(x, y)`

`s.sub(x) { ... }`

```
s.sub!(x,y)
s.sub!(x) { ... }
```

Replaces the first string matching *x* with *y*. If a block is specified, matched strings are replaced with the result of the block.

s.succ

See *s*.next.

s.succ!

See *s*.next.

```
s.sum([n=16])
```

Returns an *n*-bit checksum of the string *s*.

s.swapcase

s.swapcase!

Converts uppercase characters to lowercase and vice-versa.

s.to_f

Converts the string into a floating point number. Returns 0.0 for uninterpretive string. For more strict conversion, use Float().

```
"1.5".to_f                      # => 1.5
"a".to_f                         # => 0.0
Float("a")                        # error!
```

s.to_i

Converts the string into an integer. Returns 0 for uninterpretive string. For more strict conversion, use Integer().

```
"1".to_i                          # => 1
"a".to_i                           # => 0
Integer("a")                       # error!
```

s.to_str

Returns *s* itself. Every object that has to_str method is treated as if it's a string.

s.tr(*str*,*r*)

s.tr!(*str*,*r*)

Replaces the characters in *str* with the corresponding characters in *r*.

s.tr_s

s.tr_s!

After replacing characters as in tr, replaces running sequences of the same character in sections that were modified with a single character.

```
"foo".tr_s("o", "f")                  # => "ff"
"foo".tr("o", "f").squeeze("f")      # => "f"
```

s.succ

See *s*.next.

s.succ!

See *s*.next.

```
s.unpack( template)
```

Unpacks *s* into arrays, decoding the string by performing the opposite of `Array#pack(template)`. *template* can consist of a combination of the following directives:

a

ASCII string

A

ASCII string (deletes trailing spaces and null characters)

b

Bit string (ascending bit order)

B

Bit string (descending bit order)

c

Char

C

Unsigned char

d

Double (native format)

e

Little endian float (native format)

E

Little endian double (native format)

f

Float (native format)

g

Big endian float (native format)

G

Big endian double (native format)

h

Hex string (low nibble first)

H

Hex string (high nibble first)

i

Integer

I

Unsigned integer

l

L	Long
m	Unsigned long
M	Base64 encoded string
n	Quoted printable string
N	Big-endian short (network byte order)
p	Big-endian long (network byte order)
P	Pointer to a null-terminated string
s	Pointer to a structure (fixed-length string)
S	Short
u	Unsigned short
U	UU-encoded string
v	UTF-8 string
V	Little-endian short (VAX byte order)
w	Little-endian long (VAX byte order)
x	BER-compressed integer
X	Null byte
Z	Backs up one byte
@	ASCII string (deletes trailing null characters.)

Moves to absolute position

Each directive may be followed by a decimal number, indicating the number of elements to convert, or an asterisk, indicating that all remaining elements should be converted. Directives may be separated with a space. Directives `sSsizeL` followed by `_` use the native size for that type on the current platform.

```
"\001\002\003\004".unpack("CCCC")      # => [1, 2, 3, 4]
"\001\002\003\004".unpack("V")        # => [67305985]
"\001\002\003\004".unpack("N")        # => [16909060]
```

`s.upcase`

`s.upcase!`

Replaces all lowercase characters in the string with uppercase characters.

`s.upto(max) { |x| ... }`

Returns `x` and continues to iterate to the next logical successor up to `max`. The method `s.next` is used to generate each successor.

```
"a".upto("ba") { |x|
  print x
}# prints a, b, c, ... z,aa, ... az, ba
```

Regexp

Regular expression class

Regexp is object representation of regular expression. Regular expression is a mini-language to describe patterns of strings. For its syntax, see "Regular-expression patterns," which is under [Section 2.4.6 in Chapter 2](#).

Class Methods

`Regexp::new(str[, option[, code]])`

`Regexp::compile(str[, option[, code]])`

Creates a Regexp object. `option` may be a logical OR of `Regexp::IGNORECASE`, `Regexp::EXTENDED`, and `Regexp::MULTILINE`. `code` may be a string specifying a multibyte character set code.

`Regexp::escape(str)`

`Regexp::quote(str)`

Returns a copy of `str` with all regular expression meta characters escaped.

Instance Methods

`~ r`

Performs a regular expression match against `$_.` Equivalent to `r =~ $_`. This method is obsolete.

`r === str`

Synonym for `r =~ str` used in `case` statements.

`r =~ str`

Performs a regular expression match, returning the offset of the start of the match, or `nil` if the match

failed.

`r.casefold?`

Returns `true` if the `Regexp` object is case-insensitive.

`r.match(str)`

Performs a regular expression match, returning the resulting match information as a `MatchData` object, or `nil` if the match failed.

```
if m = /fo*b.r+/.match(str)
  puts m[0]          # print matched string
end
```

`r.source`

Returns the original regular expression pattern string.

MatchData

Class for holding regular expression pattern match data

`MatchData` objects can be retrieved from the variable `$~` or as return values from `Regexp.match`.

Example

```
if m = pat.match(str)  # MatchData object on success
  print "matched: ", m[0], "\n"
  print "pre: ", m.pre_match, "\n"
  print "post: ", m.post_match, "\n"
end
```

Instance Methods

`m[n]`

Returns the match corresponding to the `n`th group of the regular expression. If `n` is 0, the entire matched string is returned.

`m.begin(n)`

Returns the offset of the start of the match corresponding to the `n`th group of the regular expression. If `n` is 0, the offset of the start of the entire matched string is returned.

`m.end(n)`

Returns the offset of the end of the match corresponding to the `n`th group of the regular expression. If `n` is 0, the offset of the end of the entire matched string is returned.

`m.length`

See `m.size`

`m.offset(n)`

Returns a two-element array containing the beginning and ending offsets of the string corresponding to the `n`th group of the regular expression.

`m.post_match`

Returns the part of the original string following the matched string.

`m.pre_match`

Returns the part of the original string preceding the matched string.

m.size

m.length

Returns the number of groups in the regular expression +1.

m.string

Returns the original string used for the match.

m.to_a

Returns an array of the matches (i.e., [\$&, \$1, \$2 . . .]).

3.4.3 Arrays and Hashes

One of the cornerstones of scripting languages is simple, flexible and powerful mechanisms for manipulating program data. In Ruby, the `Array` and `Hash` classes provide intuitive and rich capabilities for doing just that.

Array

Array class

`Array` is a class for an ordered collection of objects, indexed by integer. Any kind of object may be stored in an `Array`. `Arrays` grow as you add elements.

Included Module

`Enumerable`

Class Methods

`Array[x...]`

Creates an array.

`Array::new([size=0[, fill=nil]])`

Creates an array. Its `size` and initial values may also be specified.

`Array::new(4, "foo") # => ["foo", "foo", "foo", "foo"]`

Instance Methods

Methods of the `Array` class ending in `!` modify their receiver and return an array if modification took place, otherwise `nil`. Methods without a `!` return a modified copy of the array.

`arr & array`

Returns an array of elements common to both arrays.

`[1,3,5] | [1,2,3] # => [1,3]
[1,3,5] | [2,4,6] # => [1,2,3,4,5,6]`

`arr|array`

Returns an array combining elements from both arrays.

`[1,3,5] | [2,4,6] # => [1,2,3,4,5,6]`

`arr * n`

If `n` is an integer, returns a copy of array with `n` copies of `arr` concatenated to it. If `n` is a string, the equivalent of `arr.join(n)` is performed.

```
[5] * 3                      # => [5, 5, 5].  
["foo", "bar"] * "-"          # => "foo-bar"
```

`arr + array`

Returns a copy of `arr` with `array` concatenated to its end.

`arr - array`

Returns a new array that is a copy of `arr`, removing any items in `array`.

```
[1, 2, 3, 4] - [2, 3]      # => [1, 4]
```

`arr << item`

Appends `item` to `arr`.

`arr[n]`

References the `n`th element of `arr`. If `n` is negative, it's interpreted as an offset from the end of `arr`.

`arr[n..m]`

`arr[n, len]`

Returns a partial string.

`arr[n]=item`

`arr[r..m]=array`

`arr[r, len]=array`

Assigns `item` or `arr` to the specified elements.

```
arr = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
arr[0..2] = ["a", "b"]      # arr => ["a", "b", 3, 4, 5]  
arr[1, 0] = ["c"]          # arr => ["a", "c", "b", 3, 4, 5]
```

`arr.assoc(key)`

Searches through an array of arrays, returning the first array with an initial element matching `key`.

```
a = [[1,2],[2,4],[3,6]]  
a.assoc(2)                  # => [2, 4]
```

`arr.at(n)`

Returns the `n`th element of `arr`.

`arr.clear`

Removes all elements from `arr`.

`arr.collect{|x| ...}`

`arr.collect!{|x| ...}`

`arr.map{|x| ...}`

`arr.map!{|x| ...}`

Invokes the block on each element returning an array holding the results.

```
[1,2,3].collect{|x|x*2}    # => [2,4,6].
```

`arr.compact`

`arr.compact!`

Removes all `nil` elements from `arr`.

`arr.concat(array)`

Appends the elements of `array` to `arr`.

`arr.delete(item)`

`arr.delete(item) {| item| ... }`

Deletes all elements matching `item` using `==`. With a block, it returns the result of the block if no elements were deleted.

`arr.delete_at(n)`

Deletes the `n`th element of `arr`.

`arr.delete_if { | x| ... }`

Deletes elements where the value of block is `true`.

`arr.each { | x| ... }`

Invokes the block on each element of `arr`.

`arr.each_index { | i| ... }`

Invokes the block on each element, passing the index, which is an integer ranging from 0 to `arr.length - 1`.

`arr.empty?`

Returns `true` if the array length is 0.

`arr.fill(value[, beg[, len]])`

`arr.fill(value, n..m)`

Sets the specified element (or range of elements) in `arr` to `value`.

`arr.first`

Returns the first element of `arr`. Equivalent to `arr[0]`.

`arr.flatten`

`arr.flatten!`

Returns a flattened, one-dimensional array by moving all elements and subelements of `arr` into the new array.

`[1, [2, 3, [4], 5]].flatten #=> [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]`

`arr.include?(item)`

`arr.member?(item)`

Returns `true` if `arr` contains `item` as an element.

`arr.index(item)`

Returns the index number of the first item in `arr` equal to `item` (with 0 being the first index number), or `nil` if `item` isn't present.

`arr.indexes([index...])`

`arr.indices([index...])`

Returns an array of elements from the specified indexes.

`arr.join([s=$,])`

Returns a string by joining together all elements in `arr`, separating each substring with `s`.

```
[ "foo", "bar"].join          # => "foobar"  
[ "hello", "world"].join(" ") # => "hello world"
```

`arr.last`

Returns the last element of `arr`. Equivalent to `arr[-1]`.

`arr.length`

See `arr.size`

`arr.map {|x| ...}`

See `arr.collect { |x| ... }`

`arr.map! {|x| ...}`

See `arr.collect { |x| ... }`

`arr.member?(item)`

See `arr.include?(item)`

`arr.nitems`

Returns the number of elements with non-nil values.

`arr.pack(template)`

Packs the elements of an array into a string according to the directives in `template`. `template` may consist of a combination of these directives:

a

ASCII string (null padded)

A

ASCII string (space padded)

b

Bit string (ascending bit order)

B

Bit string (descending bit order)

c

Char

C

Unsigned char

d

Double (native format)

e

Little endian float (native format)

E

	Little endian double (native format)
f	Float (native format)
g	Big endian float (native format)
G	Big endian double (native format)
h	Hex string (low nibble first)
H	Hex string (high nibble first)
i	Integer
I	Unsigned integer
l	Long
L	Unsigned long
m	Base64-encoded string
M	Quoted printable string
n	Big-endian short (network byte order)
N	Big-endian long (network byte order)
p	Pointer to a null-terminated string
P	Pointer to a structure (fixed-length string)
s	Short
S	Unsigned short
u	

UU-encoded string

U

UTF-8 string

V

Little-endian short (VAX byte order)

V

Little-endian long (VAX byte order)

W

BER-compressed integer

X

Null byte

X

Backs up one byte

Z

ASCII string (space padded)

@

Moves to absolute position

Each directive may be followed by either a decimal number, indicating the number of elements to convert, or an asterisk, indicating that all remaining elements should be converted. Directives may be separated with a space. Directives `sSiIlL` followed by `_` use the native size for that type on the current platform.

```
[1, 2, 3, 4].pack("CCCC")      # => "\001\002\003\004"  
[1234].pack("V")               # => "\322\004\000\000"  
[1234].pack("N")               # => "\000\000\004\322"
```

`arr.pop`

Removes the last element from `arr` and returns it.

`arr.push(obj...)`

Appends `obj` to `arr`.

`arr.rassoc(value)`

Searches through an array of arrays, returning the first array with a second element matching `value`.

```
[[1, 2], [2, 4], [3, 6]].rassoc(2) # => [1, 2]
```

`arr.reject { |x| ... }`

`arr.reject! { |x| ... }`

Deletes elements where the value of block is `true`.

`arr.replace(array)`

Replaces the contents of `arr` with that of `array`.

`arr.reverse`

`arr.reverse!`

Puts the elements of the array in reverse order.

```
arr.reverse_each {|x| ...}
```

Invokes the block on each element of *arr* in reverse order.

```
arr.rindex( item)
```

Returns the index of the last object in *arr* equal to item.

```
a = [1, 2, 3, 1, 3, 4]
a.rindex(3)                      #=> 4
a.rindex(9)                      #=> nil
```

```
arr.shift
```

Removes the first element from *arr* and returns it.

```
a = [1, 2, 3, 1, 3, 4]
a.shift                           #=> 1
a                                #=> [2, 3, 1, 3, 4]
```

```
arr.size
```

```
arr.length
```

Returns the number of elements in *arr*.

```
arr.slice( n)
```

```
arr.slice( n..m)
```

```
arr.slice( n, len)
```

Deletes the partial string specified and returns it.

```
a = "0123456789"
a.slice!(1,2)      # => "12"
a                  # => "03456789"
```

```
arr.slice!( n)
```

```
arr.slice!( n..m)
```

```
arr.slice!( n, len)
```

Deletes the partial string specified and returns it.

```
a = [0,1,2,3,4]
a.slice!(4)      # => 4
a                # => [0,1,2,3]
a.slice!(1..2)   # => [1,2]
a                # => [0,3]
```

```
arr.sort
```

```
arr.sort!
```

Sorts the array.

```
arr.sort {|a,b| ...}
```

```
arr.sort! {|a,b| ...}
```

Arrays can be sorted by specifying the conditions for the comparison using a block. The block must compare *a* and *b*, returning 0 when *a* == *b*, a negative number when *a* < *b*, and a positive number when *a* > *b*.

```
arr.uniq
```

```
arr.uniq!
```

Deletes duplicate elements from `arr`.

`arr.unshift(item)`

Prepends `item` to `arr`.

```
a = [1,2,3]
a.unshift(0)      #=> [0,1,2,3]
```

Hash

Hash class

Hash is a class for collection of key-value pairs, or in other words, a collection indexed by arbitrary type of objects, which define proper hash and `eql?` methods.

Included Module

`Enumerable`

Class Methods

`Hash[key, value ...]`

Creates a Hash.

```
Hash[1,2,2,4] # => {1=>2, 2=>4}
```

`Hash::new([default=nil])`

Creates a Hash. A default value may also be specified.

```
h = Hash::new(15) # => {}
h[44]           # => 15 (no key; default returned)
```

Instance Methods

Methods of the Hash class ending in a pipe `!` modify their receiver and return a hash if modification took place, otherwise `nil`. Methods without a `!` return a modified copy of the hash.

`h[key]`

Returns the `value` associated with `key`.

`h[key]=value`

Associates `value` with `key`.

`h.clear`

Deletes all key-value pairs from `h`.

```
h = {1=>2, 2=>4}
h.clear
h           # => {}
h = {1=>2, 2=>4}
h.delete_if{|k,v| k % 2 == 0}
h           # => {1=>2}
```

`h.default`

Returns the default value for a key that doesn't exist. Note that the default value isn't copied, so that modifying the default object may affect all default values thereafter.

`h.default= value`

Sets the default value.

`h.delete(key)`

Deletes a key-value pair with a key equal to `key`.

`h.delete_if { |key, value| ... }`

Deletes key-value pairs where the evaluated result of block is `true`.

`h.each { |key, value| ... }`

`h.each_pair { |key, value| ... }`

Executes the block once for each key-value pair. Pairs are in unspecified order.

`h.each_key { |key| ... }`

Executes the block once for each key. Keys are in unspecified order.

`h.each_value { |value| ... }`

Executes the block once for each value. Values are in unspecified order.

`h.empty?`

Returns `true` if the hash is empty.

`h.fetch(key[, ifnone=nil])`

`h.fetch(key) { |key| ... }`

Returns the value associated with `key`. If `key` isn't present in `h`, the value of the block is returned. If no block is specified, `ifnone` is returned.

`h.has_value?(value)`

See `h.value?(value)`

`h.index(value)`

Returns the key for `value`, or `nil` if it isn't present.

```
h = {1=>2, 2=>4}
h.index(4)      # => 2
h.index(6)      # => nil
```

`h.indexes([key...])`

`h.indices([key...])`

Returns an array of values associated with the specified keys.

`h.invert`

Returns a hash containing `h`'s values as keys and `h`'s keys as values. If more than one keys have same value, arbitrary key is chosen.

```
h = {"y" => 365, "m" => 31, "d" => 24, "h" => 60}
p h.invert    # => {60=>"h", 365=>"y", 31=>"m", 24=>"d"}
```

`h.key?(key)`

`h.has_key?(key)`

`h.include?(key)`

`h.member?(key)`

Returns `true` if `key` is present in `h`.

h.keys

Returns an array of all keys.

h.rehash

Rebuilds the hash. If a hash isn't rebuilt after one of its key hash values is changed, that key will no longer be accessible.

```
a = [1,2]          # array as key
h = {a=>3}
h[a]              # => 3
a[0] = 2          # modify key
h[a]              # => nil (cannot find)
h.rehash
h[a]              # => 3
h.reject{|key,value| ...}
h.reject!{|key,value| ...}
```

Deletes key-value pairs where the value of block is `true`.

h.replace(hash)

Replaces the contents of *h* with that of *hash*.

h.shift

Removes a key-value pair from *h* and returns it.

h.size

h.length

Returns the number of key-value pairs in *h*.

h.sort

h.sort {|a, b| ...}

Produces an array using *h.to_a* and returns it sorted.

h.store(key, value)

Synonym for *h[key]=value*.

h.to_a

Returns an array containing the array equivalent (key, value) of *h*.

```
h = {"Y" => 365, "m" => 31, "d" => 24}
h.to_a          # => [[ "m" , 31], [ "d" , 24], [ "Y" , 365]]
```

h.to_hash

Returns *h* itself. Every object that has a `to_hash` method is treated as if it's a hash by *h.replace* and *h.update*.

h.update(hash)

Updates *h* with the contents of the specified *hash*. If duplicate keys exist, the associated value of *hash* takes precedence and overwrites that of *h*.

```
h1 = { "a" => 100, "b" => 200 }
h2 = { "b" => 300, "c" => 400 }
h1.update(h2)    #=> { "a"=>100, "b"=>300, "c"=>300 }
```

h.value?(value)

`h.has_value?(value)`

Returns `true` if value is present in `h`.

`h.values`

Returns an array of all values.

```
h = { "Y" => 365, "m" => 31, "d" => 24}  
p h.values # => [31, 24, 365]
```

Enumerable

Enumerable mix-in module

The `Enumerable` module assumes that the including class has an `each` method. You can add the following methods to a class that provides `each`, by just including this module.

Instance Methods

`e.collect {|x| ...}`

`e.map {|x| ...}`

Returns an array containing the results of running the block on each item in `e`.

`e.detect {|x| ...}`

See `e.find { |x| ...}`

`e.each_with_index {|x, i| ...}`

Executes the block once for each item in `e`, passing both the item and its index to the block.

```
["foo", "bar", "baz"].each_with_index { |x, i|  
  printf "%d: %s\n", i, x  
}  
# prints:  
# 0: foo  
# 1: bar  
# 2: baz.
```

`e.entries`

`e.to_a`

Returns an array containing the items passed to it by `e.each`.

`e.find { |x| ...}`

`e.detect { |x| ...}`

Returns the first item for which the block returns `true`.

```
["foo", "bar", "baz"].detect { |s| /^b/ =~ s} # => "bar"
```

`e.find_all { |x| ...}`

`e.select { |x| ...}`

Returns an array of all items for which the block returns `true`.

```
["foo", "bar", "baz"].select { |s| /^b/ =~ s} # => ["bar", "baz"]
```

`e.grep(re)`

`e.grep(re) { |x| ...}`

Returns an array containing all items matching *re*. Uses `==`. If a block is specified, it's run on each matching item, with the results returned as an array.

```
[ "foo", "bar", "baz" ].grep(/^b/)    # => [ "bar", "baz" ]
[ 1, "bar", 4.5 ].grep(Numeric)       # => [ 1, 4.5 ]
[ 1, "bar", 4.5 ].grep(Numeric) { |x|
  puts x+1
}
# prints:
# 2
# 5.5
e.include?( item)
e.member?( item)
```

Returns `true` if an item equal to *item* is present in *e*. Items are compared using `==`.

```
e.map { |x| ... }
```

See `e.collect { |x| ... }`

```
e.max
```

Returns the item in *e* with the maximum value. Assumes a `<=>` comparison is possible between the items.

```
[ 1, 5, 3, 2 ].max                  # => 5
```

```
e.member?( item)
```

See `e.include?(item)`

```
e.min
```

Returns the item in *e* with the minimum value. Assumes a `<=>` comparison is possible between the items.

```
[ 1, 5, 3, 2 ].min                  # => 1
```

```
e.reject { |x| ... }
```

Returns an array of all items for which the block returns `false`.

```
[ "foo", "bar", "baz" ].reject { |s| / ^b / =~ s } # => [ "foo" ]
```

```
e.select { |x| ... }
```

See `e.find_all { |x| ... }`

```
e.sort
```

```
e.sort { |a, b| ... }
```

Returns an array of sorted items from *e*. If a block is specified, it's used for the comparison. Like `<=>`, the block must compare the two items and return a positive number ($a > b$), 0 ($a == b$), or a negative number ($a < b$).

```
e.to_a
```

See `e.entries`

3.4.4 Numbers

As you'd expect, Ruby provides a suitably powerful set of classes for manipulating numeric data, through the classes `Numeric`, `Integer`, `Fixnum`, `Bignum`, and `Float`. In addition, further tools are available in the `Precision` and `Math` modules for manipulating numeric data.

`Numeric` provides common behavior of numbers. `Numeric` is an abstract class, so you should not instantiate this class.

Included Module

`Comparable`

Instance Methods

`+ n`

Returns `n`.

`- n`

Returns `n` negated.

`n + num`

`n - num`

`n * num`

`n / num`

Performs arithmetic operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

`n % num`

Returns the modulus of `n`.

`n ** num`

Exponentiation.

`n.abs`

Returns the absolute value of `n`.

`n.ceil`

Returns the smallest integer greater than or equal to `n`.

`n.coerce(num)`

Returns an array containing `num` and `n` both possibly converted to a type that allows them to be operated on mutually. Used in automatic type conversion in numeric operators.

`n.divmod(num)`

Returns an array containing the quotient and modulus from dividing `n` by `num`.

`n.floor`

Returns the largest integer less than or equal to `n`.

<code>1.2.floor</code>	<code>#=> 1</code>
<code>2.1.floor</code>	<code>#=> 2</code>

```
(-1.2).floor          #=> -2  
(-2.1).floor          #=> -3
```

n.integer?

Returns `true` if *n* is an integer.

n.modulo(num)

Returns the modulus obtained by dividing *n* by *num* and rounding the quotient with `floor`.

Equivalent to *n.divmod(num)[1]*.

n.nonzero?

Returns *n* if it isn't zero, otherwise `nil`.

n.remainder(num)

Returns the remainder obtained by dividing *n* by *num* and removing decimals from the quotient. The result and *n* always have same sign.

```
(13.modulo(4))      #=> 1  
(13.modulo(-4))    #=> -3  
((-13).modulo(4))   #=> 3  
((-13).modulo(-4))  #=> -1  
(13.remainder(4))   #=> 1  
(13.remainder(-4))  #=> 1  
((-13).remainder(4)) #=> -1  
(-13).remainder(-4)) #=> -1
```

n.round

Returns *n* rounded to the nearest integer.

```
1.2.round            #=> 1  
2.5.round            #=> 3  
(-1.2).round         #=> -1  
(-2.5).round         #=> -3
```

n.truncate

Returns *n* as an integer with decimals removed.

```
1.2.truncate         #=> 1  
2.1.truncate         #=> 2  
(-1.2).truncate     #=> -1  
(-2.1).truncate     #=> -2
```

n.zero?

Returns zero if *n* is 0.

Integer

Integer class

`Integer` provides common behavior of integers (`Fixnum` and `Bignum`). `Integer` is an abstract class, so you should not instantiate this class.

Inherited Class

`Numeric`

Included Module

Precision

Class Method

`Integer::induced_from(numeric)`

Returns the result of converting numeric into an integer.

Instance Methods

`~ i`

Bitwise operations: AND, OR, XOR, and inversion.

`i & int`

`i | int`

`i ^ int`

`i << int`

`i >> int`

Bitwise left shift and right shift.

`i[n]`

Returns the value of the n th bit from the least significant bit, which is $i[0]$.

```
5[0]      # => 1
5[1]      # => 0
5[2]      # => 1.
```

`i.chr`

Returns a string containing the character for the character code i .

```
65.chr    # => "A"
?a.chr    # => "a"
```

`i.downto(min) { | i| ... }`

Invokes the block, decrementing each time from i to min .

```
3.downto(1) { | i|
  puts i
}
# prints:
# 3
# 2
# 1
```

`i.next`

`i.succ`

Returns the next integer following i . Equivalent to $i + 1$.

`i.size`

Returns the number of bytes in the machine representation of i .

`i.step(upto, step) { | i| ... }`

Iterates the block from *i* to *upto*, incrementing by *step* each time.

```
10.step(5, -2) { |i|
  puts i
}
# prints:
# 10
# 8
# 6
```

i.succ

See *i*.next

i.times { |i| ... }

Iterates the block *i* times.

```
3.times { |i|
  puts i
}
# prints:
# 0
# 1
# 2 .
```

i.to_f

Converts *i* into a floating point number. Float conversion may lose precision information.

```
1234567891234567.to_f    # => 1.234567891e+15
```

i.to_int

Returns *i* itself. Every object that has *to_int* method is treated as if it's an integer.

i.upto(*max*) { |i| ... }

Invokes the block, incrementing each time from *i* to *max*.

```
1.upto(3) { |i|
  puts i
}
# prints:
# 1
# 2
# 3
```

Fixnum

Fixed-length number class

Fixnum objects are fixed-length numbers with a bit length of either 31 bits or 63 bits. If an operation exceeds this range, it's automatically converted to a Bignum.

Inherited Class

Integer

Bignum

Infinite-length integer class

Bignum objects are infinite-length integers capable of handling numbers as large as memory can hold. Conversions between Fixnum and Bignum integers are performed automatically.

Inherited Class

Integer

Float

Floating-point number class

Float objects represent floating-point numbers. They use double precision floating-point numbers as internal representation of the platform architecture.

Inherited Class

Numeric

Included Module

Precision

Class Method

Float::induced_from(*num*)

Returns the result of converting *num* to a floating-point number.

Instance Methods

f.finite?

Returns true if *f* isn't infinite and *f*.nan is false.

f.infinite?

Returns 1 if *f* is positive infinity, -1 if negative infinity, or nil if anything else.

f.nan?

Returns true if *f* isn't a valid IEEE floating point number.

Precision

Precision conversion module

Precision is a module to provide a conversion system between numbers.

Instance Methods

prec(*c*)

Returns the result of converted self to the precision of class *c*. The definition in the Precision module actually returns *c*.induced_from(self).

prec_f

Equivalent to `prec(Float)`.

`prec_i`

Equivalent to `prec(Integer)`.

Comparable

Comparable mix-in module

The Comparable module assumes that the including class has a `<=>` method defined. The `<=>` method compares two objects and returns a positive number if the left operand is greater, 0 if it's equal to the right operand, or a negative number if it's smaller. You can add the following methods to a class that provides `<=>`, by just including this module.

Instance Methods

`c < other`

Returns `true` if `c` is less than `other` (i.e., `c <= other` returns a negative number).

`c <= other`

Returns `true` if `c` is less than or equal to `other` (i.e., `c <= other` returns either a negative number or 0).

`c > other`

Returns `true` if `c` is greater than `other` (i.e., `c <= other` returns a positive number).

`c >= other`

Returns `true` if `c` is greater than or equal to `other` (i.e., `c <= other` returns either a positive number or 0).

`c == other`

Returns `true` if the objects are equal (i.e., `c <= other` returns 0).

`c.between?(min, max)`

Returns `true` if `c` is between `min` and `max`.

Math

Module of math functions

The Math module provides a collection of math functions. The Math module defines private instance methods and module methods that possess the same name and definition.

Module Functions

`atan2(x, y)`

Calculates the arc tangent.

`cos(x)`

Calculates the cosine of `x`.

`exp(x)`

Calculates an exponential function (e raised to the power of `x`).

`frexp(x)`

Returns a two-element array containing the nominalized fraction and exponent of *x*.

`ldexp(x, exp)`

Returns the value of *x* times 2 to the power of *exp*.

`log(x)`

Calculates the natural logarithm of *x*.

`log10(x)`

Calculates the base 10 logarithm of *x*.

`sin(x)`

Calculates the sine of *x*.

`sqrt(x)`

Returns the square root of *x*. *x* must be positive.

`tan(x)`

Calculates the tangent of *x*.

Constants

`E`

e , the base of natural logarithms

`π`

π ; the Ludolphian number

3.4.5 Operating System Services

Ruby's portability necessitates some level of abstraction between your Ruby scripts and the underlying operating system. Abstractions of I/O, filesystems and processes are provided through the Ruby built-in classes `IO`, `File`, `File::Stat`, `FileTest`, `Dir`, and `Process`.

`IO`

I/O class

`IO` is object-oriented representation of `stdio`. `IO` is a superclass of other IO related classes, such as `File`, `BasicSocket`, etc.

Included Module

`Enumerable`

Class Methods

`IO::foreach(path) { |x| ... }`

Opens the file and executes the block once for each line, closing the file when the block exits.

`n = 1`

`IO::foreach(path) { |line|`

```
    print n, ":", lib
    n+=1
}
```

```
IO::new(fd[, mode="r"])
```

Returns a new IO stream for the specified integer file descriptor *fd*.

```
IO::pipe
```

Creates a pair of IO streams connected to each other and returns them as an array ([`readIO`, `writeIO`]).

```
IO::popen(cmd[, mode="r"])
```

```
IO::popen(cmd[, mode="r"]){|io| ...}
```

Executes the command specified by *cmd* as a subprocess and creates an associated stream connected to it. If *cmd* is `-`, a new instance of Ruby is started as a subprocess with an IO object returned in the parent and `nil` returned in the child process. If a block is specified, it's run with the IO object as a parameter. The stream is closed when the block exits.

```
IO::readlines(path)
```

Returns the contents of a file as an array of strings.

```
IO::select(reads[], writes=nil[], excepts=nil[], timeout=nil)]])
```

Checks for changes in the status of three types of IO objects, input, output, and exceptions, which are passed as arrays of IO objects. `nil` is passed for arguments that don't need checking. A three-element array containing arrays of the IO objects for which there were changes in status is returned. `nil` is returned on timeout.

```
IO::select([STDIN], nil, nil, 1.5) # wait data for STDIN for 1.5 sec
```

Instance Methods

```
io << str
```

Prints *str* to *IO*.

```
io.binmode
```

Enables binary mode (for use on DOS/Windows). Once a stream is in binary mode, it can't be reset to non-binary mode.

```
io.close
```

Closes the *io*.

```
io.close_read
```

Closes the read-only end of a duplex IO stream.

```
io.close_write
```

Closes the write-only end of a duplex IO stream.

```
io.closed?
```

Returns `true` if *io* is closed.

```
io.each{|x| ...}
```

```
io.each_line{|x| ...}
```

Reads in the contents of *io* one line at a time, invoking the block each time.

```
f = open(path)
n = 1
f.each_line{|line|
  print n, ":", lib
  n+=1
}.
io.each_byte{|x| ...}
```

Reads in the contents of *io* one byte at a time, invoking the block each time.

io.eof

io.eof?

Returns `true` if EOF has been reached.

io.fcntl(req[, arg])

Calls `fcntl(2)` system call. Arguments and results are platform dependent. Not implemented on all platforms.

io.fileno

io.to_i

Returns the file descriptor number for *io*.

io.flush

Flushes output buffers.

io.getc

Reads one character (8-bit byte) from *io* and returns its character code. Returns `nil` on EOF.

io.gets([rs=\$/])

Reads one line from *io*. Returns `nil` on EOF.

io.ioctl(req[, arg])

Calls `ioctl(2)` system call. Arguments and results are platform dependent. Not implemented on all platforms.

io.isatty

See *io.tty?*

io.lineno

Returns the current line number in *io*.

io.lineno=n

Sets the current line number in *io*.

io.pid

Returns the process ID associated with *io*. Returns `nil` if no process exists.

io.pos

io.tell

Returns the current position of the file pointer.

io.pos=offset

Sets the position of the file pointer.

`io.print(arg...)`

Writes the specified arguments to `io`.

`io.printf(fmt[, arg...])`

Writes the specified arguments to `io` after formatting them. For formatting specifiers, see `sprintf` in [Section 3.3](#).

`io.putc(c)`

Writes one character to `io`.

`io.puts(str)`

Writes `str` to `io`, appending newline if `str` doesn't end with newline.

```
io.puts("foo")      # prints "foo" and newline  
io.puts("bar\n")    # prints "bar" and newline
```

`io.read([len])`

Reads only the specified number of bytes from `io`. If `len` isn't specified, the entire file is read.

`io.readchar`

Reads one character (8-bit byte) from `io`. Raises an exception on EOF.

`io.readline([rs=$/])`

Reads one line from `io`. Raises an exception on EOF.

`io.readlines([rs=$/])`

Reads all lines in `io` and returns them in an array.

`io.reopen(f)`

Resets `io` to a copy of `f`. The class of `io` may be changed as well.

`io.rewind`

Moves the file pointer to the beginning of `io`.

`io.seek(pos[, whence=IO::SEEK_SET])`

Moves the file pointer. The starting point `whence` may be set to `IO::SEEK_SET` (beginning of stream), `IO::SEEK_CUR` (current position) or `IO::SEEK_END` (end of stream).

`io.stat`

Calls `fstat(2)` system call and returns a `File::Stat` object.

`io.sync`

Returns `true` if sync mode is enabled for output. In sync mode, the buffer is flushed after each write.

`io.sync=mode`

Sets the sync mode for output to `true` or `false`.

`io.sysread(len)`

Reads `len` bytes from `io` using `read(2)` system call. `sysread` should not be mixed with other reading IO methods.

`io.syswrite(str)`

Writes `str` to `io` using `write(2)` system call. `syswrite` should not be mixed with other writing IO methods, or you may get unpredictable results.

io.tell

See *io.pos*

io.to_i

See *io.fileno*

io.to_io

Returns *io* itself. Every object that has *to_io* method is treated as if it's an *IO* by *IO::select* and *io.reopen*.

io.tty?

io.isatty

Returns `true` if *io* is connected to *tty* (terminal device).

io.ungetc(c)

Pushes one character back onto *io*.

io.write(str)

Writes *str* to *io*. Every object that has a write method can be assigned to *\$defout*, the default output destination .

File

File class

A *File* represents an *stdio* object that connected to a regular file. *open* returns an instance of this class for regular files.

Inherited Class

IO

Class Methods

File::atime(path)

Returns the last access time for *path*.

File::basename(path[, suffix])

Returns the filename at the end of *path*. If *suffix* is specified, it's deleted from the end of the filename.

```
File.basename( "/home/matz/bin/ruby.exe" )      #=> "ruby.exe"  
File.basename( "/home/matz/bin/ruby.exe" , ".exe" ) #=> "ruby"
```

File::blockdev?(path)

Returns `true` if *path* is a block device.

File::chardev?(path)

Returns `true` if *path* is a character device.

File::chmod(mode , path...)

Changes the permission mode of the specified files.

File::chown(owner , group , path...)

Changes the owner and group of the specified files.

`File::ctime(path)`

Returns the last inode change time for *path*.

`File::delete(path...)`

`File::unlink(path...)`

Deletes the specified files.

`File::directory?(path)`

Returns true if *path* is a directory.

`File::dirname(path)`

Returns the directory portion of *path*, without the final filename.

`File::executable?(path)`

Returns true if *path* is executable.

`File::executable_real?(path)`

Returns true if *path* is executable with real user permissions.

`File::exist?(path)`

Returns true if *path* exists.

`File::expand_path(path[, dir])`

Returns the absolute path of *path*, expanding ~ to the process owner's home directory, and ~*user* to the *user*'s home directory. Relative paths are resolved from the directory specified by *dir*, or the current working directory if *dir* is omitted.

`File::file?(path)`

Returns true if *path* is a regular file.

`File::ftype(path)`

Returns one of the following strings representing a file type:

file

Regular file

directory

Directory

characterSpecial

Character special file

blockSpecial

Block special file

fifo

Named pipe (FIFO)

link

Symbolic link

socket

Socket

unknown

Unknown file type

File::grpowned?(*path*)

Returns true if *path* is owned by the user's group.

File::join(*item*...)

Returns a string consisting of the specified items joined together with `File::Separator` separating each item.

`File::join("", "home", "matz", "bin") # => "/home/matz/bin"`

File::link(*old*, *new*)

Creates a hard link to file *old*.

File::lstat(*path*)

Same as `stat`, except that it returns information on symbolic links themselves, not the files they point to.

File::mtime(*path*)

Returns the last modification time for *path*.

File::new(*path*[, *mode*="r"])

File::open(*path*[, *mode*="r"])

File::open(*path*[, *mode*="r"]) {|f| ... }

Opens a file. If a block is specified, the block is executed with the new file passed as an argument. The file is closed automatically when the block exits. These methods differ from `Kernel#open` in that even if *path* begins with |, the following string isn't run as a command.

File::owned?(*path*)

Returns true if *path* is owned by the effective user.

File::pipe?(*path*)

Returns true if *path* is a pipe.

File::readable?(*path*)

Returns true if *path* is readable.

File::readable_real?(*path*)

Returns true if *path* is readable with real user permissions.

File::readlink(*path*)

Returns the file pointed to by *path*.

File::rename(*old*, *new*)

Changes the filename from *old* to *new*.

File::setgid?(*path*)

Returns true if *path*'s set-group-id permission bit is set.

File::setuid?(*path*)

Returns true if *path*'s set-user-id permission bit is set.

`File::size(path)`

Returns the file size of *path*.

`File::size?(path)`

Returns the file size of *path*, or `nil` if it's 0.

`File::socket?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is a socket.

`File::split(path)`

Returns an array containing the contents of *path* split into `File::dirname(path)` and `File::basename(path)`.

`File::stat(path)`

Returns a `File::Stat` object with information on *path*.

`File::sticky?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path*'s sticky bit is set.

`File::symlink(old, new)`

Creates a symbolic link to file *old*.

`File::symlink?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is a symbolic link.

`File::truncate(path, len)`

Truncates the specified file to *len* bytes.

`File::unlink(path...)`

See `File::delete(path...)`

`File::umask([mask])`

Returns the current umask for this process if no argument is specified. If an argument is specified, the umask is set, and the old umask is returned.

`File::utime(atime, mtime, path...)`

Changes the access and modification times of the specified files.

`File::writable?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is writable.

`File::writable_real?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is writable with real user permissions.

`File::zero?(path)`

Returns `true` if the file size of *path* is 0.

Instance Methods

`f.atime`

Returns the last access time for *f*.

`f.chmod(mode)`

Changes the permission mode of *f*.

f.chown(*owner*, *group*)

Changes the owner and group of *f*.

f.ctime

Returns the last inode change time for *f*.

f.flock(*op*)

Calls `flock(2)`. *op* may be 0 or a logical or of the File class constants `LOCK_EX`, `LOCK_NB`, `LOCK_SH`, and `LOCK_UN`.

f.lstat

Same as `stat`, except that it returns information on symbolic links themselves, not the files they point to.

f.mtime

Returns the last modification time for *f*.

f.path

Returns the pathname used to create *f*.

f.reopen(*path*[, *mode*="r"])

Reopens the file.

f.truncate(*len*)

Truncates *f* to *len* bytes.

Constants

Constants in the `File` class are also defined in the module `File::Constants` so that they may be included separately if necessary.

open constants

RONLY

Read-only mode

WRONLY

Write-only mode

RDWR

Read and write mode

APPEND

Append mode

CREAT

Create file

EXCL

Exclusive open

ioctl constants

NONBLOCK

Nonblocking mode

TRUNC

Truncate to 0 bytes

NOCTTY

Don't allow a terminal device to become the controlling terminal

BINARY

Binary mode

SYNC

Sync mode

flock constants

LOCK_EX

Exclusive lock

LOCK_NB

Don't block when locking

LOCK_SH

Shared lock

LOCK_UN

Unlock

File::Stat

File status class

File::Stat contains file status information given by `File#stat` and other similar methods.

Included Module

Comparable

Instance Methods

`s <=> stat`

Compares the modification times of `s` and `stat`.

`s.atime`

Returns the last access time for `s`.

`s.blksize`

Returns the block size of `s`'s file system.

`s.blockdev?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a block device.

`s.blocks`

Returns the number of blocks allocated to `s`.

`s.chardev?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a character device.

`s.ctime`

Returns the last `inode` change time for `s`.

`s.dev`

Returns an integer representing the device on which `s` is located.

`s.directory?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a directory.

`s.executable?`

Returns `true` if `s` is executable.

`s.executable_real?`

Returns `true` if `s` is executable with real user permissions.

`s.file?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a regular file.

`s.ftype`

Returns one of the following strings representing a file type of `s`:

`file`

Regular file

`directory`

Directory

`characterSpecial`

Character special file

`blockSpecial`

Block special file

`fifo`

Named pipe (FIFO)

`link`

Symbolic link

`socket`

Socket

`unknown`

Unknown file type

`s.gid`

Returns the group ID.

`s.grpowned?`

Returns `true` if `s` is owned by the user's group.

`s.ino`

Returns the inode number for `s`.

`s.mode`

Returns the access permission mode for `s`.

`s.mtime`

Returns the modification time for `s`.

`s.nlink`

Returns the number of hard links to `s`.

`s.owned?`

Returns `true` if `s` is owned by the effective user.

`s.pipe?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a pipe.

`s.rdev`

Returns an integer representing the device type on which `s` is located.

`s.readable?`

Returns `true` if `s` is readable.

`s.readable_real?`

Returns `true` if `s` is readable with real user permissions.

`s.setgid?`

Returns `true` if `s`'s set-group-id permission bit is set.

`s.setuid?`

Returns `true` if `s`'s set-user-id permission bit is set.

`s.size`

Returns the file size of `s`

`s.size?`

Returns the file size of `s`, or `nil` if it's 0.

`s.socket?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a socket.

`s.sticky?`

Returns `true` if `s`'s sticky bit is set.

`s.symlink?`

Returns `true` if `s` is a symbolic link.

`s.uid`

Returns the user ID.

`s.writable?`

Returns `true` if `s` is writable.

`s.writable_real?`

Returns `true` if `s` is writable with real user permissions.

`s.zero?`

Returns `true` if the file size of `s` is 0.

FileTest

File testing module

The `FileTest` module contains methods for testing files. The methods in this module are also provided as class methods of the `File` class.

Module Functions

`blockdev?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is a block device.

`chardev?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is a character device.

`directory?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is a directory.

`executable?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is executable.

`executable_real?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is executable with real user permissions.

`exist?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` exists.

`file?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is a regular file.

`grpowned?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is owned by the user's group.

`owned?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is owned by the effective user.

`pipe?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is a pipe.

`readable?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is readable.

`readable_real?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path` is readable with real user permissions.

`setgid?(path)`

Returns `true` if `path`'s set-group-id permission bit is set.

`setuid?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path*'s set-user-id permission bit is set.

`size(path)`

Returns the file size of *path*.

`size?(path)`

Returns the file size of *path* or `nil` if it's 0.

`socket?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is a socket.

`sticky?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path*'s sticky bit is set.

`symlink?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is a symbolic link.

`writable?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is writable.

`writable_real?(path)`

Returns `true` if *path* is writable with real user permissions.

`zero?(path)`

Returns `true` if the file size of *path* is 0.

Dir

Directory class

A `Dir` is a class to represent a directory stream that gives filenames in the directory in the operating system. `Dir` class also holds directory related operations, such as wild card filename matching, changing current working directory, etc. as class methods

Included Module

`Enumerable`

Class Methods

`Dir[pat]`

`Dir::glob(pat)`

Returns an array of filenames matching the specified wildcard pattern *pat* :

*

Matches any string including the null string

**

Matches any string recursively

?

Matches any single character

[...]

Matches any one of enclosed characters

{a,b...}

Matches any one of strings

```
Dir["foo.*"]      # matches "foo.c", "foo.rb", etc.  
Dir["foo.?"]      # matches "foo.c", "foo.h", etc.  
Dir["*.[ch]"]     # matches "main.c", "ruby.h", etc.  
Dir["*.{rb,c}"]   # matches "main.c", "config.rb", etc.  
Dir["**/*.c"]     # recursively matches any ".c" file
```

Dir::chdir(*path*)

Changes the current directory.

Dir::chroot(*path*)

Changes the root directory (only allowed by super user). Not available on all platforms.

Dir::delete(*path*)

See Dir::rmdir(*path*).

Dir::entries(*path*)

Returns an array of filenames in directory path.

Dir::foreach(*path*) { |*f*| ... }

Executes the block once for each file in the directory specified by path.

Dir::getwd

Dir::pwd

Returns the current directory.

Dir::glob(*pat*)

See Dir[*pat*].

Dir::mkdir(*path*[, *mode*=0777])

Creates the directory specified by *path*. Permission *mode* may be modified by the value of File::umask and is ignored on Win32 platforms.

Dir::new(*path*)

Dir::open(*path*)

Dir::open(*path*) { |*dir*| ... }

Returns a new directory object for *path*. If open is given a block, a new directory object is passed to the block, which closes the directory object before terminating.

Dir::pwd

See Dir::getwd.

Dir::rmdir(*path*)

Dir::unlink(*path*)

Dir::delete(*path*)

Deletes the directory specified by *path*. The directory must be empty.

Instance Methods

d.close

Closes the directory stream.

d.each { | f| . . . }

Executes the block once for each entry in *d*.

d.pos

d.tell

Returns the current position in *d*.

d.pos= offset

Sets the position in the directory stream.

d.pos= pos

d.seek(po s)

Moves to a position in *d*. *pos* must be a value returned by *d.pos* or 0.

d.read

Returns the next entry from *d*.

d.rewind

Moves position in *d* to the first entry.

d.seek(po s)

See *d.pos=pos*.

d.tell

See *d.pos*.

Process

Process handling module

The `Process` module provides methods to manipulate processes. Some operations are platform dependent.

Module Methods

`Process.egid`

Returns the effective group ID of this process.

`Process.egid=gid`

Sets the effective group ID of this process.

`Process.euid`

Returns the effective user ID of this process.

`Process.euid=u id`

Sets the effective user ID of this process.

`Process.gid`

Returns the group ID of this process.

`Process.gid=gid`

Sets the group ID of this process.

`Process.pid`

Returns the process ID of this process.

`Process.ppid`

Returns the process ID of the parent of this process.

`Process.uid`

Returns the user ID of this process.

`Process.uid=uid`

Sets the user ID of this process.

Module Functions

`exit!([result=0])`

Kills the program bypassing exit handling such as `ensure`, etc.

`fork`

`fork { ... }`

Creates a child process. `nil` is returned in the child process, and the child process' ID (`Integer`) is returned in the parent process. If a block is specified, it's executed in the child process.

`getpgid(pid)`

Returns the process group ID for process `pid`. `pid 0` means the current process ID.

`getpgrp([pid=$$])`

Returns the process group ID for this process.

`getpriority(which, who)`

Returns the current priority.

`kill(sig, pid...)`

Sends signal to a process. `sig` is specified with a string such as `KILL` or an integer.

`setpgid(pid)`

Sets the process group ID for process `pid`.

`setpgrp`

Equivalent to `setpgid(0, 0)`.

`setpriority(which, who, prio)`

Sets process priority.

`setsid`

Establishes this process as a new session.

`wait`

Waits for a child process to exit and returns its process ID.

`wait2`

Waits for a child process to exit and returns its process ID and exit status as an array.

`waitpid(pid[, flags])`

Waits for child process `pid` to exit and returns its process ID. Waits for any child process if `pid=0` is specified. Flags may be 0 or a logical or of the constants `WNOHANG` and `WUNTRACE`.

`waitpid2(pid[, flags])`

Waits for child process `pid` to exit and returns its process ID and exit status as an array.

Constants

`PRIO_PROCESS`

Process priority. Specified in a logical or as the third argument of the `setpriority` method.

`PRIO_PGRP`

Process group priority. Specified in a logical or as the third argument of the `setpriority` method.

`PRIO_USER`

User priority. Specified in a logical or as the third argument of the `setpriority` method.

`WNOHANG`

Terminate immediately without blocking if no child has exited. Specified in a logical or as the second argument of the `waitpid` and `waitpid2` methods.

`WUNTRACED`

Terminate any stopped children whose status has not been reported. Specified in a logical or as the second argument of the `waitpid` and `waitpid2` methods.

3.4.6 Threads

Threads are a powerful tool for creating and maintaining cleaner code, and in many implementations, for making your software more responsive. In Ruby, the former benefit is the one emphasized—cleaner code—since Ruby implements "microthreads." *Microthreads* are in-process threads simulated with `setjmp/longjmp` in the Ruby interpreter itself. Hence, Ruby's `Thread` class isn't dependent on the underlying threads library or operating systems, making Ruby more portable.

`Thread`

Thread class

The class for user-level threads. When the main thread terminates, the other threads are killed, and the interpreter quits.

Class Methods

`Thread::abort_on_exception`

Returns `true` if thread is set to abort on an exception.

`Thread::abort_on_exception= bool`

Sets whether or not to abort on an exception. When aborting on an exception, displays an error message for exceptions raised in the thread and quits the program.

Thread::critical

Returns `true` when scheduling of existing threads is prohibited.

`Thread::critical= bool`

Sets the status of thread-scheduling prohibition.

Thread::current

Returns the current thread.

Thread::exit

Terminates the current thread.

`Thread::fork([arg...]) {| x... | ... }`

See `Thread::start([arg...]) { |x...| ... }.`

`Thread::kill(th)`

Terminates the specified thread.

Thread::list

Returns an array of all threads.

Thread::main

Returns the main thread.

`Thread::new([arg...]) {| x... | ... }`

See `Thread::start([arg...]) { |x...| ... }.`

`Thread::pass`

Passes execution to another thread.

`Thread::start([arg...]) {| x... | ... }`

`Thread::fork([arg...]) {| x... | ... }`

`Thread::new([arg...]) {| x... | ... }`

Creates a new thread and executes the block in it. Arguments are passed directly to the block.

Thread::stop

Stops the current thread.

Instance Methods

`t[name]`

Retrieves the value of a thread-local variable associated with `name`. The `name` is either a string or a symbol.

`t[name]= value`

Sets the `value` of a thread-local variable.

`t.abort_on_exception`

Returns `true` if thread is set to abort on an exception.

`t.abort_on_exception= bool`

Sets whether or not this thread will abort on an exception. When aborting on an exception, displays an

error message for exceptions raised in the thread and quits the program.

`t.alive?`

Returns `true` if the thread is alive (sleeping or running).

`t.exit`

See `t.kill`.

`t.join`

Waits for the thread to terminate. If the thread is terminated with an exception, that exception is raised again.

`t.key?(name)`

Returns `true` if a thread-local variable associated with `name` exists.

`t.kill`

`t.exit`

Terminates the thread.

`t.raise(exc[, msg])`

Raises an exception from the thread.

`t.run`

Makes the thread eligible for scheduling and invokes the scheduler.

`t.safe_level`

Returns the value of `$SAFE`, the thread's safe level.

`t.status`

Returns the status of thread (`true` if alive, `false` if terminated normally, and `nil` if terminated with an exception).

`t.stop?`

Returns `true` if the thread is stopped.

`t.value`

Waits for the thread to terminate and returns the value of the last expression evaluated. If the thread is terminated with an exception, that exception is raised again.

`t.wakeup`

Marks the thread as eligible for scheduling.

ThreadGroup

Thread group class

A thread can belong to only one thread group at a time. Until a change of group is specified, a newly created thread belongs to the same thread group as the thread that originally created it.

Class Method

`ThreadGroup::new`

Creates a new thread group.

Instance Methods

`tg.add(th)`

Adds `th` to the thread group. A thread can belong to only one group at a time.

`tg.list`

Returns an array of threads belonging to the thread group.

Constants

Default

The default thread group.

3.4.7 Exceptions

Ruby's exception handling class, `Exception`, and its descendants provide support for the notion that the code discovering some sort of error condition may not be the same code that can handle that error condition.

Exception

Superclass for exceptions

Instance Methods

`e.backtrace`

Returns backtrace information (from where exception occurred) as an array of strings.

`e.exception`

Returns clone of the exception object `e`. This method is used by `raise` method.

`e.message`

Returns exception message.

Errno

System call exceptions module

`Errno`: : ENOENT and other errors are defined in this module.

3.4.8 Built-in Exceptions

`Exception` and the classes derived from it provide a variety of fundamental building blocks for handling error conditions in your Ruby scripts. Of course with the power you know and love from OOP, you can easily extend and adapt these basic classes as you see fit.

The following are abstract `Exception` classes:

`Exception`

Superclass of all exceptions

`ScriptError`

Error originating from program mistakes

StandardError

Superclass of standard error exceptions; caught if no class is specified by rescue

The following are subclasses of **StandardError**:

ArgumentError

Argument error (incorrect number of arguments, etc.)

EOFError

End of file reached

FloatDomainError

Float calculation error

IndexError

Error related to index.

IOError

Error related to input or output.

LocalJumpError

Error related to break, next, redo, retry, or return from wrong place.

NoMemoryError

Insufficient memory.

RangeError

Error produced when range exceeded

RegexpError

Regular expression error

RuntimeError

General runtime error

SecurityError

Error related to security

SystemCallError

Superclass of system call exceptions

SystemStackError

Insufficient stack area

TypeError

Error produced when types don't match

ZeroDivisionError

Error produced when attempting to divide by zero

The following are two subclasses of **SystemCallError**. See <sys/errno.h> for details.

Errno::ENOENT

File or directory doesn't exist

Errno::EPERM

Insufficient access rights

The following are subclasses of `ScriptError`:

LoadError

Error occurring during the loading of libraries

NameError

Name error caused by accessing undefined name, etc.

NotImplementedError

Function not supported by interpreter called

SyntaxError

Error related to syntax

The following are subclasses of `Exception`:

Fatal

Fatal error that can't ever be caught

Interrupt

Interrupt (SIGINT) received

SystemExit

`exit` called

3.4.9 Classes and Modules

Support for OOP in Ruby can be found in the Ruby classes `Class` and `Module`. All class objects are of class `Class`, and the `Module` class provides support for namespaces and mix-ins.

Module

Module class

A `Module` is similar to a class, except that it has no superclass and can't be instantiated.

Class Methods

`Module::class_variables`

Returns an array of class variable names.

`Module::constants`

Returns an array of constant names.

`Module::nesting`

Returns an array of classes and modules nested at the point of call.

`Module::new`

Creates a new anonymous module.

Instance Methods

m < *mod*

Returns `true` if *m* is a descendant of *mod*.

m <= *mod*

Returns `true` if *m* is a descendant of or equal to *mod*.

m <=> *mod*

Returns +1 if *m* is an ancestor of *mod*, 0 if *m* is the same as *mod*, and -1 if *m* is a descendant of *mod*.

m === *obj*

Returns `true` if *obj* is an instance of *m* or one of its descendants.

m > *mod*

Returns `true` if *m* is an ancestor of *mod*.

m >= *mod*

Returns `true` if *m* is an ancestor of or equal to *mod*.

m.ancestors

Returns an array of ancestors, including both classes and modules.

m.const_defined?(*name*)

Returns `true` if the constant specified by *name* is defined.

m.const_get(*name*)

Returns the value of the specified constant.

m.const_set(*name*, *value*)

Sets the *value* of a constant.

m.constants

Returns an array of constant names.

m.included_modules

Returns an array of names of included modules.

m.instance_method(*name*)

Returns a `UnboundMethod` object corresponding to *name*. An exception is raised if the corresponding method doesn't exist. `UnboundMethod` should be bound before invocation.

```
unbound_plus = Fixnum.instance_method(:+)
plus = unbound_plus.bind(1)
p plus.call(2)           # => 3 (1+2)
```

m.instance_methods([*all*=false])

Returns an array of instance method names. If *all* is `true`, instance methods from superclasses are also returned.

m.method_defined?(*name*)

Returns `true` if the method specified by *name* is defined in *m*.

m.module_eval(*str*)

m.module_eval { ... }

Evaluates `str` or block in the context of `m`. If a method is defined, that method is added to `m`.

`m.name`

Returns the module's name.

`m.private_class_method(name . . .)`

Sets visibility of class methods to `private`. `name` can be either a symbol or string.

`m.private_instance_methods([all=false])`

Returns an array of instance methods whose visibility is private. If `all` is `true`, instance methods from superclasses are also returned.

`m.protected_instance_methods([all=false])`

Returns an array of instance methods whose visibility is protected. If `all` is `true`, instance methods from superclasses are also returned.

`m.public_class_method(name . . .)`

Sets visibility of class methods to `public`. `name` can be either a symbol or string.

`m.public_instance_methods([all=false])`

Returns an array of instance methods whose visibility is public. If `all` is `true`, instance methods from superclasses are also returned.

Private Instance Methods

`alias_method(new, old)`

Creates an alias for a method. Equivalent to the `alias` statement except that the name is specified with a symbol or string.

`append_features(mod)`

Adds module definitions (methods and constants) of `mod` to the current module. This is the callback method used by `include`. Can be redefined for callback processing during the inclusion of modules. Used as a hook.

`attr(name[, flag=false])`

Defines a named attribute, creating a method, `name`, for accessing the instance variable `@name`. If `flag` is `true`, also defines a writable method `name=` for setting the attribute.

`attr_accessor(name . . .)`

Defines read accessor (`name`) and write accessor (`name=`) for each instance variable `@name`.

`attr_reader(name . . .)`

Defines read accessor (`name`) for each instance variable `@name`.

`attr_writer(name . . .)`

Defines write accessor (`name=`) for each instance variable `@name`.

`extend_object(obj)`

Adds the current module's methods and constants to `obj`. This is the callback method used by `Object#extend`. Used as a hook.

`include(mod . . .)`

Includes the methods and constants of `mod`.

```
method_added( name)
```

Method called by the interpreter every time a method is defined with the `def` statement. The standard definition does nothing. Used as a callback.

```
module_function( name . . . )
```

Copies the definition of each of the instance methods specified by *name* as a class method and converts it to a module function.

```
private([ name . . . ])
```

Sets the visibility of each instance method specified by *name* to `private`. If used with no arguments, sets the visibility of subsequently defined methods to `private`.

```
protected([ name . . . ])
```

Sets the visibility of each instance method specified by *name* to be protected. If used with no arguments, sets the visibility of subsequently defined methods to be protected.

```
public([ name . . . ])
```

Sets the visibility of each instance method specified by *name* to `public`. If used with no arguments, sets the visibility of subsequently defined methods to `public`.

```
remove_const( name)
```

Removes the definition of constant, *name*.

```
remove_method( name)
```

Removes method (*name*) from the current class. If a method of the same name is defined in a superclass, it becomes visible.

```
class Foo
  def foo
    puts "Foo"
  end
end
class Bar<Foo
  def foo
    puts "Bar"
  end
end
b = Bar.new
b.foo
class Bar
  remove_method :foo
end
b.foo
```

```
undef_method( name)
```

Turns method (*name*) into an undefined method. Even if a method of the same name is defined in a superclass, it becomes invisible to that class or module.

```
class Foo
  def foo
  end
end
class Bar<Foo
  undef_method :foo
```

```
end  
b = Bar.new  
b.foo
```

Class

Class class

A class named `Class` is a class for every class of Ruby :-). This means classes are first-class objects in Ruby. `Class` can be created by a `class` statement. In addition, even unnamed classes can be created by `Class::new`.

Inherited Class

`Module`

Inherited Class

`Object`

Class Methods

`Class::inherited(c)`

Called when a subclass is defined. Used as a callback.

`Class::new([superclass=Object])`

Creates a new class.

Instance Methods

`Class` class doesn't inherit the `module_function` method.

`c.class_eval`

Alias for `c.module_eval`.

`c.name`

Returns the class name.

`c.new([arg ...])`

Creates an instance of the class. Any arguments or blocks get passed directly to the `initialize` method of the object created.

`c.superclass`

Returns the class's superclass.

3.4.10 Proc Objects and Bindings

The `Proc` class provides support for converting blocks into objects and manipulating them just like other objects in Ruby. The nice thing is that the `Proc` object you create can recreate its execution environment when you need to call it. Ruby also provides you with a tool for packaging up an execution environment for use later, via the `Binding` class.

Proc

Procedure object class

`Proc` is an objectified block that is given to a method. You can create a `Proc` object by calling the `proc` method or by using the block argument of the method.

```
p1 = proc{|a| a + 1}      # Proc from a block
p2 = proc                  # Proc from a block given to this method
def foo(&proc)              # Proc from a block given to this method
  proc.call(42)             # invoke Proc, equivalent to yield
end
Proc::new
Proc::new {|x| ...}
```

Converts the block into a `Proc` object. If a block isn't passed, the block associated with the calling method is converted into a `Proc` object. Equivalent to built-in functions `lambda` and `proc`.

Instance Methods

`p[arg...]`
`p.call([arg...])`

Calls a `Proc` object.

`p.arity`

Returns the number of arguments accepted by a `Proc` object `p`. For `p` that take a variable number of arguments, returns $-n-1$, where n is the number of mandatory arguments. Notice `{|a|}` gives -1 , since it works like `{|*a|}` when multiple arguments are passed.

```
Proc.new{||}.arity        #=> 0
Proc.new{|a|}.arity       #=> -1
Proc.new{|a,b|}.arity     #=> 2
Proc.new{|a,b,c|}.arity   #=> 3
Proc.new{|*a|}.arity      #=> -1
Proc.new{|a,*b|}.arity    #=> -2
```

Method

Method object class

The method of an object that has been made into an object in its own right. Created using the method `obj.method(name)`.

Instance Methods

`m[arg...]`
`m.arity`

Returns the number of arguments accepted by `m`. For methods that take a variable number of arguments, returns $-n-1$, where n is the number of least required arguments.

`m.call([arg...])`

Calls a `method` object.

`m.to_proc`

Converts `m` into a `Proc` object.

`m.unbind`

Returns an `UnboundMethod` object corresponding to `m`.

`UnboundMethod`

Method without receiver bind class

The method definition without a receiver relationship. You can't invoke `UnboundMethod`. You have to bind `UnboundMethod` to get a callable `Method` object. Created using the method `Module#instance_method(name)` or `Method#unbind`.

Inherited Class

`Method`

Instance Method

`um.bind(obj)`

Returns callable `Method` object bound to `obj`. `obj` must be an instance of the class from which `UnboundMethod` retrieved.

```
unbound_plus = String.instance_method(:+)
plus = unbound_plus.bind("a")           # bind it first
p plus.call("b")                      # => "ab" ("a"+"b")
unbound_plus.bind(1)                  # error! 1 is not a String.
```

`Binding`

Encapsulated execution context class

An object encapsulating the execution context (variables, methods, self, blocks, etc.) at some place in the code. Created using the built-in function `binding`. Used as the second argument of the built-in function `eval`. See `eval` in the previous section.

`Continuation`

Continuation class

Allows a return to (continuation of) execution from a certain place in the code. Created using the built-in function `callcc`. See `callcc` in the previous section.

Instance Method

`c.call([arg...])`

Continues execution from the end of the `callcc` block that created the `Continuation`. `callcc` returns `arg...`, or `nil` if no arguments are specified.

3.4.11 Miscellaneous Classes and Modules

Of course, there's a whole lot of other stuff that you need in just about every Ruby program: things like garbage collection (GC module), Truth (via `TrueClass` and `FalseClass`), the ability to poke around at the objects inside a running Ruby script (via `ObjectSpace`), and so on. There's nothing here that you won't

find consistent with Ruby's philosophy of transparency, so dive right in.

GC

GC module

GC module is a collection of garbage collection related operations.

Module Methods

disable

Disables GC

enable

Enables GC

start

Starts GC

Instance Method

`g.garbage_collect`

Starts GC

ObjectSpace

ObjectSpace module

ObjectSpace module provides manipulation on collection of existing objects.

Module Functions

`_id2ref(id)`

Obtains object from `id`. Do not use this method (intended for internal use only), especially in finalizers. `id` is already made unavailable when finalizers are called.

`define_finalizer(obj, proc)`

`define_finalizer(obj) {| id| ...}`

Creates a finalizer for `obj`. `obj` should not be referenced directly nor indirectly from the finalizers.

```
class Foo
  def Foo::finalizer(io)      # typical idiom for finalizers
    io.close
  end
  def initialize(path)
    @io = open(path)
    ObjectSpace.define_finalizer(self, Foo::finalizer(@io))
  end
each_object([ c]) {| x| ... }
```

Calls the block once for all objects. When `c` is specified, executes the block once for all objects that match `c` or are subclasses of `c` (for which `kind_of?(c)` is true).

`garbage_collect`

Starts GC. Alias for `GC::start`.

`undefine_finalizer(obj)`

Removes all finalizers for `obj`.

`NilClass`

Nil class

The only instance of `NilClass` is `nil`. `NilClass` has no special methods of its own.

`TrueClass`

True class

The only instance of `TrueClass` is `true`. `TrueClass` provides a few logical operations, which evaluate both operands before executing the methods, unlike `&&` or `||` operators.

Instance Methods

`true & other`

Logical AND, without short circuit behavior

`true | other`

Logical OR, without short circuit behavior

`true ^ other`

Logical exclusive Or (XOR)

`FalseClass`

False class

The only instance of `FalseClass` is `false`. `FalseClass` provides a few logical operations, which do evaluate both operands before, unlike `&&` or `||` operators.

Instance Methods

`false & other`

Logical AND, without short circuit behavior

`false | other`

Logical OR, without short circuit behavior

`false ^ other`

Exclusive Or (XOR)

`Data`

C data wrapper class

Data is an external language data wrapper used by extension libraries. It has no special methods of its own.

Marshal

Object storage module

Marshal is a module for dumping objects to and loading them from a file or string.

Module Functions

`dump(obj[, port][, level])`

Dumps an object. Dumps to port if an IO object is specified as *port*. If *port* isn't specified, *obj* is returned as a dumped string. If *level* is specified, subobjects up to that depth are dumped.

`load(from)`

`restore(from)`

Restores a dumped object. The string or IO object dumped to is specified in *from*.

Range

Range class

Range is a class for interval. Ranges can be created using `..` or `...` operators or using the `Range::new` method.

Included Module

`Enumerable`

Class Method

`Range::new(first, last[, excl=false])`

Creates a Range object. Does not include the end value if *excl* is true. *first* and *last* should be comparable using `<=>` and should have `succ` method.

Instance Methods

`r === other`

Returns true if *other* is within the range.

`r.begin`

`r.first`

Returns the first object in the range.

`r.each { |x| ... }`

Executes the block for each object within the range.

```
(1..5).each { |x|
  puts x          # prints 1 to 5
}
(1...5).each { |x|
  puts x          # prints 1 to 4
```

```
}
```

```
r.end
```

```
r.last
```

Returns the last object in the range.

```
r.size
```

```
r.length
```

Returns the number of objects in the range. If the range is specified by something other than an integer, the number of objects is counted using the each method.

Struct

Structure class

Struct is a abstract class that collects named attributes bundled in an object. You have to generate your own Struct class (subclass of Struct) using Struct::new, which returns new Struct class.

Example

```
S = Struct::new(:foo, :bar)
s = S::new(1,2)
s.foo          # => 1
s.bar = 5      # update the member
s.bar          # => 5
s              # => #<S foo=1, bar=5>
```

Included Module

Enumerable

Class Method

```
Struct::new([ name,] mem...)
```

Creates a new structure class containing members specified by *mem...*. If *name* is given, the structure class is bound to the constant under Struct, for example Struct::Passwd. Note that Struct::new doesn't return a structure object itself, but rather a class that is used as a template for creating each structure.

Structure Class Methods

```
S::members
```

Returns an array of member names.

```
S::new( value...)
```

Creates a new structure object. *value* objects specify the initial value of each member and must match the number of members specified when the structure was created.

Instance Methods

```
s[ mem]
```

Returns the value of member *mem* where *mem* is a symbol or integer. If *mem* is an integer, the value of the *mem*th member is returned.

`s[mem]=value`

Sets the value of member *mem*. *mem* may be a symbol or integer.

`s.each {|x|...}`

Calls block once for each member.

`s.members`

Returns an array of member names.

`s.values`

Returns an array containing the value of each member.

Time

Time class

Time is an object corresponding to a certain time. Internally, it's stored as a number of seconds since the epoch, 00:00:00, January 1, 1970 UTC. Time class can handle both a system's local time and UTC at the same time, but no other time zones can be handled.

Included Module

Comparable

Class Methods

`Time::at(time[, usec=0])`

Creates a Time object. *time* may be a Time object or an integer representing the number of seconds elapsed since the epoch, 00:00:00, January 1, 1970 UTC.

`Time::gm(year[, month=1[, day=1[, hour=0[, min=0[, sec=0[, usec=0]]]]])`

see `Time::utc(year[, month=1[, day=1[, hour=0[, min=0[, sec=0[, usec=0]]]]])`

`Time::local(year[, month=1[, day=1[, hour=0[, min=0[, sec=0[, usec=0]]]]])`

`Time::mktime(year[, month=1[, day=1[, hour=0[, min=0[, sec=0[, usec=0]]]]])`

Creates a Time object interpreted in the local time zone.

`Time::new`

`Time::now`

Creates a Time object expressing the current system time.

`Time::times`

Returns a Tms structure containing user and system CPU times retrieved by the times system call.

Here are the Tms structure members:

`utime`

User CPU time

`stime`

`System CPU time`

`cutime`

CPU time elapsed for user child processes

`cstime`

CPU time elapsed for system child processes

`Time::utc(year[, month=1[, day=1[, hour=0[, min=0[, sec=0[, usec=0]]]]])`

`Time::gm(year[, month=1[, day=1[, hour=0[, min=0[, sec=0[, usec=0]]]]])`

Creates a `Time` object interpreted as UTC (Coordinated Universal Time, formally known as GMT).

Instance Methods

`t + n`

Returns a `Time` object with `n` number of seconds added.

`t - x`

If `x` is another `Time` object, the time difference is returned in seconds as a `Float`. If `x` is a number, a `Time` object with `x` number of seconds subtracted is returned.

`t <= other`

`t > other`

`t >= other`

`t < other`

`t <= other`

Time comparisons.

`t.asctime`

`t.ctime`

Returns `t` as a string.

`t.day`

`t.mday`

Returns the day of the month (1-31) for `t`.

`t.gmtime`

See `t.utc`

`t.gmtime?`

See `t.utc?`

`t.hour`

Returns the hour of the day (0-23) for `t`.

`t.isdst`

Returns `true` if `t` occurs during daylight saving time.

`t.localtime`

Turns on representation mode of `t` to local time.

`t.min`

Returns the minute of the hour (1-59) for t .

$t.\text{mon}$

$t.\text{month}$

Returns the month of the year (1-12) for t .

$t.\text{sec}$

Returns the second of the minute (1-60) for t . There can be a 60th second of the minute due to leap second.

$t.\text{strftime}(\textit{format})$

Formats t according to formatting directives, which may be any of these:

%A	Full weekday name (Sunday, Monday...)
%a	Abbreviated weekday name (Sun, Mon...)
%B	Full month name (January, February...)
%b	Abbreviated month name (Jan, Feb...)
%c	Date and time
%d	Day of the month in decimal (01-31)
%H	Hour, 24-hour clock (00-23)
%I	Hour, 12-hour clock (01-12)
%j	Day of the year (001-366)
%M	Minutes (00-59)
%m	Month in decimal (01-12)
%p	Meridian indicator (A.M. or P.M.)
%S	Seconds (00-60)
%U	Week number, with the first Sunday as the first day of the first week (00-53)
%W	Week number, with the first Monday as the first day of the first week (00-53)
%w	Day of the week, Sunday being 0 (0-6)
%X	Time only
%x	Date only
%Y	Year with century
%y	Year without century (00-99)
%Z	Time zone
%%	Literal % character

$t.\text{to_f}$

Returns the value of t as a `Float` of seconds since the epoch, including microseconds.

$t.\text{to_i}$

$t.\text{tv_sec}$

Returns the value of t as an integer number of seconds since the epoch.

$t.\text{tv_usec}$

$t.\text{usec}$

Returns just the number of microseconds of t .

$t.\text{utc}$

t.`gmtime`

Converts *t* to UTC, modifying the receiver.

t.`utc?`

t.`gmt?`

Returns `true` if *t* represents a time in UTC.

t.`wday`

Returns the day of the week (0-6, Sunday being 0) for *t*.

t.`yday`

Returns the day of the year (1-366) for *t*.

t.`year`

Returns the year for *t*.

t.`zone`

Returns the local time zone for *t*.

Chapter 4. Standard Library Reference

We will now explore the useful libraries that come with the standard Ruby distribution, from network access via HTTP and CGI programming to data persistence using the DBM library.

4.1 Standard Library

The Ruby standard library extends the foundation of the Ruby built-in library with classes and abstractions for a variety of programming needs, including network programming, operating-system services, threads, and more. These classes provide flexible capabilities at a high level of abstraction, giving you the ability to create powerful Ruby scripts useful in a variety of problem domains.

Many common tasks are performed by Ruby programmers all over the world. Some of these tasks include network access such as TCP/IP and CGI, OS access, database access, controlling processes with threads, numeric calculations, implementing design classes, and manipulating dates. These are used so frequently that they are included with all standard distributions of Ruby; when you access these classes and methods from your programs, they will be available from the Standard Library. Could you write these libraries yourself? Probably. Would you feel confident they have been exhaustively tested, optimized, and debugged? Usually not. The Standard Library is a great time saver. And as Ruby grows and evolves, so will its Standard Library, to everyone's benefit.

Although not every library section will contain all these entries, the basic format for each section is as follows:

- Required library
- Example
- Inherited class
- Class methods
- Instance methods

4.1.1 Network

Use Ruby's network classes to let your scripts speak basic protocols such as TCP and UDP as a client, a server, or both. These libraries provide socket access to a variety of Internet protocols and classes that make access to those protocols easier. You can even crawl up the protocol stack and find support for higher-level protocols like FTP, HTTP, IMAP, and so on. All have an intuitive, transparent interface that won't get in your way. This is the largest group of libraries and one of the most frequently used.

Oh, and don't worry. There's support for doing web programming through the CGI, CGI::Cookie and CGI::Session classes.

BasicSocket

Socket-related superclass

BasicSocket is an abstract base class for network socket-related classes. This class provides common behavior among Socket classes.

Required Library

require 'socket'

Inherited Class

IO

Class Methods

BasicSocket::do_not_reverse_lookup

Returns true if a query returns numeric address, not hostname

BasicSocket::do_not_reverse_lookup= bool

Sets reverse_lookup status

Instance Methods

s.getpeername

Returns information on this connection's peer socket as a struct sockaddr packed into a string.

s.getsockname

Returns information on s as a struct sockaddr packed into a string.

s.getsockopt(lev, optname)

Gets the specified socket option.

```
s.setsockopt( lev, optname, value)
```

Sets the specified socket option.

```
s.shutdown([ how=2])
```

Shuts down the socket connection. 0 shuts down receiving, 1 sending, and 2 both.

```
s.recv( len[, flags])
```

Receives data from *s*, and returns it as a string.

```
s.send( msg, flags[, to])
```

Sends data over the socket *s*, returning the length of the data sent. *to* may be a struct `sockaddr` packed into a string indicating the recipient address.

IPSocket

IP socket class

`IPSocket` class is a base class of `TCPSocket` and `UDPSocket`. `IPSocket` class provides common behavior among Internet Protocol (IP) sockets. Sockets classes in Ruby support IPv6, if the native platform supports it.

Required Library

```
require 'socket'
```

Inherited Class

`BasicSocket`

Class Method

```
IPSocket::getaddress( host)
```

Returns the IP address of the specified *host*. The IP address is returned as a string such as `127.10.0.1` (IPv4) or `::1` (IPv6).

Instance Methods

```
s.addr
```

Returns an array containing information on the socket connection (AF_INET, port, hostname, and IP address)

```
s = TCPSocket.open("www.ruby-lang.org", "http")
s.addr# => [ "AF_INET", 4030, "dhcp198.priv.netlab.jp",
              "192.168.1.198" ]
```

```
s.peeraddr
```

Returns an array containing information on the peer socket in the same format as *s.addr*

```
s = TCPSocket.open("www.ruby-lang.org", "daytime")
s.recvfrom(255)
# => [ "Wed Aug 1 00:30:54 2001\r\n", [ "AF_INET", 13, "www",
              "210.251.121.214" ]]
```

```
s.recvfrom( len[, flags])
```

Receives data and returns it in an array that also includes information on the sender's socket in the same format as *s.addr*

UDPSocket

UDP socket class

`UDPSocket` is a class for User Datagram Protocol (UDP), which is a connectionless, unreliable protocol.

Required Library

```
require 'socket'
```

Inherited Class

IPSocket

Class Methods

UDPSocket::new([*socktype*=Socket::AF_INET])
UDPSocket::open([*socktype*=Socket::AF_INET])

Creates a UDP datagram socket

Instance Methods

s.bind(*host*, *port*)

Binds the socket to *port* on *host*. *host* may be an empty string ("") for INADDR_ANY or <broadcast> for INADDR_BROADCAST.

s.connect(*host*, *port*)

Connects the socket to *port* on *host*. *host* may be an empty string ("") for INADDR_ANY or <broadcast> for INADDR_BROADCAST.

s.send(*msg*, *flags*[, *to*])

s.send(*msg*, *flags*[, *host*, *port*])

Sends data on a socket *s*, returning the length of the data sent. If only two arguments are specified, the destination is assumed to be the port of the existing connection. Otherwise, it may be specified using a struct sockaddr when calling the method with three arguments or by indicating host and port when specifying four arguments.

TCPSocket

TCP/IP socket class

TCPSocket is a class for Transmission Control Protocol (TCP), which is connection-oriented, reliable protocol.

Required Library

require 'socket'

Example

```
require 'socket'
host=(if ARGV.length == 2; ARGV.shift; else "localhost"; end)
print("Trying ", host, " ...")
STDOUT.flush
s = TCPsocket.open(host, ARGV.shift)
print("done\n")
print("addr: ", s.addr.join(":"), "\n")
print("peer: ", s.peeraddr.join(":"), "\n")
while gets()
  s.write($_)
  print(s.readline)
end
s.close
```

Inherited Class

IPSocket

Class Methods

TCPSocket::new(*host*, *service*)
TCPSocket::open(*host*, *service*)

Opens a TCP connection to *host* for *service*, which may also be a port number

TCPServer

TCP/IP server socket class

`TCPServer` is a class for server-side TCP sockets. A `TCPServer` waits for client connection by the `accept` method, then returns a `TCPSocket` object connected to the client.

Required Library

```
require 'socket'
```

Example

```
require 'socket'
gs = TCPserver.open(0)
addr = gs.addr
addr.shift           # removes "AF_INET"
printf("server is on %s\n", addr.join(":"))
while true
  Thread.start(gs.accept) do |s|
    print(s, " is accepted\n")
    while s.gets
      s.write($_)
    end
    print(s, " is gone\n")
    s.close
  end
end
```

Inherited Class

`TCPSocket`

Class Methods

```
TCPServer::new([ host="localhost",] service)
TCPServer::open([ host="localhost",] service)
```

Creates a server socket

Instance Method

`s.accept`

Waits for a connection and returns a new `TCPSocket` object once one is accepted

UNIXSocket

Unix domain socket class

`UNIXSocket` is a class for the Unix domain, which can be specified by the path.

Required Library

```
require 'socket'
```

Inherited Class

`BasicSocket`

Class Methods

```
UNIXSocket::new( path)
UNIXSocket::open( path)
```

Creates a Unix domain socket

Instance Methods

`s.addr`

Returns an array containing information on the socket (AF_UNIX and the path)

`s.path`

Returns the path of the Unix domain socket

`s.peeraddr`

Returns an array containing information on the peer socket in the same format as `s.addr`

`s.recvfrom(len[, flag=0])`

Receives data and returns it in an array that also includes information on the sender's socket in the same format as `s.addr`

UNIXServer

Unix domain server socket class

UNIXServer is a class for server-side Unix domain sockets. A UNIXServer waits for client connection by the `accept` method, then returns a UNIXSocket object connected to the client.

Required Library

`require 'socket'`

Inherited Class

UNIXSocket

Class Methods

`UNIXServer::new(path)`

`UNIXServer::open(path)`

Creates a server socket

Instance Method

`s.accept`

Waits for a connection and returns a new UNIXSocket object once one is accepted

Socket

General socket class

The Socket class is necessary to gain access to all the operating system's socket interfaces. Interface structures can be created using `String#pack`.

Required Library

`require 'socket'`

Inherited Class

BasicSocket

Class Methods

`Socket::for_fd(fd)`

Creates a socket object corresponding to the file descriptor `fd` (an integer).

`Socket::getaddrinfo(host, port[, family[, type[, proto[, flags]]]])`

Returns an array containing socket address information (address family, port number, hostname, host IP address, protocol family, socket type, and protocol).

```
Socket::getaddrinfo("www.ruby-lang.org", "echo", Socket::AF_INET, Socket::SOCK_DGRAM)
# => [ ["AF_INET", 7, "www", "210.251.121.214", 2, 2, 17]]
```

Socket::gethostbyaddr(*addr*[, *type*=Socket::AF_INET])

Returns an array containing socket address information (address family, port number, hostname, host IP address, protocol family, socket type, and protocol).

```
Socket::getaddrinfo("www.ruby-lang.org", "echo", Socket::AF_INET, Socket::SOCK_DGRAM)
# => [ ["AF_INET", 7, "www", "210.251.121.214", 2, 2, 17]]
```

Socket::gethostbyname(*name*)

Returns an array containing host information retrieved from a host *name*.

```
Socket.gethostbyaddr(([127,0,0,1].pack("CCCC")))
# => [ "ev", ["localhost", "ev.netlab.jp"], 2, "\177\000\000\001" ]
```

Socket::gethostname

Returns the current hostname.

Socket::getnameinfo(*addr*[, *flags*])

Returns an array containing the name of the host and service retrieved from the specified socket address information. *addr* may be a struct sockaddr packed into a string or an array (address family, port, and hostname).

```
sockaddr = [Socket::AF_INET, 80, 127,0,0,1,""].pack("snCCCA8")
Socket::getnameinfo(sockaddr) # => [ "ev", "www" ]
Socket::getnameinfo([ "AF_INET", 80, "localhost" ]) # => [ "ev", "www" ]
```

Socket::getservbyname(*service*[, *proto*="tcp"])

Returns the port number for *service* and *proto* specified.

```
Socket::getservbyname("http") # => 80
```

Socket::new(*domain*, *type*, *proto*)

Socket::open(*domain*, *type*, *proto*)

Creates a socket.

Socket::socketpair(*domain*, *type*, *proto*)

Socket::pair(*domain*, *type*, *proto*)

Returns an array containing a pair of connected sockets.

Instance Methods

s.accept

Waits for a connection and, once one is accepted, returns a new socket object in an array that also includes a struct sockaddr packed into a string.

s.addr

Synonym for *s.getsockname*. Returns struct socaddr packed in a string.

s.bind(*addr*)

Binds *s* to *addr*, a sockaddr structure packed into a string.

s.connect(*addr*)

Connects *s* to *addr*, a sockaddr structure packed into a string.

s.listen(*backlog*)

Specifies the size of the *backlog* queue.

s.recvfrom(*len*[, *flags*])

Receives data and returns it in an array that also includes information on the sender's socket in the form of a sockaddr structure packed into a string.

s.peeraddr

Synonym for *s.getpeername*. Returns struct socaddr packed in a string.

Constants

The following constants are defined for use in socket specifications:

```
AF_INET
AF_UNIX
MSG_OOB
MSG_PEEK
SOCK_DGRAM
SOCK_STREAM
SOL_SOCKET
SO_KEEPALIVE
SO_LINGER
SO_SNDBUF
...
...
```

These constants are also defined in the module `Socket::Constants` and are used by including them in your code.

Net::FTP

FTP connection class

`Net::FTP` is a class for File Transfer Protocol (FTP) client-side connection.

Required Library

```
require 'net/ftp'
```

Example

```
require 'net/ftp'
ftp = Net::FTP::new("ftp.ruby-lang.org")
ftp.login("anonymous", "matz@ruby-lang.org")
ftp.chdir("/pub/ruby")
tgz = ftp.list("ruby-*tar.gz").sort.last
print "the latest version is ", tgz, "\n"
ftp.getbinaryfile(tgz, tgz)
ftp.close
```

Class Methods

`Net::FTP::new([host[, user[, passwd[, acct]]]])`

`Net::FTP::open(host[, user[, passwd[, acct]]])`

Creates a `Net::FTP` object

Instance Methods

`f.abort`

Aborts the previous command.

`f.acct(acct)`

Sets the account.

`f.chdir(path)`

Changes the current directory.

`f.close`

Closes the connection.

`f.closed?`

Returns `true` if the connection is closed.

`f.connect(host[, port=21])`

Connects to host.

f.debug_mode

Returns the debug mode status.

f.debug_mode= bool

Sets the debug mode status.

f.delete(file)

Deletes a file.

f.getbinaryfile(remote, local[, blocksize=4096[, callback]])

f.getbinaryfile(remote, local[, blocksize=4096]) {| data| ... }

f.gettextfile(remote, local[, callback])

f.gettextfile(remote, local) {| data| ... }

Retrieves a remote file from the server. If callback or a block is specified, it's executed with the retrieved data. `gettextfile` performs newline code conversion.

f.help([arg])

Displays help.

f.lastresp

Returns the server's last response.

f.list(path...)

f.dir(path...)

f.ls(path...)

Returns an array of file information in the directory. If a block is specified, it iterates through the listing.

```
f.list( "/pub/ruby" ) # =>
  [ "drwxr-xr-x  2 matz      users        4096 Jul 17 1998 1.0" , ... ]
```

f.login([user="anonymous"[, passwd[, acct]]])

Logs into the server.

f.mkdir(path)

Creates a directory.

f.mtime(file[, local=false])

Returns the last modification time of *file*. If *local* is true, it's returned as a local time, otherwise as Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) time.

f.nlst([dir])

Returns an array of filenames in the directory.

```
f.nlst( "/pub/ruby" ) # => [ "/pub/ruby/1.0" , ... ]
```

f.putbinaryfile(remote, local[, blocksize=4096[, callback]])

f.putbinaryfile(remote, local[, blocksize=4096]) {| data| ... }

f.puttextfile(remote, local[, callback])

f.puttextfile(remote, local) {| data| ... }

Transfers a file. If callback or a block is specified, the data is passed to it and is run. `puttextfile` performs newline code conversion.

f.getcwd

f.getdir

Returns the current directory.

f.passive

Returns true if passive mode is enabled.

f.passive= bool

Sets passive mode on or off.

f.quit

Exits the FTP session.

f.rename(old, new)

Renames filename *old* to *new*.

f.rmtree(path)

Removes the directory specified by *path*.

f.resume

Returns `true` if resumption of file transfers is enabled.

f.resume= bool

Sets file transfer resumption on or off.

f.return_code

Returns the newline code of the current session.

f.return_code= ret

Sets the newline code of the current session.

f.size(file)

Returns the size of file.

f.status

Returns the status.

f.system

Returns system information.

f.welcome

Returns the server's welcome message.

Net::HTTP

HTTP connection class

`Net::HTTP` is a class for Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) client-side connection.

Required Library

```
require 'net/http'
```

Example

```
require 'net/http'
h = Net::HTTP::new("www.ruby-lang.org")
resp, data = h.get("/en/index.html")
print data
```

Class Methods

`Net::HTTP::new([host="localhost"[, port=80[, proxy[, proxy_port]]]])`

`Net::HTTP::start([host="localhost"[, port=80[, proxy[, proxy_port]]]])`

`Net::HTTP::start([host="localhost"[, port=80[, proxy[, proxy_port]]]]) {| http| ... }`

Creates a `Net::HTTP` connection object. If a block is specified, the block is executed with the `Net::HTTP` object passed as an parameter. The connection is closed automatically when the block exits.

Instance Methods

h.finish

Closes the HTTP session.

h.get(path[, header[, dest]])

h.get(path[, header]) {| str| ... }

Retrieves data from *path* using a GET request, and returns an array containing an `HTTPResponse` object and the data. *header* may be a hash indicating header names and values. *dest* may be a string to which the data is appended. If a block is specified, the retrieved data is passed to it.

`h.head(path[, header])`

Sends a HEAD request for *path*, and returns the response.

`h.post(path, data[, header[, dest]])`

`h.post(path, data[, header]) { | str| ... }`

Sends *data* to *path* using a POST request, and returns an array containing an `HTTPResponse` object and the reply body. Although the post method's HTTP request type is different, the block and arguments, such as *header* and *dest*, are handled in the same way as `h.get`.

`h.start`

`h.start { | http| ... }`

Starts an HTTP session. If a block is specified, the session is terminated when the block exits.

Net::IMAP

IMAP access class

`Net::IMAP` is a class for Internet Message Access Protocol Version 4 (IMAP4) client-side connection. IMAP4 allows you to store and manage messages in the server side.

Required Library

`require "net/imap"`

Example

```
require "net/imap"
imap = Net::IMAP::new("imap.ruby-lang.org")
  imap.login("matz", "skwkgjv;")
  imap.select("inbox")
  fetch_result = imap.fetch(1..-1, "UID")
  search_result = imap.search(["BODY", "hello"])
  imap.disconnect
```

Class Methods

`Net::IMAP::add_authenticator(auth_type, authenticator)`

Adds an authenticator for `Net::IMAP#authenticate`.

`Net::IMAP::debug`

Returns `true` if in the debug mode.

`Net::IMAP::debug= bool`

Sets the debug mode.

`Net::IMAP::new(host[, port=143])`

Creates a new `Net::IMAP` object and connects it to the specified *port* on the named *host*.

Instance Methods

`imap.append(mailbox, message[, flags [, date_time]])`

Appends the *message* to the end of the *mailbox*.

```
imap.append("inbox", <<EOF.gsub(/\n/, "\r\n"), [:Seen], Time.now)
Subject: hello
From: shugo@ruby-lang.org
To: shugo@ruby-lang.org
hello world
EOF
```

```

imap.authenticate( auth_type, arg... )

Authenticates the client. The auth_type parameter is a string that represents the authentication mechanism to be used. Currently Net::IMAP supports "LOGIN" and "CRAM-MD5" for the auth_type.
imap.authenticate('CRAM-MD5', "matz", "crampass")

imap.capability

Returns an array of capabilities that the server supports.
imap.capability # => [ "IMAP4", "IMAP4REV1", "NAMESPACE", ... ]

imap.check

Requests a checkpoint of the current mailbox.

imap.close

Closes the current mailbox. Also permanently removes from the mailbox all messages that have the \Deleted flag set.

imap.copy( msgs, mailbox)

Copies msgs in the current mailbox to the end of the specified mailbox. msgs is an array of message sequence numbers or a Range object.

imap.create( mailbox)

Creates a new mailbox.

imap.delete( mailbox)

Removes the mailbox.

imap.disconnect

Disconnects from the server.

imap.examine( mailbox)

Selects a mailbox as a current mailbox so that messages in the mailbox can be accessed. The selected mailbox is identified as read-only.

imap.expunge

Removes from the current mailbox all messages that have \Deleted flag set.

imap.fetch( msgs, attr)

Fetches data associated with a message in the mailbox. msgs is an array of message sequence numbers or an Range object. The return_value is an array of Net::IMAP::FetchData.

data = imap.uid_fetch(98, [ "RFC822.SIZE", "INTERNALDATE" ])[0]
data.seqno          #=> 6
data.attr["RFC822.SIZE"] #=> 611
data.attr["INTERNALDATE"] #=> "12-Oct-2000 22:40:59 +0900"
data.attr["UID"]      #=> 98

imap.greeting

Returns an initial greeting response from the server.

imap.list( dir, pattern)

Returns an array of mailbox information in dir matching pattern. The return value is an array of Net::IMAP::MailboxList. pattern may contain wildcards * (which matches any characters) and % (which matches any characters except delimiter).

imap.list("foo", "*")# matches any mailbox under foo recursively
imap.list("foo", "f%")
                    # matches any mailbox start with "f" under "foo"

imap.login( user, password)

Logs into the server.

imap.logout

Logs out from the server.

imap.lsub( refname, mailbox)

Returns an array of subscribed mailbox information in dir matching pattern. The return value is an array of

```

Net::IMAP::MailboxList.pattern may contain wildcards * (which matches any characters) and % (which matches any characters except delimiter).

imap.noop

Sends a NOOP command to the server. It does nothing.

imap.rename(*mailbox*, *newname*)

Renames the *mailbox* to *newname*.

imap.responses

Returns recorded untagged responses.

```
imap.select("inbox")
imap.responses["EXISTS"][-1]      #=> 2
imap.responses["UIDVALIDITY"][-1]  #=> 968263756
```

imap.search(*keys*[, *charset*])

Searches the mailbox for messages that match the given searching criteria, and returns an array of message sequence numbers.

```
imap.search(["SUBJECT", "hello"])    #=> [1, 6, 7, 8]
imap.search('SUBJECT "hello"')       #=> [1, 6, 7, 8]
```

imap.select(*mailbox*)

Selects a *mailbox* as a current mailbox so that messages in the mailbox can be accessed.

imap.sort(*sort_keys*, *search_keys*, *charset*)

Returns an array of message sequence numbers that matches *search_keys*_sorted according to the *sort_keys*.

```
imap.sort(["FROM"], ["ALL"], "US-ASCII")           #=> [1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 4, 9]
imap.sort(["DATE"], ["SUBJECT", "hello"], "US-ASCII") #=> [6, 7, 8, 1]
```

imap.status(*mailbox*, *attr*)

Returns the status of the *mailbox*. The return value is a hash of attributes.

```
imap.status("inbox", ["MESSAGES", "RECENT"]) #=>
  {"RECENT"=>0, "MESSAGES"=>44}
```

imap.store(*msgs*, *attr*, *flags*)

Stores data associated with a message in the mailbox. *msgs* is an array of message sequence numbers or a Range object.

```
# add \Deleted to FLAGS attribute to mails No.6,7,8.
imap.store(6..8, "+FLAGS", [:Deleted])
```

imap.subscribe(*mailbox*)

Appends the specified *mailbox* to the list of active or subscribed mailboxes.

imap.unsubscribe(*mailbox*)

Removes the specified *mailbox* from the list of active or subscribed mailboxes.

imap.uid_copy(*msg*, *mailbox*)

Copies *msgs* in the current mailbox to the end of the specified *mailbox*. *msgs* is an array of unique message identifiers or a Range_object.

imap.uid_fetch(*msgs*, *attr*)

Fetches data associated with a message in the current mailbox. *msgs* is an array of unique message identifiers or an Range object. The return value is an array of Net::IMAP::FetchData.

imap.uid_search(*keys*[, *charset*])

Searches the mailbox for messages that match the given search criteria, and returns an array of unique identifiers.

imap.uid_sort(*sort_keys*, *search_keys*, *charset*)

Returns an array of unique message identifiers that matches *search_keys* sorted according to the *sort_keys*.

imap.uid_store(*msgs*, *attr*, *flags*)

Stores data associated with a message in the mailbox. *msgs* is an array of unique message identifiers or a Range object. The return value is an array of Net::IMAP::FetchData.

`Net::POP3` is a class for Post Office Protocol Version 3 (POP3) client-side connection. POP3 is a simple protocol that retrieves incoming mail from the server.

Required Library

```
require 'net/pop'
```

Example

```
require 'net/pop'
pop = Net::POP3::new("pop.ruby-lang.org")
# authenticate just for SMTP before POP
pop.start("matz", "skwkgjv") {
  mails = pop.mails          # array of Net::POPMail
}
```

Class Methods

```
Net::POP3::new([addr="localhost"[, port=80]])
```

Creates a new `Net::POP3` object.

```
Net::POP3::start([addr="localhost"[, port=80[, ...]])
```

```
Net::POP3::start([addr="localhost"[, port=80[, ...]]) {|pop| ...}
```

Equivalent to `Net::POP3::new(addr, port).start(...)`. A newly created `Net::POP3` object is passed to the block, if specified. The POP3 session is terminated when the block exits.

Instance Methods

```
p.each {|mail| ...}
```

Synonym for `p.mails.each`.

```
p.finish
```

Closes the POP3 session.

```
p.mails
```

Returns an array of `Net::POPMail` objects.

```
p.start(acct, passwd)
```

```
p.start(acct, passwd) {|pop| ...}
```

Starts a POP3 session. If a block is specified, the session is terminated when the block exits.

The `Net::APOP` class has the same interface as `Net::POP3`. They differ only in their method of authentication.

Required Library

```
require 'net/pop'
```

Inherited Class

```
Net::POP3
```

The `Net::POPMail` class is used by classes `Net::POP3` and `Net::APOP` to return individual message objects.

Required Library

```
require 'net/pop'
```

Instance Methods

```
m.all([dest])  
m.mail([dest])  
m.pop([dest])
```

Retrieves the contents of mail messages. If *dest* is specified, each message is appended to it using the `<<` method. If a block is specified, it's passed the contents of each message as a string and run once for each line in the message.

```
m.delete
```

Deletes the message.

```
m.deleted?
```

Returns `true` if the message has been deleted.

```
m.header([dest])
```

Returns the message header.

```
m.size
```

Returns the message size in bytes.

```
m.top(lineno[, dest])
```

Returns the message header and *lineno* number of lines of the body.

Net::SMTP

SMTP connection class

`Net::SMTP` is a class for Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP) client-side connection. SMTP is a protocol to talk to Mail Transfer Agent (MTA).

Required Library

```
require 'net/smtp'
```

Example

```
require 'net/smtp'  
user = "you@your-domain.com"  
from = "matz@ruby-lang.org"  
server = "localhost"  
smtp = Net::SMTP::new(server)  
smtp.start  
smtp.sendmail(<<BODY, from, user)  
From: matz@ruby-lang.org  
Subject: this is a test mail.  
this is body  
BODY  
smtp.finish
```

Class Methods

```
Net::SMTP::new([addr="localhost"[, port=25]])
```

Creates a new `Net::SMTP` object.

```
Net::SMTP::start([addr="localhost"[, port=25[, . . .]]])
```

```
Net::SMTP::start([addr="localhost"[, port=25[, . . .]])) {|smtp| . . .}
```

Equivalent to `Net::SMTP::new(addr, port).start(...)`. A newly created `Net::SMTP` object is passed to the

block, if specified. The SMTP session is terminated when the block exits.

Instance Methods

`s.finish`

Closes an SMTP session.

`s.ready(from, to) { | adapter| ... }`

Sends a message, passing an `adapter` object to the block. The message is sent by calling the adapter's `write` method.

`s.start([domain[, account[, password[, authtype]]]])`

`s.start([domain[, account[, password[, authtype]]]]) { | smtp| ... }`

Starts an SMTP session. An `Net::SMTP` object is passed to the block, if specified. The session is terminated when the block exits.

`s.send_mail(mailsrc, from, to)`

`s.sendmail(mailsrc, from, to)`

Sends mail. `to` may be either a string or an array of strings.

`Net::Telnet`

Telnet connection class

`Net::Telnet` is a class for a Telnet connection. This class isn't only a Telnet protocol client but also a useful tool to interact with interactive services.

When a block is specified with class and instance methods of the `Net::Telnet` class, it's passed status output strings from the server as they are received by the method.

Required Library

`require 'net/telnet'`

Class Method

`Net::Telnet::new(options)`

Creates a `Net::Telnet` object. `options` may be a hash specifying zero or more of the following options:

Key	Function	Default
<code>Binmode</code>	Binary mode	<code>false</code>
<code>Host</code>	Telnet server	<code>"localhost"</code>
<code>Output_log</code>	Output log	<code>nil</code> (no output)
<code>Dump_log</code>	Dump log	<code>nil</code> (no output)
<code>Port</code>	Port to connect to	23
<code>Prompt</code>	Pattern matching the server's prompt	<code>/[\$%#>/ \z/n</code>
<code>Telnetmode</code>	Telnet mode	<code>true</code>
<code>Timeout</code>	Timeout	10
<code>Waittime</code>	Wait time	0
<code>Proxy</code>	Proxy	<code>nil</code>

Instance Methods

Besides the following methods, the `Net::Telnet` object delegates its methods to `Socket` object, so that methods provided by the `Socket` class (and its parent classes) are also available for `Net::Telnet`.

`t.binmode`

Returns `true` if binary mode is enabled.

`t.binmode= bool`

Sets binary mode on or off.

`t.cmd(options)`

Sends a command to the server. *options* may be the command string to be sent to the server or a hash specifying one or more of the following options:

Key	Function	Default value
String	String to be sent	(Required)
Match	Pattern to match	Value of Prompt option
Timeout	Timeout	Value of Timeout option

t.login(options)

t.login(user[, passwd])

Logs in to the server. The following hash options may be specified.:

Key	Function
Name	Username
Password	Password

t.print(str)

Sends *str* to the server, performing Telnet protocol translation.

t.telnetmode

Returns true if Telnet mode is enabled.

t.telnetmode= bool

Sets Telnet mode on or off.

t.waitfor(options)

Waits for a response from the server. The same hash options may be specified as with *t.cmd*.

t.write(str)

Sends *str* to the server without performing Telnet protocol translation.

CGI

CGI support class

CGI provides useful features to implement Common Gateway Interface (CGI) programs, such as retrieving CGI data from server, manipulating cookies, and generating the HTTP header and the HTML body.

Example

```
require 'cgi'
cgi = CGI::new("html3")
input, = cgi["input"]
if input
  input = CGI::unescape(input)
end
p input
begin
  value = Thread::new{
    $SAFE=4
    eval input
  }.value.inspect
rescue SecurityError
  value = "Sorry, you can't do this"
end
cgi.out {
  cgi.html{
    cgi.head{cgi.title{"Walter's Web Arithmetic Page"} } +
    cgi.body{
      cgi.form("post", "/cgi-bin/arith.rb") {
        "input your favorite expression: " +
        cgi.text_field("input", input) +
        cgi.br +
      }
    }
  }
}
```


Returns an array containing the value of the field name corresponding to *name*.

c.checkbox(name[, value[, check=false]])

c.checkbox(options)

Returns an HTML string defining a checkbox field. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.checkbox_group(name, value . . .)

c.checkbox_group(options)

Returns an HTML string defining a checkbox group. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.file_field(name[, size=20[, max]])

c.file_field(options)

Returns an HTML string defining a file field.

c.form([method="post"[, url]]) { . . . }

c.form(options)

Returns an HTML string defining a form. If a block is specified, the string produced by its output creates the contents of the form. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.cookies

Returns a hash containing a CGI::Cookie object containing keys and values from a cookie.

c.header([header])

Returns a CGI header containing the information in *header*. If *header* is a hash, its key-value pairs are used to create the header.

c.hidden(name[, value])

c.hidden(options)

Returns an HTML string defining a HIDDEN field. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.image_button(url[, name[, alt]])

c.image_button(options)

Returns an HTML string defining an image button. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.keys

Returns an array containing the field names from the form.

c.key?(name)

c.has_key?(name)

c.include?(name)

Returns true if the form contains the specified field name.

c.multipart_form([url[, encode]]) { . . . }

c.multipart_form(options) { . . . }

Returns an HTML string defining a multipart form. If a block is specified, the string produced by its output creates the contents of the form. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.out([header]) { . . . }

Generates HTML output. Uses the string produced by the block's output to create the body of the page.

c.params

Returns a hash containing field names and values from the form.

c.params= hash

Sets field names and values in the form using a hash.

c.password_field(name[, value[, size=40[, max]]])

c.password_field(options)

Returns an HTML string defining a password field. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

c.popup_menu(name, value . . .)

c.popup_menu(options)

```
c.scrolling_list( name, value... )
```

```
c.scrolling_list( options )
```

Returns an HTML string defining a pop-up menu. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

```
c.radio_button( name[, value[, checked=false]] )
```

```
c.radio_button( options )
```

Returns an HTML string defining a radio button. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

```
c.radio_group( name, value... )
```

```
c.radio_group( options )
```

Returns an HTML string defining a radio button group. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

```
c.reset( name[, value] )
```

```
c.reset( options )
```

Returns an HTML string defining a reset button. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

```
c.text_field( name[, value[, size=40[, max]]] )
```

```
c.text_field( options )
```

Returns an HTML string defining a text field. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

```
c.textarea( name[, cols=70[, rows=10]] ) { ... }
```

```
c.textarea( options ) { ... }
```

Returns an HTML string defining a text area. If a block is specified, the string produced by its output creates the contents of the text area. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash passed as an argument.

HTML Generation Methods

In addition to the previous instance methods, each CGI object provides the following methods, which generate HTML tag strings corresponding to the HTML level specified when the CGI object was created. These methods return a string that is produced by adding any specified tags to a body created from the string output of the block. Tag attributes may be specified in a hash that is passed as an argument to each method.

Here are the tags common to html3, html4, html4Tr, and html4Fr:

a	address	area	b	base
big	blockquote	body	br	caption
cite	code	dd	dfn	div
dl	doctype	dt	em	form
h1	h2	h3	h4	h5
h6	head	hr	html	i
img	input	kbd	li	link
map	meta	ol	option	p
param	pre	samp	script	select
small	strong	style	sub	submit
sup	table	td	th	title
tr	tt	ul	var	

Here are the html3 tags:

applet	basefont	center	dir	font
isindex	listing	menu	plaintext	strike
u	xmp			

Here are the html4 tags:

abbr	acronym	bdo	button	col
colgroup	del	fieldset	ins	label
legend	noscript	object	optgroup	q
span	tbody	tfoot	thead	

Here are the html4Tr tags:

abbr	acronym	applet	basefont	bdo
button	center	col	colgroup	del
dir	fieldset	font	iframe	ins
isindex	label	legend	map	menu
noframes	noscript	object	optgroup	q
s	span	strike	tbody	tfoot
thead	u			

Here are the htmlFr tags:

abbr	acronym	applet	basefont	bdo
button	center	col	colgroup	del
dir	fieldset	font	frame	frameset
iframe	ins	isindex	label	legend
menu	noframes	noscript	object	optgroup
q	s	span	strike	tbody
tfoot	thead	u		

Object Attributes

The CGI class has the following accessors:

accept	Acceptable MIME type
accept_charset	Acceptable character set
accept_encoding	Acceptable encoding
accept_language	Acceptable language
auth_type	Authentication type
raw_cookie	Cookie data (raw string)
content_length	Content length
content_type	Content type
From	Client email address
gateway_interface	CGI version string
path_info	Extra path
path_translated	Converted extra path
Query_string	Query string
referer	Previously accessed URL
remote_addr	Client host address
remote_host	Client hostname
remote_ident	Client name
remote_user	Authenticated user
request_method	Request method (GET, POST, etc.)
script_name	Program name
server_name	Server name
server_port	Server port
server_protocol	Server protocol
server_software	Server software
user_agent	User agent

CGI::Cookie

HTTP cookie class

CGI::Cookie represents the HTTP cookie that carries information between HTTP sessions.

Required Library

```
require 'cgi'
```

Object Attributes

The CGI::Cookie class has the following accessors:

c.name	Cookie name
c.value	An array of cookie values
c.path	The cookie's path
c.domain	The domain
c.expires	The expiration time (as a Time object)
c.secure	True if secure cookie

CGI::Session

CGI session class

CGI::Session maintains a persistent session between HTTP accesses. Session information is represented by string to string mapping. Session information can be stored via the user-defined database class.

Required Library

```
require 'cgi/session'
```

Example

```
request 'cgi/session'
cgi = CGI::new("html3")
s = CGI::Session(cgi)
if s["last_modified"]
  # previously saved data
  t = s["last_modified"].to_i
else
  t = Time.now.to_i
  # save data to session database
  s["last_modified"] = t.to_s
end
# ... continues ...
```

Class Methods

CGI::Session::new(*cgi[, option]*)

Starts a new CGI session and returns the corresponding CGI::Session object. *option* may be an option hash specifying one or more of the following:

Key	Function	Default value
session_key	Key name holding the session ID	_session_id
session_id	Unique session ID	Generated automatically
new_session	If true, a new session is created	false
database_manager	Database manager class for storing session data	CGI::Session::FileStore

An option hash can specify options when creating the database manager object. The default database manager class (CGI::Session::FileStore) recognizes the following options:

Key	Function	Default value
tmpdir	Directory for temporary files	/tmp
prefix	Prefix for temporary files	None

Methods for Database Manager

Database manager object should have following methods:

`initialize(session[, options])`

Initializes the database. `session` is a `CGI::Session` object. `options` is an option hash that passed to `CGI::Session::new`

`restore`

Returns the hash that contains session-specific data from the database

`update`

Updates the hash returned by `restore`

`close`

Closes the database

`delete`

Removes the session-specific data from the database

Instance Methods

`s[key]`

Returns the value for the specified session `key`

`s[key]=value`

Sets the value for the specified session `key`

`s.delete`

Deletes the session

`s.update`

Writes session data to the database, calling the `update` method of the database manager object

4.1.2 Operating System Services

A mixed bag of OS services are provided in the Ruby standard library, including curses, filesystem searching and file handling, command-line argument processing, and others.

If you're coming from another scripting language background, these classes will have interfaces you'll find familiar and straightforward access to Unix services. No surprises, here.

Curses

Character-based interface module

The `Curses` module provides an interface to the character-based interface library called `curses`.

Required Library

`require 'curses'`

Module Functions

`addch(ch)`

Outputs one character to the screen

`addstr(str)`

Outputs `str` to the screen

`beep`

Beeps the bell

`cbreak`

Turns on `cbreak` mode

`nocbreak`

turns off `cbreak` mode

`clear`

Clears the screen

`close_screen`

Finalizes the `curses` system

`cols`

Returns the screen width

`crmode`

Alias to the `cbreak`

`nocrmode`

Alias to the `nocbreak`

`delch`

Deletes a character at the cursor position

`deleteln`

Deletes a line at the cursor position

`doupdate`

Updates the screen by queued changes

`echo`

Turns on echo mode

`noecho`

Turns off echo mode

`flash`

Flashes the screen

`getch`

Reads one character from the keyboard

`getstr`

Reads a line of string from the keyboard

`inch`

Reads a character at the cursor position

`init_screen`

Initializes the `curses` system

`insch(ch)`

Outputs one character before the cursor

`lines`

Returns the screen height

`nl`

Turns on newline mode, which translates the return key into newline (\n)

`nonl`

Turns off newline mode

`raw`

Turns on raw mode

`noraw`

Turns off raw mode

`refresh`

Refreshes the screen

`setpos(y, x)`

Moves the cursor to the (y, x) position

`standout`

Turns on `standout` (highlighting) mode

`standend`

Turn off `standout` mode

`stdscr`

Returns the reference to the standard `curses` screen object

`ungetch(ch)`

Pushes `ch` back to input buffer

Curses::Window

Character-based window class

`Curses::Window` is a class for character-based windows implemented by the `curses` library.

Required Library

`require "curses"`

Class Method

`Curses::Window::new(h, w, y, x)`

Creates a new `curses` window of size (h, w) at position (y, x) .

Instance Methods

`w << str`

`w.addstr(str)`

Outputs `str` to the screen.

`w.addch(ch)`

Outputs one character to the screen.

`w.begx`

Returns the window's beginning x position.

`w.begy`

Returns the window's beginning y position.

`w.box(v, h)`

Draws a box around the window. `v` is a character that draws a vertical side. `h` is a character that draws a horizontal side.

`w.clear`

Clears the window.

`w.close`

Closes the window.

`w.curx`

Returns x position of the window's cursor.

`w.cury`

Returns y position of the window's cursor.

`w.delch`

Deletes a character at the window's cursor position.

w.deleteln

Deletes a line at the window's cursor position.

w.getch

Reads one character from the keyboard.

w.getstr

Reads a line of string from the keyboard.

w.inch

Reads a character at the window's cursor position.

w.insch(*ch*)

Outputs one character before the window's cursor.

w maxx

Returns the window's *x* size.

w maxy

Returns the window's *y* size.

w.move(*y*, *x*)

Moves the window to the position (*y*, *x*).

w.refresh

Refreshes the window.

w.setpos(*y*, *x*)

Moves the window's cursor to the position (*y*, *x*).

w.standend

Turns on *standout* (highlighting) mode in the window.

w standout

Turns off *standout* mode in the window.

w.subwin(*h*, *w*, *y*, *x*)

Creates a new *curses* subwindow of size (*h*, *w*) in the window at position (*y*, *x*).

Etc

Module for /etc directory data retrieval

The *Etc* module provides functions to retrieve user account-related data from files under /etc directory. This module is Unix-dependent.

Required Library

require 'etc'

Example

```
require 'etc'
print "you must be ", Etc.getlogin, ".\n"
```

Module Functions

getlogin

Returns login name of the user. If this fails, try *getpwuid*.

getpwnam(*name*)

Searches in /etc/passwd file (or equivalent database), and returns password entry for the user *name*. See *getpwnam(3)* for details. The return value is a *passwd* structure, which includes the following members:

name	Username(string)
------	------------------

passwd	Encrypted password(string)
uid	User ID(integer)
gid	Group ID(integer)
gecos	Gecos field(string)
dir	Home directory(string)
shell	Login shell(string)
change	Password change time(integer)
quota	Quota value(integer)
age	Password age(integer)
class	User access class(string)
comment	Comment(string)
expire	Account expiration time(integer)

`getpwuid([uid])`

Returns `passwd` entry for the specified `uid`. If `uid` is omitted, uses the value from `getuid`. See `getpwuid(3)` for details.

`getgrgid(gid)`

Searches in `/etc/group` file (or equivalent database), and returns group entry for the `gid`. See `getgrgid(3)` for detail.

The return value is a group structure, which includes the following members:

name	Group name(string)
passwd	Group password(string)
gid	Group ID(integer)
mem	Array of the group member names

`getgrnam(name)`

Returns the group entry for the specified `name`. The return value is the group structure. See `getgrnam(3)` for details.

`group`

Iterates over all `group` entries.

`passwd`

Iterates over all `passwd` entries.

Fcntl

Fcntl constant module

The `Fcntl` module provides constant definitions for `IO#fcntl`.

Required Library

`require 'fcntl'`

Constants

F_DUPFD	Duplicates file descriptor
F_GETFD	Reads the close-on-exec flag
F_SETFD	Sets the close-on-exec flags
F_GETFL	Reads the descriptor's flags
F_SETFL	Gets the descriptor's flags (<code>O_APPEND</code> , <code>O_NONBLOCK</code> , or <code>O_ASYNC</code>)
F_GETLK	Gets the flock structure
F_SETLK	Gets lock according to the lock structure (nonblocking)
F_SETLKW	Sets lock like <code>F_SETLK</code> (blocking)
F_RDLCK	Reads lock flag for flock structure
F_WRLCK	Writes lock flag for flock structure
F_UNLCK	Unlocks flag for flock structure
FD_CLOEXEC	Close-on-exec flag

O_CREAT	Creates file if it doesn't exist
O_EXCL	File shouldn't exist before creation
O_TRUNC	Truncates to <i>length</i> 0
O_APPEND	Appends mode
O_NONBLOCK	Nonblocking mode
O_NDELAY	Nonblocking mode
O_RDONLY	Read-only mode
O_RDWR	Read-write mode
O_WRONLY	Write-only mode

Find

Directory tree traversal module

The Find module provides a depth-first directory traversal.

Required Library

```
require 'etc'
```

Example

```
require 'find'
# prints all files with ".c" extension.
Find.find(".") { |f|
  puts f if /\.c$/ =~ f
}
```

Module Functions

`find(path...) {|f| ...}`

Traverses directory tree giving each filename to the block

`prune`

Terminates traversal down from the current directory

ftools

File utility library

ftools is a library that enhances file handling utility class methods of the File class.

Required Library

```
require 'ftools'
```

Class Methods

`File::chmod(mode, files..., verbose=false)`

ftools enhances File::chmod to take verbose arguments. If the last argument is true, prints log to stderr.

`File::cmp(path1, path2 [, verbose=false])`

`File::compare(path1, path2 [, verbose=false])`

Compares two files and returns true if they have identical contents. If verbose is true, prints log to stderr.

`File::cp(path1, path2 [, verbose=false])`

`File::copy(path1, path2 [, verbose=false])`

Copies a file at *path1* to *path2*. If verbose is true, prints operation log to stderr.

`File::install(path1, path2 [, mode [, verbose=false]])`

Copies a file at *path1* to *path2*. If *mode* is supplied, its file permission is set to *mode*. If file at *path2* exists, it's removed

before copying. If `verbose` is `true`, prints operation log to `stderr`.

`File::makedirs(path..., [verbose=false])`

`File::mkpath(path..., [verbose=false])`

Creates the specified directories. If any parent directories in `path` don't exist, it creates them as well. If the last argument is `true`, prints operation log to `stderr`.

`File::move(path1, path2[, verbose=false])`

`File::mv(path1, path2[, verbose=false])`

Moves file from `path1` to `path2`. If the last argument is `true`, prints operation log to `stderr`.

`File::rm_f(path..., [verbose=false])`

`File::safe_unlink(path..., [verbose=false])`

Removes files regardless of file-permission mode. If the last argument is `true`, prints operation log to `stderr`.

`File::syscopy(path1, path2)`

Copies a file from `path1` to `path2` using `IO#sysread` and `IO#syswrite`. `syscopy` copies permissions of the file as well.

GetoptLong

Command line option parser

The `GetoptLong` class parses command-line option arguments in a way similar to GNU `getoptlong` library.

Required Library

`require 'gettextfile'`

Example

```
require 'getoptlong'
opt = GetoptLong.new(
  [ '--max-size', '-m', GetoptLong::REQUIRED_ARGUMENT ],
  [ '--quiet',     '-q', GetoptLong::NO_ARGUMENT ],
  [ '--help',       GetoptLong::NO_ARGUMENT ],
  [ '--version',    GetoptLong::NO_ARGUMENT ])
opt.each_option do |name,arg|
  case name
  when '--max-size'
    printf "max-size is %d\n", arg
  when '--quiet'
    print "be quiet!\n"
  when '--help'
    print "help message here\n"
    exit
  when '--version'
    print "version 0.1\n"
    exit
  end
end
```

Inherited Class

`Object`

Class Method

`GetoptLong::new(option...)`

Creates and returns a `GetoptLong` object. If `options` are given, they are passed to the `set_options` method.

Instance Methods

opt.each {|*optname*, *optarg*| ... }

opt.each_option {|*optname*, *optarg*| ... }

Iterates over each command-line option. Option name and value are passed to the block.

opt.get

opt.get_option

Retrieves an option from command-line arguments, and returns the name-value pair of option.

opt.error

opt.error?

Returns type of the current error or `nil` if no error occurs.

opt.error_message

Returns an error message of the current error or `nil` if no error occurs.

opt.ordering= *ordering*

Sets option ordering. *ordering* is any of `PERMUTE`, `REQUIRE_ORDER`, or `RETURN_IN_ORDER`.

opt.ordering

Returns current ordering.

opt.quiet= *bool*

Sets status of quiet mode. In quiet mode, option parser doesn't output error messages to `stdout` on errors. The default value is `false`.

opt.quiet

opt.quiet?

Returns current status of quiet mode.

opt.set_options(*option*...)

Sets command-line options that your program accepts, specified by arrays of option names and option type constants.

Option type is any of `NO_ARGUMENT`, `REQUIRED_ARGUMENT`, or `OPTIONAL_ARGUMENT`. You have to call `set_options` before invoking `get`, `get_option`, `each`, or `each_option`.

opt.terminate

Terminates option processing. Raises `RuntimeError` exception if any errors occur before termination.

opt.terminated?

Returns `true` if option processing is finished without causing errors, otherwise returns `false`.

Constants

Ordering specifiers

`PERMUTE`

`REQUIRE_ORDER`

`RETURN_IN_ORDER`

Argument type specifiers

`NO_ARGUMENT`

`REQUIRED_ARGUMENT`

`OPTIONAL_ARGUMENT`

PTY

Pseudo TTY access module

The PTY module executes commands as if their standard I/O is connected to `ttys`.

Required Library

```
require "pty"
```

Module Functions

```
getpty( command)
spawn( command)
```

Reserves a PTY, executes *command* over the PTY, and returns an array of three elements (reading I/O, writing I/O, and the PID of the child process). With a block, the array is passed to the block as block parameters. SIGCHLD is captured while *command* is running.

```
protect_signal { . . . }
```

Protects block execution from SIGCHLD signal exception. This is required to invoke other subprocesses while using any PTY.

```
reset_signal
```

Disables to handle SIGCHLD while PTY subprocess is active.

Readline

GNU readline library interface

The Readline module provides a interface to the GNU line editing library named readline.

Required Library

```
require 'readline'
```

Example

```
require 'readline'
include Readline
line = readline("Prompt> ", true)
```

Module Function

```
readline(prompt, add_history)
```

Reads one line with line editing. If the add is true, the line is also added to the history.

Module Methods

```
Readline::completion_proc= proc
```

Specifies Proc object to determine completion behavior. Takes input string, and returns completion candidates.

```
Readline::completion_proc
```

Returns the completion Proc object.

```
Readline::completion_case_fold=bo ol
```

Sets whether or not to ignore case on completion.

```
Readline::completion_case_fold
```

Returns true if completion ignores case.

```
Readline::completion_append_character= char
```

Specifies a character to be appended on completion. If empty string ("") or nil is specified, nothing is appended.

```
Readline::completion_append_character
```

Returns a string containing a character to be appended on completion. Default is a space.

```
Readline::vi_editing_mode
```

Specifies vi editing mode.

```
Readline::emacs_editing_mode
```

Specifies Emacs editing mode.

Constant

HISTORY

The history buffer; it behaves just like an array.

Tempfile

Temporary file class

Temporary files are always deleted when garbage collection is activated, and Ruby terminates.

Required Library

`require 'tempfile'`

Example

```
require 'tempfile'
f = Tempfile.new("foo")
f.print("foo\n")
f.close
f.open
p f.gets      # => "foo\n"
f.close(true) # f will be automatically removed
```

Class Method

`Tempfile::new(basename[, tmpdir="/tmp"])`

Opens a temporary file that includes *basename* as part of the filename in w+ mode.

Instance Methods

`t.open`

Reopens the temporary file, allowing its contents to be read from the beginning of the file.

`t.close([permanently=false])`

Closes the temporary file. If *permanently* is true, the file is also deleted.

`t.path`

Returns the path of the temporary file.

In addition to the previous methods, objects of class `Tempfile` also possess all instance methods of class `File`.

Win32API

Microsoft Windows API access class

Win32API represents functions in Windows DLLs.

Required Library

`require 'Win32API'`

`require 'Win32API'`
`getch = Win32API.new("crt.dll", "_getch", [], 'L')`
`puts getch.Call.chr`

Class Method

`Win32API::new(dll, proc, import, export)`

Returns the object representing the Win32API function specified by *proc* name in *dll*, which has the signature specified by

import and *export*. *import* is an array of strings denoting types. *export* is a type specifying string. Type string is any of the following:

"n"	Number
"T"	Number
"i"	Integer
"p"	Pointer
"v"	Void (export only)

Type strings are case-insensitive.

Instance Methods

`call([arg...])`
`Call([arg...])`

Invokes the Win32API function. Arguments must conform the signature specified by `Win32API::new`.

4.1.3 Threads

Threading classes in the Ruby standard library extend and enhance the built-in library support for parallel programming with support for condition variables, monitors and mutexes, queues and a handy-dandy thread termination watcher class.

ConditionVariable	<i>Synchronization condition variable class</i>
--------------------------	---

This class represents condition variables for synchronization between threads.

Required Library

`require 'thread'`

Class Method

`ConditionVariable::new`

Creates a `ConditionVariable` object

Instance Methods

`c.broadcast`

Wakes up all waiting queued threads

`c.signal`

Wakes up the next thread in the queue

`c.wait(mutex)`

Waits on condition variable

Monitor

Exclusive monitor section class

This class represents exclusive sections between threads.

Required Library

```
require 'monitor'
```

Included Module

MonitorMixin

Class Method

Monitor::new

Creates a Monitor object

Instance Methods

m.enter

Enters exclusive section.

m.exit

Leaves exclusive section.

m.owner

Returns the thread that owns the monitor.

m.synchronize{ ... }

Enters exclusive section and executes the block. Leaves the exclusive section automatically when the block exits.

m.try_enter

Attempts to enter exclusive section. Returns `false` if lock fails.

MonitorMixin

Exclusive monitor section mix-in module

Adds monitor functionality to an arbitrary object by mixing the modules with `include`.

Required Library

```
require 'monitor'
```

Instance Methods

m.mon_enter

Enters exclusive section.

m.mon_exit

Leaves exclusive section.

m.mon_owner

Returns the thread that owns the monitor.

m.mon_synchronize{ ... }

Enters exclusive section and executes the block. Leaves the exclusive section automatically when the block exits.

m.try_mon_enter

Attempts to enter exclusive section. Returns `false` if lock fails.

Mutex

Mutual exclusion class

This class represents mutually exclusive locks.

Required Library

```
require 'thread'
```

Class Method

Mutex::new

Creates a Mutex object

Instance Methods

m.lock

Locks the Mutex object *m*.

m.locked?

Returns true if *m* is locked.

m.synchronize { ... }

Locks *m* and runs the block, then releases the lock when the block exits.

m.try_lock

Attempts to lock *m*. Returns false if lock fails.

m.unlock

Releases lock on *m*.

Queue

Message queue class

This class provides the way to communicate data between threads.

Required Library

```
require 'thread'
```

Class Method

Queue::new

Creates a queue object

Instance Methods

q.empty?

Returns true if the queue is empty.

q.num_waiting

Returns the number of threads waiting on the queue.

q.pop([non_block=false])

Retrieves data from the queue. If the queue is empty, the calling thread is suspended until data is pushed onto the queue. If *non_block* is true, the thread isn't suspended, and an exception is raised.

q.push(obj)

q.enq(obj)

Pushes *obj* to the queue.

q.size

q.length

Returns the length of the queue.

SizedQueue

Fixed-length queue class

This class represents queues of specified size capacity. The push operation may be blocked if the capacity is full.

Required Library

require 'thread'

Inherited Class

Queue

Class Method

SizedQueue::new(*max*)

Creates a fixed-length queue with a maximum size of *max*

Instance Methods

q.max

Returns the maximum size of the queue

q.max= *n*

Sets the maximum length of the queue

ThreadsWait

Thread termination watcher class

This class watches termination of multiple threads.

Required Library

require 'thwait'

Class Methods

ThreadsWait::all_waits(*th*, ...)

ThreadsWait::all_waits(*th*...) { ... }

Waits until all specified threads are terminated. If a block is supplied for the method, evaluates it for each thread termination.

ThreadsWait.new(*th*...)

Creates a ThreadsWait object, specifying threads to wait.

Instance Methods

th.threads

Lists threads to be synchronized

th.empty?

Returns true if there is no thread to be synchronized.

th.finished?

Returns true if there is any terminated thread.

th.join(*th*...)

Waits for specified threads.

th.join_nowait(*th*...)

Specifies threads to wait; non-blocking.

th.next_wait

Waits until any specified thread is terminated.

th.all_waits

```
th.all_waits{ . . . }
```

Waits until all specified threads are terminated. If a block is supplied for the method, evaluates it for each thread termination.

4.1.4 Data Persistence

These libraries provide interfaces or hooks into databases via various implementations (OS, GNU, and public domain).

Ruby lets you store and retrieve "live" data and objects in the filesystem with tools you're probably used through the DBM, GDBM, SDBM, and PStore classes.

DBM

DBM class

DBM implements a database with the same interface as a hash. Keys and values are limited to strings. Uses ndbm library included in operating systems.

Required Library

```
require 'dbm'
```

Included Module

```
Enumerable
```

Class Methods

```
DBM::open( path[, mode=0666] )
```

```
DBM::new( path[, mode=0666] )
```

Opens a new DBM database. Access rights to the database are specified in *mode* as an integer.

Instance Methods

The DBM class has all the methods of the Hash class except for *default*, *default=*, *dup*, and *rehash*. DBM also has the *close* method, which isn't in Hash.

```
d.close
```

Closes DBM database

GDBM

GDBM class

GNU implementation of DBM. Has the same interface as DBM.

Required Library

```
require 'gdbm'
```

Instance Methods

In addition to methods from the DBM class, the GDBM class has the *reorganize* method.

```
d.reorganize
```

Reconfigures the database; shouldn't be used with great frequency

SDBM

SDBM class

Public domain implementation of DBM. Has the same interface as DBM. Runs almost anywhere but has inferior performance and data-size limitations compared to other DBMs.

Required Library

```
require 'sdbm'
```

PStore

Simple object-oriented database class

PStore is a simple object-oriented database class that provides almost arbitrary data persistence (using Marshal) and transaction.

Required Library

```
require 'pstore'
```

Class Method

PStore::new(*path*)

Creates a database object. Data is stored in a file specified by *path*.

Instance Methods

p.transaction {| *ps* | . . . }

Starts a transaction (a series of database operations). Access to the contents of the database can be achieved only through this transaction method.

p[*name*]

Retrieves an object stored in the database under the key name.

p[*name*]=*obj*

Stores *obj* in the database under the key name. When the transaction is completed, all objects accessed reflexively by *obj* (see Marshal in [Section 3.4](#)) are saved in a file.

p.root?(*name*)

Returns true if the key name exists in the database.

p.commit

Completes the transaction. When this method is called, the block passed to the transaction method is executed, and changes to the database are written to the database file.

p.abort

Aborts the transaction. When this method is called, the execution of the block passed to the transaction method is terminated, and changes made to database objects during the transaction aren't written to the database file.

4.1.5 Numbers

These libraries let you handle numeric calculations using advanced numbers such as Complex, Rational, and Matrix.

Complex

Complex number class

When this library is loaded with require, the ability of the Math module is expanded to handle complex numbers.

Required Library

```
require 'complex'
```

Inherited Class

Numeric

Class Methods

Complex(*x* [, *i*=0])

Complex::new(*x* [, *i*=0])

Creates a complex number object. The former is recommended.

Instance Methods

c.abs

Returns the absolute value of the complex number *c*.

c.abs2

Returns the square of the absolute value of the complex number *c*.

c.arg

Returns the argument of the complex number *c*.

c.conjugate

Returns the conjugate of the complex number *c*.

c.image

Returns the imaginary part of the complex number *c*. The Complex library adds the image method to the Numeric class.

c.polar

Returns the array arr [*c.abs*, *c.arg*].

c.real

Returns the real part of the complex number *c*. The Complex library adds the real method to the Numeric class.

Rational

Rational number class

When this library is loaded with require, the `**` operator method of the Integer class can handle rational numbers, and the following methods are added to the Integer class:

to_r

Converts a number to a rational number

lcm

Returns the least common multiple

gcd

Returns the greatest common divisor

Required Library

require 'rational'

Inherited Class

Numeric

Class Methods

Rational(*a*, *b*)

Rational::new(*a*, *b*)

Creates a rational number object. The former, Rational(*a*, *b*), is recommended.

Matrix

Matrix class

Required Library

require 'matrix'

Class Methods

`Matrix::[row...]`

Creates a matrix where *row* indicates each row of the matrix.

`Matrix[[11, 12], [21, 22]]`

`Matrix::identity(n)`

`Matrix::unit(n)`

`Matrix::I(n)`

Creates an *n*-by-*n* unit matrix.

`Matrix::columns(columns)`

Creates a new matrix using *columns* as sets of column vectors.

`Matrix::columns([[11, 12], [21, 22]]) # => Matrix[[11, 21], [12, 22]]`

`Matrix::column_vector(column)`

Creates a 1-by-*n* matrix such that column vector is *column*.

`Matrix::diagonal(value...)`

Creates a matrix where diagonal components are specified by *value*.

`Matrix.diagonal(11, 22, 33) # => Matrix[[11, 0, 0], [0, 22, 0], [0, 0, 33]]`

`Matrix::rows(rows[, copy=true])`

Creates a matrix where *rows* is an array of arrays that indicates rows of the matrix. If the optional argument *copy* is `false`, use the given arrays as the internal structure of the matrix without copying.

`Matrix::rows([[11, 12], [21, 22]])`

`Matrix::row_vector(row)`

Creates an 1-by-*n* matrix such that the row vector is *row*.

`Matrix::scalar(n, value)`

Creates an *n*-by-*n* diagonal matrix such that the diagonal components are given by *value*.

`Matrix::scalar(3,81) # => Matrix[[81,0,0],[0,81,0],[0,0,81]]
p ParseDate::parsedate("Fri Aug 3 17:16:57 JST 2001")
=> [2001, 8, 3, 17, 16, 57, "JST", 5]
p ParseDate::parsedate("1993-02-24")
=> [1993, 2, 24, nil, nil, nil, nil]`

`Matrix::zero(n)`

Creates an *n*-by-*n* zero matrix.

Instance Methods

`m[i, j]`

Returns (*i*, *j*) component.

`m * mtx`

Multiplication.

`m + mtx`

Addition.

`m - mtx`

Subtraction.

`m / mtx`

Returns *m* * *mtx*.inv.

`m ** n`

Power of *n* over matrix.

`m.collect{ ... }`

`m.map{ ... }`

Creates a matrix that is the result of iteration of the given block over all components of the matrix m .

`m.column(j)`

Returns the j -th column vector of the matrix m . When the block is supplied for the method, the block is iterated over all column vectors.

`m.column_size`

Returns the number of columns.

`m.column_vectors`

Returns array of column vectors of the matrix m .

`m.determinant`

`m.det`

Returns the determinant of the matrix m .

`m.inverse`

`m.inv`

Returns an inversed matrix of the matrix m .

`m.minor($from_row$, row_size , $from_col$, col_size)`

`m.minor($from_row..to_row$, $from_col..to_col$)`

Returns submatrix of the matrix m .

`m.rank`

Returns the rank of the matrix m .

`m.row(i)`

`m.row(i) { ... }`

Returns the i -th row vector of the matrix m . When the block is supplied for the method, the block is iterated over all row vectors.

`m.row_size`

Returns the number of rows.

`m.row_vectors`

Returns an array of row vectors of the matrix m .

`m.regular?`

Returns `true` if m is a regular matrix.

`m.singular?`

Returns `true` if m is a singular (i.e., nonregular) matrix.

`m.square?`

Returns `true` if m is a square matrix.

`m.trace`

`m.tr`

Returns the trace of the matrix m .

`m.transpose`

`m.t`

Returns the transpose of the matrix m .

4.1.6 Design Patterns

Design patterns are a terrific way to get your job done without reinventing the wheel. Ruby provides support in the standard library for a small number of commonly used design patterns. This group of libraries provides advanced object-oriented programming techniques for delegators, forwardables, singletons, and observers.

Delegator

Delegator pattern superclass

Delegator is an abstract class for the Delegator design pattern. Delegation is actually achieved by creating a subclass of the Delegator class.

Required Library

```
require 'delegate'
```

Class Method

Delegator::new(*obj*)

Creates a delegate object to which methods of *obj* are forwarded.

Instance Method

__getobj__

Returns the object to which methods are forwarded. Needs to be redefined in the subclass.

SimpleDelegator

Simple concrete Delegator pattern class

This class allows for easy implementation of the Delegator design pattern.

Required Library

```
require 'delegate'
```

Inherited Class

Delegator

Class Method

SimpleDelegator::new(*obj*)

Creates an object that forwards methods to *obj*

Instance Method

__setobj__

Sets the object to which methods are forwarded

DelegatorClass

Class creation function for Delegator patterns

This function dynamically creates a class that delegates to other fixed classes.

Required Library

```
require 'delegate'
```

Function

DelegateClass(*c*)

Creates a new class to which the methods of class *c* are forwarded

Method of Generated Class

D::new(obj)

Creates a delegate object with *obj* as the object to which methods are forwarded

Forwardable

Module to add selected method delegations to a class

The Forwardable module provides more explicit method delegation. You can specify method name and destination object explicitly.

Required Library

```
require "forwardable"
```

Example

```
class Foo
  extend Forwardable
  # ...
  def_delegators("@out", "printf", "print")
  def_delegators(:@in, :gets)
  def_delegator(:@contents, [], "content_at")
end
f = Foo.new
f.printf("hello world\n")    # forward to @out.printf
f.gets                      # forward to @in.gets
f.content_at(1)              # forward to @contents[]
```

Instance Methods

```
f.def_delegator( accessor, method[, alt=method])
```

```
f.def_instance_delegator( accessor, method[, alt=method])
```

Defines delegation from *method* to *accessor*. If *alt* is specified, *alt* method is called instead of *method*.

```
f.def_delegators( accessor, method...)
```

```
f.def_instance_delegators( accessor, method...)
```

Defines delegation to *accessor* for each *method*.

SingleForwardable

Selective delegation module

The SingleForwardable module provides more explicit method delegation for a specific object.

Required Library

```
require 'forwardable'
```

Example

```
require 'forwardable'
# ...
g = Goo.new
g.extend SingleForwardable
g.def_delegator("@out", :puts)
g.puts("hello world")           # forward to @out.puts
```

Instance Methods

```
f.def_singleton_delegator( accessor, method[, alt=method])
```

```
f.def_delegator( accessor, method[, alt=method])
```

Defines delegation from *method* to *accessor*. If *alt* is specified, *alt* method is called instead of *method*.

```
f.def_singleton_delegators( accessor, method...)
```

```
f.def_delegators( accessor, method... )
```

Defines delegation to *accessor* for each *method*.

Singleton

Singleton pattern module

The Singleton module allows the implementation of the Singleton design pattern. By including the module, you can ensure that only one instance of a class is created.

Required Library

```
require 'singleton'
```

Class Method

instance

Returns the only instance of the class. If an instance has already been created, it's reused. `instance` is a class method added to classes that include the Singleton module.

Observable

Observable pattern module

The Observable module allows the implementation of the Observer design pattern. Classes that include this module can notify multiple observers of changes in self. Any object can become an observer as long as it has the update method.

Required Library

```
require 'observer'
```

Instance Methods

`o.add_observer(obj)`

Adds observer *obj* as an observer of *o*.

`o.count_observers`

Returns the number of observers of *o*.

`o.changed([state=true])`

Sets the changed state of *o*.

`o.changed?`

Returns `true` if *o* has been changed.

`o.delete_observer(obj)`

Removes observer *obj* as an observer of *o*.

`o.delete_observers`

Removes all observers of *o*.

`o.notify_observers([arg...])`

If *o*'s changed state is `true`, invokes the `update` method of each observer, passing it the specified arguments.

4.1.7 Miscellaneous Libraries

It almost goes without saying, but there's always a bunch of stuff that doesn't quite fit into any category. Ruby's standard library is no exception. This group of libraries includes anything that isn't in one of the preceding groups.

In Ruby's standard library, you'll find classes providing abstractions for date manipulation, timeouts on long operations, and MD5 and SHA1 message digests.

Date

Date class

Date is a class to represent the calendar date. Date is based on the Julian day number, which is the number of days since midday, January 1st 4713 BC.

Currently we use the Gregorian calendar, but the Julian calendar was used prior to that time (before 1752 in England, for example). The calendar shift date is different in each country. Date class can handle both calendars and arbitrary shift dates.

There's no relation between Julian day number and Julian calendar; it's just coincidence.

Required Library

```
require 'date'
```

Example

```
require 'date'  
# 3000 days after Ruby was born  
puts Date::new(1993,2,24)+3000, "\n" # 2001-05-13
```

Included Module

Comparable

Class Methods

Date::exist?(*year*, *month*, *day*[, *start*])

Date::exist3?(*year*, *month*, *day*[, *start*])

Returns the Julian day number corresponding to the specified *year*, *month*, and *day* of year, if they are correct. If they aren't correct, returns nil.

Date::exist2?(*year*, *yday*[, *start*])

Returns the Julian day number corresponding to the specified *year* and *day* of year, if they are correct. If they aren't correct, returns nil.

Date::existw?(*year*, *week*, *wday*[, *start*])

Returns the Julian day number corresponding to the specified calendar week-based *year*, calendar *week*, and calendar *weekday*, if they are correct. If they aren't correct, returns nil.

Date::new(*year*, *month*, *day*[, *start*])

Date::new3(*year*, *month*, *day*[, *start*])

Creates a Date object corresponding to the specified *year*, *month*, and *day* of the month.

Date::new1(*jd*[, *start*])

Creates a Date object corresponding to the specified Julian day number.

Date::new2(*year*, *yday*[, *start*])

Creates a Date object corresponding to the specified *year* and day of the year.

Date::neww(*year*, *week*, *wday*[, *start*])

Creates a Date object corresponding to the specified calendar week-based *year*, calendar *week*, and calendar *weekday*.

Date::today([*start*])

Creates a Date object corresponding to today's date.

Instance Methods

d << *n*

Returns a Date object that is *n* months earlier than *d*.

d >> *n*

Returns a Date object that is *n* months later than *d*.

d <=> *x*

Compares dates. *x* may be a Date object or an integer (Julian day number).

d + *n*

Returns a Date object that is *n* days later than *d*.

d - *x*

Returns the difference in terms of days if *x* is another Date object. If *x* is an integer, returns a Date object that is *x* days earlier than *d*.

d.cwday

Returns the calendar weekday (1-7, Monday being 1) for *d*.

d.cweek

Returns the calendar week (1-53) for *d*.

d.cyear

Returns the calendar week-based year for *d*.

d.day

d.mday

Returns the day of the month (1-31) for *d*.

d.downto(*min*) { | date| ... }

Runs block on dates ranging from *d* down to *min*. Equivalent to *d*.step(*min* , -1) { | date| ... }.

d.jd

Returns the Julian day number for *d*.

d.leap?

Returns true if *d* is a leap year.

d.mjd

Returns the modified Julian day number for *d*. Modified Julian day number is the number of days since midnight November 17, 1858.

d.mon

d.month

Returns the month (1-12) for *d*.

d.newsg([*start*])

Copies *d* to a new Date object and returns it after converting its cutover date to *start*.

d.next

d.succ

Returns a new Date object one day later than *d*.

d.sg

Returns the Julian day number of the start of Gregorian dates for *d*.

d.step(*limit* , *step*) { | date| ... }

Runs block on Date objects from *d* to *limit* incrementing *step* number of days each time.

d.upto(*max*) { | date| ... }

Runs block on dates ranging from *d* up to *max*. Equivalent to *d*.step(*max* , 1) { | date| ... }.

d.wday

Returns the day of the week for *d* (0-6, Sunday being 0).

d.yday

Returns the day of the year for *d* (1-366).

d.year

Returns the year for *d*.

Constants

MONTH NAMES

An array of the names of the months of the year

DAY NAMES

An array of the names of the days of the week (Sunday being the first element)

ITALY

Gregorian calendar start day number in Italy

ENGLAND

Gregorian calendar start day number in England

JULIAN

Start specifier for Julian calendar

GREGORIAN

Start specifier for Gregorian calendar

ParseDate

Date representation parser module

The ParseDate module parses strings that represent calendar dates in various formats.

Required Library

require 'parsedate'

Module Function

`parsedate(str[, cyear=false])`

Parses a date and/or time expression within `str` and returns the parsed elements (year, month, day, hour, minute, second, time zone, and day of the week) as an array. Sunday is represented as 0 in the day-of-the-week element. `nil` is returned for elements that can't be parsed or have no corresponding string representation. If `cyear` is `true`, years with a value of 68 or less are interpreted as being in the 2000s and years ranging from 69 to 99 are interpreted as being in the 1900s. In summary, beware of the Y2K69 problem!

timeout

Time out a lengthy procedure

Times out a lengthy procedure or those that continue execution beyond a set duration.

Required Library

require 'timeout'

Function

`timeout(sec) { . . . }`

Executes the block and returns `true` if the block execution terminates successfully prior to elapsing of the timeout period, otherwise immediately terminates execution of the block and raises a `TimeoutError` exception.

```
require 'timeout'
status = timeout(5) {
  # something that may take time
}
```

MD5

MD5 message digest class

The MD5 class provides a one-way hash function from arbitrary text data by using the algorithm described in RFC-1321

Example

```
requires 'md5'  
md5 = MD5::new("matz")  
puts md5.hexdigest # prints: 3eb50a8d683006fdf941b9860798f9aa
```

Class Methods

```
MD5::new([str])  
MD5::md5([str])
```

Creates a new MD5 object. If a string argument is given, it's added to the object.

Instance Methods

```
md.clone
```

Copies the MD5 object.

```
md.digest
```

Returns the MD5 hash of the added strings as a string of 16 bytes.

```
md.hexdigest
```

Returns the MD5 hash of the added strings as a string of 32 hexadecimal digits.

```
md.update(str)
```

```
md << str
```

Updates the MD5 object with the string *str*. Repeated calls are equivalent to a single call with the concatenation of all the arguments, i.e., *m.update(a); m.update(b)* is equivalent to *m.update(a+b)*, and *m << a << b* is equivalent to *m << a+b*.

SHA1

SHA1 message digest class

The SHA1 class provides a one-way hash function from arbitrary text data.

Class Methods

```
SHA1::new([str])  
SHA1::sha1([str])
```

Creates a new SHA1 object. If a string argument is given, it's added to the object.

Instance Methods

```
sh.clone
```

Copies the SHA1 object.

```
sh.digest
```

Returns the SHA1 hash of the added strings as a string of 16 bytes.

```
sh.hexdigest
```

Returns the SHA1 hash of the added strings as a string of 32 hexadecimal digits.

```
sh.update(str)
```

```
sh << str
```

Updates the SHA1 object with the string *str*. Repeated calls are equivalent to a single call with the concatenation of all the arguments, i.e., *m.update(a); m.update(b)* is equivalent to *m.update(a+b)*, and *m << a << b* is equivalent to *m << a+b*.

Chapter 5. Ruby Tools

As a matter of course in Ruby, you edit your Ruby program and then feed it to the interpreter. Theoretically, the editor and interpreter are all you need to program Ruby. But you can get help from other tools. In this chapter, you will find descriptions of tools to help Ruby programmers.

5.1 Standard Tools

The standard Ruby distribution contains useful tools along with the interpreter and standard libraries: debugger, profiler, `irb` (which is interactive ruby), and ruby-mode for Emacs. These tools help you debug and improve your Ruby programs.

5.1.1 Debugger

It doesn't matter how easy a language is to use, it usually contains some bugs if it is more than a few lines long. To help deal with bugs, the standard distribution of Ruby includes a debugger. In order to start the Ruby debugger, load the debug library using the command-line option `-r debug`. The debugger stops before the first line of executable code and asks for the input of user commands.

Here are the debugger commands:

`b[reak] [<file|class>:]<line|method>`

Sets breakpoints

`wat[ch] expression`

Sets watchpoints

`b[reak]`

Displays breakpoints and watchpoints

`del[ete] [n]`

Deletes breakpoints

`disp[lay] expression`

Displays value of *expression*

`undisp[lay] [n]`

Removes display of *n*

`c[ont]`

Continues execution

`s[tep] [n]`

Executes next *n* lines stepping into methods

`n[ext] [n]`

Executes next *n* lines stepping over methods

`w[here]`

Displays stack frame

`f[rame]`

Synonym for where

`l[ist][<-| n- m>]`

Displays source lines from *n* to *m*

`up [n]`

Moves up *n* levels in the stack frame

`down [n]`

Moves down *n* levels in the stack frame
fin[ish]

Finishes execution of the current method
tr[ace] [on|off]

Toggles trace mode on and off
q[uit]

Exits debugger
v[ar] g[lobal]

Displays global variables
v[ar] l[ocal]

Displays local variables
v[ar] i[nstance] *object*

Displays instance variables of *object*
v[ar] c[onst] *object*

Displays constants of object
m[ethod] i[nstance] *object*

Displays instance methods of *object*
m[ethod] *class|module*

Displays instance methods of the *class* or *module*
th[read] l[ist]

Displays threads
th[read] c[ur[rent]]

Displays current thread
th[read] *n*

Stops specified thread
th[read] stop *n>*

Synonym for th[read] *n*
th[read] c[ur[rent]] *n>*

Synonym for th[read] *n*
th[read] resume *n>*

Resumes thread *n*
p *expression*

Evaluates the *expression*
h[elp]

Displays help message
<everything else>

Evaluates the expression

The following is a sample session that shows the debugger's output when it executes the Sieves of Eratosthenes program (a famous algorithm to calculate prime numbers). The interface is designed similarly to that of gdb.

```
% ruby -r debug sieve.rb 100
Debug.rb
Emacs support available.
sieve.rb:2:max = Integer(ARGV.shift || 100)
(rdb:1) list
[-3, 6] in sieve.rb
 1
=> 2  max = Integer(ARGV.shift || 100)
 3  sieve = []
 4  for i in 2 .. max
 5    sieve[i] = i
 6  end
(rdb:1) list
[7, 16] in sieve.rb
 7
 8  for i in 2 .. Math.sqrt(max)
 9    next unless sieve[i]
10    (i*i).step(max, i) do |j|
11      sieve[j] = nil
12    end
13  end
14  puts sieve.compact.join ", "
(rdb:1) b 8
Set breakpoint 1 at sieve.rb:8
(rdb:1) c
Breakpoint 1, toplevel at sieve.rb:8
sieve.rb:8:for i in 2 .. Math.sqrt(max)
(rdb:1) p sieve
[nil, nil, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18,
19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36,
37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54,
55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72,
73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90,
91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100]
(rdb:1) del 1
(rdb:1) b 14
Set breakpoint 2 at sieve.rb:14
(rdb:1) c
Breakpoint 2, toplevel at sieve.rb:14
sieve.rb:14:puts sieve.compact.join ", "
(rdb:1) p sieve
[nil, nil, 2, 3, nil, 5, nil, 7, nil, nil, nil, 11, nil, 13, nil, nil,
nil, 17, nil, 19, nil, nil, nil, 23, nil, nil, nil, nil, nil, 29, nil,
31, nil, nil, nil, nil, 37, nil, nil, nil, 41, nil, 43, nil, nil,
nil, 47, nil, nil, nil, nil, 53, nil, nil, nil, nil, nil, 59, nil,
61, nil, nil, nil, nil, 67, nil, nil, nil, 71, nil, 73, nil, nil,
nil, nil, nil, 79, nil, nil, nil, 83, nil, nil, nil, nil, 89, nil,
```

```

nil, nil, nil, nil, nil, nil, 97, nil, nil, nil]
(rdb:1) sieve.compact
[2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67,
71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97]
(rdb:1) c
2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67,
71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97

```

5.1.2 Profiler

In most cases, you can improve the performance of a slow program by removing the bottleneck. The *profiler* is a tool that finds the bottleneck. In order to add profiling to your Ruby program, you need to first load the `Profile` library using the command-line option `-r profile`. Here is the sample output from profiled execution. You can tell `Object#fact` method is a bottleneck.

```

% ruby -r profile sample/fact.rb 100
9332621544394415268169923885626670049071596826438162146859296389521759999
32299156089414639761565182862536979208272237582511852109168640000000000000
000000000000

%   cumulative   self           self      total
time    seconds    seconds    calls  ms/call  ms/call  name
66.67     0.07     0.07       1    66.67    66.67  Object#fact
16.67     0.08     0.02       1    16.67   16.67  Bignum#to_s
 0.00     0.08     0.00       5     0.00    0.00  Fixnum#*
 0.00     0.08     0.00       2     0.00    8.33  IO#write
 0.00     0.08     0.00       1     0.00    0.00  Fixnum#==
 0.00     0.08     0.00     95     0.00    0.00  Bignum#*
 0.00     0.08     0.00       1     0.00    0.00  Module#method_added
 0.00     0.08     0.00    101     0.00    0.00  Fixnum#>
 0.00     0.08     0.00       1     0.00   16.67  Kernel.print
 0.00     0.08     0.00       1     0.00    0.00  String#to_i
 0.00     0.08     0.00       1     0.00    0.00  Array#[ ]
 0.00     0.08     0.00    100     0.00    0.00  Fixnum#-
 0.00     0.08     0.00       1     0.00  100.00  #toplevel

```

5.1.3 Tracer

When you want to trace the entrance and exit of each method, `tracer` is the tool for you. In order to add method call/return tracing to your Ruby program, load the `Tracer` library using the command-line option `-r tracer`. Here is sample output from `tracer`:

```

% ruby -r tracer fact.rb 2
#0:fact.rb:1:::- def fact(n)
#0:fact.rb:1:Module:>: def fact(n)
#0:fact.rb:1:Module:<: def fact(n)
#0:fact.rb:10:::- print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:Array:>: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:Array:<: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:String:>: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:String:<: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:1:Object:>: def fact(n)
#0:fact.rb:2:Object:-:   return 1 if n == 0
#0:fact.rb:2:Fixnum:>:   return 1 if n == 0
#0:fact.rb:2:Fixnum:<:   return 1 if n == 0

```

```

#0:fact.rb:3:Object:-: f = 1
#0:fact.rb:4:Object:-: while n>0
#0:fact.rb:4:Fixnum:>: while n>0
#0:fact.rb:4:Fixnum:<: while n>0
#0:fact.rb:5:Object:-: f *= n
#0:fact.rb:5:Fixnum:>: f *= n
#0:fact.rb:5:Fixnum:<: f *= n
#0:fact.rb:6:Object:-: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:>: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:<: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:>: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:<: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:5:Object:-: f *= n
#0:fact.rb:5:Fixnum:>: f *= n
#0:fact.rb:5:Fixnum:<: f *= n
#0:fact.rb:6:Object:-: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:>: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:<: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:>: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:6:Fixnum:<: n -= 1
#0:fact.rb:8:Object:-: return f
#0:fact.rb:8:Object:<: return f
#0:fact.rb:10:Kernel:>: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:IO:>: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:Fixnum:>: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:Fixnum:<: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:IO:<: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:IO:>: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:IO:<: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"
#0:fact.rb:10:Kernel:<: print fact(ARGV[0].to_i), "\n"

```

You can turn on trace mode explicitly by invoking these methods from your program:

`Tracer.on`

Turns on trace mode

`Tracer.on {...}`

Evaluates the block with trace mode turned on

`Tracer.off`

Turns off trace mode

5.1.4 irb

irb (Interactive Ruby) was developed by Keiju Ishitsuka. It allows you to enter commands at the prompt and have the interpreter respond as if you were executing a program. irb is useful to experiment with or to explore Ruby.

`irb [options] [programfile] [argument...]`

Here are the irb options:

`-f`

Suppresses loading of `~/.irbrc`.

-m

Math mode. Performs calculations using rational numbers.

-d

Debugger mode. Sets \$DEBUG to true.

-r lib

Uses require to load the library *lib* before executing the program.

-v

--version

Displays the version of `irb`.

--inspect

Inspect mode (default).

--noinspect

Noninspect mode (default for math mode).

--readline

Uses the readline library.

--noreadline

Suppresses use of the readline library.

--prompt mode

--prompt-mode mode

Sets the prompt mode. Predefined prompt modes are default, simple, xmp, and inf-ruby.

--inf-ruby-mode

Sets the prompt mode to inf-ruby and suppresses use of the readline library.

--simple-prompt

Sets the prompt mode to simple mode.

--noprompt

Suppresses the prompt display.

--tracer

Displays a trace of method calls.

--back-trace-limit n

Sets the depth of backtrace information to be displayed (default is 16).

Here is a sample `irb` interaction:

```
irb
irb(main):001:0> a = 25
25
irb(main):002:0> a = 2
2
irb(main):003:0>
matz@ev[sample] irb
```

```
irb(main):001:0> a = 3
3
irb(main):002:0> a.times do |i|
irb(main):003:1*>   puts i
irb(main):004:1> end
0
1
2
3
irb(main):005:0> class Foo<Object
irb(main):006:1>   def foo
irb(main):007:2>     puts "foo"
irb(main):008:2>   end
irb(main):009:1> end
nil
irb(main):010:0> Foo::new.foo
foo
nil
irb(main):011:0> exit
```

`irb` loads a startup file from either `~/.irbrc`, `.irbrc`, `irb.rc`, `_irbrc`, `$irbrc`. A Startup file can contain an arbitrary Ruby program for per-user configuration. Within it, `irb` context object `IRB` is available.

`irb` works as if you fed the program line by line into the interpreter. But since the noninteractive interpreter executes the program at once, there is a small difference. For example, in batch execution, the local variable that appears only in the `eval` isn't treated as a local variable outside of `eval`. That's because an identifier is determined as a local variable or not statically. In non-`irb` mode, Ruby determines whether or not an identifier is a local variable during compile-time. Since Ruby compiles the whole program first and then executes it, assignment in `eval` isn't considered. But in `irb` mode, `irb` normally executes inputs line by line, so that assignment is done prior to compilation of the next line.

5.1.5 ruby-mode for Emacs

If you are an Emacs user, `ruby-mode` will help you a lot. It supports auto indent, colorizing program text, etc. To use `ruby-mode`, put `ruby-mode.el` into the directory included in your `load-path` variable, then put the following code in your `.emacs` file.

```
(autoload 'ruby-mode "ruby-mode")
(setq auto-mode-alist (append (list (cons \\.rb$ 'ruby-mode)
        auto-mode-alist))
(setq interpreter-mode-alist (append '("ruby".ruby-mode))
        interpreter-mode-alist))
```

5.2 Additional Tools

There are other useful tools that don't come bundled with the Ruby standard distribution. However, you do need to install them yourself.

5.2.1 ri: Ruby Interactive Reference

`ri` is an online reference tool developed by Dave Thomas, the famous pragmatic programmer. When you have a question about the behavior of a certain method, e.g., `IO#gets`, you can invoke `ri IO#gets` to read the brief explanation of the method. You can get `ri` from <http://www.pragmaticprogrammer.com/ruby/downloads/ri.html>.

```
ri [ options ] [ name... ]
```

Here are the `ri` options:

`--version`,

`-v`

Displays version and exits.

`--line-length=n`

`-l n`

Sets the line length for the output (minimum is 30 characters).

`--synopsis`

`-s`

Displays just a synopsis.

`--format= name`

`-f name`

Uses the `name` module (default is `Plain`) for output formatting. Here are the available modules:

Tagged

Simple tagged output

Plain

Default plain output

`name` should be specified in any of the following forms:

- `Class`
- `Class::method`
- `Class#method`

- *Class.method*

- *method*

5.2.2 eRuby

eRuby stands for embedded Ruby; it's a tool that embeds fragments of Ruby code in other files such as HTML files. Here's a sample eRuby file:

```
This is sample eRuby file<br>
The current time here is <%=Time.now%>.
<%[1,2,3].each{|x|print x,"<br>\n"}%>
```

Here's the output from this sample file:

```
This is sample eRuby file<br>
The current time here is Wed Aug 29 18:54:45 JST 2001.
1
2
3
```

There are two eRuby implementations:

eruby

The original implementation of eRuby. eruby is available from
<http://www.modruby.net>.

Erb

A pure Ruby (subset) implementation of eRuby.

eRuby is available from <http://www2a.biglobe.ne.jp/~seki/ruby/erb-1.3.3.tar.gz>; The version number may be changed in the future. Unfortunately, the supporting page <http://www2a.biglobe.ne.jp/~seki/ruby/> is in Japanese, but you can tell how to use it from its source code.

5.3 Ruby Application Archive

Do you want to access databases, such as PostgreSQL or MySQL from Ruby? Do you wish to use such nonstandard GUI toolkits as Qt, Gtk, FOX, etc.? You can with the Ruby Application Archive (RAA), which has a collection of Ruby programs, libraries, documentations, and binary packages compiled for specific platforms. You can access RAA at <http://www.ruby-lang.org/en/raa.html>. RAA is still far smaller than Perl's CPAN, but it's growing every day.

RAA contains the following elements:

- The latest 10 items
- A list of Ruby applications
- A list of Ruby libraries
- A list of Ruby porting
- A list of Ruby documents

You can enter your program in RAA by clicking "add new entry" at the top of the RAA page, then following the instructions there. RAA itself is a fully automated web application written in Ruby. It uses eRuby and PStore as a backend.

Chapter 6. Ruby Updates

Compared to most other languages, Ruby is rather young. As a result, it's still evolving fairly rapidly.

If you find a bug in Ruby, the first thing to do is to check the bug database and see if the problem has already been reported. The bug database can be found at <http://www.ruby-lang.org/cgi-bin/ruby-bugs>. You can either send the bug report directly from that page or send an email to ruby-bugs@ruby-lang.org. When you submit your bug, try to include all relevant information such as source code, operating system, the output from `ruby -v`, and what version/build of Ruby you are running. If you have compiled your own build of Ruby, you should also include the `rbconfig.rb`.

The current stable version of Ruby can always be found at <http://www.ruby-lang.org/en/download.html>. There are also several mirror sites available.

The current developmental release can be obtained from the CVS (Concurrent Version System) repository. See <http://www.ruby-lang.org/en/cvsrepo.html> for instructions. You can get CVS tools from <http://www.cvshome.com>.

6.1 Summary of Changes

Developmental releases of Ruby always have an odd minor revision number such as 1.5 or 1.7. Once a developmental release is stable and finalized, it's then "promoted" to a stable release. Stable releases always have an even minor revision number such as 2.0 or 3.2. Therefore, releases with even subversion numbers (1.4, 1.6, 1.8, etc.) are stable releases. Releases with odd subversion numbers (1.5, 1.7, etc.) are developmental versions and are available only from the CVS repository.

At the writing of this book, the current stable release version is 1.6.5. The current developmental version is 1.7.1. The changes presented here are currently reflected in 1.7.1 and will probably remain relatively unchanged in the next stable release—Version 1.8.

6.2 Changes from 1.6.5 to 1.7.1

The following information details the changes that are occurring in development versions 1.7.1 and 1.8 (though 1.8 will have additional changes as well):

- Multiple assignment behavior is clarified.
- Syntax enhanced to interpret argument parentheses to allow `p ("xx" * 2).to_i`.
- `break` and `next` extended to take an optional expression, which is used as a return value of the iterating method and `yield`, respectively.
- The following new methods (or modifications to methods) have been added:

```
Array#fetch
Array#insert
Enumerable#all?
Enumerable#any?
Enumerable#inject
Enumerable#sort_by
File#fnmatch
MatchData#to_ary
Method#==
Module#include?
Module#included
Module#method_removed
Module#method_undefined
Object#singleton_method_removed
Object#singleton_method_undefined
Proc#==
Proc#yield
Range#to_ary
Range#step
Regexp#options
String#casecmp
String#insert
Symbol#intern
Symbol::all_symbols
SystemExit#status
File::lchmod
```

```
File::lchown
IO::for_fd
IO::read
Math::acos
Math::asin
Math::atan
Math::cosh
Math::hypot
Math::sinh
Math::tanh
Process::times
Process::waitall
SystemCallError::==
```

- `String#eql?` is now always case-sensitive.
- `Dir::chdir` extended to take a block.
- `NoMethodError` raised for undefined method.
- `Interrupt` is a subclass of `SignalException` (it was a subclass of `Exception` in 1.6 and prior).
- `$?` now gives `Process::Status` along with `Process::wait2`, `Process::waitpid2`.
- `Regexp.last_match(n)` extended to take an optional argument.
- The `Digest` module has been added as a replacement for the `md5` and `sha1` modules.
- Line-range operation is now obsolete except when used in a one-liner (e.g., `ruby -e ...`).
- Comparison of exception classes in a `rescue` clause now uses `Module#==`.
- `TCPSocket.new` and `TCPSocket.open` extended to take an address and a port number for the local side in optional third and fourth arguments.
- `Time` extended to accept a negative `time_t` (only if the platform supports it).
- Objects that have `to_str` now behave more like strings.
- The `Signal` module has been added.
- Generational garbage collection has been added.

6.3 The Future of Ruby

As Ruby is now used by so many programmers worldwide, I don't see making any radical changes in the near future. But I'd like to keep Ruby competitive with other scripting languages.

I don't have a concrete plan for future versions, even 2.0, but I do have plans to fix some of the remaining drawbacks in the Ruby implementation. For example, Ruby's internals are too complex to maintain and can be slower than other languages. I'm going to reimplement the interpreter as a bytecode engine to simplify interpreter core and boost performance. Also, recently an intriguing but still vague possibility of a joint backend among Perl, Python, and Ruby has surfaced.

I'd also like to support M17N (Multilingualization) in Ruby. M17N offers the ability to handle various human languages along with the necessary encodings. We already implemented a prototype that can handle ASCII, UTF-8, and several Japanese encodings.

The future is unknown, and my imagination is limited. But you can certainly contribute to the evolution of Ruby via the process called RCR (or Ruby Change Requests) explained in the next section. We look forward to your contributions.

6.4 Participate in Ruby

Programmers often get ideas on how they'd like to improve Ruby. These ideas are sometimes useful and interesting, sometimes not. Since the language needs to stay consistent, I often need to choose which fixes or ideas to add and which to reject. To make this process easier, we have instituted Ruby Change Requests (RCRs).

When you want to propose a new feature for Ruby, you have to submit your proposal to <http://www.rubygarden.org/?topic=RCR>. The more concrete and detailed the proposal, the greater chance of success you have of getting it accepted. The proposal should preferably be consistent, backward-compatible, and follow the principle of least surprise.

The RCR page offers a discussion forum and web-based voting box. Once you submit your proposal, discussion is held on it. If it's decided (with the help of the community) that your proposal is indeed useful, it will be added to future versions of Ruby.

Colophon

Our look is the result of reader comments, our own experimentation, and feedback from distribution channels. Distinctive covers complement our distinctive approach to technical topics, breathing personality and life into potentially dry subjects.

The animal on the cover of Ruby in a Nutshell is a wild goat. Also known as a bezoar goat (*Capra aegagrus*), this species, found on the Greek islands and in Turkey, Iran, Turkmenia, and Pakistan, can grow to 300 pounds and up to 4 feet tall.

Goats have cloven hooves, which means they are split into two toes. Both males and females have short beards the same color as their wool and horns that curve backward. Bezoar goat horns are scimitar-shaped with sharp inside edges, and their bodies are covered in a coarse wool that can be black, brown, gray, red, or white. Their wool helps them survive harsh climates. Bezoar goats are herbivores, and their diet consists of grass, twigs, leaves, berries, and bark. Wild female and baby goats live together in packs of about 50; males live by themselves or in all-male packs. During the mating season, males give off an oily substance from their skin that attracts females. Males can get into terrific fights over females, and the winning male gets to mate. Females give birth to one or two babies, or kids.

Wild goats are listed as vulnerable in the 1996 IUCN Red List of Threatened Animals. An animal is listed as vulnerable when it isn't critically endangered but faces a high risk of extinction in the wild. Bezoar goats are losing more and more land to development in their native countries.

Mary Anne Weeks Mayo was the production editor and proof reader, and Ellie Cutler was the copyeditor for Ruby in a Nutshell. Darren Kelly and Sheryl Avruch provided quality control. Derek DiMatteo provided production assistance. Lucie Haskins wrote the index.

Hanna Dyer designed the cover of this book, based on a series design by Edie Freedman. The cover image is a 19th-century engraving from the Dover Pictorial Archive. Emma Colby produced the cover layout with Quark™XPress 4.1 using Adobe's ITC Garamond font. Melanie Wang designed the interior layout based on a series design by Nancy Priest. Neil Walls converted the files from Microsoft Word to FrameMaker 5.5.6 using tools created by Mike Sierra. The text and heading fonts are ITC Garamond Light and Garamond Book. This colophon was compiled by Mary Anne Weeks Mayo.

The online edition of this book was created by the Safari production group (John Chodacki, Becki Maisch, and Madeleine Newell) using a set of Frame-to-XML conversion and cleanup tools written and maintained by Erik Ray, Benn Salter, John Chodacki, and Jeff Liggett.

RUBY IN A NUTSHELL



Ruby is a genuine attempt to combine the best of everything in the scripting world. Yukihiro Matsumoto, creator of Ruby and author of this book, designed Ruby with the strengths and capabilities of all of the major scripting languages in mind. While its roots are in Japan, Ruby is slowly but surely gaining ground in the United States. Its programs are high-level, easy to read and write, and object-oriented. These possibilities make Ruby very flexible and extensible. Additionally, Ruby supports iterators, exceptions, operator overloading, and garbage collection. Ruby scripts are portable across many platforms, including all major Unix systems, Linux, Windows 95/98, Windows NT and BeOS. Ruby's power comes from its straightforward syntax and rich set of libraries.

Ruby in a Nutshell covers all of Ruby's built-in features and standard bundled libraries. Ruby programmers will want this book on their desks as they do their jobs. It addresses everything from command-line options, syntax, built-in variables, and functions to the many commonly used classes and modules. Covering the current stable version of Ruby (1.6) but also applicable to development Version 1.7 and the next planned stable Version 1.8, this book offers a thorough description of Ruby's language syntax and the core functionality built into the standard Ruby interpreter.

Ruby finds its power through its built-in libraries, and this handy volume takes you through the many useful libraries that come with the standard Ruby distribution, from network access via HTTP and CGI programming to data persistence using the DBM library.

Find out why Ruby has captured the interest of so many open source programmers. As part of the successful "in a Nutshell" series of books from O'Reilly & Associates, *Ruby in a Nutshell* is for readers who want a single desktop reference for all their needs.

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