Perl Short Course: Fourth Session

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- We have seen *compile-time syntax check*: `perl -cw program`
- However, not all warnings can be detected at compile-time, so try switching *run time warnings* on.
- There are two ways of enabling run-time warnings: the first is `perl -w script`. On Unix, we can put '`-w`' in the hash-bang line: `#!/usr/bin/perl -w`

- The second way (useful on platforms where hash-bang doesn't work - eg. Windows), is to write:

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use warnings;
```

near the top of your program. I recommend you switch warnings on, and fix every problem that causes a warning immediately.

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- Now, what sort of things give run-time warnings?
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- Perl's *undefined value* (written as `undef`) is analogous to the concept of a *null pointer*.
- It is *different from* the empty string `''` – the empty string is a *string of length 0* whereas `undef` is not a string at all.
- However, `undef` behaves like the empty string in string contexts, like 0 in numeric contexts, and like false in boolean contexts.

- Let's investigate boolean-ness and defined-ness:

```
#
# eg1: play around with empty strings and undef
#
my @pairs = ( 0,       "zero",
              '',      "emptystr",
              undef,   "undef",
              1,       "one",
              17.3,    "17.3",
              'hello', "hello" );
# foreach (testval,label) in @pairs
while( ($testval,$label,@pairs) = @pairs )
{
        my $boolstr = $testval ? "true" : "false";
        print "$label: <$testval>, $boolstr\n";
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- To fix this, decide how to display undef, and test for defined-ness using the function `defined`, as in:

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my $display = defined $testval ? $testval : "UNDEF";
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- This form of "value or default" is so common, Perl 5.10 introduces a new operator:

```
my $display = $testval // "UNDEF";
```

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use warnings;
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- Let's spend a moment making **eg1** work in strict mode - declare all our variables.
- Note that we've been declaring our variables all along, but actually we didn't need to do so until we encounter strict mode.

- The '`my`' declarations that we've been using declare *lexical variables* which exist only for the duration of a particular lexical scope (for example, in a particular block).
- They are like *local variables* - but if you declare them outside of a block, they exist from the point of declaration down to the bottom of the Perl script - and are effectively *global variables*.
- Most of the time, we declare and initialize variables at the same time, but you can declare one or many variables without initializing them by:

```
my $a;
my( $x, $y, @z );
```

- There's another type of global variable, called *package variables*, declared by replacing '`my`' with '`our`', as in:

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our( $x, $y, @z );
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- Later on, we'll see a few places where package variables are needed, but for now I recommend that you use '`my`' variables everywhere until further notice.

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  - If no value of `n` is given, the maximum number of splits are performed. If `$n` is given, the string is split into exactly `$n` pieces, the last piece contains the rest of the string.
  - If no string is given then `$_` is used by default. A common use of this is to split `$_` into whitespace separated 'words' or 'tokens':

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- `$str = join( sep_string, array )`
  - This function joins the elements of the array together, using the given string as a separator, i.e. between every pair of elements.
  - For example:

    ```
    print join(',', @wd );
    ```

- `push( @array, list )`
  - This function appends the given list (or single scalar) to the end of an array.
  - Common use: accumulate entries in an array:

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  - Remove the last element from the array and return it. Common use: (with `push`) implement a stack:

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- `unshift( @array, list )`
  - Opposite of `shift`: The list (or single scalar) is inserted into the array at the front, shifting all existing elements up out of the way.

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- `$len = length( string )`
  - This trivial function is the equivalent of C's `strlen` - it returns the length of the given string expression.

- `printf( "format string", args );`
  `$str = sprintf( "format string", args )`
  - When you need more formatting than print can do - use `printf` and `sprintf`. These are closely modelled on the C functions and are much too complex to explain here... For example, **eg2**:

    ```
    my $string = 'pi'; my $pi = 3.1415926536;
    printf( "<%-10s><%12.8f>\n", $string, $pi );
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    would produce output:

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    @result = ();
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  - Common use - pretend we're the Unix grep utility:

    ```
    my @result = grep { /he*llo/ } @array;
    ```

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  - The operation is any valid Perl expression - so, for example, **eg3**:

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my @orig = (1,2,5,8,9,10,5);
my @doubled = map { $_ * 2 } @orig;
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  - You can also use `map` destructively - if you modify `$_` the original element is modified (**eg4**):

```
my @array = (1,2,5,8,9,10,5);
map { $_ *= 2 } @array;
```

    does the same but modifies `@array` *in place*.

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  - The operation in a functional map always receives a single array element, but it can return a list of scalars rather than a single scalar, in this case all the *little lists* are appended together.

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  - For example, **eg5**:

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my @orig = (1,2,5,8,9,10,5);
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    generates a pair `( x, 2x )` from each element of the original array, thus setting `@result` to a flat list twice as long - `(1,2,2,4,5,10..)`.

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  - The comma can be written as => to look nicer:

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my %double = map { $_ => $_*2 } @orig;
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  - For example, **eg5**:

```
my @orig = (1,2,5,8,9,10,5);
my @result = map { $_, $_ * 2 } @orig;
```

    generates a pair `( x, 2x )` from each element of the original array, thus setting `@result` to a flat list twice as long - `(1,2,2,4,5,10..)`.
  - This is often used to turn an array into a hash - when you assign a flattened list of (key,value) pairs to a hash, Perl initialises it pairwise. As in **eg6**:

```
my @orig = (1,2,5,8,9,10,5);
my %double = map { $_, $_*2 } @orig;
```

  - The comma can be written as => to look nicer:

```
my %double = map { $_ => $_*2 } @orig;
```

  - One use of this is to turn an array into a set hash:

```
my %set = map { $_ => 1 } @orig;
```

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- You decide on a coherent block of code with a nameable purpose, for example, *sum up an array and return the total*, and give it a name like `sumarray`.
- Decide what *arguments* `sumarray` takes, and what *results* it returns. The easiest way of showing this is to write down a typical call:

```
my $total = sumarray( @arr );
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This means: *call function sumarray, passing the array* `@arr` *in to it, and storing the scalar value that is returned into* `$total`.

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  This means: *call function sumarray, passing the array* `@arr` *in to it, and storing the scalar value that is returned into* `$total`.
- Then write the outer shell of your function as a `sub` declaration, including a comment describing the function's purpose:

```
#
# my $total = sumarray( @array ):
#     sum up the elements of the @array.
#
sub sumarray
{
}
```

- Now, inside the {}, write the body of the function:

```
my @array = @_;
my $total = 0;
foreach my $elem (@array)
{
  $total += $elem;
}
return $total;
```

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- In `sumarray`, we take a copy of `@_` into '`my @array`' (to avoid any possibility of changing the parameters). Then we declare ourselves two additional '`my`' variables `$elem` and `$total`.

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- In `sumarray`, we take a copy of `@_` into '`my @array`' (to avoid any possibility of changing the parameters). Then we declare ourselves two additional '`my`' variables `$elem` and `$total`.
- Finally, to communicate the final result back to the caller we use `return $total`. This destroys all the function's local variables.

Putting the whole program together:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
#
# eg7: sum up the elements of an array,
#      using a separate subroutine.

use strict;
use warnings;

#
# my $total = sumarray( @array ):
#     sum up the elements of the @array.
#
sub sumarray
{
        my( @array ) = @_;
        my $total = 0;
        foreach my $elem (@array)
        {
                $total += $elem;
        }
        return $total;
}

# main program
my @x = @ARGV > 0 ? @ARGV : (10, 39, 45, 28, 49, 3);
my $sum = sumarray( @x );
my $str = join(',', @x );
print "sum of $str is $sum\n";
```

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- One option is to separate the prototypes from the subroutines:

```
# first declare the prototypes:
sub fred ($$@);
sub bob ($);
......

# define the subroutines from here on, any order:
sub fred
{
        my( $a, $b, @rest ) = @_;
        ......
}

sub bob
{
        my( $arg ) = @_;
        ......
}
```

- Prototypes are not perfect, they're likely to undergo more change in Perl 6. They don't affect the fact that all arguments to a function call are still flattened into a single list - so you can't just say `sub fred (@@%)` and pass two whole arrays and a hash to `fred`... To do this, you have to use Perl references - read on.

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- Note that a Perl subroutine can return a scalar, an array or a hash - so for example it's fine to think of a subroutine as returning a *tuple*, as in:

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my($a,$b) = callme(arguments);          return ( $x, $y );
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- Exercise: take any of the programs that you've already done in previous sessions and restructure it into several functions with separate prototypes at the top.
- Exercise: Choose some simple recursive function - perhaps **fibonacci**, **factorial** or **quicksort** - code it up in Perl, get it working and thus convince yourself that there's nothing abnormal about recursion in Perl. In particular, convince yourself that each recursive call has its own local argument array, and its own local set of `my` variables.

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- `$ref` now refers to (or points to) `$x`. Dereferencing is done by using `$ref` instead of a variable name:

```
print "before: x is $x\n";
print "before: ref refers to x - value $$ref\n";
$$ref++;
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```

- Make this into a program **eg8** and try it out...

- You can also make a reference to an array (**eg9**):

```
my @a = ( 54, 17, 23 );
print "before: " . join(',', @a) . "\n";
my $ref = \@a;
$$ref[2] = 18;   # sets $a[2]
print "after: " . join(',', @a) . "\n";
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- You can dereference the whole array as `@$ref`.
- You can also make an anonymous array ref (**eg10**):

```
my $ref = [ 54, 17, 23 ];
print "before: access via ref: " . join(',', @$ref) . "\n";
$ref->[2] = 18;   # overrides '23' value
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- You can also have references to hashes (**eg11**):

```
my %hash = ( "duncan" => "d.white", "bilbo" => "b.baggins" );
my $ref = \%hash;
$ref->{frodo} = "f.baggins";   # stores a new key, value pair
while( my($key,$value) = each(%$ref) )# now print all pairs out
{
  print "$key => $value\n";
}
```

- We can declare anonymous hash refs (**eg12**):

```
my $ref = { duncan => "d.white", bilbo => "b.baggins" };
$ref->{frodo} = "f.baggins";     # store a new key, value pair
delete $ref->{duncan};           # deletes a k,v pair
while( my($key,$value) = each(%$ref) ) # print out all pairs
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```

- We can now create hashes of hashes, arrays of arrays, or any combination. For instance:

```
my @fred = (
   { "one" => "ena", "two" => "duo" },
   { "three" => "drei" },
   { "one" => "une", "two" => "deux" }
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- `@fred` is an array of references to hashes: `$fred[$r]` is now a reference to one hash, `%$fred[$r]` is one whole hash, and `$fred[$r]->{$c}` is a single element. This last can, as a special convenience, be written as `$fred[$r]{$c}`.

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- Thus, it looks very like a multi-dimensional array, but it isn't really!

- How might we printout such a complex data structure as `@fred` (an array of references to hashes)? There are two ways:

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- Write our own function, carefully tailored to the exact specification we want (**eg13**):

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foreach my $hashref (@fred)
{
  my @x = ();
  foreach my $key (sort keys %$hashref)
  {
    my $value = $hashref->{$key};
    push @x, "$key->$value";
  }
  print join( ", ", @x ). "\n";
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print Dumper \@fred;
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- How does that work? It's complicated... However, the core of it uses a Perl function `ref()` which takes a reference and returns a string such as '`HASH`' to tell you what the reference is currently referring to. Using that information, a reference navigator can be written pretty easily.

- You can also take a reference to a function (a subroutine) and call it (later) through the reference - just like C's *pointer to function* concept:

```
sub fred ($)
{
  ...
}

my $funcref = \&fred;  # ref to function

...

$funcref->( 10 );       # calls fred with arg 10
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- Perl also allows us to create anonymous function references on the fly, as in:

```
my $doubleme = sub { return 2 * $_[0]; };
my $x = $doubleme->(10);
print "10 doubled is... wait for it.. $x\n";
```

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```

- Using function references, you can do higher order functions, callbacks, factories etc. Lambda calculus in Perl? If you must! `map` and `grep` help too.

- In the last session, there was a multi-part exercise that attempted to build word frequency indexes of files. We can do more now:
- Use `split` to allow the indexing program to split each line into multiple words and index each word.
- Convert the indexer into separate functions, nicely laid out. Add prototypes and `use strict`.
- Record when each data file was last indexed. Write a `reindex` program to check the modification time of each indexed document file and reindex modified documents.
- Hint: use Perl's `stat` function to find a file's modification timestamp (see `perldoc -f stat` for details).
- Familiarise yourself with complex references - use the `Data::Dumper` module to print them out.
- Modify **eg13** replacing the entire inner `foreach` loop that builds the `@x` array with a `map` invocation that begins `my @x = map ....` If you're feeling brave, you can remove `@x` altogether and make the body of the outer `foreach` a single statement beginning `print join( ", ", map....`