Perl Short Course: Second Session

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- In the remaining sessions, we'll look at **functions**, **references**, **modules**, **objects and classes**, take a quick tour of some of Perl's standard library, find out how to write modules and classes, then investigate some more advanced Perl topics such as functional programming, program transformations, data structures, testing and benchmarking.

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- **Perl 6**, 2001-????: The Perl developers are also working on a fundamental redesign of Perl **Perl 6** very different internally from Perl 5. However, it never seems to get finished! Will it ever?

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- A string literal can be either delimited with single-quotes or double-quotes. Different rules apply inside the two kinds of string:

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- Apart from these exceptions, nothing is modified inside a single quoted string.
- In particular, \$ symbols are embedded as-is, and C-style escapes like \n do not function in a single-quoted string.

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\t	Tab
\r	Carriage Return
\a	Ring bell
\072	Any octal ASCII value
	(7*8+2 = 58 = ':')
\x6d	Any hexadecimal ASCII value
	(6*16+13 = 109 = 'm')
//	Backslash
\\$	Dollar
\"	A double-quote
\1	Lower-case the next letter
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• Fix: use {} around the variable name:

"you're the ${n}$ th person today..\n"

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- If the opening quote is an open bracket of some kind (round, curly or square), Perl uses the appropriate closing bracket as the closing quote We could write the above as:

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- Like C, Perl provides a *modulus* operator: 10%3 gives the remainder when 10 is divided by 3. Both values are truncated to integers before this operator is applied.
- Perl provides a set of *numeric comparison* operators just like C: <, <=, ==, >=, > and != (not equals).

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Another useful string operator is the *repetition* operator:
 "fred" x 3 gives "fredfredfred"
 (the right-hand argument is truncated to an integer before
 replication occurs).

Duncan White (CSG)

December 2012 10 / 25

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- An assignment also has a value, which means you can nest or chain assignments:

\$x = \$y = 17; \$y = 5 * (\$a = 7 + \$x);

- The first example sets both \$x and \$y to 17.
- The second example means: evaluate 7+\$x and store the result in \$a, then multiply \$a by 5 and store the final result in \$y.

December 2012 11 / 25

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These read as multiply z by 3, add element to sum.

- The same works for strings: \$z .= \$a appends the contents of \$a onto the end of \$z.
- Just like basic assignment, all the binary assignment operators return a value too. So the following is valid:

\$a = 3; \$b = (\$a += 4) * 7;

• **However**, never change the same variable inside two branches of the same expression:

\$a = 3; \$b = (\$a += 4) * (\$a -= 2);

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• Perl has a prefix and postfix form of these operators: ++\$a, \$a++, --\$a and \$a--. Both forms increment (or decrement) the variable in the same way.

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- Difference: when embedding in a large expression, old or new value? Consider the following two examples, first:

Perl	Simplified Form	Effect
\$a = 7;	a=7	a:7
\$b = ++\$a;	a++; b=a	a:8, b:8
\$c = \$b;	c=b; b	c:8, b:7

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Second:

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Perl	Simplified	Effect	
\$a = 7;	a=7	a:7	
\$b = \$a++;	b=a; a++	b:7, a:8	
c =b;	b; c=b	b:6, c:6	
In both cases \$2 ends up as 8			

In both cases, \$a ends up as 8.

Duncan White (CSG)

• Expressions used in a boolean context are evaluated in the usual way as numbers or strings.

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- Just like C and Java (but unlike Pascal), they *short-circuit*:
 - Consider:

\$a < 7 || \$b > 6

If \$a is less than 7, then the whole expression is bound to be true. There is no point in evaluating the rest of the expression - so Perl doesn't!

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• Similarly, consider:

\$s eq "hello" && \$t ne "bonjour"

If \$s is not "hello" then the whole expression must be false.

Again, there's absolutely no point in evaluating the second half 🔊 🗠

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- Perl also provides *modifiers* for single statements:

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<statement> if <expr> ;
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• A sequence of statements may be enclosed inside {} braces forming a *block*. NB: no ';' after the '}' of a block.

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```
if( $i < 20 || $j > 7.4 )
{
    print "case one\n";
} elsif( $i > 40 && $j > 0 )
{
    print "case two\n";
} else
{
    print "case three\n";
}
```

Note that the brackets – both round and curly – are compulsory on an \mathbf{if} - and the loop below.

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• The above algorithm happens to find the square root of \$x!

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```
do {

$y *= $x;

$x += 2;

} while($x < 15);

do {

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$x += 2;

} until($x >= 15);
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• A C-style *counting loop*:

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for( my $sum = 0, my $i = 1; $i <= 10; $i++ )
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        $sum += $i;
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```

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for( my $sum = 0, my $i = 1; $i <= 10; $i++ )
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• A very useful for each element in a list/array loop:

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foreach my $x ( 1, 3, 7, 5, 4, 54 )
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(We'll see more about arrays next session).

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• Exercise: Try writing a little Perl program that reads in a number and computes the square root using the while loop on the previous slide, printing out a message like "The square root of \$x is \$w".

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• The <> operator (pronounced *diamond* or *getline*) fetches a line of input from a filehandle - STDIN is a filehandle, which represents the standard input (normally the keyboard). So:

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$name = <STDIN>;
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reads an entire line of input, up to and including a newline, and then stores the input in the variable (including the newline).

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 - Perl 5 added chomp(\$name) which deletes a trailing newline or does nothing.
- Use chomp everywhere; it's safer and more portable (it will remove the newline from the string even if the newline convention on the OS you're using is not a single character!).

Duncan White (CSG)

• There is a nice simple way of printing some results:

print expression;

Duncan White (CSG)

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- There is a nice simple way of printing some results: print expression;
- Combined with the variable interpolation we've seen in strings, this gives us all the formatting power we need for now:

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• Here's an example (**eg1**), allowing you to investigate different expressions:

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print "Please enter x: ";
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print "Please enter y: ";
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my $z = $x + $y;
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- You may like to spend some time trying some examples of expressions, starting with the above example and incorporating different, more complex, expressions.
- Try various += and ++ types of operators to get clear exactly what they do.

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• More typically, you test for *not eof*, which is written if(\$line ne "") or simply if(\$line).

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if(\$line = <STDIN>) # if we've read a line..

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```
if( $line = <STDIN> ) # if we've read a line..
```

• Using a while instead, and adding my to declare \$line, gives us the for each line in a file idiom:

```
while( my $line = <STDIN> ) # for each line from stdin
{
     chomp $line;
     # now process $line
}
```

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Write a program that reads a list of numbers (one per line) from STDIN, adds all these numbers up, and prints the total.

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- Processing is: \$sum += \$line;

```
if( $line = <STDIN> ) # if we've read a line..
```

• Using a while instead, and adding my to declare \$line, gives us the for each line in a file idiom:

• Let's see an simple example of that (eg2):

Write a program that reads a list of numbers (one per line) from STDIN, adds all these numbers up, and prints the total.

- Above the while loop, we initialize: my \$sum = 0;
- Processing is: \$sum += \$line;
- At the end, add print "total: \$sum\n".

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• Perl can read the contents of named files (or Unix pipelines), create/overwrite a named file with new contents, and append new output on the end of a file.

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use IO::File;

Then to open fred:

my $in = new IO::File( "fred" );

unless( $in )
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{
    # ... handle the failure...
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If the file "fred" doesn't already exist, new IO::File will fail, returning
0 - a boolean false - so check for success by testing the result. Or
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- Near the top of our program, we write:

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Then to open fred:

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unless( $in )
{
    # ... handle the failure...
}
If the file "fred" doesn't already exist, new IO::File will fail, returning
0 - a boolean false - so check for success by testing the result. Or
```

```
check for failure by testing unless ( $in ).
```

• Often, handling the failure is done by printing an error message (on STDERR) and exiting - use die:

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Reading a File

• Better still, use conditional modifier syntax:

my \$in = new IO::File("fred"); die "can't open fred\n" unless \$in;

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my $in = new IO::File( "fred" );
die "can't open fred\n" unless $in;
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• Best of all, we can use the common *Do or die* idiom. This wouldn't work without short-circuit evaluation:

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 no more input, \$line will contain the empty string.
- A typical read every line program looks like eg3:

• Note: As well as die there's a function warn which prints a message to STDERR but doesn't exit.

Duncan White (CSG)

December 2012 23 / 25

my \$out = new IO::File("> bob") || die "sob.. can't create bob\n";

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print \$out "...some data...\n"; or \$out->print("...some data...\n");

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my \$out = new IO::File(">> bob") || die "sob.. can't append to bob\n";

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- You can also open a pipe to/from a Unix pipeline for reading/writing:
 - my \$in = new IO::File("ls | sort -r |"); If the last character is a '|', then we can read data from the pipeline: Any output that ls | sort -r prints onto its STDOUT will be available for us to read via <\$in>.

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 - my \$out = new IO::File("| expand"); If the first character is a '|', then we can write data to the pipe: expand will perceive a stream of data coming from its STDIN, but it'll really be whatever we write to \$out.

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- Exercise: Merge **eg2** and **eg3** to sum up the leading numbers in a specific named file.
- Exercise: Write a program that reads every line from STDIN, lower-cases it using lc() and writes the lower-cased lines into a file called lower. You might call such a program mklower.
- Exercise: modify mklower slightly: remove the word STDIN from the <STDIN> getline call, leaving the mysterious syntax <>. We'll explain next session what this syntax means - for now, try to work it out for yourself by experimenting with mklower's behaviour.