


```
while (<>) {...}    # equivalent only in while!  
while (defined($_ = <>)) {...}
```

Answers to Chapter 2 Exercises

Answer 2.1: Although the exact warning message differs between versions of Perl, each of the programs should output a warning. To turn these into a full program, insert the given lines into a short program such as this one then run the program to see the warning:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;
print;
```

Program 1 uses the `print` function, but doesn't print anything. You should get a warning that complains about an uninitialized value. The warning message also tells you the program name (I called mine *test*) and the line number of the warning:

```
Use of uninitialized value in print at test line 3.
```

Program 2 adds two numbers, but doesn't do anything with the result. That's a pretty silly thing. Why do the work if you don't use the result for anything?

```
Useless use of a constant in void context at test line 3.
```

Program 3 adds a number to a variable that has no value then prints the result. The warning message complains about the uninitialized value in the addition. You should also get the result of the `print` too; that's the 1 after the warning:

```
Use of uninitialized value in addition (+) at test line 3.
1
```

Answer 2.2: You can use the same program you created for the [Answer to Exercise 2.1](#). Program 1 complained about an uninitialized value. With `diagnostics` on, you get the same warning, but also the entry from the *perl*diag for that warning. The longer warning tries to explain what you might have done to cause the warning. The entry may not always talk about your exact error, but it's usually close. Notice that the start of the longer warning has a W, meaning it's a warning (rather than a fatal error or something else), and that the class of the warning is uninitialized:

```
Use of uninitialized value in print at test line 3 (#1)
(W uninitialized) An undefined value was used as if it were already
defined. It was interpreted as a "" or a 0, but maybe it was a mistake.
```

To suppress this warning assign a defined value to your variables.

To help you figure out what was undefined, perl tells you what operation you used the undefined value in. Note, however, that perl optimizes your program and the operation displayed in the warning may not necessarily appear literally in your program. For example, "that \$foo" is usually optimized into "that " . \$foo, and the warning will refer to the concatenation (.) operator, even though there is no . in your program.

In program 2, you added two numbers but discarded the result. Here's part of the warning you should get:

```
Useless use of a constant in void context at test line 3 (#1)
(W void) You did something without a side effect in a context that does
nothing with the return value, such as a statement that doesn't return a
value from a block, or the left side of a scalar comma operator. Very
often this points not to stupidity on your part, but a failure of Perl
to parse your program the way you thought it would.
```

In program 3, you added 1 to an undefined value, which causes a warning. The warning is the same as the first program, even though a different expression triggers it.

Answer 2.3: You can use the modulus operator, %, to determine if a number is odd or even. Odd numbers are divisible by 2 with remainder 1, so any odd number modulo 2 returns true, and that's the first part of your if-else structure. You have most of the output message outside of the if-else because you only need that to decide if you should use "odd" or "even", so you shouldn't have to type the entire message twice:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

print "Enter a number: ";
chomp( $number = <STDIN> );
print "The number $number is ";
if( $number % 2 ) { # true if the number is odd
    print "odd\n";
} else {
    print "even\n";
}
```

If you give this non-numeric input, say **one**, you get a warning since you try to use a non-number with a mathematical operator. Not only that, since the string **one** converts to the number **0** your program reports that the "number" is even:

```
$ perl ex2.3.pl
Enter a number: one
Argument "one" isn't numeric in modulus (%) at ex2.3.pl line 6, <STDIN> line 1.
The number one is even
```

Although you haven't read [Chapter 11](#) yet, once you know about Perl modules you can use the `looks_like_number` function from [Scalar::Util](#) to test a string to ensure it is a number.


```

elseif( $m > $n ) { print "$m is larger than $n\n" }
else             { print "$m and $n are equal\n" }

```

If you enter something that isn't digits, like **thirty-seven**, Perl tries to convert that to a number, and since it doesn't recognize anything, it uses the value 0 (that's a zero). Here are a few runs of your script:

```

$ perl ex2.6.pl
Enter a number: 5
Enter another number: 4
5 is larger than 4

$ perl ex2.6.pl
Enter a number: thirty-seven
Enter another number: 0
Argument "thirty-seven" isn't numeric in numeric lt (<)
at larger line 10, <STDIN> line 2.
thirty-seven and 0 are equal

$ perl ex2.6.pl
Enter a number: 5
Enter another number: 6
5 is smaller than 6

```

Answer 2.7: Here's one way to do it. Prompt for the first number then get the input, which you store in `$n`. Add `$n` to `$sum`, which doesn't exist until the first time you use and magically springs into existence without a value (so it's undefined). When you add `$n` to the undefined value, Perl converts `$sum` to 0, adds `$n` to it, and stores the result back in `$sum`. Having done that you're ready for the next number and prompt the user again:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

print "Please enter the first number: ";

while( $n = <STDIN> ) {
    $sum += $n;
    print "Please enter another number: ";
}
print "The sum is $sum\n";

```

The only way you can (legally) stop this program is to break out of the `while` loop. If the result of `<STDIN>` is false, the `while` loop ends. It can only be false by being undefined since it can't be the empty string (there will always be at least a newline), 0 (for the same reason: it has a trailing newline so it's a string), or the string '0'. The only way it can be undefined is at the end-of-input. You could write this to check for a lone newline in the input, but you've already seen that on [page 39](#) of *Learning Perl*.

Here's a sample run of your program:

```

$ perl larger
Please enter the first number: 37
Please enter another number: 5

```

```
Please enter another number: 9
Please enter another number: 137
Please enter another number: 6
Please enter another number: The sum is 194
```

Answer 2.8: You can follow the examples in the chapter to get input from the user (page 39) and combine that with the examples to make characters by code point (page 34):

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

print 'Please enter the first code point: ';

while( $code_point = <STDIN> ) {
    chomp( $code_point );
    print 'The character is ', chr( hex( $code_point ) ), "\n";
    print 'Please enter another code point: ';
}
```

Depending on how you’ve set up your environment, you might have to ensure that your perl sets up standard output correctly for wide characters. The -CS switch can do that:

```
$ perl -CS code_point.pl
Please enter the first code point: 26F3
The character is 𐀳
Please enter another code point: 267A
The character is ☼
Please enter another code point: 2126
The character is Ω
Please enter another code point: 03B6
The character is ζ
Please enter another code point: ^D
```

Now you can see that those characters are a flag in a hole, a recycling sign, the ohm symbol, and the Greek letter zeta.

If you had trouble with the Unicode aspects of this exercise, such as a “wide character in print” warning, you should review [Appendix C](#) of *Learning Perl*.

Answers to Chapter 3 Exercises

Answer 3.1: This program is a lot like the first exercise on [page 60](#) of *Learning Perl*. Instead of printing all of the lines in reverse order, you only have to print one line. You don't know ahead of time how many elements the array will hold, so you can't use the exact index of the element that you want. You do know that `$#array_name` represents the last index of an array, so the second-to-last must be one less than that:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

@lines = <STDIN>;
print "The second to last line is: $lines[$#lines-1];"
```

That one has a subtle special case though. When there is only one element in the array, the last index (the value in `$#lines`) is 0, so `0 - 1` is `-1`, and instead of accessing a specific index, the `-1` makes Perl count from the other side of the array. The element at index `-1` is the last element, not the second-to-last element. You have to do this in a slightly different way:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

@lines = <STDIN>;
if( $#lines > 0 ) {
    print "The second-to-last line is: $lines[$#lines-1]\n";
}
else {
    print "There aren't enough lines for a second-to-last one!\n"
}
```

You don't have to do so much typing though, because you can index arrays from the end. If you use a negative index, you can start with the last element and work your way backward. Thus, the index `-1` is the last element, and `-2` is the next-to-last element:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

@lines = <STDIN>;
```



```

if( $#lines > 0 ) {
    print "The second-to-last line is: $lines[-2]\n";
}
else {
    print "There aren't enough lines for a second-to-last one!\n"
}

```

Answer 3.2: There is a more complicated way to do this, too. In your programs for the [Answer to Exercise 3.1](#), you store the entire array in memory. I hope you didn't redirect a 1 TB log file into one of those programs! Since you need to remember only the second-to-last line, you only need to keep two lines in memory: the previous line, in case the current one is the last line, and the current one in case there are more lines (in which case it becomes the previous one). You start by reading in one line and assigning it to `$last_line`. In the `while` loop, if you can read another line of input, you assign that to `$next_line` then update the values of `$second_to_last` and `$last` inside the loop block. When there are no more lines to read, `$next_line` gets `undef` and the loop terminates. After that, you just have to print what is in `$second_to_last`:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

$last_line = <STDIN>;
while( defined( $next_line = <STDIN> ) ) {
    ( $second_to_last, $last_line ) = ( $last_line, $next_line );
}
print "The second to last line is: $second_to_last";

```

Answer 3.3: When you interpolate an array in a double-quoted string, Perl joins all of the array elements with spaces and puts that string into the array's place. This magic actually uses the `$"` special variable mentioned in the footnote on [page 51](#) of *Learning Perl*. That variable is just a scalar, so you can assign to it any value you like. In this case, you can just assign a comma to `$"`. You interpolate the array in the double-quoted string and add a trailing newline for good measure:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

@numbers = ( 1 .. 10 );
$" = ",";
print "@numbers\n";

```

When you get to [Chapter 9](#), you'll see that `join` is a better way to do this:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

@numbers = ( 1 .. 10 );
print join( ' ', @numbers ), "\n";

```

Answer 3.4: You can create a list of numbers with the range operator, `..`, and then create their squares and cubes with the exponentiation operator, `**`. You give `print` the list of things to output, including a space between each of the numbers:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

foreach( 1..10 ) {
    print "$_: ", $_**2, " ", $_**3, "\n";
}
```

Answer 3.5: You can modify your program from the [Answer to Exercise 3.4](#). In this case, you create the array `@numbers` then go through that list one element at the time. You use the `shift` operator to remove the first element from the list then you assign that element to `$_`. Now the list has one less element, and the next time through the loop you get the next number, and so on until you have no more elements left in `@numbers`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

@numbers = ( 1..10 );
while( $_ = shift @numbers ) {
    print "$_: ", $_**2, " ", $_**3, "\n";
}
```

Answer 3.6: The range operator works for strings just like it does for numbers, although it might seem a little weird at first. To get all the lowercase letters, you use 'a' on the left side and 'z' on the right side:

```
@lowercase = ( 'a' .. 'z' );
```

To get all of the uppercase letters, I just use the uppercase versions:

```
@uppercase = ( 'A' .. 'Z' );
```

The third part is tricky. You can't just use 'a' .. 'Z'. Did you try that? What happened? The range operator actually uses some magic to work with letters. If you start with a lowercase letter, you can only get lowercase letters, and if you start with an uppercase letter, you can only get uppercase letters. You can't do it with one range operator, but that's okay because you can use as many as you like without having to pay extra:

```
@letters = ( 'A' .. 'Z', 'a' .. 'z' );
```

This range operator can be a little bit odd when you first try it. What do you think this range produces?

```
@range = ( 'a1' .. 'z1' );
```

Try these ranges, too:

```
@range = ( 'a10' .. 'b10' );
```

```
@range = ( 'a1' .. 'b10' );
```

Don't keep yourself up all night trying to figure out the pattern Perl is guessing. You might want to use this to impress your friends, but don't rely on it for important algorithms.

Answers to Chapter 4 Exercises

In this chapter in *Learning Perl*, we introduced the `strict` pragma that enforces some good programming practices. For the rest of this workbook, I'm going to make “strict-clean” programs and I'll use the `strict` pragma at the top of my programs.

Remember, if you're using Perl 5.12 or later and you specify that version in your program, you'll automatically turn on `strict`.

Answer 4.1: The arguments to a subroutine are in the `@_` array, so you only need to interpolate that array in a double-quoted string:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl

show_args( 'fred', 'barney', 'betty' );

sub show_args {
    print "The arguments are @_\\n";
}
```

The output is just as I specified in the exercise:

```
$ perl ex4.1.pl
The arguments are fred barney betty
```

Usually, when you have to do this sort of thing, you put some characters around the variable that you are interpolating so you can separate it from the rest of the string. In this example, the stuff in the square brackets are the elements of `@_`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl

show_args( 'fred', 'barney', 'betty' );

sub show_args {
    print "The arguments are [@_]\\n";
}
```

Now you can separate the arguments from the rest of the string:

```
$ perl ex4.1.pl
The arguments are [fred barney betty]
```

If you had leading or trailing whitespace in your arguments, you'd see them in the brackets. Try it with these arguments that add extra spaces:

```
show_args( ' fred', 'barney', 'betty ' );
```

The output shows the extra spaces in the brackets:

```
$ perl ex4.1.pl
The arguments are [ fred barney betty ]
```

Often, this technique is still insufficient because some of the interior elements may have extra spaces. Remember that `$"` special variable from the [Answer to Exercise 3.3](#)? You can use that here to great effect. You make it show a closing and opening square bracket around each element:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl

show_args( ' fred', ' barney', ' betty ' );

sub show_args {
    $" = "][ ";
    print "The arguments are [@_]\n";
}
```

Now your output shows which whitespace belongs to which argument:

```
$ perl ex4.1.pl
The arguments are [ fred][ barney][ betty ]
```

When you get some more Perl under your belt, you'll start to use the [Data::Dumper](#) module to create this sort of output for you.

Answer 4.2: The `show_args_again` subroutine is similar to `show_args` subroutine from the [Answer to Exercise 4.1](#), but it calls `show_args` in different ways. The first way pre-faces the subroutine name with the `&`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

show_args_again( qw( fred barney betty ) );

sub show_args {
    print "The arguments are [@_]\n";
}

sub show_args_again {
    print "The arguments are [@_]\n";
    &show_args;
}
```

The output shows the same line twice. One line is from `&show_args`, and one is from `show_args_again`. The magic of `&` passes the value of `@_` to the second subroutine, so you don't have to specify an argument list:

with the built-in `reverse` function. Now your `show_args_again` subroutine looks like this:

```
sub show_args_again {
    print "The arguments are [@_]\n";
    show_args( reverse @_ );
}
```

The output now has arguments in each subroutine's output:

```
The arguments are [fred barney betty]
The arguments are [betty barney fred]
```

In general, I like to use the `()` whenever I call a subroutine so I explicitly know which arguments I meant to pass to it, and I only use the `&` (with the `()`) when I'm doing something where I think I'm being clever. You've now seen the different ways to call a subroutine and can make up your mind on what you'd like to use. Good luck!

Answer 4.5: After you went through the [Answer to Exercise 4.4](#) and made all that fuss about not using `&` in front of subroutines, you can do it here. In the `do_it` subroutine, you use an `if-elsif-else` construct to decide which second subroutine to call. You can use `shift` to remove the first element in the argument list (the default array `shift` uses if you don't say otherwise), so `@_` should contain just the numbers, and those are the things you want to pass on to the subroutines that will actually do the work. You use that first argument to decide which subroutine to call. If you get an argument you don't support, the final branch in the `if-elsif-else` prints a warning and returns nothing (but not the result of `print!`).

You want the arguments to `add` or `multiply` to be whatever is left in `@_`, so you preface their names with the `&` and leave off the parentheses when you call them. In this case, using the same `@_` is your intent.

The `add` and `multiply` subroutines are almost the same except for one character. They both look like accumulators. In the `add` subroutine, you can rely on the default starting value of `$n` to do the right thing since `0` is the additive identity. However, multiplying any number by `0` makes it `0`, so you start off `multiply` by setting `$n` to `1`, which is the multiplicative identity:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "The sum is ", do_it( "+", 1..10 ), "\n";
print "The product is ", do_it( "*", 1..10 ), "\n";

sub do_it {
    my $op = shift;

    if( $op eq "+" ) { &add }
    elsif( $op eq "*" ) { &multiply }
    else { print "I don't know $op!"; return }
}
```

```

sub add      { my $n = 0; foreach ( @_ ) { $n += $_ }; $n }

sub multiply { my $n = 1; foreach ( @_ ) { $n *= $_ }; $n }

```

If you don't want to use the magic feature of `&`, you just have to pass the remaining elements of `@_` to add or multiply yourself:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "The sum is ", do_it( "+", 1..10 ), "\n";
print "The product is ", do_it( "*", 1..10 ), "\n";

sub do_it {
    my $op = shift;

    if( $op eq "+" ) { add( @_ ) }
    elsif( $op eq "*" ) { multiply( @_ ) }
    else { print "I don't know $op!"; return }
}

sub add      { my $n = 0; foreach ( @_ ) { $n += $_ }; $n }

sub multiply { my $n = 1; foreach ( @_ ) { $n *= $_ }; $n }

```

Answer 4.6: You can solve this problem in several ways, and as with other solutions you have seen, you may have come up with something different than what you read here. In this case, you want to do different things for different numbers of arguments, so you use the `@_` array to figure out which thing to do. In scalar context, an array (just an array, not a list or anything else!) is the number of elements in the array. When you use it in a numerical comparison with `==` (and in the `if` condition, which is also a scalar context), `@_` is the number of elements.

When `@_` has one thing, you run the first `if` branch, which simply interpolates the array of one element into a string. You could have simply returned `$_[0]`, the first (and only) element of `@_`, too.

When `@_` has two things, you interpolate each thing in the double-quoted string through the single element accesses `$_[0]` and `$_[1]` with an `"` and `"` between them.

The hard part is the rest of the problem. The previous two cases were special. You can be a bit clever though: you only separate the last element with the `"` and `"`, so you take that off of the list right away and assign it to `$last`. Now you need to separate the rest of the elements with commas. You've already seen a trick in the program in the [Answer to Exercise 3.3](#): use the `$` special variable. When you interpolate `@_` in the double-quoted string, you get all but the last element. You add the last (serial) comma and `"` and `"` yourself before you interpolate the last value in `$last`:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

```



```

print separate( qw(fred) ), "\n";
print separate( qw(fred barney) ), "\n";
print separate( qw(fred barney betty) ), "\n";
print separate( qw(fred barney betty wilma) ), "\n";

sub separate {
    if( @_ == 1 ) { return "@_" }
    elsif( @_ == 2 ) { return "$_[0] and $_[1]" }
    elsif( @_ > 2 ) {
        my $last = pop;
        local $" = ", ";
        return "@_, and $last";
    }
}

```

You get the lists separated like you would if you typed them yourself:

```

fred
fred and barney
fred, barney, and betty
fred, barney, betty, and wilma

```

What happens if there is nothing in the argument list, which is the only case you don't explicitly handle? As with any other subroutine, the last evaluated expression is the return value, and since you don't evaluate any expression in that case, you get back nothing, or in Perl-speak, the empty list, which is the right answer even though you don't see anything that represents it in the code.

Answers to Chapter 5 Exercises

Answer 5.1: This one is pretty easy once you know the trick. If you use the `<>` operator, you can look in `$ARGV` to discover the current filename. The `<>` operator will automatically move on to the next file when it finishes one, and it will update the filename in `$ARGV`. You simply tack on the filename in `$ARGV` to the current line in `$_` and print it. You don't need a newline at the end because `$_` already has it:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

while( <> ) { print "$ARGV: $_" }
```

If you didn't know the trick, it's not so bad. You go through each of the command-line arguments in `@ARGV` and store each one in `$file` in turn. You open each file then go through its lines and print them as you did before:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    open my( $fh ), '<', $file;

    while( <$fh> ) { print "$file: $_" }

    close $fh;
}
```

A run might look like this:

```
$ perl ex5.1.pl cats dogs
cats: Buster
cats: Mimi
cats: Roscoe
dogs: Nicki
dogs: Addie
```

Answer 5.2: You can specify standard input using the virtual filename `-`. When the line input operator sees that filename, it starts reading from standard input:

```
$ perl ex5.2.pl *.pl -
```

You can do this in one `foreach` loop. You go through the files like you did in your program in [Answer 5.1](#), but if the name of the file is `-`, you set the name to `stdin` instead of `-`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    open my( $fh ), '<', $file;

    $file = 'stdin' if $file eq '-';

    while( <$fh> ) { print "$file: $_" }

    close $fh;
}
```

If you don't want to deal with `-` on the command line, you can do it in your program; you have to add it to the end of `@ARGV` yourself. You use [push](#) to add an element to the end of the list:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

push @ARGV, '-';

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    open my( $fh ), '<', $file;

    $file = 'stdin' if $file eq '-';

    while( <$fh> ) { print "$file: $_" }

    close $fh;
}
```

Now you don't need to add it on the command line yourself.

Either way, a run of your program looks a bit odd at first because the lines of input are intermingled with the lines of output:

```
$ perl ex5.2.pl -
This is a line of input
stdin: This is a line of input
This is another line
stdin: This is another line
```

Answer 5.3: You often see this problem when the programmer (or team of programmers) can't decide which parts of the program should be allowed to create output.

There's a lot of design issues to discuss and argue here, but for this problem I'll just say that subroutines should merely create the strings you print in the main part of the program.

The output you get from the unmodified program is close to what you want, but it's easy to miss the problem if you aren't looking closely:

```
9,9991
```

You just wanted to add commas in the right place. What's that extra 1? It comes from the double `print`. You first `print` the formatted number in the subroutine; that's where you get the 9,999. Once you do that, the subroutine returns the last evaluated expression. That's from the `print`, which returns 1 since it was able to do what it's supposed to do. The `print` in the main part of the program outputs what you give it, which is the return value of the subroutine. Thus, a 1 shows up after the 9,999. If you see this sort of behavior in your programs (that extra 1), look for something where `print` is actually printing the return value of `print`.

To fix the program, output in only one place by removing the `print` from the subroutine and leaving `$_` as the return value. You can't just stop after the `while` line because you still won't get the number as the last evaluated expression:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print format_number( 9999 ), "\n";

sub format_number {
    local $_ = shift;

    1 while s/^( [-+]? \d+ ) ( \d{3} ) /$1,$2/;

    $_;
}
```

Answer 5.4: The `printf` function has format specifiers for each of the representations you want. Once you have the number, you simply need to plug it into the right places. Preface each format specifier with a 5 to set the number is a five character wide column so the numbers line up on the right hand side. You just have to use a number whose binary representation won't use more than five columns (but if you do, it just overflows to the right):

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Please enter a number: ";
my $number = <STDIN>;

printf "binary: %5b\noctal: %5o\ndecimal: %5d\nhex: %5x\n",
    $number, $number, $number, $number;
```

You could save yourself a bit of typing with a trick you didn't see in [Learning Perl](#). You can actually use the replication operator, `x`, to replicate a list. It's not just for strings:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Please enter a number: ";
my $number = <STDIN>;

printf "binary: %5b\toctal: %5o\ndecimal: %5d\nhex: %5x\n",
    ( $number ) x 4;
```

As a bonus, you could dynamically decide the field length. Once you get the number from the input, you just need to know the length of the longest representation of the number. The longest will be the binary representation, so you just need to know the lowest power of 2 that the number is not greater than (otherwise known as the “least upper bound”). Take the base-2 logarithm, use the next highest power, and store that number in `$width`. When you use it in the `printf` format, you need to limit the variable name so Perl doesn't think the format specifier is part of the name: just put braces around the name:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Please enter a number: ";
my $number = <STDIN>;

my $width = int( log($number) / log(2) ) + 1;

printf "binary: ${width}b
octal:   ${width}o
decimal: ${width}d
hex:     ${width}x\n",
    ( $number ) x 4;
```

Note that Perl's `log` is a natural logarithm, so you have to divide by the natural log of 2 to convert the result to a power of 2.

Answer 5.5: You need to output two lines. The first is a line of column names, and the second is the computed numbers. The first four columns are easy: you just have to plug in the right numbers. For the percent fraction, first compute the quotient, but then multiply by 100 to get the percent. In the `printf` format string, use the `.2f` format specifier to denote a floating point number with only two decimal places, and follow it with a `%` to get a literal `%` in the output:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "  first  second      sum  product      %\n";
```

```

printf "%7d %7d %7d %7d %.2f%%\n",
    $ARGV[0] , $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] + $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] * $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] / $ARGV[1] * 100;

```

That's actually a simple-minded solution because it has a fatal flaw. If the second number you enter is 0 then you'll try to divide by zero when you compute the percent. You could do more work to get around that by making that a special case:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print " first second      sum  product      %\n";

my $percent;
if( $ARGV[1] == 0 ) {
    $percent = 0;
}
else {
    $percent = $ARGV[0] / $ARGV[1] * 100;
}

printf "%7d %7d %7d %7d %.2f%%\n",
    $ARGV[0] , $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] + $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] * $ARGV[1],
    $percent;

```

Later, in [Chapter 17](#), you'll learn about the [eval](#), which is a more elegant way to handle this. With [eval](#), you'll just let the error happen and the [eval](#) will catch it, giving undef as the result, which turns into the number 0:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print " first second      sum  product      %\n";

printf "%7d %7d %7d %7d %.2f%%\n",
    $ARGV[0] , $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] + $ARGV[1],
    $ARGV[0] * $ARGV[1],
    eval { $ARGV[0] / $ARGV[1] } * 100;

```

Answer 5.6: This is similar to Exercise 5.3 in [Learning Perl](#). You solve this problem in two parts. First, go through all of the numbers from the command line and figure out the maximum length of the numbers. Since Perl has interchangeable numbers and strings, treat the number as a string to get its length. If the length of the current number is greater than the one you've stored in `$max`, update `$max`. In this short program, you don't need to pre-declare `$max`; Perl automatically creates it and gives it the `undef` value when you use for the first time:


```

        return;
    }
}

```

Answer 5.8: This program is almost the same as the one you saw in [Answer 5.7](#), but you add one line at the top. Re-open `STDERR` and connect it to the file `ex5.8.error.log`. Use the `>>` to open the file in append mode so you add to the file rather than overwrite it. All of the standard error output will now show up in that file:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open STDERR, '>>', 'ex5.8.error.log';

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    my $count = count_lines( $file );

    if( defined $count ) {
        print "There are $count lines in $file\n";
    }
}

sub count_lines {
    my $file = shift;

    my $sum;

    if( open my( $fh ), '<', $file ) {
        while( <$fh> ) { $sum++ };
        return $sum;
    }
    else {
        warn "Could not open file! $!";
        return;
    }
}

```

Answer 5.9: You can do this in a few ways (just like anything else in Perl). Attempt to [open](#) the file, and if you can't, stop the program with [die](#) and print an error message, including the Perl special variable `$!`, which tells the reason Perl could not [open](#) the file. You should always ensure you were actually able to [open](#) the files before you try to use their filehandles.

Once you have the opened filehandle, you need to get one line then print it. Use the [scalar](#) function to force `<$fh>` into scalar context so you get only one line from the filehandle. If you don't force the scalar context, the filehandle will be in list context and will return all of the lines, which you don't want:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

```



```
open my( $fh ), '<', $ARGV[0] or die( "Could not open $ARGV[0]! $!" );

print scalar <$fh>;
```

You can also force scalar context by assigning the result of `<$fh>` to a scalar. The result of an assignment is the value that you assigned, and that's the value you give to `print`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open my( $fh ), '<', $ARGV[0] or die( "Could not open $ARGV[0]! $!" );

print my $line = <$fh>;
```

If you didn't want to play either of those tricks, you can simply read a line of input and store it in a scalar. In this example, you assign the line to `$_` then call `print` without an argument since you know it uses `$_` by default:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open my( $fh ), '<', $ARGV[0] or die( "Could not open $ARGV[0]! $!" );

$_ = <$fh>

print;
```

Answer 5.10: First, open the log file where you want store the messages. Use `>>` for append mode in the `open` so you add to the file instead of overwriting it. If you can't open the file, call `die` with a message that includes the Perl special variable `$!`, which contains the reason you couldn't open the file.

Next, prompt for a message then read the answer from standard input and store it in `$message`. Call `localtime` and assign it to a scalar. Since this is scalar context, `localtime` returns a single string that represents the date instead of a list of date parts. That's just what you need for the timestamp.

Finally, output to the filehandle you opened earlier. Create a string that starts with the timestamp wrapped in `[]` to separate it from the rest of the string then the rest of the message:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $log = 'ex5.10.log';
open my( $out ), '>>', $log
    or die "Could not open $log! $!";

print "Enter a message>> ";

my $message = <STDIN>;
```

```
my $timestamp = localtime;

print $out "[$timestamp] $message";
```

Answer 5.11: You can complete this task very simply by using [binmode](#) to set the `:crlf` layer. This pseudolayer translates newlines to carriage-return/newline pairs. The [say](#) adds the newline for you, but the output layer takes care of the translation:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use 5.010;

binmode STDOUT, ':crlf';

foreach ( @ARGV ) {
    say $_;
}
```

How can you tell that your output came out correctly, though? If you are on a Unix shell command line, you can pipe to the `hexdump` program to turn the output into a hexadecimal representation so you can see each byte's ordinal value. This lets you see the `0d 0a` that represents the carriage-return/line-feed pair:

```
$ perl ex5.11.pl cat dog bird | hexdump
00000000 63 61 74 0d 0a 64 66 67 0d 0a 62 69 72 64 0d 0a
00000010
```

Answer 5.12: Your answer to this exercise is the inverse of the answer for [Exercise 5.11](#). Instead of outputting information and adding the carriage return then, you need to input some information and remove the carriage return. The `:crlf` layer actually does both jobs. On reading, it does the conversion that you need. Open a file, setting the encoding with the [open](#) mode. When you read a line, `perl` converts it for you and you merely need to [print](#) the result:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open my $fh, '<:crlf', $ARGV[0];

while ( <$fh> ) {
    print $_;
}
```

Answer 5.13: This task is one step beyond [Exercise 5.12](#). You have to [open](#) the input file for reading using the UTF-8 encoding and [open](#) the output file for writing using the UTF-16BE encoding. Once you have those two filehandles, you read from the input and immediately print to the output. The Perl layers take care of the rest for you:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
```

```
use warnings;

open my $in_fh, '<:encoding(UTF-8)', $ARGV[0];
open my $out_fh, '>:encoding(UTF-16BE)', $ARGV[1];

while ( <$in_fh> ) {
    print $out_fh $_;
}
```

If you use the file you created in [Exercise 5.11](#), a hex dump of your input file looks like compact and tidy:

```
$ perl ex5.11.pl cat dog bird > utf8.txt
00000000 63 61 74 0d 0a 64 6f 67 0d 0a 62 69 72 64 0d 0a
00000010
```

Your UTF-16BE-encoded data, however, take up much more space since every character takes up at least two bytes. In this case, many of those are 00:

```
$ perl ex5.13.pl utf8.txt utf16be.txt
$ hexdump utf16be.txt
00000000 00 63 00 61 00 74 00 0d 00 0a 00 64 00 6f 00 67
00000010 00 0d 00 0a 00 62 00 69 00 72 00 64 00 0d 00 0a
00000020
```

Answers to Chapter 6 Exercises

Answer 6.1: Most of this problem is simply creating the hash. There is nothing fancy about it: you just have to type it in. In `%birthdays`, use a single line for each key-value pair and use the big arrow operator, `=>`, to separate the keys and values. The big arrow automatically quotes the string on its left. You can also line up the big arrows to create easy-to-read columns.

To report the contents of the hash, go through it with a `foreach` loop. With each of the keys, output a line that includes the name and the birthday and look up the value directly in the double-quoted string:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my %birthdays = (
    Fred    => 'April 5',
    Wilma   => 'October 26',
    Pebbles => 'October 8',
);

foreach my $name ( keys %birthdays ) {
    print "$name => $birthdays{$name}\n";
}
```

Here's a sample run:

```
$ perl ex6.1.pl
Pebbles => October 8
Wilma => October 26
Fred => April 5
```

Answer 6.2: Take the hash that you created in the [Answer to Exercise 6.1](#). Prompt the user for a name then read a line from standard input and store it in `$name`. You don't want the newline on the end of the input, so remove it with [chomp](#).

Once you have the name, output a message. Look up the value and interpolate it directly in the double-quoted string:

second case has a key in the hash, but not a true value. You still want to print something meaningful. If the key exists and doesn't have a value (you've already taken care of those that have values in the first branch), tell the user that the name is in the hash. The `exists` function doesn't care what the value is as long as the key is there, so even though you have the key, Barney, with the empty string as its value, you can still tell the user that Barney is in the hash. If neither of those works, catch it in the third branch that prints that the name is not in the hash:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my %birthdays = (
    Fred    => 'April 5',
    Wilma   => 'October 26',
    Pebbles => 'October 8',
    Barney  => '',
    Slate   => undef,
);

print "Enter a name: ";
chomp( my $name = <STDIN> );

if( $birthdays{$name} ) {
    print "${name}'s birthday is $birthdays{$name}\n";
}
elsif( exists $birthdays{$name} ) {
    print "$name is in the hash, but I don't know the birthday\n";
}
else {
    print "$name is not in the birthday registry\n";
}
```

Here's a couple of sample runs:

```
$ perl ex6.4.pl
Enter a name: Fred
Fred's birthday is April 5

$ perl ex6.4.pl
Enter a name: Slate
Slate is in the hash, but I don't know the birthday
```

Answer 6.5: For this program, go through the keys of the hash and output a line for each key that has a true value. You get the list of keys with the `keys` function, and each key ends up in `$name` in turn. Inside the `foreach` loop, use the value for that key in the `if` condition. If the value is true, output the line. If it isn't, move on to the next key:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my %birthdays = (
    Fred    => 'April 5',
```

```

Wilma  => 'October 26',
Pebbles => 'October 8',
Barney  => '',
Slate   => undef,
);

foreach my $name ( keys %birthdays ) {
    if( $birthdays{$name} ) {
        print "$name -- $birthdays{$name}\n";
    }
}

```

Here's a sample run:

```

$ perl ex6.5.pl
Pebbles -- October 8
Wilma -- October 26
Fred -- April 5

```

Answer 6.6: You have to change the program around a bit to use the [each](#) function. The [each](#) function thinks about one key-value pair at a time, which makes it really good for very large hashes where you don't want to create a list of all the keys at one time, potentially taking up a lot of memory. Instead of a `foreach` loop, use a `while`. When you've gone through all the key-value pairs, [each](#) returns `undef` and the `while` loop will stop. In turn, store each key and value in `$name` and `$birthday`.

Inside the `while` loop, test the value of `$birthday` to decide what you want to do. You don't bother with a hash lookup since you already have the value in `$birthday`:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my %birthdays = (
    Fred  => 'April 5',
    Wilma => 'October 26',
    Pebbles => 'October 8',
    Barney => '',
    Slate  => undef,
);

while( my( $name, $birthday ) = each %birthdays ) {
    if( $birthday ) {
        print "$name -- $birthday\n";
    }
}

```

Here's a sample run:

```

$ perl ex6.6.pl
Pebbles -- October 8
Wilma -- October 26
Fred -- April 5

```

Answer 6.7: Most of this solution comes from the program you wrote for the [Answer to Exercise 6.1](#). Add a couple of lines in the middle to cleanse the `%birthdays` hash before you output its contents. Go through all of the keys in a `foreach` loop, and unless the value is true (you don't really care about valid dates), use `delete` to remove the key from the hash.

Go through the keys with `foreach`. Test the value as you did in the [Answer to Exercise 6.6](#), and if it is false, delete that key from the hash. At the end of this `foreach` loop, there are no false values in the hash.

When you report the contents of the hash, you don't see the entries for Barney or Slate since `delete` removed them. Otherwise, you should get output that looks like that for the [Answer to Exercise 6.1](#):

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my %birthdays = (
    Fred    => 'April 5',
    Wilma   => 'October 26',
    Pebbles => 'October 8',
    Barney  => '',
    Slate   => undef,
);

foreach my $name ( keys %birthdays ) {
    delete $birthdays{$name} unless $birthdays{$name};
}

foreach my $name ( keys %birthdays ) {
    print "$name -- $birthdays{$name}\n";
}
```

Here's a sample run, where your output looks like that from your program in the [Answer to Exercise 6.1](#), although for different reasons:

```
$ perl ex6.7.pl
Pebbles -- October 8
Wilma -- October 26
Fred -- April 5
```

Answers to Chapter 7 Exercises

Answer 7.1: The regular expression portion of this answer is a simple alternation. You want to match a string that contains either “fred” or “barney”. Use alternation for that. This regular expression matches either word anywhere in the input string:

```
m/fred|barney/
```

Once you have matched the string, you can use the Perl special variables `$`` (that’s a backtick) and `$'` (that’s a single tick) to get the parts of the string before and after the parts that matched.

Around that, wrap a `while` loop to prompt the user for a string then try to match the string. Put the `m//` in the `if` condition. If the string matches, output the report for the problem. If the string does not match, output a different string:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/fred|barney/ ) {
    print "Before: $`\nName: $&\nAfter: $'\n";
}
else {
    print "The string did not match\n";
}
```

Here are some sample runs of the program:

```
$ perl ex7.1.pl
Enter a string>> fred
Before:
Name:  fred
After:

$ perl ex7.1.pl
Enter a string>> barney
Before:
```

```

Name: barney
After:

$ perl ex7.1.pl
Enter a string>> aaaafredzzzz
Before: aaaa
Name: fred
After: zzzz

$ perl ex7.1.pl
Enter a string>> xxxxbarney
Before: xxxx
Name: barney
After:

```

If you write real programs using `$``, `$'`, or `$&`, other Perlers are likely to complain since those variables come with a performance problem as they slow down every match in your program. Perl 5.10 introduces a workaround for this by making the penalty per match. If you use the `/p` flag, you can use the `${^PREMATCH}`, `${^POSTMATCH}`, or `${^MATCH}` variables instead:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use 5.010;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/fred|barney/p ) {
    print "Before: ${^PREMATCH}\nName:  ${^MATCH}\nAfter: ${^POSTMATCH}\n";
}
else {
    print "The string did not match\n";
}

```

Answer 7.2: Use the same program that you wrote for [Answer 7.1](#), but change the regular expression. You need to match an “a” followed by a “b” followed by a “c”, so just put them in sequence. This regular expression matches when the characters are next to each other:

```
m/abc/
```

For this problem, though, you want to allow any number of characters between those letters. The regular expression meta-character for any character (except a newline) is the full-stop (`.`). That number could be zero, or one, or two, and so on, so after the “.”, use the `*` quantifier:

```
m/a.*b.*c/
```

Now replace the regular expression from [Answer 7.1](#) with your new one:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;

```

```

use warnings;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/a.*b.*c/ ) {
    print "The string has an a, b, and c\n";
}
else {
    print "String did not match\n";
}

```

Here are some sample runs of the program:

```

$ perl ex7.2.pl
Enter a string>> abd
String did not match

$ perl ex7.2.pl
Enter a string>> abc
The string has an a, b, and c

$ perl ex7.2.pl
Enter a string>> axxxxbyyc
The string has an a, b, and c

```

This solution has a slight problem. What if there are newlines between the letters? We don't tell you about the `/s` match flag until [Chapter 8](#), so you could use a character class instead. If your character class is, for instance, all the digits and non-digits, it covers every character:

```
m/a[\d\D]*b[\d\D]*c/
```

Once you know about the `/s` flag, you can apply that to make the `.` match any character, including a newline:

```
m/a.*b.*c/s
```

Answer 7.3: This answer is a lot like the answer for your program for [Answer 7.2](#) although a string like “abc” should not match because no other characters show up between the letters. Modify the regular expression from [Answer 7.2](#) so it requires characters between those letters. The `*` quantifier becomes the `+` quantifier that requires one or more matches:

```
m/a.+b.+c/
```

The full program is otherwise the same:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/a.+b.+c/ ) {

```

```

        print "The string has an a, b, and c\n";
    }
    else {
        print "String did not match\n";
    }
}

```

Here are some sample runs of the program:

```

$ perl ex7.3.pl
Enter a string>> xyz
String did not match

```

```

$ perl ex7.3.pl
Enter a string>> abc
String did not match

```

```

$ perl ex7.3.pl
Enter a string>> axbyc
The string has an a, b, and c

```

Answer 7.4: This is a bit of a trick question since the best answer is not always a single regular expression. You could write such a beast, but [Learning Perl](#) hasn't shown you enough regular expression kung fu yet.

You already know how to match an “a”. That's this regular expression:

```
m/a/
```

That gets you as far as a string that matches an “a”. The second part of the problem states that there cannot be any “b” after that. You can check that by looking at `$'`, the part of the string after the portion you matched.

[Learning Perl](#) hasn't introduced the binding operator yet (wait until [Chapter 8](#)), so once you know you can match an “a”, assign `$'` to `$_` and then try another match, `m/b/`. You don't want the program to find a “b”, so negate the test in the second `if`. That `if` is true as long as `$'` does not have a “b”:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/a/ ) {
    $_ = $';
    if( ! m/b/ ) {
        print "The string has an a without a following b\n";
    }
    else {
        print "The string has an a, but a following b\n";
    }
}
else {
    print "String did not match\n";
}

```

Answer 7.5: Your program in this answer should look similar to your other answers in this chapter; it's just the regular expression that's interesting. To match at least three characters, use `(...+)`. To allow some additional characters between that sequence and its repetition, use `.*`. Finally, use the relative backreference `\g{-1}` to match the sequence again:

```
(...+).*\g{-1}
```

Here's the complete program:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use 5.010;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/(...+).*\g{-1}/ ) {
    say "Found a repeated [$1]"
}
else {
    say 'String did not match';
}
```

Here's a sample run:

```
$ perl ex7.5.pl
Enter a string>> abcdabc
Found a repeated [abc]
```

If you couldn't use a relative backreference, you can still solve the exercise. Prior to Perl 5.10, just use `\1`:

```
m/(...+).*\1/
```

Perl has an easier way to handle patterns like “at least three”, but we don't show you that until [Chapter 8](#) of *Learning Perl*. You can also use the minimum-maximum quantifier with no maximum:

```
(.{3,}).*\g{-1}
```

Answer 7.6: Your program in this answer should look similar to your program in [Answer 7.5](#) and the parts of your pattern are the same as in your answer to that exercise, just more so:

```
(...+).*(...+).*\g{-2}.*\g{-1}
```

Here's the complete program:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use 5.010;
```

```

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/(...+).*(...+).*\g{-2}.*\g{-1}/ ) {
    say "Found a repeated [$1] and [$2]"
}
else {
    say 'String did not match';
}

```

Here's a sample run:

```

$ perl ex7.6.pl
Enter a string>> abc123abcd123
Found a repeated [abc] and [123]

```

If you couldn't use a relative backreference, you can still solve the exercise. Prior to Perl 5.10, just use `\1` and `\2`:

```
m/(...+).*(...+).*\1.*\2/
```

If you rewrite this with the minimum-maximum quantifier, which you don't actually read about until [Chapter 8 of *Learning Perl*](#), you have:

```
m/(.{3,}).*({3,}).*\1.*\2/
```

Answer 7.7: To match a Unicode property, you use the `\p{}` sequence with the appropriate property name. To find the names, you can look at the [list of properties on the Unicode.org website](#) or look in [perluniprops](#). Perl adds a few bonus properties, though, so checking Perl's list is better. The property name for numbers is `Number` and for whitespace is `Space`. You'll find many other properties that are variations on these and specify various types of numbers or whitespace, but these are probably the general ones that you want:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl

use 5.010;

use strict;
use warnings;

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/\p{Space}/ ) { say 'Found a type of space'; }
if( m/\p{Number}/ ) { say 'Found a type of number'; }

```

Here's a couple of sample runs:

```

$ perl5.14.1 properties.pl
Enter a string>> This is a line
Found a type of space

$ perl5.14.1 properties.pl
Enter a string>> This is 2 lines

```

Found a type of space
Found a type of number

Answers to Chapter 8 Exercises

In [Chapter 7](#), you used the same basic program to test all of the regular expressions. Instead of copying that into every answer for this chapter, I'll just give you the regular expressions and you can plug them into the program yourself.

Answer 8.1: The regular expression is just the character class that contains those letters. Put the letters between the `[]`:

m/[abx]/

To make it case insensitive, add the uppercase characters, too. There is an easier way to do this, but *Learning Perl* doesn't show you that until [Chapter 9](#):

m/[abxABX]/

You could have also done this problem with an alternation, although I told you to use a character class. The alternation works, but it's a lot more work, not only for you to type but for Perl to run it:

m/a	b	x	A	B	X/
-----	---	---	---	---	----

Answer 8.2: You've already done most of the work for this problem. Now you just need to anchor the character class to the beginning of the string. The `\A` specifies that the regular expression has to start at the beginning of the string:

$$m/\backslash A[abx]/$$

To match it at the end of the string, use the end-of-string anchor, `\z`, at the end of the regular expression:

m/[abx]\z/

If you are used to older versions of Perl, you might have used either the `^` or `$` anchors instead. Strictly speaking, these aren't anchors for the beginning or end of a string since you can modify them to anchor at the beginning or end of logical lines with the `/m` modifier. If you are looking strictly for the string anchors, you might be surprised by these. This is even more important as people can set default regular expression modifiers that you don't see with the operators. Review [Anchors \(page 138\)](#) in *Learning Perl* if you need to remind yourself of the details.

Answer 8.3: You can *not* match something in several ways, but when you just want to exclude a few characters, you can use a negated character class. Instead of specifying the characters that should match, specify the ones that shouldn't. The character class starts with an `^` that forms the complement of the set of characters you specify:

```
m/\A[^abx]/
```

It can get even more twisted. Suppose you don't want to match a literal `^` at the beginning of the string. That regular expression looks like, well, I don't know what it looks like but it isn't pretty. The `^` is only special at the beginning of the character class, so there are actually three different meanings of `^` in this pattern (see the [Answer 8.2](#) for an explanation of the difference between `\A` and `^`):

```
m/^[^^]/
```

The end-of-string versions are the same, except you use the `\z` anchor at the end instead of the `\A` at the beginning:

```
m/[^abx]\z/  
m/[^^]\z/
```

Answer 8.4: The trick here is the regular expression back references. You can reuse anything you capture in parentheses. You don't have to know how long that first thing is, or how many characters intervene between it and the end of the string.

You know that you need to anchor each part at the beginning and the end of the string, so the regular expression starts with `\A` and ends with `\z`. At the beginning of the string, match one or more characters except a newline, `(.+)`. Whatever you match there ends up in the back reference `\1`, which you put next to the end-of-string anchor. There might be characters between those parts, so put a `.*` in the middle. Putting it all together, you get this regular expression:

```
m/\A(.+).*\1\z/
```

You can also specify the backreference with `\g` (see [Chapter 7](#)):

```
m/\A(.+).*\g1\z/
```

You can also use a relative backreference:

```
m/\A(.+).*\g{-1}\z/
```

Answer 8.5: Bring back the regular expression testing program from [Chapter 7](#). To report the variable type, create a hash that uses the sigils characters (`$`, `@`, `%`) as the keys, and their variable type as the value. You'll use that to lookup the variable type when you want to output it.

The regular expression to match the variable name is a bit tricky. You'll build it up gradually. In real life, complicated regular expression does not come to mind all at once (at least for me). Instead, write parts of it and test them as you go, add to it, test again, and so on.

First, you want to limit the string to exactly the part matched by the regular expression, so use the beginning-of-string and end-of-string anchors:

```
m/\A\z/
```

Next, you know that you need to start with one of the sigil characters, so you put that right after the beginning of string anchor as a character class (an alternation would also work). You have to escape the \$ and @ characters because the match operator is actually a double-quoted string context and will try to interpolate variables. You don't have to worry about the % because hashes don't interpolate into strings:

```
m/\A([\$\@%])\z/
```

You want to remember the variable type after the match, so put that character class in parentheses to trigger the memory variables:

```
m/\A([\$\@%])\z/
```

Are you still with me? The next part is the first character of the variable name. For user-defined variable names, start with a letter or an underscore:

```
m/\A([\$\@%])[a-zA-Z_]\z/
```

Finally, the name can have any number of letters, underscores, or digits. I could make a character class for that. It's [a-zA-Z0-9_], but Perl has a shortcut for that: \w (I'll say more about this in a moment). Since you can have zero or more of those characters, I use the * quantifier after it:

```
m/\A([\$\@%])[a-zA-Z_]\w*\z/
```

Now you plug that into my regular expression tester with a few changes. Once you match the string, tell the user which variable type it was. The sigil character is in the memory variable \$1. In the string you output, use \$1 as the key for a hash lookup to get the variable type name:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my %sigils = qw( $ scalar @ array % hash );

print "Enter a string>> ";
chomp( $_ = <STDIN> );

if( m/\A([\$\@%])[a-zA-Z_]\w*\z/ ) {
    print "The variable type is $sigils{$1}\n";
}
else {
    print "The string is not a valid Perl variable name\n";
}
```

Since that pattern is so complicated, you can use the /x match modifier to add insignificant whitespace and comments to remind yourself what each part does:

```

m/
    \A          # start of the string
    (          # start of capture
        [\\$\\@%] # sigil
    )
    [a-zA-Z_]   # first character of name
    \\w*        # the rest of the characters
    \\z         # end of the string
/x

```

I mentioned earlier that I'd say more about the `\\w` shortcut. Prior to Perl's Unicode support, the `\\w` was strictly a subset of ASCII, the `[a-zA-Z0-9_]` you used so far. With Unicode support, the `\\w` character class can match much more, meaning that patterns that you wrote a long time ago might now match more than you intended.

Perl 5.14 added the `/a` modifier to force regular expressions to use their old ASCII meanings:

```

m/
    # Perl 5.14 version
    \A          # start of the string
    (          # start of capture
        [\\$\\@%] # sigil
    )
    [a-zA-Z_]   # first character of name
    \\w*        # the rest of the characters, ASCII only now with /a
    \\z         # end of the string
/xa

```

If you don't have Perl 5.14 or later, you have to do the work yourself by avoiding the character class altogether:

```

m/
    \A          # start of the string
    (          # start of capture
        [\\$\\@%] # sigil
    )
    [a-zA-Z_]   # first character of name
    [a-zA-Z0-9_]* # the rest of the characters, ASCII only now with /a
    \\z         # end of the string
/x

```

With Perl 5.14, you can also explicitly tell Perl that you want to use the Unicode interpretation. Turn that on with the `/u` modifier:

```

m/
    # Perl 5.14 version
    \A          # start of the string
    (          # start of capture
        [\\$\\@%] # sigil
    )
    [a-zA-Z_]   # first character of name
    \\w+        # the rest of the characters, UCS now with /u
    \\z         # end of the string
/xu

```

This still has a problem because the first character can be more than just `[a-zA-Z_]`. It can't be a decimal digit still, but with a Unicode identifier, it can be much more. You probably didn't know this, but there are Unicode properties to handle this. Characters valid at the start of an identifier have the `ID_Start` property and the characters valid in the rest of the identifier have the `ID_Continue` property. This greatly simplifies your pattern:

```
m/
  \A          # start of the string
  \p{ID_Start}
  \p{ID_Continue}*
  \z          # end of the string
/x
```

However, [Unicode Technical Report 31](#) recommends the updated properties `XID_Start` and `XID_Continue` for a couple of picky details, which you can read about in that report:

```
m/
  \A          # start of the string
  \p{XID_Start}
  \p{XID_Continue}*
  \z          # end of the string
/x
```

If you tried to fake it yourself with a combination of properties, you might have come up with something like:

```
m/
  \A          # start of the string
  [\p{Alphabetic}\p{Mark}\p{Connector_Punctuation}]
  [\p{Alphabetic}\p{Mark}\p{Connector_Punctuation}\p{Decimal_Number}]*
  \z          # end of the string
/x
```

Answers to Chapter 9 Exercises

Answer 9.1: The first one is easy. You use an alternate delimiter for your match operator. Since you're not using the default `//` delimiters, you need the leading `m`. I like to use the pipe ("`|`") character, but you can use other characters, or even the paired characters like `{` and `}`. These are the same thing:

```
m|/usr/bin/perl|
m(/usr/bin/perl)
m{/usr/bin/perl}
m,/usr/bin/perl,
```

To match a web address with a fragment identifier, you can cheat a little. Rather than get into the edge and special cases, look for the beginning `http://` then non-whitespace characters (`\S`) followed by the `#` character which starts the fragment name (assuming any literal `#`'s are properly escaped). Using the paired curly braces as your delimiter, your pattern looks like:

```
m{http://(\S+)#}
```

Matching a real C++ comment is rather tricky. In the simple case, it's just the `//` until the end of the line. What if that `//` shows up in a literal string instead of a comment, though? Well, then, this won't work. I just want you to use an alternate delimiter, so here's the simple regular expression. If you really wanted to do this, you'd have to completely parse the C++ code, and luckily for you, *Learning Perl* didn't cover that:

```
m[/]/
```

However, if you are curious, *perlfaq6* has a complicated regular expression that tries to do this for any situation.

Answer 9.2: The regular expression from [Exercise 8.1](#) wanted to match a string with an "a", "b", or "x" of either case:

```
m/[abxABX]/;
```

Now you know that is too much work. You can rewrite that now with the `/i` modifier that turns off case-sensitivity:

```
m/[abx]/i
```


In the answer to [Exercise 8.5](#), you needed to match a Perl variable name, and you used this regular expression:

```
m/^([$\@%])[a-zA-Z_]\w*$
```

You can write that now as a regular expression that is a bit shorter. If you decided, for some reason, to limit the match to the characters between “a” and “m”, you only have to modify one range:

m/^(([\\\$\\@%]))[a-z_]\\w*\$ /i

However, using the fancier Unicode properties means you don't have to do that because the lowercase and uppercase characters are already in the properties. So, there is no change:

```
m/
  \A          # start of the string
  \p{ID_Start}
  \p{ID_Continue}*
  \z          # end of the string
/x
```

Answer 9.3: First you have to get the input, but rather than type the same lines over and over again, make a loop to prompt the user for each line. Start with an array, `@orders`, where you put the strings “first”, “second”, and “third”. Use those strings when you ask the user for a line, and you’ll use its length to determine how many lines to read. If you want to read more or fewer lines, just change the number of things in `@orders`.

Go through `@orders` with a `foreach` loop, and use the value of the current element as part of the string. That gives the prompt you need so you know which line you're on. Read in the line, store it in `$line`, `chomp` off the newline, then push the line onto `@lines`, where you store all of the entered lines. You'll use that later when you want to check the matches.

Prompt for a regular expression and store it in `$regex`. Don't worry about invalid regular expressions in this program, although *Learning Perl* covers that sort of thing in [Chapter 17](#) with `eval`.

[illegible]

If the `if` condition is true, bind an element of `@lines` to the regular expression, which is the string in `$regex`. The match operator interpolates that value and treats it as if you had literally typed it right there. The binding operator, `=~`, lets you apply that regular expression to any scalar value or variable.

If the string matches, output a string that says which line it is and that it matched. If it doesn't match, output a string that says which line it is and that it didn't match:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

my @orders = qw( first second third );
foreach my $order ( @orders ) {
    print "Enter the $order string>> ";

    chomp( my $line = <> );

    push @lines, $line;
}

print "Enter a regular expression>> ";

chomp( my $regex = <> );

foreach my $index ( 0 .. $#lines ) {
    if( $lines[$index] =~ m/$regex/ ) {
        say "The $orders[$index] line matches";
    }
    else {
        say "The $orders[$index] line does not match";
    }
}
```

Answer 9.4: It only looks like you have a lot to do in this program, but you can use a single `print` statement and give it four strings to output. Don't `chomp` the string so the lines of output show up on separate lines without extra typing. There's no sense taking off a newline just to put it back on.

The first string is the original string, `$_`, which you don't modify. The next string is `$_` in all uppercase, which you get with the `\U` case-shifting operator. Then you have the all lowercase version with `\L`, and finally the initial upper case version using `\L\u`. You end the whole thing with an additional newline so the groups of successive lines have a blank line between them:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

while( <> ) {
    say $_, "\U$_", "\L$_", "\L\u$_";
}
```

You might write that as one long string, too, although it's a bit harder for you to see the parts:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

while( <> ) {
    print "$_\U$_\L$_\L\u$_";
}
```

Answer 9.5: This one is not as simple. Start with the program from [Answer 9.4](#). After you output the first part, store an all lowercased version of `$_` in `$last`. That gets you halfway there. After that, use the substitution operator with the global modifier (`/g`) to find all the word characters (`\w`) that follow a word boundary (`\b`). By enclosing the word character in parentheses, you capture it in `$1`. On the replacement side of the substitution, you use the all uppercased version of `$1`. Finally, output the result and a trailing newline for good measure:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

while( <> ) {
    print $_, "\U$_", "\L$_", "\L\u$_";

    my $last = "\L$_";

    $last =~ s/\b(\w)/\U$1/g;

    print $last;
}
```

That's the version without the `/r` modifier. You can get rid of a couple of lines that prepare the string you eventually bind to the substitution since the `/r` will return the result. You don't need the temporary variable at all:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.014;

while( <> ) {
    print $_, "\U$_", "\L$_", "\L\u$_";

    print "\L$_" =~ s/\b(\w)/\U$1/rg;
}
```

Answer 9.6: For the report, you need the field names and their values. You get the field names from the first line of input, which you store in `$header`. You immediately [chomp](#) to get rid of the newline. Split up the value in `$header` by tabs and store the fields in `@field_names`. You'll use that later when you need to output the report.

Continue reading lines, but now each line is data. You can [split](#) those on tabs and store the fields in `@fields`. Now you have the two parts you need: the fields and the values.

To output a section of the report, pull data from two different arrays. In this situation, rather than go through an array, go through all the indices of one of the arrays. It doesn't matter which one you choose since they have the same number of elements. With each index, you can pull the right element from `@field_names` and `@fields` at the same time:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

chomp( my $header = <> );
my @field_names = split /\t/, $header;

while( <> ) {
    chomp;
    my @fields = split /\t/;

    foreach my $index ( 0 .. $#fields ) {
        say "$field_names[$index]: $fields[$index]"
    }
}
```

Perl 5.12 offers another interesting way to handle this, although we didn't cover it in [Learning Perl](#). Now you can use [each](#) on an array to get both the value and its index at the same time:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

chomp( my $header = <> );
my @field_names = split /\t/, $header;

while( <> ) {
    chomp;
    my @fields = split /\t/;

    while( my( $index, $value ) = each @fields ) {
        say "$field_names[$index]: $value"
    }
}
```

Answer 9.7: Read lines of input and [split](#) them on tabs, assigning the result to `@fields`. You can immediately [join](#) the values with "|":

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

while( <> ) {
    my @fields = split /\t/;

    print join( "|", @fields );
}
```

You can also do this without the intermediate variable:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

while( <> ) {
    print join "|", split /\t/;
}
```

You can also flip this around to put it all on one line, although [Learning Perl](#) hasn't shown you this yet:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print join "|", split /\t/ while( <> );
```

And, just as a bonus, you could do this directly on the command line although [Learning Perl](#) hasn't told you this yet, either:

```
$ perl -ne 'print join "|", split /\t/' filename
```

Answers to Chapter 10 Exercises

Answer 10.1: Use the line-input operator to get lines. Before you output the line, check if it has the word “ruby” or “python” by trying to match either of those words with a regular expression. If your regular expression succeeds, stop the loop iteration and move on to the next line. If the regular expression fails, continue with the iteration and execute the `print` statement, which without an argument outputs the value of `$_`. This is a common Perl idiom for processing lines of files: read in a line and decide if you want to process it, and if not, use `next` to move on to the next line:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

while( <> ) {
    next if m/ruby|python/;
    print;
}
```

Answer 10.2: Read lines of input, and for each line use the auto-increment operator to add one to the value of `$sum`. After you do that, check if the word “perl” is in the line, and if it is, use the `last` command to stop the `while` loop and move on with the program.

Once you break out of the `while` loop, the value in `$sum` is the number of lines of input you read until you found the word “perl”:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

my $sum = 0;
while( <> ) {
    $sum++;
    last if m/perl/;
}

say "There were $sum lines until I found perl";
```

There's another way that you can do this because Perl automatically tracks the line number for you in the \$. special variable:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

while( <> ) {
    last if m/perl/;
}

say "There were $, lines until I found perl";
```

Answer 10.3: Read in lines of input and `chomp` off the newline. Immediately lowercase the entire string so you don't have to worry about uppercase and lowercase versions of the same word. Although *Learning Perl* didn't tell you about the `lc` function, you could have used that too. In the next line, you use the substitution operator with a negated character class to replace all of the non-alphabetic characters with a space. You don't care too much about spaces because you're going to use `split` to break up the lines on spaces to get the list of words you assign to `@words`.

Once you have the list of words, go through it with `foreach` to increment the value for that key in the `%count` hash. Each word becomes a key, and the value is the number of times that you have seen it. This sort of hash is sometimes known as an "accumulator" and is a very common Perl idiom.

When you finish with the `while` loop, you just need to report the results. Go through all of the keys in `%count` and print a columnar report with the keys and their values:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $count;
while( <> ) {
    chomp;
    $_ = "\L$_"; # or $_ = lc $_

    s/[^a-z]/ /g;
    my @words = split;

    foreach my $word ( @words ) {
        $count{$word}++;
    }
}

foreach my $word ( keys %count ) {
    printf "%-25s %3d\n", $word, $count{$word};
}
```

You could have skipped the intermediate variable `@words` by doing more in the `foreach` loop. Put the `split` in there directly and save yourself a little bit of typing:

```
foreach my $word ( split ) {
    $count{$word}++;
}
```

Answer 10.4: You need a way to make a list of the multiples of three then go through them, but there isn't an elegant way to do that in Perl. You could go through all of the numbers and just skip the ones that aren't divisible by three, but the `for` loop is a pretty good tool for this.

Start by initializing `$i` to 3, which is your starting value. Before you enter each iteration of the loop, Perl checks the condition in the second part of the `for`. In this case, as long as the value of `$i` is less than or equal to 99, you'll keep going. Inside the loop, output a line that has the number, its square, and its cube. Before you do the next iteration, do the last part of the `for`, which increments the value of `$i` by three. You don't have to skip any numbers. Just get the values you want:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

for( my $i = 3; $i <= 99; $i += 3 ) {
    printf "%2d   %4d   %6d\n", $i, $i**2, $i**3;
}
```

If you really wanted to use a `foreach`, you don't have to iterate from 3 to 99. Just go from 1 to 33 and multiply each by 3:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $i ( 1 .. 33 ) {
    $i *= 3;
    printf "%2d   %4d   %6d\n", $i, $i**2, $i**3;
}
```

Later, after you know about the stuff in [Chapter 17](#), you could move that multiplication into the `foreach` with a `map`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $i ( map { $_ * 3 } 1 .. 33 ) {
    printf "%2d   %4d   %6d\n", $i, $i**2, $i**3;
}
```

Answer 10.5: Read in lines of input, and if the line is blank, or just whitespace, use [next](#) to move to the next line. If the line starts with optional whitespace then a comment character, assume the line is a comment and move on to the next line (although in real life, that line might be in the middle of a big string, but I'll gloss over that for now and let you find the Perl parsers on CPAN). If you get past both of those [nexts](#), increment the value of `$sum`.

After you've gone through all of the lines and either counted them or skipped them, `$sum` has the total and you output its value:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

my $sum = 0;
while( <> ) {
    next if /^\\s*$/;
    next if /^\\s*#/;
    $sum++;
}

say "I counted $sum lines";
```

Answer 10.6: This answer is mostly the program from the [Answer to Exercise 10.5](#). After you count the line, use a regular expression to check if the line was `__END__`, and if it is, use **last** to break out of the loop. Continue the program after the `while` loop and print the results:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

my $sum = 0;
while( <> ) {
    next if /^\\s*$/;
    next if /^\\s*#/;
    $sum++;
    last if /^__END__$/;
}

say "I counted $sum lines\\n";

__END__
Don't count this line.
```

The `__END__` token can be a pretty handy debugging tool. If you all of a sudden run into a weird error and can't track it down, such as an unpaired brace or quote, you can put an `__END__` somewhere in the program. If the problem is before the end of the halved program, you should get the same error. If it is after, the error should disappear. Then, at least, you should have an idea which side of that token the error appears.

Answer 10.7: This problem is similar to [the exercise at the end of this chapter in *Learning Perl*](#), but you don't care to tell the user if the guess is too high or too low. Why give them any help?

First, you need a secret number, so create it just as in [the answer in *Learning Perl*](#). The **rand(10)** gives you fractional numbers between 0 and 9.9999, and the **int** portion of

that gives you whole numbers between 0 and 9. Add 1 to that to shift the range to 1 to 10.

Set up the naked block as your looping structure, and decide what to do in the if structure. If you guess the secret number, use `last` to break out of the loop. If you didn't guess the number, use `redo` to go back to the top of the loop and start again. This loop will keep going until you guess the number:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

my $number = int( rand( 10 ) + 1 );

{
    print 'Guess the number>> ';
    my $guess = <STDIN>;

    if( $guess == $number ) {
        say 'You guessed it!';
        last;
    }
    else {
        redo;
    }
}
```

The interesting part of this answer is that you don't have to write special code to handle the first time that you prompt the user.

You can also label the block, if it helps you see what's happening:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

my $number = int( rand( 10 ) + 1 );

LOOP: {
    print "Guess the number>> ";
    my $guess = <STDIN>;

    if( $guess == $number ) {
        say 'You guessed it!';
        last LOOP;
    }
    else {
        redo LOOP;
    }
}
```

Answers to Chapter 11 Exercises

Answer 11.1: You don't have to know how modules work on the inside as long as you follow their interfaces (but since this is Perl, you can always look under the hood). To use the `File::Spec` module, which comes with Perl, follow the examples in its documentation (or *Learning Perl*). You can view the module documentation with `perldoc File::Spec`, although in real life I look at either <http://metacpan.org/> or <http://perldoc.perl.org/>.

To create a path name, use the `File::Spec->catfile` method. You don't have to understand it, you just have to use it correctly. Behind the scenes, `File::Spec` figures out which platform it is on (Unix, Mac Classic, VMS, Windows, and so on) then does the right thing for that system. This way, you can create native path names without programming all of that logic yourself. Your program can move from Unix to VMS without a change. This sort of code portability is a big advantage of Perl, and you can read more tricks such as this one in the *perlport* documentation:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use File::Spec;

@ARGV = "/Users/brian";

my $dir = $ARGV[0];

foreach my $file ( glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    print File::Spec->catfile( $dir, $file ), "\n";
}
```

There's an alternate, function-oriented interface for `File::Spec` called `File::Spec::Functions`. Instead of calling methods (which you won't read about until *Intermediate Perl*), you can deal with them as normal subroutines:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
```

```

use File::Spec::Functions qw(catfile);

@ARGV = "/Users/brian";

my $dir = $ARGV[0];

foreach my $file ( glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    print catfile( $dir, $file ), "\n";
}

```

Answer 11.2: Just like you used the [File::Spec](#) module in your program for the [Answer to Exercise 11.1](#), you simply have to follow the examples in the [File::Basename](#) documentation. The `use File::Basename` statement adds two functions to your program: `dirname`, to get the directory portion of the path, and `basename`, to get the filename portion. *Learning Perl* doesn't talk about how this works, but *Intermediate Perl* does.

Use the `dirname` and `basename` directly in the `printf` statement. You actually have two `printf` statements: the first prints column names. You want to use the same format string for each `printf`, so store that in `$format` and use that in place of a string literal as the first argument. If you want to change the format, you only have to change it in one place:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use File::Basename;

my $format = "%-70s %-10s\n";

printf $format, "Directory", "Name";

while( <> ) {
    chomp;

    printf $format, dirname( $_ ), basename( $_ );
}

```

Answer 11.3: Once you have everything set up with the *cpan*, you simply tell it which modules you want to install:

```
$ cpan DBD::SQLite LWP::Simple XML::Twig
```

I chose these particular modules for a reason. The [DBD::SQLite](#) provides a handy, lightweight, single-file-based database server, and it requires a C compiler to install. Some Perl modules are actually just wrappers around C libraries, although you can't tell which ones just by looking at the distribution names. If you don't have a C compiler, you'll have to get one. If you are on Windows, [Strawberry Perl](#) comes with everything you need to use the *cpan*. If you have a Unix-like system, either check your `PATH` settings, install a compiler through your operating system's packaging system, or download and

install *gcc*. If you don't control your system, you might have to make friends with the system administrator.

LWP::Simple provides a quick and easy interface to downloading almost anything that you can find on the Internet. You'll use it in upcoming exercises. It's so popular and widely used that it should be in the Perl Standard Library, but it's not.

XML::Twig takes a little bit of work to start to use effectively, but once you know it, it's very handy for the light or occasional XML tasks. Unless your main goal is to work with XML, consider using **XML::Twig** to handle your XML work. You'll need it for an upcoming exercise, too.

You might have run into problems installing these modules because you don't have permission to install them in the main Perl library directories. Instead of going through the whole explanation here, I'll point you to [How do I keep my own module/library directory?](#) and [How do I add the directory my program lives in to the module/library search path?](#) in *perlfaq8*, as well as the instructions we gave you in this chapter.

Answer 11.4: *cpanm* is an interesting case because it provides a way for it to install itself. According to its documentation, you can download it, pipe the downloaded data to *perl*, and let it do its work:

```
$ curl -L http://cpanmin.us | perl - --sudo App::cpanminus
```

If you don't have the *curl* program, you can still install *cpanm* with *cpan*:

```
$ cpan App::cpanminus
```

Once you have *cpanm*, you can use it to install other modules.

Answer 11.5: This one is very simple because the **LWP::Simple** module does everything for you. The *getstore* function does it all:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use LWP::Simple;

getstore( 'http://perldoc.perl.org', 'perldoc.html' );
```

Answer 11.6: This is one of the challenging questions because you have to know quite a bit more than just Perl, and if you haven't used the **DBI** module before you might have to take some time to figure out that module as well. However, that's mostly the point of this chapter in *Learning Perl*. There's the basic syntax of Perl, which is easy to teach, but even when you know the syntax, you have only scratched the surface since a good programmer, no matter the language, has experience with the libraries. That's where all the good stuff is.

Here's a simple **DBI** program that uses some of the most common **DBI** constructs. First, create a DBI object with *connect*. Once you have that, use *do* to run a query from which you won't read the results; that's the statement to create the table. SQLite that allows

you to only create the table if it doesn't already exist, which lets you run this program repeatedly without a SQL error telling you that the table already exists. Next, **prepare** a SQL statement that you will run later: you're just getting it ready. In that **INSERT** statement, you should use **?** as a placeholder to show where you will fill in later. This is a major feature of **DBI**, which will auto-quote values for you to prevent SQL injection. Once you have your prepared statement, **execute** it for each of the key-value pairs in **%characters**. The arguments to **execute** fill in the placeholders from the **prepare**:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use DBI;

my $dbh = DBI->connect( 'dbi:SQLite:dbname=flintstones.db', '', '' );

$dbh->do( '
    CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS Characters (
        id      integer,
        first    text,
        last     text
    )
');

my %characters = qw(
    Fred Flintstone
    Wilma Flintstone
    Betty Rubble
    Barney Rubble
    Larry  Slate
);

my $sth = $dbh->prepare( 'INSERT INTO Characters VALUES ( ?, ?, ? )' );

my $id = 0;
foreach my $first_name ( keys %characters ) {
    $sth->execute( $id++, $first_name, $characters{$first_name} );
}
```

To make sure that you've created your database with the right fields, you should look at the database to ensure that you have the right values. In this case, I like to use a database browser application, such as [SQLite Database Browser](#). However, if you don't want to use one of those, you can easily see the results with another **DBI** program. Prepare a **SELECT** statement, **execute** it (without arguments because you don't use placeholders), and read one record at a time with **fetchrow_array**:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

use DBI;

my $dbh = DBI->connect( 'dbi:SQLite:dbname=flintstones.db', '', '' );
```

```

my $sth = $dbh->prepare( 'SELECT * FROM Characters' );
$sth->execute;

while( my @record = $sth->fetchrow_array ) {
    say join( '|', @record );
}

```

The output shows that you have the characters in your database:

```

0|Betty|Rubble
1|Wilma|Flintstone
2|Barney|Rubble
3|Larry|Slate
4|Fred|Flintstone

```

If you had trouble with this exercise, don't fret. It's a pretty tough one for the Perl beginner. If you want to learn more about [DBI](#), you might want to read *Programming the Perl DBI*; it's a bit dated, but the basics are mostly the same.

Answer 11.7: This is another challenging problem because it's more about using the modules and their interface instead of using basic Perl syntax. Although `XML::Twig` is an object-oriented module, you don't have to know much about object-oriented programming to follow the examples you see in the documentation. The trick with this module is figuring out which methods you need to use to get the job done (and there are *many* methods).

This short program gives you the flavor of a twig program. After you create the object in `$twig` and pull in my XML file with `parsefile`, you have to figure out how to traverse the XML structure to complete your task. In this case, you want to remove the `<score>` from each of the `<character>` elements.

To traverse the XML structure, first get its top-level element by calling `root`. You really want `<character>` elements though, and you get those by calling `children`. That returns a list of nodes in which each element represents a single `<character>` element. From there, the task is quite simple: all `cut_children` to remove the `<score>`:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use XML::Twig;

my $twig = XML::Twig->new;
$twig->parsefile( 'ex11.7.xml' );
my $root = $twig->root;

foreach my $char ( $root->children( 'character' ) ) {
    $char->cut_children( 'score' );
}

$twig->print( pretty_print => 'indented' );

```

Output the final twig using the `indented` setting, which produces easy-to-read to output:


```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<characters>
  <character>
    <name>Fred Flintstone</name>
    <league>Adult</league>
  </character>
  <character>
    <name>Barney Rubble</name>
    <league>Adult</league>
  </character>
  <character>
    <name>Dino</name>
    <league>Pets</league>
  </character>
</characters>
```


fred2.txt*
fred_link.txt@

Answer 12.2: This program looks much like the one for the previous exercise. As you process each file, you use `stat` to get the access and modification times then output a line showing those. Since you only want the last two return values, you can use `undef` as placeholders for the values you don't want:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    my( undef, undef, undef, undef, undef, undef, undef, undef,
        $atime, $mtime ) = stat $file;

    printf "%-15s  %24s  %24s\n",
        $file,
        scalar localtime( $atime ),
        scalar localtime( $mtime );
}
```

Your output looks something like:

```
$ perl ~/Desktop/*
cats.webloc    Sun Aug 15 11:27:56 2010   Thu Aug 12 07:30:08 2010
Fridge.html    Sun Aug 15 11:30:11 2010   Sat Aug 14 18:33:37 2010
Moose_article  Sat Aug 14 23:15:09 2010   Wed Jun 2 07:37:40 2010
bad_dist       Sat Aug 14 23:15:08 2010   Fri Jul 9 12:12:02 2010
extra_reports  Sat Aug 14 23:15:09 2010   Thu Nov 19 01:59:09 2009
perldoc-1.00   Sat Aug 14 23:15:09 2010   Tue Apr 28 01:58:51 2009
```

We haven't told you about slices yet, but you can use them to simplify your code when you only want a few of the list elements that a function might return. Instead of using `undef` as a placeholder, an intermediate Perl programmer would just use the indices he wanted:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    my( $atime, $mtime ) = ( stat $file )[8,9];

    printf "%-15s  %24s  %24s\n",
        $file,
        scalar localtime( $atime ),
        scalar localtime( $mtime );
}
```

Don't bother to count the elements yourself to get the right indices. The `perlfunc` entry for `stat` tells you the indices.

You could also use the conditional operator instead of the if-else:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    my @stat = -l $file ? lstat $file : stat $file;

    my ( $atime, $mtime ) = ( $stat[-2], $stat[-1] );

    printf "%-15s %24s %24s\n",
        $file,
        scalar localtime( $atime ),
        scalar localtime( $mtime );
}
```

If you combine the conditional operator with a slice, you get a simpler program since you can remove the intermediate @stat variable:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    my( $atime, $mtime ) =
        ( -l $file ? lstat $file : stat $file )[-2,-1];

    printf "%-15s %24s %24s\n",
        $file,
        scalar localtime( $atime ),
        scalar localtime( $mtime );
}
```

This last version is more like what you would expect from a practicing Perl programmer.

Answer 12.7: This is a challenging problem for the beginning Perl programmer, so you might have taken quite a bit of time to complete it (or try to complete it). Don't worry too much about that.

Having said that, there are many ways that you might have completed this exercise. This solution sticks to what I can justify from what we have shown you in [Learning Perl](#) along with a couple of modules you saw in the exercise. Here's a solution:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use warnings;

use File::Basename;
use File::Find;
use Statistics::Descriptive;

sub wanted {
    my $full_path = $File::Find::name;
    my $dirname = dirname( $full_path );
```

```

    $file_count{ $dirname }++      if -f $full_path;
    $directory_count{ $dirname }++ if -d $full_path;
    $link_count{ $dirname }++      if -l $full_path;
}

find( \&wanted, @ARGV );

report_stats( 'file',      %file_count      );
report_stats( 'directory', %directory_count );
report_stats( 'link',      %link_count      );

sub report_stats {
    my( $label, %hash ) = @_;

    my $stats = Statistics::Descriptive::Full->new;
    $stats->add_data( values %hash );

    printf "Average $label count: %.2f\nStandard deviation: %.2f\n\n",
        $stats->mean || 0,
        $stats->standard_deviation || 0
    ;
}

```

The [File::Find](#) module searches a directory structure using a subroutine that you define. It will handle all of the traversal details for you and call that subroutine once per file it finds. It puts the path to that file in the variable `$File::Find::name`. In your `wanted` subroutine, you use the `dirname` function from [File::Basename](#) to get the directory name. Since you’re only looking to collect statistics per directory, that directory name is the key that you’ll use in your accumulator hashes. Increment each hash key’s value when you run into a file type that it’s counting.

Once [File::Find](#) has visited each of the files and you’ve accumulated the counts in your hashes, it’s time for you to report the statistics. You could write your own code to figure the mean, but it’s much more fun to use [Statistics::Descriptive](#) since you can get much more than just the mean out of it. Just follow the examples in the documentation to create `report_stats`, which takes a label and a hash as an argument. You add all the values of the hash to the `$stats` object. From there, it’s merely a matter of calling the right methods to get the statistics you want:

```

$ perl ex12.7.pl /some/directory
Average file count: 9.69
Standard deviation: 39.33

Average directory count: 3.77
Standard deviation: 10.49

Average link count: 0.00
Standard deviation: 0.00

```

When you continue on to [Intermediate Perl](#), you’ll learn about references, which makes this problem much easier. You can get rid of the global hashes and the repeated typing

you do to call `report_stats`. The program looks more complicated, but with that comes a lot of flexibility in the data structure when you decide to add to the program. Here's what that might look like, just to pique your interest:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use File::Basename;
use File::Find;
use Statistics::Descriptive;

my( $wanted_sub, $hashes_sub ) = do {

sub wanted {
    my( $file_count, $directory_count, $link_count );

    $file_count->{label}      = 'file';
    $directory_count->{label} = 'directory';
    $link_count->{label}      = 'link';

    sub {
        my $full_path = $File::Find::name;
        my $dirname = dirname( $full_path );

        $file_count->{dirs}{ $dirname }++ if -f $full_path;
        $directory_count->{dirs}{ $dirname }++ if -d $full_path;
        $link_count->{dirs}{ $dirname }++ if -l $full_path;
    },
    sub { ( $file_count, $directory_count, $link_count ) };
}

find( $wanted_sub, @ARGV );

foreach my $hash ( $hashes_sub->() ) {
    report_stats( $hash );
}

sub report_stats {
    my( $hash ) = @_;

    my $stats = Statistics::Descriptive::Full->new;
    $stats->add_data( values %{ $hash->{dirs} } );

    printf "Average $hash->{label} count: %.2f\nStandard deviation: %.2f\n\n",
        $stats->mean || 0,
        $stats->standard_deviation || 0
    ;
}
```

Answers to Chapter 13 Exercises

Answer 13.1: You can use either a [glob](#) or [opendir](#) to get the number of files. In this case, you only want to report the number of files, so you can cheat a little. Use [glob](#) with two patterns at the same time: `.*` to find the hidden files and `*` that finds the rest. Store those in `@files`, and mixed in that list are the virtual files, `.` and `..`, that you don't want to count. To get the total, subtract two from the number of elements in `@files`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my @files = glob( '.* *' );

# don't count . or ..
my $count = @files - 2;

print "I found $count files\n";
```

If you didn't use that trick, you really don't have that much more work to do:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my @files = glob( '.* *' );

# don't count . or ..
foreach my $file ( @files ) {
    next if $file =~ /^\.{1,2}$/;
    $count++;
}

print "I found $count files\n";
```

You can do the same thing with [opendir](#), although you need to do a little more work:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
```

```

opendir my( $dh ), '.' or die "Could not open directory! $!";
my @files = readdir( $dh );
closedir $dh;

# don't count . or ..
my $count = @files - 2;

print "I found $count files\n";

```

Answer 13.2: Use your program from the [Answer to Exercise 13.1](#) to solve this one. In this case, you use [next](#) to skip any file that is a directory (some operating systems use regular files as directories). Since you have to accumulate a sum of file sizes, you might as well count the files at the same time:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my @files = glob( '.* *' );

my( $count, $size ) = ( 0, 0 );
foreach my $file ( @files ) {
    next if -d $file;
    $count++;
    $size += -s $file;
}

print "I found $count files with total size $size bytes\n";

```

You can also use [opendir](#). In this case, you use [readdir](#) in a while loop so you get back one file at a time. Otherwise, this is the same thing as the previous program:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

opendir my( $dh ), "." or die "Could not open directory! $!";

my( $count, $size ) = ( 0, 0 );
while( my $file = readdir( $dh ) ) {
    next if -d $file;
    $count++;
    $size += -s $file;
}

closedir $dh;

print "I found $count files with total size $size bytes\n";

```

Answer 13.3: This program has the same sort of structure as the previous answers in this chapter. You start with [opendir](#) like you have in the other programs. Before you do anything else, you need to output a header to make things look pretty.

In the `while` loop, you go through each file. In scalar context, `readdir` returns the next file. You skip the `.` and `..` virtual directories then use `printf` to create the report line. You do all of the work in the `printf`. Set up the format string so everything lines up under the headings you have already created (although, honestly, you make the `printf` format string first then make the header line up with the columns).

The first column is just the filename. The second column is the file size, so you use the file test operator `-s` to get the size in bytes, and that number ends up in the string. The last three fields look the same: you use the conditional operator. The file test operator returns true or false, and if it returns true, you want an `x` in the string. If it returns false, you want to put nothing into the string. If you just use the result of the file test operator, you get `1` or the empty string, which doesn't look as nice:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

opendir my( $dh ), "." or die "Could not open directory! $!";

print "Name                                Size   R W E\n";
print "-----\n";

while( my $file = readdir( $dh ) ) {
    next if $file =~ /\^\.{1,2}$/;
    printf "%-30s %10d   %1s %1s %1s\n",
        $file,
        -s $file,
        -r $file ? 'x' : '',
        -w $file ? 'x' : '',
        -x $file ? 'x' : ''
    ;
}

closedir $dh;
```

Answer 13.4: If you use `glob`, you just get rid of the `opendir` machinery. The rest of the program is the same. The `glob` function in scalar context returns the next filename, just as `readdir` does:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Name                                Size   R W E\n";
print "-----\n";

while( my $file = glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    next if $file =~ /\^\.{1,2}$/;
    printf "%-30s %10d   %1s %1s %1s\n",
        $file,
        -s $file,
        -r $file ? 'x' : '',
        -w $file ? 'x' : '',
        -x $file ? 'x' : ''
    ;
}
```

```

        -x $file ? 'x' : '';
    }
}

```

Answer 13.5: Your solution is like your previous answers in this chapter, but with a few changes. After you get a filename from `readdir`, you try to match the file extensions `.pl` or `.plx`. Unless the name matches either of those extensions, you use `next` to move onto the next file. You output each line of the report like you’ve done previously:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

opendir my( $dh ), "." or die "Could not open directory! $!";

print "Name                                     Size\n";
print "-----\n";

while( my $file = readdir( $dh ) ) {
    next unless $file =~ /\.plx?$/i;
    printf "%-30s %10d\n", $file, -s $file;
}

closedir $dh;

```

If you don’t want to do this by checking the file extension, you can do a bit of work to look inside the file. With each file, try to open the file. If you can’t, just move on to the next one. Otherwise, get the first line from the file and store it in `$shebang`. If you have a Perl program, you expect the first line to be `#!/usr/bin/perl` or `#!/perl` or something like that. Look for the word “perl” (surrounded by word boundaries) in `$shebang`. If that doesn’t match, move on to the next file. If that did match, output a report line like you’ve done before:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

chdir "/Users/Buster/Tidbits";

opendir my( $dh ), "." or die "Could not open directory! $!";

print "Name                                     Size\n";
print "-----\n";

while( my $file = readdir( $dh ) ) {
    open my( $fh ), "$file" or next;

    my $shebang = <$fh>; #!/usr/bin/perl

    next unless $shebang =~ m/\bperl\b/;

    close $fh;

    printf "%-30s %10d\n", $file, -s $file;
}

```

```

    }

    closedir $dh;

```

Answer 13.6: Your rewrite makes the program smaller. That’s not necessarily the right reason to do anything, but sometimes it works for the situation. You don’t need to open the directory and go through each file. You use the [glob](#) to create the list in `foreach`. The rest of the program works the same way as before:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

print "Name                                Size\n";
print "-----\n";

foreach my $file ( glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    next unless $file =~ /\.plx?$/i;
    printf "%-30s %10d\n", $file, -s $file;
}

```

Answer 13.7: Start this program by computing the time you want to use for the access time. The [time](#) function returns the current time in seconds since the start of the epoch (the time when your computer starts counting time: on Unix that’s January 1, 1970 00:00 GMT). Subtract 5x60 seconds to get the time 5 minutes ago. Use that time for all of the files so they will all have the same last access time when you are done.

Get the modification time from [stat](#). You know that’s in index 9 because that’s what the *perlfunc* documentation tells me. Check it out yourself! You don’t want to change the modification time, but [utime](#) is going to affect it. You’ll just “change” it to its current value.

Finally, you use [utime](#) to affect the file. The first argument is the access time (five minutes ago) and the second argument is the mod time you just saved. The third argument is the filename. If you can’t change the times for some reason (you don’t own the files, for instance), you output an error message with [warn](#):

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $atime = time - 5 * 60;

foreach my $file ( @ARGV ) {
    my @stat = stat( $file );
    my $mtime = $stat[9];

    utime $atime, $mtime, $file
        or warn( "Could not set access time: $!" );
}

```

Answers to Chapter 14 Exercises

Answer 14.1: Start the program by printing a short message reminding you to enter some lines of input. If you don't give the program any command-line arguments, the line input operator `<>` will wait for standard input, so you don't stare at the terminal waiting for something to happen as your program is staring at you waiting for you to type.

Use `index` on each line to look for the string “perl”. If the line doesn't have it, `index` returns -1 (0 means it was the first character). Assign the value to `$pos` then check if its value was not -1, meaning you found “perl”. If you found “perl”, output a message that shows its position. If `index` returned -1, simply output a string that says you didn't find it:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

print "Enter some strings, and use Control-D to stop input\n";

while( <> ) {
    my $pos = index $_, 'perl';

    if( $pos != -1 ) {
        say qq(\tI found 'perl' at position $pos);
    }
    else {
        say qq(\tI didn't find 'perl');
    }
}
```

Here's some sample output:

```
$ perl ex14.1.pl
Enter some strings, and use Control-D to stop input
This is a line without perl
    I didn't find 'perl'
This is a line with perl
    I found 'perl' at position 20
```



```
perl is at the beginning
  I found 'perl' at position 0
```

Answer 14.2: This answer is the same as your program in the [Answer to Exercise 14.1](#) with only a change in one line. Instead of `index`, use `rindex`, and instead of “perl”, look for “e”. The `rindex` function starts looking for the string on the right hand side of the string, so it finds the last “e” in the string:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

say 'Enter some strings, and use ^D to stop input';

while( <> ) {
    my $pos = rindex $_, 'e';

    if( $pos != -1 ) {
        say "\tI found an e at position $pos";
    }
    else {
        say "\tI didn't find an e";
    }
}
```

Answer 14.3: This program reimplements part of the `cut` command. By the way, the [Perl Power Tools](#) project reimplements many of the Unix utilities as Perl programs so you can use them wherever you have Perl, including on Windows. You might look at its `cut` implementation to compare it with your solution.

Start by taking the first two arguments and storing them in `$start` and `$end`. The remaining elements should be filenames, and since they are in `@ARGV`, you can use the line input operator `<>` to do the dirty work of opening them and reading lines from them.

To get the right part of the string, you have to use `substr`, and for that you need the starting position and a length, not the ending position. You get the length by subtracting the starting position from the ending one, but add 1 because the range is inclusive. For instance, if you want the characters between 5 and 10, that’s 6 columns, although $10 - 5$ is 5. You have to include the starting column in your count.

Once you have that, you just go through the lines. You `chomp` each line to remove all the lines in case you select part of the string that includes the end. You’ll add the newline on the way out. In your `print` statement, put the substring between `|` characters to make it easy to see whitespace on either end of the string:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $start = shift @ARGV;
my $end   = shift @ARGV;
```

```

my $length = $end - $start + 1;
print "Length is $length\n";

while( <> ) {
    chomp;
    print "|", substr( $_, $start, $length ), "|\n";
}

```

Answer 14.4: This is a short program if you avoid using temporary variables. Start with a [glob](#) to get all of the filenames. Immediately send that list to the [sort](#). You give the [sort](#) an inline code block to do the ordering. To sort by the file size, compare the result from the `-s` file test operator for the elements in `$a` and `$b`. Instead of sorting by the values themselves, you [sort](#) by a computed value. The output list of [sort](#) is still the list of files, but in ascending order of size:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach ( sort { -s $a <=> -s $b } glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    printf "%10d %-20s\n", (-s $_), $_;
}

```

The first program ordered the list by ascending file size—that’s the default order. To flip that around and get a descending sort, you change the order of comparison by putting `$b` on the left side of the `<=>` operator:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach ( sort { -s $b <=> -s $a } glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    printf "%10d %-20s\n", (-s $_), $_;
}

```

This really isn’t the best way to do this because you have to test the file size twice every time you want to compare two elements. You should only have to test any file once, but [Learning Perl](#) hasn’t told you about the Schwartzian Transform yet. You can read about that in [Intermediate Perl](#). Here’s a modified version of that Transform that doesn’t discard the file size so you can use it later:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my @sorted =
    sort { $b->[0] <=> $a->[0] }
    map { [ -s, $_ ] }
    glob( '.* *' );

foreach my $tuple ( @sorted ) {
    printf "%10d %-20s\n", @$tuple;
}

```

Answer 14.5: This one is a bit tricky, at least if you want to do it without much typing. You sort the files like you did in my program for the [Answer to Exercise 14.4](#), but you use the `-M` file test operator, which gives you the file modification time in days since the start of the program. Yes, that's weird, but it means that files that were modified sooner have a lower value from `-M`. Since the default sort order is ascending, ordering by the value of `-M` means that the first element in the ordered list will be the file that was most recently modified. You don't have to change the order of `$a` and `$b` to change the direction of the sort; `-M` does it for you:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

foreach ( sort { -M $a <=> -M $b } glob( ".* *" ) ) {
    my @stat = stat;

    printf "%24s    %-20s\n", scalar localtime $stat[9], $_;
}
```

Answer 14.6: This exercise requires at least Perl 5.12, the version of Perl that added the ability of [each](#) to iterate through arrays. On each iteration, you get the index of the element and the value at that index. This makes it slightly easier to iterate through multiple parallel arrays. You get the value from the array that you give to [each](#), and use the index to get the values from the other arrays. You typically use [each](#) in a `while` loop:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use 5.012;

my @first = qw(Fred Barney Betty Wilma Larry);
my @last = qw(Flintstone Rubble Rubble Flintstone Slate);

while( my( $index, $value ) = each @first ) {
    say "$value $last[$index]";
}
```

Answers to Chapter 15 Exercises

Answer 15.1: This answer is going to look a lot like your answers for many of the other exercises in this chapter. Most of the code isn't about the smart match operator because that operator hides so much of the work that you're actually doing, which is what makes it so attractive for some problems.

Since the smart match operator is a Perl 5.10 feature, you have to enable that feature. One way to do that is use `v5.10.1`. This uses the major, minor, and point release numbers because you want to exclude Perl 5.10.0.

The smart match part of this problem is easy. Once you have the name that you want to match in a scalar variable, you smart match that to the array you want to search: `$name ~~ @array`. Wasn't that easy? The rest of the problem is just a simple matter of programming.

You can reuse this for the other exercises in this chapter. There's one tricky part. When you take the name from `<STDIN>`, you need to remember to remove the newline:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use v5.10.1;

my @array = qw(Fred Wilma Barney Betty Larry Pebbles Bamm-Bamm);
say "The elements are (@array)";
say 'Enter a name: ';
chomp( my $name = <STDIN> );

if( $name ~~ @array ) {
    say 'I found a matching name';
}
else {
    say "I didn't find a matching name";
}
```

Answer 15.2: This answer is structurally similar to your program in [Answer 15.1](#). Once you get the names in `@names`, it's a simple matter of using the smart match operator to

compare that array to your hash: `@names ~~ %hash`. If at least one of the elements of `@names` is a key in `%hash` then the smart match returns true:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use v5.10.1;

my %hash = qw(
    Fred      Flintstone
    Wilma     Flintstone
    Barney    Rubble
    Betty     Rubble
    Larry     Slate
    Pebbles   Flintstone
    Bamm-Bamm Rubble
);

say 'The keys are [' , join( ' ', keys %hash ), ']';
say 'Enter some names then Control-D to stop:';
chomp( my @names = <STDIN> );

if( @names ~~ %hash ) {
    say 'I found a matching name';
}
else {
    say "I didn't find a matching name";
}
```

There are a few other tricks in this answer. They don't really contribute to the overall task, but they are idiomatic Perl. First, the `qw()` operator automatically quotes and separates the list of elements you assign to `%hash`. When you assign a list to a hash, Perl takes the elements in key-value pairs. You can format the code to show the keys and values in columns. Next, you read in the list of names from `<STDIN>` and `chomp` the entire `@names`. We introduced both of these in [Chapter 3](#).

Answer 15.3: As with most examples of the smart match operator, this answer is mostly not about the smart match. That's really the easy part since it's just `/$pattern/ ~~ @array`. The rest of the problem is just getting the pattern from the user.

There's a trick here. Remember that the value you get from the `<STDIN>` operator includes the trailing newline. That newline will be part of your pattern (so almost nothing will match) unless you get rid of it. Simply `chomp` the value:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use v5.10.1;

my @array = qw(Fred Wilma Barney Betty Larry Pebbles Bamm-Bamm);
say "The elements are (@array)";
say 'Enter a pattern:';
```

```

chomp( my $pattern = <STDIN> );

if( /$pattern/ ~~ @array ) {
    say 'At least one element matches';
}
else {
    say 'No elements match';
}

```

By this chapter, we haven't yet shown you an important Perl feature that you'll want to use when you take a pattern from the user. Since you don't know if that pattern is valid before you use it, you can wrap it in the `eval {}` that we show in [Chapter 17](#):

```

if( eval { /$pattern/ ~~ @array } ) {

```

You don't really care if there's an error there. If it's a bad pattern, that still means that no elements match so you get the answer that you should get. If you were able to handle this without the hint, give yourself a pat on the back.

Answer 15.4: The smart match operator is a very small part of this answer, which is the point of that operator. It takes a task that used to require a lot of fiddly work and condenses it into one operation. To see how much work you save, you might want to review the non-smart match version we showed on [page 252](#) of *Learning Perl*.

You solve the main part of this exercise with just `@first ~~ @second`. The rest of the work is what you already know from the previous chapters:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use v5.10.1;

say 'Enter the first list on a single line:';
my $first = <STDIN>;
my @first = split /\s+/, $first;

say 'Enter the second list on a single line:';
my $second = <STDIN>;
my @second = split /\s+/, $second;

if( @first ~~ @second ) {
    say 'The lists are the same';
}
else {
    say 'The lists are not the same';
}

```

In the exercise, I showed you an example run where it appears that two lists should be the same, but they aren't:

```

$ perl ex15.4.pl
Enter the first list on a single line:
dog cat bird
Enter the second list on a single line:

```

```
dog cat bird
The lists are not the same
```

What's going on there? It's really a subtlety of `split`. Remember that `split` keeps leading empty fields, so there is really an extra element in the list you get from the string `' dog cat bird'`, which has leading whitespace. The first field is really the stuff before that first group of whitespace; that is, it's the empty string.

It's not very hard to fix this. You just have to adjust the input lines before you `split` them. There are a variety of ways to do this, but you can just remove any leading whitespace with a substitution:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use v5.10.1;

say 'Enter the first list on a single line:';
my $first = <STDIN>;
$first =~ s/^\s+//g;
my @first = split /\s+/, $first;

say 'Enter the second list on a single line:';
my $second = <STDIN>;
$second =~ s/^\s+//g;
my @second = split /\s+/, $second;

if( @first == @second ) {
    say 'The lists are the same';
}
else {
    say 'The lists are not the same';
}
```

Answer 15.5: You know that you can set a topic with `given`, and you have two options. It can be the string the user entered or the secret word. Since you want to possibly use the string as a pattern, that means you need to use the secret word in `given` so you can use the string in the various `when` clauses. That's a bit of a twist because you're using the same thing in `given` each time instead of using a new element.

Once you decide to use the secret word as the topic, `given` puts its value in `$_` and you can smart match against that value. Now you just have to put your checks in the right order. First, you check if they want to give up. In that `when`, you use `last` to stop the `while`.

If the user wants to keep going, use the value in `$line` for the smart match, which does an exact match. If they guess the word exactly, you again use `last` to stop the `while`.

If the string is not an exact match, try the value in `$line` as a regular expression pattern in the next `when`. If that pattern matches, the user isn't done, but you tell them that the pattern matched and prompt them to keep going. The `while` will try another iteration.

If the pattern does not match, pick up the slack in the `default` block, telling the user that the guess did not help and prompting for another try:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use 5.010;

my $secret_word = 'Barney';

print 'Enter a string or pattern> ';
LINE: while( defined( my $line = <STDIN> ) ) {
    chomp( $line );

    given( $secret_word ) {
        when( $line eq 'give up' ) {
            say 'Too hard? Better luck next time!';
            last LINE;
        }
        when( $line ) { # $_ eq $line
            say 'You guessed the secret word!';
            last LINE;
        }
        when( /$line/ ) { # $_ =~ /$line/
            say "The secret word matches the pattern [$line]";
            print "\nEnter another string or pattern> ";
        }
        default {
            say "[$line] didn't help at all";
            print "\nEnter another string or pattern> ";
        }
    }
};
```

If you couldn't use Perl 5.10 for this answer, the program is structurally the same but a bit more verbose per line, although a couple lines shorter, too:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $secret_word = 'Barney';

print "Enter a string or pattern> ";
LINE: while( defined( my $line = <STDIN> ) ) {
    chomp( $line );

    if( $line eq 'give up' ) {
        print "Too hard? Better luck next time!\n";
        last LINE;
    }
    elsif( $line eq $secret_word ) {
        print "You guessed the secret word!\n";
        last LINE;
    }
}
```



```
elseif( $secret_word =~ /$line/ ) {  
    print "The secret word matches the pattern [$line]\n";  
    print "\nEnter another string or pattern> ";  
}  
else {  
    print "[$line] didn't help at all\n";  
    print "\nEnter another string or pattern> ";  
}  
}
```

Answers to Chapter 16 Exercises

Answer 16.1: Set the environment variable TZ by replacing its value in the %ENV hash. The value you need to set varies from system to system and, at least on a Unix machine, you use the names of files in `/usr/share/zoneinfo`. For the Pacific time zone, some systems use PST8PDT. After that, use `exec` to turn your *perl* process into the *date* command, which has the same environment as the *perl* process. You’ve effectively created a wrapper that sets up the environment then executes the desired command:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

$ENV{TZ} = 'PST8PDT';

exec 'date';
```

On a Mac OS X system, you have to use `US/Pacific`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

$ENV{TZ} = 'US/Pacific';

exec 'date';
```

You might try this with a time zone that doesn’t exist. On some systems, you end up with GMT: the same time you get without a time zone.

Answer 16.2: When you use the backticks in a list context, you get a list of lines. Go through these lines with `foreach`. For the *ls* on my system, the first line is a header and starts with “total”, so skip that one. You might need to do something different. You can `split` the line on whitespace, the default separator, and assign the list to your list of variables. The first column is the file permissions string, which you don’t care about so you assign it to `undef`, which is really just a placeholder. The next column is the number of links to that file, but you don’t need that either, so you assign it to `undef`,

which is just another placeholder. The next two columns are the user and group names (or numbers, in some cases), and you store those in `$user` and `$group`.

Once you have the user and group, you use those as keys in the `%users` and `%groups` hash and increment their values. These are just two accumulator hashes. Once you've gone through all the lines in the loop, report the results by going through each key, although you use `sort` to put them in “ASCII-betical” order before you let `foreach` iterate through them:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my( %users, %groups );
foreach ( `ls -l` ) {
    next if /^total/;    # skip the header

    my( undef, undef, $user, $group ) = split;

    $users{$user}++;
    $groups{$group}++;
}

foreach my $user ( sort keys %users ) {
    printf "%-8s %3d\n", $user, $users{$user};
}

foreach my $group ( sort keys %groups ) {
    printf "%-8s %3d\n", $group, $groups{$group};
}
```

Answer 16.3: Instead of using backticks, you use the `IPC::System::Simple` module. This module does not come in the Perl Standard Library (yet), so you might have to install it yourself.

The `capturex` routine can run an external command and return a list of lines just like backticks, so that's what you use. For `capturex`, you have to separate the command name from its arguments because the first argument is the complete command name. You probably don't have a command named exactly `ls -l`, so you use two arguments:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

use IPC::System::Simple qw(capturex);

my( %users, %groups );
foreach ( capturex( 'ls', '-l' ) ) {
    next if /^total/;    # skip the header

    my( undef, undef, $user, $group ) = split;

    $users{$user}++;
    $groups{$group}++;
}
```

```

    }

    foreach my $user ( sort keys %users ) {
        printf "%-8s %3d\n", $user, $users{$user};
    }

    foreach my $group ( sort keys %groups ) {
        printf "%-8s %3d\n", $group, $groups{$group};
    }

```

Answer 16.4: This is the program I have written the most in my career as a Perl programmer. A lot of people write programs once and forget about it, but whenever I start working with a new web server, I type in this little program as not only a test, but to see how the web server is set up and which environment variables my CGI program can use.

To see the environment variables, go through the keys in %ENV, and [sort](#) them to put them in order. You output the key and its value:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl

foreach my $key ( sort keys %ENV ) {
    printf "%-30s %s\n", $key, $ENV{$key};
}

```

To turn this into a CGI program, you just need to print a CGI header. You can use `text/plain` so you don't need to add a bunch of HTML mumbo jumbo. The plain text version is just as easy to read:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl

print "Content-type: text/plain\n\n";

foreach my $key ( sort keys %ENV ) {
    printf "%-30s %s\n", $key, $ENV{$key};
}

```

Give yourself a nice pat on the back if you used [CGI.pm](#), but take it back for doing too much work for such a simple task.

Answer 16.5: To remove the value from the PATH environment variable, you just set its value on %ENV to the empty string. When you want to use [system](#), backticks, [exec](#), or anything else that executes an external command, you need to give it the full path. Perl doesn't have any directories in PATH to look in to find the command:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

$ENV{PATH} = '';
$ENV{TZ} = 'US/Pacific';

exec '/bin/date';

```

Changing the `PATH` environment variable ensures that you run the command that you want. Otherwise, someone can change the `PATH` and Perl will execute the first program it finds with the same name. They don't have to "crack" your program because they change the behavior by changing the environment. I've called this the "loaded path attack". If you worry about this sort of thing, you can check out Perl's taint mode, which offers more sophisticated protection.

Answer 16.6: This program is mostly the same as your program from the [Answer to Exercise 16.2](#) except for the first couple of lines. I use `open` with the command as the filename, and you follow the filename with the pipe "|". Since the pipe comes after the command, I'll be able to read from this filehandle. I use that filehandle in a `while` loop to read one line at a time. The rest of the program is the same.

You could have used the `foreach` loop, but that would have read all the lines before it started to loop through them. The `while` loop deals with one line at a time.

You also don't check the return value of `open`, which is almost always true for a pipe open. The return value is the result of Perl forking the process, not running the command. Perl can almost always run another copy of itself since it is already running, so the `open` almost always succeeds (unless you've reached a process or resource limit, for instance). If you want to check the result of running the command, you need to check the return value of `close` and look in the Perl special variable `$?` for the error. You don't show all that here, though, because this program is not that important:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open my $ls, '-|', 'ls', '-l'; # three+ argument form

my( %users, %groups );
while( <$ls> ) {
    next if /^total/;

    my( $perm, $n, $user, $group ) = split;

    $users{$user}++;
    $groups{$group}++;
}

foreach my $user ( sort keys %users ) {
    printf "%-8s %3d\n", $user, $users{$user};
}

foreach my $group ( sort keys %groups ) {
    printf "%-8s %3d\n", $group, $groups{$group};
}
```

You can write the `open` in a couple of other ways. You might have combined all of the parts of the external command into a single string:

```
open my $ls, '-|', 'ls -l';
```

You can also write this in the two argument form, although like most two argument forms, we discourage this:

```
open my $ls, 'ls -l |'; # two argument form
```

Answer 16.7: Open the filehandle `$input` to read from your answer for [Exercise 16.4](#). With a `while` loop, read through lines of input. Check for the “e” character in the line with a regular expression. If the line does not match, skip it. If it does match, continue with the loop and increment the value in `$sum`. After you’ve gone through all of the lines, output a report of the number of lines you counted:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open my $input, '-|', 'perl', '16.4.pl';

my $sum = 0;
while( <$input> ) {
    next unless /e/;
    $sum++;
}

print "The number of lines with an 'e' is $sum\n";
```

You can also write this without the `next`, which in this case is a lot simpler, but then you wouldn’t get to practice using `next`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

open my $input, '-|', 'perl', '16.4.pl';

my $sum = 0;
while( <$input> ) {
    $sum++ unless /e/;
}

print "The number of lines with an 'e' is $sum\n";
```

You don’t have to explicitly use the `perl` in that [open](#). Although we didn’t cover this in the book, the Perl special variable `$^X` holds the path to the `perl` interpreter running the current program. You could have written:

```
open my $input, '-|', $^X, '16.3.pl';
```

Answer 16.8: To start a command shell, use the `Run...` from the Start menu. Run either the `cmd` or `command` program. From there, it’s a simple matter of calling the `title` with [system](#). Each time you call `title`, you give it a string of the right length that you construct with the string replication operator, `x`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
```

```
foreach ( 1 .. 60 ) {  
    system 'title', '*' x $_;  
    sleep 1;  
}
```

Answers to Chapter 17 Exercises

Answer 17.1: To repeatedly ask the user for input, wrap my program in a naked block and use `redo` to start another go-around when you finish one round. To break out of the block, you end input with `Control D` (or `Control Z` on Windows), in which case `$string` gets `undef` and triggers the `last` function to end the loop.

There are a couple of ways you could handle the possible error from the user input, and in this answer you'll use an `eval {}` block ([Answer 17.2](#) is the same problem with a different method). The `eval` will catch the error from an invalid regular expression. You need a semicolon after the `eval {}` block because this is a statement, not a control structure like `foreach`. After the `eval` block, output an error message if there is something in the `eval` error variable `$@`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

{
    print 'Enter a string: ';
    chomp( my $string = <STDIN> );
    last unless defined $string;

    print 'Enter a regex: ';
    chomp( my $regex = <STDIN> );

    eval {
        if( $string =~ /$regex/ ) {
            say 'The string matches!';
        }
        else {
            say 'The string does not match.';
        }
    };
    say "Could not use regular expression: $@" if $@;

    redo;
}
```


Answer 17.2: This answer is almost the same as the one for [Answer 17.1](#), but you have to install this module on your own since it doesn't come with Perl.

You wrap the problematic code in a `try` block. Instead of checking the result by examining the `$@` variable, you put a `catch` block right after the `try`. Notice that there is no semicolon between the end of the `try` block and the start of the `catch`; these are part of a single statement. You do need a semicolon after the `catch` block though. If you forget that final semicolon, weird things may happen because the `Try::Tiny` syntax actually allows for more stuff to follow:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

use Try::Tiny;

{
    print 'Enter a string: ';
    chomp( my $string = <STDIN> );
    last unless defined $string;

    print 'Enter a regex: ';
    chomp( my $regex = <STDIN> );

    try {
        if( $string =~ /$regex/ ) {
            say 'The string matches!';
        }
        else {
            say 'The string does not match.';
        }
    }
    catch {
        say "Could not use regular expression: $@";
    };

    redo;
}
```

Answer 17.3: This answer is similar to the example on [page 289](#) of *Learning Perl*, although you need a different expression to filter the input list. In this case, you want the numbers that are divisible by three, so you want the elements for which the modulus operator returns 0 (because there is no remainder). The `grep` function only passes through the elements for which the expression evaluates to a true value, so you use the logical negation operator (`!`, from [Chapter 2](#)) to flip the value from false to true (and true to false). You have to put the modulus operator in parentheses because it has a lower precedence than the negation operator, but you want it to happen first. Only the multiples of three show up in `@threes`:

```
my @threes = grep { ! ( $_ % 3 ) } 1..1000;
```

Answer 17.4: The `map` function has two forms, and you can use either one of them for my solution. The first way uses a single expression to create the element that goes into the output. You put a comma between the expression and the input list:

```
my @squares = map $_**2, ( 1..10 );
```

The other way uses a block of code. You don't put a comma after the inline code block:

```
my @squares = map { $_ ** 2 } ( 1..10 );
```

Answer 17.5: You could do this in a lot of different ways, but given that everything is already in a single string, leave it like that and use one regular expression to pull everything out at once.

Create a regular expression to match non-whitespace characters at the beginning of each line. At the end of the `s///` operator, add the `/m` flag so that the beginning of string anchor, `^`, can match either at the true beginning of the string, or immediately after any newline. And since you want to affect each line beginning, add the `/g` flag to do the global match-and-replace.

For the replacement, you can use the value in `$1`, the match memory variable, but preface it with the double-quoted string sequence `\u\L`, which lowercases everything after it and then makes the first letter uppercase. This is like the example on [page 158](#) ("Case Shifting") of *Learning Perl*:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $string = "fRED has score 230
barney has score 190
DINO has score 30";

my @words = $string =~ s/^(\\S+)/\\u\\L$1/mg;

print $string;
```

Answer 17.6: In each case, you use an array slice to select multiple elements of the array simultaneously. To select the first and last elements, you can use the subscripts `0` and `-1` (or `$#numbers`). It doesn't matter which order you extract the elements, so to select the last and first element, just reverse the order of the subscripts and use `-1` (or `$#numbers`) and `0`.

To select the first 10 elements, create the list of indices using the range operator, `0..9`: remember that the first index is `0`! That last one is there to remind you that you can use an expression to create the indices.

To select the odd numbers, you could have simply used a `grep` just as you did earlier in this section, but now you have to use an array slice. There are probably some interesting ways to do this, but you simply move the `grep` inside the array subscript and pick the indices where you know the odd numbers will be (which are just the odd indices).

You probably shouldn't do that in a real-world Perl program though, unless you really want to baffle someone:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my @numbers = 0 .. 1000;

my ( $first, $last ) = @numbers[0,-1];
print "first is $first and last is $last\n";

( $last, $first ) = @numbers[-1,0];
print "first is $first and last is $last\n";

my @first_ten      = @numbers[ 0 .. 9 ];
print "The first ten numbers are @first_ten\n";

my @odd_numbers    = @numbers[ ( grep { $_ % 2 } 0 .. $#numbers ) ];
print "The odd numbers are @odd_numbers\n";
```

Answer 17.7: You only have to change one line in the program. First, create the hash using a hash slice. You already have the keys in `@names` and the values in `@scores`. In the hash slice, use those arrays in the right places. The array with the keys goes in the `{ }`, and you assign to the hash slice the array holding the values. The first value goes with the first key, the second value with the second key, and so on:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my @names = qw(Fred Barney Dino);
my @scores = qw(230 190 30 );

my %scores;
@scores{ @names } = @scores;

foreach my $name ( sort keys %scores ) {
    print "$name has score $scores{$name}\n";
}
```

You can also create the hash with a `map`, and you will often see this technique in real-world Perl code since the `map` can return more than one value (say, a key and value pair!) for each input element. In this case, you use the list of array indices for `@names` as the input list, and for each index, you return a list of two elements: an element from `@names` and an element from `@scores`. Taken all together, you end up with an output list of key-value pairs, just like you saw in [Chapter 6](#) of *Learning Perl*. The `map` function is an everyday tool of the expert Perl programmer, and you can read more about it in [Intermediate Perl](#):

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
```

```

my @names = qw(Fred Barney Dino);
my @scores = qw(230 190 30 );

# CREATE THE HASH!
# %scores = (); #fill in here

my %scores = map { ( $names[$_], $scores[$_] ) } 0 .. $#names;

foreach my $name ( sort keys %scores ) {
    print "$name has score $scores{$name}\n";
}

```

Answer 17.8: The `List::Util` module provides convenience subroutines for frequent list tasks. These subroutines also run a little bit faster than the equivalent Perl code that you might write since they are implemented at a lower level. The actual code is thus very easy. For `sum`, you just give it the list of numbers, in this case a range, and it returns the number you need:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

use List::Util qw(sum);

say 'The sum of 1 to 1000 is ', sum( 1 .. 1000 );

```

The `reduce` example is a little more complex. It's an iterating block like `map` or `grep`, but it takes the first two items from the input list, giving them to you as `$a` and `$b`. At the end of the block, unlike `map` or `grep`, `reduce` puts its result back onto the list. That means the result of the previous operation is also the first item for the next one! It continues to do this until it has reduced the list to one item, which it uses as the final result:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

use List::Util qw(reduce);

say 'The sum of 1 to 1000 is ', reduce { $a + $b } 1 .. 1000;

```

When you run this, you're probably going to get some warnings about `$a` and `$b`:

```

Name "main::b" used only once: possible typo at reduce.pl line 8.
Name "main::a" used only once: possible typo at reduce.pl line 8.
The sum of 1 to 1000 is 500500

```

You have to use those two variable names, and you can't make them lexical variables. These are really the same `$a` and `$b` that you saw in `sort`. One trick is to simply declare them as package variables so they show up in the source code twice:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;

```

```

use warnings;
use 5.010;

use List::Util qw(reduce);

our( $a, $b );
say 'The sum of 1 to 1000 is ', reduce { $a + $b } 1 .. 1000;

```

Answer 17.9: This answer is similar to the one for `reduce` in [Answer 17.8](#). The `pairwise` subroutine takes two arrays, though, and puts the next element from the first array in `$a` and the next element from the second array in `$b`. It returns the result in the output list:

```

#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;
use 5.010;

use List::MoreUtils qw(pairwise);

my @m = ( 1, 2, 3 );
my @n = ( 4, 6, 8 );

our( $a, $b );
my @c = pairwise { $a + $b } @m, @n;

say "The sums are ( @c )";

```

Many of the subroutines in [List::MoreUtils](#) have these fancy tricks with multiple arrays. Just don't ask how they do it!

Answers to Chapter 18 Exercises

Answer 18.1: The first program just needs to create the hash. Define the hash in the `dbmopen` function. Give the DBM file the name “birthdays” but don’t use an absolute path so `dbmopen` creates the file in the current directory. You may see a file extension added to the filename, and that extension depends on the particular DBM implementation on your system. In some implementations, you may even see a second, index file. As long as you use the same filename in every program (in this case, “birthdays”), you don’t need to think about how the file lives in the filesystem.

For the third parameter to `dbmopen`, give it a file permissions mask to use if `dbmopen` needs to create a file that doesn’t already exist. This number must be an octal number, so start it with a leading 0 to tell Perl that it’s a base-8 number. If you can’t open the DBM hash, use `die` to output an error message. You might not be able to create new files in the current working directory, for instance.

After you define the hash, add keys and values to it just like any other hash. You can treat a DBM hash just like a normal hash. Except for the `dbmopen`, you shouldn’t see any differences in the code. Traditionally, Perl programmers uppercase the names of the variable they create with `dbmopen`:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

dbmopen my %BIRTHDAYS, "birthdays", 0644
    or die "Could not open birthdays! $!";

%BIRTHDAYS = (
    Fred    => 'April 5',
    Wilma   => 'October 26',
    Pebbles => 'October 8',
    Barney  => '',
    Slate   => undef,
);

dbmclose %BIRTHDAYS;
```

End with `dbmclose` to ensure that your program writes to disk any pending changes to `%BIRTHDAYS`. It's good to be safe, sometimes.

For the second program, start just as you did in the first. You want to open the same DBM hash. This time, you don't want to create the file if it doesn't already exist, so you use `undef` as the third parameter. Perl will not create the file if it does not exist, so you'll have to deal with that situation on your own.

To go through the hash, use `each`. You could use `foreach`, but you typically expect a DBM hash to be large and you don't want to wait for Perl to load the entire disk file into memory before it does anything. Through the DBM implementation, you can get one key-value pair at a time. You don't have to eat up a lot of memory to go through a large hash because you deal with one pair at a time:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

dbmopen my %CHECK, "birthdays", undef
    or die "Could not open birthdays! $!";

while( my( $name, $birthday ) = each %CHECK ) {
    print "$name ==> $birthday\n";
}

dbmclose %CHECK;
```

Answer 18.2: Start your program by creating the DBM hash like you did in [Exercise 18.1](#). In this case, you use `0644` as the third parameter to `dbmopen` in case the file doesn't already exist and you are adding my first element.

Prompt for the name and birthday and `chomp` each answer to remove the trailing new-lines. Once you have the `chomp`-ed versions, add it to the hash like any other single element hash assignment:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

dbmopen my %BIRTHDAYS, "birthdays", 0644
    or die "Could not open birthdays! $!\n";

print "Enter a new name: ";
chomp( my $name = <STDIN> );

print "Enter the birthday for $name: ";
chomp( my $birthday = <STDIN> );

%BIRTHDAYS{$name} = $birthday;

dbmclose %BIRTHDAYS;
```

Answer 18.3: The results of your program will give different results based on the architecture. It's not the operating system, but the actual processor that matters. First, here's the program. You use the N (network order), V (VAX order), and I (integer) formats. Use the uppercase versions because you want unsigned integers. Also use the hexadecimal representation for `$i` and add some underscores so you can easily see where the bytes end up:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $i = 0x12_34_56_78;

my $packed_n = pack( "N", $i );
my $packed_v = pack( "V", $i );
my $packed_i = pack( "I", $i );

printf "unpacked N -> V %X\n", unpack( "V", $packed_n );
printf "unpacked N -> N %X\n", unpack( "N", $packed_n );
printf "unpacked N -> I %X\n", unpack( "I", $packed_n );

printf "unpacked V -> N %X\n", unpack( "N", $packed_v );
printf "unpacked V -> V %X\n", unpack( "V", $packed_v );
printf "unpacked V -> I %X\n", unpack( "I", $packed_v );

printf "unpacked I -> N %X\n", unpack( "N", $packed_i );
printf "unpacked I -> V %X\n", unpack( "V", $packed_i );
printf "unpacked I -> I %X\n", unpack( "I", $packed_i );
```

On my Mac OS X PowerBook that has a PowerPC processor (I wrote this a long time ago!), I see big-endian results. As long as I [unpack](#) the number the same way that I [packed](#) it, I get the same number back. On the PowerBook, when I unpack the I format with the N (network, or big-endian) format I get the right number back, but when I [unpack](#) it with the V (VAX, or little-endian) format, the bytes get flipped around. Look closely—it's not just in reverse:

```
unpacked N -> V 78563412
unpacked N -> N 12345678
unpacked N -> I 12345678
unpacked V -> N 78563412
unpacked V -> V 12345678
unpacked V -> I 78563412
unpacked I -> N 12345678
unpacked I -> V 78563412
unpacked I -> I 12345678
```

My FreeBSD box, which has an Intel processor, shows the results on a little-endian machine. In this case, I get the wrong answer when I [unpack](#) the I format with the N format:

```
unpacked N -> V 78563412
unpacked N -> N 12345678
unpacked N -> I 78563412
```



```
unpacked V -> N 78563412
unpacked V -> V 12345678
unpacked V -> I 12345678
unpacked I -> N 78563412
unpacked I -> V 12345678
unpacked I -> I 12345678
```

I don't know what you are using, so I can't tell you what output you'll get.

Answer 18.4: Your program for the [Answer to Exercise 18.3](#) has most of the stuff you'll need to know to figure out this problem. If you spent several hours creating a hash table of processor types and their characteristics, you can still upload it to CPAN. For this problem, you can **pack** an integer then **unpack** it with the **N** format. If you get the same number back, you are on a big-endian machine. Everything happens in the **print** statement. The second line of the **print** uses the conditional **?:** operator. If the part before the **?** evaluates to true, it chooses the first option (the thing between the **?** and **:**) and if it's false, it chooses the other option:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $i = 0x12_34_56_78;

print "This machine is ",
      $i == unpack( 'N', pack( 'I', $i ) ) ? 'big' : 'little',
      " endian\n";
```

You could have done it the other way, using the **V** format, too. You just flip around the strings you output. You could have also used the **!=** operator instead of the **==** if you were really lazy:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
use warnings;

my $i = 0x12_34_56_78;

print "This machine is ",
      $i == unpack( 'V', pack( 'I', $i ) ) ? 'little' : 'big',
      " endian\n";
```

Answer 18.5: Use Perl's in-place editing facility to do this. The command line actually has quite a bit going on:

```
perl -i.bak -pe 's/e/E/g' filename
```

The **-i** switch takes an optional file extension. When you use the file extension, *perl* creates a backup file with that extension so you can recover the original data when (not if!) you mess up. The **-e** switch tells *perl* that you've typed out the program on the command line, and that's the **s/e/E/g**. The **-p** flag tells *perl* to wrap **while(<>) { ...; print; }** around the program. Finally, you give *perl* the file you want to modify.

The program on the command line is the same as this short program:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
$^I = ".bak";
@ARGV = qw( filename );

while( <> ) {
    s/e/E/g;
    print;
}
```

