# **Active PERL 5.6**

# **PERL**

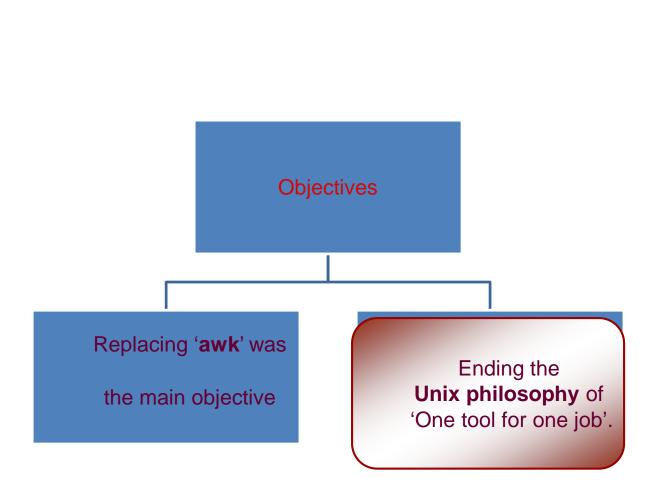
Introduction to PERL

#### **Overview**

- Full Forms:
  - Practical Extraction and Report Language
  - Practically Everything Really Likable
  - Pathologically Eclectic Rubbish Lister
- PERL was developed by Larry Wall.
- It is originally written in C.
- It started as a 'glue language'.
- Its first release was in December 1987.

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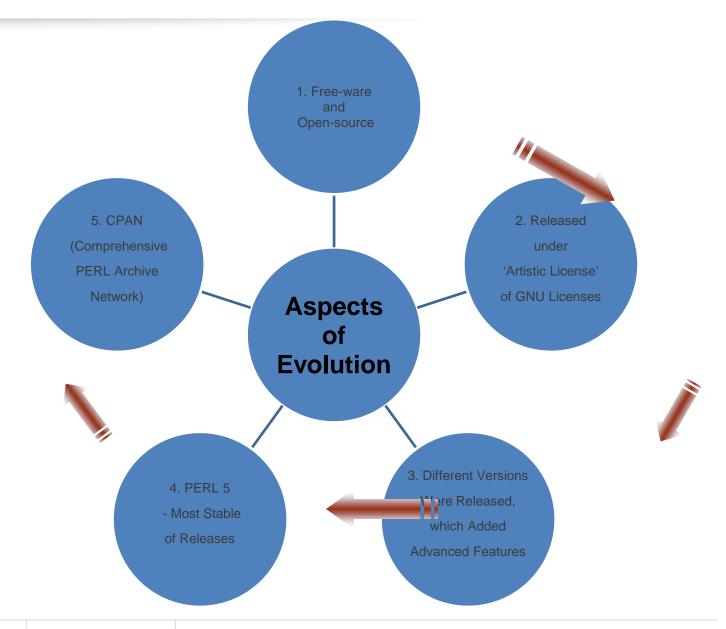
## **Objectives**





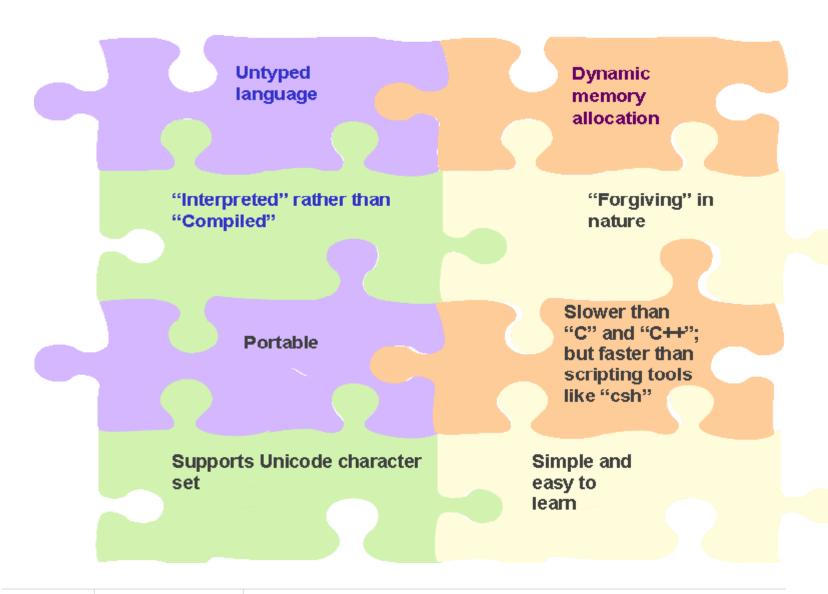
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## **Several Aspects of Evolution**



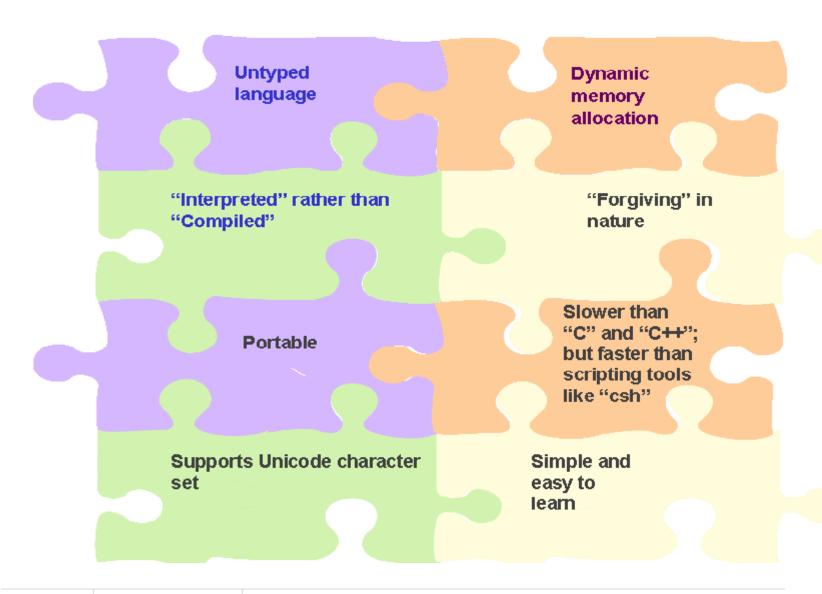
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#### **Features of PERL**



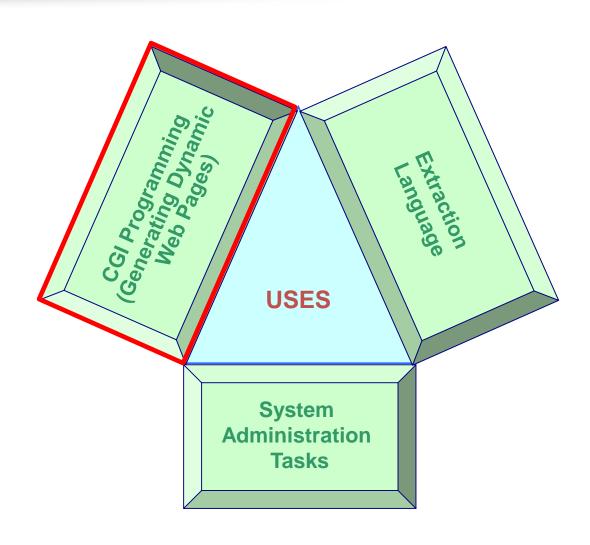
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## Features of PERL (Contd...)



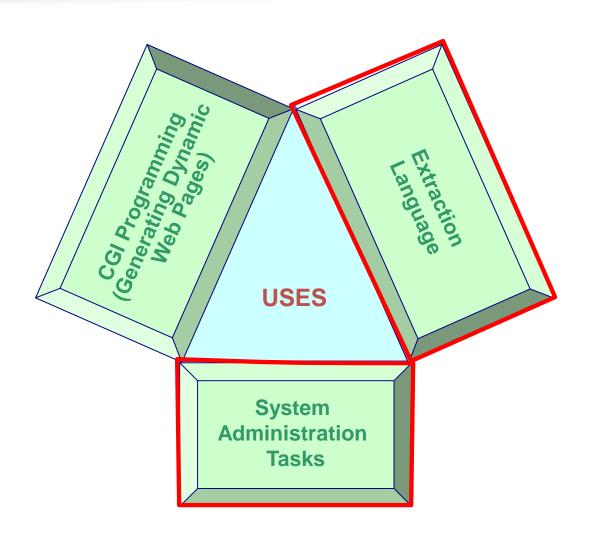
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## **Manifold Uses of PERL**



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## Manifold Uses of PERL (Contd...)



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# **PERL**

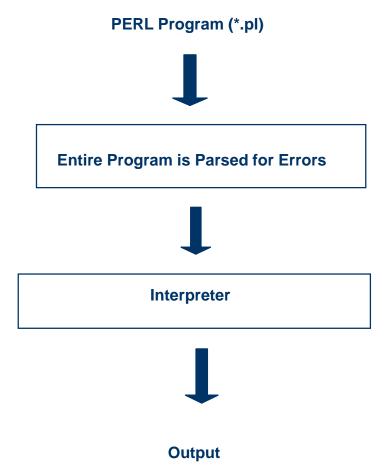
Writing PERL Program

## **First PERL Program**

## First.pl

#! /usr/bin/perl -w

print ("Hello, World!\n");



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## **Using the Print Function**

- The print function dumps the output into the screen.
- Syntax

print FILEHANDLE LIST

- For example, print "Hello Good Morning";
- When no handler is specified, the default handler is STDOUT (Standard Output File) for the print function.

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## **Using the Print Function (Contd...)**

- Escape characters are used to perform text formatting.
- These characters are preceded by a backslash(\).
- Some of the escape characters as follows:
  - − \n − New Line
  - − \t Tab
  - \" Double quotation
  - ' Single Quotation
  - \\ Backslash
  - \0 Octal characters
  - \x -Hexadecimal characters

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# **PERL**

Literals and Variables

#### **Introduction to Literals**

- Literals are the values that remain constant throughout program execution.
- These are classified as follows:
  - Numeric Literals
    - Integers
    - Floating ponmt
    - Octal
    - Hexadecimal
    - Binary
  - String Literals

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#### **Numeric Literals**

#### Following are the examples of Numeric Literals:

- 23(unsigned literal)
- -23(signed literal)
- 23\_500 (Integer Literal equivalent to 25,000)
- **-** 23.59
- 23E05 (Floating-point Literal using scientific notation)
- 0712 (Octal Literal)
- 0x12A (Hexa decimal Literal)
- 0b101011 (Binary Literal)

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## **String Literals**

- The String literals are always enclosed in the following:
  - Single quotes (or q operator)

or

- Double quotes (or qq operator)
- When enclosed in single quotes, the special characters or control characters are not interpolated; whereas, in double quotes, their meaning is substituted.
- For example,
  - 'Hello World\n'
  - "Hello World\n"
  - q/Hello World/
  - qq/Hello World/

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## **Using Variables**

- Values of variables can vary throughout the program.
- They are categorized into the following three types based on the values they hold:
  - Scalar Variable (preceded by \$)
  - Array Variables (preceded by @)
  - Associative Array Variables (Hashes) (preceded by %)
- Variable names are case-sensitive and they should:
  - Specify the type of variable (scalar, array, hash)
  - Begin with an alphabet or an underscore

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#### **Scalar Variables**

- Scalar Variable is the name for a data space in memory.
- It is represented by a variable name preceded by \$.
- Each scalar variable holds a single value.
- The scalar variables are untyped variables.
- Their values can be numeric, string, undefined or reference.
- Assignment operator "=" is used to assign a literal value.
- Type of data is determined in the context of uses of the variables.
- These are global variables by default.

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## What Is the Scope of Variables?

- Scope of a variable refers to the visibility of the variable in the code.
- By default, variables are global in PERL.
- Variables are categorized into two types:
  - Lexical Variables (confined to the block in which they are defined)
  - Dynamic Variables

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#### **Lexical Variables**

#### Lexical Variables are:

- Confined to the block in which they are declared.
- Declared using the my keyword.
  - For example, my \$x=10;
- Stored in a scratch patch (private symbol table and not package's symbol table), when they are created instead of symbol table.
- Erased from memory as soon as they go beyond the scope of the block.

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## **Dynamic Variables**

#### Dynamic Variables:

- {Belong to the package in which they are declared.}
- Global in nature
- Declared using the our or local keyword
  - For example, our \$x=10;
- Stored in symbol table
- Accessed using the name of the package in which they are defined

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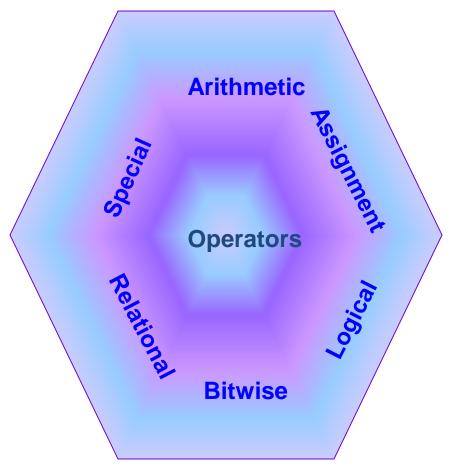
# **PERL**

Operators in PERL

#### Introduction

#### Operators in PERL are classified into:

- Arithmetic Operators
- Assignment Operators
- Logical Operators
- Bitwise Operators
- Relational Operators
- Special Operators



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## **Arithmetic Operators**

- The Arithmetic operators are used to perform arithmetic operations.
- They are further classified into the following:
  - Unary
    - ++(Increment), --(Decrement),-
  - Binary
    - +, -, \*, /, %(Modulus), \*\*(Exponent)

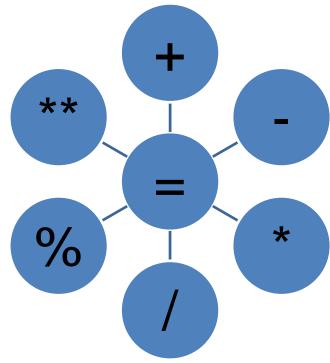
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## **Arithmetic Operators**

The = operator is the basic Assignment operator.

Following operators perform operations and are used for the assign function:

- +=(Add and Assign)
- -=(Subtract and Assign)
- \*=(Multiply and Assign)
- /=(Divide and Assign)
- %=(Modulus and Assign)
- \*\*=(Exponent and Assign)



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## **Logical Operators**

- Logical operators are mainly used to control the program flow.
- They are as follows:
  - op1 && op2: logical AND.
  - op1 || op2: OR.
  - !op1:NOT.

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## **Bitwise Operators**

The bitwise operators work on binary representations of data, that is, at the bit-level.

They are as follows:

- & : AND operator

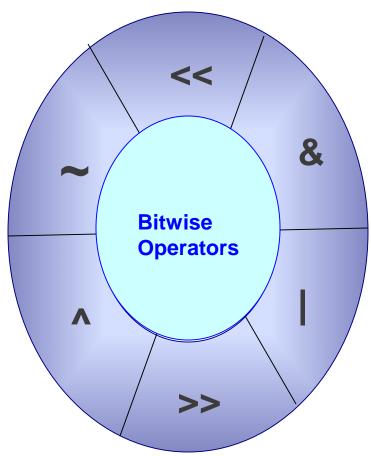
– | : OR operator

- ^: EXCLUSIVE-OR operator

- ~ : COMPLEMENT operator

- >> :SHIFT RIGHT

- << :SHIFT LEFT</p>



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## **Relational Operator**

- The Relational operators are used for comparison of numbers or strings.
- They work differently in both numbers and strings.
- They are categorized into two types:
  - Numeric Comparison
  - String Comparison
- When these operators are used with Numeric Comparison operators, the actual numeric value is used for comparison.
- When these operators are used with String Comparison operators, comparison is based on the ASCII value of the characters involved.

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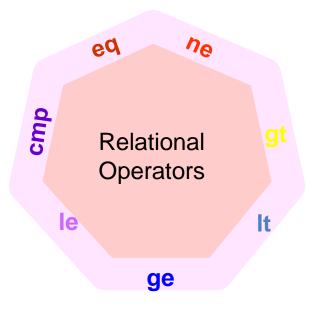
#### **Overview**

- For Numeric comparison, comparison is based on the actual numeric values.
- The following are called as Relational operators:
  - ==(equal to)
  - !=(not equal to)
  - > (greater than)
  - < (less than)</p>
  - >= (greater than or equal to)
  - <= (less than or equal to)</p>
  - < = > Inequality Operator (Spaceship Operator)

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## Overview (Contd...)

- In case of String Comparison operators, comparison is based on ASCII value of characters.
- Following are the Relational operators:
  - eq (equal to)
  - ne (not equal to)
  - gt (greater than)
  - It (less than)
  - ge (greater than or equal to)
  - le (less than or equal to)
  - cmp (Inequality Operator)



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## **Overview**

- Range Operator
  - \_
- Concatenation Operator
  - \_
- Repetition Operator
  - **– X**

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# **PERL**

#### **Control Structures**

## **Branching Statements**

- You use branching statements for changing the flow of program execution depending on the evaluation of a relational expression.
- PERL supports mainly two branching statements:
  - If elsif else
  - unless

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#### If-Else Construct

#### Syntax

```
if (expr_1)
statement_block_1
elsif (expr_2)
statement_block_2
else
   statement_block
```

```
x=30;
if($x > 4)
    print "Number is greater than 4";
elsif ($x < 4)
    print "Number is less than 4";
else
    print "Numbers are Equal";
```

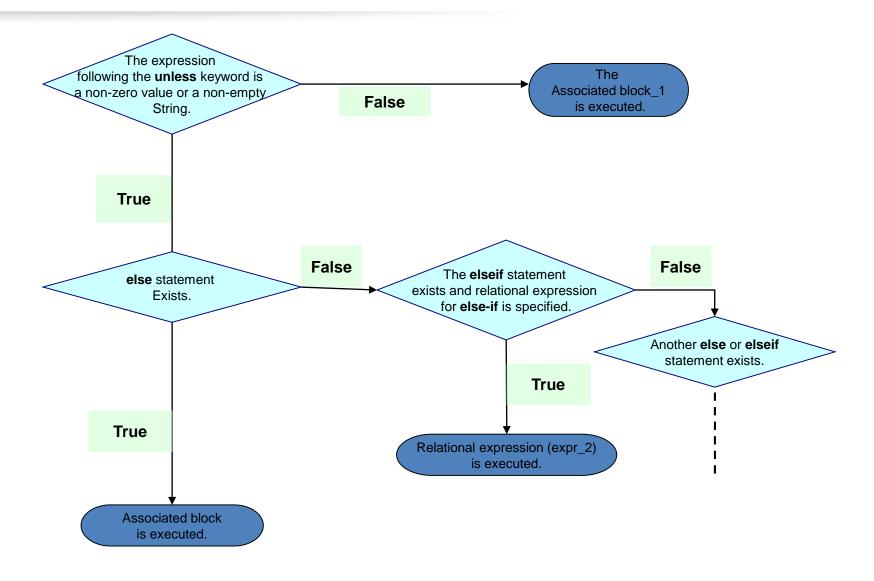
#### The Unless Construct

#### Syntax

```
unless (expression)
        statement_block 1;
elsif (expression)
        statement_block 2;
else
        statement_block 3;
```

```
$x=30;
unless($x > 4)
        print "Number is less than 4";
elsif ($x > 4)
        print "Number is greater than
else
        print "Numbers are Equal";
```

# The Unless Construct (Contd...)



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# **Looping Statements**

- Statements are used to perform code iterations.
- Following are the Loops supported in PERL:
  - while
  - do-while
  - until
  - Do-until
  - for
  - foreach

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# The While Loop

### Syntax

```
while (expr_1)
       some statements
       [while (expr_2)
       statement_block
       statement_block
```

```
$count = 1;
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5
\n");
while ($count <= 5)
{
      print $count. "\n";
      $count = $count + 1;
}
print ("End of loop.\n");</pre>
```

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# The Do-While Loop

### Syntax

```
do
{
   statement_block
} while (expression);
```

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# The Until Loop

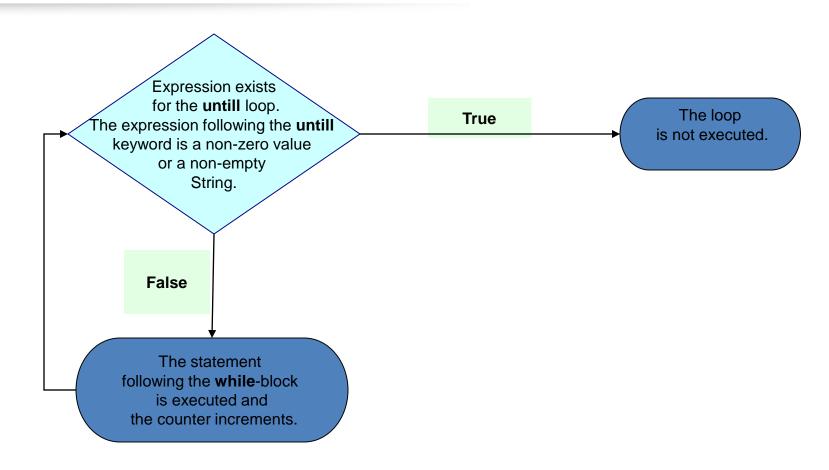
### Syntax

```
until (expr)
{
    //statement_block
}
```

```
$count = 1;
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5 \n");
until ($count > 5)
{
    print $count. "\n";
    $count = $count + 1;
}
print ("End of loop.\n");
```

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# The Until Loop (Contd...)



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# The Do-Until Loop

### Syntax

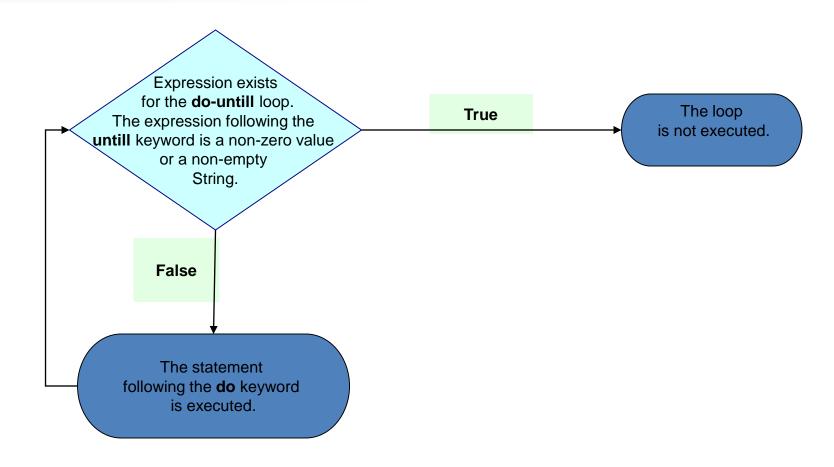
```
do
{
  //statement_block
} until (expr);
```

```
$count = 1;
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5 \n");
do{
        print $count. "\n";
        $count = $count + 1;
} until ($count > 5)

print ("End of loop.\n");
```

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# The Do-Until Loop (Contd...)



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# The For Loop

### Syntax

```
for (starting assignment;
test condition; increment)
{
    statement_block
}
```

```
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5");
for ($count=1;$count<=5;$count++)
{
         print $count. "\n";
}
print ("End of loop.\n");</pre>
```

# The Foreach Loop

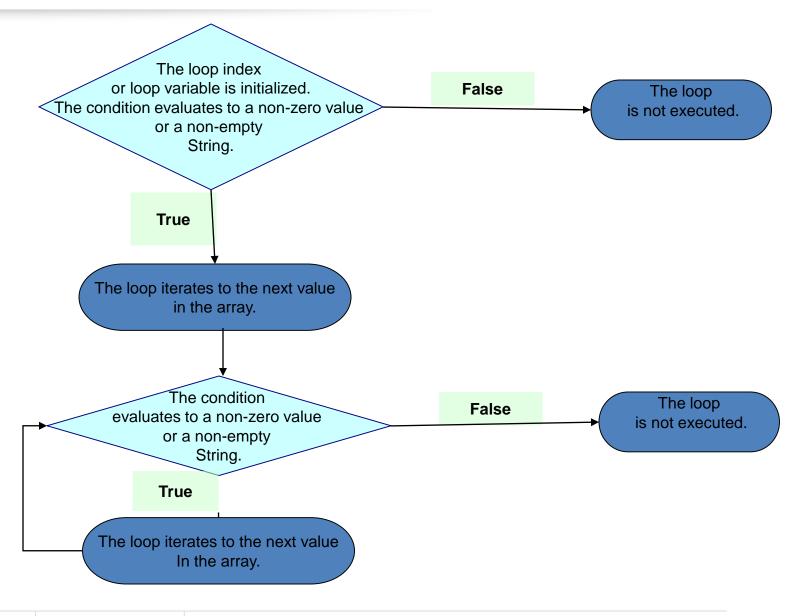
### Syntax

```
foreach variable(arrayname)
{
    statement_block
}
```

```
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5 \n");
foreach $x (1..5)
{
         print $x. "\n";
}
print ("End of loop.\n");
```

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# The Foreach Loop (Contd...)



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### **Other Control Structures**

- PERL supports some other control structures also which can be used in conjunction with the basic flow structures to change the flow of control.
- They are as follows:
  - continue
  - next
  - last
  - redo
  - goto

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### **The Continue Block**

- Continue block is normally attached to a block (while, until or foreach).
- It is executed before the condition is evaluated for the next iteration.
- It is used in situations, where the code is to be executed after each iteration of loop.

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# The Continue Block (Contd...)

### Syntax

```
continue
{
    statement_block
}
```

```
count = 1;
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5");
while($count<=5)</pre>
        print $count."\n";
continue
        $count++;
print ("End of loop.\n");
```

### The Next Block

- The next block alters the flow of execution within the loop body.
- It is also known as a loop modifier. Other modifiers are last and redo.
- It skips the rest of processing of body to go forward with the next iteration of loop.
- It executes the continue block, if present before the start of the next iteration.

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# The Next Block (Contd...)

### Syntax

next [LABEL];

```
$count=1;
print "Odd numbers \n";
while($count<=5)</pre>
        if ($count%2==0)
                next; }
        else
                print $count."\n";
continue
        $count++; }
print "\n End of Loop";
```

### The Last Block

- The last modifier skips the rest of processing of the body to exit the loop.
- The control is transferred beyond the last iteration of the loop.
- It doesn't execute the code in the continue block.

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# The Last Block (Contd...)

### Syntax

last [LABEL];

```
$count = 0;
print ("\n Numbers from 1 to 5");
while ($count<=10)
{
     $count++;
     print "$count\n";
     last if $count==5;
}
print ("End of loop.\n");</pre>
```

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## The Redo Loop

- This modifier restarts with the current iteration of the loop.
- Loop condition is not re-evaluated.
- It retains the current value of the loop iterator.
- Continue block is not executed.

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# The Redo Loop (Contd...)

### Syntax:

redo;

```
$count=1;
while ($count<=10)
        $count++;
        print"$count\n";
        if ($count==5)
                print "$count \n";
                redo;
```

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### The Goto Modifier

- The goto modifier is used to jump over iterations or statement thereby altering the normal flow of control.
- ➤ As soon as goto is encountered, control is transferred over to the LABEL or expression that evaluates to a LABEL or to the subroutine being referred to.

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# The Goto Modifier (Contd...)

### Syntax

goto LABEL
Or
goto EXPR
Or
goto &NAME

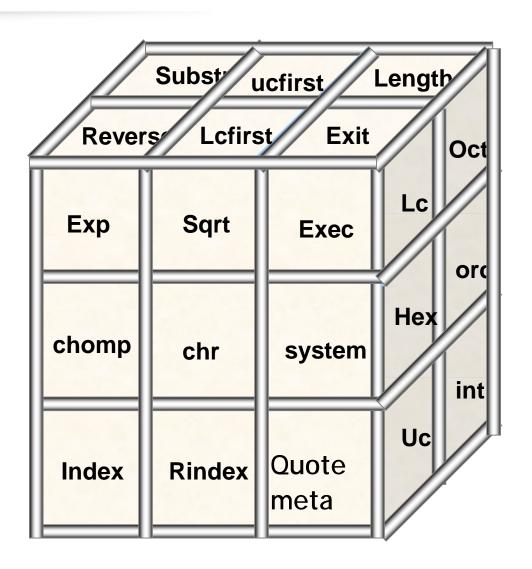
```
print "\n Hi";
goto Second;

print "\n So let's part";
goto First;
First: print "Good Bye";
Second: print "Hello";
```

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### **Built-in Functions in PERL**

PERL contains the following built-in functions:



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#### The Abs Function:

- The abs function returns the absolute value of the given value.
- If no argument is passed, it returns the absolute of the value contained in \$\_\_.

```
For example,

print abs(-3);

#prints the output as 3.
```

### The Sqrt Function:

- The sqrt function returns the square root of the given value.
- It gives an error, if the specified value is a non-numeric value or expression, or if the value evaluates to a negative number.

```
For example,

print sqrt(4);
#prints the value as 2.
```

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### The Exp Function:

The exp function returns the value of e to the power of the given value.

For example,

print exp(-3);

#prints the output as e-3. i.e 0.498706

#### The int Function:

The int function returns the integer part given value.

For example,

print int(-3.9);

#prints the output as -3.

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### The Chomp Function:

 The **chomp** function returns the value after removing the new linecharacter.

For example,

```
$str="Hello World \n";
chomp( $str);
print $str;
```

#prints the value Hello World but does not take the cursor to the next line.

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#### The Chr Function:

The chr function returns the character corresponding to a specific ASCII code.

For example,

```
$asc=65;
print chr($asc);
```

#prints A.

#### The Ord Function:

The ord function returns the ASCII code for a particular character.

For example,

```
$chr="A";
print ord($chr);
```

#prints 65.

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#### The Hex Function:

 The hex function returns the decimal value of an expression interpreted as a hexadecimal string.

For example,

```
$x = hex ("0xa2");

# value of $x is 162

$x = hex ("a2");

# value of $x is 162

$x = hex (0xa2);

# value of $x is 354 (!)
```

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#### The Oct Function

 The oct function returns the decimal value of an expression interpreted as a octal string.

For example,

```
$x = oct ("042");

# $x is 34.

$x = oct ("42");

# $x is 34.

$x = oct ("0x42")

# $x is 66.
```

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### The Length Function:

The length function returns the number of characters in the given string.

For example,

print length("KLFS Computers");

#prints the value as 15.

#### The Ic Function:

 The **Ic** function converts all the characters of the given string to lowercase.

For example,

print lc("KLFS Computers");

#prints the value as klfs computers.

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#### The Lcfirst Function:

 The **lcfirst** function converts the first character of the given string to lowercase.

```
For example,

print lcfirst("KLFS Computers");

#prints the value as klfs Computers.
```

#### The Ucfirst Function:

 The ucfirst function converts the first character of the given string to uppercase.

```
For example,

print ucfirst("klfs Computers");

#prints the value as KLFS Computers.
```

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#### The Uc Function:

 The uc function converts all the characters of the given string to uppercase.

For example, print uc("KLFS Computers");

#prints the value as KLFS COMPUTERS.

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#### The Reverse Function:

- The reverse function reverses the characters in the given string or array or hash.
- It does not make changes in the actual data structure.

For example,

```
$str=reverse("KLFS Computers");
print "\n",$str;

#prints the value sretupmoC SFLK .

print "\n".reverse("A B C D");

#prints the value D C B A.

print "\n".reverse("101 102 103");

#prints the value as 301 201 101.
```

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#### The Substr Function:

- The substr function returns a part of the given string.
- Syntax:

```
substr($str, $offset, $length)
```

- String is the string for which the subpart is to be fetched.
- Offset is the position from which the values should be fetched.
- Length is the number of characters to be fetched from the specified offset.

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### Code snippet (substr)

```
$str=substr("KLFS Computers ",3,5);
print "\n",$str

#prints the value ni Co

$str=substr("KLFS Computers ",5);
print "\n",$str;

#prints the value Computers

$str=substr("KLFS Computers ",-5);
print "\n",$str;
#prints unpredicted values
```

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#### The Index Function:

- The index function returns the position of the first occurrence of the substring in the given string.
- -1 is returned, if the substring is not found.
- Search commences from left to right.

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Syntax

index (String, Substring, Postion)

- String is the string for which the subpart is to be searched.
- Substring specifies the part of string to be searched.
- Position from which the search should begin. It is optional. If not specified, the search starts from the beginning of the string.

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### Code snippet

```
$x= index ("KLFS Computers", « F");
print "\n $x";
# $x is 2
$x = index ("KLFS Computers", "bob");
print "\n $x";
# $x is -1
$x = index ("KLFS COMPUTERS", "S",
4);
print "\n $x";
# $x is 13
```

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#### > The Rindex Function:

 The **rindex** function is same as index, except the Search, which commences in the reverse order from right to left.

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### Code snippet (rindex)

```
$x= rindex ("KLFS Computers", "t");
print "\n $x";
# $x is 10

$x = rindex ("KLFS Computers", "bob");
print "\n $x";
# $x is -1

$x = rindex ("KLFS COMPUTERS", "s");
print "\n $x";
# $x is 13
```

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#### The Quotemeta Function:

 The quotemeta function quotes all non-alphanumeric characters in a string with backslashes.

For example,

```
$str=quotemeta("KLFS's Training");
print "\n",$str;
#prints the value KLFS\'s\ Training
```

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#### The Exit Function:

- The exit function causes immediate exit from the current program.
- It returns value 1 or 0:
  - 1 indicates failure.
  - 0 indicates success.

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#### The Exec Function:

- The exec function abandons the current program to run the given system command.
- It returns no value.
- It does not continue with the program execution after executing system command.

For example,

exec(dir);

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### The System Function:

- The system function runs the given system command.
- It returns 1 or 0 value.
  - 1 indicates failure in executing the command.
  - 0 indicates successful command execution.
- It continues with the program execution after executing system command.

For example,

```
$x=system(dir);
print "Result of Command execution is :",$x;
```

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# **Obtaining Input from Keyboard**

### Code snippet

```
$inputline = <STDIN>;
# read a line of input

print( $inputline );
# write the line out
```

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# **PERL**

Arrays

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### What Are Arrays?

- Variable storages used for lists are called arrays.
- Arrays are also known as collections of scalar values.
- They are represented by preceding the variable name by the @ sign.
- > They can shrink and grow dynamically as elements are added or deleted in the list.

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### **Array Creation**

In the following examples, arrays are created from lists:

```
@language=("PERL","C","C++");
@numbers=(1..10);
@country=(1,"India",2,"USA",3,"UK",4);
@zero=(0)x10;
```

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# Array Creation (Contd...)

In the following examples, arrays are created from other arrays:

```
@language=("Hindi", "English", "French");
@array=@language;
@languages=("German", @language,"Irish");
@x=(1..20,@languages,@array[2]);
@y=@languages[0,3,4];
@z=@languages[0..3];
```

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# **Process of Accessing Array Elements**

Following are the examples of accessing individual array elements:

```
@numbers=qw(one two three four);
$numbers[1];
// Returns two
$numbers[-1];
// Returns four
$numbers[1.9]
// Returns two
```

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# Process of Accessing Array Elements (Contd...)

- You can print an entire array.
  - For example: print @numbers;
    - Output: onetwothreefour
  - For example: print "@numbers";
    - Output: one two three four
- Special variable \$, stores the output field separator.
  - For example: \$,=":"; print @numbers;
    - Output: :one:two:three:four,

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# Process of Accessing Array Elements (Contd...)

- There are other ways to access, process or traverse all the array elements individually. This can be achieved using the following loops:
  - The foreach loop
  - The while loop
  - The for loop

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### Accessing Array Elements - The Foreach Loop

#### Code snippet

```
@numbers = qw ( one two three four);
print "The Array contains : \n";
foreach $number (@numbers)
{
    print "$number\n";
}
```

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### Accessing Array Elements - The While Loop

#### Code snippet

```
@numbers=qw ( one two three four);
$n = 0;
print "The Array contains : \n";
while ($numbers[$n])
{
    print "\n $numbers[$n] \n";
    $n++;
}
```

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# Accessing Array Elements - Length of Array

- Length of the array or the number of elements in an array can be determined in two ways:
  - Scalar
    - For example,

```
print "length of Array: scalar(@numbers)";
```

- Assigning array to a scalar value
  - For example,

```
$length=@numbers;
print "Length Of Array: $length";
```

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## Accessing Array Elements - The For Loop

### Code snippet

```
@numbers=qw(one two three four);
print "The Array contains : \n";
for $number (@numbers)
{
    print "\n $numbers[$n] \n";
}
```

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#### **Push Function**

- The push function adds element to the end or right of the array.
- > Syntax:

push (array, element)

- The function takes two attributes:
  - First argument: Array name
  - Second Argument: Element to be added

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### pop Function

The pop function deletes or removes an element at the end of the array and returns the element.

Syntax:

pop (array)

- The function takes only one argument:
  - First argument : Array name

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#### unshift Function

- The unshift function adds element to the beginning or left of the array.
- > Syntax:

unshift (array, element)

- The function takes two attributes:
  - First argument : Array name
  - Second Argument : Element to be added

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### shift Function

The shift function deletes or removes an element from the beginning or left of the array.

> Syntax:

shift(array)

- The function takes only one argument:
  - First argument : Array name

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#### delete Function

- The delete function deletes the specified element from the array.
- > Syntax:

delete (array element)

**Example:** 

delete (\$numbers[3]);

Assigning an empty list to array deletes the entire array.

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### chop and chomp Functions

- The chop function removes the last character of each and every array element.
- The chomp function removes the newline character from each and every array element.
- > Syntax:

chop (array)

chomp(array)

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### splice Function

- The splice function deletes or replaces elements within an array.
- > Syntax:

splice(array,starting index,length,[replacement list])

- The function can take more than four arguments:
  - First argument: Array to be spliced
  - Second argument: Index number of the element where you wish to start the splice (starts counting at zero)
  - Third Argument: The number of elements to be spliced
  - Fourth Argument (optional): Elements to be replaced

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#### Reverse and Exists Functions

### Reverse()

- The reverse function returns the elements of the array in the reverse order.
- It returns the reversed array, but does not make any changes to the original array.

### Exists()

- The exists function determines whether the array element has been initialized or not.
- It returns a Boolean value.

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### **Split Function**

- The split function splits a string at the specified delimiter and returns an array of split elements.
- Syntax:

split (delimiter, string)

- The function takes two arguments:
  - First argument Delimiter
  - Second Argument String to be split

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#### Join Function

- The join function splits array elements and returns a string separated by the specified delimiter.
- > Syntax:

join (delimiter, array)

- The function takes two arguments:
  - First argument Delimiter
  - Second Argument Array to be split

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# sort() Function

- The sort function sorts each element of an array according to ASCII Numeric standards.
- You require to provide an algorithm or define a comparison routine while sorting numbers.
- The function does not make changes to the underlying data structure (arrays, lists or hashes)
- Syntax:

sort arrayname

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# Command-Line Arguments Used in PERL

- Command-line arguments are stored in the built-in @ARGV array of PERL.
- Code snippet:

```
print "Command-Line Arguments.";
foreach(@ARGV)
{
    print $_ ,"\n";
}
```

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#### Predefined Variables Used in PERL

- > \$! current error that has occurred
- \$\$ process number of the current script
- > \$; specifies output field separator
- \$] current version of PERL (numeric format)
- > \$^C Boolean value indicating the status of -c switch
- \$^E error message specific to the Operating System
- \$^O name of the Operating System
- \$^R result of last successful Regular Expression
- \$^T starting time of the PERL script

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# **PERL**

Associative Arrays in PERL

# What Are Associative Arrays?

- Associative arrays are also known as hashes in common language.
- Hashes are represented using the % symbol.
- Hash uses \$ to dereference values.
- It uses key-value pairs to store data.
- Keys are always unique, but data or value can be duplicate.
- Order of data is not guaranteed as in case of arrays.

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# **Associative Array Creation**

- There are different ways to create a hash.
  - Creating a hash as an ordinary list of pairs:

For example,

%numbers=("one", 1, "two", 2, "three", 3);

Using relationship operator:

For example,

%numbers=(one => 1,two => 2,three => 3);

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## Associative Array Creation (Contd...)

- Creating an associative array using array or hash variable:
  - Using array:

For example,

@numbers=qw (one 1 two 2 three 3);
%numbers=@numbers;

Using another associative array:

For example,

```
%numbers=(one => 1,two => 2,three => 3);
%num=%numbers;
```

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## Associative Array Creation (Contd...)

We can also create associative elements by adding individual elements. For example,

\$numbers{one}=1;
\$numbers{two}=2;

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#### Process of Accessing Associative Array Elements

- Instead of using [] as in case of arrays, use {} to access individual elements.
- Instead of providing index values, use key values to identify the element to be accessed.

For example,

```
@numbers=qw (one 1 two 2 three 3);
%numbers=@numbers;
print $numbers{three};
```

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# Process of Accessing Associative Array Elements (Contd...)

- We can also traverse through the individual elements in the list of associative arrays and process it using the following:
  - The foreach loop
  - The each construct and while loop
- The following two functions return a list of key and values in the specified array:
  - Keys
  - values

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# Process of Accessing Associative Array Elements (Contd...)

- The keys function:
  - The **keys** function returns a list of the keys (indices) of the associative array.

#### Code snippet:

```
%numbers=(one => 1,two => 2,three => 3);
@num_keys = keys (%numbers);
```

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# Process of Accessing Associative Array Elements (Contd...)

- The values function:
  - The values function returns a list of the values of the associative array.
- Code snippet:

```
%numbers=(one => 1,two => 2,three => 3);
@num_values = values(%numbers);
```

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## Accessing Associative Arrays - The foreach Loop

#### Code snippet

```
%numbers=(one => 1,two => 2,three => 3);
foreach (keys %numbers)
{
    print $numbers{$_},"\n";
}
```

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## Accessing Associative Arrays - The Each Loop

#### The each construct:

- The each construct returns a two element lists:
  - One list of key
  - One list of its value
- Every time each is called in the while loop, it returns another key/value pair (that is, the next key/value pair in the iteration).

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## Accessing Associative Arrays - each()

#### Code snippet

```
%numbers=(one => 1,two => 2,three => 3);
while (($key, $value) = each(%numbers))
{
    print $key.", ".$value."\n";
}
```

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## Functions Used in Associative Arrays

- Some of the functions in associative arrays are:
  - delete
  - undef
  - defined
  - exists
  - sort (same as that in arrays)
  - reverse (same as that in arrays)

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- The delete function:
  - This function deletes a key/value pair from an associative array.
- Code snippet:

```
%pages = ( "PERL" =>101, "C" =>100, "Java" => 300 );
delete ($pages{'C'});
```

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- The undef function:
  - This function deletes an associative array.
- Code snippet:

```
%pages = ("PERL" =>101, "C" =>100, "Java" => 300);
undef(%pages);
```

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#### The defined function:

- This function tests if a hash is defined.
- It returns TRUE, if hash is defined; otherwise, it returns FALSE.

#### Code snippet:

```
%pages = ( "PERL" =>101, "C" =>100, "Java" => 300
if(defined(%pages))
    print "Defined";
else
    print "Not Defined";
```

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#### The exists function:

- This function tests for the existence of key within the associative array.
- It returns TRUE, if the key exists; otherwise, it returns FALSE.

#### Code snippet:

```
%pages = ( "PERL" =>101, "C" =>100, "Java" => 300
);
if (exists($pages{'UNIX'}))
{
    print $pages{'UNIX'};
}
```

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## **PERL**

References in PERL

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#### What Are References?

- References are the addresses of data items in memory.
- These are scalar values.
- They are categorized into two types:
  - Hard References: They hold the addresses and types of the data item.
  - Soft References (Symbolic References): They hold names of the data items.
- Extracting the value referred to by the reference variable is called dereferencing.

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#### Creating Hard References

- ➤ The backslash(\) operator is used to create a hard reference. A hard reference can be created to a named data or to an anonymous data variable.
  - Creating references to a named data variable:
    - Reference to a scalar variable:

For example,

```
$scalar =10;
$scalar_ref=\$scalar;
```

Reference to an array variable:

For example,

## Creating Hard References (Contd...)

Reference to a hash variable:

For example,

References to a list:

For example,

$$l= (1,2,3,4,5);$$

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## Creating Hard References (Contd...)

- Creating references to anonymous data:
  - Creating anonymous array reference
  - Uses [] instead of ()

For example,

- Creating anonymous hash reference
- Uses {} instead of ()

For example,

\$hash\_ref={Java => 1000, PERL => 200, C => 1500};

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#### Overview

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- Getting value from a reference is called dereferencing.
- To dereference, put the reference in curly braces.
- References that are generated is a scalar value.
- Dereferencing can be done in two ways:
  - You can use prefix dereferences such as \$, @, %, and & to dereference references.
  - The infix dereference operators is the arrow operator (->).

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#### Dereferencing using prefix dereferences:

- Dereferencing scalar variables:
  - For example,

```
$scalar =10;
$scalar_ref=\$scalar;
print $$scalar_ref;
```

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- Dereferencing can be carried out using infix dereferencers.
- These are normally used when working with arrays, hashes and subroutines.
  - Dereferencing array variables
    - For example,

```
@array =(1..5);
$array_ref=\@array;
print $array_ref->[0];
```

# prints the array element and index position o.

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- Dereferencing hash variables
  - For example,

```
%hash =
  (US=>"dollar",Japan=>"Yen",UK=>"Pound");
  $hash_ref=\%hash;
  for(keys % {$has_ref})
  {
    print "Value:",$hash_ref -> {$_};
  }
```

# prints the hash elements.

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## **PERL**

#### Subroutines

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#### Introduction

- Subroutine is a name given to a section of code.
- It is similar to a user-defined function in C.
- It is mainly created to:
  - Reuse code
  - Manage code
- It can be placed anywhere in the program (at the beginning or the end).

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#### **Overview**

- There are three sections in the declaration of the subroutine:
  - The sub keyword
  - Name of the subroutine
  - Block of code
- ➤ The @\_ list array variable is the special variable in PERL that gets created for every subroutine and holds the arguments passed to the subroutine.

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#### Syntax

```
sub subname
       code block
Or
sub subname (PROTOTYPE)
       code block
```

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#### Code snippet

```
sub fun
{
    print "Hello World";
}
fun;
```

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#### Code snippet

```
sub greet{
        @names = @_;
        foreach my $name (@names)
               print "Hello , $name!\n";
print greet( "john", "Harry", "Maggie");
```

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## **Subroutine Prototype**

#### Code snippet

```
sub greet($$)
{
    ($greeting , $name)=(shift,shift);
    print $greeting ,",",$name;
}
```

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#### **Local Operator**

- The local operator creates dynamic scoped variables.
- It is declared using the local keyword.
  - For example,local \$x=10;
- It creates a temporary copy of global variable.
- It's a run-time construct rather than a compile-time one.
- It is stored in runtime stack and restored when variables go out of scope.

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#### **Local Operator**

#### Code snippet

```
sub inside
         local($a, $b); # Make local variables
         (\$a, \$b) = (\$_[0], \$_[1]);# Assign values
        print "\n A=$a";
        print "\n B=$b";
inside("Hello", "World");
print "Local Value A:$a\n";
print "Local Value B:$b\n";
```

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## Local Vs My

#### Code snippet

```
x = 10;
global_sub( );
local_sub( );
my_sub( );
sub global_sub {
                       print "Global Vlue :$x\n"; }
sub local_sub {
        print "Using local subroutine\n";
        local(\$x) = 100; global\_sub(); 
sub my_sub {
        print "Using my Subroutine\n";
        my($x) = 1000; global_sub(); }
```

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## **PERL**

Regular Expressions

## Introduction to Regular Expressions

- Regular Expression is a string used to describe or match a string as per the specified expression or pattern.
- A regular expression is made up of many parts:
  - Modifiers
  - Character classes
  - Alternative match patterns
  - Quantifiers
  - Assertions
- The =~ operator is used to test the match and !~ is used to negate the match.

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## Regular Expressions - Modifiers

- Modifiers are used to match or replace a pattern.
- They are as follows:
  - m//: Matches a pattern
  - s ///: Substitutes the pattern matched with a string.
- Some modifiers can be used with m// and s/// to make the search more effective. They are:
  - g: globally performs all the operations
  - i: Ignore case
  - x: Ignore white-space in pattern and allow comments.

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# Regular Expressions - Modifiers (Contd...)

```
> m//
```

Used to match the specified pattern

Pattern match is case sensitive

Returns TRUE/FALSE

Syntax:

m/pattern/

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# Regular Expressions - Characters

#### Code snippet

```
$str = "How are you";
if ($str =~ m/are/gi)
{
    print "Match found";
}
```

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- > s///:
  - Used to match the specified pattern and substitute it with another string.
  - Pattern match is case sensitive.
  - Returns TRUE/FALSE
  - Syntax:

s/pattern\_to\_search/pattern\_to\_be\_replaced/

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#### Code snippet

```
$str = "How are you ?";
if ($str =~ s/you/they/gi)
{
    print "\n $str";
}
```

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- Some of the special characters used with regular expressions are as follows:
  - − \D : Non digit character
  - \d: Digit character
  - \S: Non white-space character
  - \s: White-space character
  - \W : Non word-character
  - \w:word-character(alphanumeric as well )

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#### Code snippet (\D)

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems - 13";
if (str = m D) {
        print "\n Found Non-digit Character";
}else{
        print "\n Found Digit Character";
str = "25345";
if (str = m D) {
        print "\n Found Non-digit Character";
}else{
        print "\n Found Digit Character";
```

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#### Code snippet (\d)

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems - 13";
if (str = m/d) {
        print "\n Found Digit Character";
}else{
        print "\n Found Non-digit Character";
str = "25345";
if (str = m/d) {
        print "\n Found Digit Character";
}else{
        print "\n Found Non-digit Character"; }
```

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#### Code snippet (\s)

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems - 13";
if ( str = \sim m/s / ) 
        print "\nFound White space Character";
}else{
        print "\nFound No White space Character";
str = "25345";
if (str = m/s) {
        print "\nFound White space Character";
}else{
        print "\nFound No White space Character";
```

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#### Code snippet (\w)

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems - 13";
if (\$str = \sim m/\w/) {
        print "\nFound Word";
}else{
        print "\nFound Special Characters";
$str = "**\\!";
if (\$str = \sim m/\w/) {
        print "\nFound Word";
}else{
        print "\nFound Special Characters";
```

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### Regular Expressions – Character Classes

- Characters can be grouped into character class and the class matches one character inside it.
- Character class is represented using [].
- You can also specify the range of characters within character classes using -.

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### Regular Expressions - Characters

#### Code snippet

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems _ 13";
if ( str = \sim m/[aeiou] / ) 
        print "There are vowels";
} else {
        print "\n There are no vowels";
$str = "Hw W'II";
if ( str =  m/[aeiou] ) 
        print "There are vowels";
} else {
        print "\n There are no vowels";
```

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### Regular Expressions - Characters

#### Code snippet

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems _ 13";
if ($str =~ m/[0-9]/)
{
          print "The string contains numerals";
}
else
{
          print "\n There are no numerals within the string";
}
```

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# Regular Expressions – Alternative Match Patterns

- We can also search for more than one alternate possibilities.
- Character used to search for alternatives is |.

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# Regular Expressions – Alternative Match Patterns

#### Code snippet

```
$str = "KLFS Computer Systems _ 13";
if ($str =~ m/(KLFS|klfs|Klfs)/)
{
         print "The string contains the word klfs";
}
else
{
         print "\n The string does not contain the word klfs";
}
```

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# Regular Expressions - Quantifiers

- Quantifiers are used to specify that a pattern should be repeated a specific number of times.
- The quantifiers are as follows:
  - \*: Zero or more times
  - +: one or more times
  - ?: one or zero times
  - {n}: n times exactly
  - {n,} :at least n times
  - {n, m}: at least n times and at the most m times.

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# Regular Expressions – Quantifiers

#### Code snippet

```
$_ = "Academy Of KLFS Computers is located in
Thane, Mumbai, Maharashtra,India.";

if ( /Of (.*),/ )
{
    print "$1\n";
}
```

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### Regular Expressions – Quantifiers

#### Code snippet

```
$_ = "Academy Of KLFS Computers is located in
Thane,Mumbai,Maharashtra,India.";
if ( /Of (.*?),/ )
{
    print "$1\n";
}
```

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# Regular Expressions – Quantifiers

#### Code snippet

```
$str = "The programming republic of Perl";

$str =~ /(m{1,3})(.*)/;

# matches, $1 = 'mm' $2 = 'ing republic of Perl'

print "\n $1 \n $2 ";
```

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- Assertions are also known as anchors.
- They are used to match certain string conditions rather than the data part.
- Assertions include:
  - ^: Beginning of the line
  - \$: End of the line
  - − \B: non-word boundary
  - \b: Word-boundary

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#### Code snippet

```
$str = "The programming language Perl";

$str =~ /^(.+)(e|r)(.*)$/;

# matches,

# $1 = 'The programming language Pe'

# $2 = 'r'

# $3 = 'I'

print "\n $1 \n $2 \n $3";
```

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#### Code snippet

```
str = "The programming language Perl";
str = \sim / (.+?)(e|r)(.*) 
# $1 = 'Th'
# $2 = 'e'
# $3 = 'programming language Perl'
print "\n $1 \n $2 \n $3";
```

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#### Code snippet

```
$str= "KLFS Computer Systems Ltd.";
if(str=\sim m/FS\b/)
        print "\n There is a word which ends with the charcater
\'FS\' within the given string ";
else
        print "\n None of the words ends with the charcater \'FS\'
within the given string ";
```

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# **PERL**

File Handling in PERL

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# File Handling

- This lesson deals with file handling and basics of files in PERL.
- It involves the following operations:
  - Opening a file (with the open function)
  - Reading from a file (with the read or getc function)
  - Writing to a file (with the **print** function)
  - Closing a file (with the close function)
- You need to create a FILEHANDLE variable, which will be used to refer to the file.

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# File Opening

- The open function is used to open a file.
- The function creates an input or output channel depending on the mode in which the file has been opened.
- It returns TRUE if successful and undefined otherwise.
- It mainly takes three arguments:
  - First Argument: FILEHANDLE
  - Second Argument: Specifies mode in which the file is to be opened
  - Third Argument: Specifies list of files to be opened

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### Opening a File



open FILEHANDLE, MODE, LIST of file names.

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### Opening a File

### Different modes of opening a file are as follows:

- <: Read Mode</p>
- >: Write Mode
- >>: Append Mode
- +> or +<: Read and Write Mode</p>

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# Reading from a File

- The angle operator <> is used for reading from a file.
- The operator returns the next line of input from the file.
- Syntax
  - < FILEHANDLE.>

If FILEHANDLE is omitted, it reads from STDIN.

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### Reading from a File

#### Code snippet

```
open (HANDLE, "trial.txt");
while(<HANDLE>)
{
    print "$_\n";
}
close HANDLE;
```

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#### Reading From a file

- The Read function is also used to read data from a file.
- It returns the number of bytes that are actually read.
- It can take four arguments:
  - First Argument: FILEHANDLER
  - Second Argument: Scalar variable into which the bytes are read
  - Third Argument: Number of bytes to read
  - Fourth Argument: Offset from which the read operation has to start

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#### Reading From a file

#### Syntax

read FILEHANDLE, SCALAR, LENGTH, OFFSET Or read FILEHANDLE, SCALAR, LENGTH, OFFSET

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#### Reading from a file

#### Code snippet

```
open (HANDLE, "trial.txt");
while(read (HANDLE,$str,2)
{
    print "$str \n";
}
close HANDLE;
```

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#### Reading from a File

- The getc function reads character by character.
- It returns the character read or undefined if end of the file has been reached.
- Syntax

getc FILEHANDLE

Or

getc

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#### Reading from a File

#### Code snippet

```
open (HANDLE, "file.txt") or die "$!";
while($char = getc HANDLE)
{
    print $char;
}
close(HANDLE);
```

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# Writing to a File

- The Print function is used for writing to a file.
- It returns TRUE if the write operation is successful.
- FILEHANDLE has to be specified to print or write into the file.
- If FILEHANDLE is not specified, it will be written to STDOUT.
- Syntax

Print FILEHANDLE LIST

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#### Writing to a File

#### Code snippet

```
open (fin,">>>","text1.txt") or die "File cannot be opened.";

print fin "Hello\n";

print fin "World\n";

close (fin);
```

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# Closing a File

- The Close function is used to close a file.
- It returns TRUE if the file has been closed successfully.
- Syntax

Close FILEHANDLE.

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- There are some in-built functions provided by PERL to handle files.
  They are as follows:
  - copy: copies one file to another
  - move: moves the FILEHANDLE function
  - rename: renames the file
  - unlink: deletes the file
  - seek: moves the FILEHANDLE function to a particular position
  - tell: returns the current position of FILEHANDLE

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- The copy function copies one file to another.
- It takes two parameters:
  - File to be copied
  - Name of the copy file to be created
- Syntax

copy(\$filetobecopied, \$newfile)

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- The rename function renames the file.
- It returns TRUE, if the file has been renamed successfully, and FALSE otherwise.
- Syntax

rename OLDFILE, NEWFILE

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- The unlink function deletes the file.
- It returns TRUE, if the file has been deleted successfully.
- Syntax

unlink (filename)

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- > The tell function returns the current position of FILEHANDLE.
- Syntax

tell FILEHANDLE

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- The seek function moves the FILEHANDLE function to a particular position.
- It takes three parameters:
  - First Parameter: FILEHANDLE
  - Second Parameter: The byte position to which the FILEHANDLE must move to
  - Third Parameter: Options regarding the position (can be 0,1,2)
- Syntax

seek FILEHANDLE, POSITION, OPTION;

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### Code snippet

```
open (HANDLE, "< test.txt") or die "oops: $!";
seek HANDLE, 10, 0;
print tell HANDLE;
close(HANDLE);</pre>
```

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### File Tests

- There are certain tests that can be performed on FILEHANDLEs to understand the behavior of certain files.
- They include the following:
  - **-r**: File or directory is readable
  - w: File or directory is writable
  - x: File or directory is executable
  - o: File or directory is owned by user
  - e : File or directory exists
  - -z: File exists and has zero size (directories are never empty)

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#### File Tests

- -s: File/directory exists and has a nonzero size (the value is the size in bytes).
- d: Entry is a directory.
- -T: File is "text".
- **-B**: File is "binary".

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### Code snippet

```
$neededfile="trial.pl";
if (-e $neededfile)
      print("File Does Exist");
else
    print ("File Does not exist");
```

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# **Directory Handling**

- Just like file handling, we can also handle the directories in PERL.
- It includes the following:
  - Making a directory (using the **mkdir** function)
  - Opening a directory (using the opendir function)
  - Reading a directory entry (using the readdir function)
  - Closing a directory (using the closedir function)
  - Changing a directory (using the chdir function)
  - Removing a directory (using the rmdir function)

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# **PERL**

Packages in PERL

## **Packages**

- Packages are used to create namespaces in PERL.
- They are declared using the keyword 'package'.
- By default, PERL script starts compiling into the package 'main'.
- Package definition can stretch to multiple files.
- You should always specify a return value.

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# **Creation of Package**

## Code snippet

```
package p1;
sub sub1
        print "Subroutine 1";
sub sub2
        print "Subroutine 2";
return 1;
```

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## **Accessing a Package**

- The require keyword is used to make use of a package
- Package members can be accessed using the delimiter ::
- Current package name can be determined by the built-in identifier \_\_PACKAGE\_\_.

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# **Accessing a Package**

## Code snippet

```
require 'pack.pl';
p1::sub1();
```

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## **Package Constructors and Destructors**

- Package constructors are used to initialize the package variables.
- The BEGIN subroutine is known as package constructor.
- Package destructors are used to perform clean up operations.
- The END subroutine is known as package destructor.

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## **Package Constructors and Destructors**

### Code snippet

```
package p1;
BEGIN {
        print "Initializing Package variable text .\n";
        $text="Hello World";
sub sub1 {
        print "\n $text";
END {
        print "Finished execution of :",___PACKAGE___;
return 1;
```

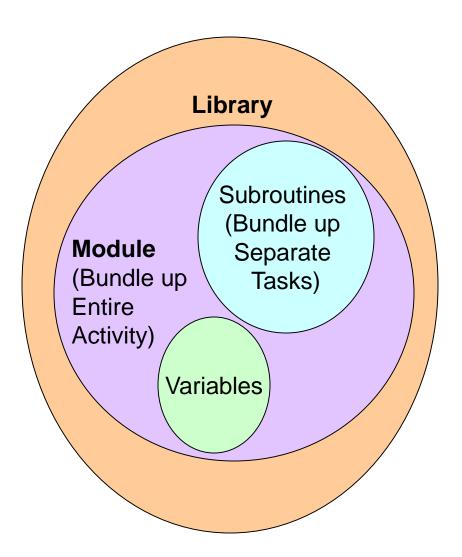
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# **PERL**

Modules in PERL

### **Modules**

- PERL contains a large library of modules.
- Standard modules are installed when PERL is been installed.
- Module is a collection of subroutines and variables belonging to the same package.



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### **Creation of Modules**

- The package keyword is used to create a module.
- > The file name should be the same as the module name.
- The file is stored with a .pm suffix.
- Last statement should be the return statement that returns a TRUE value.

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### **Creation of Modules**

### Code snippet

```
package Mathtest;
our ($pi, $e);
$pi = 3.14159; # Define $Mathtest::pi
$e = 2.7182818; # Define $Mathtest::e
sub circle_area # Declare a subroutine {
    my $radius = shift;
    return ($pi * $radius * $radius);
}
```

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## **Accessing Modules**

### Code snippet

```
use Mathtest;

my $log_e = $Mathtest::e;
print "Log base: $log_e\n";  # Prints 2.7182818

my $radius = 10;
my $area = Mathtest::circle_area($radius);
print "Area = $area\n";  # Prints 314.159
```

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## **Accessing Modules**

### Code snippet

```
package NewModule;
use vars qw($VERSION @ISA @EXPORT EXPORT_OK);
require Exporter;
@ISA = qw(Exporter AutoLoader);
@EXPORT = qw();
$VERSION = '0.01';
sub subroutine1{
   print "\n Hello World";
# Prints 314.159
```

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# **Accessing Modules**

## Code snippet

```
use NewModule;

print "\n Calling Subroutine .";

NewModule::subroutine1;
```

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# The @INC and %INC Arrays

- The @INC array contains a list of directories from which Perl modules and libraries can be loaded.
- %INC is used to cache the names of the files and the modules that were successfully loaded and compiled.
- ▶ If the file is successfully loaded and compiled, then a new keyvalue pair is added to %INC.
  - key name of the file or module
  - value is the full path to it in the file system.

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- > A module can be loaded in three ways:
  - do
  - require
  - use

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- > The do Statement:
  - The do statement reads the contents of the file at run-time.
  - It searches the @INC and updates the contents of %INC.
- Syntax

do \$filename

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### The require Statement:

- The require statement pulls the code-module at run-time.
- It checks if the file has been already loaded.
  - It does not load the file if already loaded.
  - It generates a run-time error if the file is not found.
- It has the ability to effect the compilation of the script.

## Syntax

require \$filename

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#### The use Statement:

- The use statement pulls the code-module at compile-time.
- It detects the error at compile-time itself at the time of loading.
- It lets a module export symbol.

### Syntax

use \$filename

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