Active PERL

Introduction to PERL

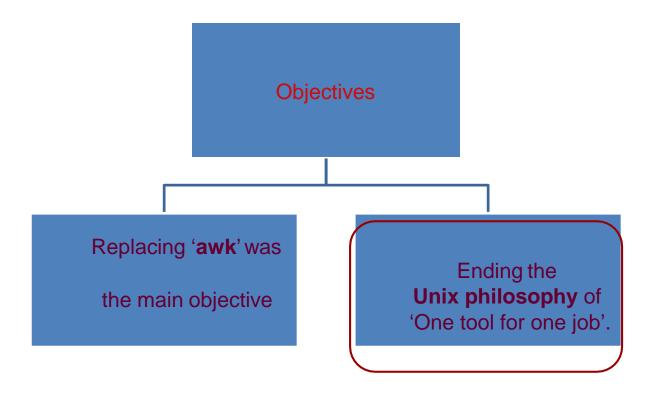
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Overview

- 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.

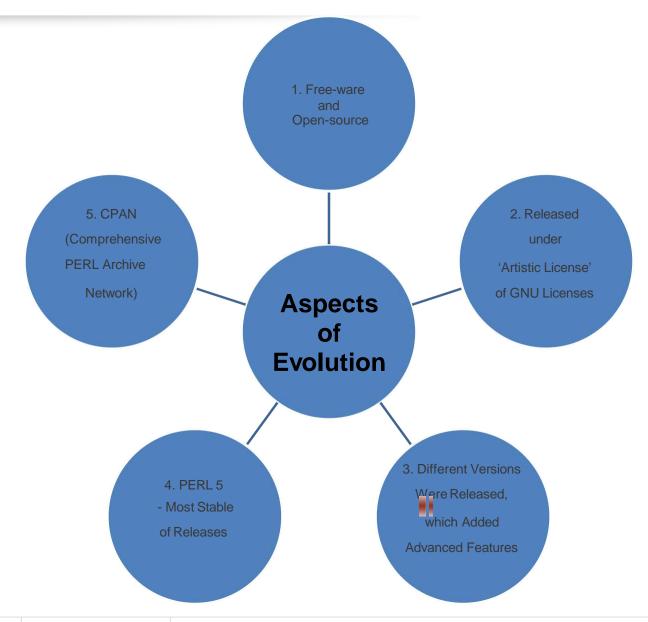
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Objectives



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Several Aspects of Evolution



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Features

- Untyped Language
- Dynamic Memory Allocation
- Interpreted rather than compiled
- Portable
- Faster than shell but slower than C, C++
- Supports Unicode character
- Simple and easy to learn

Uses

- CGI Programming(Web Programming
- System administration tasks
- -- Extraction Language

PERL

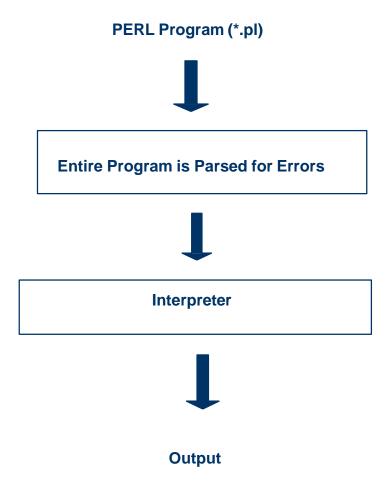
Writing PERL Program

First PERL Program

First.pl

#! /usr/bin/perl -w

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



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Using the Print Function

- The print function displays the output on 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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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:

- 27(unsigned literal)
- -27(signed literal)
- 27_500 (Integer Literal equivalent to 25,000)
- 237.59
- 27E05 (Floating-point Literal using scientific notation)
- 0716 (Octal Literal)
- 0x13A (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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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)

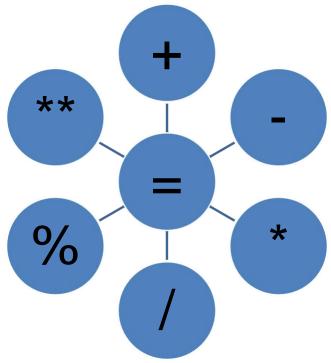
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Arithmetic Operators

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

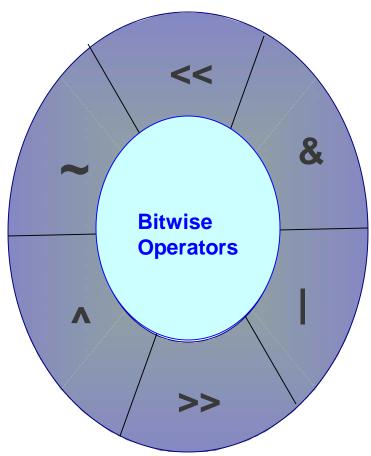
- Logical operators are mainly used to control the program flow.
- They are as follows:
 - op1 && op2: logical AND.
 - op1 || op2: OR.
 - !op1:NOT.

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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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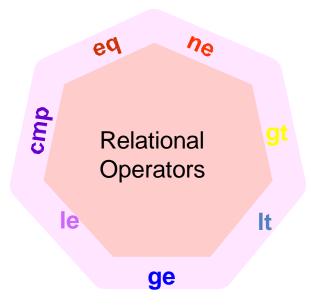
Overview

- 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)</pre>
 - >= (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
 - **-** .. (1..10)
- Concatenation Operator

```
a=20;
print "Length".a
```

- Repetition Operator
 - <u>-</u> х

Print "Hello" x 3

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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($x > 6)
    print "Number is greater than 6";
elsif ($x < 6)
    print "Number is less than 6";
else
    print "Numbers are Equal";
```

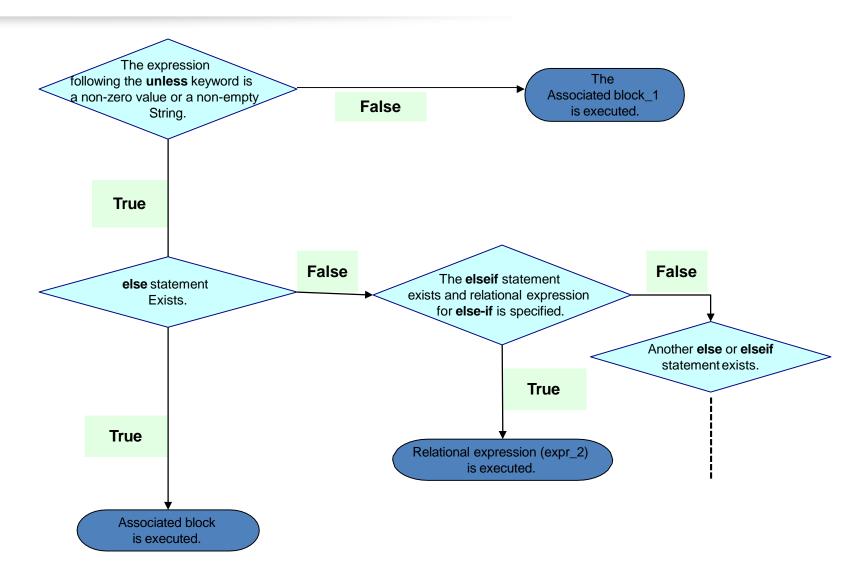
The Unless Construct

Syntax

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

```
x=30;
unless($x > 6)
        print "Number is less than 6";
elsif ($x > 6)
  print "Number is greater than 6";
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>
```

The Do-While Loop

Syntax

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

```
count = 1;
print ("\n Accept number from
user\n");
do{
print "enter number $count\n";
$num=<>;
count = count + 1;
print "Do you want to continue?(y/n)";
$ans=<>;
chomp($ans);
print "$ans\n"
} while ($ans ne "n") ;
print ("End of loop.\n");
```

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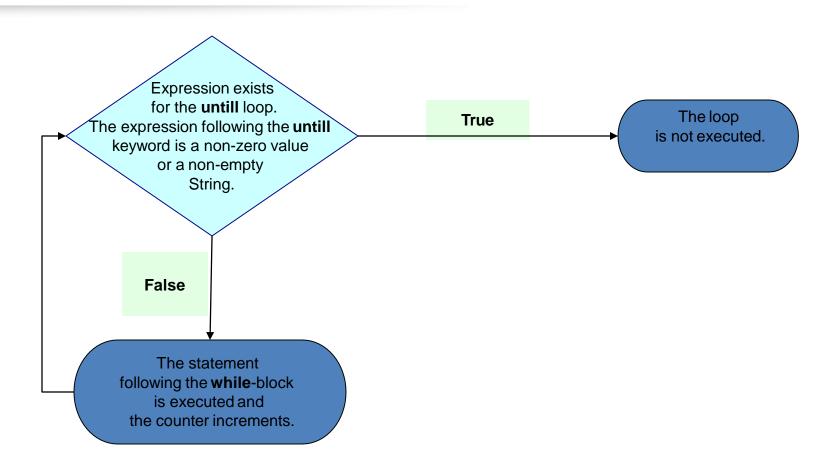
The Until Loop

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");
```

The Until Loop (Contd...)



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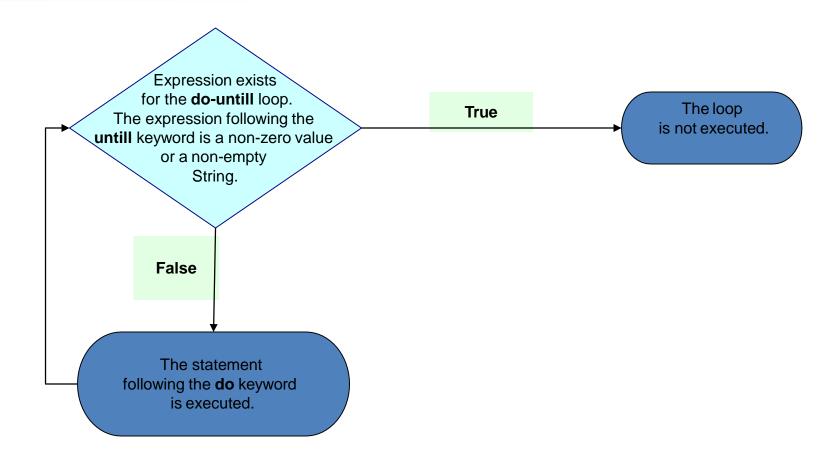
The Do-Until Loop

Syntax

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

```
count = 1;
print ("\n Accept number from
user\n");
do{
      "enter number $count\n";
print
$num=<>;
count = count + 1;
print " Do you want to
continue?(y/n)";
$ans=<>;
chomp($ans);
print "$ans\n"
} until ($ans eq "n") ;
print ("End of loop.\n");
```

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>
```

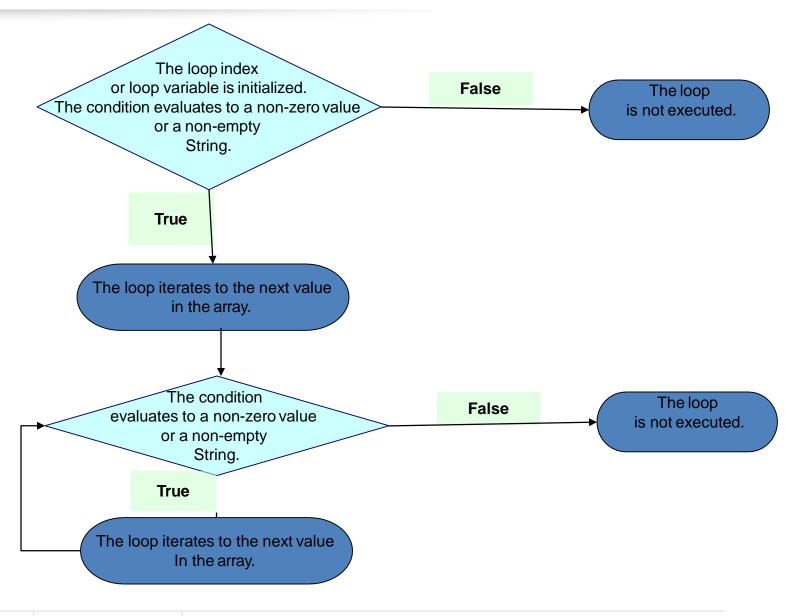
The Foreach Loop

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");
```

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)
        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";
```

next statement with condition

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

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;
```

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

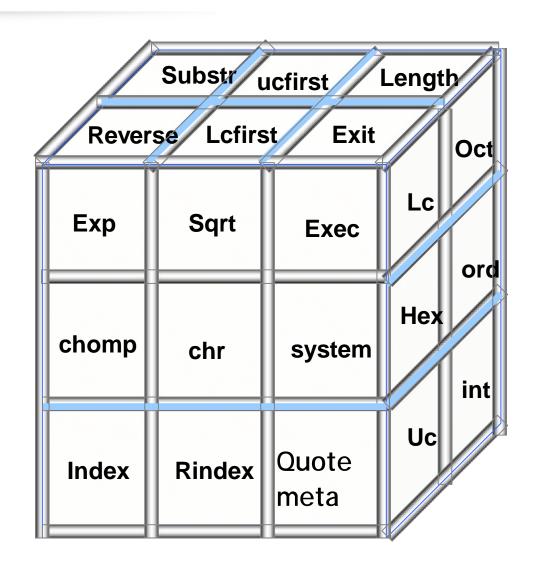
```
goto LABEL
Or
goto EXPR
Or
goto &NAME
```

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

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

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(-5);

#prints the output as 5.
```

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(9);
#prints the value as 3.
```

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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(-4.9);

#prints the output as -4.

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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
```

value of \$x is 162

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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 14.
```

The Ic Function:

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

```
For example,

print Ic("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 S Com

$str=substr("KLFS Computers ",5);
print "\n",$str;
#prints the value Computers

$str=substr("KLFS Computers",-7);
print "\n",$str;
#prints values mputers
```

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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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```
$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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```
$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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Built-in Functions in PERL (Contd...)

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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Built-in Functions in PERL (Contd...)

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); #for windows
exec(ls); #for windows
```

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Built-in Functions in PERL (Contd...)

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

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

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PERL

Arrays

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,

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

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,

```
@array =(1,2,3,4,5);
$array_ref=\@array;
```

Creating Hard References (Contd...)

 Reference to a hash variable: For example,

```
$hash =(Java => 1000 , PERL => 200 , C => 1500);
$hash_ref=\$hash;
```

 References to a list: For example,

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

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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,

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Overview

- 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:

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- 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

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, $b); # Make local variables
         (\$a, \$b) = (\$_[0], \$_[1]); \# Assign values
         print "nA=$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

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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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Regular Expressions - Characters (Contd...)

- > 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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Regular Expressions - Characters (Contd...)

Code snippet

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

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Regular Expressions - Characters (Contd...)

- 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 = \sim m \land D/) \{
         print "\n Found Non-digit Character";
}else{
         print "\n Found Digit Character";
str = "25345";
if ( str = \sim m \land 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 = \sim m \land d \land) \{
         print "\n Found Digit Character";
}else{
          print "\n Found Non-digit Character";
str = "25345":
if ( str = \sim m \wedge 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 = \sim m \land 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'll";
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, Pune, Maharashtra, India.";
#? Will will search first occurrence of,
if (/Of (.*?),/)
     print "$1\n";
#This will search Last occurrence of,
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 = \sim / \land (.+)(e|r)(.*) \$ /; \\ \# matches, \\ \# \$1 = 'The programming language Pe' \\ \# \$2 = 'r' \\ \# \$3 = 'l' \\ \\ print " \ \$1 \ \$2 \ \$3";
```

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Code snippet

```
str = "The programming language Perl";
str = \sim /^(.+?)(e|r)(.*)\$/; \# matches,
\# \$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

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

Syntax

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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File Handling Functions

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

tell FILEHANDLE

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File Handling Functions

- 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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File Handling Functions

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

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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;
```

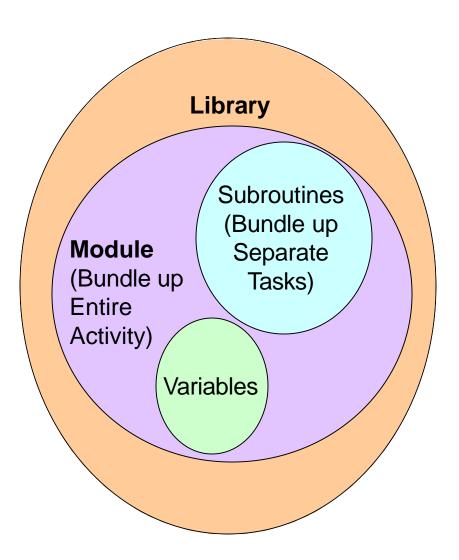
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PERL

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 @EXPORTEXPORT_OK);
require Exporter;
@ISA = qw(ExporterAutoLoader);
@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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Database Connectivity in Perl

DBI – Database Interface DBD – Database Driver

