Programming, using and understanding

Pike

by Fredrik Hübinette

This book was written with the intention of making anybody with a little programming experience able to use Pike. It should also be possible to gain a deep understanding of how Pike works and to some extent why it works the way it does from this book. It will teach you how to write your own extensions to Pike. I have been trying for years to get someone else to write this book, but since it seems impossible without paying a fortune for it I will have to do it myself. A big thanks goes to Ian Carr-de Avelon* and Henrik Wallin <hedda@idonex.se> for helping me iron out some of the rough spots. The book assumes that you have programmed some other programming language before and that you have some experience of UNIX.

http://www.emit.com.pl/ian.html

Contents

This introduction will give you some background about Pike and this book and also compare Pike with other languages. If you want to start learning Pike immediately you can skip this chapter.

0.1 Overview

This book is designed for people who want to learn Pike fast. Since Pike is a simple language to learn, especially if you have some prior programming experience, this should benefit most people.

Chapter one is devoted to background information about Pike and this book. It is not really necessary to read this chapter to learn how to use and program Pike, but it might help explain why some things work the way they do. It might be more interesting to re-read the chapter after you have learned the basics of Pike programming. Chapter two is where the action starts. It is a crash course in Pike with examples and explanations of some of the basics. It explains the fundamentals of the Pike data types and control structures. The systematic documentation of all Pike capabilities starts in chapter three with a description of all control structures in Pike. It then continues with all the data types in chapter four and operators in chapter five. Chapter six deals with object orientation in Pike, which is slightly different than what you might be used to.

0.2 The history of Pike

In the beginning, there was Zork. Then a bunch of people decided to make multi-player adventure games. One of those people was Lars Pensjö at the Chalmers university in Gothenburg, Sweden. For his game he needed a simple, memory-efficient language, and thus LPC (Lars Pensjö C) was born. About a year later I started playing one of these games and found that the language was the most easy-to-use language I had ever encountered. I liked the language so much that I started improving it and before long I had made my own LPC dialect called LPC4. LPC4 was still geared towards writing adventure games, but was quite useful for writing other things with as well. A major problem with LPC4 was the copyright. Since it was based on Lars Pensjö's code, it came with a license that did not allow it to be used for commercial gain. So, in 1994 I started writing μLPC, which was a new but similar LPC interpreter. I got financial backing from Signum Support AB for writing μLPC. Signum is a company dedicated to supporting GNU and GPL software and they wanted to create more GPL software.

When μLPC became usable, InformationsVävarna AB started using it for their web-server. Before then, Roxen (then called Spinner) was non-commercial and written in LPC4. Then in 1996 I started working for InformationsVävarna developing μLPC for them. We also changed the name of μLPC to Pike to get a more commercially viable name.

0.3 A comparison with other languages

0.4 What is Pike

Pike is:

-
-
-
-
-
-
-
-
-

Pike has:

-
-
-
-
-
-

0.5 How to read this manual

This manual uses a couple of different typefaces to describe different things:

Also, please beware that the word **program** is also a builtin Pike data type.

Chapter 1

Getting started

First you need to have Pike installed on your computer. See appendix D if this is not already done. It is also vital for the first of the following examples that the Pike binary is in your UNIX search path. If you have problems with this, consult the manual for your shell or go buy a beginners book about UNIX.

1.1 Your first Pike program

```
int main()
{
  write("hello world\n");
  return 0;
}
```

Let's call this file hello_world.pike, and then we try to run it:

```
$ pike hello_world.pike
hello world
$
```

Pretty simple, Let's see what everything means:

```
int main()
```

This begins the function `main`. Before the function name the type of value it returns is declared, in this case `int` which is the name of the integer number type in Pike. The empty space between the parenthesis indicates that this function takes no arguments. A Pike program has to contain at least one function, the `main` function. This function is where program execution starts and thus the function from which every other function is called, directly or indirectly. We can say that this function is called by the operating system. Pike is, as many other programming languages, built upon the concept of functions, i.e. what the program does is separated into small portions, or functions, each performing one (perhaps very complex) task. A function declaration consists of certain essential components; the type of the value it will return, the *name* of the function, the *parameters*, if any, it takes and the body of the function. A function is also a part of something greater; an object. You can program in Pike without caring about objects, but the programs you write will in fact be objects themselves anyway. Now let's examine the body of `main`;

```
{
  write("hello world\n");
  return 0;
}
```

Within the function body, programming instructions, statements, are grouped together in blocks. A block is a series of statements placed between curly brackets. Every statement has to end in a semicolon. This group of statements will be executed every time the function is called.

```
write("hello world\n");
```

The first statement is a call to the builtin function `write`. This will execute the code in the function `write` with the arguments as input data. In this case, the constant string `hello world\n` is sent. Well, not quite. The `\n` combination corresponds to the newline character. `write` then writes this string to stdout when executed. Stdout is the standard Unix output channel, usually the screen.

```
return 0;
```

This statement exits the function and returns the value zero. Any statements following the return statements will not be executed.

1.2 Improving hello_world.pike

Typing `pike hello_world.pike` to run our program may seem a bit unpractical. Fortunately, Unix provides us with a way of automating this somewhat. If we modify hello_world.pike to look like this:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

int main()
{
```

```
  write("hello world\n");
  return 0;
}
```

And then we tell UNIX that hello_world.pike is executable so we can run hello_world.pike without having to bother with running Pike:

```
$ chmod +x hello_world.pike
$ ./hello_world.pike
hello world
$
```

N.B.: The hash bang (#!) must be first in the file, not even whitespace is allowed to precede it! The file name after the hash bang must also be the complete file name to the Pike binary, and it may not exceed 30 characters.

1.3 Further improvements

Now, wouldn't it be nice if it said `Hello world!` instead of `hello world` ? But of course we don't want to make our program "incompatible" with the old version. Someone might need the program to work like it used to. Therefore we'll add a *command line option* that will make it type the old `hello world`. We also have to give the program the ability to choose what it should output based on the command line option. This is what it could look like:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  if(argc > 1 && argv[1]=="--traditional")
  {
    write("hello world\n"); // old style
  }else{
    write("Hello world!\n"); // new style
  }
  return 0;
}
```

Let's run it:

```
$ chmod +x hello_world.pike
$ ./hello_world.pike
Hello world!
```

```
$ ./hello_world.pike --traditional
hello world
$
```

What is new in this version, then?

```
int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
```

In this version the space between the parenthesis has been filled. What it means is that `main` now takes two arguments. One is called `argc`, and is of the type `int`. The other is called `argv` and is a an array of strings.

The arguments to `main` are taken from the command line when the Pike program is executed. The first argument, `argc`, is how many words were written on the command line (including the command itself) and `argv` is an array formed by these words.

```
if(argc > 1 && argv[1] == "--traditional")
{
  write("hello world\n"); // old style
}else{
  write("Hello world!\n"); // new style
}
```

This is an if-else statement, it will execute what's between the first set of brackets if the expression between the parenthesis evaluate to something other than zero. Otherwise what's between the second set of brackets will be executed. Let's look at that expression:

```
argc > 1 && argv[1] == "--traditional"
```

Loosely translated, this means: argc is greater than one, and the second element in the array argv is equal to the string `--traditional`. Since argc is the number of words on the command line the first part is true only if there was anything after the program invocation.

Also note the comments:

```
write("hello world\n"); // old style
```

The `//` begins a comment which continues to the end of the line. Comments will be ignored by the computer when it reads the code. This allows to inform whoever might read your code (like yourself) of what the program does to make it easier to understand. Comments are also allowed to look like C-style comments, i.e. `/* ... */`, which can extend over several lines. The `//` comment only extends to the end of the line.

1.4 Control structures

The first thing to understand about Pike is that just like any other programming language it executes one piece of code at a time. Most of the time it simply executes code line by line working its way downwards. Just executing a long list of instructions is not enough to make an interesting program however. Therefore we have **control structures** to make Pike execute pieces of code in more interesting orders than from top to bottom.

We have already seen an example of the `if` statement:

```
if( expression )
  statement1;
else
  statement2;
```

`if` simply evaluates the expression and if the result is true it executes *statement1*, otherwise it executes *statement2*. If you have no need for statement2 you can leave out the whole else part like this:

```
if( expression )
  statement1;
```

In this case *statement1* is evaluated if *expression* is true, otherwise nothing is evaluated.

Note for beginners: go back to our first example and make sure you understand what `if` does.

Another very simple control structure is the `while` statement:

```
while( expression )
  statement;
```

This statement evaluates *expression* and if it is found to be true it evaluates *statement*. After that it starts over and evaluates *expression*again. This continues until *expression* is no longer true. This type of control structure is called a **loop** and is fundamental to all interesting programming.

1.5 Functions

Another control structure we have already seen is the function. A function is simply a block of Pike code that can be executed with different arguments from different places in the program. A function is declared like this:

```
modifiers type name(type varname1, type varname2, ...)
{
  statements
}
```

The *modifiers* are optional. See section 6.7 for more details about modifiers. The *type* specifies what kind of data the function returns. For example, the word `int` would signify that the function returns an integer number. The *name* is used to identify the function when calling it. The names between the parenthesis are the arguments to the function. They will be defined as local variables inside the function. Each variable will be declared to contain values of the preceding type. The three dots signifies that you can have anything from zero to 256 arguments to a function. The *statements* between the brackets are the function body. Those statements will be executed whenever the function is called.

Example:

```
int sqr(int x) { return x*x; }
```

This line defines a function called `sqr` to take one argument of the type `int` and also returns an `int`. The code itself returns the argument multiplied by itself. To call this function from somewhere in the code you could simply put: `sqr(17)` and that would return the integer value 289.

As the example above shows, `return` is used to specify the return value of a function. The value after `return` must be of the type specified before the function name. If the function is specified to return `void`, nothing at all should be written after `return`. Note that when a return statement is executed, the function will finish immediately. Any statements following the return will be ignored.

There are many more control structures, they will all be described in a later chapter devoted only to control structures.

1.6 True and false

Throughout this chapter the words **true** and **false** have been used without any explanation to what they mean. Pike has a fairly simple way of looking at this. The number 0 is false and everything else is true. (Except when using operator overloading as I will explain in a later chapter.)

1.7 Data Types

As you saw in our first examples we have to indicate the type of value returned by a function or contained in a variable. We used integers (`int`), strings (`string`), and arrays (with the * notation). The others are `mapping`, `mixed`, `void`, `float`, `multiset`, `function`, `object` and `program`. Neither `mixed` nor `void` are really types, `void` signifies that no value should be returned and `mixed` that the return value can be of any type, or that the variable can contain any type of value. `Function`, `object` and `program` are all types related to object orientation. We will not discuss the last three in any great detail here,

Chapter 2

A more elaborate example

To illustrate several of the fundamental points of Pike we will now introduce an example program, that will be extended as we go. We will build a database program that keeps track of a record collection and the songs on the records. In the first version we hard-code our ”database” into the program. The database is a mapping where the index is the record name and the data is an array of strings. The strings are of course the song names. The default register consists of one record.

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

mapping (string:array(string)) records =
([
  "Star Wars Trilogy" : ({
    "Fox Fanfare",
    "Main Title",
    "Princess Leia’s Theme",
    "Here They Come",
    "The Asteroid Field",
    "Yoda’s Theme",
    "The Imperial March",
    "Parade of the Ewoks",
    "Luke and Leia",
    "Fight with Tie Fighters",
    "Jabba the Hut",
    "Darth Vader’s Death",
    "The Forest Battle",
    "Finale"
  })
]);
```

We want to be able to get a simple list of the records in our database. The function `list_records` just goes through the mapping `records` and puts the indices, i.e. the record names, in an array of strings, record_names. By using the builtin function `sort` we put the record names into the array in alphabetical order which might be a nice touch. For the printout we just print a header, "Records:", followed by a newline. Then we use the loop control structure `for` to traverse the array and print every item in it, including the number of the record, by counting up from zero to the last item of the array. The builtin function `sizeof` gives the number of items in an array. The printout is formatted through the use of `sprintf` which works more or less like the C function of the same name.

```
void list_records()
{
  int i;
  array (string) record_names=sort(indices(records));

  write("Records:\n");
  for(i=0;i<sizeof(record_names);i++)
    write(sprintf("%3d: %s\n", i+1, record_names[i]));
}
```

If the command line contained a number our program will find the record of that number and print its name along with the songs of this record. First we create the same array of record names as in the previous function, then we find the name of the record whose number (`num`) we gave as an argument to this function. Next we put the songs of this record in the array `songs` and print the record name followed by the songs, each song on a separate line.

```
void show_record(int num)
{
  int i;
  array (string) record_names = sort(indices (records));
  string name=record_names[num-1];
  array (string) songs=records[name];

  write(sprintf("Record %d, %s\n",num,name));
  for(i=0;i<sizeof(songs);i++)
    write(sprintf("%3d: %s\n", i+1, songs[i]));
}
```

The main function doesn't do much; it checks whether there was anything on the command line after the invocation. If this is not the case it calls the list_records function, otherwise it sends the given argument to the show_record function. When the called function is done the program just quits.

```
int main(int argc, array (string) argv)
{
  if(argc <= 1)
  {
    list_records();
  } else {
    show_record((int) argv[1]);
  }
}
```

2.1 Taking care of input

Now, it would be better and more general if we could enter more records into our database. Let's add such a function and modify the `main()` function to accept "commands".

2.1.1 add_record()

Using the method `Stdio.Readline()->read()` we wait for input which will be put into the variable `record_name`. The argument to `->read()` is printed as a prompt in front of the user's input. Readline takes everything up to a newline character. Now we use the control structure `while` to check whether we should continue inputting songs. The `while(1)` means "loop forever", because 1 is always **true**. This program does not in fact loop forever, because it uses `return`to exit the function from within the loop when you type a period. When something has been read into the variable song it is checked. If it is a "." we return a null value that will be used in the while statement to indicate that it is not ok to continue asking for song names. If it is not a dot, the string will be added to the array of songs for this record, unless it's an empty string. Note the `+=` operator. It is the same as saying `records[record_name]=records[record_name]+({song})`.

```
void add_record()
{
  string record_name=Stdio.Readline()->read("Record name: ");
  records[record_name]=({});
  write("Input song names, one per line. End with '.' on its own line.\n");
  while(1)
  {
    string song;
    song=Stdio.Readline()->read(sprintf("Song %2d: ",
                                 sizeof(records[record_name])+1));
    if(song==".")
       return;
    if (strlen(song))
      records[record_name]+=({song});
  }
}
```

2.1.2 main()

The main function now does not care about any command line arguments. Instead we use `Stdio.Readline()->read()` to prompt the user for instructions and arguments. The available instructions are ”add”, ”list” and ”quit”. What you enter into the variables `cmd` and `args` is checked in the `switch()` block. If you enter something that is not covered in any of the case statements the program just silently ignores it and asks for a new command. In a `switch()` the argument (in this case `cmd`) is checked in the `case` statements. The first case where the expression equals `cmd` then executes the statement after the colon. If no expression is equal, we just fall through without any action. The only command that takes an argument is ”list” which works as in the first version of the program. If ”list” receives an argument, that record is shown along with all the songs on it. If there is no argument it shows a list of the records in the database. When the program returns from either of the listing functions, the `break` instruction tells the program to jump out of the `switch()` block. ”add” of course turns control over to the function described above. If the command given is ”quit” the `exit(0)` statement stops the execution of the program and returns 0 (zero) to the operating system, telling it that everything was ok.

```
int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  string cmd;
  while(cmd=Stdio.Readline()->read("Command: "))
  {
    string args;
    sscanf(cmd,"%s %s",cmd,args);

    switch(cmd)
    {
    case "list":
      if((int)args)
      {
        show_record((int)args);
      } else {
        list_records();
      }
      break;

    case "quit":
      exit(0);

    case "add":
      add_record();
      break;
    }
  }
}
```

2.2 Communicating with files

Now if we want to save the database and also be able to retrieve previously stored data we have to communicate with the environment, i.e. with files on disk. Now we will introduce you to programming with objects. To open a file for reading or writing we will use one of the programs which is builtin in Pike called `Stdio.File`. To Pike, a program is a data type which contains code, functions and variables. A program can be *cloned* which means that Pike creates a data area in memory for the program, places a reference to the program in the data area, and initializes it to act on the data in question. The methods (i.e. functions in the object) and variables in the object Stdio.File enable us to perform actions on the associated data file. The methods we need to use are open, read, write and close. See chapter 8.5for more details.

2.2.1 save()

First we clone a `Stdio.File` program to the object `o`. Then we use it to open the file whose name is given in the string file_name for writing. We use the fact that if there is an error during opening, open() will return a false value which we can detect and act upon by exiting. The arrow operator (->) is what you use to access methods and variables in an object. If there is no error we use yet another control structure, `foreach`, to go through the mapping `records` one record at a time. We precede record names with the string "Record: " and song names with "Song: ". We also put every entry, be it song or record, on its own line by adding a newline to everything we write to the file.
Finally, remember to close the file.

```
void save(string file_name)
{
  string name, song;
  Stdio.File o=Stdio.File();

  if(!o->open(file_name,"wct"))
  {
    write("Failed to open file.\n");
    return;
  }

  foreach(indices(records),name)
  {
    o->write("Record: "+name+"\n");
    foreach(records[name],song)
      o->write("Song: "+song+"\n");
  }

  o->close();
}
```

2.2.2 load()

The `load` function begins much the same, except we open the file named `file` for reading instead. When receiving data from the file we put it in the string `file_contents`. The absence of arguments to the method o->read means that the reading should not end until the end of the file. After having closed the file we initialize our database, i.e. the mapping records. Then we have to put `file_contents` into the mapping and we do this by splitting the string on newlines (cf. the split operator in Perl) using the division operator. Yes, that's right: by dividing one string with another we can obtain an array consisting of parts from the first. And by using a `foreach` statement we can take the string `file_contents` apart piece by piece, putting each piece back in its proper place in the mapping records.

```
void load(string file_name)
{
  string name="ERROR";
  string file_contents,line;

  Stdio.File o=Stdio.File();
  if(!o->open(file_name,"r"))
  {
    write("Failed to open file.\n");
    return;
  }

  file_contents=o->read();
  o->close();

  records=([]);

  foreach(file_contents/"\n",line)
  {
    string cmd, arg;
    if(sscanf(line,"%s: %s",cmd,arg))
    {
      switch(lower_case(cmd))
      {
      case "record":
        name=arg;
        records[name]=({});
        break;

       case "song":
         records[name]+=({arg});
         break;
      }
    }
  }
}
```

2.2.3 main() revisited

`main()` remains almost unchanged, except for the addition of two case statements with which we now can call the load and save functions. Note that you must provide a filename to load and save, respectively, otherwise they will return an error which will crash the program.

```
case "save":
  save(args);
  break;

case "load":
  load(args);
  break;
```

2.3 Completing the program

Now let's add the last functions we need to make this program useful: the ability to delete entries and search for songs.

2.3.1 delete()

If you sell one of your records it might be nice to able to delete that entry from the database. The delete function is quite simple. First we set up an array of record names (cf. the `list_records` function). Then we find the name of the record of the number `num` and use the builtin function `m_delete()` to remove that entry from `records`.

```
void delete_record(int num)
{
  array(string) record_names=sort(indices(records));
  string name=record_names[num-1];

  m_delete(records,name);
}
```

2.3.2 search()

Searching for songs is quite easy too. To count the number of hits we declare the variable `hits`. Note that it's not necessary to initialize variables, that is done automatically when the variable is declared if you do not do it explicitly. To be able to use the builtin function `search()`, which searches for the presence of a given string inside another, we put the search string in lowercase and compare it with the lowercase version of every song. The use of `search()` enables us to search for partial song titles as well. When a match is found it is immediately written to standard output with the record name followed by the name of the song where the search string was found and a newline. If there were no hits at all, the function prints out a message saying just that.

```
void find_song(string title)
{
  string name, song;
  int hits;

  title=lower_case(title);

  foreach(indices(records),name)
  {
    foreach(records[name],song)
    {
      if(search(lower_case(song), title) != -1)
      {
        write(name+"; "+song+"\n");
        hits++;
      }
    }
  }

  if(!hits) write("Not found.\n");
}
```

2.3.3 main() again

Once again `main()` is left unchanged, except for yet another two case statements used to call the `search()` and `delete` functions, respectively. Note that you must provide an argument to delete or it will not work properly.

```
case "delete":
  delete_record((int)args);
  break;

case "search":
  find_song(args);
  break;
```

2.4 Then what?

Well that's it! The example is now a complete working example of a Pike program. But of course there are plenty of details that we haven't attended to. Error checking is for example extremely sparse in our program. This is left for you to do as you continue to read this book. The complete listing of this example can be found in appendix A. Read it, study it and enjoy!

2.5 Simple exercises

Make a program which writes hello world 10 times. Modify hello_world.pike to write the first argument to the program. Make a program that writes a hello_world program to stdout when executed. Modify the register program to store data about programs and diskettes instead of songs and records. Add code to the register program that checks that the user typed an argument when required. The program should notify the user and wait to receive more commands instead of exiting with an error message. Add code to the register program to check that the arguments to `show_record` and `delete_records` are numbers. Also make sure that the number isn't less than one or bigger than the available number of records. Rewrite the register program and put all the code in main().

Chapter 3

Control Structures

In this chapter all the control structures in Pike will be explained. As mentioned earlier, control structures are used to control the flow of the program execution. Note that functions that make the program pause and simple function calls are not qualified as control structures.

3.1 Conditions

Pike only has two major condition control structures. We have already seen examples of both of them in Chapter two. But for completeness they will be described again in this chapter.

3.1.1 if

The simplest one is called the **if statement**. It can be written anywhere where a statement is expected and it looks like this: if(expression) statement1; else statement2; Please note that there is no semicolon after the parenthesis or after the `else`. Step by step, `if` does the following:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

This is actually more or less how the interpreter executes the if statement. In short, *statement1* is executed if *expression* is **true**otherwise *statement2* is executed. If you are interested in having something executed if the expression is false you can drop the whole else part like this:

```
if( expression )
  statement1;
```

If on the other hand you are not interested in evaluating something if the expression is **false** you should use the **not** operator to negate the true/false value of the expression. See chapter 5 for more information about the **not** operator. It would look like this:

```
if( ! expression )
  statement2 ;
```

Any of the statements here and in the rest of this chapter can also be a **block** of statements. A block is a list of statements, separated by semicolons and enclosed by brackets. Note that you should never put a semicolon after a block of statements. The example above would look like this;

```
if ( ! expression )
{
  statement;
  statement;
  statement;
}
```

3.1.2 switch

A more sophisticated condition control structure is the **switch statement**. A switch lets you select one of many choices depending on the value of an expression and it can look something like this:

```
switch ( expression )
{
  case constant1:
    statement1;
    break;

  case constant2:
    statement2;
    break;

  case constant3 .. constant4:
    statement3;
    break;

  default:
    statement5;
}
```

As you can see, a switch statement is a bit more complicated than an if statement. It is still fairly simple however. It starts by evaluating the expression it then searches all the `case` statements in the following block. If one is found to be equal to the value returned by the expression, Pike will continue executing the code directly following that `case` statement. When a `break` is encountered Pike will skip the rest of the code in the switch block and continue executing after the block. Note that it is not strictly necessary to have a break before the next case statement. If there is no break before the next case statement Pike will simply continue executing and execute the code after that case statement as well.

One of the case statements in the above example differs in that it is a **range**. In this case, any value between *constant3* and *constant4* will cause Pike to jump to *statement3*. Note that the ranges are inclusive, so the values *constant3* and *constant4* are also valid.

3.2 Loops

Loops are used to execute a piece of code more than once. Since this can be done in quite a few different ways there are four different loop control structures. They may all seem very similar, but using the right one at the right time makes the code a lot shorter and simpler.

3.2.1 while

`While` is the simplest of the loop control structures. It looks just like an `if` statement without the else part:

```
while ( expression )
  statement ;
```

The difference in how it works isn't that big either, the statement is executed if the expression is true. Then the expression is evaluated again, and if it is true the statement is executed again. Then it evaluates the expression again and so forth... Here is an example of how it could be used:

```
int e=1;
while(e<5)
{
  show_record(e);
  e=e+1;
}
```

This would call show_record with the values 1, 2, 3 and 4.

3.2.2 for

`For` is simply an extension of `while`. It provides an even shorter and more compact way of writing loops. The syntax looks like this:

```
for ( initializer_statement ; expression ; incrementor_expression )
  statement ;
```

For does the following steps:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

This means that the example in the while section can be written like this:

```
for(int e=1; e<5; e=e+1)
  show_record(e);
```

3.2.3 do-while

Sometimes it is unpractical that the expression is always evaluated before the first time the loop is executed. Quite often you want to execute something, and then do it over and over until some condition is satisfied. This is exactly when you should use the do-while statement.

```
do
  statement;
while ( expression );
```

As usual, the *statement* can also be a block of statements, and then you do not need a semicolon after it. To clarify, this statement executes *statement* first, and then evaluates the *expression*. If the expression is **true** it executes the loop again. For instance, if you want to make a program that lets your modem dial your Internet provider, it could look something like this:

```
do {
  modem->write("ATDT441-9109\n"); // Dial 441-9109
} while(modem->gets()[..6]] != "CONNECT");
```

This example assumes you have written something that can communicate with the modem by using the functions `write` and `gets`.

3.2.4 foreach

`Foreach` is unique in that it does not have an explicit test expression evaluated for each iteration in the loop. Instead, `foreach` executes the statement once for each element in an array. `Foreach` looks like this:

```
foreach ( array_expression, variable )
  statement ;
```

We have already seen an example of `foreach` in the `find_song`function in chapter 2. What foreach does is:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

`Foreach` is not really necessary, but it is faster and clearer than doing the same thing with a `for` loop, as shown here:

```
array tmp1= array_expression;
for ( tmp2 = 0; tmp2 < sizeof(tmp1); tmp2++ )
{
  variable = tmp1 [ tmp2 ];
  statement;
}
```

3.3 Breaking out of loops

The loop control structures above are enough to solve any problem, but they are not enough to provide an easy solution to all problems. One thing that is still missing is the ability to exit a loop in the middle of it. There are three ways to do this:

3.3.1 break

`break` exits a loop or switch statement immediately and continues executing after the loop. `Break` can not be used outside of a loop or switch. It is quite useful in conjunction with `while(1)` to construct command parsing loops for instance:

```
while(1)
```

```
{
  string command=Stdio.Readline()->read("> ");
  if(command=="quit") break;
  do_command(command);
}
```

3.3.2 continue

`Continue` does almost the same thing as `break`, except instead of breaking out of the loop it only breaks out of the loop body. It then continues to execute the next iteration in the loop. For a `while` loop, this means it jumps up to the top again. For a `for` loop, it jumps to the incrementor expression. For a `do-while` loop it jumps down to the expression at the end. To continue our example above, `continue` can be used like this:

```
while(1)
{
  string command=Stdio.Readline()->read("> ");
  if(strlen(command) == 0) continue;
  if(command=="quit") break;
  do_command(command);
}
```

This way, `do_command` will never be called with an empty string as argument.

3.3.3 return

`Return` doesn't just exit the loop, it exits the whole function. We have seen several examples how to use it chapter 2. None of the functions in chapter two returned anything in particular however. To do that you just put the return value right after `return`. Of course the type of the return value must match the type in the function declaration. If your function declaration is `int main()` the value after `return` must be an **`int`**. For instance, if we wanted to make a program that always returns an error code to the system, just like the UNIX command `false` this is how it would be done:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

int main()
{
  return 1;
}
```

This would return the error code `1` to the system when the program is run.

3.4 Exercises

End all functions in the examples in chapter two with a return statement. Change all `foreach` loops to `for` or `while` loops. Make the `find_song` function in chapter 2 return when the first matching song is found. Make the `find_song` function write the number of the record the song is on. If you failed to get the program to work properly in the last exercise of chapter 2, try it again now. Make a program that writes all the numbers from 1 to 1000. Modify the program in the previous exercise to NOT write numbers divisible by 3, 7 or 17. Make a program that writes all the prime numbers between 1 and 1000.

Chapter 4

Data types

In this chapter we will discuss all the different ways to store data in Pike in detail. We have seen examples of many of these, but we haven't really gone into how they work. In this chapter we will also see which operators and functions work with the different types. There are two categories of data types in Pike: **basic types**, and **pointer types**. The difference is that basic types are copied when assigned to a variable. With pointer types, merely the pointer is copied, that way you get two variables pointing to the same thing.

4.1 Basic types

The basic types are `int`, `float` and `string`. For you who are accustomed to C or C++, it may seem odd that a string is a basic type as opposed to an array of char, but it is surprisingly easy to get used to.

4.1.1 int

`Int` is short for integer, or integer number. They are normally 32 bit integers, which means that they are in the range -2147483648 to 2147483647. Note that on some machines an `int` might be larger than 32 bits. Since they are integers, no decimals are allowed. An integer constant can be written in several ways:

```
78 // decimal number
0116 // octal number
0x4e // hexadecimal number
'N' // Ascii character
```

All of the above represent the number 78. Octal notation means that each digit is worth 8 times as much as the one after. Hexadecimal notation means that each digit is worth 16 times as much as the one after. Hexadecimal notation uses the letters a, b, c, d, e and f to represent the numbers 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15. The ASCII notation gives the ASCII value of the character between the single quotes. In this case the character is `N` which just happens to be 78 in ASCII.

Integers are coded in 2-complement and overflows are silently ignored by Pike. This means that if your integers are 32-bit and you add 1 to the number 2147483647 you get the number -2147483648. This works exactly as in C or C++.

All the arithmetic, bitwise and comparison operators can be used on integers. Also note these functions:

4.1.2 float

Although most programs only use integers, they are unpractical when doing trigonometric calculations, transformations or anything else where you need decimals. For this purpose you use `float`. Floats are normally 32 bit floating point numbers, which means that they can represent very large and very small numbers, but only with 9 accurate digits. To write a floating point constant, you just put in the decimals or write it in the exponential form:

```
3.14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937510 // Pi
1.0e9  // A billion
1.0e-9 // A billionth
```

Of course you do not need this many decimals, but it doesn't hurt either. Usually digits after the ninth digit are ignored, but on some architectures `float` might have higher accuracy than that. In the exponential form, `e` means "times 10 to the power of", so `1.0e9` is equal to "1.0 times 10 to the power of 9".

All the arithmetic and comparison operators can be used on floats. Also, these functions operates on floats:

4.1.3 string

A `string` can be seen as an array of values from 0 to 2^{32}-1. Usually a string contains text such as a word, a sentence, a page or even a whole book. But it can also contain parts of a binary file, compressed data or other binary data. Strings in Pike are **shared**, which means that identical strings share the same memory space. This reduces memory usage very much for most applications and also speeds up string comparisons. We have already seen how to write a constant string:

```
"hello world" // hello world
"he" "llo"    // hello
"\116"        // N (116 is the octal ASCII value for N)
"\t"          // A tab character
"\n"          // A newline character
"\r"          // A carriage return character
"\b"          // A backspace character
"\0"          // A null character
"\""          // A double quote character
"\\"          // A singe backslash
"\x4e"        // N (4e is the hexadecimal ASCII value for N)
"\d78"        // N (78 is the decimal ACII value for N)
"hello world\116\t\n\r\b\0\"\\" // All of the above
"\xff"        // the character 255
"\xffff"      // the character 65536
"\xffffff"    // the character 16777215
"\116""3"     // 'N' followed by a '3'
```

As you can see, any sequence of characters within double quotes is a string. The backslash character is used to escape characters that are not allowed or impossible to type. As you can see, `\t` is the sequence to produce a tab character, `\\` is used when you want one backslash and `\"` is used when you want a double quote (`"`) to be a part of the string instead of ending it. Also, `\`*`XXX`* where *XXX* is an octal number from 0 to 37777777777 or `\x`*`XX`* where *XX* is 0 to ffffffff lets you write any character you want in the string, even null characters. From version 0.6.105, you may also use `\d`*`XXX`* where *XXX* is 0 to 2^{32}-1. If you write two constant strings after each other, they will be concatenated into one string.

You might be surprised to see that individual characters can have values up to 2^{32}-1 and wonder how much memory that use. Do not worry, Pike automatically decides the proper amount of memory for a string, so all strings with character values in the range 0-255 will be stored with one byte per character. You should also beware that not all functions can handle strings which are not stored as one byte per character, so there are some limits to when this feature can be used.

Although strings are a form of arrays, they are immutable. This means that there is no way to change an individual character within a string without creating a new string. This may seem strange, but keep in mind that strings are shared, so if you would change a character in the string `"foo"`, you would change *all* `"foo"` everywhere in the program.

However, the Pike compiler will allow you to to write code like you could change characters within strings, the following code is valid and works:

```
string s="hello torld";
s[6]='w';
```

However, you should be aware that this does in fact create a new string and it may need to copy the string *s* to do so. This means that the above operation can be quite slow for large strings. You have been warned. Most of the time, you can use `replace`, `sscanf`, ‘`/`or some other high-level string operation to avoid having to use the above construction too much.

All the comparison operators plus the operators listed here can be used on strings:

Also, these functions operates on strings:

4.2 Pointer types

The basic types are, as the name implies, very basic. They are the foundation, most of the pointer types are merely interesting ways to store the basic types. The pointer types are `array`, `mapping`, `multiset`, `program`, `object` and `function`. They are all **pointers** which means that they point to something in memory. This "something" is freed when there are no more pointers to it. Assigning a variable with a value of a pointer type will not copy this "something" instead it will only generate a new reference to it. Special care sometimes has to be taken when giving one of these types as arguments to a function; the function can in fact modify the "something". If this effect is not wanted you have to explicitly copy the value. More about this will be explained later in this chapter.

4.2.1 array

Arrays are the simplest of the pointer types. An array is merely a block of memory with a fixed size containing a number of slots which can hold any type of value. These slots are called **elements** and are accessible through the index operator. To write a constant array you enclose the values you want in the array with `({ })` like this:

```
({ })      // Empty array
({ 1 })    // Array containing one element of type int
({ "" })   // Array containing a string
({ "", 1, 3.0 }) // Array of three elements, each of different type
```

As you can see, each element in the array can contain any type of value. Indexing and ranges on arrays works just like on strings, except with arrays you can change values inside the array with the index operator. However, there is no way to change the size of the array, so if you want to append values to the end you still have to add it to another array which creates a new array. Figure 4.1 shows how the schematics of an array. As you can see, it is a very simple memory structure.

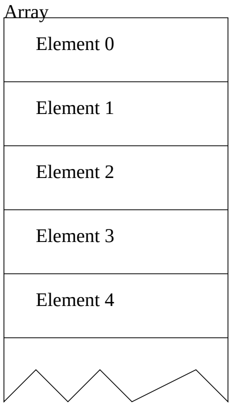


fig 4.1

Operators and functions usable with arrays:

4.2.2 mapping

Mappings are are really just more generic arrays. However, they are slower and use more memory than arrays, so they cannot replace arrays completely. What makes mappings special is that they can be indexed on other things than integers. We can imagine that a mapping looks like this:

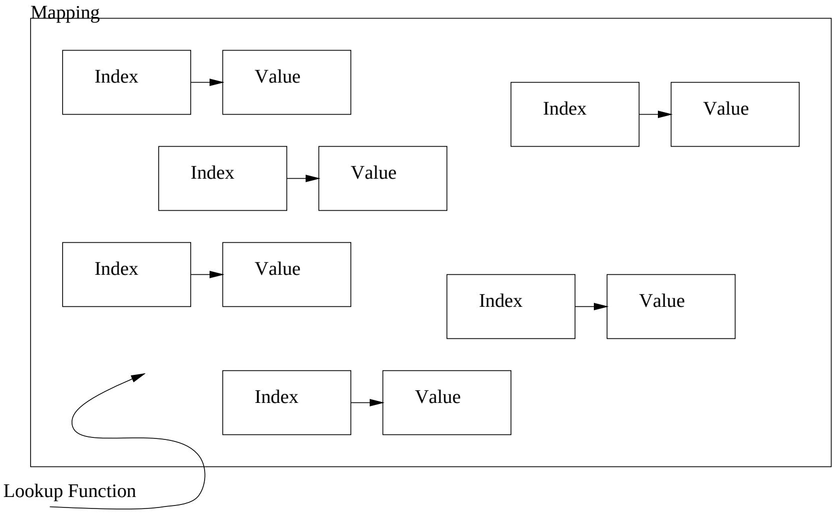


fig 4.2

Each index-value pair is floating around freely inside the mapping. There is exactly one value for each index. We also have a (magical) lookup function. This lookup function can find any index in the mapping very quickly. Now, if the mapping is called *m* and we index it like this: `m [ i ]` the lookup function will quickly find the index *i* in the mapping and return the corresponding value. If the index is not found, zero is returned instead. If we on the other hand assign an index in the mapping the value will instead be overwritten with the new value. If the index is not found when assigning, a new index-value pair will be added to the mapping. Writing a constant mapping is easy:

```
([ ])       // Empty mapping
([ 1:2 ])   // Mapping with one index-value pair, the 1 is the index
([ "one":1, "two":2 ]) // Mapping which maps words to numbers
([ 1:({2.0}), "":([]), ]) // Mapping with lots of different types
```

As with arrays, mappings can contain any type. The main difference is that the index can be any type too. Also note that the index-value pairs in a mapping are not stored in a specific order. You can not refer to the fourteenth key-index pair, since there is no way of telling which one is the fourteenth. Because of this, you cannot use the range operator on mappings.

The following operators and functions are important:

4.2.3 multiset

A multiset is almost the same thing as a mapping. The difference is that there are no values:

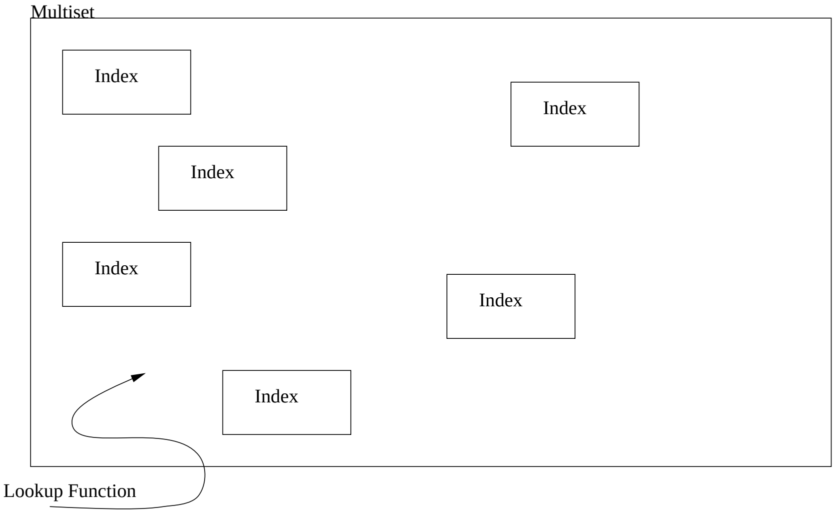


fig 4.3

Instead, the index operator will return 1 if the value was found in the multiset and 0 if it was not. When assigning an index to a multiset like this: `mset[ ind ] = val` the index *ind*will be added to the multiset *mset* if *val* is **true**. Otherwise *ind* will be removed from the multiset instead.

Writing a constant multiset is similar to writing an array:

```
(< >)      // Empty multiset
(< 17 >)  // Multiset with one index: 17
(< "", 1, 3.0, 1 >) // Multiset with 3 indices
```

Note that you can actually have more than one of the same index in a multiset. This is normally not used, but can be practical at times.

4.2.4 program

Normally, when we say **program** we mean something we can execute from a shell prompt. However, Pike has another meaning for the same word. In Pike a `program` is the same as a **class** in C++. A `program`holds a table of what functions and variables are defined in that program. It also holds the code itself, debug information and references to other programs in the form of inherits. A `program` does not hold space to store any data however. All the information in a `program` is gathered when a file or string is run through the Pike compiler. The variable space needed to execute the code in the program is stored in an `object`which is the next data type we will discuss.

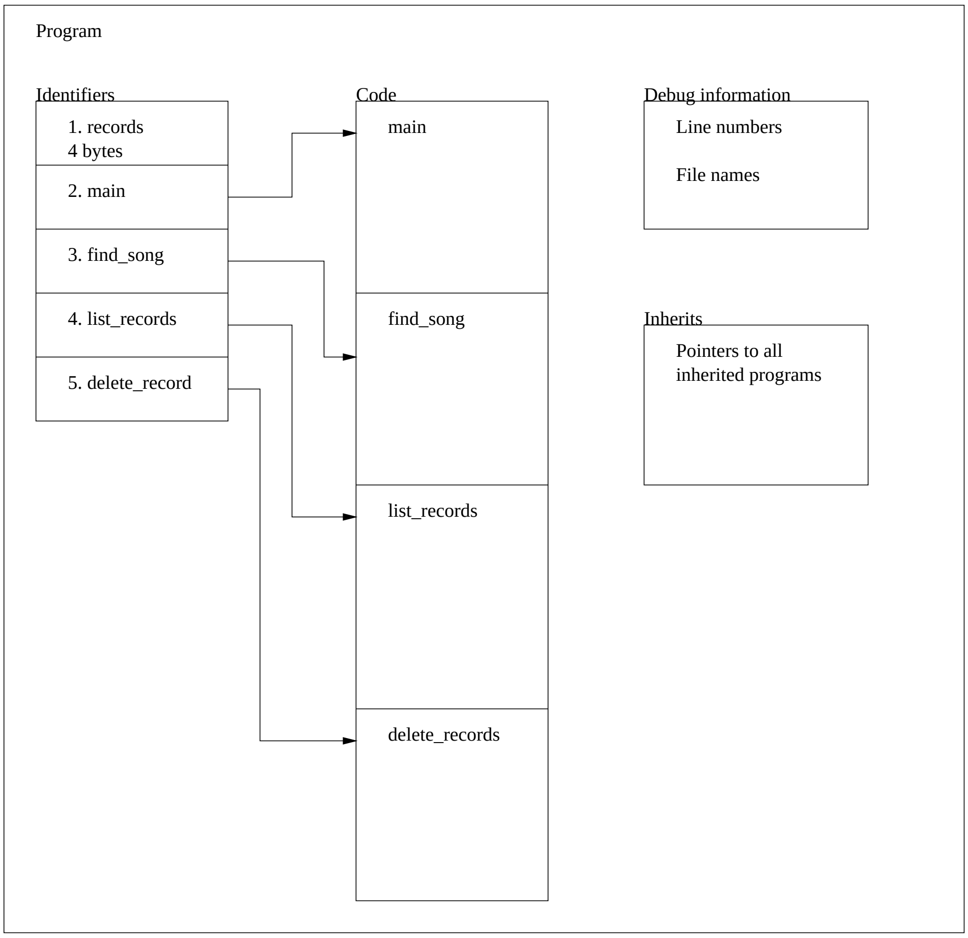


fig 4.4

Writing a `program` is easy, in fact, every example we have tried so far has been a `program`. To load such a program into memory, we can use `compile_file` which takes a file name, compiles the file and returns the compiled program. It could look something like this:

```
program p = compile_file("hello_world.pike");
```

You can also use the **cast** operator like this:

```
program p = (program) "hello_world";
```

This will also load the program `hello_world.pike`, the only difference is that it will cache the result so that next time you do `(program)"hello_world"` you will receive the _same_ program. If you call `compile_file("hello_world.pike")` repeatedly you will get a new program each time.

There is also a way to write programs inside programs with the help of the `class` keyword:

```
class class_name {
  inherits, variables and functions
}
```

The `class` keyword can be written as a separate entity outside of all functions, but it is also an expression which returns the `program` written between the brackets. The *class_name* is optional. If used you can later refer to that `program` by the name *class_name*. This is very similar to how classes are written in C++ and can be used in much the same way. It can also be used to create **structs**(or records if you program Pascal). Let's look at an example:

```
class record {
  string title;
  string artist;
  array(string) songs;
}

array(record) records = ({});

void add_empty_record()
{
  records+=({ record() });
}

void show_record(record rec)
{
  write("Record name: "+rec->title+"\n");
  write("Artist: "+rec->artist+"\n");
  write("Songs:\n");
  foreach(rec->songs, string song)
    write("   "+song+"\n");
}
```

This could be a small part of a better record register program. It is not a complete executable program in itself. In this example we create a `program` called `record` which has three identifiers. In `add_empty_record` a new object is created by calling `record`. This is called **cloning** and it allocates space to store the variables defined in the `class record`. `Show_record` takes one of the records created in `add_empty_record` and shows the contents of it. As you can see, the arrow operator is used to access the data allocated in `add_empty_record`. If you do not understand this section I suggest you go on and read the next section about `objects` and then come back and read this section again.

The following operators and functions are important:

4.2.5 object

Although programs are absolutely necessary for any application you might want to write, they are not enough. A `program` doesn't have anywhere to store data, it just merely outlines how to store data. To actually store the data you need an `object`. Objects are basically a chunk of memory with a reference to the program from which it was cloned. Many objects can be made from one program. The `program` outlines where in the object different variables are stored.

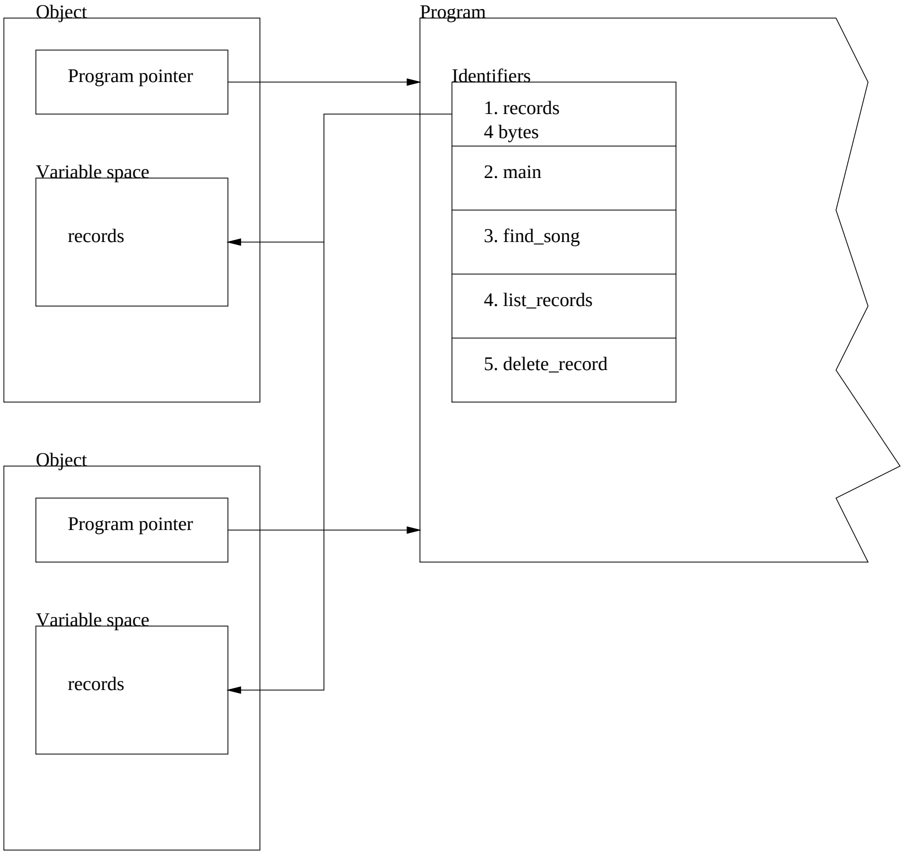


fig 4.5

Each object has its own set of variables, and when calling a function in that object, that function will operate on those variables. If we take a look at the short example in the section about programs, we see that it would be better to write it like this:

```
class record {
  string title;
  string artist;
  array(string) songs;

  void show()
  {
    write("Record name: "+title+"\n");
    write("Artist: "+artist+"\n");
    write("Songs:\n");
    foreach(songs, string song)
      write("   "+song+"\n");
  }
}
```

```
array(record) records = ({});

void add_empty_record()
{
  records+=({ record() });
}

void show_record(object rec)
{
  rec->show();
}
```

Here we can clearly see how the function `show` prints the contents of the variables in that object. In essence, instead of accessing the data in the object with the `->` operator, we call a function in the object and have it write the information itself. This type of programming is very flexible, since we can later change how `record`stores its data, but we do not have to change anything outside of the `record` program.

Functions and operators relevant to objects:

4.2.6 function

When indexing an object on a string, and that string is the name of a function in the object a `function` is returned. Despite its name, a `function` is really a **function pointer**.

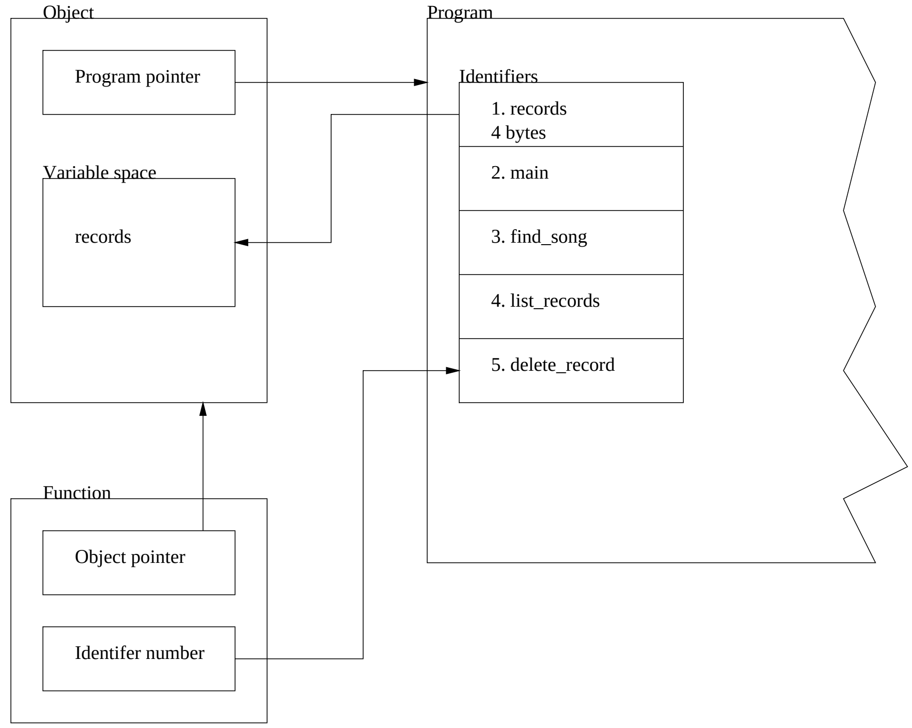


fig 4.6

When the function pointer is called, the interpreter sets `this_object()` to the object in which the function is located and proceeds to execute the function it points to. Also note that function pointers can be passed around just like any other data type:

```
int foo() { return 1; }
function bar() { return foo; }
int gazonk() { return foo(); }
int teleledningsanka() { return bar()(); }
```

In this example, the function bar returns a pointer to the function `foo`. No indexing is necessary since the function `foo` is located in the same object. The function `gazonk` simply calls `foo`. However, note that the word `foo` in that function is an expression returning a function pointer that is then called. To further illustrate this, `foo` has been replaced by `bar()`in the function `teleledningsanka`.

For convenience, there is also a simple way to write a function inside another function. To do this you use the `lambda` keyword. The syntax is the same as for a normal function, except you write `lambda` instead of the function name:

```
lambda ( types ) { statements }
```

The major difference is that this is an expression that can be used inside an other function. Example:

```
function bar() { return lambda() { return 1; }; )
```

This is the same as the first two lines in the previous example, the keyword `lambda` allows you to write the function inside `bar`.

Note that unlike C++ and Java you can not use function overloading in Pike. This means that you cannot have one function called 'foo' which takes an integer argument and another function 'foo' which takes a float argument.

This is what you can do with a function pointer.

4.3 Sharing data

As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, the assignment operator (`=`) does not copy anything when you use it on a pointer type. Instead it just creates another reference to the memory object. In most situations this does not present a problem, and it speeds up Pike's performance. However, you must be aware of this when programming. This can be illustrated with an example:

```
int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  array(string) tmp;
  tmp=argv;
  argv[0]="Hello world.\n";
  write(tmp[0]);
}
```

This program will of course write `Hello world.`

Sometimes you want to create a copy of a mapping, array or object. To do so you simply call `copy_value` with whatever you want to copy as argument. Copy_value is recursive, which means that if you have an array containing arrays, copies will be made of all those arrays.

If you don't want to copy recursively, or you know you don't have to copy recursively, you can use the plus operator instead. For instance, to create a copy of an array you simply add an empty array to it, like this: `copy_of_arr = arr + ({});` If you need to copy a mapping you use an empty mapping, and for a multiset you use an empty multiset.

4.4 Writing data types

When declaring a variable, you also have to specify what type of variable it is. For most types, such as `int` and `string` this is very easy. But there are much more interesting ways to declare variables than that, let's look at a few examples:

```
int x; // x is an integer
int|string x; // x is a string or an integer
array(string) x; // x is an array of strings
array x; // x is an array of mixed
mixed x; // x can be any type
string *x; // x is an array of strings

// x is a mapping from int to string
mapping(string:int) x;

// x implements Stdio.File
Stdio.File x;

// x implements Stdio.File
object(Stdio.File) x;

// x is a function that takes two integer
// arguments and returns a string
function(int,int:string) x;

// x is a function taking any amount of
// integer arguments and returns nothing.
function(int...:void) x;

// x is ... complicated
mapping(string:function(string|int...:mapping(string:array(string)))) x;
```

As you can see there are some interesting ways to specify types. Here is a list of what is possible:

Chapter 5

Operators

To make it easier to write Pike, and to make the code somewhat shorter, some functions can be called with just one or two characters in the code. These functions are called **operators** and we have already seen how they work in plenty of examples. In this chapter I will describe in detail what they do. The operators are divided into categories depending on their function, but beware that some operators have meanings that go way beyond the scope of the category they are in.

5.1 Arithmetic operators

The arithmetic operators are the simplest ones, since they work just like you remember from math in school. The arithmetic operators are:

Function	Syntax	Identifier	Returns
Addition	`a + b`	`` `+ ``	the sum of a and b
Subtraction	`a - b`	`` `- ``	b subtracted from a
Negation	`- a`	`` `- ``	minus a
Multiplication	`a * b`	`` `* ``	a multiplied by b
Division	`a / b`	`` `/ ``	a divided by b
Modulo	`a % b`	`` `% ``	the remainder of a division between a and b

The third column, "Identifier" is the name of the function that actually evaluates the operation. For instance, `a + b` can also be written as `` `+(a, b) ``. I will show you how useful this can be at the end of this chapter.

When applied to integers or floats these operators do exactly what they are supposed to do. The only operator in the list not known from basic math is the **modulo** operator. The modulo operator returns the remainder from an integer division. It is the same as calculating `a - floor(a / b) * b`. `floor` rounds the value down to closest lower integer value. Note that the call to `floor` isn't needed when operating on integers, since dividing two integers will return the result as an integer and it is always rounded down. For instance, `8 / 3` would return 2.

If all arguments to the operator are integers, the result will also be an integer. If one is a float and the other is an integer, the result will be a float. If both arguments are float, the result will of course be a float.

However, there are more types in Pike than integers and floats. Here is the complete list of combinations of types you can use with these operators:

Operation	Returned type	Returned value
int + int	int	the sum of the two values
float + int int + float float + float	float	the sum of the two values
string + string int + string float + string string + int string + float	string	In this case, any int or float is first converted to a string. Then the two strings are concatenated and the resulting string is returned.
array + array	array	The two arrays are concatenated into a new array and that new array is returned.
mapping + mapping	mapping	A mapping with all the index-value pairs from both mappings is returned. If an index is present in both mappings the index-value pair from the right mapping will be used.
multiset + multiset	multiset	A multiset with all the indices from both multisets is returned.
int - int	int	The right value subtracted from the left.
float - int int - float float - float	float	The right value subtracted from the left.
string - string	string	A copy of the left string with all occurrences of the right string removed.
array - array	array	A copy of the left array with all elements present in the right array removed. Example: `({2,1,4,5,3,6,7}) - ({3,5,1})` will return `({2,4,6,7})`.
mapping - mapping	mapping	A new mapping with all index-value pairs from the left mapping, except those indices that are also present in the right mapping.
multiset - multiset	multiset	A copy of the left multiset without any index present in the left multiset.
- int	int	Same as 0 - *int*.
- float	float	Same as 0 - *float*.
int * int	int	the product of the two values
float * int int * float float * float	float	the product of the two values

Operation	Returned type	Returned value
`array(string) * string`	string	All the strings in the array are concatenated with the string on the right in between each string. Example: `({"foo","bar"})*"-"` will return `"foo-bar"`.
`array(array) * array`	array	All the arrays in the left array are concatenated with the array on the right in between each array. Example: `({ ({"foo"}) ,({"bar"})})*({"-"})` will return `({ "foo","-","bar" })`.
`string * int`	string	This operation will concatenate the string N times. Example: `"foo"*3` will return `"foofoofoo"`.
`array * int`	string	This operation will concatenate the array N times. Example: `({"foo"})*3` will return `({"foo","foo","foo"})`.
`int / int`	int	The right integer divided by the left integer rounded towards minus infinity.

`float / int`
`int / float`
`float / float`
	float	The right value divided by the left value.

`string / string`	array(string)	In symmetry with the multiplication operator, the division operator can split a string into pieces. The right string will be split at every occurrence of the right string and an array containing the results will be returned. Example: `"foo-bar"/"-"` will return `({"foo","bar"})`
`string / int`	array(string)	This will split the string into pieces. The size of the pieces is given by the integer. Only complete pieces will be included in the result, the 'reminder' is discarded. Example: `"foo-bar"/2` will return `({"fo","o-","ba"})`
`string / float`	array(string)	This is similar to dividing a string with an integer, but it allows fraction-sized segments and the reminder will always be included. Example: `"foo-bar"/2.5` will return `({"fo","o-b","ar"})`
`array / int`	array(array)	This is similar to dividing a string with an integer, but splits an array. Example: `({1,2,3,4,5,6,7})/2` will return `({({1,2}),({3,4}),({5,6})})`
`array / float`	array(array)	You should be able to predict what this does by now. :) Example: `({1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8})/2.5` will return `({({1,2}),({3,4,5}),({6,7}),({8})})`
`int % int`	int	The remainder of a division. If `a` and `b` are integers, `a%b` is the same as `a-(a/b)*b`

Operation	Returned type	Returned value
float % float *int % float* *float % int*	float	The remainder of a division. If `a` and `b` are floats, `a%b` is the same as `a-floor(a/b)*b`
string % int	string	The remainder of a string division. Example: `"foo-bar"%2` will return `"r"`
array % int	string	The remainder of an array division. Example: `({1,2,3,4,5,6,7})%2` will return `({7})`

5.2 *Comparison operators*

The arithmetic operators would be hard to use for anything interesting without the ability to compare the results to each other. For this purpose there are six comparison operators:

Function	Syntax	Identifier	Returns
Same	`a == b`	`‘==`	1 if a is the same value as b, 0 otherwise.
Not same	`a != b`	`‘!=`	0 if a is the same value as b, 1 otherwise.
Greater than	`a > b`	`‘>`	1 if a is greater than b, 0 otherwise
Greater than or equal to	`a >= b`	`‘>=`	1 if a is greater to or equal to b, 0 otherwise
Lesser than	`a < b`	`‘<`	1 if a is lesser than b, 0 otherwise
Lesser than or equal to	`a <= b`	`‘<=`	1 if a is lesser than or equal to b, 0 otherwise

The `==` and `!=` operators can be used on any type. For two values to be **same** they must be the same type. Therefore 1 and 1.0 are not **same**. Also, for two values of **pointer types** to be the same the two values must be pointers to the same object. It is not enough that the two objects are of the same size and contain the same data.

The other operators in the table above can only be used with integers, floats and strings. If you compare an integer with a float, the int will be promoted to a float before the comparison. When comparing strings, lexical order is used and the values of the environment variables `LC_CTYPE` and `LC_LANG` are respected.

5.3 *Logical operators*

Logical operators are operators that operate with truth values. In Pike any value except zero is considered **true**. Logical operators are a very basic part of Pike. They can also decide which arguments to evaluate and which not to evaluate. Because of this the logical operators do not have any identifiers and can not be called as normal functions. There are four logical operators:

Function	Syntax	Returns
And	`a && b`	If a is false, a is returned and b is not evaluated. Otherwise, b is returned.
Or	`a || b`	If a is true, a is returned and b is not evaluated. Otherwise, b is returned.
Not	`! a`	Returns 0 if a is true, 1 otherwise.
If-else	`a ? b : c`	If a is true, b is returned and c is not evaluated. Otherwise c is returned and b is not evaluated.

5.4 Bitwise/set operators

These operators are used to manipulate bits as members in sets. They can also manipulate arrays, multisets and mappings as sets.

Function	Syntax	Identifier	Returns
Shift left	`a << b`	‘<<	Multiplies a by 2 b times.
Shift right	`a >> b`	‘>>	Divides a by 2 b times.
Inverse (not)	`~ a`	‘~	Returns -1-a.
Intersection (and)	`a & b`	‘&	All elements present in both a and b.
Union (or)	`a | b`	‘|	All elements present in a or b.
Symmetric difference (xor)	`a ^ b`	‘^	All elements present in a or b, but not present in both.

The first three operators can only be used with integers and should be pretty obvious. The other three, intersection, union and symmetric difference, can be used with integers, arrays, multisets and mappings. When used with integers, these operators considers each bit in the integer a separate element. If you do not know about how bits in integers work I suggest you go look it up in some other programming book or just don't use these operators on integers.

When intersection, union or symmetric difference is used on an array each element in the array is considered by itself. So intersecting two arrays will result in an array with all elements that are present in both arrays. Example: `({7,6,4,3,2,1}) & ({1, 23, 5, 4, 7})` will return `({7,4,1})`. The order of the elements in the returned array will always be taken from the left array. Elements in multisets are treated the same as elements in arrays. When doing a set operation on a mapping however, only the indices are considered. The values are just copied with the indices. If a particular index is present in both the right and left argument to a set operator, the one from the right side will be used. Example: `([1:2]) | ([1:3])` will return `([1:3])`.

5.5 Indexing

The index and range operators are used to retrieve information from a complex data type.

Function	Syntax	Identifier	Returns
Index	`a [ b ]`	`‘[]`	Returns the index b from a.
Lookup	`a ->`*identifier*	`‘->`	Looks up the identifier. Same as a["*identifier*"].
Assign index	`a [ b ] = c`	`‘[]=;`	Sets the index b in a to c.
Assign index	`a ->`*identifier* `= c`	`‘->=`	Sets the index "*identifier*" in a to c.
Range	`a [ b .. c ]`	`‘[..]`	Returns a slice of a starting at the index b and ending at c.
Range	`a [ .. c ]`	`‘[..]`	Returns a slice of a starting at the beginning of a and ending at c.
Range	`a [ b .. ]`	`‘[..]`	Returns a slice of a from the index b to the end of a.

The index operator can be written in two different ways. It can be written as *ob* [*index*] or *ob*->*identifier*. However, the latter syntax is equal to *ob* ["*identifier*"]. You can only index strings, arrays, mapping, multisets and objects, and some of these can only be indexed on certain things as shown in this list:

Operation	Returns
string[*int*]	Returns the ascii value of the Nth character in the string.
array[*int*]	Return the element in the array corresponding to the integer.
array[*int*]=*mixed*	Sets the element in the array to the mixed value.
mapping[*mixed*] *mapping*->*identifier*	Returns the value associated with the index, 0 if it is not found.
mapping[*mixed*]=*mixed* *mapping*->*identifier*=*mixed*	Associate the second mixed value with the first mixed value.
multiset[*mixed*] *multiset*->*identifier*	Returns 1 if the index (the value between the brackets) is present in the multiset, 0 otherwise.
multiset[*mixed*]=*mixed* *multiset*->*identifier*=*mixed*	If the mixed value is **true** the index is added to the multiset. Otherwise the index is removed from the multiset.
object[*string*] *object*->*identifier*	Returns the value of the named identifier in the object.
object[*string*]=*mixed* *object*->*identifier*=*mixed*	Set the given identifier in the object to the mixed value. Only works if the identifier references a variable in the object.
program[*string*] *program*->*identifier*	Returns the value of the named constant identifier in the program.

Operation	Returns
string`[`*int*`..`*int*`]`	Returns a piece of the string.
array`[`*int*`..`*int*`]`	Returns a slice of the array.

When indexing an `array` or `string` it is sometimes convenient to access index from the end instead of from the beginning. This function can be performed by using a negative index. Thus `arr[-i]` is the same as `arr[sizeof(arr)-i]`. Note however that this behavior does not apply to the range operator. Instead the range operator clamps it's arguments to a suitable range. This means that *a*`[`*b*`..`*c*`]` will be treated as follows:

-
-
-
-
-

5.6 The assignment operators

There is really only one assignment operator, but it can be combined with lots of other operators to make the code shorter. An assignment looks like this:

```
variable = expression;
```

The *variable* can be a local variable, a global variable or an index in an array, object, multiset or mapping. This will of course set the value stored in *variable* to *expression*. Note that the above is also an expression which returns the value of the *expression*. This can be used in some interesting ways:

```
variable1 = variable2 = 1; // Assign 1 to both variables
variable1 =(variable2 = 1); // Same as above

// Write the value of the expression, if any
if(variable = expression)
  write(variable);
```

Using assignments like this can however be confusing to novice users, or users who come from a Pascal or Basic background. Especially the if statement can be mistaken for `if(variable == expression)` which would mean something completely different. As I mentioned earlier, the assignment operator can be combined with another operator to form operators that modify the contents of a variable instead of just assigning it. Here is a list of all the combinations:

Syntax	Same as	Function
`variable += expression`	*variable* = *variable* + *expression*	Add *expression* to *variable*
`variable -= expression`	*variable* = *variable* - *expression*	Subtract *expression* from *variable*
`variable *= expression`	*variable* = *variable* * *expression*	Multiply *variable* with *expression*
`variable /= expression`	*variable* = *variable* / *expression*	Divide *variable* by *expression*
`variable %= expression`	*variable* = *variable* % *expression*	Modulo *variable* by *expression*
`variable <<= expression`	*variable* = *variable* << *expression*	Shift *variable* *expression* bits left
`variable >>= expression`	*variable* = *variable* >> *expression*	Shift *variable* *expression* bits right
`variable |= expression`	*variable* = *variable* — *expression*	Or *variable* with *expression*
`variable &= expression`	*variable* = *variable* & *expression*	And *variable* with *expression*
`variable ^= expression`	*variable* = *variable* ˆ *expression*	Xor *variable* with *expression*

In all of the above expressions *variable* can actually be any of type of assignable values. Assignable values are also known as **lvalues** and here is a list of **lvalues**:

Lvalue type	Syntax	Valid assignment type
a local or global variable	*identifier*	same as variable
an element in an array	*array* [*int*]	any type
elements in elements in an array	*array* [*string*]	any type This is like map(arr, ‘[]=,string_indexing_element, assignment_element)
an element in an string	*string* [*int*]	integer
an element in a mapping	*mapping*[*mixed*] or *mapping->identifier*	any type
an element in a multiset	*multiset*[*mixed*] or *multiset->identifier*	true / false
a variable in an object	*object*[*string*] or *object->identifier*	same type as named variable
a list of lvalues	[*lvalue*, *lvalue*]	an array, first value in the array will be assigned to the first lvalue in the list, second value in the array to the second value in the list etc.

5.7 The rest of the operators

Now there are only a couple of operators left. I have grouped them together in this section, not because they are not important, but because they do not fit in any particular categories.

Function	Syntax	Identifier	Returns
splice	`@ a`	none	Sends each element in the array a as an individual argument to a function call.
Increment	`++ a`	none	Increments a and returns the new value of a.
Decrement	`-- a`	none	Decrements a and returns the new value of a.
Post increment	`a ++`	none	Increments a and returns the old value of a.
Post decrement	`a --`	none	Decrements a and returns the old value of a.
casting	`(type) a`	none	Tries to convert a into a value of the specified type.
Null	`a, b`	none	Evaluates a and b, then returns b.

The most important of these operators is the calling operator. It is used to call functions. The operator itself is just a set of parenthesis placed after the expression that returns the function. Any arguments to the function should be placed between the parenthesis, separated by commas. We have already seen many examples of this operator, although you might not have realized it was an operator at the time. The function call operator can do more than just calling functions though; if the 'function' is in fact an array, the operator will loop over the array and call each element in the array and returns an array with the results. If on the other hand, the 'function' is a program, the operator will clone an object from the program and call create() in the new object with the arguments given. In fact, the function `clone` is implemented like this:

```
object clone(mixed p, mixed ... args) { ( (program)p )(@args); }
```

On the subject of function calls, the splice operator should also be mentioned. The splice operator is an at sign in front of an expression. The expression should always be an array. The splice operator sends each of the elements in the array as a separate argument to the function call. The splice operator can only be used in an argument list for a function call.

Then there are the increment and decrement operators. The increment and decrement operators are somewhat limited: they can only be used on integers. They provide a short and fast way to add or subtract one to an integer. If the operator is written before the variable (`++a`) the returned value will be what the variable is after the operator has added/subtracted one to it. If the operator is after the variable (`a++`) it will instead return the value of the variable before it was incremented/decremented.

Casting is used to convert one type to another, not all casts are possible. Here is a list of all casts that actually _do_ anything:

casting from	to	operation
int	string	Convert the int to ASCII representation
float	string	Convert the float to ASCII representation
string	int	Convert decimal, octal or hexadecimal number to an int. Note that this will only work with decimal numbers in future versions.
string	float	Convert ASCII number to a float.
string	program	String is a filename, compile the file and return the program. Results are cached.
string	object	This first casts the string to a program, (see above) and then clones the result. Results are cached.
object	*type*	This calls the function 'cast' with a string containing the type as an argument.
string	array	Same as doing `values(string)`
array(int)	string	This does the inverse of the operation above. Ie. it constructs a string from an array of integers.
array	array(*type*)	This recursively casts all values in the array to *type*.
mapping	array	Same as `Array.transpose(({indices(mapping),values(mapping)})`. Example: `(array)([1:2,3:4])` will return `({ ({1,2}), ({3,4}) })`
multiset	array	Same as doing `indices(multiset)`.
int	float	Returns a float with the same value as the integer.
float	int	Returns the integer closest to the float.
function	object	Same as `function_object(function)`.

You can also use the cast operator to tell the compiler things. If `a` is a variable of type mixed containing an int, then the expression `(int)a` can be used instead of `a` and that will tell the compiler that the type of that expression is `int`.

Last, and in some respect least, is the comma operator. It doesn't do much. In fact, it simply evaluates the two arguments and then returns the right hand one. This operator is mostly useful to produce smaller code, or to make defines that can be used in expressions.

5.8 Operator precedence

When evaluating an expression, you can always use parenthesis to tell the compiler in which order to evaluate things. Normally, the compiler will evaluate things from left to right, but it will evaluate operators with higher priority before those with lower. The following table shows the relative priority of all the operators in descending order:

```
(a) a() a[b] a->b a[b..c] ({}) ([]) (<>)
!a ~a (type)a ++a --a
a++ a--
a*b a/b a%b
```

```
a+b a-b
a>>b a<<b
a>b a>=b a<b a<=b
a==b a!=b
a&b
a^b
a|b
&&
||
a?b:c
=
@a
,
```

Examples:

The expression	is evaluated in this order:
`1+2*2`	`1+(2*2)`
`1+2*2*4`	`1+((2*2)*4)`
`(1+2)*2*4`	`((1+2)*2)*4`
`1+4,c=2|3+5`	`(1+4),(c=((2|3)+5))`
`1+5 & 4 == 3`	`(1+(5 & 4)) == 3`
`c=1,99`	`(c=1),99`
`!a++ + ~--a()`	`(!(a++)) + (~((--a)()))`

5.9 Operator functions

As mentioned earlier `a + b` can just as well be written as `` `+(a, b) ``. Together with the function `map` which calls a function for every index in an array and the splice operator this can be used to create some very very fast and compact code. Let's look at some examples:

Chapter 6

Object orientation

As mentioned several times, Pike is object oriented. This does not mean that it is identical to C++ in any way. Pike uses a less strict approach to object orientation which creates a more relaxed programming style. If you have never come in contact with object oriented programming before, be warned that the ideas expressed in Pike and in this chapter are my own and do not necessarily reflect what other people think about object oriented programming.

6.1 Terminology

As mentioned before, Pike uses a different terminology than C++ does. This has historic reasons, but might be changed in the future. In the meantime, you might benefit from this mini-dictionary which translates Pike-ish terms to C++-ish terms:

6.2 The approach

Think of the data type `program` as an executable file. Then we clone this program and create an object. The object is then a running program. The object has its own data and its own functions, however, it can work together with other programs by calling functions in those objects. The functions can be thought of as message carriers, TCP sockets or just a way for programs to communicate. Now we have a running system with many running programs, each performing only the task it was designed for.

This analogy has one major flaw, when running programs in UNIX they actually run simultaneously. UNIX is *multitasking*, Pike is not. When one object is executing code, all the other objects has to wait until they are called. An exception is if you are using **threads** as will be discussed in a later chapter.

6.3 How does this help?

Ok, why is it a good idea to use object oriented programming? Well if you believe what you hear, the biggest advantage is that you can re-use your code in several projects. In my experience this is not the case.

In my experience, the advantages of object oriented programming are:

Most of these things can be done without object orientation, but it is object orientation that makes them easy.

6.4 Pike and object orientation

In most object oriented languages there is a way to write functions outside of all classes. Some readers might think this is what we have been doing until now. However, in Pike, all functions have to reside within a program. When you write a simple script in Pike, the file is first compiled into a **program** then cloned and then main() is called in that clone. All this is done by the **master object**, which is compiled and cloned before before all other objects. What the **master object** actually does is:

```
program scriptclass=compile_file(argv[0]); // Load script
```

```
object script=scriptclass();               // clone script
int ret=script->main(sizeof(argv), argv);  // call main()
```

Similarly, if you want to load another file and call functions in it, you can do it with compile_file(), or you can use the cast operator and cast the filename to a string. You can also use the module system, which we will discuss further in the next chapter.

If you don't want to put each program in a separate file, you can use the `class` keyword to write all your classes in one file. We have already seen an example how this in chapter 3.4, but let's go over it in more detail. The syntax looks like this:

```
class class_name {
  class_definition
}
```

This construction can be used almost anywhere within a normal program. It can be used outside all functions, but it can also be used as an expression in which case the defined class will be returned. In this case you may also leave out the *class_name* and leave the class unnamed. The *class definition* is simply the functions and programs you want to add to the class.

To make it easier to program, defining a class is also to define a constant with that name. Essentially, these two lines of code do the same thing:

```
class foo {};
constant foo = class {};
```

Because classes are defined as constants, it is possible to use a class defined inside classes you define later, like this:

```
class foo
{
  int test() { return 17; }
};

class bar
{
  program test2() { return foo; }
};
```

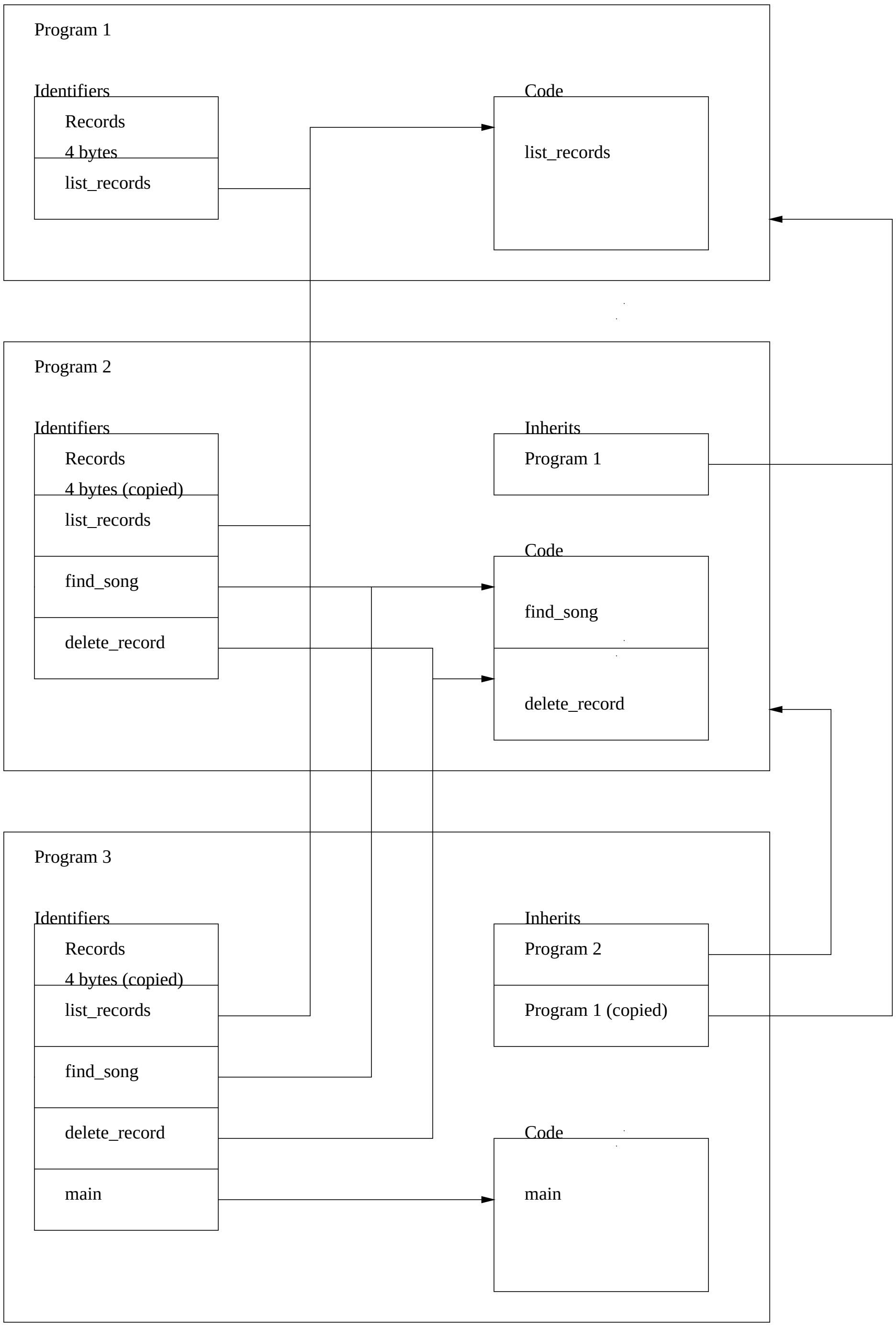
6.5 Inherit

A big part of writing object oriented code is the ability to add functionality to a program without changing (or even understanding) the original code. This is what `inherit` is all about. Let's say I want to change the `hello_world` program to write a version number before it writes hello world, using `inherit` I could do this like this:

```
inherit "hello_world";
int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  write("Hello world version 1.0\n");
  return ::main(argc,argv);
}
```

What inherit does is that it copies all the variables and functions from the inherited program into the current one. You can then re-define any function or variable you want, and you can call the original one by using a `::`in front of the function name. The argument to inherit can be one of the following:

Let's look at an example. We'll split up an earlier example into three parts and let each inherit the previous part. It would look something like this:



Note that the actual code is not copied, only the list of references. Also note that the list of inherits is copied when you inherit a program. This does not mean you can access those copied inherits with the `::`operator, it is merely an implementation detail. Although this example does not show an example of a re-defined function, it should be easy to see how that works by just changing what an identifier is pointing at.

6.6 Multiple inherit

You can inherit any number of programs in one program, you can even inherit the same thing more than once. If you do this you will get a separate set of functions and variables for each inherit. To access a specific function you need to name your inherits. Here is an example of named inherits:

```
inherit Stdio.File;   // This inherit is named File
inherit Stdio.FILE;   // This inherit is named FILE
inherit "hello_word"; // This inherit is named hello_world
inherit Stdio.File : test1; // This inherit is named test1
inherit "hello_world" : test2; // This inherit is named test2

void test()
{
  File::read(); // Read data from the first inherit
  FILE::read(); // Read data from the second inherit
  hello_world::main(0,({})); // Call main in the third inherit
  test1::read(); // Read data from the fourth inherit
  test2::main(0,({})); // Call main in the fifth inherit
  ::read();  // Read data from all inherits
}
```

As you can see it would be impossible to separate the different read and main functions without using inherit names. If you tried calling just `read` without any `::` or inherit name in front of it Pike will call the last read defined, in this case it will call read in the fourth inherit.

If you leave the inherit name blank and just call `::read` Pike will call all inherited read() functions. If there is more than one inherited read function the results will be returned in an array.

Let's look at another example:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

inherit Stdio.File : input;
inherit Stdio.File : output;

int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  output::create("stdout");
  for(int e=1;e<sizeof(argv);e++)
  {
    input::open(argv[e],"r");
    while(output::write(input::read(4096)) == 4096);
  }
```

```
}
```

This short piece of code works a lot like the UNIX command `cat`. It reads all the files given on the command line and writes them to stdout. As an example, I have inherited Stdio.File twice to show you that both files are usable from my program.

6.7 Pike inherit compared to other languages

Many other languages assign special meaning to inherit. Most common is the notion that if you inherit a class, it means that your class should obey the same rules as the inherited class. In Pike, this is not necessarily so. You may wish to use inherit in Pike like this, but you can just as well choose not to. This may confuse some programmers with previous experience in object oriented programming.

6.8 Modifiers

Sometimes, you may wish to hide things from inheriting programs, or prevent functions from being called from other objects. To do so you use **modifiers**. A modifier is simply a word written before a variable definition, function definition, class definition or an inherit that specifies how this identifier should interact with other objects and programs. These modifiers are available:

When modifiers are used in conjunction with inherit, all the variables, functions and classes copied from the inherited class will be modified with the keywords used. For instance, `private inherit` means that the identifiers from this inherit will not be available to program inheriting this program. `static private inherit` will also hide those identifiers from the index and arrow operators, making the inherit available only to the code in this program.

6.9 Operator overloading

Sometimes you want an object to act as if it was a string, an integer or some other data type. It is especially interesting to be able to use the normal operators on objects to allow short and readable syntax. In Pike, special methods are called when an operator is used with an object. To some extent, this is work in progress, but what has been done so far is very useful and will not be subject to change.

The following table assumes that a and b are objects and shows what will be evaluated if you use that particular operation on an object. Note that some of these operators, notably `==` and `!` have default behavior which will be used if the corresponding method is not defined in the object. Other operators will simply fail if called with objects. Refer to chapter 4.4 for information on which operators can operate on objects without operator overloading.

Operation	Will call	Or
a+b	a->‘+(b)	b->“+(a)
a+b+c+d	a->‘+(b,c,d)	(b->(a))+c+d
a-b	a->‘-(b)	b->“-(a)
a&b	a->‘&(b)	b->“&(a)
a—b	a->‘—(b)	b->“—(a)
aˆb	a->‘ˆ(b)	b->“ˆ(a)
a>>b	a->‘>>(b)	b->“>>(a)
a<<b	a->‘<<(b)	b->“<<(a)
a*b	a->‘*(b)	b->“*(a)
a*b*c*d	a->‘*(b,c,d)	b->‘*(a)*c*d
a/b	a->‘/(b)	b->“/(a)
a%b	a->‘%(b)	b->“%(a)
˜a	a->‘˜()	
a==b	a->‘==(b)	b->‘==(a)
a!=b	!(a->‘==(b))	!(b->‘==(a))
a<b	a->‘<(b)	b->‘>(a)
a>b	a->‘>(b)	b->‘<(a)
a<=b	!(b->‘>(a))	!(a->‘<(b))
a>=b	!(b->‘<(a))	!(a->‘>(b))
(int)a	a->cast(”int”)	
!a	a->‘!()	
if(a) { ... }	!(a->‘!())	
a[b]	a->‘[](b)	
a[b]=c	a->‘[]=(b,c)	
a->foo	a->‘->(”foo”)	
a->foo=b	a->‘->=(”foo”,b)	
sizeof(a)	a->_sizeof()	

Operation	Will call	Or
indices(a)	a->_indices()	
values(a)	a->_values()	
a(b)	a->`()(b)	

Here is a really silly example of a program that will write 10 to stdout when executed.

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike
class three {
  int `+(int foo) { return 3+foo; }
};

int main()
{
  write(sprintf("%d\n",three()+7));
}
```

It is important to know that some optimizations are still performed even when operator overloading is in effect. If you define a multiplication operator and multiply your object with one, you should not be surprised if the multiplication operator is never called. This might not always be what you expect, in which case you are better off not using operator overloading.

6.10 Simple exercises

Make a program that clones 10 hello world and then runs main() in each one of them. Modify the register program to use an object for each record. Modify the register program to use the following search function:

```
void find_song(string title)
{
  string name, song;
  int hits;

  title=lower_case(title);

  foreach(indices(records),name)
  {
    if(string song=records[name][title])
    {
      write(name+"; "+song+"\n");
      hits++;
    }
  }
```

```
  if(!hits) write("Not found.\n");
}
```

Chapter 7

Miscellaneous functions

There are some 'functions' in Pike that are not really functions at all but just as builtin as operators. These special functions can do things that no other functions can do, but they can not be re-defined or overloaded. In this chapter I will describe these functions and why they are implemented as special functions.

7.1 sscanf

Sscanf may look exactly like a normal function, but normal functions can not set the variables you send to it. The purpose of sscanf is to match one string against a format string and place the matching results into a list of variables. The syntax looks like this:

```
int sscanf(string str, string fmt, lvalue ...)
```

The string *str* will be matched against the format string *fmt*. *fmt* can contain strings separated by %d,%s,%c and %f. Every % corresponds to one *lvalue*. An lvalue is the name of a variable, a name of a local variable, an index in an array, mapping or object. It is because of these lvalues that sscanf can not be implemented as a normal function.

Whenever a percent is found in the format string, a match is according to the following table:

%b	reads a binary integer
%d	reads a decimal integer
%o	reads an octal integer
%x	reads a hexadecimal integer
%D	reads an integer that is either octal (leading zero), hexadecimal (leading 0x) or decimal.
%f	reads a float
%c	matches one char and returns it as an integer
%2c	matches two chars and returns them as an integer (short)

%4F	matches four chars and returns them as a float (IEEE single precision)
%8F	matches eigth chars and returns them as a float (IEEE double precision)
%s	reads a string. If followed by %d, %s will read any non-numerical characters. If followed by a %[], %s will read any characters not present in the set. If followed by normal text, %s will match all characters up to but not including the first occurrence of that text.
%5s	gives a string of 5 characters (5 can be any number)
%[set]	matches a string containing a given set of characters (those given inside the brackets). %[^set] means any character except those inside brackets. Example: %[0-9H] means any number or 'H'.
%{format%}	Repeatedly matches 'format' as many times as possible and assigns an array of arrays with the results to the lvalue.

If a * is put between the percent and the operator, the operator will only match its argument, not assign any variables.

Sscanf does not use backtracking. Sscanf simply looks at the format string up to the next % and tries to match that with the string. It then proceeds to look at the next part. If a part does not match, sscanf immediately returns how many % were matched. If this happens, the lvalues for % that were not matched will not be changed.

Let's look at a couple of examples:

```
// a will be assigned "oo" and 1 will be returned
sscanf("foo","f%s",a);

// a will be 4711 and b will be "bar", 2 will be returned
sscanf("4711bar","%d%s",a,b);

// a will become "test"
sscanf(" \t test","%*[ \t]%s",a)

// Remove "the " from the beginning of a string
// If 'str' does not begin with "the " it will not be changed
sscanf(str,"the %s",str);
```

SEE ALSO: sprintf

7.2 catch & throw

Catch is used to trap errors and other exceptions in Pike. It works by making a block of code into an expression, like this:

```
catch { statements }
```

If an error occurs, catch will return a description of the error. The description of the error has the following format:

```
({
   "error description",
   backtrace()
})
```

If no error occurs, catch will return zero. You may emulate your own errors using the function throw, described in chapter 15.

Example:

```
int x,y;
// This might generate "division by zero"
mixed error=catch { x/=y; };
```

7.3 gauge

The syntax for gauge is the same as the syntax for catch:

```
gauge { statements }
```

However, gauge simply returns how many seconds the code took to execute. This can be used to find out how fast your code actually is.. :) Only CPU time used by the Pike process is measured. This means that if it takes two seconds to execute but only uses 50 % CPU, this function will return 1.0.

7.4 typeof

This function returns the type of an expression as a string. It does not evaluate the expression at all, which might be somewhat confusing. Example:

```
typeof( exit(1) )
```

This will return the string `"void"` since exit is a function that returns void. It will not execute the function `exit` and exit the process as you might expect.

If you want to know the type after evaluation, use `sprintf("%t", expr)`.

Chapter 8

Modules

A module is a software package that plugs into the Pike programming environment. They provide you with simple interfaces to system routines and they also constitute a neat way to use your own C/C++ code from within Pike. Pike comes with a number of modules that are ready to use. In this chapter I will explain the basics of modules and how to use them.

here is a list of the basic Pike modules:

* These modules might not be available depending on how Pike was compiled and whether support for these functions exist on your system.

8.1 How to use modules

A module is a bunch of functions, programs or other modules collected in one symbol. For instance, the module `Stdio` contains the objects `stdin`, `stdout` and `stderr`. To access these objects you can write `Stdio.stdin`, `Stdio.stdout` or `Stdio.stderr` anywhere in your program where an object of that type is acceptable. If you use `Stdio` a lot you can put `import Stdio;` in the beginning of your program. This will import all the identifiers from the module Stdio into your program, making it possible to write just `stdin` instead of `Stdio.stdin`. It is also possible to import all modules in a directory with `import`by putting the directory name in doublequtes. So, to import all modules in the current directory, you would use `import ".";`.

8.2 Where do modules come from?

Modules are not loaded until you use them, which saves memory unless you use all the modules. However, if you want to write your own modules it is important to know how modules are located and loaded.

When you use `Stdio` Pike will look for that module:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

For each of these directories, Pike will do the following:

1.
2.
3.

As you can see, quite a lot of work goes into finding the modules, this makes it possible to choose the most convenient way to build your own Pike modules.

8.3 The . operator

The period operator is not really an operator, as it is always evaluated during the compilation. It works similarly to the index and arrow operators, but can only be used on constant values such as modules. In most cases, modules are simply a clone of a program, in which case the identifiers in the module will be the same as those in the program. But some modules, like those created from directories, overload the index operator so that the identifiers in the module can be something other than those in the program. For directory modules, the index operator looks in the directory it was cloned for to find the identifiers.

You can also use the . operator without an identifier preceeding it to access modules in the same directory as the program itself. For instance, `.my_module.foo` would mean 'the identifier `foo` in the module `my_module` in this directory.

8.4 How to write a module

Here is an example of a simple module:

```
constant PI = 3.14159265358979323846264338327950;
float cos2(float f) { return pow(cos(f),2.0); }
```

if we save this short file as `Trig.pmod` we can now use this module like this:

```
int main()
{
  write(sprintf("%f\n",.Trig.cos2(.Trig.PI));
}
```

or like this:

```
import .Trig;

int main()
{
  write(sprintf("%f\n",cos2(PI));
}
```

8.5 Simple exercises

Save the hello_world.pike program as hello_world.pike.pmod, then make a program that loads this module and calls its main(). Make a directory called `Programs.pmod` and put all the examples you have written so far in it. Make a program that runs one of those programs. Make sure the program can be modified to run another of your examples by changing what module it loads. Copy the file hello_world.pike.pmod to programs/module.pike.pmod and then write a program that runs hello_world without actually using the identifier `hello_world`. Try putting `Programs.pmod` in another directory and then try to run the programs from the last two examples.

Chapter 9

File I/O

Programming without reading and writing data from files, sockets, keyboard etc. would be quite pointless. Luckily enough, Pike provides you with an object oriented interface to files, pipes and TCP sockets. All I/O functions and classes are collected in the module `Stdio`.

9.1 File management - Stdio.File

Stdio.File

This is the basic I/O object, it provides socket communication as well as file access. It does not buffer reads and writes or provide line-by-line reading, that is done in the FILE object. `Stdio.File` is completely written in C. What follows is a description of all the functions in `Stdio.File`.

Stdio.File.create - init file struct

```
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File();
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File(string filename);
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File(string filename, string mode);
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File(string filename, string mode, int
mask);
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File(string fd);
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File(int fd);
object(Stdio.File) Stdio.File(int fd, string mode);
```

Description

There are four different ways to clone a File. The first is to clone it without any arguments, in which case the you have to call open(), connect() or some other method which connects the File object with a stream.

However, instead of cloning and then calling open(), you can clone the File with a filename and open mode. This is the same thing as cloning and then calling open, except shorter and faster. Default open mode is `"r"` and default *mask* is `0666`.

Alternatively, you can clone a File with "stdin", "stdout" or "stderr" as argument. This will open the specified standard stream.

For the advanced users, you can use the file descriptors of the systems (note: emulated by pike on some systems - like NT). This is only useful for streaming purposes on unix systems. This is **not recommended at all** if you don't know what you're into. Default *mode* for this is `"rw"`.

Note
Open mode will be filtered through the system UMASK. You might need to use chmod later.

See Also
`clone` and `Stdio.File->open`

Stdio.File.open - open a file

```
int open(string filename, string how);
int open(string filename, string how, int mode);
```

Description
Open a file for read, write or append. The variable *how* should contain one or more of the following letters:

'r'	open file for reading
'w'	open file for writing
'a'	open file for append (use with 'w')
't'	truncate file at open (use with 'w')
'c'	create file if it doesn't exist (use with 'w')
'x'	fail if file already exist (use with 'c')

How should _always_ contain at least one of 'r' or 'w'.

The third argument is protection bits if the file is created. Default is 0666 (all read+write, in octal notation).

Returns
1 on success, 0 otherwise

See Also
`Stdio.File->close`

Stdio.File.close - close a file

```
int close(string how);
int close();
```

Description
Close the file. Optionally, specify "r", "w" or "rw" to close just the read, just the write or both read and write part of the file respectively. Note that this function will not call the close_callback.

See Also
`Stdio.File->open`

Stdio.File.read - read data from a file or stream

```
string read(int nbytes);
string read(int nbytes, int notall);
string read();
```

Description

Read tries to read *nbytes* bytes from the file, and return it as a string. If something goes wrong, zero is returned.

If a one is given as second argument to read(), read will not try its best to read as many bytes as you asked it to read, it will merely try to read as many bytes as the system read function will return. This mainly useful with stream devices which can return exactly one row or packet at a time.

If no arguments are given, read will read to the end of the file/stream.

See Also

`Stdio.File->read_oob` and `Stdio.File->write`

Stdio.File.read_oob - read out-of-band data from a stream

```
string read_oob(int nbytes);
string read_oob(int nbytes, int notall);
string read_oob();
```

Description

Tries to read *nbytes* bytes of out-of-band data from the stream, and returns it as a string. If something goes wrong, zero is returned.

If a one is given as a second argument to `read_oob()`, only as many bytes of out-of-band data as are currently available will be returned.

If no arguments are given, `read_oob` will read to the end of the stream.

Note

This function is only available if the option ’–with-oob’ was specified when Pike was compiled.

It is not guaranteed that all out-of-band data sent from the other end will be received. Most streams only allow for a single byte of out-of-band data at a time.

See Also

`Stdio.File->read` and `Stdio.File->write_oob`

Stdio.File.write - write data to a file or stream

```
int write(string data);
```

Description

Write data to file or stream and return how many bytes that were actually written. 0 is returned in nonblocking mode if it was not possible to write anything without blocking. -1 is returned if something went wrong and no bytes were written.

See Also
`Stdio.File->read` and `Stdio.File->write_oob`

Stdio.File.write_oob - write out-of-band data to a stream

```
int write_oob(string data);
```

Description
Writes out-of-band data to a stream and returns how many bytes that were actually written. -1 is returned if something went wrong and no bytes were written.

Note
This function is only available if the option '–with-oob' was specified when Pike was compiled.

It is not guaranteed that all out-of-band data will be received at the other end. Most streams only allow for a single byte of out-of-band data at a time. Some streams will send the rest of the data as ordinary data.

See Also
`Stdio.File->read_oob` and `Stdio.File->write`

Stdio.File.seek - seek to a position in a file

```
int seek(int pos);
```

Description
Seek to a position in a file, if pos is less than zero, seek to position pos relative end of file. Returns -1 for failure, or the new position in the file when successful.

See Also
`Stdio.File->tell`

Stdio.File.tell - tell where we are in a file

```
int tell();
```

Description
Returns the current position in the file.

See Also
`Stdio.File->seek`

Stdio.File.truncate - truncate a file

```
int truncate(int length);
```

Description
Truncates a file to that length. Returns 1 if ok, 0 if failed.

See Also
`Stdio.File->open`

Stdio.File.stat - do file_stat on an open file

```
array(int) stat();
```

Description
This function returns the same information as the function file_stat, but for the file it is called in. If file is not an open file, zero will be returned. Zero is also returned if file is a pipe or socket.

See Also
`file_stat`

Stdio.File.errno - what was last error?

```
int errno();
```

Description
Returns the error code for the last command on this file. Error code is normally cleared when a command is successful.

Stdio.File.set_buffer - set internal socket buffer

```
void set_buffer(int bufsize, string mode);
void set_buffer(int bufsize);
```

Description
This function sets the internal buffer size of a socket or stream. The second argument allows you to set the read or write buffer by specifying "r" or "w". It is not guaranteed that this function actually does anything, but it certainly helps to increase data transfer speed when it does.

See Also
`Stdio.File->open_socket` and `Stdio.Port->accept`

Stdio.File.set_nonblocking - make stream nonblocking

```
void set_nonblocking(function(mixed, string:void) read_callback,
```

or

```
void set_nonblocking(function(mixed, string:void) read_callback,
```

or

```
void set_nonblocking();
```

Description
This function sets a stream to nonblocking mode. When data arrives on the

stream, read_callback will be called with some or all of this data. When the stream has buffer space over for writing, write_callback is called so you can write more data to it. If the stream is closed at the other end, close_callback is called.

When out-of-band data arrives on the stream, read_oob_callback will be called with some or all of this data. When the stream allows out-of-band data to be sent, write_oob_callback is called so that you can write out-of-band data to it.

All callbacks will have the id of file as first argument when called.

If no arguments are given, the callbacks are not changed. The stream is just set to nonblocking mode.

Note
Out-of-band data is only supported if Pike was compiled with the option '–with-oob'.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_blocking` and `Stdio.File->set_id`

Stdio.File.set_read_callback - set the read callback

`void set_read_callback(function read_callback)`

Description
This function sets the read callback for the file. The read callback is called whenever there is data to read from the file. Note that this function does not set the file nonblocking.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking`

Stdio.File.set_write_callback - set the write callback

`void set_write_callback(function write_callback)`

Description
This function sets the write callback for the file. The write callback is called whenever there is buffer space available to write to for the file. Note that this function does not set the file nonblocking.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking`

Stdio.File.set_close_callback - set the close callback

`void set_close_callback(function close_callback)`

Description
This function sets the close callback for the file. The close callback is called when the remote end of a socket or pipe is closed. Note that this function does not set the file nonblocking.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking`

Stdio.File.set_blocking - make stream blocking

`void set_blocking();`

Description
This function sets a stream to blocking mode. i.e. all reads and writes will wait until data has been written before returning.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking`

Stdio.File.set_id - set id of this file

`void set_id(mixed id);`

Description
This function sets the id of this file. The id is mainly used as an identifier that is sent as the first arguments to all callbacks. The default id is 0. Another possible use of the id is to hold all data related to this file in a mapping or array.

See Also
`Stdio.File->query_id`

Stdio.File.query_id - get id of this file

`mixed query_id();`

Description
This function returns the id of this file.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_id`

Stdio.File.query_read_callback - return the read callback function

`function query_read_callback();`

Description
This function returns the read_callback, which is set with set_nonblocking or set_read_callback.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking` and `Stdio.File->set_read_callback`

Stdio.File.query_write_callback - return the write callback function

`function query_write_callback();`

Description
This function returns the write_callback, which is set with set_nonblocking or set_write_callback.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking` and `Stdio.File->set_write_callback`

Stdio.File.query_close_callback - return the close callback function

```
function query_close_callback();
```

Description
This function returns the close_callback, which is set with set_nonblocking or set_close_callback.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking` and `Stdio.File->set_close_callback`

Stdio.File.dup - duplicate a file

```
object(Stdio.File) dup();
```

Description
This function returns a clone of Stdio.File with all variables copied from this file. Note that all variables, even id, is copied.

See Also
`Stdio.File->assign`

Stdio.File.dup2 - duplicate a file over another

```
int dup2(object(Stdio.File) to);
```

Description
This function works similarly to Stdio.File->assign, but instead of making the argument a reference to the same file, it creates a new file with the same properties and places it in the argument.

Example

```
/* Redirect stdin to come from the file 'foo' */
object o=Stdio.File();
o->open("foo","r");
o->dup2(Stdio.File("stdin"));
```

See Also
`Stdio.File->assign` and `Stdio.File->dup`

Stdio.File.assign - assign a file

`void assign(object f);`

Description

This function takes a clone of Stdio.File and assigns all variables of this file from it. It can be used together with file->dup to move files around.

See Also

`Stdio.File->dup`

Stdio.File.open_socket - open a socket

`int open_socket(int|void port, string|void address);`

Description

This makes this file into a socket ready for connection. The reason for this function is so that you can set the socket to nonblocking or blocking (default is blocking) before you call Stdio.File->connect() This function returns 1 for success, 0 otherwise.

If you give a port number to this function, the socket will be bound to this port locally before connecting anywhere. This is only useful for some silly protocols like FTP. You may also specify an address to bind to if your machine has many IP numbers.

See Also

`Stdio.File->connect` and `Stdio.File->set_nonblocking`

Stdio.File.connect - connect a socket to something

`int connect(string IP,int port);`

Description

This function connects a socket previously created with Stdio.File->open_socket to a remote socket. The argument is the IP name or number for he remote machine.

This function returns 1 for success, 0 otherwise. Note that if the socket is in nonblocking mode, you have to wait for a write or close callback before you know if the connection failed or not.

See Also

`Stdio.File->query_address`

Stdio.File.query_address - get addresses

```
string query_address();
string query_address(1);
```

Description

This function returns the remote or local address of a socket on the form "x.x.x.x port". Without argument, the remote address is returned, with argument the local address is returned. If this file is not a socket, not connected or some other error occurs, zero is returned.

See Also
`Stdio.File->connect`

Stdio.File.pipe - create a two-way pipe

`object pipe();`

Description
This function creates a pipe between the object it was called in and an object that is returned. The two ends of the pipe are indistinguishable. If the File object this function is called in was open to begin with, it is closed before the pipe is created.

See Also
`fork`

Stdio.File.set_close_on_exec - set / clear the close on exec flag

`void set_close_on_exec(int onoff);`

Description
This function determines whether this file will be closed when calling exece. Default is that the file WILL be closed on exec except for stdin, stdout and stderr.

See Also
`exece`

Here is an example of how to use the TCP functions in Stdio.File in blocking mode. This short program takes a URL as first argument, connects to the WWW server, sends a HEAD request and writes the reply to stdout. For clarity, all calls to Stdio.File use `File::` even if that is not strictly necessary.

```
import Stdio;
inherit File;

int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  string host;
  string path="";
  int port=80;
  sscanf(argv[1],"http://%s",argv[1]);
  sscanf(argv[1],"%s/%s",host,path);
  sscanf(host,"%s:%d",host,port);

  if(!File::open_socket())
  {
    perror("Open socket failed");
    exit(1);
```

```
  }

  if(!File::connect(host,port))
  {
    perror("Failed to connect to remote host");
    exit(1);
  }

  File::write(sprintf("HEAD /%s HTTP/1.0\n",path));
  stdout::write(File::read());
}
```

9.2 Buffered file management - Stdio.FILE

Stdio.FILE

Stdio.FILE is a buffered version of Stdio.File, it inherits Stdio.File and has most of the functionality of Stdio.File. However, it has an input buffer that allows line-by-line input. Note that the output part of Stdio.FILE is not buffered at this moment. The added functionality of Stdio.FILE is described here:

Stdio.FILE.gets - get one line

`string gets();`

Description
This function returns one line from the FILE, it returns zero if no more lines are available.

Stdio.FILE.printf - formatted print

`string printf(string format, mixed ... data);`

Description
This function does approximately the same as: write(sprintf(format,@data))

See Also
`sprintf`

Stdio.FILE.ungets - put a string back in the buffer

`string ungets(string s);`

Description
This function puts a string back in the input buffer. The string can then be read with read, gets or getchar.

Stdio.FILE.getchar - get one character from the input stream

`int getchar();`

Description
This function returns one character from the input stream. Note that the return value is the ascii value of the character, not a string containing one character.

9.3 Standard streams - Stdio.stdin, stdout and stderr

Any UNIX program has three files open from the beginning. These are called standard input, standard output and standard error stream. These streams are available from Pike as well. They are called `Stdio.stdin`, `Stdio.stdout` and `Stdio.stderr` respectively. Standard input is a clone of `Stdio.FILE`, which means you can use the line oriented functions. `Stdio.stdout` and `Stdio.stderr` are simply clones of `Stdio.File`.

Example:

```
int main()
{
  int line;
  while(string s=Stdio.stdin.gets())
    write(sprintf("%5d: %s\n",line++,s));
}
```

This example will read lines from standard input for as long as there are more lines to read. Each line will then be written to stdout together with the line number. We could use `Stdio.stdout.write` instead of just `write` because they are the same function.

9.4 Listening to sockets - Stdio.Port

Stdio.Port

Stdio.File can handle connections to any TCP socket, but it can not listen to a local TCP port. For this purpose there is a special class called `Stdio.Port`. `Stdio.Port` cannot read or write any data, but it can accept connections which will be returned as clones of Stdio.File. These are the methods available in `Stdio.Port`:

Stdio.Port.bind - open socket and bind it to a port

```
int bind(int port);
int bind(int port,function accept_callback);
int bind(int port,function accept_callback, string IP);
```

Description
Bind opens a sockets and binds it to port number on the local machine. If the second argument is present, the socket is set to nonblocking and the callback function is called whenever something connects to the socket. The callback will receive the id for this port as argument. Bind returns 1 on success, and zero on failure.

If the optional argument *IP* is given, bind will try to bind to this IP name (or number).

See Also
`Stdio.Port->accept`

Stdio.Port.listen_fd - listen to an already open port

```
int listen_fd(int fd);
int listen_fd(int fd,function accept_callback);
```

Description
This function does the same as Stdio.Port->bind, except that instead of creating a new socket and bind it to a port, it expects that the file descriptor *fd* is an already open port.

Note
This function is only for the advanced user, and is generally used when sockets are passed to Pike at exec time.

See Also
`Stdio.Port->bind` and `Stdio.Port->accept`

Stdio.Port.create - create and/or setup a port

```
object(Stdio.Port) Stdio.Port("stdin")
object(Stdio.Port) Stdio.Port("stdin",function accept_callback)
object(Stdio.Port) Stdio.Port("stdin",function accept_callback)
object(Stdio.Port) Stdio.Port(int port)
object(Stdio.Port) Stdio.Port(int port,function accept_callback)
object(Stdio.Port) Stdio.Port(int port,function accept_callback,
string ip)
```

Description
When create is called with `"stdin"` as argument, a socket is created out of the file descriptor 0. This is only useful if that actually is a socket to begin with. When create is called with an int as first argument, it does the same as bind() would do with the same arguments. The second and third argument has the same function as in the bind() call.

See Also
`clone` and `Stdio.Port->bind`

Stdio.Port.set_id - set the id of a port

```
void set_id(mixed id);
```

Description
This function sets the id used for accept_callback by this port. The default id is this_object().

See Also
`Stdio.Port->query_id`

Stdio.Port.query_id - Return the id for this port.

`mixed query_id();`

Description
This function returns the id for this port. The id is normally the first argument to accept_callback.

See Also
`Stdio.Port->set_id`

Stdio.Port.errno - return the last error

`int errno();`

Description
If the last call done on this port failed, errno will return an integer describing what went wrong. Refer to your Unix manual for further information.

See Also
`Stdio.Port->errno`

Stdio.Port.accept - accept a connection

`object accept();`

Description
This function completes a connection made from a remote machine to this port. It returns a two-way stream in the form of a copy of Stdio.File. The new file is by default set to blocking.

See Also
`Stdio.File`

9.5 UDP socket and message management - Stdio.UDP

Stdio.UDP

`Stdio.UDP();`

Description
Stdio.UDP is the way of transceiving UDP from Pike.

See Also
`Stdio.File`

Stdio.UDP.bind

`bind(int port); bind(int port,string address);`

Description
binds a port for recieving or transmitting UDP

Returns
the called object

Stdio.UDP.enable_broadcast

`enable_broadcast()`

Description
enable transmission of broadcasts. This is normally only avalable to root users.

Returns
1 upon success, 0 otherwise

Stdio.UDP.read

```
read()
read(int flags)
```

Description
read from the UDP socket. Flags is a bitfield, 1 for out of band data and 2 for peek.

Returns
mapping(string:int—string) in the form

```
([
   "data" : string recieved data
   "ip" : string   recieved from this ip
   "port" : int    ...and this port
])
```

See Also
`Stdio.UDP.set_nonblocking` and `Stdio.UDP.set_read_callback`

Stdio.UDP.send

```
send(string to_addr,int to_port,string data)
send(string to_addr,int to_port,string data,int flags)
```

Description

Returns
number of bytes sent

Stdio.UDP.set_nonblocking

```
set_nonblocking();
set_blocking();
set_nonblocking(function, mixed ...);
```

Description
sets this object to be nonblocking or blocking. If set_nonblocking is given with argument, these are passed to set_read_callback().

Returns
the called object

Stdio.UDP.set_read_callback

```
set_read_callback(function(mapping(string:int|string), mixed...),
mixed ...  extra);
```

Description
The called function is recieving mapping similar to the return value of read:

```
([
   "data" : string recieved data
   "ip" : string   recieved from this ip
   "port" : int    ...and this port
])
```

Returns
the called object

Stdio.UDP.query_address

```
query_address()
```

Description

Returns
the current address in format "<ip> <port>".

See Also
`Stdio.File.query_address`

9.6 Terminal management - Stdio.Terminfo

Stdio.Terminfo.getFallbackTerm - get fallback terminal

```
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Terminfo)|object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap)
getFallbackTerm(string term);
```

Description
Returns an object describing the fallback terminal for the terminal *term*. This is usually equvivalent to `Stdio.Terminfo.getTerm("dumb")`.

See Also
`Stdio.Terminfo.getTerm`

Stdio.Terminfo.getTerm - get terminal description

```
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Terminfo)|object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap)
getTerm();
or
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Terminfo)|object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap)
getTerm(string term);
```

Description
Returns an object describing the terminal *term*. If *term*is not specified, it will default to `getenv("TERM")` or if that fails to `"dumb"`.

Lookup of terminal information will first be done in the systems terminfo database, and if that fails in the termcap database. If neither database exists, a hardcoded entry for `"dumb"` will be used.

See Also
`Stdio.Terminfo.getTerminfo`, `Stdio.Terminfo.getTermcap` and `Stdio.getFallbackTerm`

Stdio.Terminfo.getTermcap - get termcap description

```
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap) getTermcap(string term);
```

Description
Return the terminal description of *term* from the systems termcap database. Returns 0 if not found.

See Also
`Stdio.Terminfo.getTerm` and `Stdio.Terminfo.getTerminfo`

Stdio.Terminfo.getTerminfo - get terminfo description

```
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Terminfo) getTerminfo(string term);
```

Description
Return the terminal description of *term* from the systems terminfo database. Returns 0 if not found.

See Also
`Stdio.Terminfo.getTerm` and `Stdio.Terminfo.getTermcap`

9.6.1 Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap

Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap

Termcap terminal decription object.

Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap.create - initialize termcap object

```
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap) Termcap(string cap);
or
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap) Termcap(string cap, object tcdb);
or
object(Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap) Termcap(string cap, object tcdb,
int maxrecurse);
```

Stdio.Terminfo.Termcap.tputs - put termcap string

9.6.2 Stdio.Terminfo.Terminfo

Stdio.Terminfo.Terminfo

Terminfo terminal description object.

9.7 Simple input-by-prompt - Stdio.Readline

Stdio.Readline

Stdio.Readline.create - init readline

```
object(Stdio.Readline) Stdio.Readline();
or
object(Stdio.Readline) Stdio.Readline(object infd);
or
object(Stdio.Readline) Stdio.Readline(object infd,
```

```
or
object(Stdio.Readline) Stdio.Readline(object infd,
```

```
or
object(Stdio.Readline) Stdio.Readline(object infd,
```

Description

Creates a Readline object, that takes input from *infd*, and has output on *outfd*.

infd defaults to `Stdio.stdout`.

interm defaults to `Stdio.Terminfo.getTerm()`.

outfd defaults to *infd*, unless *infd* is 0, in which case *outfd* defaults to `Stdio.stdout`.

outterm defaults to *interm*.

9.8 Other Stdio functions

The Stdio module also contains a collection of high level IO functions to make it easy to write short and readable Pike programs. Most of these functions are implemented using Stdio.File and Stdio.FILE.

Stdio.append_path - append paths in a secure way

```
string append_path(string absolute, string ... relative);
```

Description
Append relative paths to an absolute path and remove any "//", "../" or "/." to produce a straightforward absolute path as a result. "../" is ignorded in the relative paths if it makes the created path begin with something else than the absolute path (or so far created path).

Example

```
> Stdio.append_path("/foo/bar/","..");
Result: /foo/bar/
> Stdio.append_path("/foo/bar/","../apa.c");
Result: /foo/bar/apa.c
> Stdio.append_path("/foo/bar","./sune.c");
Result: /foo/bar/sune.c
> Stdio.append_path("/foo/bar","bertil/../../sune.c");
Result: /foo/bar/sune.c
> Stdio.append_path("/foo/bar","klas","bertil/../../sune.c");
Result: /foo/bar/klas/sune.c
```

See Also
`combine_path`

Stdio.file_size - return the size of a file in bytes

```
int file_size(string file);
```

Description
Give the size of a file. Size -1 indicates that the file either does not exist, or that it is not readable by you. Size -2 indicates that it is a directory.

See Also
`Stdio.write_file` and `Stdio.read_bytes`

Stdio.exist - check if a path exists

`int exist(string path);`

Description

Returns true if the given path exists (is a directory or file), otherwise false.

See Also

`Stdio.is_dir`, `Stdio.is_file` and `Stdio.is_link`

Stdio.is_dir - check if a path is a directory

`int is_dir(string path);`

Description

Returns true if the given path is a directory, otherwise false.

See Also

`Stdio.exist`, `Stdio.is_file` and `Stdio.is_link`

Stdio.is_file - check if a path is a file

`int is_file(string path);`

Description

Returns true if the given path is a file, otherwise false.

See Also

`Stdio.exist`, `Stdio.is_dir` and `Stdio.is_link`

Stdio.is_link - check if a path is a symbolic link

`int is_link(string path);`

Description

Returns true if the given path is a symbolic link, otherwise false.

See Also

`Stdio.exist`, `Stdio.is_dir` and `Stdio.is_file`

Stdio.mkdirhier - make a directory hierarchy

`int mkdirhier(string pathname, void|int mode);`

Description

Creates zero or more directories to ensure that the given pathname is a directory. Returns zero if it fails and nonzero if it is successful. If a mode is given, it's used for the new directories after being &'ed with the current umask (on OS'es that supports this).

See Also

`mkdir`

Stdio.perror - print error

`void perror(string s);`

Description
This function prints a message to stderr along with a description of what went wrong if available. It uses the system errno to find out what went wrong, so it is only applicable to IO errors.

See Also
`Stdio.werror`

Stdio.read_bytes - read a number of bytes into a string from a file

```
string read_bytes(string file,int start,int len);
string read_bytes(string file,int start);
string read_bytes(string file);
```

Description
Read *len* number of bytes from file *file* staring at byte *start* and return it as a string. If *len* is omitted, the rest of the file will be returned. If *start* is also omitted, the entire file will be returned.

See Also
`Stdio.write_file`

Stdio.read_file - read a number of lines into a string from file

```
string read_file(string file, int start, int len);
string read_file(string file);
```

Description
Read *len* lines from the file *file* after skipping *start* lines and return those lines as a string. If *start* and *len* are omitted the whole file is read.

See Also
`Stdio.read_bytes` and `Stdio.write_file`

Stdio.readline - read a line from stdin

`string readline(string prompt);`

Description
This function is gone. Use Stdio.Readline()->read instead.

See Also
`Stdio.File`

Stdio.recursive_rm - remove a file or a directory tree recursively

`int recursive_rm(string path);`

Description
Remove a file or directory a directory tree, return 0 if it fails. Nonzero otherwise.

See Also
`rm`

Stdio.sendfile - send contents from one file to another

```
object sendfile(array(string) headers,
```

or

```
object sendfile(array(string) headers,
```

Description
Sends *headers* followed by *len* bytes starting at *offset*from the file *from* followed by *trailers* to the file *to*. When completed *callback* is called with the total number of bytes sent as the first argument, followed by *args*.

Any of *headers*, *from* and *trailers* may be left out by setting them to 0.

Setting *offset* to -1 means send from the current position in *from*.

Setting *len* to -1 means send until *from*'s end of file is reached.

Note
The sending is performed asynchronously, and may complete before the function returns.

For *callback* to be called, the backend must be active (ie `main()` must have returned -1).

In some cases, the backend must also be active for any sending to be performed at all.

See Also
`Stdio.File->set_nonblocking`

Stdio.werror - write to stderr

```
void werror(string s);
```

Description
Writes a message to stderr. Stderr is normally the console, even if the process output has been redirected to a file or pipe.

Stdio.write_file - append a string to a file

```
int write_file(string file, string str)
```

Description
Append the string *str* onto the file *file*. Returns number of bytes written.

See Also
`Stdio.read_bytes`

9.9 A simple example

Here is a simple example of how to use the Stdio-functions.

```
string grep(string indata, string needle)
{
  object out=Stdio.File(),in=Stdio.File();
  object process=
   Process.create_process(({"/bin/grep",needle}),
     (["stdin":out->pipe(),
     "stdout":in->pipe()]) );
  out->write(indata);
  out->close();
  process->wait();
  return in->read();
}
```

This function filters the indata through the UNIX-command /bin/grep and return the result.

9.10 A more complex example - a simple WWW server

As most of you know, WWW WWW (World Wide Web), works by using a client program which will fetch files from remote servers when asked. Usually by clicking a picture or text. This example is a program for the server which will send files to any computer that requests them. The protocol used to send the file is called HTTP. (Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol)

Usually WWW involves HTML. HTML (Hyper-Text Markup Language) is a way to write documents with embedded pictures and links to other pages. These links are normally displayed underlined and if you click them your WWW-browser will load whatever document that link leads to.

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

/* A very small httpd capable of fetching files only.
 * Written by Fredrik Hübinette as a demonstration of Pike.
 */
```

```
inherit Stdio.Port;
```

We inherit Stdio.Port into this program so we can bind a TCP socket to accept incoming connection. A socket is simply a number to separate communications to and from different programs on the same computer.

Next are some constants that will affect how uHTTPD will operate. This uses the preprocessor directive #define. The preprocessor is the first stage in the compiling process and can make textual processing of the code before it is compiled. As an example, after the first define below, all occurrences of 'BLOCK' will be replaced with 16060.

```
/* Amount of data moved in one operation */
#define BLOCK 16060

/* Where do we have the html files ? */
#define BASE "/usr/local/html/"

/* File to return when we can't find the file requested */
#define NOFILE "/user/local/html/nofile.html"

/* Port to open */
#define PORT 1905
```

A port is a destination for a TCP connection. It is simply a number on the local computer. 1905 is not the standard port for HTTP connections though, which means that if you want to access this WWW server from a browser you need to specify the port like this: http://my.host.my.domain:1905/

Next we declare a class called output_class. Later we will clone one instance of this class for each incoming HTTP connection.

```
class output_class
{
  inherit Stdio.File : socket;
  inherit Stdio.File : file;
```

Our new class inherits Stdio.File twice. To be able to separate them they are then named 'socket' and 'file'.

```
  int offset=0;
```

Then there is a global variable called offset which is initialized to zero. (Each instance of this class will have its own instance of this variable, so it is not truly global, but...) Note that the initialization is done when the class is cloned (or instantiated if you prefer C++ terminology).

Next we define the function write_callback(). Later the program will go into a 'waiting' state, until something is received to process, or until there is buffer space available to write output to. When that happens a callback will be called to do this. The write_callback() is called when there is buffer space available. In the following lines 'void' means that it does not return a value. Write callback will be used further down as a callback and will be called whenever there is room in the socket output buffer.

```
void write_callback()
{
  int written;
  string data;
```

The following line means: call seek in the inherited program 'file'.

```
  file::seek(offset);
```

Move the file pointer to the where we want to the position we want to read from. The file pointer is simply a location in the file, usually it is where the last read() ended and the next will begin. seek() can move this pointer to where we want it though.

```
  data=file::read(BLOCK);
```

Read BLOCK (16060) bytes from the file. If there are less that that left to read only that many bytes will be returned.

```
  if(strlen(data))
  {
```

If we managed to read something...

```
    written=socket::write(data);
```

... we try to write it to the socket.

```
    if(written >= 0)
    {
      offset+=written;
      return;
    }
```

Update offset if we managed to write to the socket without errors.

```
    werror("Error: "+socket::errno()+".\n");
  }
```

If something went wrong during writing, or there was nothing left to read we destruct this instance of this class.

```
    destruct(this_object());
  }
```

That was the end of write_callback()

Next we need a variable to buffer the input received in. We initialize it to an empty string.

```
  string input="";
```

And then we define the function that will be called when there is something in the socket input buffer. The first argument ’id’ is declared as mixed, which means that it can contain any type of value. The second argument is the contents of the input buffer.

```
  void read_callback(mixed id,string data)
  {
    string cmd;

    input+=data;
```

Append data to the string input. Then we check if we have received a a complete line yet. If so we parse this and start outputting the file.

```
    if(sscanf(input,"%s %s%*[\012\015 \t]",cmd,input)>2)
    {
```

This sscanf is pretty complicated, but in essence it means: put the first word in ’input’ in ’cmd’ and the second in ’input’ and return 2 if successful, 0 otherwise.

```
      if(cmd!="GET")
      {
        werror("Only method GET is supported.\n");
        destruct(this_object());
        return;
      }
```

If the first word isn’t GET print an error message and terminate this instance of the program. (and thus the connection)

```
      sscanf(input,"%*[/]%s",input);
```

Remove the leading slash.

```
        input=BASE+combine_path("/",input);
```

Combine the requested file with the base of the HTML tree, this gives us a full filename beginning with a slash. The HTML tree is the directory on the server in which the HTML files are located. Normally all files in this directory can be accessed by anybody by using a WWW browser. So if a user requests 'index.html' then that file name is first added to BASE (/home/hubbe/www/html/ in this case) and if that file exists it will be returned to the browser.

```
        if(!file::open(input,"r"))
        {
```

Try opening the file in read-only mode. If this fails, try opening NOFILE instead. Opening the file will enable us to read it later.

```
 if(!file::open(NOFILE,"r"))
 {
```

If this fails too. Write an error message and destruct this object.

```
   werror("Couldn't find default file.\n");
   destruct(this_object());
   return;
 }
        }
```

Ok, now we set up the socket so we can write the data back.

```
        socket::set_buffer(65536,"w");
```

Set the buffer size to 64 kilobytes.

```
        socket::set_nonblocking(0,write_callback,0);
```

Make it so that write_callback is called when it is time to write more data to the socket.

```
        write_callback();
```

Jump-start the writing.

```
      }
    }
```

That was the end of read_callback().

This function is called if the connection is closed while we are reading from the socket.

```
  void selfdestruct() { destruct(this_object()); }
```

This function is called when the program is instantiated. It is used to set up data the way we want it. Extra arguments to clone() will be sent to this function. In this case it is the object representing the new connection.

```
  void create(object f)
  {
    socket::assign(f);
```

We insert the data from the file f into 'socket'.

```
    socket::set_nonblocking(read_callback,0,selfdestruct);
```

Then we set up the callback functions and sets the file nonblocking. Nonblocking mode means that read() and write() will rather return that wait for I/O to finish. Then we sit back and wait for read_callback to be called.

```
  }
```

End of create()

```
};
```

End of the new class.

Next we define the function called when someone connects.

```
void accept_callback()
{
  object tmp_output;
```

This creates a local variable of type 'object'. An object variable can contain a clone of any program. Pike does not consider clones of different programs different types. This also means that function calls to objects have to be resolved at run time.

```
   tmp_output=accept();
```

The function accept clones a Stdio.File and makes this equal to the newly connected socket.

```
   if(!tmp_output) return;
```

If it failed we just return.

```
   output_class(tmp_output);
```

Otherwise we clone an instance of 'output_class' and let it take care of the connection. Each clone of output_class will have its own set of global variables, which will enable many connections to be active at the same time without data being mixed up. Note that the programs will not actually run simultaneously though.

```
   destruct(tmp_output);
```

Destruct the object returned by accept(), output_class has already copied the contents of this object.

```
 }
```

Then there is main, the function that gets it all started.

```
 int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
 {
   werror("Starting minimal httpd\n");
```

Write an encouraging message to stderr.

```
   if(!bind(PORT, accept_callback))
   {
     werror("Failed to open socket (already bound?)\n");
     return 17;
   }
```

Bind PORT and set it up to call accept_callback as soon as someone connects to it. If the bind() fails we write an error message and return the 17 to indicate failure.

```
   return - 17; /* Keep going */
```

If everything went ok, we return -17, any negative value returned by main() means that the program WON'T exit, it will hang around waiting for events instead. (like someone connecting)

}

That's it, this simple program can be used as the basis for a simple WWW-server. Note that today most WWW servers are very complicated programs, and the above program can never replace a modern WWW server. However, it is very fast if you only want a couple of web pages and have a slow machine available for the server.

Chapter 10

Threads

Threads are used to run several Pike functions at the same time without having to start several Pike processes. Using threads often simplifies coding and because the threads are within the same process, data can be shared or sent to other threads very fast. Threads are not supported on all systems, you may test if you have thread support with the preprocessor construction `#if constant(thread_create)`. Pike needs POSIX or UNIX thread support when compiled to support threads.

10.1 Starting a thread

Starting a thread is very easy. You simply call `thread_create` with a function pointer and any arguments it needs and that function will be executed in a separate thread. The function `thread_create` will return immediately and both the calling function and the called function will execute at the same time. Example:

```
void foo(int x)
{
  for(int e=0;e<5;e++)
  {
    sleep(1);
    write("Hello from thread "+x+".\n");
  }
}

int main()
{
  thread_create(foo, 2);
  thread_create(foo, 3);
  foo(1);
}
```

This may all seem very simple, but there are a few complications to watch out for:

10.2 Threads reference section

This section describes all thread-related functions and classes.

Thread.thread_create - create a thread

`object thread_create(function f, mixed ... args);`

Description
This function creates a new thread which will run simultaneously to the rest of the program. The new thread will call the function *f* with the arguments *args*. When f returns the thread will cease to exist. All Pike functions are 'thread safe' meaning that running a function at the same time from different threads will not corrupt any internal data in the Pike process. The returned value will be the same as the return value of this_thread() for the new thread.

Note
This function is only available on systems with POSIX or UNIX threads support.

See Also
`Thread.Mutex`, `Thread.Condition` and `Thread.this_thread`

Thread.this_thread - return thread id

`object this_thread();`

Description
This function returns the object that identifies this thread.

See Also
`Thread.thread_create`

Thread.all_threads - return all thread ids

`array(object) all_threads();`

Description
This function returns an array with the thread ids of all threads.

See Also
`Thread.thread_create`

Thread.Mutex - mutex locks

Description

Thread.Mutex is a pre-compiled Pike program that implements mutual exclusion locks. Mutex locks are used to prevent multiple threads from simultaneously execute sections of code which access or change shared data. The basic operations for a mutex is locking and unlocking, if a thread attempts to lock an already locked mutex the thread will sleep until the mutex is unlocked.

Note

Mutex locks are only available on systems with POSIX or UNIX threads support.

In POSIX threads, mutex locks can only be unlocked by the same thread that locked them. In Pike any thread can unlock a locked mutex.

Example

```
/* This simple program can be used to exchange data between two
 * programs. It is similar to Thread.Fifo, but can only hold one
 * element of data.
 */



 inherit Thread.Mutex : r_mutex;
 inherit Thread.Mutex : w_mutex;
 object r_lock=r_mutex::lock();
 object w_lock;
 mixed storage;

 void write(mixed data)
 {
   w_lock=w_mutex::lock();
   storage=data;
   destruct(r_lock);
 }

 mixed read()
 {
   mixed tmp;
   r_lock=r_mutex::lock();
   tmp=storage;
   storage=0;
   destruct(w_lock);
   return tmp;
 }
```

Thread.Mutex.lock - lock the mutex

`object lock();`

Description

This function attempts to lock the mutex, if the mutex is already locked the current thread will sleep until the lock is unlocked by some other thread. The value returned is the 'key' to the lock. When the key is destructed or has no more references the lock will automatically be unlocked. The key will also be destructed if the lock is destructed.

Thread.Mutex.trylock - try to lock the mutex

`object trylock();`

Description

This function performs the same operation as lock(), but if the mutex is already locked zero will be returned instead of sleeping until the lock is unlocked.

Thread.Condition - condition variables

Description

Thread.Condition is a pre-compiled Pike program that implements condition variables. Condition variables are used by threaded programs to wait for events happening in other threads.

Note

Condition variables are only available on systems with POSIX or UNIX threads support.

Example

```
// This program implements a fifo that can be used to send
// data between two threads.
inherit Thread.Condition : r_cond;
inherit Thread.Condition: w_cond;
inherit Thread.Mutex: lock;

array buffer = allocate(128);
int r_ptr, w_ptr;

int query_messages()    {  return w_ptr - r_ptr;  }

// This function reads one mixed value from the fifo.
// If no values are available it blocks until a write has been done.
mixed read()
{
  mixed tmp;
  // We use this mutex lock to make sure no write() is executed
  // between the query_messages and the wait() call. If it did
  // we would wind up in a deadlock.
  object key=lock::lock();
```

```
  while(!query_messages()) r_cond::wait(key);
  tmp=buffer[r_ptr++ % sizeof(buffer)];
  w_cond::signal();
  return tmp;
}

// This function pushes one mixed value on the fifo.
// If the fifo is full it blocks until a value has been read.
void write(mixed v)
{
  object key=lock::lock();
  while(query_messages() == sizeof(buffer)) w_cond::wait(key);
  buffer[w_ptr++ % sizeof(buffer)]=v;
  r_cond::signal();
}
```

See Also

`Thread.Mutex`

Thread.Condition.wait - wait for condition

`void wait();`
`void wait(object` *mutex_key*`);`

Description

This function makes the current thread sleep until the condition variable is signalled. The optional argument should be the 'key' to a mutex lock. If present the mutex lock will be unlocked before waiting for the condition in one atomic operation. After waiting for the condition the mutex referenced by mutex_key will be re-locked.

See Also

`Thread.Mutex->lock`

Thread.Condition.signal - signal a condition variable

`void signal();`

Description

Signal wakes up one of the threads currently waiting for the condition.

Bugs

It sometimes wakes up more than one thread.

Thread.Condition.broadcast - signal all waiting threads

`void broadcast();`

Description

This function wakes up all threads currently waiting for this condition.

Thread.Fifo - first in, first out object

Description
Thread.Fifo implements a fixed length fifo. A fifo is a queue of values and is often used as a stream of data between two threads.

Note
Fifos are only available on systems with POSIX threads support.

See Also
`Thread.Queue`

Thread.Fifo.create - initialize the fifo

```
void create(int size);
object(Thread.Fifo) Thread.Fifo();
object(Thread.Fifo) Thread.Fifo(int size);
```

Description
The function create() is called when the fifo is cloned, if the optional size argument is present it sets how many values can be written to the fifo without blocking. The default size is 128.

Thread.Fifo.write - queue a value

```
void write(mixed value);
```

Description
This function puts a value last in the fifo. If there is no more room in the fifo the current thread will sleep until space is available.

Thread.Fifo.read - read a value from the fifo

```
mixed read();
```

Description
This function retrieves a value from the fifo. Values will be returned in the order they were written. If there are no values present in the fifo the current thread will sleep until some other thread writes a value to the fifo.

Thread.Fifo.size - return number of values in fifo

```
int size();
```

Description
This function returns how many values are currently in the fifo.

Thread.Queue - a queue of values

Description
Thread.Queue implements a queue, or a pipeline. The main difference between Thread.Queue and Thread.Fifo is that queues will never block in write(), only allocate more memory.

Note
Queues are only available on systems with POSIX or UNIX threads support.

See Also
`Thread.Fifo`

Thread.Queue.write - queue a value

```
void write(mixed value);
```

Description
This function puts a value last in the queue. If the queue is too small to hold the value the queue will be expanded to make room for it.

Thread.Queue.read - read a value from the queue

```
mixed read();
```

Description
This function retrieves a value from the queue. Values will be returned in the order they were written. If there are no values present in the queue the current thread will sleep until some other thread writes a value to the queue.

Thread.Queue.size - return number of values in queue

```
int queue->size();
```

Description
This function returns how many values are currently in the queue.

Thread.thread_local - Thread local variable class

Description
This class allows you to have variables which are separate for each thread that uses it. It has two methods: get and set. A value stored in an instance of thread_local can only be retreived by that same thread.

Thread.thread_local.thread_local.set - Set the thread_local value

```
mixed set(mixed value);
```

Description
This sets the value returned by the `get` method. Note that this value can only be retreived by the same thread. Calling this method does not affect the value returned by `get` when called by another thread.

Thread.thread_local.thread_local.get - Get the thread_local value

```
mixed set(mixed value);
```

Description
This returns the value prevoiusly stored in the thread_local by the `set` method by this thread.

10.3 Threads example

Let's look at an example of how to work with threads. This program is the same minimal WWW server as in chapter 8.5 but it has been re-written to use threads, as you can see it is a lot smaller this way. This is because we can use blocking I/O operations instead of non-blocking and callbacks. This also makes the program much easier to follow:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

/* A very small threaded httpd capable of fetching files only.
 * Written by Fredrik Hübinette as a demonstration of Pike
 */

import Thread;
inherit Stdio.Port;

/* number of bytes to read for each write */
#define BLOCK 16384

/* Where do we have the html files ? */
#define BASE "/home/hubbe/pike/src/"

/* File to return when we can't find the file requested */
#define NOFILE "/home/hubbe/www/html/nofile.html"

/* Port to open */
#define PORT 1905

/* Number of threads to start */
#define THREADS 5

// There will be one of these for each thread
class worker
{
  inherit Stdio.FILE : socket;  // For communication with the browser
  inherit Stdio.File : file;    // For reading the file from disc

  void create(function accept)
  {
    string cmd, input, tmp;

    while(1)
    {
      socket::close();    // Close previous connection
      file::close();

      object o=accept();  // Accept a connection
      if(!o) continue;
      socket::assign(o);
```

```
      destruct(o);

      // Read request
      sscanf(socket::gets(),"%s %s%*[\012\015 \t]",cmd, input);
      if(cmd!="GET")
      {
        werror("Only method GET is supported.\n");
        continue;
      }

      // Open the requested file
      sscanf(input,"%*[/]%s",input);
      input=BASE+combine_path("/",input);

      if(!file::open(input,"r"))
      {
        if(!file::open(NOFILE,"r"))
        {
          werror("Couldn't find default file.\n");
          continue;
        }
      }

      // Copy data to socket
      while(socket::write(file::read(BLOCK))==BLOCK);
    }
  }
};

int main(int argc, array(string) argv)
{
  werror("Starting minimal threaded httpd\n");

  // Bind the port, don't set it nonblocking
  if(!bind(PORT))
  {
    werror("Failed to open socket (already bound?)\n");
    return 17;
  }

  // Start worker threads
  for(int e=1;e<THREADS;e++) thread_create(worker,accept);
  worker(accept);
}
```

As stated in the beginning of this chapter; Pike threads are only available on some UNIX systems. The above example does not work if your system does not have threads.

Chapter 11

Modules for specific data types

There are a few modules that provide extra functions that operate specifically on one data type. These modules have the same name as the data type, but are capitalized so you can tell the difference. At the time of writing, the only such modules are `String` and `Array`, but more are expected to show up in the future.

11.1 String

The module `String` contains some extra string functionality which is not always used. These functions are mostly implemented in Pike as a complement to those written in C.

String.fuzzymatch - make a fuzzy compare of two strings

```
int fuzzymatch(string word1, string word2);
```

Description

This function compares two strings using a fuzzy matching routine. The higher the resulting value, the better the strings match.

Example

```
> fuzzymatch("cat", "hat");
Result: 66
> fuzzymatch("cat", "dog");
Result: 0
> fuzzymatch("United States", "United Nations");
Result: 70
```

See Also

`Array.diff`, `Array.diff_compare_table` and `Array.diff_longest_sequence`

String.implode_nicely - make an English comma separated list

```
string implode_nicely(array(string|float|int) words, string|void
separator);
```

Description

This function implodes a list of words to a readable string. If the separator is omitted, the default is `"and"`. If the words are numbers they are converet to strings first.

Example

```
> implode_nicely(({"green"}));
Result:  green
> implode_nicely(({"green","blue"}));
Result:  green and blue
> implode_nicely(({"green","blue","white"}));
Result:  green, blue and white
> implode_nicely(({"green","blue","white"}),"or");
Result:  green, blue or white
> implode_nicely(({1,2,3}),"or even");
Result:  1, 2 or even 3
```

See Also

`'*`

String.capitalize - capitalize a string

```
string capitalize(string str);
```

Description

Convert the first character in str to upper case, and return the new string.

See Also

`lower_case` and `upper_case`

String.common_prefix - find the longest common beginning

```
string common_prefix(array(string) strs);
```

Description

Find the longest common beginning from an array of strings.

Example

```
> String.common_prefix(({ "muzzle", "muzzy" }));
Result:  "muzz"
> String.common_prefix(({ "labyrinth", "diatom" }));
Result:  ""
> String.common_prefix(({}));
Result:  ""
```

String.sillycaps - Sillycaps A String

```
string sillycaps(string str);
```

Description
Convert the first character in each word (separated by spaces) in str to upper case, and return the new string.

String.strmult - multiply strings

```
string strmult(string s, int num);
```

Description
This function multiplies 's' by 'num'. The return value is the same as appending 's' to an empty string 'num' times.

String.count - count needles in a haystack string

```
string count(string haystack, string needle);
```

Description
This function counts the number of times the needle can be found in haystack. Intersections between needles are not counted, ie count("....","..") is 2.

String.width - return width of string

```
int width(string s);
```

Description
Returns the width in bits (8, 16 or 32) of the widest character in *s*.

String.trim_whites - trim spaces and tabs from a string

```
string trim_whites(string s);
```

Description
Trim leading and trailing spaces and tabs from the string *s*.

String.trim_all_whites - trim all white spaces from a string

```
string trim_all_whites(string s);
```

Description
Trim leading and trailing white space characters (" \t\r\n") from the string *s*.

11.2 Array

As with `String` these functions are mostly Pike functions written to supplement those written in C.

Array.diff - gives the difference of two arrays

```
array(array(array)) diff(array a, array b);
```

Description
Calculates which parts of the arrays that are common to both, and which parts that are not. Returns an array with two elements, the first is an array of parts in array **a**, and the second is an array of parts in array **b**.

Example

```
> Array.diff("Hello world!"/"","Help!"/"");
Result: ({ /* 2 elements */
    ({ /* 3 elements */
        ({ /* 3 elements */
            "H",
            "e",
            "l"
        }),
        ({ /* 8 elements */
            "l",
            "o",
            " ",
            "w",
            "o",
            "r",
            "l",
            "d"
        }),
        ({ /* 1 elements */
            "!"
        })
    }),
    ({ /* 3 elements */
        ({ /* 3 elements */
            "H",
            "e",
            "l"
        }),
        ({ /* 1 elements */
            "p"
        }),
        ({ /* 1 elements */
            "!"
        })
    })
})
```

See Also
`Array.diff_compare_table`, `Array.diff_longest_sequence` and `String.fuzzymatch`

Array.diff_compare_table - gives the comparison-table used by Array.diff()

`array(array(int)) diff_compare_table(array a, array b);`

Description

Returns an array which maps from index in **a** to corresponding indices in **b**.

Example

```
> Array.diff_compare_table("Hello world!"/"","Help!"/"");
Result: ({ /* 12 elements */
    ({ /* 1 elements */
        0
    }),
    ({ /* 1 elements */
        1
    }),
    ({ /* 1 elements */
        2
    }),
    ({ /* 1 elements */
        2
    }),
    ({ }),
    ({ }),
    ({ }),
    ({ }),
    ({ }),
    ({ /* 1 elements */
        2
    }),
    ({ }),
    ({ /* 1 elements */
        4
    })
})
```

See Also

`Array.diff`, `Array.diff_longest_sequence` and `String.fuzzymatch`

Array.diff_longest_sequence - gives the longest common sequence of two arrays

`array(int) diff_longest_sequence(array a, array b);`

Description

Gives the longest sequence of indices in **b** that have corresponding values in the same order in **a**.

Example

```
> Array.diff_longest_sequence("Hello world!"/"","Help!"/"");
Result: ({ /* 4 elements */
    0,
    1,
    2,
    4
})
```

See Also
`Array.diff`, `Array.diff_compare_table` and `String.fuzzymatch`

Array.everynth - return every n:th element of an array

`array(mixed) Array.everynth(array(mixed) arr1, void|int nth, void|int start);`

Description
This function returns an array with every n:th element of an other array. If nth is zero, every second element is returned.

Example

```
> Array.everynth(({"1","2","3","4","5","6"}),2,1);
```

```
Result: ({ /* 3 elements */
    "2",
    "4",
    "6"
})
```

See Also
`Array.splice` and ‘/

Array.filter - filter an array or mapping through a function

```
array filter(array arr,function fun,mixed ... args);
array filter(array(object) arr,string fun,mixed ... args);
array filter(array(function) arr,-1,mixed ... args);
```

Description
First syntax:
Filter array returns an array holding the items of arr for which fun returns true.

Second syntax:
Filter array calls fun in all the objects in the array arr, and return all objects that returned true.

Third syntax:
Filter array calls all function pointers in the array arr, and return all that returned true.

See Also
`Array.sum_arrays` and `Array.map`

Array.longest_ordered_sequence - find the longest ordered sequence of elements

`array(int) longest_ordered_sequence(array a);`

Description
This function returns an array of the indices in the longest ordered sequence of elements in the array.

Example

```
> array a = ({ 1,2,3,4,2,3,5,6 });
Result: ({ /* 8 elements */
    1,
    2,
    3,
    4,
    2,
    3,
    5,
    6
})
> array seq = Array.longest_ordered_sequence(a);
Result: ({ /* 6 elements */
    0,
    1,
    4,
    5,
    6,
    7
})
> rows(a,seq);
Result: ({ /* 6 elements */
    1,
    2,
    2,
    3,
    5,
    6
```

`})`

See Also

`Array.diff`

Array.map - map an array or mapping over a function

```
array map(array arr,function fun,mixed ... args);
array map(array(object) arr,string fun,mixed ... args);
array map(array(function) arr,-1,mixed ... arg);
```

Description

First syntax:
Map array returns an array holding the items of arr mapped through the function fun. i.e. arr[x]=fun(arr[x], @args) for all x.

Second syntax:
Map array calls function fun in all objects in the array arr. i.e. arr[x]=arr[x]->fun(@ args);

Third syntax:
Map array calls the functions in the array arr: arr[x]=arr[x]->fun(@ args);

See Also

`Array.sum_arrays` and `Array.filter`

Array.permute - Give a specified permutation of an array

```
array permute(array in,int number);
```

Description

`permute` gives you a selected permutation of an array. The numbers of permutations equal sizeof(in)! (the factorial of the size of the given array).

Example

```
Array.permute( ({ 1,2,3 }), 0) -> ({1,2,3})
Array.permute( ({ 1,2,3 }), 3) -> ({1,3,2})
```

See Also

`Array.shuffle`

Array.reduce - Iterativily apply a function on an array

```
mixed reduce(function f, array arr, void|mixed zero);
```

Description

`reduce` sends the first two elements in *arr* to *f*, then the result and the next element in *arr* to *f* and so on. Then it returns the result. The function will return *zero* if *arr* is the empty array. If *arr* has size 1 it will return the element in *arr*.

Example

```
Array.reduce(aggregate, indices(allocate(4)))  ->
   ({ ({ ({ 0, 1 }), 2 }), 3 })
Array.reduce(`+, ({}), "FOO?")  ->
   "FOO?"
Array.reduce(lambda(int a, int b) {
             while(b) { int t=b; b=a%b; a=t; }
             return a;
             }, ({7191,21573,64719,33694}))
  -> 17
```

See Also
`Array.rreduce`

Array.rreduce - Iterativily apply a function on an array backwards

`mixed rreduce(function` *f*`, array` *arr*`, void|mixed` *zero*`);`

Description
`reduce` sends the last two elements in *arr* to *f*, then the third last element in *arr* and the result to *f* and so on. Then it returns the result. The function will return *zero* if *arr* is the empty array. If *arr* has size 1 it will return the element in *arr*.

Example

```
Array.rreduce(aggregate, indices(allocate(4)))  ->
   ({ 0, ({ 1, ({ 2, 3 }) }) })
```

See Also
`Array.reduce`

Array.search_array - search for something in an array

`int search_array(array` *arr*`,function` *fun*`,mixed` *arg*`, ...);`
`int search_array(array(object)` *arr*`,string` *fun*`,mixed` *arg*`, ...);`
`int search_array(array(function)` *arr*`,`*-1*`,mixed` *arg*`, ...);`

Description
search_array works like map_array, only it returns the index of the first call that returned true instead or returning an array of the returned values. If no call returns true, -1 is returned.

See Also
`Array.sum_arrays` and `Array.filter`

Array.shuffle - Random-shuffle an array

`array shuffle(array in);`

Description

`shuffle` gives back the same elements, but by random order.

Example

```
Array.shuffle( ({"this","is","an","ordered","array"}) ) -> ({"is","ordered","array","thi
```

See Also

`Array.permute`

Array.sort_array - sort an array

`array sort_array(array arr,function fun,mixed ... args);`

Description

This function sorts an array after a compare-function *fun*which takes two arguments and should return 1 if the first argument is larger then the second. The rest of the arguments *args* will be sent as 3rd, 4th etc. argument to *fun*. If *fun* is omitted, '> is used instead.

See Also

`Array.map` and `sort`

Array.splice - splice two or more arrays

```
array(mixed) Array.splice(array(mixed) arr1, array(mixed) arr2,
array(mixed) ...);
```

Description

This function splice two or more arrays together. This means that the the array becomes an array of the first element in the first given array, the first argument in next array and so on for all arrays. Then the second elements are added.

Example

```
> Array.splice(({1,2,3}),({"1","2","3"}),({"a","b","c"}));


Result: ({ /* 9 elements */
    1,
    "1",
    "a",
    2,
    "2",
    "b",
    3,
    "3",
    "c"
})
```

```
> Array.splice(({1,2,3}),({"1","2","3"}),({"a","b"}));
Result: ({ /* 9 elements */
    1,
    "1",
    "a",
    2,
    "2",
    "b",
})
```

See Also
`` `/ ``, `` `* ``, `` `+ ``, `` `- `` and `Array.everynth`

Array.sum_arrays - map any number of arrays over a function

`array sum_arrays(function` *`fun`*`,array` *`arr1`*`,...);`

Description
Works like this:

```
 array sum_arrays(function fun,array arr1,...)
 {
   int e;
   array res=allocate(sizeof(arr1));
   for(e=0;e<sizeof(arr1);e++)
   {
     res[e]=fun(arr1[e],arr2[e],...);
   }
   return res;
 }
```

Simple ehh?

See Also
`Array.map`, `Array.filter` and `Array.search_array`

Array.uniq - remove elements that are duplicates

`array uniq(array` *`a`*`);`

Description
This function returns an copy of the array *a* with all duplicate values removed. The order of the values in the result is undefined.

Chapter 12

Image

The Image module is used to manipulate bit-mapped color images. It can read PPM images and do various manipulations, or it can be used to create completely new images. The created images can be saved as PPM or converted to GIF.

All images handled by this module are stored as 24-bit RGB images. This means that a 1024 pixel wide and 1024 pixel high image will use 1024*1024*3 bytes = 3 megabytes. It is quite easy to mess up and use up all the memory by giving the wrong argument to one of the scaling functions.

Most functions in this module work by creating a new Image and then returning that instead of changing the Image you are working with. This makes it possible to share the same image between many variables without having to worry that it will be changed by accident. This can reduce the amount of memory used.

Many functions in this module work with the 'current color', this can be thought of as the background color if you wish. To change the current color you use 'setcolor'.

Let's look at an example of how this can be used:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/pike

int main()
{
  write("Content-type: image/gif\n\n");
  object font=Image.font();
  font->load("testfont");
  object image=font->write(ctime(time));
  write(Image.GIF.encode(image));
}
```

This very simple example can be used as a CGI script to produce a gif image which says what time it is in white text on a black background.

Description

This module adds image-drawing and -manipulating capabilities to pike.

Image.Image	Basic image manipulation
Image.Font	Creating images from text
Image.Colortable	Color reduction, quantisation and dither
Image.Color	Color names, objects and conversion

	encoding/decoding image files
Image.GIF	GIF encoding/decoding capabilities
Image.JPEG	JPEG encoding/decoding capabilities (needs libjpeg)
Image.PNG	PNG encoding/decoding capabilities (needs libz)
Image.PNM	PNM (PBM/PGM/PPM) encoding/decoding capabilities
Image.XFace	XFace encoding/decoding capabilities (needs libgmp)
Image.XWD	XWD (X-windows dump) decoding capabilities

	advanced
Image.X	module for supporting X-windows low-level formats, keeping a lot of bit-mending stuff.

$Id: module.pmod,v 1.8 2000/03/22 18:12:19 peter Exp $

Note

```
Image module documentation is based on these file versions:
```

Image.lay

`Image.Layer lay(array(Image.Layer|mapping))`
`Image.Layer lay(array(Image.Layer|mapping), int xoffset, int yoffset, int xsize, int ysize)`

Description
Combine layers.

Returns
a new layer object.

See Also
`Image.Layer`

Image.load ,
Image.load_layer ,

Image._load

```
object(Image.Image) load()
object(Image.Image) load(object file)
object(Image.Image) load(string filename)
object(Image.Layer) load_layer()
object(Image.Layer) load_layer(object file)
object(Image.Layer) load_layer(string filename)
mapping _load()
mapping _load(object file)
mapping _load(string filename)
```

Description
Helper function to load an image from a file. If no filename is given, Stdio.stdin is used. The result is the same as from the decode functions in Image.ANY.

Note
All data is read, ie nothing happens until the file is closed. Throws upon error.

12.1 Image.Image

Image.Image

Description
The main object of the Image module, this object is used as drawing area, mask or result of operations.

basic:
clear, clone, create, xsize, ysize

plain drawing:
box, circle, getpixel, line, setcolor, setpixel, threshold, polyfill

operators:
‘&, ‘*, ‘+, ‘-, ‘==, ‘>, ‘<, ‘—

pasting images:
paste, paste_alpha, paste_alpha_color, paste_mask

getting subimages, scaling, rotating:
autocrop, clone, copy, dct, mirrorx, rotate, rotate_ccw, rotate_cw, rotate_expand, scale, skewx, skewx_expand, skewy, skewy_expand

calculation by pixels:
apply_matrix, change_color, color, distancesq, grey, invert, modify_by_intensity, outline select_from, rgb_to_hsv, hsv_to_rgb,

average, max, min, sum, sumf, find_min, find_max

special pattern drawing:
noise, turbulence, test, tuned_box, gradients, random

See Also
`Image`, `Image.Font`, `Image.Colortable` and `Image.X`

Image.Image.apply_matrix

`object apply_matrix(array(array(int|array(int))) matrix)`
`object apply_matrix(array(array(int|array(int))) matrix, int r, int g, int b)`
`object apply_matrix(array(array(int|array(int))) matrix, int r, int g, int b, int|float div)`

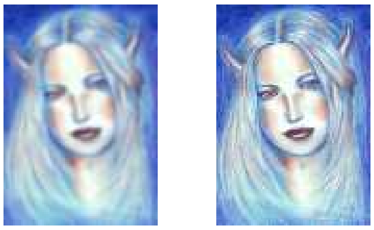
Description
Applies a pixel-transform matrix, or filter, to the image.

```
2   2
pixel(x,y)= base+ k ( sum sum pixel(x+k-1,y+l-1)*matrix(k,l) )
k=0 l=0
```

1/k is sum of matrix, or sum of matrix multiplied with div. base is given by r,g,b and is normally black.

blur (ie a 2d gauss function):

`({({1,2,1}), ({2,5,2}), ({1,2,1})})`



original

This function is not very fast.

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

Image.Image.apply_max

`object apply_max(array(array(int|array(int))) matrix)`
`object apply_max(array(array(int|array(int))) matrix, int r, int g, int b)`
`object apply_max(array(array(int|array(int))) matrix, int r, int g, int b, int|float div)`

Description
This is the same as apply_matrix, but it uses the maximum instead.

This function is not very fast.

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

Note
experimental status; may not be exact the same output in later versions

Image.Image.autocrop , *Image.Image.find_autocrop*

```
object autocrop()
object autocrop(int border)
object autocrop(int border, Color color)
object autocrop(int border, int left, int right, int top,
int bottom)
object autocrop(int border, int left, int right, int top,
int bottom, Color color)
array(int) find_autocrop()
array(int) find_autocrop(int border)
array(int) find_autocrop(int border, int left, int right, int top,
int bottom)
```

Description
Removes "unneccesary" borders around the image, adds one of its own if wanted to, in selected directions.

"Unneccesary" is all pixels that are equal – ie if all the same pixels to the left are the same color, that column of pixels are removed.

The find_autocrop() function simply returns x1,y1,x2,y2 for the kept area. (This can be used with copy later.)

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

See Also
`copy`

Image.Image.max , *Image.Image.min* , *Image.Image.sumf* , *Image.Image.sum* ,

Image.Image.average

```
array(float) average()
array(int) min()
array(int) max()
array(int) sum()
array(float) sumf()
```

Description
Gives back the average, minimum, maximum color value, and the sum of all pixel's color value.

Note
sum() values can wrap! Most systems only have 31 bits available for positive integers. (Meaning, be careful with images that have more than 8425104 pixels.)

average() and sumf() may also wrap, but on a line basis. (Meaning, be careful with images that are wider than 8425104 pixels.) These functions may have a precision problem instead, during to limits in the 'double' C type and/or 'float' Pike type.

Image.Image.bitscale

```
object bitscale(float factor)
object bitscale(float xfactor, float yfactor)
```

Description
scales the image with a factor, without smoothing. This routine is faster than scale, but gives less correct results

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

Image.Image.bitscale

```
object bitscale(int newxsize, int newysize)
object bitscale(0, int newysize)
object bitscale(int newxsize, 0)
```

Description
scales the image to a specified new size, if one of newxsize or newysize is 0, the image aspect ratio is preserved.

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

Note
resulting image will be 1x1 pixels, at least

Image.Image.box

```
object box(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2)
object box(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2, int r, int g, int b)
object box(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2, int r, int g, int b,
int alpha)
```

Description
Draws a filled rectangle on the image.

original

->box-(40,10,-10,80,-0,255,0)

Arguments

Returns
the object called

Image.Image.cast

```
string cast(string type)
```

Description
Cast the image to another datatype. Currently supported are string ("rgbrgbrgb...") and array (double array of Image.Color objects).

See Also
`Image.Color` and `Image.X`

Image.Image.change_color

```
object change_color(int tor, int tog, int tob)
object change_color(int fromr, int fromg, int fromb, int tor,
int tog, int tob)
```

Description
Changes one color (exakt match) to another. If non-exakt-match is preferred, check distancesqand paste_alpha_color.

Arguments

Returns
a new (the destination) image object

Image.Image.circle

```
object circle(int x, int y, int rx, int ry)
object circle(int x, int y, int rx, int ry, int r, int g, int b)
object circle(int x, int y, int rx, int ry, int r, int g, int b, int alpha)
```

Description
Draws a circle on the image. The circle is *not* antialiased.


original


->circle-(50,50,-30,50,-0,255,255)

Arguments

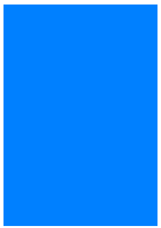
Returns
the object called

Image.Image.clear

```
void clear()
void clear(int r, int g, int b)
void clear(int r, int g, int b, int alpha)
```

Description
gives a new, cleared image with the same size of drawing area


original


->clear-(0,128,255)

Arguments

See Also
`copy` and `clone`

Image.Image.clone

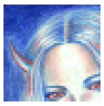
```
object clone()
object clone(int xsize, int ysize)
object clone(int xsize, int ysize, int r, int g, int b)
object clone(int xsize, int ysize, int r, int g, int b, int alpha)
```

Description

Copies to or initialize a new image object.

original

clone



clone(50,50)

Arguments

Returns

the new object

See Also

`copy` and `create`

Image.Image.color

```
object color()
object color(int value)
object color(int r, int g, int b)
```

Description

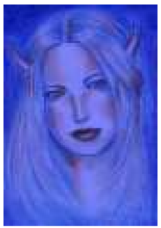
Colorize an image.

The red, green and blue values of the pixels are multiplied with the given value(s). This works best on a grey image...

The result is divided by 255, giving correct pixel values.

If no arguments are given, the current color is used as factors.

original



->color(128,128,255);

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

See Also
`grey`, ‘`*` and `modify_by_intensity`

Image.Image.copy

```
object copy()
object copy(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2)
object copy(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2, int r, int g, int b)
object copy(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2, int r, int g, int b,
int alpha)
```

Description
Copies this part of the image. The requested area can be smaller, giving a cropped image, or bigger - the new area will be filled with the given or current color.

original

->copy-(5,5,-XSIZE-6,YSIZE-6)

->copy-(-5,-5,-XSIZE+4,YSIZE+4,-10,75,10)

Arguments

Returns
a new image object

Note
clone(void) and copy(void) does the same operation

See Also
`clone` and `autocrop`

Image.Image.create

```
void create()
void create(int xsize, int ysize)
void create(int xsize, int ysize, Color color)
void create(int xsize, int ysize, int r, int g, int b)
void create(int xsize, int ysize, int r, int g, int b, int alpha)
void create(int xsize, int ysize, string method, method ...)
```

Description
Initializes a new image object.

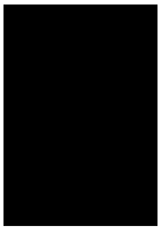


Image.Image-(XSIZE,YSIZE)

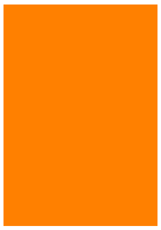


Image.Image-(XSIZE,YSIZE,255,128,0)

The image can also be calculated from some special methods, for convinience:

```
channel modes; followed by a number of 1-char-per-pixel strings
or image objects (where red channel will be used),
or an integer value:
"grey" : make a grey image (needs 1 source: grey)
"rgb"  : make an rgb image (needs 3 sources: red, green and blue)
"cmyk" : make a rgb image from cmyk (cyan, magenta, yellow, black)
```

Arguments

Bugs
SIGSEGVS can be caused if the size is too big, due to unchecked overflow - (xsize*ysize)&MAXINT is small enough to allocate.

See Also
`copy`, `clone` and `Image.Image`

Image.Image.dct

`object dct(int newx, int newy)`

Description
Scales the image to a new size.

Method for scaling is rather complex; the image is transformed via a cosine transform, and then resampled back.

This gives a quality-conserving upscale, but the algorithm used is n*n+n*m, where n and m is pixels in the original and new image.

Recommended wrapping algorithm is to scale overlapping parts of the image-to-be-scaled.

This functionality is actually added as an true experiment, but works...

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

Note
Do NOT use this function if you don't know what you're dealing with! Read some signal theory first...

It write's dots on stderr, to indicate some sort of progress. It doesn't use any fct (compare: fft) algorithms.

Image.Image.distancesq

```
object distancesq()
object distancesq(int r, int g, int b)
```

Description
Makes an grey-scale image, for alpha-channel use.

The given value (or current color) are used for coordinates in the color cube. Each resulting pixel is the distance from this point to the source pixel color, in the color cube, squared, rightshifted 8 steps:

```
p = pixel color
o = given color
d = destination pixel
d.red=d.blue=d.green=
((o.red-p.red)^2+(o.green-p.green)^2+(o.blue-p.blue)^2)>>8
```


original


distance^2 to cyan


...to purple


...to yellow

Arguments

Returns
the new image object

See Also
`select_from`

Image.Image.find_min ,

Image.Image.find_max

```
array(int) find_min()
array(int) find_max()
array(int) find_min(int r, int g, int b)
array(int) find_max(int r, int g, int b)
```

Description
Gives back the position of the minimum or maximum pixel value, weighted to grey.

Arguments

Image.Image.gamma

```
object gamma(float g)
object gamma(float gred, ggreen, gblue)
```

Description
Calculate pixels in image by gamma curve.

Intensity of new pixels are calculated by:
i' = i^g

For example, you are viewing your image on a screen with gamma 2.2. To correct your image to the correct gamma value, do something like:

```
my_display_image(my_image()->gamma(1/2.2);
```

Arguments

Returns
a new image object

See Also
`grey`, ‘`*` and `color`

Image.Image.getpixel

```
array(int) getpixel(int x, int y)
```

Description

Arguments

Returns
color of the requested pixel – ({int red,int green,int blue})

Image.Image.gradients

```
int gradients(array(int) point, ...)
int gradients(array(int) point, ..., float grad)
```