

Learning PHP 5

By David Sklar



Ripped by: Lilmeanman

Dedication

To Jacob, who can look forward to so much learning.

Preface

Boring web sites are *static*. Interesting web sites are *dynamic*. That is, their content changes. A giant static HTML page listing the names, pictures, descriptions, and prices of all 1,000 products a company has for sale is hard to use and takes forever to load. A dynamic web product catalog that lets you search and filter those products so you see only the six items that meet your price and category criteria is more useful, faster, and much more likely to close a sale.

The PHP programming language makes it easy to build dynamic web sites. Whatever interactive excitement you want to create—such as a product catalog, a blog, a photo album, or an event calendar—PHP is up to the task. And after reading this book, you'll be up to the task of building that dynamic web site, too.

Who This Book Is For

This book is for:

- A hobbyist who wants to create an interactive web site for himself, his family, or a nonprofit organization.
- A web site builder who wants to use the PHP setup provided by an ISP or hosting provider.
- A small business owner who wants to put her company on the Web.
- A page designer who wants to communicate better with her developer co-workers.
- A JavaScript whiz who wants to build server-side programs that complement her client-side code.
- A blogger or HTML jockey who wants to easily add dynamic features to her site.
- A Perl, ASP, or ColdFusion programmer who wants to get up to speed with PHP.
- Anybody who wants a straightforward, jargon-free introduction to one of the most popular programming languages for building an interactive web site.

PHP's gentle learning curve and approachable syntax make it an ideal "gateway" language for the nontechnical web professional. *Learning PHP 5* is aimed at both this interested, intelligent, but not necessarily technical individual as well as at programmers familiar with another language who want to learn PHP.

Aside from basic computer literacy (knowing how to type, moving files around, surfing the Web), the only assumption that this book makes about you is that you're acquainted with HTML. You don't need to be an HTML master, but you should be comfortable with the HTML tags that populate a basic web page such as `<html>`, `<head>`, `<body>`, `<p>`, `<a>`, and `
`. If you're not familiar with HTML, read *HTML & XHTML: The Definitive Guide*, Fifth Edition, by Bill Kennedy and Chuck Musciano (O'Reilly).

Contents of This Book

This book is designed so that you start at the beginning and work through the chapters in order. For the most part, each chapter depends on material in the previous chapters. [Chapter 2](#), through [Chapter 12](#) and [Appendix B](#), each end with exercises that test your understanding of the content in the chapter.

[Chapter 1](#), provides some general background on PHP and how it interacts with your web browser and a web server. It also shows some PHP programs and what they do to give you an idea of what PHP programs look like. Especially if you're new to programming or building dynamic web sites, it is important to read [Chapter 1](#).

The next four chapters give you a grounding in the fundamentals of PHP. Before you can write great literature, you need to learn a little grammar and some vocabulary. That's what these chapters are for. (Don't worry—you'll learn enough PHP grammar and vocabulary right away to start writing some short programs, if not great literature.) [Chapter 2](#) shows you how to work with different kinds of data such as pieces of text and numbers. This is important because the web pages that your PHP programs generate are just big pieces of text. [Chapter 3](#), describes the PHP commands with which your programs can make decisions. These decisions are at the heart of the "dynamic" in "dynamic web site." The concepts in [Chapter 3](#) are what you use, for example, to display only items in a product catalog that fall between two prices a user enters in a web form.

[Chapter 4](#), introduces *arrays*, which are collections of a bunch of individual numbers or pieces of text. Many frequent activities in PHP programs, such as processing submitted web form parameters or examining information pulled out of a database, involve using arrays. As you write more complicated programs, you'll find yourself wanting to repeat similar tasks. *Functions*, discussed in [Chapter 5](#), help you reuse pieces of your programs.

The three chapters after that cover three essential tasks in building a dynamic web site: dealing with forms, databases, and users. [Chapter 6](#), supplies the details on working with web forms. These are the primary way that users interact with your web site. [Chapter 7](#), discusses databases. A database holds the information that your web site displays, such as a product catalog or event calendar. This chapter shows you how to make your PHP programs talk to a database. With the techniques in [Chapter 8](#), your web site can do user-specific things such as display sensitive information to authorized people only or tell someone how many new message board posts have been created since she last logged in.

Then, the next three chapters examine three other areas you're likely to encounter when building your web site. [Chapter 9](#), highlights the steps you need to take, for example, to display a monthly calendar or to allow users to input a date or time from a web form. [Chapter 10](#), describes the PHP commands for interacting with files on your own computer or elsewhere on the Internet. [Chapter 11](#), supplies the basics for dealing with XML documents in your PHP programs, whether you need to generate one for another program to consume or you've been provided with one to use in your own program.

[Chapter 12](#) and [Chapter 13](#) each stand on their own. [Chapter 12](#), furnishes some approaches for understanding the error messages that the PHP interpreter generates and hunting down problems in your programs. While it partially depends on earlier material, it may be worthwhile to skip ahead and peruse [Chapter 12](#) as you're working through the book.

[Chapter 13](#) serves a taste of many additional capabilities of PHP, such as generating images, running code written in other languages, and making Flash movies. After you've gotten comfortable with the core PHP concepts explained in [Chapter 1](#) through [Chapter 12](#), visit [Chapter 13](#) for lots of new things to learn.

The three appendixes provide supplementary material. To run PHP programs, you need to have a copy of the PHP interpreter installed on your computer (or have an account with a web-hosting provider that supports PHP). [Appendix A](#), helps you get up and running, whether you are using Windows, OS X, or Linux.

Many text-processing tasks in PHP, such as validating submitted form parameters or parsing an HTML document, are made easier by using *regular expressions*, a powerful but initially inscrutable pattern matching syntax. [Appendix B](#), explains the basics of regular expressions so that you can use them in your programs if you choose.

Last, [Appendix C](#), contains the answers to all the exercises in the book. No peeking until you try the exercises!

Other Resources

The online annotated PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/manual>) is a great resource for exploring PHP's extensive function library. Plenty of user-contributed comments offer helpful advice and sample code, too. Additionally, there are many PHP mailing lists covering installation, programming, extending PHP, and various other topics. You can learn about and subscribe to these mailing lists at <http://www.php.net/mailling-lists.php>. A read-only web interface to the mailing lists is at <http://news.php.net>. Also worth exploring is the PHP Presentation System archive at <http://talks.php.net>. This is a collection of presentations about PHP that have been delivered at various conferences.

After you're comfortable with the material in this book, the following books about PHP are good next steps:

- *Programming PHP*, by Rasmus Lerdorf and Kevin Tatroe (O'Reilly). A more detailed and technical look at how to write PHP programs. Includes information on generating graphics and PDFs.
- *PHP Cookbook*, by David Sklar and Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly). A comprehensive collection of common PHP programming problems and their solutions.
- *Essential PHP Tools*, by David Sklar (Apress). Examples and explanations about many popular PHP add-on libraries and modules including HTML_QuickForm, SOAP, and the Smarty templating system.
- *Upgrading to PHP 5*, by Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly). A comprehensive look at the new features of PHP 5, including coverage of features for XML handling and object-oriented programming.

These books are helpful for learning about databases, SQL, and MySQL:

- *Web Database Applications with PHP & MySQL*, by David Lane and Hugh E. Williams (O'Reilly). How to make PHP and MySQL sing in harmony to make a robust dynamic web site.
- *SQL in a Nutshell*, by Kevin E. Kline (O'Reilly). The essentials you need to know to write SQL queries. Covers the SQL dialects used by Microsoft SQL Server, MySQL, Oracle, and PostgreSQL.
- *MySQL Cookbook*, by Paul DuBois (O'Reilly). A comprehensive collection of common MySQL tasks.
- *MySQL Reference Manual* (<http://dev.mysql.com/doc/mysql>). The ultimate source for information about MySQL's features and SQL dialect.

These books are helpful for learning about HTML and HTTP:

- *HTML & XHTML: The Definitive Guide*, by Bill Kennedy and Chuck Musciano (O'Reilly). If you've got a question about HTML, this book answers it.
- *Dynamic HTML: The Definitive Reference*, by Danny Goodman (O'Reilly). Full of useful information you need if you're using JavaScript or Dynamic HTML as part of the web pages your PHP programs output.
- *HTTP Developer's Handbook*, by Chris Shiflett (Sams Publishing). With this book, you'll better understand how your web browser and a web server communicate with each other.

These books are helpful for learning about security and cryptography:

- *Web Security, Privacy & Commerce*, by Simson Garfinkel (O'Reilly). A readable and complete overview of the various aspects of web-related security and privacy.
- *Practical Unix & Internet Security*, by Simson Garfinkel, Alan Schwartz, and Gene Spafford (O'Reilly). A classic exploration of all facets of computer security.
- *Applied Cryptography*, by Bruce Schneier (John Wiley & Sons). The nitty gritty on how different cryptographic algorithms work and why.

These books are helpful for learning about supplementary topics that this book touches on like XML processing and regular expressions:

- *Learning XML*, by Erik T. Ray (O'Reilly). Where to go for more in-depth information on XML than [Chapter 11](#).
- *Learning XSLT*, by Michael Fitzgerald (O'Reilly). Your guide to XML stylesheets and XSL transformations.
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, by Jeffrey E.F. Friedl (O'Reilly). After you've digested [Appendix B](#), turn to this book for everything you ever wanted to know about regular expressions.

Conventions Used in This Book

The following programming and typesetting conventions are used in this book.

Programming Conventions

The code examples in this book are designed to work with PHP 5.0.0. They were tested with PHP 5.0.0RC2, which was the most up-to-date version of PHP 5 available at the time of publication. Almost all of the code in the book works with PHP 4.3 as well. The PHP 5-specific features discussed in the book are as follows:

- [Chapter 7](#): the `mysqli` functions
- [Chapter 10](#): the `file_put_contents()` function
- [Chapter 11](#): the SimpleXML module
- [Chapter 12](#): the `E_STRICT` error-reporting level
- [Chapter 13](#): some new features related to classes and objects, the advanced XML processing functions, the bundled SQLite database, and the Perl extension

Typographical Conventions

The following typographical conventions are used in this book:

Italic

Indicates new terms, example URLs, example email addresses, filenames, file extensions, pathnames, and directories.

`Constant width`

Indicates commands, options, switches, variables, attributes, keys, functions, types, classes, namespaces, methods, modules, properties, parameters, values, objects, events, event handlers, XML tags, HTML tags, macros, the contents of files, or the output from commands.

Constant width italic

Shows text that should be replaced with user-supplied values.



This icon signifies a tip, suggestion, or general note.



This icon indicates a warning or caution.

Using Code Examples

Typing some of the example programs in the book yourself is instructive when you are getting started. However, if your fingers get weary, you can download all of the code examples from <http://www.oreilly.com/catalog/learnphp5>.

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- My diligent reviewers: Griffin Cherry, Florence Leroy, Mark Oglia, and Stewart Ugelow. They caught plenty of mistakes, turned confusing explanations into clear ones, and otherwise made this book far better than it would have been without them.
- Robert Romano, who turned my blocky diagrams and rustic pencil sketches into high-quality figures and illustrations.
- Tatiana Diaz, who funneled all of my random questions to the right people, kept me on schedule, and ultimately made sure that whatever needed to get done, was done.
- Nat Torkington, whose editorial guidance and helpful suggestions improved every part of the book. Without Nat's feedback, this book would be twice as long and half as readable as it is.

For a better fate than wisdom, thank you also to Susannah, with whom I enjoy ignoring the syntax of things.

Chapter 1. Orientation and First Steps

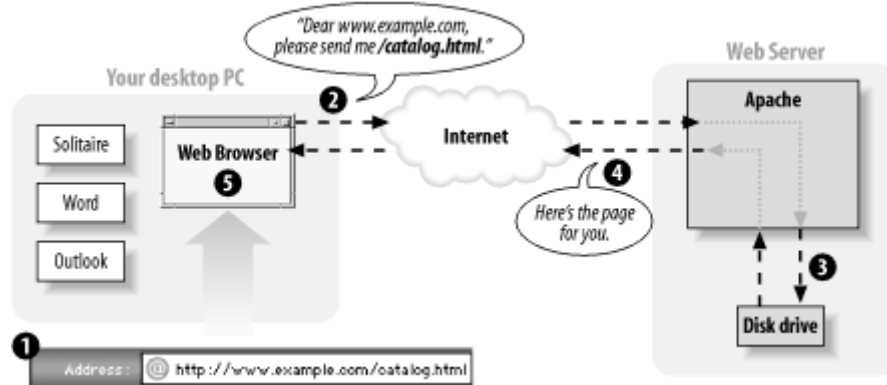
There are lots of great reasons to write computer programs in PHP. Maybe you want to learn PHP because you need to put together a small web site for yourself that has some interactive elements. Perhaps PHP is being used where you work and you have to get up to speed. This chapter provides context for how PHP fits into the puzzle of web site construction: what it can do and why it's so good at what it does. You'll also get your first look at the PHP language and see it in action.

1.1 PHP's Place in the Web World

PHP is a programming language that's used mostly for building web sites. Instead of a PHP program running on a desktop computer for the use of one person, it typically runs on a web server and is accessed by lots of people using web browsers on their own computers. This section explains how PHP fits into the interaction between a web browser and a web server.

When you sit down at your computer and pull up a web page using a browser such as Internet Explorer or Mozilla, you cause a little conversation to happen over the Internet between your computer and another computer. This conversation and how it makes a web page appear on your screen is illustrated in [Figure 1-1](#).

Figure 1-1. Client and server communication without PHP



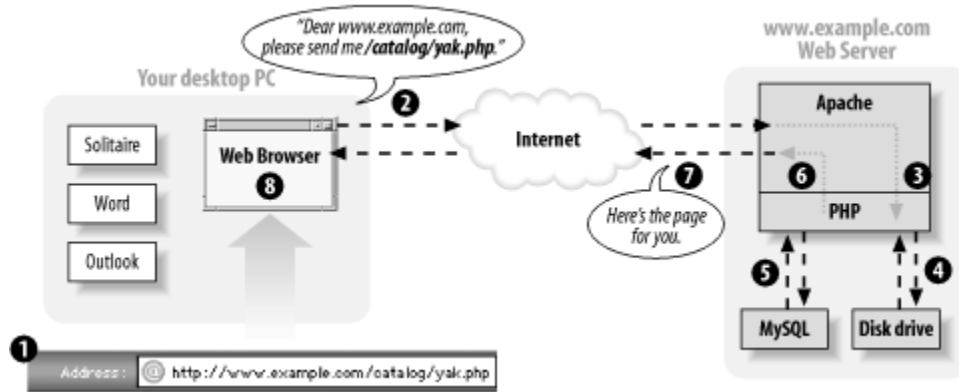
Here's what's happening in the numbered steps of the diagram:

1. You type `www.example.com/catalog.html` into the location bar of Internet Explorer.
2. Internet Explorer sends a message over the Internet to the computer named `www.example.com` asking for the `/catalog.html` page.
3. Apache, a program running on the `www.example.com` computer, gets the message and reads the `catalog.html` file from the disk drive.
4. Apache sends the contents of the file back to your computer over the Internet as a response to Internet Explorer's request.
5. Internet Explorer displays the page on the screen, following the instructions of the HTML tags in the page.

Every time a browser asks for `http://www.example.com/catalog.html`, the web server sends back the contents of the same `catalog.html` file. The only time the response from the web server changes is if someone edits the file on the server.

When PHP is involved, however, the server does more work for its half of the conversation. [Figure 1-2](#) shows what happens when a web browser asks for a page that is generated by PHP.

Figure 1-2. Client and server communication with PHP



Here's what's happening in the numbered steps of the PHP-enabled conversation:

1. You type `www.example.com/catalog/yak.php` into the location bar of Internet Explorer.
2. Internet Explorer sends a message over the Internet to the computer named `www.example.com` asking for the `/catalog/yak.php` page.
3. Apache, a program running on the `www.example.com` computer, gets the message and asks the PHP interpreter, another program running on the `www.example.com` computer, "What does `/catalog/yak.php` look like?"
4. The PHP interpreter reads the file `/usr/local/www/catalog/yak.php` from the disk drive.
5. The PHP interpreter runs the commands in `yak.php`, possibly exchanging data with a database program such as MySQL.
6. The PHP interpreter takes the `yak.php` program output and sends it back to Apache as an answer to "What does `/catalog/yak.php` look like?"
7. Apache sends the page contents it got from the PHP interpreter back to your computer over the Internet in response to Internet Explorer's request.
8. Internet Explorer displays the page on the screen, following the instructions of the HTML tags in the page.

"PHP" is a programming language. Something in the web server reads your PHP programs, which are instructions written in this programming language, and figures out what to do. The "PHP interpreter" follows your instructions. Programmers often say "PHP" when they mean either the programming language or the interpreter. In this book, I mean the language when I say "PHP." When I say "PHP interpreter," I mean the thing that follows the commands in the PHP programs you write and that generates web pages.

If PHP (the programming language) is like English (the human language), then the PHP interpreter is like an English-speaking person. The English language defines various words and combinations that, when read or heard by an English-speaking person, translate into various meanings that cause the person to do things such as feel embarrassed, go to the store

to buy some milk, or put on pants. The programs you write in PHP (the programming language) cause the PHP interpreter to do things such as talk to a database, generate a personalized web page, or display an image.

This book is concerned with the details of writing those programs — i.e., what happens in Step 5 of [Figure 1-2](#) (although [Appendix A](#) contains details on configuring and installing the PHP interpreter on your own web server).

PHP is called a *server-side* language because, as [Figure 1-2](#) illustrates, it runs on a web server. Languages and technologies such as JavaScript and Flash, in contrast, are called *client-side* because they run on a web client (like a desktop PC). The instructions in a PHP program cause the PHP interpreter on a web server to output a web page. The instructions in a JavaScript program cause Internet Explorer, while running on your desktop PC, to do something such as pop up a new window. Once the web server has sent the generated web page to the client (Step 7 in the [Figure 1-2](#)), PHP is out of the picture. If the page content contains some JavaScript, then that JavaScript runs on the client but is totally disconnected from the PHP program that generated the page.

A plain HTML web page is like the "sorry you found a cockroach in your soup" form letter you might get after dispatching an angry complaint to a bug-infested airline. When your letter arrives at airline headquarters, the overburdened secretary in the customer service department pulls the "cockroach reply letter" out of the filing cabinet, makes a copy, and puts the copy in the mail back to you. Every similar request gets the exact same response.

In contrast, a dynamic page that PHP generates is like a postal letter you write to a friend across the globe. You can put whatever you like down on the page — doodles, diagrams, haikus, and tender stories of how unbearably cute your new baby is when she spatters mashed carrots all over the kitchen. The content of your letter is tailored to the specific person to whom it's being sent. Once you put that letter in the mailbox, however, you can't change it any more. It wings its way across the globe and is read by your friend. You don't have any way to modify the letter as your friend is reading it.

Now imagine you're writing a letter to an arts-and-crafts-inspired friend. Along with the doodles and stories you include instructions such as "cut out the little picture of the frog at the top of the page and paste it over the tiny rabbit at the bottom of the page," and "read the last paragraph on the page before any other paragraph." As your friend reads the letter, she also performs actions the letter instructs her to take. These actions are like JavaScript in a web page. They're set down when the letter is written and don't change after that. But when the reader of the letter follows the instructions, the letter itself can change. Similarly, a web browser obeys any JavaScript commands in a page and pops up windows, changes form menu options, or refreshes the page to a new URL.

1.2 What's So Great About PHP?

You may be attracted to PHP because it's free, because it's easy to learn, or because your boss told you that you need to start working on a PHP project next week. Since you're going to use PHP, you need to know a little bit about what makes it special. The next time someone asks you "What's so great about PHP?", use this section as the basis for your answer.

1.2.1 PHP Is Free (as in Money)

You don't have to pay anyone to use PHP. Whether you run the PHP interpreter on a beat-up 10-year-old PC in your basement or in a room full of million-dollar "enterprise-class" servers, there are no licensing fees, support fees, maintenance fees, upgrade fees, or any other kind of charge.

Most Linux distributions come with PHP already installed. If yours doesn't, or you are using another operating system such as Windows, you can download PHP from <http://www.php.net/>. [Appendix A](#) has detailed instructions on how to install PHP.

1.2.2 PHP Is Free (as in Speech)

As an open source project, PHP makes its innards available for anyone to inspect. If it doesn't do what you want, or you're just curious about why a feature works the way it does, you can poke around in the guts of the PHP interpreter (written in the C programming language) to see what's what. Even if you don't have the technical expertise to do that, you can get someone who does to do the investigating for you. Most people can't fix their own cars, but it's nice to be able to take your car to a mechanic who can pop open the hood and fix it.

1.2.3 PHP Is Cross-Platform

You can use PHP with a web server computer that runs Windows, Mac OS X, Linux, Solaris, and many other versions of Unix. Plus, if you switch web server operating systems, you generally don't have to change any of your PHP programs. Just copy them from your Windows server to your Unix server, and they will still work.

While Apache is the most popular web server program used with PHP, you can also use Microsoft Internet Information Server and any other web server that supports the CGI standard. PHP also works with a large number of databases including MySQL, Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server, Sybase, and PostgreSQL. In addition, it supports the ODBC standard for database interaction.

If all the acronyms in the last paragraph freak you out, don't worry. It boils down to this: whatever system you're using, PHP probably runs on it just fine and works with whatever database you are already using.

1.2.4 PHP Is Widely Used

As of March 2004, PHP is installed on more than 15 million different web sites, from countless tiny personal home pages to giants like Yahoo!. There are many books, magazines, and web sites devoted to teaching PHP and exploring what you can do with it. There are companies that provide support and training for PHP. In short, if you are a PHP user, you are not alone.

1.2.5 PHP Hides Its Complexity

You can build powerful e-commerce engines in PHP that handle millions of customers. You can also build a small site that automatically maintains links to a changing list of articles or press releases. When you're using PHP for a simpler project, it doesn't get in your way with concerns that are only relevant in a massive system. When you need advanced features such as caching, custom libraries, or dynamic image generation, they are available. If you don't need them, you don't have to worry about them. You can just focus on the basics of handling user input and displaying output.

1.2.6 PHP Is Built for Web Programming

Unlike most other programming languages, PHP was created from the ground up for generating web pages. This means that common web programming tasks, such as accessing form submissions and talking to a database, are often easier in PHP. PHP comes with the capability to format HTML, manipulate dates and times, and manage web cookies — tasks that are often available only as add-on libraries in other programming languages.

1.3 PHP in Action

Ready for your first taste of PHP? This section contains a few program listings and explanations of what they do. If you don't understand everything going on in each listing, don't worry! That's what the rest of the book is for. Read these listings to get a sense of what PHP programs look like and an outline of how they work. Don't sweat the details yet.

When given a program to run, the PHP interpreter pays attention only to the parts of the program between PHP start and end tags. Whatever's outside those tags is printed with no modification. This makes it easy to embed small bits of PHP in pages that mostly contain HTML. The PHP interpreter runs the commands between `<?php` (the PHP start tag) and `?>` (the PHP end tag). PHP pages typically live in files whose names end in `.php`. [Example 1-1](#) shows a page with one PHP command.

Example 1-1. Hello, World!

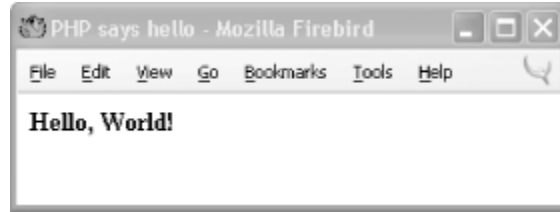
```
<html>
<head><title>PHP says hello</title></head>
<body>
<b>
<?php
print "Hello, World!";
?>
</b>
</body>
</html>
```

The output of [Example 1-1](#) is:

```
<html>
<head><title>PHP says hello</title></head>
<body>
<b>
Hello, World!
</b>
</body>
</html>
```

In your web browser, this looks like [Figure 1-3](#).

Figure 1-3. Saying hello with PHP



Printing a message that never changes is not a very exciting use of PHP, however. You could have included the "Hello, World!" message in a plain HTML page with the same result. More useful is printing dynamic data — i.e., information that changes. One of the most common sources of information for PHP programs is the user: the browser displays a form, the user enters information into that and hits the "submit" button, the browser sends that information to the server, and the server finally passes it on to the PHP interpreter where it is available to your program.

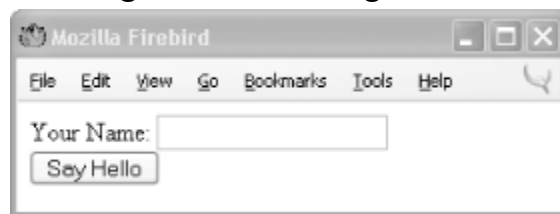
[Example 1-2](#) is an HTML form with no PHP. The form consists simply of a text box named `user` and a Submit button. The form submits to `sayhello.php`, specified via the `<form>` tag's `action` attribute.

Example 1-2. HTML form for submitting data

```
<form method="POST" action="sayhello.php">
Your Name: <input type="text" name="user">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
</form>
```

Your web browser renders the HTML in [Example 1-2](#) into the form shown in [Figure 1-4](#).

Figure 1-4. Printing a form



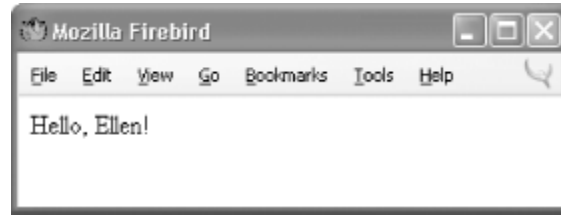
[Example 1-3](#) shows the `sayhello.php` program that prints a greeting to whomever is named in the form's text box.

Example 1-3. Dynamic data

```
<?php
print "Hello, ";
// Print what was submitted in the form parameter called 'user'
print $_POST['user'];
print "!";
?>
```


If you type `Ellen` in the text box and submit the form, then [Example 1-3](#) prints `Hello, Ellen!`. [Figure 1-5](#) shows how your web browser displays that.

Figure 1-5. Printing a form parameter



`$_POST` holds the values of submitted form parameters. In programming terminology, it is a *variable*, so called because you can change the values it holds. In particular, it is an *array* variable, because it can hold more than one value. This particular array is discussed in [Chapter 6](#). Arrays are discussed in [Chapter 4](#).

In this example, the line that begins with `//` is called a *comment line*. Comment lines are there for human readers of source code and are ignored by the PHP interpreter. Comments are useful for annotating your programs with information about how they work. [Section 1.4.3](#), later in this chapter, discusses comments in more detail.

You can also use PHP to print out the HTML form that lets someone submit a value for `user`. This is shown in [Example 1-4](#).

Example 1-4. Printing a form

```
<?php
print <<<_HTML_
<form method="post" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your Name: <input type="text" name="user">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
</form>
_HTML_;
?>
```

[Example 1-4](#) uses a string syntax called a *here document*. Everything between the `<<<_HTML_` and the `_HTML_` is passed to the `print` command to be displayed. Just like in [Example 1-3](#), a variable inside the string is replaced with its value. This time, the variable is `$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]`. This is a special PHP variable that contains the URL (without the protocol or hostname) of the current page. If the URL for the page in [Example 1-4](#) is `http://www.example.com/users/enter.php`, then `$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]` contains `/users/enter.php`.

With `$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]` as the form action, you can put the code for printing a form and for doing something with the submitted form data in the same page. [Example 1-5](#) combines [Examples 1-3](#) and [Example 1-4](#) into one page that displays a form and prints a greeting when the form is submitted.

Example 1-5. Printing a greeting or a form

```
<?php
// Print a greeting if the form was submitted
```

```

if ($_POST['user']) {
    print "Hello, ";
    // Print what was submitted in the form parameter called 'user'
    print $_POST['user'];
    print "!";
} else {
    // Otherwise, print the form
    print <<<_HTML_
<form method="post" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your Name: <input type="text" name="user">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
</form>
_HTML_
}
?>

```

[Example 1-5](#) uses the `if()` construct to see whether the browser sent a value for the form parameter `user`. It uses that to decide which of two things to do: print a greeting or print a form. [Chapter 3](#) talks about `if()`. Using `$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]` and processing forms is discussed in [Chapter 6](#).

PHP has a huge library of internal functions that you can use in your programs. These functions help you accomplish common tasks. One built-in function is `number_format()`, which provides a formatted version of a number. [Example 1-6](#) uses `number_format()` to print out a number.

Example 1-6. Printing a formatted number

```

<?php print "The population of the US is about:";
print number_format(285266237);
?>

```

[Example 1-6](#) prints:

```
The population of the US is about: 285,266,237
```

[Chapter 5](#) is about functions. It shows you how to write your own and explains the syntax for calling and handling the results of functions. Many functions, including `number_format()`, have a *return value*. This is the result of running the function. In [Example 1-6](#), the data that second `print` statement is given to print is the return value from `number_format()`. In this case, it's the the comma-formatted population number.

One of the most common types of programs written in PHP is one that displays a web page containing information retrieved from a database. When you let submitted form parameters control what is pulled from the database, you open the door to a universe of interactivity on your web site. [Example 1-7](#) shows a PHP program that connects to a database server, retrieves a list of dishes and their prices based on the value of the form parameter `meal`, and prints those dishes and prices in an HTML table.

Example 1-7. Displaying information from a database

```

<?php
require 'DB.php';
// Connect to MySQL running on localhost with username "menu"
// and password "good2eaT", and database "dinner"
$db = DB::connect('mysql://menu:good2eaT@localhost/dinner');
// Define what the allowable meals are
$meals = array('breakfast','lunch','dinner');
// Check if submitted form parameter "meal" is one of
// "breakfast", "lunch", or "dinner"
if (in_array($meals, $_POST['meal'])) {
    // If so, get all of the dishes for the specified meal
    $q = $dbh->query("SELECT dish,price FROM meals WHERE meal LIKE '" .
        $_POST['meal'] ."'");
    // If no dishes were found in the database, say so
    if ($q->numrows == 0) {
        print "No dishes available.";
    } else {
        // Otherwise, print out each dish and its price as a row
        // in an HTML table
        print '<table><tr><th>Dish</th><th>Price</th></tr>';
        while ($row = $q->fetchRow( )) {
            print "<tr><td>$row[0]</td><td>$row[1]</td></tr>";
        }
        print "</table>";
    }
} else {
    // This message prints if the submitted parameter "meal" isn't
    // "breakfast", "lunch", or "dinner"
    print "Unknown meal.";
}
?>

```

There's a lot going on in [Example 1-7](#), but it's a testament to the simplicity and power of PHP that it takes only about 15 lines of code (without comments) to make this dynamic, database-backed web page. The following describes what happens in those 15 lines.

The `DB::connect()` function at the top of the example sets up the connection to the MySQL database with appropriate authentication information such as a username and a password. These functions, like the other database functions used in this example (`query()`, `numrows()`, and `fetchRow()`), are explained in more detail in [Chapter 7](#).

Things in the program that begin with a `$`, such as `$db`, `$_POST`, `$q`, and `$row`, are variables. Variables hold values that may change as the program runs or that are created at one point in the program and are saved to use later. [Chapter 2](#) talks about variables.

After connecting to the database, the next task is to see what meal the user requested. The `$meals` array is initialized to hold the allowable meals: `breakfast`, `lunch`, and `dinner`. The statement `in_array($meals, $_POST['meal'])` checks whether the submitted form parameter `meal` (the value of `$_POST['meal']`) is in the `$meals` array. If not, execution skips down to the end of the example, after the last `else`, and prints `Unknown meal`.

If an acceptable meal was submitted, `query()` sends a query to the database. For example, if the meal is `breakfast`, the query that is sent is as follows:

```
SELECT dish,price FROM meals WHERE meal LIKE 'breakfast'
```

Queries to MySQL and most other databases are written in a language called Structured Query Language (SQL). [Appendix B](#) provides the basics of SQL. The `query()` function returns an identifier that we can use to get further information about the query.

The `numrows()` function uses that identifier to see how many matching meals the query found in the database. If there are no applicable meals, the program prints `No dishes available`. Otherwise, it displays information about the matching meals.

The program prints the beginning of the HTML table. Then, it uses the `fetchRow()` function to retrieve each dish that the query found. The `print` statement uses elements of the array returned by `fetchRow()` to display one table row per dish.

1.4 Basic Rules of PHP Programs

This section lays out some ground rules about the structure of PHP programs. More foundational than the basics such as "how do I print something" or "how do I add two numbers", these proto-basics are the equivalent of someone telling you that you should read pages in this book from top to bottom and left to right, or that what's important on the page are the black squiggles, not the large white areas.

If you've had a little experience with PHP already or you're the kind of person that prefers playing with all the buttons on your new DVD player before going back and reading in the manual about how the buttons actually work, feel free to skip ahead to [Chapter 2](#) now and flip back here later. If you forge ahead to write some PHP programs of your own, and they're behaving unexpectedly or the PHP interpreter complains of "parse errors" when it tries to run your program, revisit this section for a refresher.

1.4.1 Start and End Tags

Each of the examples you've already seen in this chapter uses `<?php` as the PHP start tag and `?>` as the PHP end tag. The PHP interpreter ignores anything outside of those tags. Text before the start tag or after the end tag is printed with no interference from the PHP interpreter.

A PHP program can have multiple start and end tag pairs, as shown in [Example 1-8](#).

Example 1-8. Multiple start and end tags

```
Five plus five is:
<?php print 5 + 5; ?>
<p>
Four plus four is:
<?php
  print 4 + 4;
?>
<p>

```

The PHP source code inside each set of `<?php ?>` tags is processed by the PHP interpreter, and the rest of the page is printed as is. [Example 1-8](#) prints:

```
Five plus five is:
10<p>
Four plus four is:
8<p>

```

Some older PHP programs use `<?>` as a start tag instead of `<?php>`. The `<?>` is called the *short open tag*, since it's shorter than `<?php>`. It's usually better to use the regular `<?php>` open tag since it's guaranteed to work on any server running the PHP interpreter. The short tag can be turned on or off with a PHP configuration setting. [Appendix A](#) shows you how to modify your PHP configuration to control which open tags are valid in your programs.

The rest of the examples in this chapter all begin with the `<?php>` start tag and end with `?>`. In subsequent chapters, not all the examples have start and end tags — but remember, your programs need them for the PHP interpreter to recognize your code.

1.4.2 Whitespace and Case-Sensitivity

Like all PHP programs, the examples in this section consist of a series of statements, each of which end with a semicolon. You can put multiple PHP statements on the same line of a program as long as they are separated with a semicolon. You can put as many blank lines between statements as you want. The PHP interpreter ignores them. The semicolon tells the interpreter that one statement is over and another is about to begin. No whitespace at all or lots and lots of whitespace between statements doesn't affect the program's execution. (*Whitespace* is programmer-speak for blank-looking characters such as space, tab, and newline.)

In practice, it's good style to put one statement on a line and to put blank lines between statements only when it improves the readability of your source code. The spacing in Examples [Example 1-9](#) and [Example 1-10](#) is bad. Instead, format your code as in [Example 1-11](#).

Example 1-9. This PHP is too cramped

```
<?php print "Hello"; print " World!"; ?>
```

Example 1-10. This PHP is too sprawling

```
<?php

print "Hello";

print " World!";

?>
```

Example 1-11. This PHP is just right

```
<?php
print "Hello";
print " World!";
?>
```

In addition to ignoring whitespace between lines, the PHP interpreter also ignores whitespace between language keywords and values. You can have zero spaces, one space, or a hundred spaces between `print` and `"Hello, World!"` and again between `"Hello, World!"` and the semicolon at the end of the line.

Good coding style is to put one space between `print` and the value being printed and then to follow the value immediately with a semicolon. [Example 1-12](#) shows three lines, one with too much spacing, one with too little, and one with just the right amount.

Example 1-12. Spacing

```
<?php
print      "Too many spaces"      ;
print"Too few spaces";
print "Just the right amount of spaces";
?>
```

Language keywords (such as `print`) and function names (such as `number_format`) are not case-sensitive. The PHP interpreter doesn't care whether you use uppercase letters, lowercase letters, or both when you put these keywords and function names in your programs. The statements in [Example 1-13](#) are identical from the interpreter's perspective.

Example 1-13. Keywords and function names are case-insensitive

```
// These four lines all do the same thing
print number_format(285266237);
PRINT Number_Format(285266237);
Print number_format(285266237);
pRiNt NUMBER_FORMAT(285266237);
```

1.4.3 Comments

As you've seen in some of the examples in this chapter, comments are a way to explain to other people how your program works. Comments in source code are an essential part of any program. When you're coding, what you are writing may seem crystal clear to you at the time. A few months later, however, when you need to go back and modify the program, your brilliant logic may not be so obvious. That's where comments come in. By explaining in plain language how the programs work, comments make programs much more understandable.

Comments are even more important when the person who needs to modify the program isn't the original author. Do yourself and anyone else who might have occasion to read your source code a favor and fill your programs with a lot of comments.

Perhaps because they're so important, PHP provides many ways to put comments in your programs. One syntax you've seen already is to begin a line with `//`. This tells the PHP interpreter to treat everything on that line as a comment. After the

end of the line, the code is treated normally. This style of comment is also used in other programming languages such as C++, JavaScript, and Java. You can also put `//` on a line after a statement to have the remainder of the line treated as a comment. PHP also supports the Perl- and shell-style single-line comments. These are lines that begin with `#`. You can use `#` to start a comment in the same places that you can use `//`, but the modern style prefers `//` over `#`. Some single-line comments are shown in [Example 1-14](#).

Example 1-14. Single-line comments with `//` or `#`

```
// This line is a comment
print "Smoked Fish Soup ";
print 'costs $3.25.';

# Add another dish to the menu
print 'Duck with Pea Shoots ';
print 'costs $9.50.';
// You can put // or # inside single-line comments
// Using // or # somewhere else on a line also starts a comment
print 'Shark Fin Soup'; // I hope it's good!
print 'costs $25.00!'; # This is getting expensive!

# Putting // or # inside a string doesn't start a comment
print 'http://www.example.com';
print 'http://www.example.com/menu.php#dinner';
```

For a multiline comment, start the comment with `/*` and end with `*/`. Everything between the `/*` and `*/` is treated as a comment by the PHP interpreter. Multiline comments are useful for temporarily turning off a small block of code. [Example 1-15](#) shows some multiline comments.

Example 1-15. Multiline comments

```
/* We're going to add a few things to the menu:
   - Smoked Fish Soup
   - Duck with Pea Shoots
   - Shark Fin Soup
*/
print 'Smoked Fish Soup, Duck with Pea Shoots, Shark Fin Soup ';
print 'Cost: 3.25 + 9.50 + 25.00';

/* This is the old menu:
The following lines are inside this comment so they don't get executed.
print 'Hamburger, French Fries, Cola ';
print 'Cost: 0.99 + 1.25 + 1.50';
*/
```

There is no strict rule in PHP about which comment style is the best. Multiline comments are often the easiest to use, especially when you want to comment out a block of code or write a few lines describing a function. However, when you want to tack on a short explanation to the end of a line, a `//`-style comment fits nicely. Use whichever comment style you feel most comfortable with.

1.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter 1 covers:

- PHP's usage by a web server to create a response or document to send back to the browser.
- PHP as a server-side language, meaning it runs on the web server. This is in contrast to a client-side language such as JavaScript.
- What you sign up for when you decide to use PHP: it's free (in terms of money and speech), cross-platform, popular, and designed for web programming.
- How PHP programs that print information, process forms, and talk to a database appear.
- Some basics of the structure of PHP programs, such as the PHP start and end tags (`<?php` and `?>`), whitespace, case-sensitivity, and comments.

Chapter 2. Working with Text and Numbers

PHP can work with different types of data. In this chapter, you'll learn about individual values such as numbers and single pieces of text. You'll learn how to put text and numbers in your programs, as well as some of the limitations the PHP interpreter puts on those values and some common tricks for manipulating them.

Most PHP programs spend a lot of time handling text because they spend a lot of time generating HTML and working with information in a database. HTML is just a specially formatted kind of text, and information in a database, such as a username, a product description, or an address is a piece of text, too. Slicing and dicing text easily means you can build dynamic web pages easily.

In [Chapter 1](#), you saw variables in action, but this chapter teaches you more about them. A variable is a named container that holds a value. The value that a variable holds can change as a program runs. When you access data submitted from a form or exchange data with a database, you use variables. In real life, a variable is something such as your checking account balance. As time goes on, the value that the phrase "checking account balance" refers to fluctuates. In a PHP program, a variable might hold the value of a submitted form parameter. Each time the program runs, the value of the submitted form parameter can be different. But whatever the value, you can always refer to it by the same name. This chapter also explains in more detail what variables are: how you create them and do things such as change their values or print them.

2.1 Text

When they're used in computer programs, pieces of text are called *strings*. This is because they consist of individual characters, strung together. Strings can contain letters, numbers, punctuation, spaces, tabs, or any other characters. Some examples of strings are `I would like 1 bowl of soup`, and `"Is it too hot?" he asked`, and `There's no spoon!`. A string can even contain the contents of a binary file such as an image or a sound. The only limit to the length of a string in a PHP program is the amount of memory your computer has.

2.1.1 Defining Text Strings

There are a few ways to indicate a string in a PHP program. The simplest is to surround the string with single quotes:

```
print 'I would like a bowl of soup.';
print 'chicken';
print '06520';
print "I am eating dinner," he growled.';
```

Since the string consists of everything inside the single quotes, that's what is printed:

```
I would like a bowl of soup.chicken06520"I am eating dinner," he growled.
```

The output of those four `print` statements appears all on one line. No linebreaks are added by `print`.¹¹

¹¹ You may also see `echo` used in some PHP programs to print text. It works just like `print`.

The single quotes aren't part of the string. They are *delimiters*, which tell the PHP interpreter where the start and end of the string is. If you want to include a single quote inside a string surrounded with single quotes, put a backslash (\) before the single quote inside the string:

```
print 'We\'ll each have a bowl of soup.';
```

The \ ' sequence is turned into ' inside the string, so what is printed is:

```
We'll each have a bowl of soup.
```

The backslash tells the PHP interpreter to treat the following character as a literal single quote instead of the single quote that means "end of string." This is called *escaping*, and the backslash is called the *escape character*. An escape character tells the system to do something special with the character that comes after it. Inside a single-quoted string, a single quote usually means "end of string." Preceding the single quote with a backslash changes its meaning to a literal single quote character.

Curly Quotes and Text Editors

Word processors often automatically turn straight quotes like ' and " into curly quotes like ‘, ’, “, and ”. The PHP interpreter only understands straight quotes as string delimiters. If you're writing PHP programs in a word processor or text editor that puts curly quotes in your programs, you have two choices: tell your word processor to stop it or use a different one. A program such as emacs, vi, BBEdit, or Windows Notepad leaves your quotes alone.

The escape character can itself be escaped. To include a literal backslash character in a string, put a back slash before it:

```
print 'Use a \\ to escape in a string';
```

This prints:

```
Use a \ to escape in a string
```

The first backslash is the escape character: it tells the PHP interpreter that something different is going on with the next character. This affects the second backslash: instead of the special action ("treat the next character literally"), a literal backslash is included in the string.

Note that these are backslashes that go from top left to bottom right, not forward slashes that go from bottom left to top right. Remember that two forward slashes (//) indicate a comment.

You can include whitespace such as newlines in single-quoted strings:

```
print '<ul>
<li>Beef Chow-Fun</li>
<li>Sauteed Pea Shoots</li>
<li>Soy Sauce Noodles</li>
</ul>';
```

This puts the HTML on multiple lines:

```
<ul>
<li>Beef Chow-Fun</li>
<li>Sauteed Pea Shoots</li>
<li>Soy Sauce Noodles</li>
</ul>
```

Since the single quote that marks the end of the string is immediately after the ``, there is no newline at the end of the string.

The only characters that get special treatment inside single-quoted strings are backslash and single quote. Everything else is treated literally.

You can also delimit strings with double quotes. Double-quoted strings are similar to single-quoted strings, but they have more special characters. These special characters are listed in [Table 2-1](#).

Table 2-1. Special characters in double-quoted strings

Character	Meaning
<code>\n</code>	Newline (ASCII 10)
<code>\r</code>	Carriage return (ASCII 13)
<code>\t</code>	Tab (ASCII 9)
<code>\\</code>	<code>\</code>
<code>\\$</code>	<code>\$</code>
<code>\"</code>	<code>"</code>
<code>\0 .. \777</code>	Octal (base 8) number
<code>\x0 .. \xFF</code>	Hexadecimal (base 16) number

The biggest difference between single-quoted and double-quoted strings is that when you include variable names inside a double-quoted string, the value of the variable is substituted into the string, which doesn't happen with single-quoted

strings. For example, if the variable `$user` held the value `Bill`, then `'Hi $user'` is just that: `Hi $user`. However, `"Hi $user"` is `Hi Bill`. I get into this in more detail later in this chapter in [Section 2.3](#).

As mentioned in [Section 1.3](#), you can also define strings with the *here document* syntax. A here document begins with `<<<` and a delimiter word. It ends with the same word at the beginning of a line. [Example 2-1](#) shows a here document.

Example 2-1. Here document

```
<<<HTMLBLOCK
<html>
<head><title>Menu</title></head>
<body bgcolor="#fffed9">
<h1>Dinner</h1>
<ul>
  <li> Beef Chow-Fun
  <li> Sauteed Pea Shoots
  <li> Soy Sauce Noodles
</ul>
</body>
</html>
HTMLBLOCK
```

In [Example 2-1](#), the delimiter word is `HTMLBLOCK`. Here document delimiters can contain letters, numbers, and the underscore character. The first character of the delimiter must be a letter or the underscore. It's a good idea to make all the letters in your here document delimiters uppercase to visually set off the here document. The delimiter that ends the here document must be alone on its line. The delimiter can't be indented and no whitespace, comments, or other characters are allowed after it. The only exception to this is that a semicolon is allowed immediately after the delimiter to end a statement. In that case, nothing can be on the same line after the semicolon. The code in [Example 2-2](#) follows these rules to print a here document.

Example 2-2. Printing a here document

```
print <<<HTMLBLOCK
<html>
<head><title>Menu</title></head>
<body bgcolor="#fffed9">
<h1>Dinner</h1>
<ul>
  <li> Beef Chow-Fun
  <li> Sauteed Pea Shoots
  <li> Soy Sauce Noodles
</ul>
</body>
</html>
HTMLBLOCK;
```

Here documents obey the same escape-character and variable substitution rules as double-quoted strings. These make them especially useful when you want to define or print a string that contains a lot of text or HTML with some variables mixed in. Later on in the chapter, [Example 2-22](#) demonstrates this.

To combine two strings, use a `.` (period), the string concatenation operator. Here are some combined strings:

```
print 'bread' . 'fruit';
print "It's a beautiful day " . 'in the neighborhood.';
print "The price is: " . '$3.95';
print 'Inky' . 'Pinky' . 'Blinky' . 'Clyde';
```

The combined strings print as:

```
breadfruit
It's a beautiful day in the neighborhood.
The price is: $3.95
InkyPinkyBlinkyClyde
```

2.1.2 Manipulating Text

PHP has a number of built-in functions that are useful when working with strings. This section introduces the functions that are most helpful for two common tasks: validation and formatting. The "Strings" chapter of the PHP online manual, at <http://www.php.net/strings>, has information on other built-in string handling functions.

2.1.2.1 Validating strings

Validation is the process of checking that input coming from an external source conforms to an expected format or meaning. It's making sure that a user really entered a ZIP Code in the "ZIP Code" box of a form or a reasonable email address in the appropriate place. [Chapter 6](#) delves into all the aspects of form handling, but since submitted form data is provided to your PHP programs as strings, this section discusses how to validate those strings.

The `trim()` function removes whitespace from the beginning and end of a string. Combined with `strlen()`, which tells you the length of a string, you can find out the length of a submitted value while ignoring any leading or trailing spaces. [Example 2-3](#) shows you how. ([Chapter 3](#) discusses in more detail the `if()` statement used in [Example 2-3](#).)

Example 2-3. Checking the length of a trimmed string

```
// $_POST['zipcode'] holds the value of the submitted form parameter
// "zipcode"
$zipcode = trim($_POST['zipcode']);
// Now $zipcode holds that value, with any leading or trailing spaces
// removed
$zip_length = strlen($zipcode);
// Complain if the ZIP code is not 5 characters long
if ($zip_length != 5) {
    print "Please enter a ZIP code that is 5 characters long.";
}
```

Using `trim()` protects against someone who types a ZIP Code of 732 followed by two spaces. Sometimes the extra spaces are accidental and sometimes they are malicious. Whatever the reason, throw them away when appropriate to make sure that you're getting the string length you care about.

You can chain together the calls to `trim()` and `strlen()` for more concise code. [Example 2-4](#) does the same thing as [Example 2-3](#).

Example 2-4. Concisely checking the length of a trimmed string

```
if (strlen(trim($_POST['zipcode'])) != 5) {
    print "Please enter a ZIP code that is 5 characters long.";
}
```

Four things happen in the first line of [Example 2-4](#). First, the value of the variable `$_POST['zipcode']` is passed to the `trim()` function. Second, the return value of that function — `$_POST['zipcode']` with leading and trailing whitespace removed — is handed off to the `strlen()` function, which then returns the length of the trimmed string. Third, this length is compared with 5. Last, if the length is not equal to 5, then the `print` statement inside the `if()` block runs.

To compare two strings, use the equality operator (`=`), as shown in [Example 2-5](#).

Example 2-5. Comparing strings with the equality operator

```
if ($_POST['email'] == 'president@whitehouse.gov') {
    print "Welcome, Mr. President.";
}
```

The `print` statement in [Example 2-5](#) runs only if the submitted form parameter `email` is the all-lowercase `president@whitehouse.gov`. When you compare strings with `=`, case is important. `president@whitehouse.GOV` is not the same as `President@Whitehouse.Gov` or `president@whitehouse.gov`.

To compare strings without paying attention to case, use `strcasecmp()`. It compares two strings while ignoring differences in capitalization. If the two strings you provide to `strcasecmp()` are the same (independent of any differences between upper- and lowercase letters), it returns 0. [Example 2-6](#) shows how to use `strcasecmp()`.

Example 2-6. Comparing strings case-insensitively

```
if (strcasecmp($_POST['email'], 'president@whitehouse.gov') == 0) {
    print "Welcome back, Mr. President.";
}
```

The `print` statement in [Example 2-6](#) runs if the submitted form parameter `email` is `President@Whitehouse.Gov`, `PRESIDENT@WHITEHOUSE.GOV`, `presIDENT@whiteHOUSE.GoV`, or any other capitalization of `president@whitehouse.gov`.

2.1.2.2 Formatting text

The `printf()` function gives you more control (compared to `print`) over how the output looks. You pass `printf()` a format string and a bunch of items to print. Each rule in the format string is replaced by one item. [Example 2-7](#) shows `printf()` in action.

Example 2-7. Formatting a price with printf()

```
$price = 5; $tax = 0.075;
```

```
printf('The dish costs $%.2f', $price * (1 + $tax));
```

This prints:

```
The dish costs $5.38
```

In [Example 2-7](#), the format rule `%.2f` is replaced with the value of `$price * (1 + $tax)` and formatted so that it has two decimal places.

Format string rules begin with `%` and then have some optional modifiers that affect what the rule does:

A padding character

If the string that is replacing the format rule is too short, this is used to pad it. Use a space to pad with spaces or a `0` to pad with zeroes.

A sign

For numbers, a plus sign (+) makes `printf()` put a + before positive numbers (normally, they're printed without a sign.) For strings, a minus sign (-) makes `printf()` right justify the string (normally, they're left justified.)

A minimum width

The minimum size that the value replacing the format rule should be. If it's shorter, then the padding character is used to beef it up.

A period and a precision number

For floating-point numbers, this controls how many digits go after the decimal point. In [Example 2-7](#), this is the only modifier present. The `.2` formats `$price * (1 + $tax)` with two decimal places.

After the modifiers come a mandatory character that indicates what kind of value should be printed. The three discussed here are `d` for decimal number, `s` for string, and `f` for floating-point number.

If this stew of percent signs and modifiers has you scratching your head, don't worry. The most frequent use of `printf()` is probably to format prices with the `%.2f` format rule as shown in [Example 2-7](#). If you absorb nothing else about `printf()` for now, just remember that it's your go-to function when you want to format a decimal value.

But if you delve a little deeper, you can do some other handy things with it. For example, using the `0` padding character and a minimum width, you can format a date or ZIP Code properly with leading zeroes, as shown in [Example 2-8](#).

Example 2-8. Zero-padding with printf()

```
$zip = '6520';  
$month = 2;  
$day = 6;  
$year = 2007;  
  
printf("ZIP is %05d and the date is %02d/%02d/%d", $zip, $month, $day, $year);
```

[Example 2-8](#) prints:

```
ZIP is 06520 and the date is 02/06/2007
```

The sign modifier is helpful for explicitly indicating positive and negative values. [Example 2-9](#) uses it to display a some temperatures.

Example 2-9. Displaying signs with printf()

```
$min = -40;  
$max = 40;  
printf("The computer can operate between %+d and %+d degrees Celsius.", $min, $max);
```

[Example 2-9](#) prints:

```
The computer can operate between -40 and +40 degrees Celsius.
```

To learn about other `printf()` format rules, visit <http://www.php.net/sprintf>.

Another kind of text formatting is to manipulate the case of strings. The `strtolower()` and `strtoupper()` functions make all-lowercase and all-uppercase versions, respectively, of a string. [Example 2-10](#) shows `strtolower()` and `strtoupper()` at work.

Example 2-10. Changing case

```
print strtolower('Beef, CHICKEN, Pork, duCK');  
print strtoupper('Beef, CHICKEN, Pork, duCK');
```

[Example 2-10](#) prints:

```
beef, chicken, pork, duck  
BEEF, CHICKEN, PORK, DUCK
```

The `ucwords()` function uppercases the first letter of each word in a string. This is useful when combined with `strtolower()` to produce nicely capitalized names when they are provided to you in all uppercase. [Example 2-11](#) shows how to combine `strtolower()` and `ucwords()`.

Example 2-11. Prettifying names with `ucwords()`

```
print ucwords(strtolower('JOHN FRANKENHEIMER'));
```

[Example 2-11](#) prints:

```
John Frankenheimer
```

With the `substr()` function, you can extract just part of a string. For example, you may only want to display the beginnings of messages on a summary page. [Example 2-12](#) shows how to use `substr()` to truncate the submitted form parameter `comments`.

Example 2-12. Truncating a string with `substr()`

```
// Grab the first thirty characters of $_POST['comments']
print substr($_POST['comments'], 0, 30);
// Add an ellipsis
print '...';
```

If the submitted form parameter `comments` is:

```
The Fresh Fish with Rice Noodle was delicious, but I didn't like the Beef Tripe.
```

[Example 2-12](#) prints:

```
The Fresh Fish with Rice Noodl...
```

The three arguments to `substr()` are the string to work with, the starting position of the substring to extract, and the number of characters to extract. The beginning of the string is position 0, not 1, so `substr($_POST['comments'], 0, 30)` means "extract 30 characters from `$_POST['comments']` starting at the beginning of the string."

When you give `substr()` a negative number for a start position, it counts back from the end of the string to figure out where to start. A start position of -4 means "start four characters from the end." [Example 2-13](#) uses a negative start position to display just the last four digits of a credit card number.

Example 2-13. Extracting the end of a string with `substr()`

```
print 'Card: XX';
print substr($_POST['card'], -4, 4);
```

If the submitted form parameter `card` is 4000-1234-5678-9101, [Example 2-13](#) prints:

```
Card: XX9101
```

As a shortcut, use `substr($_POST['card'],-4)` instead of `substr($_POST['card'], -4,4)`. When you leave out the last argument, `substr()` returns everything from the starting position (whether positive or negative) to the end of the string.

Instead of extracting a substring, the `str_replace()` function changes parts of a string. It looks for a substring and replaces the substring with a new string. This is useful for simple template-based customization of HTML. [Example 2-14](#) uses `str_replace()` to set the `class` attribute of `` tags.

Example 2-14. Using `str_replace()`

```
print str_replace('{class}', $my_class,
    '<span class="{class}">Fried Bean Curd<span>
    <span class="{class}">Oil-Soaked Fish</span>');
```

If `$my_class` is `lunch`, then [Example 2-14](#) prints:

```
<span class="lunch">Fried Bean Curd<span>
<span class="lunch">Oil-Soaked Fish</span>
```

Each instance of `{class}` (the first argument to `str_replace()`) is replaced by `lunch` (the value of `$my_class`) in the string that is the third argument passed to `str_replace()`.

2.2 Numbers

Numbers in PHP are expressed using familiar notation, although you can't use commas or any other characters to group thousands. You don't have to do anything special to use a number with a decimal part as compared to an integer. [Example 2-15](#) lists some valid numbers in PHP.

Example 2-15. Numbers

```
print 56;
print 56.3;
print 56.30;
print 0.774422;
print 16777.216;
print 0;
print -213;
print 1298317;
print -9912111;
print -12.52222;
print 0.00;
```

2.2.1 Using Different Kinds of Numbers

Internally, the PHP interpreter makes a distinction between numbers with a decimal part and those without one. The former are called *floating-point* numbers and the latter are called *integers*. Floating-point numbers take their name from the fact that the decimal point can "float" around to represent different amounts of precision.

The PHP interpreter uses the math facilities of your operating system to represent numbers so the largest and smallest numbers you can use, as well as the number of decimal places you can have in a floating-point number, vary on different systems.

One distinction between the PHP interpreter's internal representation of integers and floating-point numbers is the exactness of how they're stored. The integer 47 is stored as exactly 47. The floating-point number 46.3 could be stored as 46.2999999. This affects the correct technique of how to compare numbers. [Section 3.3](#) explains comparisons and shows how to properly compare floating-point numbers.

2.2.2 Arithmetic Operators

Doing math in PHP is a lot like doing math in elementary school, except it's much faster. Some basic operations between numbers are shown in [Example 2-16](#).

Example 2-16. Math operations

```
print 2 + 2;  
print 17 - 3.5;  
print 10 / 3;  
print 6 * 9;
```

The output of [Example 2-16](#) is:

```
4  
13.5  
3.33333333333333  
54
```

In addition to the plus sign (+) for addition, the minus sign (-) for subtraction, the forward slash (/) for division, and the asterisk (*) for multiplication, PHP also supports the percent sign (%) for modulus division. This returns the remainder of a division operation:

```
print 17 % 3;
```

This prints:

```
2
```

Since 17 divided by 3 is 5 with a remainder of 2, $17 \% 3$ equals 2. The modulus operator is most useful for printing rows whose colors alternate in an HTML table, as shown in [Example 4-12](#).

The arithmetic operators, as well as the other PHP operators that you'll meet later in the book, fit into a strict precedence of operations. This is how the PHP interpreter decides in what order to do calculations if they are written ambiguously. For example, "3 + 4 * 2" could mean "add 3 and 4 and then multiply the result by 2," which results in 14. Or, it could mean "add 3 to the product of 4 and 2," which results in 11. In PHP (as well as the math world in general), multiplication has a

higher precedence than addition, so the second interpretation is correct. First, the PHP interpreter multiplies 4 and 2, and then it adds 3 to the result.

The precedence table of all PHP operators is part of the online PHP Manual at <http://www.php.net/language.operators#language.operators.precedence>. You can avoid memorizing or repeatedly referring to this table, however, with a healthy dose of parentheses. Grouping operations inside parentheses unambiguously tells the PHP interpreter to do what's inside the parentheses first. The expression "(3 + 4) * 2" means "add 3 and 4 and then multiply the result by 2." The expression "3 + (4 * 2)" means "multiply 4 and 2 and then add 3 to the result."

Like other modern programming languages, you don't have to do anything special to ensure that the results of your calculations are properly represented as integers or floating-point numbers. Dividing one integer by another produces a floating-point result if the two integers don't divide evenly. Similarly, if you do something to an integer that makes it larger than the maximum allowable integer or smaller than the minimum possible integer, the PHP interpreter converts the result into a floating-point number so you get the proper result for your calculation.

2.3 Variables

Variables hold the data that your program manipulates while it runs, such as information about a user that you've loaded from a database or entries that have been typed into an HTML form. In PHP, variables are denoted by \$ followed by the variable's name. To assign a value to a variable, use an equals sign (=). This is known as the assignment operator.

```
$plates = 5;
$dinner = 'Beef Chow-Fun';
$cost_of_dinner = 8.95;
$cost_of_lunch = $cost_of_dinner;
```

Assignment works with here documents as well:

```
$page_header = <<<HTML_HEADER
<html>
<head><title>Menu</title></head>
<body bgcolor="#fffed9">
<h1>Dinner</h1>
HTML_HEADER;

$page_footer = <<<HTML_FOOTER
</body>
</html>
HTML_FOOTER;
```

Variable names must begin with letter or an underscore. The rest of the characters in the variable name may be letters, numbers, or an underscore. [Table 2-2](#) lists some acceptable variable names.

Table 2-2. Acceptable variable names

Acceptable
\$size
\$drinkSize
\$my_drink_size
\$_drinks
\$drink4you2

[Table 2-3](#) lists some unacceptable variable names and what's wrong with them.

<i>Table 2-3. Unacceptable variable names</i>	
Variable name	Flaw
\$2hot4u	Begins with a number
\$drink-size	Unacceptable character: -
\$drinkmaster@example.com	Unacceptable characters: @ and .
\$drink!lots	Unacceptable character: !
\$drink+dinner	Unacceptable character: +

Variable names are case-sensitive. This means that variables named `$dinner`, `$Dinner`, and `$DINNER` are separate and distinct, with no more in common than if they were named `$breakfast`, `$lunch`, and `$supper`. In practice, you should avoid using variable names that differ only by letter case. They make programs difficult to read and debug.

2.3.1 Operating on Variables

Arithmetic and string operators work on variables containing numbers or strings just like they do on literal numbers or strings. [Example 2-17](#) shows some math and string operations at work on variables.

Example 2-17. Operating on variables

```
<?php
$price = 3.95;
$tax_rate = 0.08;
$tax_amount = $price * $tax_rate;
$total_cost = $price + $tax_amount;

$username = 'james';
$domain = '@example.com';
$email_address = $username . $domain;

print 'The tax is ' . $tax_amount;
print "\n"; // this prints a linebreak
```

```
print 'The total cost is ' . $total_cost;
print "\n"; // this prints a linebreak
print $email_address;
?>
```

[Example 2-17](#) prints:

```
The tax is 0.316
The total cost is 4.266
james@example.com
```

The assignment operator can be combined with arithmetic and string operators for a concise way to modify a value. An operator followed by the equals sign means "apply this operator to the variable." [Example 2-18](#) shows two identical ways to add 3 to `$price`.

Example 2-18. Combined assignment and addition

```
// Add 3 the regular way
$price = $price + 3;
// Add 3 with the combined operator
$price += 3;
```

Combining the assignment operator with the string concatenation operator appends a value to a string. [Example 2-19](#) shows two identical ways to add a suffix to a string. The advantage of the combined operators is that they are more concise.

Example 2-19. Combined assignment and concatenation

```
$username = 'james';
$domain = '@example.com';

// Concatenate $domain to the end of $username the regular way
$username = $username . $domain;
// Concatenate with the combined operator
$username .= $domain;
```

Incrementing and decrementing variables by 1 are so common that these operations have their own operators. The `++` operator adds 1 to a variable, and the `--` operator subtracts 1. These operators are usually used in `for()` loops, which are detailed in [Chapter 3](#). But you can use them on any variable holding a number, as shown in [Example 2-20](#).

Example 2-20. Incrementing and decrementing

```
// Add one to $birthday
$birthday = $birthday + 1;
// Add another one to $birthday
++$birthday;

// Subtract 1 from $years_left
$years_left = $years_left - 1;
// Subtract another 1 from $years_left
```

```
--$years_left;
```

2.3.2 Putting Variables Inside Strings

Frequently, you print the values of variables combined with other text, such as when you display an HTML table with calculated values in the cells or a user profile page that shows a particular user's information in a standardized HTML template. Double-quoted strings and here documents have a property that makes this easy: you can *interpolate* variables into them. This means that if the string contains a variable name, the variable name is replaced by the value of the variable. In [Example 2-21](#), the value of `$email` is interpolated into the printed string.

Example 2-21. Variable interpolation

```
$email = 'jacob@example.com';  
print "Send replies to: $email";
```

[Example 2-21](#) prints:

```
Send replies to: jacob@example.com
```

Here documents are especially useful for interpolating many variables into a long block of HTML, as shown in [Example 2-22](#).

Example 2-22. Interpolating in a here document

```
$page_title = 'Menu';  
$meat = 'pork';  
$vegetable = 'bean sprout';  
print <<<MENU  
<html>  
<head><title>$page_title</title></head>  
<body>  
<ul>  
<li> Barbecued $meat  
<li> Sliced $meat  
<li> Braised $meat with $vegetable  
</ul>  
</body>  
</html>  
MENU;
```

[Example 2-22](#) prints:

```
<html>  
<head><title>Menu</title></head>  
<body>  
<ul>  
<li> Barbecued pork  
<li> Sliced pork  
<li> Braised pork with bean sprout
```

```
</ul>
</body>
```

When you interpolate a variable into a string in a place where the PHP interpreter could be confused about the variable name, surround the variable with curly braces to remove the confusion. [Example 2-23](#) needs curly braces so that `$preparation` is interpolated properly.

Example 2-23. Interpolating with curly braces

```
$preparation = 'Braise';
$meat = 'Beef';
print "{$preparation}d $meat with Vegetables";
```

[Example 2-23](#) prints:

```
Braised Beef with Vegetables
```

Without the curly braces, the print statement in [Example 2-23](#) would be `print "$preparationd $meat with Vegetables";`. In that statement, it looks like the variable to interpolate is named `$preparationd`. The curly braces are necessary to indicate where the variable name stops and the literal string begins. The curly brace syntax is also useful for interpolating more complicated expressions and array values, discussed in [Chapter 4](#).

2.4 Chapter Summary

Chapter 2 covers:

- Defining strings in your programs three different ways: with single quotes, with double quotes, and as a here document.
- Escaping: what it is and what characters need to be escaped in each kind of string.
- Validating a string by checking its length, removing leading and trailing whitespace from it, or comparing it to another string.
- Formatting a string with `printf()`.
- Manipulating the case of a string with `strtolower()`, `strtoupper()`, or `ucwords()`.
- Selecting part of a string with `substr()`.
- Changing part of a string with `str_replace()`.
- Defining numbers in your programs.
- Doing math with numbers.
- Storing values in variables.
- Naming variables appropriately.
- Using combined operators with variables.
- Using increment and decrement operators with variables.
- Interpolating variables in strings.

2.5 Exercises

1. Find the errors in this PHP program:

```
2.  <? php
3.  print 'How are you?';
4.  print 'I'm fine.';
    ??>
```

5. Write a PHP program that computes the total cost of this restaurant meal: two hamburgers at \$4.95 each, one chocolate milk shake at \$1.95, and one cola at 85 cents. The sales tax rate is 7.5%, and you left a pre-tax tip of 16%.
6. Modify your solution to the previous exercise to print out a formatted bill. For each item in the meal, print the price, quantity, and total cost. Print the pre-tax food and drink total, the post-tax total, and the total with tax and tip. Make sure that prices in your output are vertically aligned.
7. Write a PHP program that sets the variable `$first_name` to your first name and `$last_name` to your last name. Print out a string containing your first and last name separated by a space. Also print out the length of that string.
8. Write a PHP program that uses the increment operator (`++`) and the combined multiplication operator (`*=`) to print out the numbers from 1 to 5 and powers of 2 from 2 (2^1) to 32 (2^5).
9. Add comments to the PHP programs you've written for the other exercises. Try both single and multiline comments. After you've added the comments, run the programs to make sure they work properly and your comment syntax is correct.

Chapter 3. Making Decisions and Repeating Yourself

[Chapter 2](#) covered the basics of how to represent data in PHP programs. A program full of data is only half complete, though. The other piece of the puzzle is using that data to control how the program runs, taking actions such as:

- If an administrative user is logged in, print a special menu.
- Print a different page header if it's after three o'clock.
- Notify a user if new messages have been posted since she last logged in.

All of these actions have something in common: they make decisions about whether a certain logical condition involving data is true or false. In the first action, the logical condition is "Is an administrative user logged in?" If the condition is true (yes, an administrative user is logged in), then a special menu is printed. The same kind of thing happens in the next example. If the condition "is it after three o'clock?" is true, then a different page header is printed. Likewise, if "Have new messages been posted since the user last logged in?" is true, then the user is notified.

When making decisions, the PHP interpreter boils down an expression into `true` or `false`. [Section 3.1](#) explains how the interpreter decides which expressions and values are `true` and which are `false`.

Those `true` and `false` values are used by language constructs such as `if()` to decide whether to run certain statements in a program. The ins and outs of `if()` are detailed later in this chapter in [Section 3.2](#). Use `if()` and similar constructs any time the outcome of a program depends on some changing conditions.

While `true` and `false` are the cornerstones of decision making, usually you want to ask more complicated questions, such as "is this user at least 21 years old?" or "does this user have a monthly subscription to the web site or enough money in their account to buy a daily pass?" [Section 3.3](#), later in this chapter, explains PHP's comparison and logical operators. These help you express whatever kind of decision you need to make in a program, such as seeing whether numbers or strings are greater than or less than each other. You can also chain together decisions into a larger decision that depends on its pieces.

Decision making is also used in programs when you want to repeatedly execute certain statements — you need a way to indicate when the repetition should stop. Frequently, this is determined by a simple counter, such as "repeat 10 times." This is like asking the question "Have I repeated 10 times yet?" If so, then the program continues. If not, the action is repeated again. Determining when to stop can be more complicated, too — for example, "show another math question to a student until 6 questions have been answered correctly." [Section 3.4](#), later in this chapter, introduces PHP's `while()` and `for()` constructs, with which you can implement these kinds of loops.

3.1 Understanding true and false

Every expression in a PHP program has a truth value: `true` or `false`. Sometimes that truth value is important because you use it in a calculation, but sometimes you ignore it. Understanding how expressions evaluate to `true` or to `false` is an important part of understanding PHP.

Most scalar values are `true`. All integers and floating-point numbers (except for 0 and 0.0) are `true`. All strings are `true` except for two: a string containing nothing at all and a string containing only the character 0. These four values are `false`. The special constant `false` also evaluates to `false`. Everything else is `true`.^[1]

^[1] An empty array is also `false`. This is discussed in [Chapter 4](#).

A variable equal to one of the five `false` values, or a function that returns one of those values also evaluates to `false`. Every other expression evaluates to `true`.

Figuring out the truth value of an expression has two steps. First, figure out the actual value of the expression. Then, check whether that value is `true` or `false`. Some expressions have common sense values. The value of a mathematical expression is what you'd get by doing the math with paper and pencil. For example, $7 * 6$ equals 42. Since 42 is `true`, the expression $7 * 6$ is `true`. The expression $5 - 6 + 1$ equals 0. Since 0 is `false`, the expression $5 - 6 + 1$ is `false`.

The same is true with string concatenation. The value of an expression that concatenates two strings is the new, combined string. The expression `'jacob' . '@example.com'` equals the string `jacob@example.com`, which is `true`.

The value of an assignment operation is the value being assigned. The expression `$price = 5` evaluates to 5, since that's what's being assigned to `$price`. Because assignment produces a result, you can chain assignment operations together to assign the same value to multiple variables:

```
$price = $quantity = 5;
```

This expression means "set `$price` equal to the result of setting `$quantity` equal to 5." When this expression is evaluated, the integer 5 is assigned to the variable `$quantity`. The result of that assignment expression is 5, the value being assigned. Then, that result (5) is assigned to the variable `$price`. Both `$price` and `$quantity` are set to 5.

3.2 Making Decisions

With the `if()` construct, you can have statements in your program that are only run if certain conditions are `true`. This lets your program take different actions depending on the circumstances. For example, you can check that a user has entered valid information in a web form before letting her see sensitive data.

The `if()` construct runs a block of code if its test expression is `true`. This is demonstrated in [Example 3-1](#).

Example 3-1. Making a decision with `if()`

```
if ($logged_in) {  
    print "Welcome aboard, trusted user."  
}
```

The `if()` construct finds the truth value of the expression inside its parentheses (the *test expression*). If the expression evaluates to `true`, then the statements inside the curly braces after the `if()` are run. If the expression isn't `true`, then the program continues with the statements after the curly braces. In this case, the test expression is just the variable

`$logged_in`. If `$logged_in` is `true` (or has a value such as `5`, `-12.6`, or `Grass Carp`, that evaluates to `true`), then `Welcome aboard, trusted user.` is printed.

You can have as many statements as you want in the code block inside the curly braces. However, you need to terminate each of them with a semicolon. This is the same rule that applies to code outside an `if()` statement. You don't, however, need a semicolon after the closing curly brace that encloses the code block. You also don't put a semicolon after the opening curly brace. [Example 3-2](#) shows an `if()` clause that runs multiple statements when its test expression is `true`.

Example 3-2. Multiple statements in an `if()` code block

```
print "This is always printed.";  
if ($logged_in) {  
    print "Welcome aboard, trusted user.";  
    print 'This is only printed if $logged_in is true.';  
}  
print "This is also always printed.";
```

To run different statements when the `if()` test expression is `false`, add an `else` clause to your `if()` statement. This is shown in [Example 3-3](#).

Example 3-3. Using `else` with `if()`

```
if ($logged_in) {  
    print "Welcome aboard, trusted user.";  
} else {  
    print "Howdy, stranger.";  
}
```

In [Example 3-3](#), the first `print` statement is only executed when the `if()` test expression (the variable `$logged_in`) is `true`. The second `print` statement, inside the `else` clause, is only run when the test expression is `false`.

The `if()` and `else` constructs are extended further with the `elseif()` construct. You can pair one or more `elseif()` clauses with an `if()` to test multiple conditions separately. [Example 3-4](#) demonstrates `elseif()`.

Example 3-4. Using `elseif()`

```
if ($logged_in) {  
    // This runs if $logged_in is true  
    print "Welcome aboard, trusted user.";  
} elseif ($new_messages) {  
    // This runs if $logged_in is false but $new_messages is true  
    print "Dear stranger, there are new messages.";  
} elseif ($emergency) {  
    // This runs if $logged_in and $new_messages are false  
    // But $emergency is true  
    print "Stranger, there are no new messages, but there is an emergency.";  
}
```

If the test expression for the `if()` statement is `true`, the PHP interpreter executes the statements inside the code block after the `if()` and ignores the `elseif()` clauses and their code blocks. If the test expression for the `if()` statement is `false`, then the interpreter moves on to the first `elseif()` statement and applies the same logic. If that test expression is `true`, then it runs the code block for that `elseif()` statement. If it is `false`, then the interpreter moves on to the next `elseif()`.

For a given set of `if()` and `elseif()` statements, at most one of the code blocks is run: the code block of the first statement whose test expression is `true`. If the test expression of the `if()` statement is `true`, none of the `elseif()` code blocks are run, even if their test expressions are `true`. Once one of the `if()` or `elseif()` test expressions is `true`, the rest are ignored. If none of the test expressions in the `if()` and `elseif()` statements are `true`, then none of the code blocks are run.

You can use `else` with `elseif()` to include a code block that runs if none of the `if()` or `elseif()` test expressions are `true`. [Example 3-5](#) adds an `else` to the code in [Example 3-4](#).

Example 3-5. `elseif()` with `else`

```
if ($logged_in) {
    // This runs if $logged_in is true
    print "Welcome aboard, trusted user.";
} elseif ($new_messages) {
    // This runs if $logged_in is false but $new_messages is true
    print "Dear stranger, there are new messages.";
} elseif ($emergency) {
    // This runs if $logged_in and $new_messages are false
    // But $emergency is true
    print "Stranger, there are no new messages, but there is an emergency.";
} else {
    // This runs if $logged_in, $new_messages, and
    // $emergency are all false
    print "I don't know you, you have no messages, and there's no emergency.";
}
```

All of the code blocks we've used so far have been surrounded by curly braces. Strictly speaking, you don't need to put curly braces around code blocks that contain just one statement. If you leave them out, the code still executes correctly. However, reading the code can be confusing if you leave out the curly braces, so it's always a good idea to include them. The PHP interpreter doesn't care, but humans who read your programs (especially you, reviewing code a few months after you've originally written it) appreciate the clarity that the curly braces provide.

3.3 Building Complicated Decisions

The comparison and logical operators in PHP help you put together more complicated expressions on which an `if()` construct can decide. These operators let you compare values, negate values, and chain together multiple expressions inside one `if()` statement.

The equality operator is `=`. It returns `true` if the two values you test with it are equal. The values can be variables or literals. Some uses of the equality operator are shown in [Example 3-6](#).

Example 3-6. The equality operator

```
if ($new_messages == 10) {
    print "You have ten new messages.";
}

if ($new_messages == $max_messages) {
    print "You have the maximum number of messages.";
}

if ($dinner == 'Braised Scallops') {
    print "Yum! I love seafood.";
}
```

The opposite of the equality operator is `!=`. It returns `true` if the two values that you test with it are not equal. See [Example 3-7](#).

Assignment Versus Comparison

Be careful not to use `=` when you mean `= =`. A single equals sign assigns a value and returns the value assigned. Two equals signs test for equality and return `true` if the values are equal. If you leave off the second equals sign, you usually get an `if()` test that is always `true`, as in the following:

```
if ($new_messages = 12) {
    print "It seems you now have twelve new messages.";
}
```

Instead of testing whether `$new_messages` equals 12, the code shown here sets `$new_messages` to 12. This assignment returns 12, the value being assigned. The `if()` test expression is always `true`, no matter what the value of `$new_messages`. Additionally, the value of `$new_messages` is overwritten. One way to avoid using `=` instead of `= =` is to put the variable on the right side of the comparison and the literal on the left side, as in the following:

```
if (12 == $new_messages) {
    print "You have twelve new messages.";
}
```

The test expression above may look a little funny, but it gives you some insurance if you accidentally use `=` instead of `= =`. With one equals sign, the test expression is `12 = $new_messages`, which means "assign the value of `$new_messages` to 12." This doesn't make any sense: you can't change the value of 12. If the PHP interpreter sees this in your program, it reports a parse error and the program doesn't run. The parse error alerts you to the missing `=`. With the literal on the righthand side of the expression, the code is parseable by the interpreter, so it doesn't report an error.

Example 3-7. The not-equals operator

```
if ($new_messages != 10) {
    print "You don't have ten new messages.";
}

if ($dinner != 'Braised Scallops') {
    print "I guess we're out of scallops.";
}
```

With the less-than operator (<) and the greater-than operator (>), you can compare amounts. Similar to < and > are <= ("less than or equal to") and >= ("greater than or equal to"). [Example 3-8](#) shows how to use these operators.

Example 3-8. Less-than and greater-than

```
if ($age > 17) {
    print "You are old enough to download the movie.";
}

if ($age >= 65) {
    print "You are old enough for a discount.";
}

if ($celsius_temp <= 0) {
    print "Uh-oh, your pipes may freeze.";
}

if ($kelvin_temp < 20.3) {
    print "Your hydrogen is a liquid or a solid now.";
}
```

As mentioned in [Section 2.2](#), floating-point numbers are stored internally in such a way that they could be slightly different than their assigned value. For example, 50.0 could be stored internally as 50.00000002. To test whether two floating-point numbers are equal, check whether the two numbers differ by less than some acceptably small threshold instead of using the equality operator. For example, if you are comparing currency amounts, then an acceptable threshold would be 0.00001. [Example 3-9](#) demonstrates how to compare two floating point numbers.

Example 3-9. Comparing floating-point numbers

```
if(abs($price_1 - $price_2) < 0.00001) {
    print '$price_1 and $price_2 are equal.';
} else {
    print '$price_1 and $price_2 are not equal.';
}
```

The `abs()` function used in [Example 3-9](#) returns the absolute value of its argument. With `abs()`, the comparison works properly whether `$price_1` is larger than `$price_2` or `$price_2` is larger than `$price_1`.

The less-than and greater-than (and their "or equal to" partners) operators can be used with numbers or strings. Generally, strings are compared as if they were being looked up in a dictionary. A string that appears earlier in the dictionary is "less than" a string that appears later in the dictionary. Some examples of this are shown in [Example 3-10](#).

Example 3-10. Comparing strings

```

if ($word < 'baa') {
    print "Your word isn't cookie.";
}
if ($word >= 'zoo') {
    print "Your word could be zoo or zymurgy, but not zone.";
}

```

String comparison can produce unexpected results, however, if the strings contain numbers or start with numbers. When the PHP interpreter sees strings like this, it converts them to numbers for the comparison. [Example 3-11](#) shows this automatic conversion in action.

Example 3-11. Comparing numbers and strings

```

// These values are compared using dictionary order
if ("x54321"> "x5678") {
    print 'The string "x54321" is greater than the string "x5678".';
} else {
    print 'The string "x54321" is not greater than the string "x5678".';
}

// These values are compared using numeric order
if ("54321" > "5678") {
    print 'The string "54321" is greater than the string "5678".';
} else {
    print 'The string "54321" is not greater than the string "5678".';
}

// These values are compared using dictionary order
if ('6 pack' < '55 card stud') {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is less than than the string "55 card stud".';
} else {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is not less than the string "55 card stud".';
}

// These values are compared using numeric order
if ('6 pack' < 55) {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is less than the number 55.';
} else {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is not less than the number 55.';
}

```

The output of the four tests in [Example 3-11](#) is:

```

The string "x54321" is not greater than the string "x5678".
The string "54321" is greater than the string "5678".
The string "6 pack" is not less than the string "55 card stud".
The string "6 pack" is less than the number 55.

```

In the first test, because both of the strings start with a letter, they are treated as regular strings and compared using dictionary order. Their first two characters (x5) are the same, but the third character of the first word (4) is less than the third character of the second word (6),^[2] so the greater-than comparison returns `false`. In the second test, each string

consists entirely of numerals, so the strings are compared as numbers. The number 54,321 is larger than the number 5,678, so the greater-than comparison returns `true`. In the third test, because both strings consist of numerals and other characters, they are treated as strings and compared using dictionary order. The numeral 6 comes after 5 in the interpreter's dictionary, so the less-than test returns `false`. In the last test, the PHP interpreter converts the string `6 pack` to the number 6, and then compares it to the number 55 using numeric order. Since 6 is less than 55, the less-than test returns `true`.

^[2] The "dictionary" that the PHP interpreter uses for comparing strings are the ASCII codes for characters. This puts numerals before letters, and orders the numerals from 0 to 9. It also puts uppercase letters before lowercase letters.

If you want to ensure that the PHP interpreter compares strings using dictionary order without any converting to numbers behind the scenes, use the built-in function `strcmp()`. It always compares its arguments in dictionary order.

The `strcmp()` function takes two strings as arguments. It returns a positive number if the first string is greater than the second string or a negative number if the first string is less than the first string. "Greater than" and "less than" for `strcmp()` are defined by dictionary order. The function returns 0 if the strings are equal.

The same comparisons from [Example 3-11](#) are shown using `strcmp()` in [Example 3-12](#).

Example 3-12. Comparing strings with `strcmp()`

```
$x = strcmp("x54321","x5678");
if ($x > 0) {
    print 'The string "x54321" is greater than the string "x5678".';
} elseif ($x < 0) {
    print 'The string "x54321" is less than the string "x5678".';
}

$x = strcmp("54321","5678");
if ($x > 0) {
    print 'The string "54321" is greater than the string "5678".';
} elseif ($x < 0) {
    print 'The string "54321" is less than the string "5678".';
}

$x = strcmp('6 pack','55 card stud');
if ($x > 0) {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is greater than than the string "55 card stud".';
} elseif ($x < 0) {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is less than the string "55 card stud".';
}

$x = strcmp('6 pack',55);
if ($x > 0) {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is greater than the number 55.';
} elseif ($x < 0) {
    print 'The string "6 pack" is less than the number 55.';
}
```

The output from [Example 3-12](#) is as follows:

```
The string "x54321" is less than the string "x5678".
The string "54321" is less than the string "5678".
```

The string "6 pack" is greater than than the string "55 card stud".
The string "6 pack" is greater than the number 55.

Using `strcmp()` and dictionary order produces different results than [Example 3-11](#) for the second and fourth comparisons. In the second comparison, `strcmp()` computes that the string 54321 is less than 5678 because the second characters of the strings differ and 4 comes before 6. It doesn't matter to `strcmp()` that 5678 is shorter than 54321 or that it is numerically smaller. In dictionary order, 54321 comes before 5678. The fourth comparison turns out differently because `strcmp()` doesn't convert 6 pack to a number. Instead, it compares 6 pack and 55 as strings and computes that 6 pack is bigger because its first character, 6, comes later in the dictionary than the first character of 55.

To negate a truth value, use `!`. Putting `!` before an expression is like testing to see whether the expression equals `false`. The two `if()` statements in [Example 3-13](#) are equivalent.

Example 3-13. Using the negation operator

```
// The entire test expression ($finished == false)
// is true if $finished is false
if ($finished == false) {
    print 'Not done yet!';
}

// The entire test expression (! $finished)
// is true if $finished is false
if (! $finished) {
    print 'Not done yet!';
}
```

You can use the negation operator with any value. If the value is `true`, then the combination of it with the negation operator is `false`. If the value is `false`, then the combination of it with the negation operator is `true`. [Example 3-14](#) shows the negation operator at work with a call to `strcasecmp()`.

Example 3-14. Negation operator

```
if (! strcasecmp($first_name,$last_name)) {
    print '$first_name and $last_name are equal.';
}
```

In [Example 3-14](#), the statement in the `if()` code block is executed only when the entire test expression is `true`. When the two strings provided to `strcasecmp()` are equal (ignoring capitalization), `strcasecmp()` returns 0, which is `false`. The test expression is the negation operator applied to this `false` value. The negation of `false` is `true`. So, the entire test expression is `true` when two equal strings are given to `strcasecmp()`.

With logical operators, you can combine multiple expressions inside one `if()` statement. The logical AND operator, `&&`, tests whether one expression and another are both `true`. The logical OR operator, `||`, tests whether either one expression or another is `true`. These logical operators are used in [Example 3-15](#).

Example 3-15. Logical operators

```

if (($age >= 13) && ($age < 65)) {
    print "You are too old for a kid's discount and too young for the senior's discount.";
}

if (($meal == 'breakfast') || ($dessert == 'souffle')) {
    print "Time to eat some eggs.";
}

```

The first test expression in [Example 3-15](#) is `true` when both of its subexpressions are `true` — when `$age` is at least 13 but not more than 65. The second test expression is `true` when either of its subexpressions are `true` — when `$meal` is `breakfast` or `$dessert` is `souffle`.

The admonition about operator precedence and parentheses from [Chapter 2](#) holds true for logical operators in test expressions, too. To avoid ambiguity, surround with parentheses each subexpression inside a larger test expression.

3.4 Repeating Yourself

When a computer program does something repeatedly, it's called *looping*. This happens a lot — for example, when you want to retrieve a set of rows from a database, print rows of an HTML table, or print elements in an HTML `<select>` menu. The two looping constructs discussed in this section are `while()` and `for()`. Their specifics differ but they each require you to specify the two essential attributes of any loop: what code to execute repeatedly and when to stop. The code to execute is a code block just like what goes inside the curly braces after an `if()` construct. The condition for stopping the loop is a logical expression just like an `if()` construct's test expression.

The `while()` construct is like a repeating `if()`. You provide an expression to `while()`, just like to `if()`. If the expression is `true`, then a code block is executed. Unlike `if()`, however, `while()` checks the expression again after executing the code block. If it's still `true`, then the code block is executed again (and again, and again, as long as the expression is `true`.) Once the expression is `false`, program execution continues with the lines after the code block. As you have probably guessed, your code block should do something that changes the outcome of the test expression so that the loop doesn't go on forever.

[Example 3-16](#) uses `while()` to print out an HTML form `<select>` menu with 10 choices.

Example 3-16. Printing a `<select>` menu with `while()`

```

$i = 1;
print '<select name="people">';
while ($i <= 10) {
    print "<option>$i</option>\n";
    $i++;
}
print '</select>';

```

[Example 3-16](#) prints:

```

<select name="people"><option>1</option>
<option>2</option>

```

```
<option>3</option>
<option>4</option>
<option>5</option>
<option>6</option>
<option>7</option>
<option>8</option>
<option>9</option>
<option>10</option>
</select>
```

Before the `while()` loop runs, the code sets `$i` to 1 and prints the opening `<select>` tag. The test expression compares `$i` to 10. As long as `$i` is less than or equal to 10, the two statements in the code block are executed. The first prints out an `<option>` tag for the `<select>` menu, and the second increments `$i`. If you didn't increment `$i` inside the `while()` loop, [Example 3-16](#) would print out `<option>1</option>` forever.

After the code block prints `<option>10</option>`, the `$i++` line makes `$i` equal to 11. Then the test expression (`$i <= 10`) is evaluated. Since it's not `true` (11 is not less than or equal to 10), the program continues past the `while()` loop's code block and prints out the closing `</select>` tag.

The `for()` construct also provides a way for you to execute the same statements multiple times. [Example 3-17](#) uses `for()` to print out the same HTML form `<select>` menu as [Example 3-16](#).

Example 3-17. Printing a `<select>` menu with `for()`

```
print '<select name="people">';
for ($i = 1; $i <= 10; $i++) {
    print "<option>$i</option>";
}
print '</select>';
```

Using `for()` is a little more complicated than using `while()`. Instead of one test expression in parentheses, there are three expressions, separated with semicolons: the initialization expression, the test expression, and the iteration expression. Once you get the hang of it, however, `for()` is a more concise way to have a loop with easy-to-express initialization and iteration conditions.

The first expression in [Example 3-17](#) (`$i = 1`) is the *initialization expression*. It is evaluated once when the loop starts. This is where you put variable initializations or other setup code. The second expression in [Example 3-17](#) (`$i <= 10`) is the test expression. It is evaluated once each time through the loop, before the statements in the loop body. If it's `true`, then the loop body is executed (`print "<option>$i</option>";` in [Example 3-17](#)). The third expression in [Example 3-17](#) (`$i++`) is the *iteration expression*. It is run after each time the loop body is executed. In [Example 3-17](#), the sequence of statements goes like this:

1. Initialization expression: `$i = 1;`
2. Test expression: `$i <= 10` (true, `$i` is 1)
3. Code block: `print "<option>$i</option>";`
4. Iteration expression: `$i++;`
5. Test expression: `$i <= 10` (true, `$i` is 2)

6. Code block: `print "<option>$i</option>";`
7. Iteration expression: `$i++;`
8. (Loop continues with incrementing values of `$i`)
9. Test expression: `$i <= 10` (true, `$i` is 9)
10. Code block: `print "<option>$i</option>";`
11. Iteration expression: `$i++;`
12. Test expression: `$i <= 10` (true, `$i` is 10)
13. Code block: `print "<option>$i</option>";`
14. Iteration expression: `$i++;`
15. Test expression: `$i <= 10` (false, `$i` is 11)

You can combine multiple expressions in the initialization expression and the iteration expression of a `for()` loop by separating each of the individual expressions with a comma. This is usually done when you want to change more than one variable as the loop progresses. [Example 3-18](#) applies this to the variables `$min` and `$max`.

Example 3-18. Multiple expressions in `for()`

```
print '<select name="doughnuts">';
for ($min = 1, $max = 10; $min < 50; $min += 10, $max += 10) {
    print "<option>$min - $max</option>\n";
}
print '</select>';
```

Each time through the loop, `$min` and `$max` are each incremented by 10. [Example 3-18](#) prints:

```
<select name="doughnuts"><option>1 - 10</option>
<option>11 - 20</option>
<option>21 - 30</option>
<option>31 - 40</option>
<option>41 - 50</option>
</select>
```

3.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 covers:

- Evaluating an expression's truth value: `true` or `false`.
- Making a decision with `if()`.
- Extending `if()` with `else`.
- Extending `if()` with `elseif()`.
- Putting multiple statements inside an `if()`, `elseif()`, or `else` code block.
- Using the equality (`= =`) and not-equals (`!=`) operators in test expressions.
- Distinguishing between assignment (`=`) and equality comparison (`= =`).
- Using the less-than (`<`), greater-than (`>`), less-than-or-equal-to (`<=`), and greater-than-or-equal-to (`>=`) operators in test expressions.
- Comparing two floating-point numbers with `abs()`.
- Comparing two strings with operators.

- Comparing two strings with `strcmp()` or `strcasecmp()`.
- Using the negation operator (!) in test expressions.
- Using the logical operators (&& and ||) to build more complicated test expressions.
- Repeating a code block with `while()`.
- Repeating a code block with `for()`.

3.6 Exercises

1. Without using a PHP program to evaluate them, determine whether each of these expressions is `true` or `false`:
 - a. `100.00 - 100`
 - b. `"zero"`
 - c. `"false"`
 - d. `0 + "true"`
 - e. `0.000`
 - f. `"0.0"`
 - g. `strcmp("false","False")`
2. Without running it through the PHP interpreter, figure out what this program prints.
3. `$age = 12;`
4. `$shoe_size = 13;`
5. `if ($age > $shoe_size) {`
6. `print "Message 1.";`
7. `} elseif (($shoe_size++) && ($age > 20)) {`
8. `print "Message 2.";`
9. `} else {`
10. `print "Message 3.";`
11. `}`
- `print "Age: $age. Shoe Size: $shoe_size";`
12. Use `while()` to print out a table of Fahrenheit and Celsius temperature equivalents from -50 degrees F to 50 degrees F in 5-degree increments. On the Fahrenheit temperature scale, water freezes at 32 degrees and boils at 212 degrees. On the Celsius scale, water freezes at 0 degrees and boils at 100 degrees. So, to convert from Fahrenheit to Celsius, you subtract 32 from the temperature, multiply by 5, and divide by 9. To convert from Celsius to Fahrenheit, you multiply by 9, divide by 5, and then add 32.
13. Modify your answer to Exercise 3 to use `for()` instead of `while()`.

Chapter 4. Working with Arrays

Arrays are collections of related values, such as the data submitted from a form, the names of students in a class, or the populations of a list of cities. In [Chapter 2](#), you learned that a variable is a named container that holds a value. An array is a container that holds multiple values, each distinct from the rest.

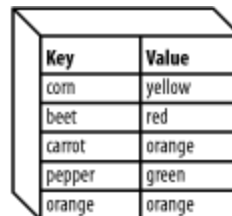
This chapter shows you how to work with arrays. [Section 4.1](#), next, goes over fundamentals such as how to create arrays and manipulate their elements. Frequently, you'll want to do something with each element in an array, such as print it or inspect it for certain conditions. [Section 4.2](#) explains how to do these things with the `foreach()` and `for()` constructs. [Section 4.3](#) introduces the `implode()` and `explode()` functions, which turn arrays into strings and strings into arrays. Another kind of array modification is sorting, which is discussed in [Section 4.4](#). Last, [Section 4.5](#) explores arrays that themselves contain other arrays.

[Chapter 6](#) shows you how to process form data, which the PHP interpreter automatically puts into an array for you. When you retrieve information from a database as described in [Chapter 7](#), that data is often packaged into an array.

4.1 Array Basics

An array is made up of *elements*. Each element has a *key* and a *value*. An array holding information about the colors of vegetables has vegetable names for keys and colors for values, shown in [Figure 4-1](#).

Figure 4-1. Keys and values



Key	Value
corn	yellow
beet	red
carrot	orange
pepper	green
orange	orange

An array can only have one element with a given key. In the vegetable color array, there can't be another element with the key `corn` even if its value is `blue`. However, the same value can appear many times in one array. You can have orange carrots, orange tangerines, and orange oranges.

Any string or number value can be an array element key such as `corn`, `4`, `-36`, or `Salt Baked Squid`. Arrays and other nonscalar^[1] values can't be keys, but they can be element values. An element value can be a string, a number, `true`, or `false`; it can also be another array.

^[1] *Scalar* describes data that has a single value: a number, a piece of text, true, or false. Complex data types such as arrays, which hold multiple values, are not scalars.

4.1.1 Creating an Array

To create an array, assign a value to a particular array key. Array keys are denoted with square brackets, as shown in [Example 4-1](#).

Example 4-1. Creating arrays

```
// An array called $vegetables with string keys
$vegetables['corn'] = 'yellow';
$vegetables['beet'] = 'red';
$vegetables['carrot'] = 'orange';

// An array called $dinner with numeric keys
$dinner[0] = 'Sweet Corn and Asparagus';
$dinner[1] = 'Lemon Chicken';
$dinner[2] = 'Braised Bamboo Fungus';

// An array called $computers with numeric and string keys
$computers['trs-80'] = 'Radio Shack';
$computers[2600] = 'Atari';
$computers['Adam'] = 'Coleco';
```

The array keys and values in [Example 4-1](#) are strings (such as `corn`, `Braised Bamboo Fungus`, and `Coleco`) and numbers (such as `0`, `1`, and `2600`). They are written just like other strings and numbers in PHP programs: with quotes around the strings but not around the numbers.

You can also create an array using the `array()` language construct. [Example 4-2](#) creates the same arrays as [Example 4-1](#).

Example 4-2. Creating arrays with `array()`

```
$vegetables = array('corn' => 'yellow',
                   'beet' => 'red',
                   'carrot' => 'orange');

$dinner = array(0 => 'Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               1 => 'Lemon Chicken',
               2 => 'Braised Bamboo Fungus');

$computers = array('trs-80' => 'Radio Shack',
                  2600 => 'Atari',
                  'Adam' => 'Coleco');
```

With `array()`, you specify a comma-delimited list of key/value pairs. The key and the value are separated by `=>`. The `array()` syntax is more concise when you are adding more than one element to an array at a time. The square bracket syntax is better when you are adding elements one by one.

4.1.2 Choosing a Good Array Name

Array names follow the same rules as variable names. The first character of an array name must be a letter or number, and the rest of the characters of the name must be letters, numbers, or the underscore. Names for arrays and scalar variables come from the same pool of possible names, so you can't have an array called `$vegetables` and a scalar called `$vegetables` at the same time. If you assign an array value to a scalar or vice versa, then the old value is wiped out and the variable silently becomes the new type. In [Example 4-3](#), `$vegetables` becomes a scalar, and `$fruits` becomes an array.

Example 4-3. Array and scalar collision


```
// This makes $vegetables an array
$vegetables['corn'] = 'yellow';

// This removes any trace of "corn" and "yellow" and makes $vegetables a scalar
$vegetables = 'delicious';

// This makes $fruits a scalar
$fruits = 283;

// This makes $fruits an array and deletes its previous scalar value
$fruits['potassium'] = 'banana';
```

In [Example 4-1](#), the `$vegetables` and `$computers` arrays store a list of relationships. The `$vegetables` array relates vegetables and colors, while the `$computers` array relates computer names and manufacturers. In the `$dinner` array, however, we just care about the names of dishes that are the array values. The array keys are just numbers that distinguish one element from another.

4.1.3 Creating a Numeric Array

PHP provides some shortcuts for working with arrays that have only numbers as keys. If you create an array with `array()` by specifying only a list of values instead of key/value pairs, the PHP interpreter automatically assigns a numeric key to each value. The keys start at 0 and increase by 1 for each element. [Example 4-4](#) uses this technique to create the `$dinner` array.

Example 4-4. Creating numeric arrays with `array()`

```
$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');
print "I want $dinner[0] and $dinner[1].";
```

[Example 4-4](#) prints:

```
I want Sweet Corn and Asparagus and Lemon Chicken.
```

Internally, the PHP interpreter treats arrays with numeric keys and arrays with string keys (and arrays with a mix of numeric and string keys) identically. Because of the resemblance to features in other programming languages, programmers often refer to arrays with only numeric keys as "numeric," "indexed," or "ordered" arrays, and to string-keyed arrays as "associative" arrays. An *associative array*, in other words, is one whose keys signify something other than the positions of the values within the array.

PHP automatically uses incrementing numbers for array keys when you create an array or add elements to an array with the empty brackets syntax shown in [Example 4-5](#).

Example 4-5. Adding elements with `[]`

```
// Create $lunch array with two elements
// This sets $lunch[0]
```

```

$lunch[] = 'Dried Mushrooms in Brown Sauce';
// This sets $lunch[1]
$lunch[] = 'Pineapple and Yu Fungus';

// Create $dinner with three elements
$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus', 'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');
// Add an element to the end of $dinner
// This sets $dinner[3]
$dinner[] = 'Flank Skin with Spiced Flavor';

```

The empty brackets add an element to the array. The element has a numeric key that's one more than the biggest numeric key already in the array. If the array doesn't exist yet, the empty brackets add an element with a key of 0.



Making the first element have key 0, not key 1, is the exact opposite of how normal humans (in contrast to computer programmers) think, so it bears repeating. The first element of an array with numeric keys is element 0, not element 1.

4.1.4 Finding the Size of an Array

The `count()` function tells you the number of elements in an array. [Example 4-6](#) demonstrates `count()`.

Example 4-6. Finding the size of an array

```

$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');

$dishes = count($dinner);

print "There are $dishes things for dinner.";

```

[Example 4-6](#) prints:

```
There are 3 things for dinner.
```

When you pass it an empty array (that is, an array with no elements in it), `count()` returns 0. An empty array also evaluates to `false` in an `if()` test expression.

4.2 Looping Through Arrays

One of the most common things to do with an array is to consider each element in the array individually and process it somehow. This may involve incorporating it into a row of an HTML table or adding its value to a running total.

The easiest way to iterate through each element of an array is with `foreach()`. The `foreach()` construct lets you run a code block once for each element in an array. [Example 4-7](#) uses `foreach()` to print an HTML table containing each element in an array.

Example 4-7. Looping with `foreach()`

```
$meal = array('breakfast' => 'Walnut Bun',
             'lunch' => 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms',
             'snack' => 'Dried Mulberries',
             'dinner' => 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce');
print "<table>\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "<tr><td>$key</td><td>$value</td></tr>\n";
}
print '</table>';
```

[Example 4-7](#) prints:

```
<table>
<tr><td>breakfast</td><td>Walnut Bun</td></tr>
<tr><td>lunch</td><td>Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms</td></tr>
<tr><td>snack</td><td>Dried Mulberries</td></tr>
<tr><td>dinner</td><td>Eggplant with Chili Sauce</td></tr>
</table>
```

For each element in `$meal`, `foreach()` copies the key of the element into `$key` and the value into `$value`. Then, it runs the code inside the curly braces. In [Example 4-7](#), that code prints `$key` and `$value` with some HTML to make a table row. You can use whatever variable names you want for the key and value inside the code block. If the variable names were in use before the `foreach()`, though, they're overwritten with values from the array.

When you're using `foreach()` to print out data in an HTML table, often you want to apply alternating colors or styles to each table row. This is easy to do when you store the alternating color values in a separate array. Then, switch a variable between 0 and 1 each time through the `foreach()` to print the appropriate color. [Example 4-8](#) alternates between the two color values in its `$row_color` array.

Example 4-8. Alternating table row colors

```
$row_color = array('red', 'green');
$color_index = 0;
$meal = array('breakfast' => 'Walnut Bun',
             'lunch' => 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms',
             'snack' => 'Dried Mulberries',
             'dinner' => 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce');
print "<table>\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print '<tr bgcolor="' . $row_color[$color_index] . '">';
    print "<td>$key</td><td>$value</td></tr>\n";
    // This switches $color_index between 0 and 1
    $color_index = 1 - $color_index;
}
print '</table>';
```

[Example 4-8](#) prints:

```
<table>
<tr bgcolor="red"><td>breakfast</td><td>Walnut Bun</td></tr>
<tr bgcolor="green"><td>lunch</td><td>Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms</td></tr>
<tr bgcolor="red"><td>snack</td><td>Dried Mulberries</td></tr>
<tr bgcolor="green"><td>dinner</td><td>Eggplant with Chili Sauce</td></tr>
</table>
```

Inside the `foreach()` code block, changing the loop variables like `$key` and `$value` doesn't affect the actual array. If you want to change the array, use the `$key` variable as an index into the array. [Example 4-9](#) uses this technique to double each element in the array.

Example 4-9. Modifying an array with `foreach()`

```
$meals = array('Walnut Bun' => 1,
              'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms' => 4.95,
              'Dried Mulberries' => 3.00,
              'Eggplant with Chili Sauce' => 6.50);

foreach ($meals as $dish => $price) {
    // $price = $price * 2 does NOT work
    $meals[$dish] = $meals[$dish] * 2;
}

// Iterate over the array again and print the changed values
foreach ($meals as $dish => $price) {
    printf("The new price of %s is \$.2f.\n", $dish, $price);
}
```

[Example 4-9](#) prints:

```
The new price of Walnut Bun is $2.00.
The new price of Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms is $9.90.
The new price of Dried Mulberries is $6.00.
The new price of Eggplant with Chili Sauce is $13.00.
```

There's a more concise form of `foreach()` for use with numeric arrays, shown in [Example 4-10](#).

Example 4-10. Using `foreach()` with numeric arrays

```
$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');
foreach ($dinner as $dish) {
    print "You can eat: $dish\n";
}
```

[Example 4-10](#) prints:

```
You can eat: Sweet Corn and Asparagus
You can eat: Lemon Chicken
You can eat: Braised Bamboo Fungus
```

With this form of `foreach()`, just specify one variable name after `as`, and each element value is copied into that variable inside the code block. However, you can't access element keys inside the code block.

To keep track of your position in the array with `foreach()`, you have to use a separate variable that you increment each time the `foreach()` code block runs. With `for()`, you get the position explicitly in your loop variable. The `foreach()` loop gives you the value of each array element, but the `for()` loop gives you the position of each array element. There's no loop structure that gives you both at once.

So, if you want to know what element you're on as you're iterating through a numeric array, use `for()` instead of `foreach()`. Your `for()` loop should depend on a loop variable that starts at 0 and continues up to one less than the number of elements in the array. This is shown in [Example 4-11](#).

Example 4-11. Iterating through a numeric array with `for()`

```
$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');
for ($i = 0, $num_dishes = count($dinner); $i < $num_dishes; $i++) {
    print "Dish number $i is $dinner[$i]\n";
}
```

[Example 4-11](#) prints:

```
Dish number 0 is Sweet Corn and Asparagus
Dish number 1 is Lemon Chicken
Dish number 2 is Braised Bamboo Fungus
```

When iterating through an array with `for()`, you have a running counter available of which array element you're on. Use this counter with the modulus operator to alternate table row colors, as shown in [Example 4-12](#).

Example 4-12. Alternating table row colors with `for()`

```
$row_color = array('red', 'green');
$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');
print "<table>\n";

for ($i = 0, $num_dishes = count($dinner); $i < $num_dishes; $i++) {
    print '<tr bgcolor="' . $row_color[$i % 2] . '">';
    print "<td>Element $i</td><td>$dinner[$i]</td></tr>\n";
}
print '</table>';
```

[Example 4-12](#) computes the correct table row color with `$\$i \% 2$` . This value alternates between 0 and 1 as `$\$i$` alternates between even and odd. There's no need to use a separate variable, such as `$\$color_index$` in [Example 4-8](#), to hold the appropriate row color. [Example 4-12](#) prints:

```
<table>
<tr bgcolor="red"><td>Element 0</td><td>Sweet Corn and Asparagus</td></tr>
<tr bgcolor="green"><td>Element 1</td><td>Lemon Chicken</td></tr>
<tr bgcolor="red"><td>Element 2</td><td>Braised Bamboo Fungus</td></tr>
</table>
```

When you iterate through an array using `foreach()`, the elements are accessed in the order that they were added to the array. The first element added is accessed first, the second element added is accessed next, and so on. If you have a numeric array whose elements were added in a different order than how their keys would usually be ordered, this could produce unexpected results. [Example 4-13](#) doesn't print out array elements in numeric or alphabetic order.

Example 4-13. Array element order and `foreach()`

```
 $\$letters[0] = 'A';$ 
 $\$letters[1] = 'B';$ 
 $\$letters[3] = 'D';$ 
 $\$letters[2] = 'C';$ 

foreach ( $\$letters$  as  $\$letter$ ) {
    print  $\$letter$ ;
}
```

[Example 4-13](#) prints:

```
ABDC
```

To guarantee that elements are accessed in numerical key order, use `for()` to iterate through the loop:

```
for ( $\$i = 0$ ,  $\$num\_letters = count(\$letters)$ ;  $\$i < \$num\_letters$ ;  $\$i++$ ) {
    print  $\$letters[\$i]$ ;
}
```

This prints:

```
ABCD
```

If you're looking for a specific element in an array, you don't need to iterate through the entire array to find it. There are more efficient ways to locate a particular element. To check for an element with a certain key, use `array_key_exists()`, shown in [Example 4-14](#). This function returns `true` if an element with the provided key exists in the provided array.

Example 4-14. Checking for an element with a particular key

```
$meals = array('Walnut Bun' => 1,
              'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms' => 4.95,
              'Dried Mulberries' => 3.00,
              'Eggplant with Chili Sauce' => 6.50,
              'Shrimp Puffs' => 0); // Shrimp Puffs are free!
$books = array("The Eater's Guide to Chinese Characters",
              'How to Cook and Eat in Chinese');

// This is true
if (array_key_exists('Shrimp Puffs',$meals)) {
    print "Yes, we have Shrimp Puffs";
}
// This is false
if (array_key_exists('Steak Sandwich',$meals)) {
    print "We have a Steak Sandwich";
}
// This is true
if (array_key_exists(1, $books)) {
    print "Element 1 is How to Cook in Eat in Chinese";
}
```

To check for an element with a particular value, use `in_array()`, as shown in [Example 4-15](#).

Example 4-15. Checking for an element with a particular value

```
$meals = array('Walnut Bun' => 1,
              'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms' => 4.95,
              'Dried Mulberries' => 3.00,
              'Eggplant with Chili Sauce' => 6.50,
              'Shrimp Puffs' => 0);
$books = array("The Eater's Guide to Chinese Characters",
              'How to Cook and Eat in Chinese');

// This is true: key Dried Mulberries has value 3.00
if (in_array(3, $meals)) {
    print 'There is a $3 item.';
}
// This is true
if (in_array('How to Cook and Eat in Chinese', $books)) {
    print "We have How to Cook and Eat in Chinese";
}
// This is false: in_array( ) is case-sensitive
if (in_array("the eater's guide to chinese characters", $books)) {
    print "We have the Eater's Guide to Chinese Characters.";
}
```

The `in_array()` function returns `true` if it finds an element with the given value. It is case-sensitive when it compares strings. The `array_search()` function is similar to `in_array()`, but if it finds an element, it returns the element key instead of `true`. In [Example 4-16](#), `array_search()` returns the name of the dish that costs \$6.50.

Example 4-16. Finding an element with a particular value

```

$meals = array('Walnut Bun' => 1,
              'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms' => 4.95,
              'Dried Mulberries' => 3.00,
              'Eggplant with Chili Sauce' => 6.50,
              'Shrimp Puffs' => 0);

$dish = array_search(6.50, $meals);
if ($dish) {
    print "$dish costs \$6.50";
}

```

[Example 4-16](#) prints:

```
Eggplant with Chili Sauce costs $6.50
```

4.3 Modifying Arrays

You can operate on individual array elements just like regular scalar variables, using arithmetic, logical, and other operators. [Example 4-17](#) shows some operations on array elements.

Example 4-17. Operating on array elements

```

$dishes['Beef Chow Foon'] = 12;
$dishes['Beef Chow Foon']++;
$dishes['Roast Duck'] = 3;

$dishes['total'] = $dishes['Beef Chow Foon'] + $dishes['Roast Duck'];

if ($dishes['total'] > 15) {
    print "You ate a lot: ";
}

print 'You ate ' . $dishes['Beef Chow Foon'] . ' dishes of Beef Chow Foon.';

```

[Example 4-17](#) prints:

```
You ate a lot: You ate 13 dishes of Beef Chow Foon.
```

Interpolating array element values in double-quoted strings or here documents is similar to interpolating numbers or strings. The easiest way is to include the array element in the string, but don't put quotes around the element key. This is shown in [Example 4-18](#).

Example 4-18. Interpolating array element values in double-quoted strings

```

$meals['breakfast'] = 'Walnut Bun';
$meals['lunch'] = 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce';
$amounts = array(3, 6);

print "For breakfast, I'd like $meals[breakfast] and for lunch, ";
print "I'd like $meals[lunch]. I want $amounts[0] at breakfast and ";

```



```
print "$amounts[1] at lunch.";
```

[Example 4-18](#) prints:

```
For breakfast, I'd like Walnut Bun and for lunch,  
I'd like Eggplant with Chili Sauce. I want 3 at breakfast and  
6 at lunch.
```

The interpolation in [Example 4-18](#) works only with array keys that consist exclusively of letters, numbers, and underscores. If you have an array key that has whitespace or other punctuation in it, interpolate it with curly braces, as demonstrated in [Example 4-19](#).

Example 4-19. Interpolating array element values with curly braces

```
$meals['Walnut Bun'] = '$3.95';  
$hosts['www.example.com'] = 'web site';  
  
print "A Walnut Bun costs {$meals['Walnut Bun']}.";  
print "www.example.com is a {$hosts['www.example.com']}.";
```

[Example 4-19](#) prints:

```
A Walnut Bun costs $3.95.  
www.example.com is a web site.
```

In a double-quoted string or here document, an expression inside curly braces is evaluated and then its value is put into the string. In [Example 4-19](#), the expressions used are lone array elements, so the element values are interpolated into the strings.

To remove an element from an array, use `unset()`:

```
unset($dishes['Roast Duck']);
```

Removing an element with `unset()` is different than just setting the element value to `0` or the empty string. When you use `unset()`, the element is no longer there when you iterate through the array or count the number of elements in the array. Using `unset()` on an array that represents a store's inventory is like saying that the store no longer carries a product. Setting the element's value to `0` or the empty string says that the item is temporarily out of stock.

When you want to print all of the values in an array at once, the quickest way is to use the `implode()` function. It makes a string by combining all the values in an array and separating them with a string delimiter. [Example 4-20](#) prints a comma-separated list of dim sum choices.

Example 4-20. Making a string from an array with `implode()`

```
$dimsum = array('Chicken Bun', 'Stuffed Duck Web', 'Turnip Cake');
```

```
$menu = implode(', ', $dimsum);
print $menu;
```

[Example 4-20](#) prints:

```
Chicken Bun, Stuffed Duck Web, Turnip Cake
```

To implode an array with no delimiter, use the empty string as the first argument to `implode()`:

```
$letters = array('A','B','C','D');
print implode('',$letters);
```

This prints:

```
ABCD
```

Use `implode()` to simplify printing HTML table rows, as shown in [Example 4-21](#).

Example 4-21. Printing HTML table rows with `implode()`

```
$dimsum = array('Chicken Bun','Stuffed Duck Web','Turnip Cake');
print '<tr><td>' . implode('</td><td>',$dimsum) . '</td></tr>';
```

[Example 4-21](#) prints:

```
<tr><td>Chicken Bun</td><td>Stuffed Duck Web</td><td>Turnip Cake</td></tr>
```

The `implode()` function puts its delimiter between each value, so to make a complete table row, you also have to print the opening tags that go before the first element and the closing tags that go after the last element.

The counterpart to `implode()` is called `explode()`. It breaks a string apart into an array. The delimiter argument to `explode()` is the string it should look for to separate array elements. [Example 4-22](#) demonstrates `explode()`.

Example 4-22. Turning a string into an array with `explode()`

```
$fish = 'Bass, Carp, Pike, Flounder';
$fish_list = explode(', ', $fish);
print "The second fish is $fish_list[1]";
```

[Example 4-22](#) prints:

```
The second fish is Carp
```

4.4 Sorting Arrays

There are several ways to sort arrays. Which function to use depends on how you want to sort your array and what kind of array it is.

The `sort()` function sorts an array by its element values. It should only be used on numeric arrays, because it resets the keys of the array when it sorts. [Example 4-23](#) shows some arrays before and after sorting.

Example 4-23. Sorting with `sort()`

```
$dinner = array('Sweet Corn and Asparagus',
               'Lemon Chicken',
               'Braised Bamboo Fungus');
$meal = array('breakfast' => 'Walnut Bun',
             'lunch' => 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms',
             'snack' => 'Dried Mulberries',
             'dinner' => 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce');

print "Before Sorting:\n";
foreach ($dinner as $key => $value) {
    print " \${dinner}: $key $value\n";
}
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print " \${meal}: $key $value\n";
}

sort($dinner);
sort($meal);

print "After Sorting:\n";
foreach ($dinner as $key => $value) {
    print " \${dinner}: $key $value\n";
}
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print " \${meal}: $key $value\n";
}
```

[Example 4-23](#) prints:

Before Sorting:

```
$dinner: 0 Sweet Corn and Asparagus
$dinner: 1 Lemon Chicken
$dinner: 2 Braised Bamboo Fungus
$meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
$meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
$meal: snack Dried Mulberries
$meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
```

After Sorting:

```
$dinner: 0 Braised Bamboo Fungus
$dinner: 1 Lemon Chicken
$dinner: 2 Sweet Corn and Asparagus
$meal: 0 Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
$meal: 1 Dried Mulberries
```

```
$meal: 2 Eggplant with Chili Sauce
$meal: 3 Walnut Bun
```

Both arrays have been rearranged in ascending order by element value. The first value in `$dinner` is now `Braised Bamboo Fungus`, and the first value in `$meal` is `Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms`. The keys in `$dinner` haven't changed because it was a numeric array before we sorted it. The keys in `$meal`, however, have been replaced by numbers from 0 to 3.

To sort an associative array by element value, use `asort()`. This keeps keys together with their values. [Example 4-24](#) shows the `$meal` array from [Example 4-23](#) sorted with `asort()`.

Example 4-24. Sorting with `asort()`

```
$meal = array('breakfast' => 'Walnut Bun',
             'lunch' => 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms',
             'snack' => 'Dried Mulberries',
             'dinner' => 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce');

print "Before Sorting:\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "    \$meal: $key $value\n";
}

asort($meal);

print "After Sorting:\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "    \$meal: $key $value\n";
}
```

[Example 4-24](#) prints:

```
Before Sorting:
$meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
$meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
$meal: snack Dried Mulberries
$meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
After Sorting:
$meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
$meal: snack Dried Mulberries
$meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
$meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
```

The values are sorted in the same way with `asort()` as with `sort()`, but this time, the keys stick around.

While `sort()` and `asort()` sort arrays by element value, you can also sort arrays by key with `ksort()`. This keeps key/value pairs together, but orders them by key. [Example 4-25](#) shows `$meal` sorted with `ksort()`.

Example 4-25. Sorting with `ksort()`

```
$meal = array('breakfast' => 'Walnut Bun',
```

```

        'lunch' => 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms',
        'snack' => 'Dried Mulberries',
        'dinner' => 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce');

print "Before Sorting:\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "    \$meal: $key $value\n";
}

ksort($meal);

print "After Sorting:\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "    \$meal: $key $value\n";
}

```

Example 4-25 prints:

```

Before Sorting:
$meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
$meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
$meal: snack Dried Mulberries
$meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
After Sorting:
$meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
$meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
$meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
$meal: snack Dried Mulberries

```

The array is reordered so the keys are now in ascending alphabetical order. Each element is unchanged, so the value that went with each key before the sorting is the same as each key value after the sorting. If you sort a numeric array with `ksort()`, then the elements are ordered so the keys are in ascending numeric order. This is the same order you start out with when you create a numeric array using `array()` or `[]`.

The array sorting functions `sort()`, `asort()`, and `ksort()` have counterparts that sort in descending order. The reverse-sorting functions are named `rsort()`, `arsort()`, and `krsort()`. They work exactly as `sort()`, `asort()`, and `ksort()` except they sort the arrays so the largest (or alphabetically last) key or value is first in the sorted array, and so subsequent elements are arranged in descending order. [Example 4-26](#) shows `arsort()` in action.

Example 4-26. Sorting with `arsort()`

```

$meal = array('breakfast' => 'Walnut Bun',
             'lunch' => 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms',
             'snack' => 'Dried Mulberries',
             'dinner' => 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce');

print "Before Sorting:\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "    \$meal: $key $value\n";
}

```

```

arsort($meal);

print "After Sorting:\n";
foreach ($meal as $key => $value) {
    print "    \ $meal: $key $value\n";
}

```

[Example 4-26](#) prints:

```

Before Sorting:
 $meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
 $meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms
 $meal: snack Dried Mulberries
 $meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
After Sorting:
 $meal: breakfast Walnut Bun
 $meal: dinner Eggplant with Chili Sauce
 $meal: snack Dried Mulberries
 $meal: lunch Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms

```

4.5 Using Multidimensional Arrays

As mentioned earlier in [Section 4.1](#), the value of an array element can be another array. This is useful when you want to store data that has a more complicated structure than just a key and a single value. A standard key/value pair is fine for matching up a meal name (such as `breakfast` or `lunch`) with a single dish (such as `Walnut Bun` or `Chicken withCashew Nuts`), but what about when each meal consists of more than one dish? Then, element values should be arrays, not strings.

Use the `array()` construct to create arrays that have more arrays as element values, as shown in [Example 4-27](#).

Example 4-27. Creating multidimensional arrays with `array()`

```

$meals = array('breakfast' => array('Walnut Bun','Coffee'),
              'lunch'      => array('Cashew Nuts', 'White Mushrooms'),
              'snack'     => array('Dried Mulberries','Salted Sesame Crab'));

$lunches = array( array('Chicken','Eggplant','Rice'),
                  array('Beef','Scallions','Noodles'),
                  array('Eggplant','Tofu'));

$flavors = array('Japanese' => array('hot' => 'wasabi',
                                     'salty' => 'soy sauce'),
                 'Chinese'  => array('hot' => 'mustard',
                                     'pepper-salty' => 'prickly ash'));

```

Access elements in these arrays of arrays by using more sets of square brackets to identify elements. Each set of square brackets goes one level into the entire array. [Example 4-28](#) demonstrates how to access elements of the arrays defined in [Example 4-27](#).

Example 4-28. Accessing multidimensional array elements

```

print $meals['lunch'][1];           // White Mushrooms

```

```

print $meals['snack'][0];           // Dried Mulberries
print $lunches[0][0];             // Chicken
print $lunches[2][1];             // Tofu
print $flavors['Japanese']['salty'] // soy sauce
print $flavors['Chinese']['hot'];  // mustard

```

Each level of an array is called a *dimension*. Before this section, all the arrays in this chapter are *one-dimensional arrays*. They each have one level of keys. Arrays such as `$meals`, `$lunches`, and `$flavors`, shown in [Example 4-28](#), are called *multidimensional arrays* because they each have more than one dimension.

You can also create or modify multidimensional arrays with the square bracket syntax. [Example 4-29](#) shows some multidimensional array manipulation.

Example 4-29. Manipulating multidimensional arrays

```

$prices['dinner']['Sweet Corn and Asparagus'] = 12.50;
$prices['lunch']['Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms'] = 4.95;
$prices['dinner']['Braised Bamboo Fungus'] = 8.95;

$prices['dinner']['total'] = $prices['dinner']['Sweet Corn and Asparagus'] +
    $prices['dinner']['Braised Bamboo Fungus'];

$specials[0][0] = 'Chestnut Bun';
$specials[0][1] = 'Walnut Bun';
$specials[0][2] = 'Peanut Bun';
$specials[1][0] = 'Chestnut Salad';
$specials[1][1] = 'Walnut Salad';
// Leaving out the index adds it to the end of the array
// This creates $specials[1][2]
$specials[1][] = 'Peanut Salad';

```

To iterate through each dimension of a multidimensional array, use nested `foreach()` or `for()` loops. [Example 4-30](#) uses `foreach()` to iterate through a multidimensional associative array.

Example 4-30. Iterating through a multidimensional array with foreach()

```

$flavors = array('Japanese' => array('hot' => 'wasabi',
    'salty' => 'soy sauce'),
    'Chinese' => array('hot' => 'mustard',
    'pepper-salty' => 'prickly ash'));

// $culture is the key and $culture_flavors is the value (an array)
foreach ($flavors as $culture => $culture_flavors) {

    // $flavor is the key and $example is the value
    foreach ($culture_flavors as $flavor => $example) {
        print "A $culture $flavor flavor is $example.\n";
    }
}

```

[Example 4-30](#) prints:

```
A Japanese hot flavor is wasabi.
A Japanese salty flavor is soy sauce.
A Chinese hot flavor is mustard.
A Chinese pepper-salty flavor is prickly ash.
```

The first `foreach()` loop in [Example 4-30](#) iterates through the first dimension of `$flavors`. The keys stored in `$culture` are the strings `Japanese` and `Chinese`, and the values stored in `$culture_flavors` are the arrays that are the element values of this dimension. The next `foreach()` iterates over those element value arrays, copying keys such as `hot` and `salty` into `$flavor` and values such as `wasabi` and `soy sauce` into `$example`. The code block of the second `foreach()` uses variables from both `foreach()` statements to print out a complete message.

Just like nested `foreach()` loops iterate through a multidimensional associative array, nested `for()` loops iterate through a multidimensional numeric array, as shown in [Example 4-31](#).

Example 4-31. Iterating through a multidimensional array with `for()`

```
$specials = array( array('Chestnut Bun', 'Walnut Bun', 'Peanut Bun'),
                  array('Chestnut Salad', 'Walnut Salad', 'Peanut Salad') );

// $num_specials is 2: the number of elements in the first dimension of $specials
for ($i = 0, $num_specials = count($specials); $i < $num_specials; $i++) {
    // $num_sub is 3: the number of elements in each sub-array
    for ($m = 0, $num_sub = count($specials[$i]); $m < $num_sub; $m++) {
        print "Element [$i][$m] is " . $specials[$i][$m] . "\n";
    }
}
```

[Example 4-31](#) prints:

```
Element [0][0] is Chestnut Bun
Element [0][1] is Walnut Bun
Element [0][2] is Peanut Bun
Element [1][0] is Chestnut Salad
Element [1][1] is Walnut Salad
Element [1][2] is Peanut Salad
```

In [Example 4-31](#), the outer `for()` loop iterates over the two elements of `$specials`. The inner `for()` loop iterates over each element of the subarrays that hold the different strings. In the `print` statement, `$i` is the index in the first dimension (the elements of `$specials`), and `$m` is the index in the second dimension (the subarray).

To interpolate a value from a multidimensional array into a double-quoted string or here document, use the curly brace syntax from [Example 4-19](#). [Example 4-32](#) uses curly braces for interpolation to produce the same output as [Example 4-31](#). In fact, the only different line in [Example 4-32](#) is the `print` statement.

Example 4-32. Multidimensional array element value interpolation

```
$specials = array( array('Chestnut Bun', 'Walnut Bun', 'Peanut Bun'),
                  array('Chestnut Salad', 'Walnut Salad', 'Peanut Salad') );
```



```
// $num_specials is 2: the number of elements in the first dimension of $specials
for ($i = 0, $num_specials = count($specials); $i < $num_specials; $i++) {
    // $num_sub is 3: the number of elements in each sub-array
    for ($m = 0, $num_sub = count($specials[$i]); $m < $num_sub; $m++) {
        print "Element [$i][$m] is {$specials[$i][$m]}\n";
    }
}
```

4.6 Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 covers:

- Understanding the components of an array: elements, keys, and values.
- Defining an array in your programs two ways: with `array()` and with square brackets.
- Understanding the shortcuts PHP provides for arrays with numeric keys.
- Counting the number of elements in an array.
- Visiting each element of an array with `foreach()`.
- Alternating table row colors with `foreach()` and an array of color values.
- Modifying array element values inside a `foreach()` code block.
- Visiting each element of a numeric array with `for()`.
- Alternating table row colors with `for()` and the modulus operator (%).
- Understanding the order in which `foreach()` and `for()` visit array elements.
- Checking for an array element with a particular key.
- Checking for an array element with a particular value.
- Interpolating array element values in strings.
- Removing an element from an array.
- Generating a string from an array with `implode()`.
- Generating an array from a string with `explode()`.
- Sorting an array with `sort()`, `asort()`, or `ksort()`.
- Sorting an array in reverse.
- Defining a multidimensional array.
- Accessing individual elements of a multidimensional array.
- Visiting each element in a multidimensional array with `foreach()` or `for()`.
- Interpolating multidimensional array elements in a string.

4.7 Exercises

1. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the 10 largest American cities (by population) in 2000 were as follows:
 - New York, NY (8,008,278 people)
 - Los Angeles, CA (3,694,820)
 - Chicago, IL (2,896,016)
 - Houston, TX (1,953,631)
 - Philadelphia, PA (1,517,550)
 - Phoenix, AZ (1,321,045)
 - San Diego, CA (1,223,400)

- Dallas, TX (1,188,580)
- San Antonio, TX (1,144,646)
- Detroit, MI (951,270)

Define an array (or arrays) that holds this information about locations and population. Print a table of locations and population information that includes the total population in all 10 cities.

2. Modify your solution to the previous exercise so that the rows in result table are ordered by population. Then modify your solution so that the rows are ordered by city name.
 3. Modify your solution to the first exercise so that the table also contains rows that hold state population totals for each state represented in the list of cities.
 4. For each of the following kinds of information, state how you would store it in an array and then give sample code that creates such an array with a few elements. For example, for the first item, you might say, "An associative array whose key is the student's name and whose value is an associative array of grade and ID number," as in the following:
 5.

```
$students = array('James D. McCawley' => array('grade' => 'A+', 'id' => 271231),
                  'Buwei Yang Chao' => array('grade' => 'A', 'id' => 818211));
```
- a. The grades and ID numbers of students in a class.
 - b. How many of each item in a store inventory is in stock.
 - c. School lunches for a week — the different parts of each meal (entree, side dish, drink, etc.) and the cost for each day.
 - d. The names of people in your family.
 - e. The names, ages, and relationship to you of people in your family.

Chapter 5. Functions

When you're writing computer programs, laziness is a virtue. Reusing code you've already written makes it easier to do as little work as possible. Functions are the key to code reuse. A *function* is a named set of statements that you can execute just by invoking the function name instead of retyping the statements. This saves time and prevents errors. Plus, functions make it easier to use code that other people have written (as you've discovered by using the built-in functions written by the authors of the PHP interpreter).

The basics of defining your own functions and using them are laid out in [Section 5.1](#). When you call a function, you can hand it some values with which to operate. For example, if you write a function to check whether a user is allowed to access the current web page, you would need to provide the username and the current web page name to the function. These values are called *arguments*. [Section 5.2](#) explains how to write functions that accept arguments and how to use the arguments from inside the function.

Some functions are one-way streets. You may pass them arguments, but you don't get anything back. A `print_header()` function that prints the top of an HTML page may take an argument containing the page title, but it doesn't give you any information after it executes. It just displays output. Most functions move information in two directions. The access control function mentioned above is an example of this. The function gives you back a value: `true` (access granted) or `false` (access denied). This value is called the *return value*. You can use the return value of a function like any other value or variable. Return values are discussed in [Section 5.3](#).

The statements inside a function can use variables just like statements outside a function. However, the variables inside a function and outside a function live in two separate worlds. The PHP interpreter treats a variable called `$name` inside a function and a variable called `$name` outside a function as two unrelated variables. [Section 5.4](#) explains the rules about which variables are usable in which parts of your programs. It's important to understand these rules — get them wrong and your code relies on uninitialized or incorrect variables. That's a bug that is hard to track down.

5.1 Declaring and Calling Functions

To create a new function, use the `function` keyword, followed by the function name and then, inside curly braces, the function body. [Example 5-1](#) declares a new function called `page_header()`.^[1]

^[1] Strictly speaking, the parentheses aren't part of the function name, but it's good practice to include them when referring to functions. Doing so helps you to distinguish functions from variables and other language constructs.

Example 5-1. Declaring a function

```
function page_header( ) {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to my site</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#ffffff">';
}
```

Function names follow the same rules as variable names: they must begin with a letter or an underscore, and the rest of the characters in the name can be letters, numbers, or underscores. The PHP interpreter doesn't prevent you from having a variable and a function with the same name, but you should avoid it if you can. Many things with similar names makes for programs that are hard to understand.

The `page_header()` function defined in [Example 5-1](#) can be called just like a built-in function. [Example 5-2](#) uses `page_header()` to print a complete page.

Example 5-2. Calling a function

```
page_header( );
print "Welcome, $user";
print "</body></html>";
```

Functions can be defined before or after they are called. The PHP interpreter reads the entire program file and takes care of all the function definitions before it runs any of the commands in the file. The `page_header()` and `page_footer()` functions in [Example 5-3](#) both execute successfully, even though `page_header()` is defined before it is called and `page_footer()` is defined after it is called.

Example 5-3. Defining functions before or after calling them

```
function page_header( ) {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to my site</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#ffffff">';
}

page_header( );
print "Welcome, $user";
page_footer( );

function page_footer( ) {
    print '<hr>Thanks for visiting.';
    print '</body></html>';
}
```

.2 Passing Arguments to Functions

While some functions (such as `page_header()` in the previous section) always do the same thing, other functions operate on input that can change. The input values supplied to a function are called *arguments*. Arguments add to the power of functions because they make functions more flexible. You can modify `page_header()` to take an argument that holds the page color. The modified function declaration is shown in [Example 5-4](#).

Example 5-4. Declaring a function with an argument

```
function page_header2($color) {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to my site</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="' . $color . '">';
}
```

In the function declaration, you add `$color` between the parentheses after the function name. This lets the code inside the function use a variable called `$color`, which holds the value passed to the function when it is called. For example, you can call the function like this:

```
page_header2('cc00cc');
```

This sets `$color` to `cc00cc` inside `page_header2()`, so it prints:

```
<html><head><title>Welcome to my site</title></head><body bgcolor="#cc00cc">
```

When you define a function that takes an argument as in [Example 5-4](#), you must pass an argument to the function when you call it. If you call the function without a value for the argument, the PHP interpreter complains with a warning. For example, if you call `page_header2()` like this:

```
page_header2( );
```

The interpreter prints a message that looks like this:

```
PHP Warning: Missing argument 1 for page_header2( )
```

To avoid this warning, define a function to take an optional argument by specifying a default in the function declaration. If a value is supplied when the function is called, then the function uses the supplied value. If a value is not supplied when the function is called, then the function uses the default value. To specify a default value, put it after the argument name.

[Example 5-5](#) sets the default value for `$color` to `cc3399`.

Example 5-5. Specifying a default value

```
function page_header3($color = 'cc3399') {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to my site</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#" . $color . ">';
}
```

Calling `page_header3('336699')` produces the same results as calling `page_header2('336699')`. When the body of each function executes, `$color` has the value `336699`, which is the color printed out for the `bgcolor` attribute of the `<body>` tag. But while `page_header2()` without an argument produces a warning, `page_header3()` without an argument runs just fine, with `$color` set to `cc3399`.

Default values for arguments must be literals, such as `12`, `cc3399`, or `Shredded Swiss Chard`. They can't be variables. The following is not OK:

```
$my_color = '#000000';

// This is incorrect: the default value can't be a variable.
function page_header_bad($color = $my_color) {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to my site</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#" . $color . ">';
}
```

To define a function that accepts multiple arguments, separate each argument with a comma in the function declaration. In [Example 5-6](#), `page_header4()` takes two arguments: `$color` and `$title`.

Example 5-6. Defining a two-argument function

```
function page_header4($color, $title) {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to ' . $title . '</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#' . $color . '>';
}
```

To pass a function multiple arguments when you call it, separate the argument values by commas in the function call.

[Example 5-7](#) calls `page_header4()` with values for `$color` and `$title`.

Example 5-7. Calling a two-argument function

```
page_header4('66cc66', 'my homepage');
```

[Example 5-7](#) prints:

```
<html><head><title>Welcome to my homepage</title></head><body bgcolor="#66cc66">
```

In [Example 5-6](#), both arguments are mandatory. You can use the same syntax in functions that take multiple arguments to denote default argument values as you do in functions that take one argument. However, all of the optional arguments must come after any mandatory arguments. [Example 5-8](#) shows the correct ways to define a three-argument function that has one, two, or three optional arguments.

Example 5-8. Multiple optional arguments

```
// One optional argument: it must be last
function page_header5($color, $title, $header = 'Welcome') {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to ' . $title . '</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#' . $color . '>';
    print "<h1>$header</h1>";
}
// Acceptable ways to call this function:
page_header5('66cc99', 'my wonderful page'); // uses default $header
page_header5('66cc99', 'my wonderful page', 'This page is great!'); // no defaults

// Two optional arguments: must be last two arguments
function page_header6($color, $title = 'the page', $header = 'Welcome') {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to ' . $title . '</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#' . $color . '>';
    print "<h1>$header</h1>";
}
// Acceptable ways to call this function:
page_header6('66cc99'); // uses default $title and $header
page_header6('66cc99', 'my wonderful page'); // uses default $header
page_header6('66cc99', 'my wonderful page', 'This page is great!'); // no defaults

// All optional arguments
function page_header6($color = '336699', $title = 'the page', $header = 'Welcome') {
    print '<html><head><title>Welcome to ' . $title . '</title></head>';
    print '<body bgcolor="#' . $color . '>';
    print "<h1>$header</h1>";
}
```

```

}
// Acceptable ways to call this function:
page_header7( ); // uses all defaults
page_header7('66cc99'); // uses default $title and $header
page_header7('66cc99','my wonderful page'); // uses default $header
page_header7('66cc99','my wonderful page','This page is great!'); // no defaults

```

All of the optional arguments must be at the end of the argument list to avoid ambiguity. If `page_header7()` could be defined with a mandatory first argument of `$color`, an optional second argument of `$title`, and a mandatory third argument of `$header`, then what would `page_header7('33cc66','Good Morning')` mean? The 'Good Morning' argument could be a value for either `$title` or `$header`. Putting all optional arguments after any mandatory arguments avoids this confusion.

Any changes you make to a variable passed as an argument to a function don't affect the variable outside the function. In [Example 5-9](#), the value of `$counter` outside the function doesn't change.

Example 5-9. Changing argument values

```

function countdown($stop) {
    while ($stop > 0) {
        print "$stop..";
        $stop--;
    }
    print "boom!\n";
}

$counter = 5;
countdown($counter);
print "Now, counter is $counter";

```

[Example 5-9](#) prints:

```

5..4..3..2..1..boom!
Now, counter is 5

```

Passing `$counter` as the argument to `countdown()` tells the PHP interpreter to copy the value of `$counter` into `$stop` at the start of the function, because `$stop` is the name of the argument. Whatever happens to `$stop` inside the function doesn't affect `$counter`. Once the value of `$counter` is copied into `$stop`, `$counter` is out of the picture for the duration of the function.

Modifying arguments doesn't affect variables outside the function even if the argument has the same name as a variable outside the function. If `countdown()` in [Example 5-9](#) is changed so that its argument is called `$counter` instead of `$stop`, the value of `$counter` outside the function doesn't change. The argument and the variable outside the function just happen to have the same name. They remain completely unconnected.

5.3 Returning Values from Functions

The header-printing function you've seen already in this chapter takes action by displaying some output. In addition to an action such as printing data or saving information into a database, functions can also compute a value, called the *return value*, that can be used later in a program. To capture the return value of a function, assign the function call to a variable.

[Example 5-10](#) stores the return value of the built-in function `number_format()` in the variable `$number_to_display`.

Example 5-10. Capturing a return value

```
$number_to_display = number_format(285266237);  
print "The population of the US is about: $number_to_display";
```

Just like [Example 1-6](#), [Example 5-10](#) prints:

```
The population of the US is about: 285,266,237
```

Assigning the return value of a function to a variable is just like assigning a string or number to a variable. The statement `$number = 57` means "store 57 in the variable `$number`." The statement `$number_to_display = number_format(285266237)` means "call the `number_format()` function with the argument `285266237` and store the return value in `$number_to_display`." Once the return value of a function has been put into a variable, you can use that variable and the value it contains just like any other variable in your program.

To return values from functions you write, use the `return` keyword with a value to return. When a function is executing, as soon as it encounters the `return` keyword, it stops running and returns the associated value. [Example 5-11](#) defines a function that returns the total amount of a restaurant check after adding tax and tip.

Example 5-11. Returning a value from a function

```
function restaurant_check($meal, $tax, $tip) {  
    $tax_amount = $meal * ($tax / 100);  
    $tip_amount = $meal * ($tip / 100);  
    $total_amount = $meal + $tax_amount + $tip_amount;  
  
    return $total_amount;  
}
```

The value that `restaurant_check()` returns can be used like any other value in a program. [Example 5-12](#) uses the return value in an `if()` statement.

Example 5-12. Using a return value in an if() statement

```
// Find the total cost of a $15.22 meal with 8.25% tax and a 15% tip  
$total = restaurant_check(15.22, 8.25, 15);  
  
print 'I only have $20 in cash, so...';  
if ($total > 20) {  
    print "I must pay with my credit card.";  
} else {
```



```
    print "I can pay with cash.";
}
```

A particular `return` statement can only return one value. You can't return multiple values with something like `return 15 23`. If you want to return more than one value from a function, you can put the different values into one array and then return the array.

[Example 5-13](#) shows a modified version of `restaurant_check()` that returns a two-element array containing the total amount before the tip is added and after it is added.

Example 5-13. Returning an array from a function

```
function restaurant_check2($meal, $tax, $tip) {
    $tax_amount = $meal * ($tax / 100);
    $tip_amount = $meal * ($tip / 100);
    $total_notip = $meal + $tax_amount;
    $total_tip = $meal + $tax_amount + $tip_amount;

    return array($total_notip, $total_tip);
}
```

[Example 5-14](#) uses the array returned by `restaurant_check2()`.

Example 5-14. Using an array returned from a function

```
$totals = restaurant_check2(15.22, 8.25, 15);

if ($totals[0] < 20) {
    print 'The total without tip is less than $20.';
}

if ($totals[1] < 20) {
    print 'The total with tip is less than $20.';
}
```

Although you can only return a single value with a `return` statement, you can have more than one `return` statement inside a function. The first `return` statement reached by the program flow inside the function causes the function to stop running and return a value. This isn't necessarily the `return` statement closest to the beginning of the function. [Example 5-15](#) moves the cash-or-credit-card logic from [Example 5-12](#) into a new function that determines the appropriate payment method.

Example 5-15. Multiple return statements in a function

```
function payment_method($cash_on_hand, $amount) {
    if ($amount > $cash_on_hand) {
        return 'credit card';
    } else {
        return 'cash';
    }
}
```

[Example 5-16](#) uses `payment_method()` by passing it the result from `restaurant_check()`.

Example 5-16. Passing a return value to another function

```
$total = restaurant_check(15.22, 8.25, 15);
$method = payment_method(20, $total);
print 'I will pay with ' . $method;
```

[Example 5-16](#) prints the following:

```
I will pay with cash.
```

This is because the amount `restaurant_check()` returns is less than 20. This is passed to `payment_method()` in the `$total` argument. The first comparison in `payment_method()`, between `$amount` and `$cash_on_hand`, is `false`, so the code in the `else` block inside `payment_method()` executes. This causes the function to return the string `cash`.

The rules about truth values discussed in [Chapter 3](#) apply to the return values of functions just like other values. You can take advantage of this to use functions inside `if()` statements and other control flow constructs. [Example 5-17](#) decides what to do by calling the `restaurant_check()` function from inside an `if()` statement's test expression.

Example 5-17. Using return values with if()

```
if (restaurant_check(15.22, 8.25, 15) < 20) {
    print 'Less than $20, I can pay cash.';
} else {
    print 'Too expensive, I need my credit card.';
}
```

To evaluate the test expression in [Example 5-17](#), the PHP interpreter first calls the `restaurant_check()` function. The return value of the function is then compared with 20, just as it would be if it were a variable or a literal value. If `restaurant_check()` returns a number less than 20, which it does in this case, then the first `print` statement is executed. Otherwise, the second `print` statement runs.

A test expression can also consist of just a function call with no comparison or other operator. In such a test expression, the return value of the function is converted to `true` or `false` according to the rules outlined in [Section 3.1](#). If the return value is `true`, then the test expression is `true`. If the return value is `false`, so is the test expression. A function can explicitly return `true` or `false` to make it more obvious that it should be used in a test expression. The `can_pay_cash()` function in [Example 5-18](#) does this as it determines whether we can pay cash for a meal.

Example 5-18. Functions that return true or false

```
function can_pay_cash($cash_on_hand, $amount) {
    if ($amount > $cash_on_hand) {
        return false;
    } else {
        return true;
    }
}
```

```

$total = restaurant_check(15.22,8.25,15);
if (can_pay_cash(20, $total)) {
    print "I can pay in cash.";
} else {
    print "Time for the credit card.";
}

```

In [Example 5-18](#), the `can_pay_cash()` function compares its two arguments. If `$amount` is bigger, then the function returns `true`. Otherwise, it returns `false`. The `if()` statement outside the function single-mindedly pursues its mission as an `if()` statement — finding the truth value of its test expression. Since this test expression is a function call, it calls `can_pay_cash()` with the two arguments: `20` and `$total`. The return value of the function is the truth value of the test expression and controls which message is printed.

Just like you can put a variable in a test expression, you can put a function's return value in a test expression. In any situation where you call a function that returns a value, you can think of the code that calls the function, such as `restaurant_check(15.22,8.25,15)`, as being replaced by the return value of the function as the program runs.

One frequent shortcut is to use a function call with the assignment operator in a test expression and to rely on the fact that the result of the assignment is the value being assigned. This lets you call a function, save its return value, and check whether the return value is `true` all in one step. [Example 5-19](#) demonstrates how to do this.

Example 5-19. Assignment and function call inside a test expression

```

function complete_bill($meal, $tax, $tip, $cash_on_hand) {
    $tax_amount = $meal * ($tax / 100);
    $tip_amount = $meal * ($tip / 100);
    $total_amount = $meal + $tax_amount + $tip_amount;
    if ($total_amount > $cash_on_hand) {
        // The bill is more than we have
        return false;
    } else {
        // We can pay this amount
        return $total_amount;
    }
}

if ($total = complete_bill(15.22, 8.25, 15, 20)) {
    print "I'm happy to pay $total.";
} else {
    print "I don't have enough money. Shall I wash some dishes?";
}

```

In [Example 5-19](#), the `complete_bill()` function returns `false` if the calculated bill, including tax and tip, is more than `$cash_on_hand`. If the bill is less than or equal to `$cash_on_hand`, then the amount of the bill is returned. When the `if()` statement outside the function evaluates its test expression, the following things happen:

1. `complete_bill()` is called with arguments `15.22`, `8.25`, `15`, and `20`.
2. The return value of `complete_bill()` is assigned to `$total`.

3. The result of the assignment (which, remember, is the same as the value being assigned) is converted to either `true` or `false` and used as the end result of the test expression.

5.4 Understanding Variable Scope

As you saw in [Example 5-9](#), changes inside a function to variables that hold arguments don't affect those variables outside of the function. This is because activity inside a function happens in a different *scope*. Variables defined outside of a function are called *global variables*. They exist in one scope. Variables defined inside of a function are called *local variables*. Each function has its own scope.

Imagine each function is one branch office of a big company, and the code outside of any function is the company headquarters. At the Philadelphia branch office, co-workers refer to each other by their first names: "Alice did great work on this report," or "Bob never puts the right amount of sugar in my coffee." These statements talk about the folks in Philadelphia (local variables of one function), and say nothing about an Alice or a Bob who works at another branch office (local variables of another function) or at company headquarters (global variables).

Local and global variables work similarly. A variable called `$dinner` inside a function, whether or not it's an argument to that function, is completely disconnected from a variable called `$dinner` outside of the function and from a variable called `$dinner` inside another function. [Example 5-20](#) illustrates the unconnectedness of variables in different scopes.

Example 5-20. Variable scope

```
$dinner = 'Curry Cuttlefish';

function vegetarian_dinner( ) {
    print "Dinner is $dinner, or ";
    $dinner = 'Sauteed Pea Shoots';
    print $dinner;
    print "\n";
}

function kosher_dinner( ) {
    print "Dinner is $dinner, or ";
    $dinner = 'Kung Pao Chicken';
    print $dinner;
    print "\n";
}

print "Vegetarian ";
vegetarian_dinner( );
print "Kosher ";
kosher_dinner( );
print "Regular dinner is $dinner";
```

Example 5-20 prints:

```
Vegetarian Dinner is , or Sauteed Pea Shoots
Kosher Dinner is , or Kung Pao Chicken
Regular dinner is Curry Cuttlefish
```

In both functions, before `$dinner` is set to a value inside the function, it has no value. The global variable `$dinner` has no effect inside the function. Once `$dinner` is set inside a function, though, it doesn't affect the global `$dinner` set outside any function or the `$dinner` variable in another function. Inside each function, `$dinner` refers to the local version of `$dinner` and is completely separate from a variable that happens to have the same name in another function.

Like all analogies, though, the analogy between variable scope and corporate organization is not perfect. In a company, you can easily refer to employees at other locations; the folks in Philadelphia can talk about "Alice at headquarters" or "Bob in Atlanta," and the overlords at headquarters can decide the futures of "Alice in Philadelphia" or "Bob in Charleston." With variables, however, you can access global variables from inside a function, but you can't access the local variables of a function from outside that function. This is equivalent to folks at a branch office being able to talk about people at headquarters but not anyone at the other branch offices, and to folks at headquarters not being able to talk about anyone at any branch office.

There are two ways to access a global variable from inside a function. The most straightforward is to look for them in a special array called `$GLOBALS`. Each global variable is accessible as an element in that array. [Example 5-21](#) demonstrates how to use the `$GLOBALS` array.

Example 5-21. The `$GLOBALS` array

```
$dinner = 'Curry Cuttlefish';

function macrobiotic_dinner( ) {
    $dinner = "Some Vegetables";
    print "Dinner is $dinner";
    // Succumb to the delights of the ocean
    print " but I'd rather have ";
    print $GLOBALS['dinner'];
    print "\n";
}

macrobiotic_dinner( );
print "Regular dinner is: $dinner";
```

[Example 5-21](#) prints:

```
Dinner is Some Vegetables but I'd rather have Curry Cuttlefish
Regular dinner is: Curry Cuttlefish
```

[Example 5-21](#) accesses the global `$dinner` from inside the function as `$GLOBALS['dinner']`. The `$GLOBALS` array can also modify global variables. [Example 5-22](#) shows how to do that.

Example 5-22. Modifying a variable with `$GLOBALS`

```
$dinner = 'Curry Cuttlefish';

function hungry_dinner( ) {
    $GLOBALS['dinner'] .= ' and Deep-Fried Taro';
}

print "Regular dinner is $dinner";
```

```
print "\n";
hungry_dinner( );
print "Hungry dinner is $dinner";
```

[Example 5-22](#) prints:

```
Regular dinner is Curry Cuttlefish
Hungry dinner is Curry Cuttlefish and Deep-Fried Taro
```

Inside the `hungry_dinner()` function, `$GLOBALS['dinner']` can be modified just like any other variable, and the modifications change the global variable `$dinner`. In this case, `$GLOBALS['dinner']` has a string appended to it using the concatenation operator from [Example 2-19](#).

The second way to access a global variable inside a function is to use the `global` keyword. This tells the PHP interpreter that further use of the named variable inside a function should refer to the global variable with the given name, not a local variable. This is called "bringing a variable into local scope." [Example 5-23](#) shows the `global` keyword at work.

Example 5-23. The global keyword

```
$dinner = 'Curry Cuttlefish';

function vegetarian_dinner( ) {
    global $dinner;
    print "Dinner was $dinner, but now it's ";
    $dinner = 'Sauteed Pea Shoots';
    print $dinner;
    print "\n";
}

print "Regular Dinner is $dinner.\n";
vegetarian_dinner( );
print "Regular dinner is $dinner";
```

[Example 5-23](#) prints:

```
Regular Dinner is Curry Cuttlefish.
Dinner was Curry Cuttlefish, but now it's Sauteed Pea Shoots
Regular dinner is Sauteed Pea Shoots
```

The first `print` statement displays the unmodified value of the global variable `$dinner`. The `global $dinner` line in `vegetarian_dinner()` means that any use of `$dinner` inside the function refers to the global `$dinner`, not a local variable with the same name. So, the first `print` statement in the function prints the already-set global value, and the assignment on the next line changes the global value. Since the global value is changed inside the function, the last `print` statement outside the function prints the changed value as well.

The `global` keyword can be used with multiple variable names at once. Just separate each variable name with a comma. For example:

```
global $dinner, $lunch, $breakfast;
```



Generally, I recommend that you use the `$GLOBALS` array to access global variables inside functions instead of the `global` keyword. Using `$GLOBALS` provides a reminder on every variable access that you're dealing with a global variable. Unless you're writing a very short function, it's easy to forget that you're dealing with a global variable with `global` and become confused as to why your code is misbehaving. Relying on the `$GLOBALS` array requires a tiny bit of extra typing, but it does wonders for your code's intelligibility.

You may have noticed something strange about the examples that use the `$GLOBALS` array. These examples use `$GLOBALS` inside a function, but don't bring `$GLOBALS` into local scope with the `global` keyword. The `$GLOBALS` array, whether used inside or outside a function, is always in scope. This is because `$GLOBALS` is a special kind of pre-defined variable, called an *auto-global*. Auto-globals are variables that can be used anywhere in your PHP programs without anything required to bring them into scope. They're like a well-known employee that everyone, at headquarters or a branch office, refers to by his first name.

The auto-globals are always arrays that are automatically populated with data. They contain things such as submitted form data, cookie values, and session information. [Chapter 6](#) and [Chapter 8](#) each describe specific auto-global variables that are useful in different contexts.

5.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter 5 covers:

- Defining your own functions and calling them in your programs.
- Defining a function with mandatory arguments.
- Defining a function with optional arguments.
- Returning a value from a function.
- Understanding variable scope.
- Using global variables inside a function.

5.6 Exercises

1. Write a function to print out an HTML `` tag. The function should accept a mandatory argument of the image URL and optional arguments for `alt` text, height, and width.
2. Modify the function in the previous exercise so that the filename only is passed to the function in the URL argument. Inside the function, prepend a global variable to the filename to make the full URL. For example, if you pass `photo.png` to the function, and the global variable contains `/images/`, then the `src` attribute of the printed `` tag would be `/images/photo.png`. A function like this is an easy way to keep your image tags correct, even if the images move to a new path or a new server. Just change the global variable — for example, from `/images/` to `http://images.example.com/`.

3. What does the following code print out?

```
4. $cash_on_hand = 31;
5. $meal = 25;
6. $tax = 10;
7. $tip = 10;
8. while(($cost = restaurant_check($meal,$tax,$tip)) < $cash_on_hand) {
9.     $tip++;
10.    print "I can afford a tip of $tip% ($cost)\n";
11. }
12. function restaurant_check($meal, $tax, $tip) {
13.     $tax_amount = $meal * ($tax / 100);
14.     $tip_amount = $meal * ($tip / 100);
15.     return $meal + $tax_amount + $tip_amount;
}
```

16. Web colors such as #ffffff and #cc3399 are made by concatenating the hexadecimal color values for red, green, and blue. Write a function that accepts decimal red, green, and blue arguments and returns a string containing the appropriate color for use in a web page. For example, if the arguments are 255, 0, and 255, then the returned string should be #ff00ff. You may find it helpful to use the built-in function `dechex()`, which is documented at <http://www.php.net/dechex>.

Chapter 6. Making Web Forms

Form processing is an essential component of almost any web application. *Forms* are how users communicate with your server: signing up for a new account, searching a forum for all the posts about a particular subject, retrieving a lost password, finding a nearby restaurant or shoemaker, or buying a book.

Using a form in a PHP program is a two-step activity. Step one is to display the form. This involves constructing HTML that has tags for the appropriate user-interface elements in it, such as text boxes, checkboxes, and buttons. If you're not familiar with the HTML required to create forms, the "Forms" chapter in *HTML & XHTML: The Definitive Guide*, by Chuck Musciano and Bill Kennedy (O'Reilly) is a good place to start.

When a user sees a page with a form in it, she inputs the information into the form and then clicks a button or hits Enter to send the form information back to your server. Processing that submitted form information is step two of the operation.

[Example 6-1](#) is a page that says "Hello" to a user. If a name is submitted, then the page displays a greeting. If a name is not submitted, then the page displays a form with which a user can submit her name.

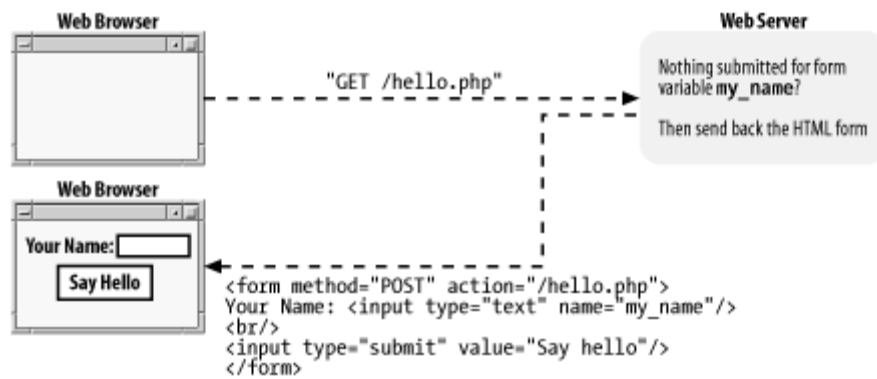
Example 6-1. Saying "Hello"

```
if (array_key_exists('my_name', $_POST)) {
    print "Hello, ". $_POST['my_name'];
} else {
    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="post" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
  Your name: <input type="text" name="my_name">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
</form>
_HTML_;
}
```

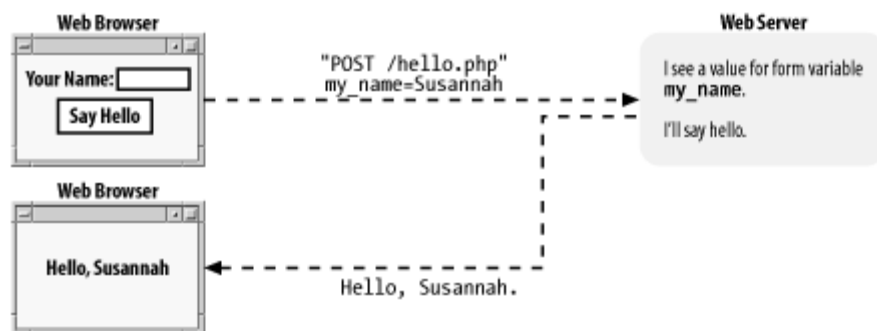
Remember the client and server communication picture from [Chapter 1](#)? [Figure 6-1](#) shows the client and server communication necessary to display and process the form in [Example 6-1](#). The first request and response pair causes the browser to display the form. In the second request and response pair, the server processes the submitted form data and the browser displays the results.

Figure 6-1. Displaying and processing a simple form

Step 1: Retrieve and display the form



Step 2: Submit the form and display the results



The response to the first request is some HTML for a form. [Figure 6-2](#) shows what the browser displays when it receives that response.

Figure 6-2. A simple form



The response to the second request is the result of processing the submitted form data. [Figure 6-3](#) shows the output when the form is submitted with `Susannah` typed in the text box.

Figure 6-3. The form, submitted



The pattern in [Example 6-1](#) of "if form data has been submitted, process it; otherwise, print out a form" is common in PHP programs. When you're building a basic form, putting the code to display the form and the code to process the form in the same page makes it easier to keep the form and its associated logic in sync.

The form submission is sent back to the same URL that was used to request the form in the first place. This is because of the special variable that is the value of the `action` attribute in the `<form>` tag: `$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]`. The `$_SERVER` auto-global array holds a variety of information about your server and the current request the PHP interpreter is processing. The `PHP_SELF` element of `$_SERVER` holds the pathname part of the current request's URL. For example, if a PHP script is accessed at `http://www.example.com/store/catalog.php`, `$_SERVER['PHP_SELF']` is `/store/catalog.php`^[1] in that page.

^[1] As discussed in [Example 4-18](#), the array element `$_SERVER['PHP_SELF']` goes in the here document without quotes around the key for its value to be interpolated properly.

The `$_POST` array is an auto-global variable that holds submitted form data. The keys in `$_POST` are the form element names, and the corresponding values in `$_POST` are the values of the form elements. Typing your name into the text box in [Example 6-1](#) and clicking the submit button makes the value of `$_POST['my_name']` whatever you typed into the text box because the `name` attribute of the text box is `my_name`.

So, testing whether there is a key called `my_name` in the `$_POST` array tests to see whether a form parameter called `my_name` has been submitted. Even if the `my_name` text box has been left blank, `array_key_exists()` returns `true` and the greeting is printed.

The structure of [Example 6-1](#) is the kernel of the form processing material in this chapter. However, it has a flaw: printing unmodified external input—as `print "Hello, ". $_POST['my_name'];` does with the value of the `my_name` form parameter—is dangerous. Data that comes from outside of your program, such as a submitted form parameter, can contain embedded HTML or JavaScript. [Section 6.4.6](#), later in this chapter, explains how to make your program safer by cleaning up external input.

The rest of this chapter provides details about the various aspects of form handling. [Section 6.2](#) dives into the specifics of handling different kinds of form input, such as form parameters that can submit multiple values. [Section 6.3](#) lays out a flexible, function-based structure for working with forms that simplifies some form maintenance tasks. This function-based structure also lets you check the submitted form data to make sure it doesn't contain anything unexpected. [Section 6.4](#) explains the different ways you can check submitted form data. [Section 6.5](#) demonstrates how to supply default values for form elements and preserve user-entered values when you redisplay a form. Finally, [Section 6.6](#) shows a complete form that incorporates everything in the chapter: function-based organization, validation and display of error messages, defaults and preserving user input, and processing submitted data.

6.1 Useful Server Variables

Aside from `PHP_SELF`, the `$_SERVER` auto-global array contains a number of useful elements that provide information on the web server and the current request. Table [Table 6-1](#) lists some of them.

Table 6-1. Entries in `$_SERVER`

Element	Example	Description
---------	---------	-------------

Table 6-1. Entries in \$_SERVER

Element	Example	Description
QUERY_STRING	<code>category=kitchen&price=5</code>	The part of the URL after the question mark when the page is requested. The example query string shown is for the URL <code>http://www.example.com/catalog/store.php?category=kitchen&price=5</code> .
PATH_INFO	<code>/browse</code>	Extra path information tacked onto the end of the URL. This is a way to pass information to a script without using the query string. The example <code>PATH_INFO</code> shown is for the URL <code>http://www.example.com/catalog/store.php/browse</code> .
SERVER_NAME	<code>www.example.com</code>	The name of the web site on which the PHP interpreter is running. A web server hosts many different virtual domains, and this variable indicates the particular virtual domain that is being accessed.
DOCUMENT_ROOT	<code>/usr/local/htdocs</code>	The directory on the web server computer that holds the files that are available on the web site. If the document root is <code>/usr/local/htdocs</code> on the web site <code>http://www.example.com</code> , then a request for <code>http://www.example.com/catalog/store.php</code> corresponds to the file <code>/usr/local/htdocs/catalog/store.php</code> .
REMOTE_ADDR	<code>175.56.28.3</code>	The IP address of the user making the request to the web server.
REMOTE_HOST	<code>pool0560.cvx.dialup.verizon.net</code>	If your web server is configured to translate user IP addresses to hostnames, this is the hostname of the user making the request to the web server. Because this address-to-name translation is expensive (in terms of computational time), most web servers do not do it.
HTTP_REFERER ^[2]	http://directory.google.com/Top/Shopping/Clothing/	If someone clicked on a link to reach the current page, this variable contains the URL of the page that contained the link. This value can be faked, so don't use it as your sole criteria for giving users access to web pages. It can, however, be useful for finding out where you are being visited from.
HTTP_USER_AGENT	<code>Mozilla/4.0 (compatible; MSIE 6.0; Windows NT 5.1)</code>	The web browser that retrieved the page. The example value is the signature of Internet Explorer 6.0 running on Windows NT 5.1. This value can be faked, but is useful for identifying the browser.

^[2] The correct spelling is `HTTP_REFERER`. But it was misspelled in an early Internet specification document, so you frequently see the three-R version when web programming.

6.2 Accessing Form Parameters

At the beginning of every request, the PHP interpreter sets up some auto-global arrays that contain the values of any parameters submitted in a form or passed in the URL. URL and form parameters from GET method forms are put into `$_GET`. Form parameters from POST method forms are put into `$_POST`.

The URL `http://www.example.com/catalog.php?product_id=21&category=fryingpan` puts two values into `$_GET`: `$_GET['product_id']` is set to 21 and `$_GET['category']` is set to `fryingpan`. Submitting the form in [Example 6-2](#) causes the same values to be put into `$_POST`, assuming 21 is entered in the text box and `Frying Pan` is selected from the menu.

Example 6-2. A two-element form

```
<form method="POST" action="catalog.php">
<input type="text" name="product_id">
<select name="category">
<option value="ovenmitt">Pot Holder</option>
<option value="fryingpan">Frying Pan</option>
<option value="torch">Kitchen Torch</option>
</select>
<input type="submit" name="submit">
</form>
```

[Example 6-3](#) incorporates the form in [Example 6-2](#) into a complete PHP program that prints the appropriate values from `$_POST` after displaying the form. Because the `action` attribute of the `<form>` tag in [Example 6-3](#) is `catalog.php`, you need to save the program in a file called `catalog.php` on your web server. If you save it in a file with a different name, adjust the `action` attribute accordingly.

Example 6-3. Printing submitted form parameters

```
<form method="POST" action="catalog.php">
<input type="text" name="product_id">
<select name="category">
<option value="ovenmitt">Pot Holder</option>
<option value="fryingpan">Frying Pan</option>
<option value="torch">Kitchen Torch</option>
</select>
<input type="submit" name="submit">
</form>
```

Here are the submitted values:

```
product_id: <?php print $_POST['product_id']; ?>
<br/>
category: <?php print $_POST['category']; ?>
```

A form element that can have multiple values needs to have a name that ends in `[]`. This tells the PHP interpreter to treat the multiple values as array elements. The `<select>` menu in [Example 6-4](#) has its submitted values put into `$_POST['lunch']`.

Example 6-4. Multiple-valued form elements

```
<form method="POST" action="eat.php">
<select name="lunch[]" multiple>
```

```

<option value="pork">BBQ Pork Bun</option>
<option value="chicken">Chicken Bun</option>
<option value="lotus">Lotus Seed Bun</option>
<option value="bean">Bean Paste Bun</option>
<option value="nest">Bird-Nest Bun</option>
</select>
<input type="submit" name="submit">
</form>

```

If the form in [Example 6-4](#) is submitted with `Chicken Bun` and `Bird-Nest Bun` selected, then `$_POST['lunch']` becomes a two-element array, with element values `chicken` and `nest`. Access these values using the regular multidimensional array syntax. [Example 6-5](#) incorporates the form from [Example 6-4](#) into a complete program that prints out each value selected in the menu. (The same rule applies here to the filename and the `action` attribute. Save the code in [Example 6-5](#) in a file called `eat.php` or adjust the `action` attribute of the `<form>` tag to the correct filename.)

Example 6-5. Accessing multiple submitted values

```

<form method="POST" action="eat.php">
<select name="lunch[ ]" multiple>
<option value="pork">BBQ Pork Bun</option>
<option value="chicken">Chicken Bun</option>
<option value="lotus">Lotus Seed Bun</option>
<option value="bean">Bean Paste Bun</option>
<option value="nest">Bird-Nest Bun</option>
</select>
<input type="submit" name="submit">
</form>
Selected buns:
<br/>
<?php
foreach ($_POST['lunch'] as $choice) {
    print "You want a $choice bun. <br/>";
}
?>

```

With `Chicken Bun` and `Bird-Nest Bun` selected in the menu, [Example 6-5](#) prints (after the form):

```

Selected buns:
You want a chicken bun.
You want a nest bun.

```

You can think of a form element named `lunch[]` as translating into the following PHP code when the form is submitted (assuming the submitted values for the form element are `chicken` and `nest`):

```

$_POST['lunch'][ ] = 'chicken';
$_POST['lunch'][ ] = 'nest';

```

As you saw in [Example 4-5](#), this syntax adds an element to the end of an array.

6.3 Form Processing with Functions

The basic form in [Example 6-1](#) can be made more flexible by putting the display code and the processing code in separate functions. [Example 6-6](#) is a version of [Example 6-1](#) with functions.

Example 6-6. Saying "Hello" with functions

```
// Logic to do the right thing based on
// the submitted form parameters
if (array_key_exists('my_name',$_POST) {
    process_form( );
} else {
    show_form( );
}

// Do something when the form is submitted
function process_form( ) {
    print "Hello, ". $_POST['my_name'];
}

// Display the form
function show_form( ) {
    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="POST" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your name: <input type="text" name="my_name">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
</form>
_HTML_;
}
```

To change the form or what happens when it's submitted, change the body of `process_form()` or `show_form()`. These functions make the code a little cleaner, but the logic at the top still depends on some form-specific information: the `my_name` parameter. We can solve that problem by using a hidden parameter in the form as the test for submission. If the hidden parameter is in `$_POST`, then we process the form. Otherwise, we display it. In [Example 6-7](#), this strategy is shown using a hidden parameter named `_submit_check`.

Example 6-7. Using a hidden parameter to indicate form submission

```
// Logic to do the right thing based on
// the hidden _submit_check parameter
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    process_form( );
} else {
    show_form( );
}

// Do something when the form is submitted
function process_form( ) {
    print "Hello, ". $_POST['my_name'];
}

// Display the form
```

```

function show_form( ) {
    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="POST" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your name: <input type="text" name="my_name">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>
_HTML_;
}

```

It's OK in this example to take a shortcut and not use `array_key_exists()` in the `if()` statement at the top of the code. The `_submit_check` form parameter can only have one value: 1. You don't have to worry about it being present in `$_POST` but having a value that evaluates to `false`.

In addition to making the main logic of the page independent of any changing form elements, using a hidden parameter as a submission test also ensures that the form is processed when a user clicks "Enter" in their browser to submit it instead of clicking the submit button. When a form is submitted with "Enter," some browsers don't send the name and value of the submit button as part of the submitted form data. A hidden parameter, however, is always included.

Breaking up the form processing and display into functions also makes it easy to add a data validation stage. Data validation, covered in detail in [Section 6.4](#), is an essential part of any web application that accepts input from a form. Data should be validated after a form is submitted, but before it is processed. [Example 6-8](#) adds a validation function to [Example 6-7](#).

Example 6-8. Validating form data

```

// Logic to do the right thing based on
// the hidden _submit_check parameter
if ( $_POST['_submit_check'] ) {
    if ( validate_form( ) ) {
        process_form( );
    } else {
        show_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}

// Do something when the form is submitted
function process_form( ) {
    print "Hello, ". $_POST['my_name'];
}

// Display the form
function show_form( ) {
    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="POST" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your name: <input type="text" name="my_name">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>

```



```

_HTML_ ;
}

// Check the form data
function validate_form( ) {
    // Is my_name at least 3 characters long?
    if (strlen($_POST['my_name']) < 3) {
        return false;
    } else {
        return true;
    }
}
}

```

The `validate_form()` function in [Example 6-8](#) returns `false` if `$_POST['my_name']` is less than three characters long, and returns `true` otherwise. At the top of the page, `validate_form()` is called when the form is submitted. If it returns `true`, then `process_form()` is called. Otherwise, `show_form()` is called. This means that if you submit the form with a name that's at least three characters long, such as `Bob` or `Bartholomew`, the same thing happens as in previous examples: a `Hello, Bob` (or `Hello, Bartholomew`) message is displayed. If you submit a short name such as `BJ` or leave the text box blank, then `validate_form()` returns `false` and `process_form()` is never called. Instead `show_form()` is called and the form is redisplayed.

[Example 6-8](#) doesn't tell you what's wrong if you enter a name that doesn't pass the test in `validate_form()`. Ideally, when someone submits data that fails a validation test, you should explain the error when you redisplay the form and, if appropriate, redisplay the value he entered inside the appropriate form element. [Section 6.4](#) shows you how to display error messages, and [Section 6.5](#) explains how to safely redisplay user-entered values.

6.4 Validating Data

Some of the validation strategies discussed in this section use *regular expressions*, which are powerful text-matching patterns, written in a language all their own. If you're not familiar with regular expressions, [Appendix B](#) provides a quick introduction.



Data validation is one of the most important parts of a web application. Weird, wrong, and damaging data shows up where you least expect it. Users are careless, users are malicious, and users are fabulously more creative (often accidentally) than you may ever imagine when you are designing your application. Without a *Clockwork Orange*-style forced viewing of a filmstrip on the dangers of unvalidated data, I can't over-emphasize how crucial it is that you stringently validate any piece of data coming into your application from an external source. Some of these external sources are obvious: most of the input to your application is probably coming from a web form. But there are lots of other ways data can flow into your programs as well: databases that you share with other people or applications, web services and remote servers, even URLs and their parameters.

As mentioned earlier, [Example 6-8](#) doesn't indicate what's wrong with the form if the check in `validate_form()` fails. [Example 6-9](#) alters `validate_form()` and `show_form()` to manipulate and print an array of possible error messages.

Example 6-9. Displaying error messages with the form

```
// Logic to do the right thing based on
// the hidden _submit_check parameter
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}

// Do something when the form is submitted
function process_form( ) {
    print "Hello, ". $_POST['my_name'];
}

// Display the form
function show_form($errors = '') {
    // If some errors were passed in, print them out
    if ($errors) {
        print 'Please correct these errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }

    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="POST" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your name: <input type="text" name="my_name">
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Say Hello">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>
_HTML_;
}

// Check the form data
function validate_form( ) {
    // Start with an empty array of error messages
    $errors = array( );

    // Add an error message if the name is too short
    if (strlen($_POST['my_name']) < 3) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Your name must be at least 3 letters long.';
    }

    // Return the (possibly empty) array of error messages
    return $errors;
}
```

The code in [Example 6-9](#) takes advantage of the fact that an empty array evaluates to `false`. The line `if ($form_errors = validate_form())` decides whether to call `show_form()` again and pass it the error array or to call `process_form()`.

). The array that `validate_form()` returns is assigned to `$form_errors`. The truth value of the `if()` test expression is the result of that assignment, which, as you saw in [Chapter 3](#) in [Section 3.1](#), is the value being assigned. So, the `if()` test expression is `true` if `$form_errors` has some elements in it, and `false` if `$form_errors` is empty. If `validate_form()` encounters no errors, then the array it returns is empty.

It is a good idea to do validation checks on all of the form elements in one pass, instead of redisplaying the form immediately when you find a single element that isn't valid. A user should find out all of his errors when he submits a form instead of having to submit a form over and over again, with a new error message revealed on each submission. The `validate_form()` function in [Example 6-9](#) does this by adding an element to `$errors` for each problem with a form element. Then, `show_form()` prints out a list of the error messages.

The validation methods shown here all go inside the `validate_form()` function. If a form element doesn't pass the test, then a message is added to the `$errors` array.

6.4.1 Required Elements

To make sure something has been entered into a required element, check the element's length with `strlen()`, as in [Example 6-10](#).

Example 6-10. Verifying a required element

```
if (strlen($_POST['email']) == 0) {
    $errors[] = "You must enter an email address.";
}
```

It is important to use `strlen()` when checking a required element instead of testing the value itself in an `if()` statement. A test such as `if (! $_POST['quantity'])` treats a value that evaluates to `false` as an error. Using `strlen()` lets users enter a value such as `0` into a required element.

6.4.2 Numeric or String Elements

To ensure that a submitted value is an integer or floating-point number, use the conversion functions `intval()` and `floatval()`. They give you the number (integer or floating point) inside a string, discarding any extraneous text or alternative number formats.

To use these functions for form validation, compare a submitted form value with what you get when you pass the submitted form value through `intval()` or `floatval()` and then through `strval()`. The `strval()` function converts the cleaned-up number back into a string so that the comparison with the element of `$_POST` works properly. If the submitted string and the cleaned-up string don't match, then there is some funny business in the submitted value and you should reject it. [Example 6-11](#) shows how to check whether a submitted form element is an integer.

Example 6-11. Checking for an integer

```
if ($_POST['age'] != strval(intval($_POST['age']))) {
    $errors[] = 'Please enter a valid age.';
}
```

If `$_POST['age']` is an integer such as 59, 0, or -32, then `intval($_POST['age'])` returns, respectively, 59, 0, or -32. The two values match and nothing is added to `$errors`. But if `$_POST['age']` is 52-pickup, then `intval($_POST['age'])` is 52. These two values aren't equal, so the `if()` test expression succeeds and a message is added to `$errors`. If `$_POST['age']` contains no numerals at all, then `intval($_POST['age'])` returns 0. For example, if old is submitted for `$_POST['age']`, then `intval($_POST['age'])` returns 0.

Similarly, [Example 6-12](#) shows how to use `floatval()` and `strval()` to check that a submitted value is a floating-point or decimal number.

Example 6-12. Checking for a floating-point number

```
if ($_POST['price'] != strval(floatval($_POST['price']))) {  
    $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid price.';  
}
```

The `floatval()` function works like `intval()`, but it understands a decimal point. In [Example 6-12](#), if `$_POST['price']` contains a valid floating-point number or integer (such as 59.2, 12, or -23.2), then `floatval($_POST['price'])` is equal to `$_POST['price']`, and nothing is added to `$errors`. But letters and other junk in `$_POST['price']` trigger an error message.

When validating elements (particularly string elements), it is often helpful to remove leading and trailing whitespace with the `trim()` function. You can combine this with the `strlen()` test for required elements to disallow an entry of just space characters. The combination of `trim()` and `strlen()` is shown in [Example 6-13](#).

Example 6-13. Combining `trim()` and `strlen()`

```
if (strlen(trim($_POST['name'])) = = 0) {  
    $errors[ ] = "Your name is required.";  
}
```

If you want to use the whitespace-trimmed value subsequently in your program, alter the value in `$_POST` and the test the altered value, as in [Example 6-14](#).

Example 6-14. Changing a value in `$_POST`

```
$_POST['name'] = trim($_POST['name']);  
  
if (strlen($_POST['name']) = = 0) {  
    $errors[ ] = "Your name is required.";  
}
```

Because `$_POST` is auto-global, a change to one of its elements inside the `validate_form()` function persists to other uses of `$_POST` after the change in another function, such as `process_form()`.

6.4.3 Number Ranges

To check whether a number falls within a certain range, first make sure the input is a number. Then, use an `if()` statement to test the value of the input, as shown in [Example 6-15](#).

Example 6-15. Checking for a number range

```
if ($_POST['age'] != strval(intval($_POST['age']))) {
    $errors[ ] = "Your age must be a number.";
} elseif (($_POST['age'] < 18) || ($_POST['age'] > 65)) {
    $errors[ ] = "Your age must be at least 18 and no more than 65.";
}
```

To test a date range, convert the submitted date value into an epoch timestamp and then check that the timestamp is appropriate. (For more information on epoch timestamps and the `strtotime()` function used in [Example 6-16](#), see [Chapter 9](#).) Because epoch timestamps are integers, you don't have to do anything special when using a range that spans a month or year boundary. [Example 6-16](#) checks to see whether a supplied date is less than six months old.

Example 6-16. Checking a date range

```
// Get the epoch timestamp for 6 months ago
$range_start = strtotime('6 months ago');
// Get the epoch timestamp for right now
$range_end = time();

// 4-digit year is in $_POST['yr']
// 2-digit month is in $_POST['mo']
// 2-digit day is in $_POST['dy']
$submitted_date = strtotime($_POST['yr'] . '-' .
    $_POST['mo'] . '-' .
    $_POST['dy']);

if (($range_start > $submitted_date) || ($range_end < $submitted_date)) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please choose a date less than six months old.';
}
```

6.4.4 Email Addresses

Checking an email address is arguably the most common form validation task. There is, however, no perfect one-step way to make sure an email address is valid, since "valid" could mean different things depending on your goal. If you truly want to make sure that someone providing you an email address is giving you a working address, and that the person providing it controls that address, you need to do two things. First, when the email address is submitted, send a message containing a random string to that address. In the message, tell the user to submit the random string in a form on your site. Or, include a URL in the message that the user can just click on, which has the code embedded into it. If the code is submitted (or the URL is clicked on), then you know that the person who received the message and controls the email address submitted it to your site (or at least is aware of and approves of the submission).

If you don't want to go to all the trouble of verifying the email address with a separate message, there are still some syntax checks you can do in your form validation code to weed out mistyped addresses. The regular expression `^[^@\s]+@[^-a-`

`z0-9]+\.\.)+[a-z]{2,}$` matches most common email addresses and fails to match common mistypings of addresses. Use it with `preg_match()` as shown in [Example 6-17](#).

Example 6-17. Checking the syntax of an email address

```
if (! preg_match('/^[^\s]+@[(-a-z0-9]+\.\.)+[a-z]{2,}$/i',
    $_POST['email'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid e-mail address';
}
```

The one danger with this regular expression is that it doesn't allow any whitespace in the username part of the email address (before the @). An address such as "Marles Pickens"@sludge.example.com is valid according to the standard that defines Internet email addresses, but it won't pass this test because of the space character in it. Fortunately, addresses with embedded whitespace are rare enough that you shouldn't run into any problems with it.

6.4.5 <select> Menus

When you use a `<select>` menu in a form, you need to ensure that the submitted value for the menu element is one of the permitted choices in the menu. Although a user can't submit an off-menu value using a mainstream, well-behaved browser such as Mozilla or Internet Explorer, an attacker can construct a request containing any arbitrary value without using a browser.

To simplify display and validation of `<select>` menus, put the menu choices in an array. Then, iterate through that array to display the `<select>` menu inside the `show_form()` function. Use the same array in `validate_form()` to check the submitted value. [Example 6-18](#) shows how to display a `<select>` menu with this technique.

Example 6-18. Displaying a <select> menu

```
$sweets = array('Sesame Seed Puff', 'Coconut Milk Gelatin Square',
    'Brown Sugar Cake', 'Sweet Rice and Meat');

// Display the form
function show_form( ) {
    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="post" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your Order: <select name="order">

    _HTML_;
foreach ($GLOBALS['sweets'] as $choice) {
    print "<option>$choice</option>\n";
}
print<<<_HTML_
</select>
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Order">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>
_HTML_;
}
```

The HTML that `show_form()` in [Example 6-18](#) prints is:

```
<form method="post" action="order.php">
Your Order: <select name="order">
<option>Sesame Seed Puff</option>
<option>Coconut Milk Gelatin Square</option>
<option>Brown Sugar Cake</option>
<option>Sweet Rice and Meat</option>
</select>
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Order">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>
```

Inside `validate_form()`, use the array of `<select>` menu options like this:

```
if (! in_array($_POST['order'], $GLOBALS['sweets'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please choose a valid order.';
}
```

If you want a `<select>` menu with different displayed choices and option values, you need to use a more complicated array. Each array element key is a value attribute for one option. The corresponding array element value is the displayed choice for that option. In [Example 6-19](#), the option values are `puff`, `square`, `cake`, and `ricemeat`. The displayed choices are Sesame Seed Puff, Coconut Milk Gelatin Square, Brown Sugar Cake, and Sweet Rice and Meat.

Example 6-19. A `<select>` menu with different choices and values

```
$sweets = array('puff' => 'Sesame Seed Puff',
                'square' => 'Coconut Milk Gelatin Square',
                'cake' => 'Brown Sugar Cake',
                'ricemeat' => 'Sweet Rice and Meat');

// Display the form
function show_form( ) {
    print<<<_HTML_
<form method="post" action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
Your Order: <select name="order">

    _HTML_;
// $val is the option value, $choice is what's displayed
foreach ($GLOBALS['sweets'] as $val => $choice) {
    print "<option value=\"\$val\">$choice</option>\n";
}
print<<<_HTML_
</select>
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Order">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>
    _HTML_;
}
```

The form displayed by [Example 6-19](#) is as follows:

```
<form method="post" action="order.php">
Your Order: <select name="order">
<option value="puff">Sesame Seed Puff</option>
<option value="square">Coconut Milk Gelatin Square</option>
<option value="cake">Brown Sugar Cake</option>
<option value="ricemeat">Sweet Rice and Meat</option>
</select>
<br/>
<input type="submit" value="Order">
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1">
</form>
```

The submitted value for the `<select>` menu in [Example 6-19](#) should be `puff`, `square`, `cake`, or `ricemeat`. [Example 6-20](#) shows how to verify this in `validate_form()`.

Example 6-20. Checking a `<select>` menu submission value

```
if (! array_key_exists($_POST['order'], $GLOBALS['sweets'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please choose a valid order.';
}
```

6.4.6 HTML and JavaScript

Submitted form data that contains HTML or JavaScript can cause big problems. Consider a simple "guestbook" application that lets users submit comments on a web page and then displays a list of those comments. If users behave nicely and enter only comments containing plain text, the guestbook remains benign. One user submits `Cool page! I like how you list the different ways to cook fish`. When you come along to browse the guestbook, that's what you see.

The situation is more complicated when the guestbook submissions are not just plain text. If an enthusiastic user submits `This page rules!!!!` as a comment, and it is redisplayed verbatim by the guestbook application, then you see `rules!!!!` in bold when you browse the guestbook. Your web browser can't tell the difference between HTML tags that come from the guestbook application itself (perhaps laying out the comments in a table or a list) and HTML tags that happen to be embedded in the comments that the guestbook is printing.

Although seeing bold text instead of plain text is a minor annoyance, displaying unfiltered user input leaves the guestbook open to giving you a much larger headache. Instead of `` tags, one user's submission could contain a malformed or unclosed tag (such as ``) that prevents your browser from displaying the page properly. Even worse, that submission could contain JavaScript code that, when executed by your web browser as you look at the guestbook, does nasty stuff such as send a copy of your cookies to a stranger's email box or surreptitiously redirect you to another web page.

The guestbook acts as a facilitator, letting a malicious user upload some HTML or JavaScript that is later run by an unwitting user's browser. This kind of problem is called a *cross-site scripting attack* because the poorly written guestbook allows code from one source (the malicious user) to masquerade as coming from another place (the guestbook site.)

To prevent cross-site scripting attacks in your programs, never display unmodified external input. Either remove suspicious parts (such as HTML tags) or encode special characters so that browsers don't act on embedded HTML or JavaScript. PHP gives you two functions that make these tasks simple. The `strip_tags()` function removes HTML tags from a string, and the `htmlspecialchars()` function encodes special HTML characters.

[Example 6-21](#) demonstrates `strip_tags()`.

Example 6-21. Stripping HTML tags from a string

```
// Remove HTML from comments
$comments = strip_tags($_POST['comments']);
// Now it's OK to print $comments
print $comments;
```

If `$_POST['comments']` contains `I love sweet <div class="fancy">rice</div> & tea.`, then [Example 6-21](#) prints:

```
I love sweet rice & tea.
```

All HTML tags and their attributes are removed, but the plain text between the tags is left intact.

[Example 6-22](#) demonstrates `htmlspecialchars()`.

Example 6-22. Encoding HTML entities in a string

```
$comments = htmlspecialchars($_POST['comments']);
// Now it's OK to print $comments
print $comments;
```

If `$_POST['comments']` contains `I love sweet <div class="fancy">rice</div> & tea.`, then [Example 6-22](#) prints:

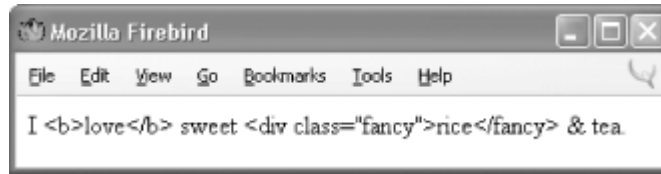
```
I &lt;b&gt;love&lt;/b&gt; sweet &lt;div class="fancy"&gt;rice&lt;/div&gt; & tea.
```

The characters that have a special meanings in HTML (`<`, `>`, `&`, and `"`) have been changed into their entity equivalents:

- `<` to `<`;
- `>` to `>`;
- `&` to `&`;
- `"` to `"`;

When a browser sees `<`, it prints out a `<` character instead of thinking "OK, here comes an HTML tag." This is the same idea (but with a different syntax) as escaping a `"` or `$` character inside a double-quoted string, as you saw earlier in [Chapter 2](#) in [Section 2.1](#). [Figure 6-4](#) shows what the output of [Example 6-22](#) looks like in a web browser.

Figure 6-4. Displaying entity-encoded text



In most applications, you should use `htmlspecialchars()` to sanitize external input. This function doesn't throw away any content, and it also protects against cross-site scripting attacks. A discussion board where users post messages, for example, about HTML ("What does the `<div>` tag do?") or algebra ("If $x < y$, is $2x > z$?") wouldn't be very useful if those posts were run through `strip_tags()`. The questions would be printed as "What does the tag do?" and "If xz ?".

6.4.7 Beyond Syntax

Most of the validation strategies discussed in this chapter so far check the syntax of a submitted value. They make sure that what's submitted matches a certain format. However, sometimes you want to make sure that a submitted value has not just the correct syntax, but an acceptable meaning as well. The `<select>` menu validation does this. Instead of just assuring that the submitted value is a string, it matches against a specific array of values. The confirmation-message strategy for checking email messages is another example of checking for more than syntax. If you ensure only that a submitted email address has the correct form, a mischievous user can provide an address such as `president@whitehouse.gov` that almost certainly doesn't belong to her. The confirmation message makes sure that the meaning of the address—i.e., "this email address belongs to the user providing it"—is correct.

6.5 Displaying Default Values

Sometimes, you want to display a form with a value already in a text box or with selected checkboxes, radio buttons, or `<select>` menu items. Additionally, when you redisplay a form because of an error, it is helpful to preserve any information that a user has already entered. [Example 6-23](#) shows the code to do this. It belongs at the beginning of `show_form()` and makes `$defaults` the array of values to use with the form elements.

Example 6-23. Building an array of defaults

```
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    $defaults = $_POST;
} else {
    $defaults = array('delivery' => 'yes',
                    'size'      => 'medium',
                    'main_dish' => array('taro', 'tripe'),
                    'sweet'    => 'cake');
}
```

If `$_POST['_submit_check']` is set, that means the form has been submitted. In that case, the defaults should come from whatever the user submitted. If `$_POST['_submit_check']` is not set, then you can set your own defaults. For most form parameters, the default is a string or a number. For form elements that can have more than one value, such as the multivalued `<select>` menu `main_dish`, the default value is an array.

After setting the defaults, provide the appropriate value from `$defaults` when printing out the HTML tag for the form element. Remember to encode the defaults with `htmlentities()` when necessary in order to prevent cross-site scripting attacks. Because of the structure of the HTML tags, you need to treat text boxes, `<select>` menus, text areas, and checkboxes/radio buttons differently.

For text boxes, set the `value` attribute of the `<input>` tag to the appropriate element of `$defaults`. [Example 6-24](#) shows how to do this.

Example 6-24. Setting a default value in a text box

```
print '<input type="text" name="my_name" value="' .  
      htmlentities($defaults['my_name']). '">';
```

For multiline text areas, put the entity-encoded value between the `<textarea>` and `</textarea>` tags, as shown in [Example 6-25](#).

Example 6-25. Setting a default value in a multiline text area

```
print '<textarea name="comments">';  
print htmlentities($defaults['comments']);  
print '</textarea>';
```

For `<select>` menus, add a check to the loop that prints out the `<option>` tags that prints a `selected="selected"` attribute when appropriate. [Example 6-26](#) contains the code to do this for a single-valued `<select>` menu.

Example 6-26. Setting a default value in a `<select>` menu

```
$sweets = array('puff' => 'Sesame Seed Puff',  
               'square' => 'Coconut Milk Gelatin Square',  
               'cake' => 'Brown Sugar Cake',  
               'ricemeat' => 'Sweet Rice and Meat');  
  
print '<select name="sweet">';  
// $val is the option value, $choice is what's displayed  
foreach ($sweets as $option => $label) {  
    print '<option value="' . $option . '"';  
    if ($option == $defaults['sweet']) {  
        print ' selected="selected"';  
    }  
    print "> $label</option>\n";  
}  
print '</select>';
```

To set defaults for a multivalued `<select>` menu, you need to convert the array of defaults into an associative array in which each key is a choice that should be selected. Then, print the `selected="selected"` attribute for the options found in that associative array. [Example 6-27](#) demonstrates how to do this.

Example 6-27. Setting defaults in a multivalued `<select>` menu

```
$main_dishes = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
```

```

        'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",
        'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
        'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',
        'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
        'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');

print '<select name="main_dish[ ]" multiple="multiple">';

$selected_options = array( );
foreach ($defaults['main_dish'] as $option) {
    $selected_options[$option] = true;
}

// print out the <option> tags
foreach ($main_dishes as $option => $label) {
    print '<option value="' . htmlentities($option) . '"';
    if ($selected_options[$option]) {
        print ' selected="selected"';
    }
    print '>' . htmlentities($label) . '</option>';

    print "\n";
}
print '</select>';

```

For checkboxes and radio buttons, add a `checked="checked"` attribute to the `<input>` tag. The syntax for checkboxes and radio buttons is identical except for the `type` attribute. [Example 6-28](#) prints a default-aware checkbox named `delivery` and prints three default-aware radio buttons, each named `size` and each with a different value.

Example 6-28. Setting defaults for checkboxes and radio buttons

```

print '<input type="checkbox" name="delivery" value="yes";
if ($defaults['delivery'] = = 'yes') { print ' checked="checked"'; }
print '> Delivery?';

print '<input type="radio" name="size" value="small";
if ($defaults['size'] = = 'small') { print ' checked="checked"'; }
print '> Small ';
print '<input type="radio" name="size" value="medium";
if ($defaults['size'] = = 'medium') { print ' checked="checked"'; }
print '> Medium';
print '<input type="radio" name="size" value="large";
if ($defaults['size'] = = 'large') { print ' checked="checked"'; }
print '> Large';

```

6.6 Putting It All Together

Turning the humble web form into a feature-packed application with data validation, printing default values, and processing the submitted results might seem like an intimidating task. To ease your burden, this section contains a complete example of a program that does it all:

- Displaying a form, including default values
- Validating the submitted data
- Redisplaying the form with error messages and preserved user input if the submitted data isn't valid
- Processing the submitted data if it is valid

The do-it-all example relies on some helper functions to simplify form element display. These are listed in [Example 6-29](#).

Example 6-29. Form element display helper functions

```
//print a text box
function input_text($element_name, $values) {
    print '<input type="text" name="' . $element_name .'" value="';
    print htmlentities($values[$element_name]) . '">';
}

//print a submit button
function input_submit($element_name, $label) {
    print '<input type="submit" name="' . $element_name .'" value="';
    print htmlentities($label) . '" />';
}

//print a textarea
function input_textarea($element_name, $values) {
    print '<textarea name="' . $element_name .'">';
    print htmlentities($values[$element_name]) . '</textarea>';
}

//print a radio button or checkbox
function input_radiocheck($type, $element_name, $values, $element_value) {
    print '<input type="' . $type . '" name="' . $element_name .'" value="' . $element_
value . '" ';
    if ($element_value == $values[$element_name]) {
        print ' checked="checked" ';
    }
    print '>';
}

//print a <select> menu
function input_select($element_name, $selected, $options, $multiple = false) {
    // print out the <select> tag
    print '<select name="' . $element_name;
    // if multiple choices are permitted, add the multiple attribute
    // and add a [ ] to the end of the tag name
    if ($multiple) { print '[ ]" multiple="multiple"; }
    print '">';

    // set up the list of things to be selected
    $selected_options = array( );
    if ($multiple) {
        foreach ($selected[$element_name] as $val) {
            $selected_options[$val] = true;
        }
    } else {
        $selected_options[ $selected[$element_name] ] = true;
    }
}
```

```

// print out the <option> tags
foreach ($options as $option => $label) {
    print '<option value="' . htmlentities($option) . '"';
    if ($selected_options[$option]) {
        print ' selected="selected"';
    }
    print '>' . htmlentities($label) . '</option>';
}
print '</select>';
}

```

Each helper function in [Example 6-29](#) incorporates the appropriate logic discussed in [Section 6.5](#) for a particular kind of form element. Because the form code in [Example 6-30](#) has a number of different elements, it's easier to put the element display code in functions that are called repeatedly than to duplicate the code each time you need to print a particular element.

The `input_text()` function takes two arguments: the name of the text element and an array of form element values. It prints out an `<input type="text">` tag—a single-line text box. If there is an entry in the form element values array that matches the text element's name, that entry is used for the value attribute of the `<input type="text">` tag. Any special characters in the value are encoded with `htmlentities()`.

The `input_submit()` function prints an `<input type="submit">` tag—a submit button. It takes two arguments: the name of the button and the label that should appear on the button.

The `input_textarea()` function takes two arguments like `input_text()`: the element name and an array of form element values. Instead of a single-line text box, however, it prints the `<textarea></textarea>` tag pair for a multiline text box. If there is an entry in the form element values array that matches the element name, that entry is used as the default value of the multiline text box. Special characters in the value are encoded with `htmlentities()`.

Both radio buttons and checkboxes are handled by `input_radiocheck()`. The first argument to this function is either `radio` (to display a radio button) or `checkbox` (to display a checkbox). This determines whether the function prints an `<input type="radio">` tag or an `<input type="checkbox">` tag. Then comes the element name, the array of form element values, and the value for this particular element. You need to pass both the entire array of form element values and the value for the specific element so the function can see whether the entry in the array for this element matches the passed-in value. For example, [Example 6-30](#) prints three radio buttons named `size`, each with a different value (`small`, `medium`, and `large`). Only one of those radio buttons can have the `checked="checked"` attribute set: the one whose entry in the form element values array matches the passed-in value.

The `input_select()` function prints `<select>` menus. It requires three arguments: the name of the element, an array of form element values, and an array of options to display in the menu. You can also pass `true` as a fourth argument to allow multiple values to be selected in the menu. The function uses the logic from [Examples 6-26](#) and [Example 6-27](#) to build the `$selected_options` array with one entry for each menu choice that should be marked with the `selected="selected"` attribute. Then, it loops through the `$options` array, printing out one `<option></option>` tag pair for each menu choice.

The code in [Example 6-30](#) relies on the form helper functions and displays a short food-ordering form. When the form is submitted correctly, it shows the results in the browser and emails them to an address defined in `process_form()`

(presumably to the chef, so he can start preparing your order). Because the code jumps in and out of PHP mode, it includes the `<?php` start tag at the beginning of the example and the `?>` closing tag at the end to make things clearer.

Example 6-30. A complete form: display with defaults, validation, and processing

```
<?php
// don't forget to include the code for the form
// helper functions defined in Example 6-29
//
// setup the arrays of choices in the select menus
// these are needed in display_form( ), validate_form( ),
// and process_form( ), so they are declared in the global scope
$sweets = array('puff' => 'Sesame Seed Puff',
               'square' => 'Coconut Milk Gelatin Square',
               'cake' => 'Brown Sugar Cake',
               'ricemeat' => 'Sweet Rice and Meat');

$main_dishes = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
                    'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",
                    'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
                    'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',
                    'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
                    'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');

// The main page logic:
// - If the form is submitted, validate and then process or redisplay
// - If it's not submitted, display
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted parameters
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, set our own defaults: medium size and yes to delivery
        $defaults = array('delivery' => 'yes',
                        'size' => 'medium');
    }

    // If errors were passed in, put them in $error_text (with HTML markup)
    if ($errors) {
        $error_text = '<tr><td>You need to correct the following errors:';
        $error_text .= '</td><td><ul><li>';
        $error_text .= implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        $error_text .= '</li></ul></td></tr>';
    } else {
```

```

        // No errors? Then $error_text is blank
        $error_text = '';
    }

    // Jump out of PHP mode to make displaying all the HTML tags easier
?>
<form method="POST" action="<?php print $_SERVER['PHP_SELF']; ?>">
<table>
<?php print $error_text ?>

<tr><td>Your Name:</td>
<td><?php input_text('name', $defaults) ?></td></tr>

<tr><td>Size:</td>
<td><?php input_radiocheck('radio','size', $defaults, 'small'); ?> Small <br/>
<?php input_radiocheck('radio','size', $defaults, 'medium'); ?> Medium <br/>
<?php input_radiocheck('radio','size', $defaults, 'large'); ?> Large
</td></tr>

<tr><td>Pick one sweet item:</td>
<td><?php input_select('sweet', $defaults, $GLOBALS['sweets']); ?>
</td></tr>

<tr><td>Pick two main dishes:</td>
<td>
<?php input_select('main_dish', $defaults, $GLOBALS['main_dishes'], true) ?>
</td></tr>

<tr><td>Do you want your order delivered?</td>
<td><?php input_radiocheck('checkbox','delivery', $defaults, 'yes'); ?> Yes
</td></tr>

<tr><td>Enter any special instructions.<br/>
If you want your order delivered, put your address here:</td>
<td><?php input_textarea('comments', $defaults); ?></td></tr>

<tr><td colspan="2" align="center"><?php input_submit('save','Order'); ?>
</td></tr>

</table>
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>
</form>
<?php
    } // The end of show_form( )

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // name is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['name']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter your name.';
    }
    // size is required
    if (($_POST['size'] != 'small') && ($_POST['size'] != 'medium') &&
        ($_POST['size'] != 'large')) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a size.';
    }
}

```



```

// sweet is required
if (! array_key_exists($_POST['sweet'], $GLOBALS['sweets'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please select a valid sweet item.';
}
// exactly two main dishes required
if (count($_POST['main_dish']) != 2) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please select exactly two main dishes.';
} else {
    // We know there are two main dishes selected, so make sure they are
    // both valid
    if (!(array_key_exists($_POST['main_dish'][0], $GLOBALS['main_dishes']) &&
        array_key_exists($_POST['main_dish'][1], $GLOBALS['main_dishes']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select exactly two valid main dishes.';
    }
}
// if delivery is checked, then comments must contain something
if (($_POST['delivery'] = = 'yes') && (! strlen(trim($_POST['comments'])))) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please enter your address for delivery.';
}

return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {
    // look up the full names of the sweet and the main dishes in
    // the $GLOBALS['sweets'] and $GLOBALS['main_dishes'] arrays
    $sweet = $GLOBALS['sweets'][$_POST['sweet'] ];
    $main_dish_1 = $GLOBALS['main_dishes'][$_POST['main_dish'][0] ];
    $main_dish_2 = $GLOBALS['main_dishes'][$_POST['main_dish'][1] ];
    if ($_POST['delivery'] = = 'yes') {
        $delivery = 'do';
    } else {
        $delivery = 'do not';
    }
    // build up the text of the order message
    $message=<<<_ORDER_
Thank you for your order, $_POST[name].
You requested the $_POST[size] size of $sweet, $main_dish_1, and $main_dish_2.
You $delivery want delivery.
_ORDER_;
    if (strlen(trim($_POST['comments']))) {
        $message .= 'Your comments: '.$_POST['comments'];
    }

    // send the message to the chef
    mail('chef@restaurant.example.com', 'New Order', $message);
    // print the message, but encode any HTML entities
    // and turn newlines into <br/> tags
    print nl2br(htmlentities($message));
}
?>

```

There are four parts to the code in [Example 6-30](#): the code in the global scope at the top of the example, the `show_form()` function, the `validate_form()` function, and the `process_form()` function.

The global scope code does two things. The first is it sets up two arrays that describe the choices in the form's two `<select>` menus. Because these arrays are used by each of the `show_form()`, `validate_form()`, and `process_form()` functions, they need to be defined in the global scope. The global code's other task is to process the `if()` statement that decides what to do: display, validate, or process the form.

Displaying the form is accomplished by `show_form()`. First, the function makes `$defaults` an array of default values. If the form has been submitted and is being redisplayed, then the default values come from `$_POST`. Otherwise, they are explicitly set to `yes` for the `delivery` checkbox and `medium` for the `size` radio button. Then, `show_form()` prints out a list of errors, if any were passed to it. The HTML list of errors is constructed from the `$errors` array using `implode()` in a similar technique to the one shown in [Example 4-21](#). Next, `show_form()` jumps out of PHP mode to print the form. Amid the HTML table-formatting tags, it returns to PHP mode repeatedly to call the helper functions that print out the appropriate tags for each form element. The hidden `_submit_check` element at the end of the form is printed without using a helper function.

The `validate_form()` function builds an array of error messages if the submitted form data doesn't meet appropriate criteria. Note that the checks for `size`, `sweet`, and `main_dish` don't just look to see whether something was submitted for those parameters, but also check whether what was submitted is a valid value for the particular parameter. For `size`, this means that the submitted value must be `small`, `medium`, or `large`. For `sweet` and `main_dish`, this means that the submitted values must be keys in the global `$sweets` or `$main_dishes` arrays. Even though the form contains default values, it's still a good idea to validate the input. Someone trying to break into your web site could bypass a regular web browser and construct a request with an arbitrary value that isn't a legitimate choice for the `<select>` menu or radio button.

Last, `process_form()` takes action when the form is submitted with valid data. It builds a string, `$message`, that contains a description of the submitted order. Then it emails `$message` to `chef@restaurant.example.com` and prints it. The built-in `mail()` function sends the email message. (See [Section 13.5](#) for more details on `mail()`.) Before printing `$message`, `process_form()` passes it through two functions. The first is `htmlentities()`, which, as you've already seen, encodes any special characters as HTML entities. The second is `nl2br()`, which turns any newlines in `$message` into HTML `
` tags. Turning newlines into `
` tags makes the line breaks in the message display properly in a web browser.

6.7 Chapter Summary

Chapter 6 covers:

- Understanding the conversation between the web browser and web server that displays a form, processes the submitted form parameters, and then displays a result.
- Making the connection between the `<form>` tag's `action` attribute and the URL to which form parameters are submitted.
- Using values from the `$_SERVER` auto-global array.
- Accessing submitted form parameters in the `$_GET` and `$_POST` auto-global arrays.
- Accessing multivalued submitted form parameters.
- Using `show_form()`, `validate_form()`, and `process_form()` functions to modularize form handling.
- Using a hidden form element to check whether a form has been submitted.
- Displaying error messages with a form.
- Validating form elements: required elements, integers, floating-point numbers, strings, date ranges, email addresses, and `<select>` menus.

- Defanging or removing submitted HTML and JavaScript before displaying it.
- Displaying default values for form elements.
- Using helper functions to display form elements.

6.8 Exercises

1. What does `$_POST` look like when the following form is submitted with the third option in the `Braised Noodles` menu selected, the first and last options in the `Sweet` menu selected, and 4 entered into the text box?

```

2. <form method="POST" action="order.php">
3. Braised Noodles with: <select name="noodle">
4. <option>crab meat</option>
5. <option>mushroom</option>
6. <option>barbecued pork</option>
7. <option>shredded ginger and green onion</option>
8. </select>
9. <br/>
10. Sweet: <select name="sweet[ ]" multiple>
11. <option value="puff"> Sesame Seed Puff
12. <option value="square"> Coconut Milk Gelatin Square
13. <option value="cake"> Brown Sugar Cake
14. <option value="ricemeat"> Sweet Rice and Meat
15. </select>
16. <br/>
17. Sweet Quantity: <input type="text" name="sweet_q">
18. <br/>
19. <input type="submit" name="submit" value="Order">
    </form>

```

2. Write a `process_form()` function that prints out all submitted form parameters and their values. You can assume that form parameters have only scalar values.
4. Write a program that does basic arithmetic. Display a form with text box inputs for two operands and a `<select>` menu to choose an operation: addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division. Validate the inputs to make sure that they are numeric and appropriate for the chosen operation. The processing function should display the operands, operator, and the result. For example, if the operands are 4 and 2 and the operation is multiplication, the processing function should display something like "4 * 2 = 8".
5. Write a program that displays, validates, and processes a form for entering information about a package to be shipped. The form should contain inputs for the from and to addresses for the package, dimensions of the package, and weight of the package. The validation should check (at least) that the package weighs no more than 150 pounds and that no dimension of the package is more than 36 inches. You can assume that the addresses entered on the form are both U.S. addresses, but you should check that a valid state and a ZIP Code with valid syntax are entered. The processing function in your program should print out the information about the package in an organized, formatted report.
6. (Optional) Modify your `process_form()` function from Exercise 6.2 so that it correctly handles submitted form parameters that have array values. Remember, those array values could themselves contain arrays.

Chapter 7. Storing Information with Databases

The HTML and CSS that give your web site its pretty face reside in individual files on your web server. So does the PHP code that processes forms and performs other dynamic wizardry. There's a third kind of information necessary to a web application, though: data. And while you can store data such as user lists and product information in individual files, most people find it easier to use databases, which are the focus of this chapter.

Lots of information falls under the broad umbrella of "data":

- Who your users are, such as their names and email addresses.
- What your users do, such as message board posts and profile information.
- The "stuff" that your site is about, such as a list of record albums, a product catalog, or what's for dinner.

There are three big reasons why this kind of data belongs in a database instead of in files: convenience, simultaneous access, and security. A database program makes it much easier to search for and manipulate individual pieces of information. With a database program, you can do things such as change the email address for user `Duck29` to `ducky@ducks.example.com` in one step. If you put usernames and email addresses in a file, changing an email address would be much more complicated: read the old file, search through each line until you find the one for `Duck29`, change the line, and write the file back out. If, at same time, one request updates `Duck29`'s email address and another updates the record for user `Piggy56`, one update could be lost, or (worse) the data file corrupted. Database software manages the intricacies of simultaneous access for you.

In addition to searchability, database programs usually provide you with a different set of access control options compared to files. It is an exacting process to set things up properly so that your PHP programs can create, edit, and delete files on your web server without opening the door to malicious attackers who could abuse that setup to alter your PHP scripts and data files. A database program makes it easier to arrange the appropriate levels of access to your information. It can be configured so that your PHP programs can read and change some information, but only read other information. However the database access control is set up, it doesn't affect how files on the web server are accessed. Just because your PHP program can change values in the database doesn't give an attacker an opportunity to change your PHP programs and HTML files themselves.

The word *database* is used in a few different ways when talking about web applications. A database can be a pile of structured information, a program (such as MySQL or Oracle) that manages that structured information, or the computer on which that program runs. In this book, I use "database" to mean the pile of structured information. The software that manages the information is a *database program*, and the computer that the database program runs on is a *database server*.

Most of this chapter uses the PEAR DB database program abstraction layer. This is an add-on to PHP that simplifies communication between your PHP program and your database program. PEAR (PHP Extension and Application Repository) is a collection of useful modules and libraries for PHP. The DB module is one of the most popular PEAR modules and is bundled with recent versions of PHP. If your PHP installation doesn't have DB installed ([Section 7.2](#), later in this chapter, shows you how to check), see [Section A.3](#) for instructions on how to install it.

When DB isn't available, you need to rely on other PHP functions to talk to your database program. The appropriate set of functions varies with each database program. Some of the more exotic features of your database program may only be

accessible through the database-specific functions. Later in this chapter, [Section 7.12](#) discusses shows how to work with the functions in the `mysqli` extension, which talks to MySQL (Versions 4.1.2 and greater).

7.1 Organizing Data in a Database

Information in your database is organized in *tables*, which have rows and columns. (Columns are also sometimes referred to as *fields*.) Each column in a table is a category of information, and each row is a set of values for each column. For example, a table holding information about dishes on a menu would have columns for each dish's ID, name, price, and spiciness. Each row in the table is the group of values for on particular dish—for example, "1," "Fried Bean Curd," "5.50," and "0" (meaning not spicy).

You can think of a table organized like a simple spreadsheet, with column names across the top, as shown in [Figure 7-1](#).

Figure 7-1. Data organized in a grid

ID	Name	Price	Is spicy?
1	Fried Bean Curd	5.50	0
2	Braised Sea Cucumber	9.95	0
3	Walnut Bun	1.00	0
4	Eggplant with Chilli Sauce	6.50	1

One important difference between a spreadsheet and a database table, however, is that the rows in a database table have no inherent order. When you want to retrieve data from a table with the rows arranged in a particular way (e.g., in alphabetic order by student name), you need to explicitly specify that order when you ask the database for the data. The [SQL Lesson: ORDER BY and LIMIT](#) sidebar in this chapter describes how to do this.

SQL (Structured Query Language) is a language to ask questions of and give instructions to the database program. Your PHP program sends SQL queries to a database program. If the query retrieves data in the database (for example, "Find me all spicy dishes"), then the database program responds with the set of rows that match the query. If the query changes data in the database (for example, "Add this new dish" or "Double the prices of all nonspicy dishes"), then the database program replies with whether or not the operation succeeded.

SQL is a mixed bag when it comes to case-sensitivity. SQL keywords are not case-sensitive, but in this book they are always written as uppercase to distinguish them from the other parts of the queries. Names of tables and columns in your queries generally are case-sensitive. All of the SQL examples in this book use lowercase column and table names to help you distinguish them from the SQL keywords. Any literal values that you put in queries are case-sensitive. Telling the database program that the name of a new dish is `fried bean curd` is different than telling it that the new dish is called `FRIED Bean Curd`.

Almost all of the SQL queries that you write to use in your PHP programs rely on one of four SQL commands: `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or `SELECT`. Each of these commands is described in this chapter. [Section 7.3](#) describes the `CREATE TABLE` command, which you use to make new tables in your database.

To learn more about SQL, read *SQL in a Nutshell*, by Kevin E. Kline (O'Reilly). It provides an overview of standard SQL as well as the SQL extensions in MySQL, Oracle, PostgreSQL, and Microsoft SQL Server. For more in-depth information about working with PHP and MySQL, read *Web Database Applications with PHP & MySQL*, by Hugh E. Williams and David Lane (O'Reilly). *MySQL Cookbook*, by Paul DuBois (O'Reilly) is also an excellent source for answers to lots of SQL and MySQL questions.

7.2 Connecting to a Database Program

To use PEAR DB in a PHP program, first you have to load the DB module. Use the `require` construct, as shown in [Example 7-1](#).

Example 7-1. Loading an external file with `require`

```
require 'DB.php';
```

[Example 7-1](#) tells the PHP interpreter to execute all of the code in the file *DB.php*. *DB.php* is the main file of the PEAR DB package. It defines the functions that you use to talk to your database.

Similar to `require` is `include`. These constructs differ in how they handle errors. If you try to include or require a file that doesn't exist, `require` considers that a fatal error and your PHP program ends. The `include` construct is more forgiving and just reports a warning, allowing your program to continue running.

After the DB module is loaded, you need to establish a connection to the database with the `DB::connect()` function. You pass `DB::connect()` a string that describes the database you are connecting to, and it returns an *object* that you use in the rest of your program to exchange information with the database program.

An object is a new data type. It's a bundle of some data and functions that operate on that data. PEAR DB uses objects to provide you with a connection to the database. The double colons in the `DB::connect()` function call are a way of telling the PHP interpreter that you're calling a special function based on an object.

[Example 7-2](#) shows a call to `DB::connect()` that connects to MySQL.

Example 7-2. Connecting with `DB::connect()`

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://penguin:top^hat@db.example.com/restaurant');
```

The string passed to `DB::connect()` is called a Data Source Name (DSN). Its general form is:

```
db_program://user:password@hostname/database
```

In [Example 7-2](#), the DSN tells PEAR DB to connect to MySQL running on the database server `db.example.com` as user `penguin` with the password `top^hat`, and to access the `restaurant` database on that server.

PEAR DB supports 13 options for the `db_program` part of the DSN. These are listed in [Table 7-1](#).

Table 7-1. PEAR DB db_program options

db_program	Database program
dbase	dBase
fbsql	FrontBase
ibase	InterBase
ifx	Informix
msql	Mini SQL
mssql	Microsoft SQL Server
mysql	MySQL (versions <= 4.0)
mysqli	MySQL (versions >= 4.1.2)
oci8	Oracle (Versions 7, 8, and 9)
odbc	ODBC
pgsql	PostgreSQL
sqlite	SQLite
sybase	Sybase

When your database program is running on the same computer as your web server, specify `localhost` as the *hostname* part of the DSN, as shown in [Example 7-3](#).

Example 7-3. Connecting to localhost

```
$db = DB::connect('mysql://penguin:top^hat@localhost/restaurant');
```

If all goes well with `DB::connect()`, it returns an object that you use to interact with the database. If there is a problem connecting, it returns a different kind of object that contains information about what went wrong. The `DB::isError()` function checks whether the object contains error information. Use it to make sure that the connection was made before going forward in your program. [Example 7-4](#) uses `DB::isError()` to verify that `DB::connect()` succeeded.

Example 7-4. Checking for connection errors

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://penguin:top^hat@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
```


The `DB::isError()` function returns `true` if the object passed to it contains error information. The `die()` function prints out a message and then causes the script to quit. In this case, the message is the string `Can't connect:` followed by the results of the `$db->getMessage()` call. The `getMessage()` function returns more information about the error.

Earlier, I said that an object is a bundle of data and functions that operate on that data. A `->` after an object tells the PHP interpreter that you want to call one of those functions in the object. Once you have called `DB::connect`, you use the functions in the object to interact with the database. The code `$db->getMessage()` means "call the `getMessage()` function inside the `$db` object." In this case, the `$db` object holds error information and the `getMessage()` function prints out some of that information.

For example, if `top^hat` is the wrong password for user `penguin`, [Example 7-4](#) prints:

```
Can't connect: DB Error: connect failed
```

7.3 Creating a Table

Before you can put any data into or retrieve any data from a database table, you must create the table. This is usually a one-time operation. You tell the database program to create a new table once. Your PHP program that uses the table may read from or write to that table every time it runs. But it doesn't have to re-create the table each time. If a database table is like a spreadsheet, then creating a table is like making a new spreadsheet file. After you create the file, you open it many times to read or change it.

The SQL command to create a table is `CREATE TABLE`. You provide the name of the table and the names and types of all the columns in the table. [Example 7-5](#) shows the SQL command to create the `dishes` table pictured in [Figure 7-1](#).

Example 7-5. Creating the dishes table

```
CREATE TABLE dishes (  
    dish_id INT,  
    dish_name VARCHAR(255),  
    price DECIMAL(4,2),  
    is_spicy INT  
)
```

[Example 7-5](#) creates a table called `dishes` with four columns. The `dishes` table looks like the one pictured in [Figure 7-1](#). The columns in the table are `dish_id`, `dish_name`, `price`, and `is_spicy`. The `dish_id` and `is_spicy` columns are integers. The `price` column is a decimal number. The `dish_name` column is a string.

After the literal `CREATE TABLE` comes the name of the table. Then, between the parentheses, is a comma-separated list of the columns in the table. The phrase that defines each column has two parts: the column name and the column type. In [Example 7-5](#), the column names are `dish_id`, `dish_name`, `price`, and `is_spicy`. The column types are `INT`, `VARCHAR(255)`, `DECIMAL(4,2)`, and `INT`.

Some column types include length or formatting information in the parentheses. For example, `VARCHAR(255)` means "a variable length character column that is at most 255 characters long." The type `DECIMAL(4,2)` means "a decimal number

with two digits after the decimal place and four digits total." [Table 7-2](#) lists some common types for database table columns.

Table 7-2. Common database table column types

Column type	Description
<code>VARCHAR(<i>length</i>)</code>	A variable length string up to <i>length</i> characters long.
<code>INT</code>	An integer.
<code>BLOB^[1]</code>	Up to 64k of string or binary data.
<code>DECIMAL(<i>total_digits</i>,<i>decimal_places</i>)</code>	A decimal number with a total of <i>total_digits</i> digits and <i>decimal_places</i> digits after the decimal point.
<code>DATETIME^[2]</code>	A date and time, such as <code>1975-03-10 19:45:03</code> or <code>2038-01-18 22:14:07</code> .

^[1] PostgreSQL calls this `BYTEA` instead of `BLOB`.

^[2] Oracle calls this `DATE` instead of `DATETIME`.

Different database programs support different column types, although all database programs should support the types listed in [Table 7-2](#). The maximum and minimum numbers that the database can handle in numeric columns and the maximum size of text columns varies based on what database program you are using. For example, MySQL allows `VARCHAR` columns to be up to 255 characters long, but Microsoft SQL Server allows `VARCHAR` columns to be up to 8,000 characters long. Check your database manual for the specifics that apply to you.

To actually create the table, you need to send the `CREATE TABLE` command to the database. After connecting with `DB::connect()`, use the `query()` function to send the command as shown in [Example 7-6](#).

Example 7-6. Sending a `CREATE TABLE` command to the database program

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("connection error: " . $db->getMessage()); }
$q = $db->query("CREATE TABLE dishes (
    dish_id INT,
    dish_name VARCHAR(255),
    price DECIMAL(4,2),
    is_spicy INT
)");
```

[Section 7.4](#), explains `query()` in much more detail.

The opposite of `CREATE TABLE` is `DROP TABLE`. It removes a table and the data in it from a database. [Example 7-7](#) shows the syntax of a query that removes the `dishes` table.

Example 7-7. Removing a table

```
DROP TABLE dishes
```

Once you've dropped a table, it's gone for good, so be careful with `DROP TABLE!`

7.4 Putting Data into the Database

Assuming the connection to the database succeeds, the object returned by `DB::connect()` provides access to the data in your database. Calling that object's functions lets you send queries to the database program and access the results. To put some data into the database, pass an `INSERT` statement to the object's `query()` function, as shown in [Example 7-8](#).

Example 7-8. Inserting data with query()

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("connection error: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
$q = $db->query("INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name, price, is_spicy)
  VALUES ('Sesame Seed Puff', 2.50, 0)");
```

Just like with the `$db` object that `DB::connect()` returns, the `$q` object that `query()` returns can be tested with `DB::isError()` to check whether the query was successful. [Example 7-9](#) attempts an `INSERT` statement that has a bad column name in it. The `dishes` table doesn't contain a column called `dish_size`.

Example 7-9. Checking for errors from query()

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("connection error: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
$q = $db->query("INSERT INTO dishes (dish_size, dish_name, price, is_spicy)
  VALUES ('large', 'Sesame Seed Puff', 2.50, 0)");
if (DB::isError($q)) { die("query error: " . $q->getMessage( )); }
```

[Example 7-9](#) prints:

```
query error: DB Error: syntax error
```

Instead of calling `DB::isError()` after every query to see if it succeeded or failed, it's more convenient to use the `setErrorHandler()` function to establish a default error-handling behavior. Pass the constant `PEAR_ERROR_DIE` to `setErrorHandler()` to have your program automatically print an error message and exit if a query fails. [Example 7-10](#) uses `setErrorHandler()` and has the same incorrect query as [Example 7-9](#).

Example 7-10. Automatic error handling with setErrorHandling()

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
```

```
// print a message and quit on future database errors
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);

$q = $db->query("INSERT INTO dishes (dish_size, dish_name, price, is_spicy)
    VALUES ('large', 'Sesame Seed Puff', 2.50, 0)");
print "Query Succeeded!";
```

SQL Lesson: *INSERT*

The `INSERT` command adds a row to a database table. [Example 7-11](#) shows the syntax of `INSERT`.

Example 7-11. Inserting data

```
INSERT INTO table (column1[, column2, column3, ...])
VALUES (value1[, value2, value3, ...])
```

The `INSERT` query in [Example 7-12](#) adds a new dish to the `dishes` table.

Example 7-12. Inserting a new dish

```
INSERT INTO dishes (dish_id, dish_name, price, is_spicy)
VALUES (1, 'Braised Sea Cucumber', 6.50, 0)
```

String values such as `Braised Sea Cucumber` have to have single quotes around them when used in an SQL query. Because single quotes are used as string delimiters, you need to escape single quotes with a backslash when they appear inside of a query. [Example 7-13](#) shows how to insert a dish named `General Tso's Chicken` into the `dishes` table.

Example 7-13. Quoting a string value

```
INSERT INTO dishes (dish_id, dish_name, price, is_spicy)
VALUES (2, 'General Tso\'s Chicken', 6.75, 1)
```

The number of columns enumerated in the parentheses before `VALUES` must match the number of values in the parentheses after `VALUES`. To insert a row that contains values only for some columns, just specify those columns and their corresponding values, as shown in [Example 7-14](#).

Example 7-14. Inserting without all columns

```
INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name, is_spicy)
VALUES ('Salt Baked Scallops', 0)
```

As a shortcut, you can eliminate the column list when you're inserting values for all columns. [Example 7-15](#) performs the same `INSERT` as [Example 7-12](#).

Example 7-15. Inserting with values for all columns

```
INSERT INTO dishes
VALUES (1, 'Braised Sea Cucumber', 6.50, 0)
```

[Example 7-10](#) prints:

```
DB Error: syntax error
```

Because the program quits when it encounters the query error, the last line of [Example 7-10](#) never runs or prints its `Query Succeeded!` message.

The `setErrorHandler()` function belongs to the `$db` object, so you have to get a `$db` object by calling `DB::connect()` before you can call `setErrorHandler()`. Therefore, one call to `DB::isError()` is still necessary in your program to see whether the connection succeeded. Once that's taken care of, however, you can call `setErrorHandler()` and not scatter the rest of your program with `DB::isError()` calls. [Section 12.4](#) explains how to have `setErrorHandler()` print out a customized message when there is a database error.

Use the `query()` function to change data with `UPDATE` data as well. [Example 7-16](#) shows some `UPDATE` statements.

Example 7-16. Changing data with query()

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("connection error: " . $db->getMessage()); }
// Eggplant with Chili Sauce is spicy
$db->query("UPDATE dishes SET is_spicy = 1
          WHERE dish_name = 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce'");
// Lobster with Chili Sauce is spicy and pricy
$db->query("UPDATE dishes SET is_spicy = 1, price=price * 2
          WHERE dish_name = 'Lobster with Chili Sauce'");
```

Also use the `query()` function to delete data with `DELETE`. [Example 7-17](#) shows `query()` with two `DELETE` statements.

Example 7-17. Deleting data with query()

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("connection error: " . $db->getMessage()); }
// remove expensive dishes
if ($make_things_cheaper) {
    $db->query("DELETE FROM dishes WHERE price > 19.95");
} else {
    // or, remove all dishes
    $db->query("DELETE FROM dishes");
}
```

SQL Lesson: *UPDATE*

The `UPDATE` command changes data already in a table. [Example 7-18](#) shows the syntax of `UPDATE`.

Example 7-18. Updating data

```
UPDATE tablename SET column1=value1[, column2=value2,
    column3=value3, ...] [WHERE where_clause]
```

The value that a column is changed to can be a string or number, as shown in [Example 7-19](#). The lines in [Example 7-19](#) that begin with `;` are SQL comments.

Example 7-19. Setting a column to a string or number

```
; Change price to 5.50 in all rows of the table
UPDATE dishes SET price = 5.50

; Change is_spicy to 1 in all rows of the table
UPDATE dishes SET is_spicy = 1
```

The value can also be an expression that includes column names. The query in [Example 7-20](#) doubles the price of each dish.

Example 7-20. Using a column name in an UPDATE expression

```
UPDATE dishes SET price = price * 2
```

The `UPDATE` queries shown so far each change all rows in the `dishes` table. To just change some rows with an `UPDATE` query, add a `WHERE` clause. This is a logical expression that describes which rows you want to change. The changes in the `UPDATE` query then happen only in rows that match the `WHERE` clause. [Example 7-21](#) contains two `UPDATE` queries, each with a `WHERE` clause.

Example 7-21. Using a WHERE clause with UPDATE

```
; Change the spicy status of Eggplant with Chili Sauce
UPDATE dishes SET is_spicy = 1
    WHERE dish_name = 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce'

; Decrease the price of General Tso's Chicken
UPDATE dishes SET price = price - 1
    WHERE dish_name = 'General Tso\'s Chicken'
```

The `WHERE` clause is explained in more detail in the sidebar [SQL Lesson: SELECT](#).

The `affectedRows()` function tells you how many rows were changed or removed by an `UPDATE` or `DELETE` statement. Call `affectedRows()` immediately after a query to find out how many rows that query affected. [Example 7-22](#) reports how many rows have had their prices changed by an `UPDATE` query.

Example 7-22. Finding how many rows an `UPDATE` or `DELETE` affects

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("connection error: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
// Decrease the price some some dishes
$db->query("UPDATE dishes SET price=price - 5 WHERE price > 20");
print 'Changed the price of ' . $db->affectedRows( ) . 'rows.';
```

If there are five rows in the `dishes` table whose price is more than 20, then [Example 7-22](#) prints:

```
Changed the price of 5 rows.
```

SQL Lesson: *DELETE*

The `DELETE` command removes rows from a table. [Example 7-23](#) shows the syntax of `DELETE`.

Example 7-23. Removing rows from a table

```
DELETE FROM tablename [WHERE where_clause]
```

Without a `WHERE` clause, `DELETE` removes all the rows from the table. [Example 7-24](#) clears out the `dishes` table.

Example 7-24. Removing all rows from a table

```
DELETE FROM dishes
```

With a `WHERE` clause, `DELETE` removes the rows that match the `WHERE` clause. [Example 7-25](#) shows two `DELETE` queries with `WHERE` clauses.

Example 7-25. Removing some rows from a table

```
; Delete rows in which price is greater than 10.00
DELETE FROM dishes WHERE price > 10.00

; Delete rows in which dish_name is exactly "Walnut Bun"
DELETE FROM dishes WHERE dish_name = 'Walnut Bun'
```

There is no SQL `UNDELETE` command, so be careful with your `DELETES`.

7.5 Inserting Form Data Safely

As [Section 6.4.6](#) explained, printing unsanitized form data can leave you and your users vulnerable to a cross-site scripting attack. Using unsanitized form data in SQL queries can cause a similar problem, called an "SQL injection attack." Consider a form that lets a user suggest a new dish. The form contains a text element called `new_dish_name` into which the user can type the name of their new dish. The call to `query()` in [Example 7-26](#) inserts the new dish into the `dishes` table but is vulnerable to an SQL injection attack.

Example 7-26. Unsafe insertion of form data

```
$db->query("INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name)
VALUES ('$_POST[new_dish_name]');");
```

If the submitted value for `new_dish_name` is reasonable, such as `Fried Bean Curd`, then the query succeeds. PHP's regular double-quoted string interpolation rules make the query `INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name) VALUES ('Fried Bean Curd')`, which is valid and respectable. A query with an apostrophe in it causes a problem, though. If the submitted value for `new_dish_name` is `General Tso's Chicken`, then the query becomes `INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name) VALUES ('General Tso's Chicken')`. This makes the database program confused. It thinks that the apostrophe between `Tso` and `s` ends the string, so the `s Chicken'` after the second single quote is an unwanted syntax error.

What's worse, a user that really wants to cause problems can type in specially constructed input to wreak havoc. Consider this unappetizing input:

```
x'); DELETE FROM dishes; INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name) VALUES ('y.
```

When that gets interpolated, the query becomes:

```
INSERT INTO DISHES (dish_name) VALUES ('x'); DELETE FROM dishes; INSERT INTO dishes
(dish_name) VALUES ('y')
```

Some databases let you pass multiple queries separated by semicolons in one call of `query()`. On those databases, the `dishes` table is demolished: a dish named `x` is inserted, all dishes are deleted, and a dish named `y` is inserted.

By submitting a carefully built form input value, a malicious user is able to inject arbitrary SQL statements into your database program. To prevent this, you need to escape special characters (most importantly, the apostrophe) in SQL queries. PEAR DB provides a helpful feature called *placeholders* that makes this a snap.



PHP has an unfortunate feature called "Magic Quotes." If this is turned on, submitted form data has quotes and backslashes escaped before it is put into `$_GET` or `$_POST`. If someone submits a form with `Sauteed Pig's Stomach` typed into the a text field named `entree`, then `$_POST['entree']` is not `Sauteed Pig's Stomach`, but `Sauteed Pig\'s Stomach` instead. This is conceivably handy if all you're going to do with `$_POST['entree']` is use it in a database query, but it is very inconvenient if you want to use `$_POST['entree']` in other contexts (such as simply printing it)

where the extra backslash is not welcome.

The "Magic Quotes" feature is enabled when the PHP configuration directive `magic_quotes_gpc` is turned on. For increased efficiency and more straightforward handling of submitted form parameters, turn `magic_quotes_gpc` off and use placeholders or a quoting function when you need to prepare external input for use in a database query.

To use a placeholder in a query, put a `?` in the query in each place where you want a value to go. Then, pass `query()` a second argument—an array of values to be substituted for the placeholders. The values are appropriately quoted before they are put into the query, protecting you from any SQL injection attacks. [Example 7-27](#) shows the safe version of the query from [Example 7-26](#).

Example 7-27. Safe insertion of form data

```
$db->query('INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name) VALUES (?)',  
    array($_POST['new_dish_name']));
```

You don't need to put quotes around the placeholder in the query. DB takes care of that for you too. If you want to use multiple values in a query, put multiple placeholders in the query and in the value array. [Example 7-28](#) shows a query with three placeholders.

Example 7-28. Using multiple placeholders

```
$db->query('INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name,price,is_spicy) VALUES (?, ?, ?)',  
    array($_POST['new_dish_name'], $_POST['new_price'],  
        $_POST['is_spicy']));
```

7.6 Generating Unique IDs

As mentioned in [Section 7.1](#), rows in a database table don't have any inherent order. In a spreadsheet, you can refer particular records such as "the first row" or "the last row" or "rows 15 to 22." A database table is different. If you want to be able to specifically identify individual records, you need to give them each a unique identifier.

To uniquely identify individual rows in a table, make a column in the table that holds an integer ID and store a different number in that column for each row. That way, even if two rows have identical values in all the other columns, you can tell them apart by using the ID column. With a `dish_id` column in the `dishes` table, you can tell apart two dishes each called "Fried Bean Curd" because the rows have different `dish_id` values.

PEAR DB helps you generate unique integer IDs with its support for *sequences*. When you ask for the next ID in a particular sequence, you get a number that you know isn't duplicated in that sequence. Even if two simultaneously executing PHP scripts ask for the next ID in a sequence at the exact same time, they each get a different ID to use.

You can have as many independent sequences as you want. To get the next value from a sequence, call the `nextID()` function. [Example 7-29](#) gets an ID from the `dishes` sequence and then uses it to `INSERT` a row into the `dishes` table.

Example 7-29. Getting an ID from a sequence

```
$dish_id = $db->nextID('dishes');
$db->query("INSERT INTO orders (dish_id, dish_name, price, is_spicy)
VALUES ($dish_id, 'Fried Bean Curd', 1.50, 0)");
```

7.7 A Complete Data Insertion Form

[Example 7-30](#) combines the database topics covered so far in this chapter with the form-handling code from [Chapter 6](#) to build a complete program that displays a form, validates the submitted data, and then saves the data into a database table. The form displays input elements for the name of a dish, the price of a dish, and whether the dish is spicy. The information is inserted into the `dishes` table.

The code in [Example 7-30](#) relies on the form helper functions defined in [Example 6-29](#). Instead of repeating them in this example, the code assumes they have been saved into a file called `formhelpers.php` and then loads them with the `require 'formhelpers.php'` line at the top of the program.

Example 7-30. Form for inserting records into dishes

```
<?php
// Load PEAR DB
require 'DB.php';
// Load the form helper functions
require 'formhelpers.php';

// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die ("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
// Set up automatic error handling
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);

// The main page logic:
// - If the form is submitted, validate and then process or redisplay
// - If it's not submitted, display
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted parameters
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, set our own defaults: price is $5
    }
}
```

```

    $defaults = array('price' => '5.00');
}

// If errors were passed in, put them in $error_text (with HTML markup)
if ($errors) {
    $error_text = '<tr><td>You need to correct the following errors:';
    $error_text .= '</td><td><ul><li>';
    $error_text .= implode('</li><li>', $errors);
    $error_text .= '</li></ul></td></tr>';
} else {
    // No errors? Then $error_text is blank
    $error_text = '';
}

// Jump out of PHP mode to make displaying all the HTML tags easier
?>
<form method="POST" action="<?php print $_SERVER['PHP_SELF']; ?>">
<table>
<?php print $error_text ?>

<tr><td>Dish Name:</td>
<td><?php input_text('dish_name', $defaults); ?></td></tr>

<tr><td>Price:</td>
<td><?php input_text('price', $defaults); ?></td></tr>

<tr><td>Spicy:</td>
<td><?php input_radiocheck('checkbox','is_spicy', $defaults, 'yes'); ?>
    Yes</td></tr>

<tr><td colspan="2" align="center"><?php input_submit('save','Order'); ?>
</td></tr>

</table>
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>
</form>
<?php
    } // The end of show_form( )

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // dish_name is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['dish_name']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter the name of the dish.';
    }

    // price must be a valid floating point number and
    // more than 0
    if (floatval($_POST['price']) <= 0) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid price.';
    }

    return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {

```

```

// Access the global variable $db inside this function
global $db;

// Get a unique ID for this dish
$dish_id = $db->nextID('dishes');

// Set the value of $is_spicy based on the checkbox
if ($_POST['is_spicy'] == 'yes') {
    $is_spicy = 1;
} else {
    $is_spicy = 0;
}

// Insert the new dish into the table
$db->query('INSERT INTO dishes (dish_id, dish_name, price, is_spicy)
        VALUES (?, ?, ?, ?)',
        array($dish_id, $_POST['dish_name'], $_POST['price'],
            $is_spicy));

// Tell the user that we added a dish.
print 'Added ' . htmlentities($_POST['dish_name']) .
    ' to the database.';
}

?>

```

[Example 7-30](#) has the same basic structure as the form examples from [Chapter 6](#): functions for displaying, validating, and processing the form with some global logic that determines which function to call. The two new pieces are the global code that sets up the database connection and the database-related activities in `process_form()`.

The database setup code comes after the `require` statements and before the `if($_POST['_submit_check'])`. The `DB::connect()` function establishes a database connection, and the next three lines check whether the connection succeeded and turn on automatic error handling for the rest of the program.

All of the interaction with the database is in the `process_form()` function. First, the `global $db` line lets you refer to the database connection variable inside the function as `$db` instead of the clumsier `$GLOBALS['db']`. Then, `nextId()` gets a unique integer ID for the new dish about to be saved. The `is_spicy` column of the table holds a 1 in the rows of spicy dishes and a 0 in nonspicy dishes, so the `if()` clause in `process_form()` assigns the appropriate value to the local variable `$is_spicy` based on what was submitted in `$_POST['is_spicy']`.

After that comes the call to `query()` that actually puts the new information into the database. The `INSERT` statement has four placeholders that are filled by the variables `$dish_id`, `$_POST['dish_name']`, `$_POST['price']`, and `$is_spicy`. Last, `process_form()` prints a message telling the user that the dish was inserted. The `htmlentities()` function protects against any HTML tags or JavaScript in the dish name.

7.8 Retrieving Data from the Database

The `query()` function can also be used to retrieve information from the database. The syntax of `query()` is the same, but what you do with the object that `query()` returns is new. When it successfully completes a `SELECT` statement, `query()`

) returns an object that provides access to the retrieved rows. Each time you call the `fetchRow()` function of this object, you get the next row returned from the query. When there are no more rows left, `fetchRow()` returns a false value, making it perfect to use in a `while()` loop. This is shown in [Example 7-31](#).

Example 7-31. Retrieving rows with `query()` and `fetchRow()`

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
$q = $db->query('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes');
while ($row = $q->fetchRow()) {
    print "$row[0], $row[1] \n";
}
```

[Example 7-31](#) prints:

```
Walnut Bun, 1.00
Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms, 4.95
Dried Mulberries, 3.00
Eggplant with Chili Sauce, 6.50
```

The first time through the `while()` loop, `fetchRow()` returns an array containing `Walnut Bun` and `1.00`. This array is assigned to `$row`. Since an array with elements in it evaluates to `true`, the code inside the `while()` loop executes, printing the data from the first row returned by the `SELECT` query. This happens three more times. On each trip through the `while()` loop, `fetchRow()` returns the next row in the set of rows returned by the `SELECT` query. When it has no more rows to return, `fetchRow()` returns a value that evaluates to `false`, and the `while()` loop is done.

To find out the number of rows returned by a `SELECT` query (without iterating through them all), use the `numrows()` function of the object returned by `query()`. [Example 7-32](#) reports how many rows are in the `dishes` table.

Example 7-32. Counting rows with `numrows()`

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
$q = $db->query('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes');
print 'There are ' . $q->numrows() . ' rows in the dishes table.';
```

With four rows in the table, [Example 7-32](#) prints:

```
There are 5 rows in the dishes table.
```

Because sending a `SELECT` query to the database program and retrieving the results is such a common task, DB provides ways that collapse the call to `query()` and multiple calls to `fetchRow()` into one step. The `getAll()` function executes a `SELECT` query and returns an array containing all the retrieved rows. [Example 7-33](#) uses `getAll()` to do the same thing as [Example 7-31](#).

Example 7-33. Retrieving rows with `getAll()`

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
$rows = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes');
foreach ($rows as $row) {
    print "$row[0], $row[1] \n";
}
```

Example 7-33 prints:

```
Walnut Bun, 1.00
Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms, 4.95
Dried Mulberries, 3.00
Eggplant with Chili Sauce, 6.50
```

SQL Lesson: *SELECT*

The `SELECT` command retrieves data from the database. [Example 7-34](#) shows the syntax of `SELECT`.

Example 7-34. Retrieving data

```
SELECT column1[, column2, column3, ...] FROM tablename
```

The `SELECT` query in [Example 7-35](#) retrieves the `dish_name` and `price` columns for all the rows in the `dishes` table.

Example 7-35. Retrieving dish_name and price

```
SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes
```

As a shortcut, you can use `*` instead of a list of columns. This retrieves all columns from the table. The `SELECT` query in [Example 7-36](#) retrieves everything from the `dishes` table.

Example 7-36. Using * in a SELECT query

```
SELECT * FROM dishes
```

To restrict a `SELECT` statement so that it matches only certain rows, add a `WHERE` clause to it. Only rows that meet the tests listed in the `WHERE` clause are returned by the `SELECT` statement. The `WHERE` clause goes after the table name, as shown in [Example 7-37](#).

Example 7-37. Restricting the rows returned by SELECT

```
SELECT column1[, column2, column3, ...] FROM tablename  
WHERE where_clause
```

The `where_clause` part of the query is a logical expression that describes which rows you want to retrieve. [Example 7-38](#) shows some `SELECT` queries with `WHERE` clauses.

Example 7-38. Retrieving certain dishes

```
; Dishes with price greater than 5.00  
SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes WHERE price > 5.00  
  
; Dishes whose name exactly matches "Walnut Bun"  
SELECT price FROM dishes WHERE dish_name = 'Walnut Bun'  
  
; Dishes with price more than 5.00 but less than or equal to 10.00  
SELECT dish_name FROM dishes WHERE price > 5.00 AND price <= 10.00  
  
; Dishes with price more than 5.00 but less than or equal to 10.00,
```

```

; or dishes whose name exactly matches "Walnut Bun" (at any price)
SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes WHERE (price > 5.00 AND price <= 10.00)
    OR dish_name = 'Walnut Bun'

```

[Table 7-3](#) lists some operators that you can use in a `WHERE` clause.

Table 7-3. SQL WHERE clause operators

Operator	Description
=	Equal to (like = in PHP)
<>	Not equal to (like != in PHP)
>	Greater than
<	Less than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<=	Less than or equal to
AND	Logical AND (like && in PHP)
OR	Logical OR (like in PHP)
()	Grouping

When you are only expecting one row to be returned from a query, use `getRow()`. It executes a `SELECT` query and returns the values for just one row. [Example 7-39](#) uses `getRow()` to display the least expensive item in the `dishes` table. The `ORDER BY` and `LIMIT` parts of the query in [Example 7-39](#) are explained in the sidebar [SQL Lesson: ORDER BY and LIMIT](#).

Example 7-39. Retrieving a row with `getRow()`

```

require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
$scheapest_dish_info = $db->getRow('SELECT dish_name, price
    FROM dishes ORDER BY price LIMIT 1');
print "$scheapest_dish_info[0], $scheapest_dish_info[1]";

```

[Example 7-39](#) prints:

```
Walnut Bun, 1.00
```

When you want only one column from one row, use `getOne()`. It executes a `SELECT` query and returns a single value: the first column from the first row returned. [Example 7-40](#) uses `getOne()` to find the name of the least expensive dish.

Example 7-40. Retrieving a value with `getOne()`

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
$scheapest_dish = $db->getOne('SELECT dish_name, price
                             FROM dishes ORDER BY price LIMIT 1');
print "The cheapest dish is $scheapest_dish";
```

[Example 7-40](#) prints:

The cheapest dish is Walnut Bun

SQL Lesson: *ORDER BY* and *LIMIT*

As mentioned earlier in this chapter in [Section 7.1](#), rows in a table don't have any inherent order. A database server doesn't have to return rows from a `SELECT` query in any particular pattern. To force a certain order on the returned rows, add an `ORDER BY` clause to your `SELECT`. [Example 7-41](#) returns all the rows in the `dishes` table ordered by price, lowest to highest.

Example 7-41. Ordering rows returned from a `SELECT` query

```
SELECT dish_name FROM dishes ORDER BY price
```

To order from highest to lowest value, add `DESC` after the column that the results are ordered by. [Example 7-42](#) returns all the rows in the `dishes` table ordered by price, highest to lowest.

Example 7-42. Ordering from highest to lowest

```
SELECT dish_name FROM dishes ORDER BY price DESC
```

You can specify multiple columns to order by. If two rows have the same value for the first `ORDER BY` column, they are sorted by the second. The query in [Example 7-43](#) orders rows in `dishes` by price (highest to lowest). If multiple rows have the same price, then they are ordered alphabetically by name.

Example 7-43. Ordering by multiple columns

```
SELECT dish_name FROM dishes ORDER BY price DESC, dish_name
```

Using `ORDER BY` doesn't change the order of the rows in the table itself (remember, they don't really have any set order) but rearranges the results of the query. This affects only the answer to the query. If you hand someone a menu and ask them to read you the appetizers in alphabetical order, it doesn't affect the printed menu—just the response to your query ("Read me all the appetizers in alphabetical order").

Normally, a `SELECT` query returns all rows that match the `WHERE` clause (or all rows in a table if there is no `WHERE` clause). Sometimes it's helpful to just get a certain number of rows back. You may want to find the lowest priced dish available or just print 10 search results. To restrict the results to a specific number of rows, add a `LIMIT` clause to the end of the query. [Example 7-44](#) returns the row from `dishes` with the lowest price.

Example 7-44. Limiting the number of rows returned by `SELECT`

```
SELECT * FROM dishes ORDER BY price LIMIT 1
```

[Example 7-45](#) returns the first (sorted alphabetically by dish name) 10 rows from `dishes`.

Example 7-45. Still limiting the number of rows returned by `SELECT`

```
SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes ORDER BY dish_name LIMIT 10
```

In general, you should only use `LIMIT` in a query that also has `ORDER BY`. If you leave out `ORDER BY`, the database program can return rows in any order. So, the "first" row one time a query is executed might not be the "first" row another time the same query is executed.

7.9 Changing the Format of Retrieved Rows

So far, `fetchRow()`, `getAll()`, and `getRow()` have been returning rows from the database as numerically indexed arrays. This makes for concise and easy interpolation of values in double-quoted strings—but trying to remember, for example, which column from the `SELECT` query corresponds to element 6 in the result array can be difficult and error-prone. PEAR DB lets you specify that you'd prefer to have each result row delivered as either an array with string keys or as an object.

The *fetch mode* controls how result rows are formatted. The `setFetchMode()` function changes the fetch mode. Any queries in a page after you call `setFetchMode()` have their result rows formatted as specified by the argument to `setFetchMode()`.

To get result rows as arrays with string keys, pass `DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC` to `setFetchMode()`. Note that `DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC` is a special constant defined by PEAR DB, not a string, so you shouldn't put quotes around it. The array keys in the result row arrays correspond to column names. [Example 7-46](#) shows how to use `fetchRow()`, `getAll()`, and `getRow()` with string-keyed result rows.

Example 7-46. Retrieving rows as string-keyed arrays

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');

// Change the fetch mode to string-keyed arrays
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);

print "With query() and fetchRow(): \n";
// get each row with query() and fetchRow();
$q = $db->query("SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes");
while($row = $q->fetchRow()) {
    print "The price of $row[dish_name] is $row[price] \n";
}

print "With getAll(): \n";
// get all the rows with getAll();
$dishes = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes');
foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
    print "The price of $dish[dish_name] is $dish[price] \n";
}

print "With getRow(): \n";
$scheap = $db->getRow('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes
    ORDER BY price LIMIT 1');
```

```
print "The cheapest dish is $cheap[dish_name] with price $cheap[price]";
```

[Example 7-46](#) prints:

```
With query( ) and fetchRow( ):
The price of Walnut Bun is 1.00
The price of Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms is 4.95
The price of Dried Mulberries is 3.00
The price of Eggplant with Chili Sauce is 6.50
With getAll( ):
The price of Walnut Bun is 1.00
The price of Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms is 4.95
The price of Dried Mulberries is 3.00
The price of Eggplant with Chili Sauce is 6.50
With getRow( ):
The cheapest dish is Walnut Bun with price 1.00
```

In [Example 7-46](#), `fetchRow()`, `getAll()`, and `getRow()` operate almost identically as they have before: you give them an SQL query, and you get back some results. The difference is in those results. The rows that come back from these functions have string keys whose names are the names of columns in the database table.

To get result rows as objects, pass the `DB_FETCHMODE_OBJECT` constant to `setFetchMode()`. Each result row is an object with values inside it whose names correspond to column names (such as the string array keys when the fetch mode is `DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC`). The `DB_FETCHMODE_OBJECT` fetch mode is handy because the syntax for referring to data inside an object is a little more concise and easier to interpolate in a string compared to an string-keyed array: write the object name, then `->`, and then the name of the piece of data you want. For example, `$dish->dish_name` refers to the piece of data named `dish_name` inside the `$dish` object. [Example 7-47](#) retrieves rows as objects.

Example 7-47. Retrieving rows as objects

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');

// Change the fetch mode to objects
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_OBJECT);

print "With query( ) and fetchRow( ): \n";
// get each row with query( ) and fetchRow( );
$q = $db->query("SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes");
while($row = $q->fetchRow( )) {
    print "The price of $row->dish_name is $row->price \n";
}

print "With getAll( ): \n";
// get all the rows with getAll( );
$dishes = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes');
foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
    print "The price of $dish->dish_name is $dish->price \n";
}

print "With getRow( ): \n";
```

```
$cheap = $db->getRow('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes
    ORDER BY price LIMIT 1');
print "The cheapest dish is $cheap->dish_name with price $cheap->price";
```

[Example 7-47](#) prints the same output as [Example 7-46](#).

7.10 Retrieving Form Data Safely

It's possible to use placeholders with `SELECT` statements just as you do with `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` statements. The `getAll()`, `getRow()`, and `getOne()` functions each accept a second argument of an array of values that are substituted for placeholders in a query.

However, when you use submitted form data or other external input in the `WHERE` clause of a `SELECT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` statement, you must take extra care to ensure that any SQL wildcards are appropriately escaped. Consider a search form with a text element called `dish_search` into which the user can type a name of a dish he's looking for. The call to `getAll()` in [Example 7-48](#) uses placeholders guard against confounding single-quotes in the submitted value.

Example 7-48. Using a placeholder in a `SELECT` statement

```
$matches = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes
    WHERE dish_name LIKE ?',
    array($_POST['dish_search']));
```

Whether `dish_search` is `Fried Bean Curd` or `General Tso's Chicken`, the placeholder interpolates the value into the query appropriately. However, what if `dish_search` is `%chicken%`? Then, the query becomes `SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes WHERE dish_name LIKE '%chicken%'`. This matches all rows that contain the string `chicken`, not just rows in which `dish_name` is exactly `%chicken%`.

To prevent SQL wildcards in form data from taking effect in queries, you must forgo the comfort and ease of the placeholder and rely on two other functions:

SQL Lesson: *Wildcards*

Wildcards are useful for matching text inexactly, such as finding strings that end with `.edu` or that contain `@`. SQL has two wildcards. The underscore (`_`) matches one character and the percent sign (`%`) matches any number of characters (including zero characters). The wildcards are active inside strings used with the `LIKE` operator in a `WHERE` clause.

[Example 7-49](#) shows two `SELECT` queries that use `LIKE` and wildcards.

Example 7-49. Using wildcards with `SELECT`

```
; Retrieve all rows in which dish name begins with D
SELECT * FROM dishes WHERE dish_name LIKE 'D%'
```

```
; Retrieve rows in which dish name is Fried Cod, Fried Bod,
; Fried Nod, and so on.
SELECT * FROM dishes WHERE dish_name LIKE 'Fried _od'
```

Wildcards are active in the `WHERE` clauses of `UPDATE` and `DELETE` statements, too. The query in [Example 7-50](#) doubles the price of all dishes that have `chili` in their names.

Example 7-50. Using wildcards with `UPDATE`

```
UPDATE dishes SET price = price * 2 WHERE dish_name LIKE '%chili%'
```

The query in [Example 7-51](#) deletes all rows whose `dish_name` ends with `Shrimp`.

Example 7-51. Using wildcards with `DELETE`

```
DELETE FROM dishes WHERE dish_name LIKE '%Shrimp'
```

To match against a literal `%` or `_` when using the `LIKE` operator, put a backslash before the `%` or `_`. The query in [Example 7-52](#) finds all rows whose `dish_name` contains `50% off`.

Example 7-52. Escaping wildcards

```
SELECT * FROM dishes WHERE dish_name LIKE '%50\% off%'
```

Without the backslash, the query in [Example 7-52](#) would match rows whose `dish_name` contains `50` and then has a space and `off` somewhere later in the name, such as `Spicy 50 shrimp with shells off salad` or `Famous 500 offer duck`.

`quoteSmart()` function in DB and PHP's built-in `strtr()` function. First, call `quoteSmart()` on the submitted value.^[3] This does the same quoting operation that a the placeholder does. For example, it turns `General Tso's Chicken` into `'General Tso\'s Chicken'`. The next step is to use `strtr()` to backslash-escape the SQL wildcards `%` and `_`. The quoted and wildcard-escaped value can then be used safely in a query.

^[3] The `quoteSmart()` function was introduced in DB 1.6.0. If you are using an earlier version of DB and get an error when trying to use `quoteSmart()`, use `quote()` instead.

[Example 7-53](#) shows how to use `quoteSmart()` and `strtr()` to make a submitted value safe for a `WHERE` clause.

Example 7-53. Not using a placeholder in a SELECT statement

```
// First, do normal quoting of the value
$dish = $db->quoteSmart($_POST['dish_search']);
// Then, put backslashes before underscores and percent signs
$dish = strtr($dish, array('_', => '\\_', '%' => '\\%'));
// Now, $dish is sanitized and can be interpolated right into the query
$matches = $db->getAll("SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes
                      WHERE dish_name LIKE $dish");
```

You can't use a placeholder in this situation because the escaping of the SQL wildcards has to happen after the regular quoting. The regular quoting puts a backslash before single quotes, but also before backslashes. If `strtr()` processes the string first, a submitted value such as `%chicken%` becomes `\\%chicken\\%`. Then, the quoting (whether by `quoteSmart()` or the placeholder processing) turns `\\%chicken\\%` into `'\\%chicken\\%'`. This is interpreted by the database to mean a literal backslash, followed by the "match any characters" wildcard, followed by `chicken`, followed by another literal backslash, followed by another "match any characters" wildcard. However, if `quoteSmart()` goes first, `%chicken%` is turned into `'%chicken%'`. Then, `strtr()` turns it into `'\\%chicken\\%'`. This is interpreted by the database as a literal percent sign, followed by `chicken`, followed by another percent sign, which is what the user entered.

Not quoting wildcard characters has an even more drastic effect in the `WHERE` clause of an `UPDATE` or `DELETE` statement.

[Example 7-54](#) shows a query incorrectly using placeholders to allow a user-entered value to control which dishes have their prices set to \$1.

Example 7-54. Incorrect use of placeholders in an UPDATE statement

```
$db->query('UPDATE dishes SET price = 1 WHERE dish_name LIKE ?',
          array($_POST['dish_name']));
```

If the submitted value for `dish_name` in [Example 7-54](#) is `Fried Bean Curd`, then the query works as expected: the price of that dish only is set to 1. But if `$_POST['dish_name']` is `%`, then all dishes have their price set to 1! The `quoteSmart()` and `strtr()` technique prevents this problem. The right way to do the update is in [Example 7-55](#).

Example 7-55. Correct use of quoteSmart() and strtr() with an UPDATE statement

```
// First, do normal quoting of the value
$dish = $db->quoteSmart($_POST['dish_name']);
// Then, put backslashes before underscores and percent signs
$dish = strtr($dish, array('_', => '\\_', '%' => '\\%'));
// Now, $dish is sanitized and can be interpolated right into the query
```

```
$db->query("UPDATE dishes SET price = 1 WHERE dish_name LIKE $dish");
```

7.11 A Complete Data Retrieval Form

[Example 7-56](#) is another complete database and form program. It presents a search form and then prints an HTML table of all rows in the `dishes` table that match the search criteria. Like [Example 7-30](#), it relies on the form helper functions being defined in a separate *formhelpers.php* file.

Example 7-56. Form for searching the dishes table

```
<?php

// Load PEAR DB
require 'DB.php';
// Load the form helper functions.
require 'formhelpers.php';

// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die ("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }

// Set up automatic error handling
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);

// Set up fetch mode: rows as objects
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_OBJECT);

// Choices for the "spicy" menu in the form
$spicy_choices = array('no', 'yes', 'either');

// The main page logic:
// - If the form is submitted, validate and then process or redisplay
// - If it's not submitted, display
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted parameters
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, set our own defaults
        $defaults = array('min_price' => '5.00',
```



```

        'max_price' => '25.00');
    }

    // If errors were passed in, put them in $error_text (with HTML markup)
    if ($errors) {
        $error_text = '<tr><td>You need to correct the following errors: ';
        $error_text .= '</td><td><ul><li>';
        $error_text .= implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        $error_text .= '</li></ul></td></tr>';
    } else {
        // No errors? Then $error_text is blank
        $error_text = '';
    }

    // Jump out of PHP mode to make displaying all the HTML tags easier
    ?>
<form method="POST" action="<?php print $_SERVER['PHP_SELF']; ?>">
<table>
<?php print $error_text ?>

<tr><td>Dish Name:</td>
<td><?php input_text('dish_name', $defaults) ?></td></tr>

<tr><td>Minimum Price:</td>
<td><?php input_text('min_price', $defaults) ?></td></tr>

<tr><td>Maximum Price:</td>
<td><?php input_text('max_price', $defaults) ?></td></tr>

<tr><td>Spicy:</td>
<td><?php input_select('is_spicy', $defaults, $GLOBALS['spicy_choices']); ?>
</td></tr>

<tr><td colspan="2" align="center"><?php input_submit('search','Search'); ?>
</td></tr>

</table>
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>
</form>
<?php
    } // The end of show_form( )

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // minimum price must be a valid floating point number
    if ( $_POST['min_price'] != strval(floatval($_POST['min_price'])) ) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid minimum price.';
    }

    // maximum price must be a valid floating point number
    if ( $_POST['max_price'] != strval(floatval($_POST['max_price'])) ) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid maximum price.';
    }

    // minimum price must be less than the maximum price
    if ( $_POST['min_price'] >= $_POST['max_price'] ) {

```

```

    $errors[ ] = 'The minimum price must be less than the maximum price.';
}

if (! array_key_exists($_POST['is_spicy'], $GLOBALS['spicy_choices'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please choose a valid "spicy" option.';
}
return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {
    // Access the global variable $db inside this function
    global $db;

    // build up the query
    $sql = 'SELECT dish_name, price, is_spicy FROM dishes WHERE
           price >= ? AND price <= ?';

    // if a dish name was submitted, add to the WHERE clause
    // we use quoteSmart( ) and strstr( ) to prevent user-entered wildcards from working
    if (strlen(trim($_POST['dish_name']))) {
        $dish = $db->quoteSmart($_POST['dish_name']);
        $dish = strstr($dish, array('_' => '\\_', '%' => '\\%'));
        $sql .= " AND dish_name LIKE $dish";
    }

    // if is_spicy is "yes" or "no", add appropriate SQL
    // (if it's "either", we don't need to add is_spicy to the WHERE clause)
    $spicy_choice = $GLOBALS['spicy_choices'][$_POST['is_spicy'] ];
    if ($spicy_choice = 'yes') {
        $sql .= ' AND is_spicy = 1';
    } else if ($spicy_choice = 'no') {
        $sql .= ' AND is_spicy = 0';
    }

    // Send the query to the database program and get all the rows back
    $dishes = $db->getAll($sql, array($_POST['min_price'],
                                     $_POST['max_price']));

    if (count($dishes) = 0) {
        print 'No dishes matched.';
    } else {
        print '<table>';
        print '<tr><th>Dish Name</th><th>Price</th><th>Spicy?</th></tr>';
        foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
            if ($dish->is_spicy = 1) {
                $spicy = 'Yes';
            } else {
                $spicy = 'No';
            }
            printf('<tr><td>%s</td><td>$.02f</td><td>%s</td></tr>',
                htmlentities($dish->dish_name), $dish->price, $spicy);
        }
    }
}
?>

```

[Example 7-56](#) is a lot like [Example 7-30](#): the standard display/validate/process form structure with global code for database setup and database interaction inside `process_form()`. There are a few differences, however.

[Example 7-56](#) has an additional line in its database setup code: a call to `setFetchMode()`. Since `process_form()` is going to retrieve information from the database, the fetch mode is important.

The `process_form()` function builds up a `SELECT` statement, sends it to the database with `getAll()`, and prints the results in an HTML table. Up to four factors go into the `WHERE` clause of the `SELECT` statement. The first two are the minimum and maximum price. These are always in the query, so they get placeholders in `$sql`, the variable that holds the SQL statement.

Next comes the dish name. That's optional, but if it's submitted, it goes into the query. A placeholder isn't good enough for the `dish_name` column, though, because the submitted form data could contain SQL wildcards. Instead, `quoteSmart()` and `strtr()` prepare a sanitized version of the dish name, and it's added directly onto the `WHERE` clause.

The last possible column in the `WHERE` clause is `is_spicy`. If the submitted choice is `yes`, then `AND is_spicy = 1` goes into the query so that only spicy dishes are retrieved. If the submitted choice is `no`, then `AND is_spicy = 0` goes into the query so that only nonspicy dishes are found. If the submitted choice is `either`, then there's no need to have `is_spicy` in the query—rows should be picked regardless of their spiciness.

After the full query is constructed in `$sql`, it's sent to the database program with `getAll()`. The second argument to `getAll()` is an array containing the minimum and maximum price values so that they can be substituted for the placeholders. The array of rows that `getAll()` returns is stored in `$dishes`.

The last step in `process_form()` is printing some results. If there's nothing in `$dishes`, `No dishes matched` is displayed. Otherwise, a `foreach()` loop iterates through `dishes` and prints out an HTML table row for each dish, using `printf()` to format the price properly and `htmlentities()` to encode any special characters in the dish name. An `if()` clause turns the database-friendly `is_spicy` values of 1 or 0 to the human-friendly values of `Yes` or `No`.

7.12 MySQL Without PEAR DB

PEAR DB smooths over a lot of the rough edges of database access in a PHP program, but there are two reasons why it's not always the right choice: PEAR DB might not be available on some systems, and a program that uses the built-in PHP functions tailored to a particular database is faster than one that uses PEAR DB. Programmers who don't anticipate switching or using more than one database program often pick those built-in functions.

The basic model of database access with the built-in functions is the same as with PEAR DB. You call a function that connects to the database. It returns a variable that represents the connection. You use that connection variable with other functions to send queries to the database program and retrieve the results.

The differences are in the details. The applicable functions and how they work differ from database to database. In general, you have to retrieve results one row at a time instead of the convenience that `getAll()` offers, and there is no unified error handling.

As an example for database access without PEAR DB, this section discusses the mysqli extension, which works with MySQL 4.1.2 or greater and with PHP 5. There are similar PHP extensions for other database programs. [Table 7-4](#) lists the database programs that PHP supports and where in the PHP Manual you can read about the functions in the extension for each database. All of the extensions listed in [Table 7-4](#) are not usually installed by default with the PHP interpreter, but the PHP Manual gives instructions on how to install them.

Table 7-4. Database extensions

Database program	PHP Manual URL
Adabas D	http://www.php.net/uodbc
DB2	http://www.php.net/uodbc
DB++	http://www.php.net/dbplus
Empress	http://www.php.net/uodbc
FrontBase	http://www.php.net/fbsql
Informix	http://www.php.net/ifx
InterBase	http://www.php.net/ibase
Ingres II	http://www.php.net/ingres
Microsoft SQL Server	http://www.php.net/mssql
mSQL	http://www.php.net/msql
MySQL (Version 4.1.1 and earlier)	http://www.php.net/mysql
MySQL (Version 4.1.2 and later)	http://www.php.net/mysqli
ODBC	http://www.php.net/uodbc
Oracle	http://www.php.net/oci8
Ovrimos SQL	http://www.php.net/ovrimos
PostgreSQL	http://www.php.net/pgsql
SAP DB / MaxDB	http://www.php.net/uodbc
Solid	http://www.php.net/uodbc
SQLite	http://www.php.net/sqlite
Sybase	http://www.php.net/sybase

[Table 7-5](#) shows the rough equivalencies between PEAR DB functions and mysqli functions.

Table 7-5. Comparing PEAR DB functions and mysqli functions

PEAR DB function	mysqli function	Comments
<code>\$db = DB::connect(<i>DSN</i>)</code>	<code>\$db = mysqli_connect(<i>hostname</i>, <i>username</i>, <i>password</i>, <i>database</i>)</code>	
<code>\$q = \$db->query(<i>SQL</i>)</code>	<code>\$q = mysqli_query(\$db, <i>SQL</i>)</code>	There is no placeholder support in <code>mysqli_query()</code> .
<code>\$row = \$q->fetchRow()</code>	<code>\$row = mysqli_fetch_row(\$q)</code>	<code>mysqli_fetch_row()</code> always returns numerically indexed arrays. Use <code>mysqli_fetch_assoc()</code> for string-indexed arrays or <code>mysqli_fetch_object()</code> for objects.
<code>\$db->affectedRows()</code>	<code>mysqli_affected_rows(\$db)</code>	
<code>\$q->numRows()</code>	<code>mysqli_num_rows(\$q)</code>	
<code>\$db->setErrorHandler(<i>ERROR_MODE</i>)</code>	None	You can't set automatic error handling with <code>mysqli</code> , but <code>mysqli_connect_error()</code> gives you the error message if something goes wrong connecting to the database program, and <code>mysqli_error(\$db)</code> gives you the error message after a query or other function call fails.

This section doesn't explore the `mysqli` functions in great detail but shows how to use `mysqli` to do some of the things you've already seen with PEAR DB. [Chapter 3](#) of *Upgrading to PHP 5*, by Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly) covers the ins and outs of `mysqli`, including advanced features such as secure connections, parameter binding, and result buffering. Examples [Example 7-57](#) and [Example 7-58](#) contain the necessary changes to [Example 7-56](#) so that it uses PHP's `mysqli` extension instead of PEAR DB.

The two sections of the program that need to be changed are the top-level database connection code, which is shown in [Example 7-57](#) and the `process_form()` function, which is shown in [Example 7-58](#).

Example 7-57. Connecting with `mysqli`

```
$db = mysqli_connect('db.example.com', 'hunter', 'w)mp3s', 'restaurant');
if (! $db) { die("Can't connect: " . mysqli_connect_error()); }
```

The code in [Example 7-57](#) replaces the two lines under the `// Connect to the database` comment in [Example 7-56](#). The `mysqli_connect()` function establishes the database connection, and the next line checks that the connection attempt succeeds.

Example 7-58. A `process_form()` function using `mysqli`

```
function process_form( ) {
    // Access the global variable $db inside this function
    global $db;

    // build up the query
    $sql = 'SELECT dish_name, price, is_spicy FROM dishes WHERE ';

    // add the minimum price to the query
    $sql .= "price >= '" .
        mysqli_real_escape_string($db, $_POST['min_price']) . "' ";

    // add the maximum price to the query
    $sql .= " AND price <= '" .
        mysqli_real_escape_string($db, $_POST['max_price']) . "' ";

    // if a dish name was submitted, add to the WHERE clause
    // we use mysqli_real_escape_string( ) and stripslashes( ) to prevent
    // user-entered wildcards from working
    if (strlen(trim($_POST['dish_name']))) {
        $dish = mysqli_real_escape_string($db, $_POST['dish_name']);
        $dish = stripslashes($dish, array('_', '%'));
        // mysqli_real_escape_string( ) doesn't add the single quotes
        // around the value so you have to put those around $dish in
        // the query:
        $sql .= " AND dish_name LIKE '$dish'";
    }

    // if is_spicy is "yes" or "no", add appropriate SQL
    // (if it's either, we don't need to add is_spicy to the WHERE clause)
    $spicy_choice = $GLOBALS['spicy_choices'][$_POST['is_spicy']];
    if ($spicy_choice == 'yes') {
        $sql .= ' AND is_spicy = 1';
    } elseif ($spicy_choice == 'no') {
        $sql .= ' AND is_spicy = 0';
    }

    // Send the query to the database program and get all the rows back
    $q = mysqli_query($db, $sql);

    if (mysqli_num_rows($q) == 0) {
        print 'No dishes matched.';
    } else {
        print '<table>';
        print '<tr><th>Dish Name</th><th>Price</th><th>Spicy?</th></tr>';
        while ($dish = mysqli_fetch_object($q)) {
            if ($dish->is_spicy == 1) {
                $spicy = 'Yes';
            } else {
                $spicy = 'No';
            }
            printf('<tr><td>%s</td><td>%.02f</td><td>%s</td></tr>',
                htmlentities($dish->dish_name), $dish->price, $spicy);
        }
    }
}
```

The `process_form()` function in [Example 7-58](#) follows the same logical flow as that in [Example 7-56](#), but the database interaction functions are different. Since PEAR DB's placeholders aren't available, the minimum and maximum prices are put directly into the `$sql` variable holding the query. First, however, they are escaped with `mysqli_real_escape_string()`. Similarly, `$_POST['dish_name']` is escaped with `mysqli_real_escape_string()`. Last, the functions used to pass the query to the database and retrieve the results are different. The `mysqli_query()` function sends the query, `mysqli_num_rows()` reports the number of rows returned, and `mysqli_fetch_object()` retrieves each row in the result set as an object.

7.13 Chapter Summary

Chapter 7 covers:

- Figuring out what kinds of information belong in a database.
- Understanding how data is organized in a database.
- Loading an external file with `require`.
- Establishing a database connection.
- Creating a table in the database.
- Removing a table from the database.
- Using the SQL `INSERT` command.
- Inserting data into the database with `query()`.
- Checking for database errors with `DB::isError()`.
- Setting up automatic error handling with `setErrorHandling()`.
- Using the SQL `UPDATE` and `DELETE` commands.
- Changing or deleting data with `query()`.
- Counting the number of rows affected by a query.
- Using placeholders to insert data safely.
- Generating unique ID values with sequences.
- Using the SQL `SELECT` command.
- Retrieving data from the database with `query()` and `fetchRow()`.
- Counting the number of rows retrieved by `query()`.
- Retrieving data with `getAll()`, `getRow()`, and `getOne()`.
- Using the SQL `ORDER BY` and `LIMIT` keywords with `SELECT`.
- Retrieving rows as string-keyed arrays or objects.
- Using the SQL wildcards with `LIKE: %` and `_`.
- Escaping SQL wildcards in `SELECT` statements.
- Saving submitted form parameters in the database.
- Using data from the database in form elements.
- Using the `mysqli` functions instead of PEAR DB.

7.14 Exercises

The following exercises use a database table called `dishes` with the following structure:

```
CREATE TABLE dishes (  
    dish_id      INT,  
    dish_name    VARCHAR(255),  
    price        DECIMAL(4,2),  
    is_spicy     INT  
)
```

Here is some sample data to put into the `dishes` table:

```
INSERT INTO dishes VALUES (1, 'Walnut Bun', 1.00, 0)  
INSERT INTO dishes VALUES (2, 'Cashew Nuts and White Mushrooms', 4.95, 0)  
INSERT INTO dishes VALUES (3, 'Dried Mulberries', 3.00, 0)  
INSERT INTO dishes VALUES (4, 'Eggplant with Chili Sauce', 6.50, 1)  
INSERT INTO dishes VALUES (5, 'Red Bean Bun', 1.00, 0)  
INSERT INTO dishes VALUES (6, 'General Tso\'s Chicken', 5.50, 1)
```

1. Write a program that lists all of the dishes in the table, sorted by price.
2. Write a program that displays a form asking for a price. When the form is submitted, the program should print out the names and prices of the dishes whose price is at least the submitted price. Don't retrieve from the database any rows or columns that aren't printed in the table.
3. Write a program that displays a form with a `<select>` menu of dish names. Create the dish names to display by retrieving them from the database. When the form is submitted, the program should print out all of the information in the table (ID, name, price, and spiciness) for the selected dish.
4. Create a new table that holds information about restaurant customers. The table should store the following information about each customer: customer ID, name, phone number, and the ID of the customer's favorite dish. Write a program that displays a form for putting a new customer into the table. The part of the form for entering the customer's favorite dish should be a `<select>` menu of dish names. The customer's ID should be generated by your program, not entered in the form.

Chapter 8. Remembering Users with Cookies and Sessions

A web server is a lot like a clerk at a busy deli full of pushy customers. The customers at the deli shout requests: "I want a half pound of corned beef!" and "Give me a pound of pastrami, sliced thin!" The clerk scurries around slicing and wrapping to satisfy the requests. Web clients electronically shout requests ("Give me */catalog/yak.php!*" or "Here's a form submission for you!"), and the server, with the PHP interpreter's help, electronically scurries around constructing responses to satisfy the requests.

The clerk has an advantage that the web server doesn't, though: a memory. She naturally ties together all the requests that come from a particular customer. The PHP interpreter and the web server can't do that without some extra steps. That's where *cookies* come in.

A cookie identifies a particular web client to the web server and to the PHP interpreter. Each time a web client makes a request, it sends the cookie along with the request. The interpreter reads the cookie and figures out that a particular request is coming from the same web client that made previous requests, which were accompanied by the same cookie.

If deli customers were faced with a memory-deprived clerk, they'd have to adopt the same strategy. Their requests for service would look like this:

```
"I'm customer 56 and I want a half-pound of corned beef."  
"I'm customer 29 and I want three knishes."  
"I'm customer 56 and I want two pounds of pastrami."  
"I'm customer 77 and I'm returning this rye bread -- it's stale."  
"I'm customer 29 and I want a salami."
```

The "I'm customer so-and-so" part of the requests is the cookie. It gives the clerk what she needs to be able to link a particular customer's requests together.

A cookie has a name (such as "customer") and a value (such as "77" or "ronald"). [Section 8.1](#), next, shows you how to work with individual cookies in your programs: setting them, reading them, and deleting them.

One cookie is best at keeping track of one piece of information. Often, you need to keep track of more about a user (such as the contents of their shopping cart). Using multiple cookies for this is cumbersome. PHP's *session* capabilities solve this problem.

A session uses a cookie to distinguish users from each other and makes it easy to keep a temporary pile of data for each user on the server. This data persists across requests. On one request, you can add a variable to a user's session (such as putting something into the shopping cart). On a subsequent request, you can retrieve what's in the session (such as on the order checkout page when you need to list everything in the cart). Later in this chapter, [Section 8.2](#) describes how to get started with sessions, and [Section 8.3](#) provides the details on working with sessions.

8.1 Working with Cookies

To set a cookie, use the `setcookie()` function. This tells a web client to remember a cookie name and value and send them back to the server on subsequent requests. [Example 8-1](#) sets a cookie named `userid` to value `ralph`.

Example 8-1. Setting a cookie

```
setcookie('userid','ralph');
```

To read a previously set cookie from your PHP program, use the `$_COOKIE` auto-global array. [Example 8-2](#) prints the value of the `userid` cookie.

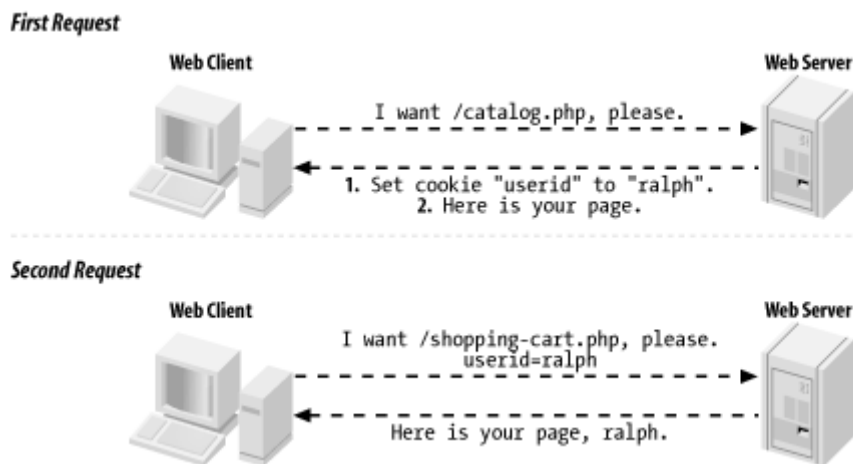
Example 8-2. Printing a cookie value

```
print 'Hello, ' . $_COOKIE['userid'];
```

The value for a cookie that you provide to `setcookie()` can be a string or a number. It can't be an array or more complicated data structure.

When you call `setcookie()`, the response that the PHP interpreter generates to send back to the web client includes a special header that tells the web client about the new cookie. On subsequent requests, the web client sends that cookie name and value back to the server. This two-step conversation is illustrated in [Figure 8-1](#).

Figure 8-1. Client and server communication when setting a cookie



Usually, you must call `setcookie()` before the page generates any output. This means that `setcookie()` must come before any `print` statements. It also means that there can't be any text before the PHP `<?php` start tag in the page that comes before the `setcookie()` function. Later in this chapter, [Section 8.6](#) explains why this requirement exists, and how, in some cases, you can get around it.

[Example 8-3](#) shows the correct way to put a `setcookie()` call at the top of your page.

Example 8-3. Starting a page with `setcookie()`

```
<?php
```

```

setcookie('userid','ralph');
?>
<html><head><title>Page with cookies</title></head>
<body>
This page sets a cookie properly, because the PHP block
with setcookie( ) in it comes before all of the HTML.
</body></html>

```

Cookies show up in `$_COOKIE` only when the web client sends them along with the request. This means that a name and value do not appear in `$_COOKIE` immediately after you call `setcookie()`. Only after that cookie-setting response is digested by the web client does the client know about the cookie. And only after the client sends the cookie back on a subsequent request does it appear in `$_COOKIE`.

The default lifetime for a cookie is the lifetime of the web client. When you quit Internet Explorer or Mozilla, the cookie is deleted. To make a cookie live longer (or shorter), use the third argument to `setcookie()`. This is an optional cookie expiration time. [Example 8-4](#) shows some cookies with different expiration times.

Example 8-4. Setting cookie expiration

```

// The cookie expires one hour from now
setcookie('short-userid','ralph',time( ) + 60*60);

// The cookie expires one day from now
setcookie('longer-userid','ralph',time( ) + 60*60*24);

// The cookie expires at noon on October 1, 2006
setcookie('much-longer-userid','ralph',mktime(12,0,0,10,1,2006));

```

The cookie expiration time needs to be given to `setcookie()` expressed as the number of seconds elapsed since midnight on January 1, 1970. (As crazily arbitrary as that sounds, there are some good reasons for expressing time values that way, which are explained in [Chapter 9](#).)

Two functions make coming up with appropriate expiration times easier: `time()` and `mktime()`. The `time()` function returns the current number of elapsed seconds since January 1, 1970. So if you want the cookie expiration time to be a certain number of seconds from now, add that value to what `time()` returns. There are 60 seconds in a minute and 60 minutes in an hour, so $60*60$ is the number of seconds in an hour. That makes `time() + 60*60` equal to the "elapsed seconds" value for an hour from now. Similarly, $60*60*24$ is the number of seconds in a day, so `time() + 60*60*24` is the "elapsed seconds" value for a day from now.

The `mktime()` function computes an appropriate "elapsed seconds" value for a given date and time. The arguments to `mktime()` are hour, minute, second, month, day, and year. So, `mktime(12,0,0,10,1,2006)` returns the correct value for noon (hour: 12, minute: 0, second: 0), on October 1, 2006 (month: 10, day: 1, year: 2006).

Setting a cookie with a specific expiration time makes the cookie last even if the web client exits and restarts.

Aside from expiration time, there are two other cookie parameters that are helpful to adjust: the path and the domain. Each of these affect with what requests the web client sends back the cookie.

Normally, cookies are only sent back with requests for pages in the same directory (or below) as the page that set the cookie. A cookie set by `http://www.example.com/buy.php` is sent back with all requests to `www.example.com`, because `buy.php` is in the top-level directory of the web server. A cookie set by `http://www.example.com/catalog/list.php` is sent back with other requests in the `catalog` directory, such as `http://www.example.com/catalog/search.php`. It is also sent back with requests for pages in subdirectories of `catalog`, such as `http://www.example.com/catalog/detailed/search.php`. But it is not sent back with requests for pages above or outside the `catalog` directory such as `http://www.example.com/sell.php` or `http://www.example.com/users/profile.php`.

The part of the URL after the hostname (such as `/buy.php`, `/catalog/list.php`, or `/users/profile.php`) is called the *path*. To tell the web client to match against a different path when determining whether to send a cookie to the server, provide that path as the fourth argument to `setcookie()`. The most flexible path to provide is `/`, which means "send this cookie back with all requests to the server." [Example 8-5](#) sets a cookie with the path set to `/`.

Example 8-5. Setting the cookie path

```
setcookie('short-userid', 'ralph', 0, '/');
```

In [Example 8-5](#), the expiration time argument to `setcookie()` is `0`. This tells `setcookie()` to use the default expiration time (when the web client exits) for the cookie. When you specify a path to `setcookie()`, you have to fill in something for the expiration time argument. It can be a specific time value (such as `time() + 60*60`), or it can be `0` to use the default expiration time.

Setting the path to something other than `/` is a good idea if you are on a shared server and all of your pages are under a specific directory. For example, if your web space is under `http://students.example.edu/~alice/`, then you should set the cookie path to `~/alice/`, as shown in [Example 8-6](#).

Example 8-6. Setting the cookie path to a specific directory

```
setcookie('short-userid', 'ralph', 0, '~/alice/');
```

With a cookie path of `~/alice/`, the `short-userid` cookie is sent with a request to `http://students.example.edu/~alice/search.php`, but not with requests to other students' web pages such as `http://students.example.edu/~bob/sneaky.php` or `http://students.example.edu/~charlie/search.php`.

The last argument that affects which requests the web client decides to send a particular cookie with is the domain. The default behavior is to send cookies only with requests to the same host that set the cookie. If `http://www.example.com/login.php` set a cookie, then that cookie is sent back with other requests to `www.example.com`—not with requests to `shop.example.com`, `www.yahoo.com`, or `www.example.org`.

You can alter this behavior slightly. A fifth argument to `setcookie()` tells the web client to send the cookie with requests that have a hostname whose end matches the argument. The most common use of this feature is to set the cookie domain to something like `.example.com`. (The period at the beginning is important.) This tells the web client that the cookie should accompany future requests to the servers `www.example.com`, `shop.example.com`, `testing.development.example.com`, and any other server name that ends in `.example.com`. [Example 8-7](#) shows how to set a cookie like this.

Example 8-7. Setting the cookie domain

```
setcookie('short-userid','ralph',0,'/','.example.com');
```

The cookie in [Example 8-7](#) expires when the web client exits and is sent with requests in any directory (because the path is `/`) on any server that ends with `.example.com`.

The path that you provide to `setcookie()` must match the end of the name of your server. If your PHP programs are hosted on the server `students.example.edu`, you can't supply `.yahoo.com` as a cookie path and have the cookie you set sent back to all servers in the `yahoo.com` domain. You can, however, specify `.example.edu` as a cookie domain to have your cookie sent with all requests to any server in the `example.edu` domain.

To delete a cookie, call `setcookie()` with the name of the cookie you want to delete and the empty string as the cookie value, as shown in [Example 8-8](#).

Example 8-8. Deleting a cookie

```
setcookie('short-userid','');
```

If you've set a cookie with nondefault values for an expiration time, path, or domain, you must provide those same values again when you delete the cookie for the cookie to be deleted properly.

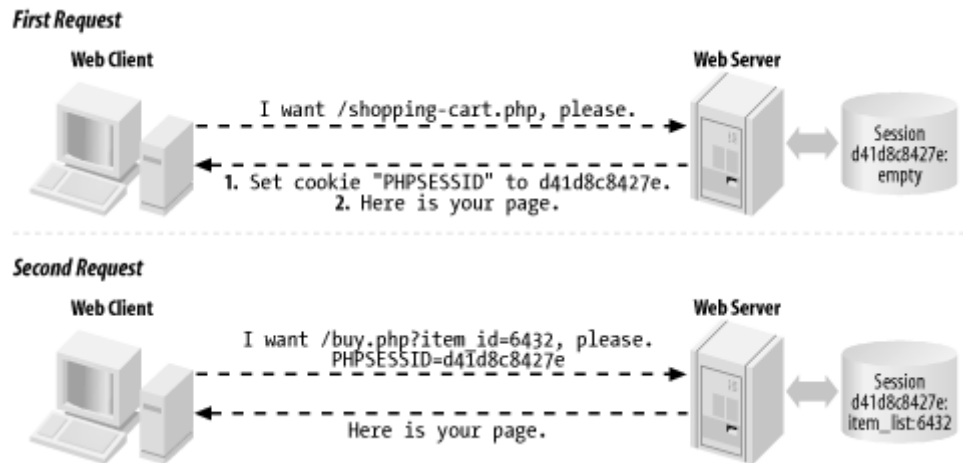
Most of the time, any cookies you set are fine with the default values for expiration time, path, or domain. But understanding how these values can be changed helps you understand how PHP's sessions behavior can be customized.

8.2 Activating Sessions

Sessions use a cookie called `PHPSESSID`. When you start a session on a page, the PHP interpreter checks for the presence of this cookie and sets it if it doesn't exist. The value of the `PHPSESSID` cookie is a random alphanumeric string. Each web client gets a different session ID. The session ID in the `PHPSESSID` cookie identifies that web client uniquely to the server. That lets the interpreter maintain separate piles of data for each web client.

The conversation between the web client and the server when starting up a session is illustrated in [Figure 8-2](#).

Figure 8-2. Client and server communication when starting a session



To use a session in a page, call `session_start()` at the beginning of your script. Like `setcookie()`, this function must be called before any output is sent. If you want to use sessions in all your pages, set the configuration directive `session.auto_start` to `On`. ([Appendix A](#) explains how to change configuration settings.) Once you do that, there's no need to call `session_start()` in each page.

8.3 Storing and Retrieving Information

Session data is stored in the `$_SESSION` auto-global array. Read and change elements of that array to manipulate the session data. [Example 8-9](#) shows a page counter that uses the `$_SESSION` array to keep track of how many times a user has looked at the page.

Example 8-9. Counting page accesses with a session

```
session_start( );

$_SESSION['count'] = $_SESSION['count'] + 1;

print "You've looked at this page " . $_SESSION['count'] . " times.;"
```

The first time a user accesses the page in [Example 8-9](#), no `PHPSESSID` cookie is sent by the user's web client to the server. The `session_start()` function creates a new session for the user and sends a `PHPSESSID` cookie with the new session ID in it. When the session is created, the `$_SESSION` array starts out empty. So, `$_SESSION['count'] = $_SESSION['count'] + 1` sets `$_SESSION['count']` to 1. The `print` statement outputs:

```
You've looked at this page 1 times.
```

At the end of the request, the information in `$_SESSION` is saved into a file on the web server associated with the appropriate session ID.

The next time the user accesses the page, the web client sends the `PHPSESSID` cookie. The `session_start()` function sees the session ID in the cookie and loads the file that contains the saved session information associated with that session

ID. In this case, that saved information just says that `$_SESSION['count']` is 1. Next, `$_SESSION['count']` is incremented to 2 and You've looked at this page 2 times. is printed. Again, at the end of the request, the contents of `$_SESSION` (now with `$_SESSION['count']` equal to 2) are saved to a file.

The PHP interpreter keeps track of the contents of `$_SESSION` separately for each session ID. When your program is running, `$_SESSION` contains the saved data for one session only—the active session corresponding to the ID that was sent in the `PHPSESSID` cookie. Each user's `PHPSESSID` cookie has a different value.

As long as you call `session_start()` at the top of a page (or if `session.auto_start` is on), you have access to a user's session data in your page. The `$_SESSION` array is a way of sharing information between pages.

[Example 8-10](#) is a complete program that displays a form in which a user picks a dish and a quantity. That dish and quantity are added to the session variable `order`.

Example 8-10. Saving form data in a session

```
<?php
require 'formhelpers.php';

session_start( );

$main_dishes = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
                    'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",
                    'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
                    'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',
                    'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
                    'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');

if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';

    if ($errors) {
        print '<ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // Since we're not supplying any defaults of our own, it's OK
    // to pass $_POST as the defaults array to input_select and
    // input_text so that any user-entered values are preserved
    print 'Dish: ';
    input_select('dish', $_POST, $GLOBALS['main_dishes']);
    print '<br/>';

    print 'Quantity: ';
```

```

input_text('quantity', $_POST);
print '<br/>';

input_submit('submit', 'Order');

print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
print '</form>';
}

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // The dish selected in the menu must be valid
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['dish'], $GLOBALS['main_dishes'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a valid dish.';
    }

    if ((! is_numeric($_POST['quantity'])) || (intval($_POST['quantity']) <= 0)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a quantity.';
    }

    return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {
    $_SESSION['order'][ ] = array('dish' => $_POST['dish'],
                                   'quantity' => $_POST['quantity']);

    print 'Thank you for your order.';
} ?>

```

The form-handling code in [Example 8-10](#) is mostly familiar. As in Examples [Example 7-30](#) and [Example 7-56](#), the form element printing helper functions are loaded from the *formhelpers.php* file. The `show_form()`, `validate_form()`, and `process_form()` functions display, validate, and process the form data.

Where [Example 8-10](#) takes advantage of sessions, however, is in `process_form()`. Each time the form is submitted with valid data, an element is added to the `$_SESSION['order']` array. Session data isn't restricted to strings and numbers such as cookies. You can treat `$_SESSION` like any other array. The syntax `$_SESSION['order'][]` says "treat `$_SESSION['order']` as an array and add a new element onto its end." In this case, what's being added on to the end of `$_SESSION['order']` is a two-element array containing information about the dish and quantity that were submitted in the form.

The program in [Example 8-11](#) prints a list of dishes that have been ordered by accessing the information that's been stored in the session by [Example 8-10](#).

Example 8-11. Printing session data

```

<?php
session_start( );

$main_dishes = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
                    'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",

```



```

'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',
'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');

```

```

if (count($_SESSION['order']) > 0) {
    print '<ul>';
    foreach ($_SESSION['order'] as $order) {
        $dish_name = $main_dishes[ $order['dish'] ];
        print "<li> $order[quantity] of $dish_name </li>";
    }
    print "</ul>";
} else {
    print "You haven't ordered anything.";
}
?>

```

[Example 8-11](#) has access to the data stored in the session by [Example 8-10](#). It treats `$_SESSION['order']` as an array: if there are elements in the array (because `count()` returns a positive number), then it iterates through the array with `foreach()` and prints out a list element for each dish that has been ordered.

8.4 Configuring Sessions

Sessions work great with no additional tweaking. Turn them on with the `session_start()` function or the `session.auto_start` configuration directive, and the `$_SESSION` array is there for your enjoyment. However, if you're more particular about how you want sessions to function, there are a few helpful settings that can be changed.

Session data sticks around as long as the session is accessed at least once every 24 minutes. This is fine for most applications. Sessions aren't meant to be a permanent data store for user information—that's what the database is for. Sessions are for keeping track of recent user activity to make their browsing experience smoother.

Some situations may need a shorter session length, however. If you're developing a financial application, you may want to allow only 5 or 10 minutes of idle time to reduce the chance that an unattended computer can be used by an unauthorized person. If your application doesn't work with very critical data and you have easily distracted users, you may want to set the session length to longer than 24 minutes.

The `session.gc_maxlifetime` configuration directive controls how much idle time is allowed between requests to keep a session active. Its default value is 1,440—there are 1,440 seconds in 24 minutes. You can change `session.gc_maxlifetime` in your server configuration or by calling the `ini_set()` function from your program. If you use `ini_set()`, you must call it before `session_start()`. [Example 8-12](#) shows how to use `ini_set()` to change the allowable session idle time to 10 minutes.

Example 8-12. Changing allowable session idle time

```

<?php
ini_set('session.gc_maxlifetime',600); // 600 seconds = = ten minutes
session_start( );
?>

```

Expired sessions don't actually get wiped out instantly after 24 minutes elapses. Here's how it really works: at the beginning of any request that uses sessions (because the page calls `session_start()` or `session.auto_start` is on), there is a 1% chance that the PHP interpreter scans through all of the sessions on the server and deletes any that are expired. "A 1% chance" sounds awfully unpredictable for a computer program. It is. But that randomness makes things more efficient. On a busy site, searching for expired sessions to destroy at the beginning of every request would consume too much server power.

You're not stuck with that 1% chance if you'd like expired sessions to be removed more promptly. The `session.gc_probability` configuration directive is the percent chance that the "erase old sessions" routine runs at the start of a request. To have that happen on every request, set it to 100. Like with `session.gc_maxlifetime`, if you use `ini_set()` to change the value of `session.gc_probability`, you need to do it before `session_start()`. [Example 8-13](#) shows how to change `session.gc_probability` with `ini_set()`.

Example 8-13. Changing the expired session cleanup probability

```
<?php
ini_set('session.gc_probability',100); // 100% : clean up on every request
session_start( );
?>
```

If you are activating sessions with the `session.auto_start` configuration directive and you want to change the value of `session.gc_maxlifetime` or `session.gc_probability`, you can't use `ini_set()` to change those values—you have to do it in your server configuration.

8.5 Login and User Identification

A session establishes an anonymous relationship with a particular user. Requiring a user to log in to your web site lets them tell you who they are. The login process typically requires a user to provide you with two pieces of information: one that identifies them (a username or an email address) and one that proves that they are who they say they are (a secret password).

Once a user is logged in, they can access private data, submit message board posts with their name attached, or do anything else that the general public isn't allowed to do.

Adding user login on top of sessions has five parts:

- Displaying a form asking for username and password
- Checking the form submission
- Adding the username to the session (if the submitted password is correct)
- Looking for the username in the session to do user-specific tasks
- Removing the username from the session when the user logs out

The first three steps are handled in the context of regular form processing. The `validate_form()` function gets the responsibility of checking to make sure that the supplied username and password are acceptable. The `process_form()` function adds the username to the session. [Example 8-14](#) displays a login form and adds the username to the session if the login is successful.

Example 8-14. Displaying a login form

```
<?php
require 'formhelpers.php';

// This is identical to the input_text( ) function in formhelpers.php but
// prints a password box (in which asterisks obscure what's entered)
// instead of a plain text field
function input_password($field_name, $values) {
    print '<input type="password" name="' . $field_name . '" value="';
    print htmlentities($values[$field_name]) . '">';
}

session_start( );

if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    print '<form method="POST" action=".' . $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] . '">';

    if ($errors) {
        print '<ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    print 'Username: ';
    input_text('username', $_POST);
    print '<br/>';

    print 'Password: ';
    input_password('password', $_POST);
    print '<br/>';

    input_submit('submit', 'Log In');

    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // Some sample usernames and passwords
    $users = array('alice' => 'dog123',
                  'bob' => 'my^pwd',
                  'charlie' => '**fun**');

    // Make sure user name is valid
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['username'], $users)) {
```

```
    $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid username and password.';
}

// See if password is correct
$saved_password = $users[ $_POST['username'] ];
if ($saved_password != $_POST['password']) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid username and password.';
}

return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {
    // Add the username to the session
    $_SESSION['username'] = $_POST['username'];

    print "Welcome, $_SESSION[username]";
}
?>
```

[Figure 8-3](#) shows the form that [Example 8-14](#) displays, [Figure 8-4](#) shows what happens when an incorrect password is entered, and [Figure 8-5](#) what happens when a correct password is entered.

Figure 8-3. Login form

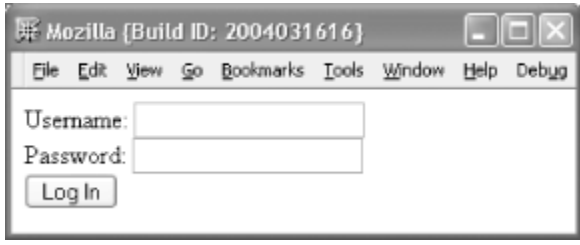
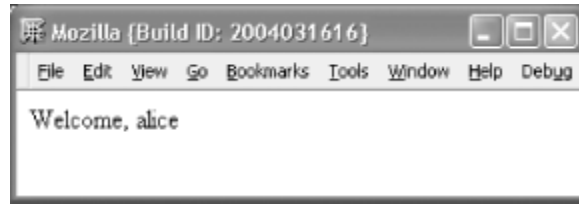


Figure 8-4. Unsuccessful login



Figure 8-5. Successful login



In [Example 8-14](#), `validate_form()` checks two things: whether a valid username is entered and whether the correct password was supplied for that username. Note that the same error message is added to the `$errors` array in either case. If you use different error messages for a missing username (such as "User name not found") and bad passwords (such as "Password doesn't match"), you provide helpful information for someone trying to guess a valid username and password. Once this attacker stumbles on a valid username, she sees the "Password doesn't match" error message instead of the "User name not found" message. She then knows that she's working with a real username and has to guess the password only. When the error messages are the same in both cases, all the attacker knows is that something about the username/password combination she tried is not correct.

If the username is valid and the right password is submitted, `validate_form()` returns no errors. When this happens, `process_form()` is called. The `process_form()` function adds the submitted username (`$_POST['username']`) to the session and prints out a welcome message for the user. This makes the username available in the session for other pages to use. [Example 8-15](#) demonstrates how to check for a username in the session in another page.

Example 8-15. Doing something special for a logged-in user

```
<?php
session_start( );

if (array_key_exists('username', $_SESSION)) {
    print "Hello, $_SESSION[username].";
} else {
    print 'Howdy, stranger.';
}
?>
```

The only way a `username` element can be added to the `$_SESSION` array is by your program. So if it's there, you know that a user has logged in successfully.

The `validate_form()` function in [Example 8-14](#) uses a sample array of usernames and passwords called `$users`. Storing passwords without encrypting them is a bad idea. If the list of unencrypted passwords is compromised, then an attacker can log in as any user. Storing encrypted passwords prevents an attacker from getting the actual passwords even if she gets the list of encrypted passwords, because there's no way to go from the encrypted password back to the unencrypted password you'd have to enter to log in. Operating systems that require you to log in with a password use this same technique.

A better `validate_form()` function is shown in [Example 8-16](#). The `$users` array in that function contains passwords that have been encrypted with PHP's `crypt()` function. Because the passwords are stored as encrypted strings, they can't be compared directly with the unencrypted password that the user enters. Instead, the submitted password in `$_POST['password']` is also encrypted with `crypt()`, and the result is compared with the stored encrypted password. If they match, then the user has submitted the correct password.

Example 8-16. Using encrypted passwords

```
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // Sample users with encrypted passwords
    $users = array('alice' => '$1$LdB0G7jx$zVu.6YDfT2M3PcIq3xUdD0',
                  'bob'   => '$1$YY/mMevB$6KEH9LLrjZnuemGml9GRE/',
                  'charlie' => '$1$q.hxaUR9$Pu/NxLQeyMgF7lmCJ3FBo/');

    // Make sure user name is valid
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['username'], $users)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid username and password.';
    }

    // See if password is correct
    $saved_password = $users[ $_POST['username'] ];
    if ($saved_password != crypt($_POST['password'], $saved_password)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid username and password.';
    }

    return $errors;
}
```

The `crypt()` function needs to have the stored encrypted password passed to it as a second argument to make sure that the `$_POST['password']` is encrypted properly. (If you're interested in more details about how `crypt()` works, read about in the PHP online manual at <http://www.php.net/crypt> and in Recipe 14.5 of *PHP Cookbook*, by David Sklar and Adam Trachtenberg [O'Reilly].)

Putting an array of users and passwords inside `validate_form()` makes these examples self contained. However, more typically, your usernames and passwords are stored in a database table. [Example 8-17](#) is a version of `validate_form()` that retrieves the username and encrypted password from a database. It assumes that a database connection has already been set up outside the function and is available in the global variable `$db`.

Example 8-17. Retrieving a username and password from a database

```
function validate_form( ) {
    global $db;

    $errors = array( );

    $encrypted_password = $db->getOne('SELECT password FROM users WHERE username = ?',
                                     array($_POST['username']));

    if ($encrypted_password != crypt($_POST['password'], $encrypted_password)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid username and password.';
    }

    return $errors;
}
```

The query that `getOne()` sends to the database returns the encrypted password for the user identified in `$_POST['username']`. If the username supplied in `$_POST['username']` doesn't match any rows in the database, then `$encrypted_password` is empty. Either way, `$encrypted_password` is compared to the results of encrypting the supplied password (`$_POST['password']`); if they don't match, then an error is added to the `$errors` array.

Just like any other array, use `unset()` to remove a key and value from `$_SESSION`. This is how to log out a user. [Example 8-18](#) shows a logout page.

Example 8-18. Logging out

```
<?php
session_start( );
unset($_SESSION['username']);

print 'Bye-bye.';
?>
```

When the `$_SESSION` array is saved at the end of the request that calls `unset()`, the `username` element isn't included in the saved data. The next time that session's data is loaded into `$_SESSION`, there is no `username` element, and the user is once again anonymous.

8.6 Why `setcookie()` and `session_start()` Want to Be at the Top of the Page

When a web server sends a response to a web client, most of that response is the HTML document that the browser renders into a web page on your screen: the soup of tags and text that Internet Explorer or Mozilla formats into tables or changes the color or size of. But before that HTML is a section of the response that contains *headers*. These don't get displayed on your screen but are commands or information from the server for the web client. The headers say things such as "this page was generated at such-and-such a time," "please don't cache this page," or (and the one that's relevant here) "please remember that the cookie named `userid` has the value `ralph`."

All of the headers in the response from the web server to the web client have to be at the beginning of the response, before the *response body*, which is the HTML that controls what the browser actually displays. Once some of the body is sent—even one line—no more headers can be sent.

Functions such as `setcookie()` and `session_start()` add headers to the response. In order for the added headers to be sent properly, they must be added before any output starts. That's why they must be called before any `print` statements or any HTML appearing outside `<?php ?>` PHP tags.

If any output has been sent before `setcookie()` or `session_start()` is called, the PHP interpreter prints an error message that looks like this:

```
Warning: Cannot modify header information - headers already sent by
(output started at /www/htdocs/catalog.php:2) in /www/htdocs/catalog.php on line 4
```

This means that line 4 of *catalog.php* called a function that sends a header, but something was already printed by line 2 of *catalog.php*.

If you see the "headers already sent" error message, scrutinize your code for errant output. Make sure there are no print statements before you call `setcookie()` or `session_start()`. Check that there is nothing before the first `<?php` PHP start tag in the page. Also, check that there is nothing outside the `<?php ?>` tags in any included or required files—even blank lines.

An alternative to hunting down mischievous blank lines in your files is to use *output buffering*. This tells the PHP interpreter to wait to send *any* output until it's finished processing the whole request. Then, it sends any headers that have been set, followed by all the regular output. To enable output buffering, set the `output_buffering` configuration directive to `On` in your server configuration. Web clients have to wait a few additional milliseconds to get the page content from your server, but you save megaseconds fixing your code to have all output happen after calls to `setcookie()` or `session_start()`.

With output buffering turned on, you can mix `print` statements, cookie and session functions, HTML outside of `<?php` and `?>` tags, and regular PHP code without getting the "headers already sent" error. The program in [Example 8-19](#) works only when output buffering is turned on. Without it, the HTML printed before the `<?php` start tag triggers the sending of headers, which prevents `setcookie()` from working properly.

Example 8-19. A program that needs output buffering to work

```
<html>
<head>Choose Your Site Version</head>
<body>
<?php
setcookie('seen_intro', 1);
?>
<a href="/basic.php">Basic</a>
  or
<a href="/advanced.php">Advanced</a>
</body>
</html>
```

8.7 Chapter Summary

Chapter 8 covers:

- Understanding why cookies are necessary to identify a particular web browser to a web server.
- Setting a cookie in a PHP program.
- Reading a cookie value in a PHP program.
- Modifying cookie parameters such as expiration time, path, and domain.
- Deleting a cookie in a PHP program.
- Turning on sessions from a PHP program or in the PHP interpreter configuration.
- Storing information in a session.
- Reading information from a session.
- Saving form data in a session.

- Removing information from a session.
- Configuring session expiration and cleanup.
- Displaying, validating, and processing a validation form.
- Using encrypted passwords.
- Understanding why `setcookie()` and `session_start()` must be called before anything is printed.

8.8 Exercises

1. Make a web page that uses a cookie to keep track of how many times a user has viewed the page. The first time a particular user looks at the page, it should print something like "Number of views: 1." The second time the user looks at the page, it should print "Number of views: 2," and so on.
2. Modify the web page from the first exercise so that it prints out a special message on the 5th, 10th, and 15th time the user looks at the page. Also modify it so that on the 20th time the user looks at the page, it deletes the cookie and the page count starts over.
3. Write a PHP program that displays a form for a user to pick their favorite color from a list of colors. Make another page whose background color is set to the color that the user picks in the form. Store the color value in `$_SESSION` so that both pages can access it.
4. Write a PHP program that displays an order form. The order form should list six products. Next to each product name there should be a text box into which a user can type in how many of that product they want to order. When the form is submitted, the submitted form data should be saved into the session. Make another page that displays the contents of the saved order, a link back to the order form page, and a Check Out button. If the link back to the order form page is clicked, the order form page should be displayed with the saved order quantities from the session in the text boxes. When the Check Out button is clicked, the order should be cleared from the session.

Chapter 9. Handling Dates and Times

Dates and times are all over the place in a web application. In a shopping cart, you need to handle shipping dates of products. In a forum, you need to keep track of when messages are posted. In all sorts of applications, you need to keep track of the last time a user logged in so that you can tell them things such as "fifteen new messages were posted since you last logged in."

Handling dates and times properly in your programs is more complicated than handling strings or numbers. A date or a time is not a single value but a collection of values—month, day, and year, for example, or hour, minute, and second. Because of this, doing math with them can be tricky. Instead of just adding or subtracting entire dates and times, you have to consider their component parts and what the allowable values for each part are. Hours go up to 12 (or 24), minutes and seconds go up to 59, and not all months have the same number of days.

A programming convention that simplifies date and time calculation is to treat a particular time and date as a single value: the number of seconds that have elapsed since midnight on January 1, 1970. This value is called an *epoch timestamp*. The choice of January 1, 1970 is mostly arbitrary. But, as is the way with conventions, since lots of other people are doing it, you've got to do it, too. Fortunately, PHP provides plenty of functions for you to deal with epoch timestamps.

In this book, the phrase *time parts* (or *date parts* or *time and date parts*) means an array or group of time and date components such as day, month, year, hour, minute, and second. *Formatted time string* (or *formatted date string*, etc.) means a string that contains some particular grouping of time and date parts—for example "Wednesday, October 20, 2004" or "3:54 p.m."

9.1 Displaying the Date or Time

The simplest display of date or time is telling your users what time it is. Use the `date()` or `strftime()` function as shown in [Example 9-1](#).

Example 9-1. What time is it?

```
print 'strftime( ) says: ';\nprint strftime('%c');\nprint "\\n";\nprint 'date( ) says: ';\nprint date('r');
```

At noon on October 20, 2004, [Example 9-1](#) prints:

```
strftime( ) says: Wed Oct 20 12:00:00 2004\ndate( ) says: Wed, 20 Oct 2004 12:00:00 -0400
```

Both `strftime()` and `date()` take two arguments. The first controls how the time or date string is formatted, and the second controls what time or date to use. If you leave out the second argument, as in [Example 9-1](#), each uses the current time.

With `date()`, individual letters in the format string translate into certain time values. [Example 9-2](#) prints out a month, day, and year with `date()`.

Example 9-2. Printing a formatted date string with `date()`

```
print date('m/d/y');
```

At noon on October 20, 2004, [Example 9-2](#) prints:

```
10/20/04
```

In [Example 9-2](#), the `m` becomes the month (10), the `d` becomes the day of the month (20), and the `y` becomes the two-digit year (04). Because the slash is not a format character that `date()` understands, it is left alone in the string that `date()` returns.

With `strftime()`, the things in the format string that get replaced by time and date values are set off by percent signs.^[1] [Example 9-3](#) prints out a month, day, and year with `strftime()`.

^[1] This makes `strftime()` format strings look like `printf()` format strings, but they're different. The modifiers that work with `printf()` don't work with `strftime()`.

Example 9-3. Printing a formatted date string with `strftime()`

```
print strftime('%m/%d/%y');
```

At noon on October 20, 2004, [Example 9-3](#) prints:

```
10/20/04
```

In [Example 9-3](#), the `%m` becomes the month, the `%d` becomes the day, and `%y` becomes the two-digit year.

[Table 9-1](#) lists all of the special characters that `date()` and `strftime()` understand. The "Windows?" column indicates whether the character is supported by `strftime()` on Windows.

Table 9-1. `strftime()` and `date()` format characters

Type	<code>strftime()</code>	<code>date()</code>	Description	Range	Windows?
Hour	<code>%H</code>	<code>H</code>	Hour, numeric, 24-hour clock.	00-23	Yes

Table 9-1. strftime() and date() format characters

Type	strftime()	date()	Description	Range	Windows?
Hour	%I	h	Hour, numeric, 12-hour clock.	01-12	Yes
Hour	%k		Hour, numeric, 24-hour clock, leading zero as space.	0-23	No
Hour	%l		Hour, numeric, 12-hour clock, leading zero as space.	1-12	No
Hour	%p	A	A.M. or P.M. designation for current locale.		Yes
Hour	%P	a	a.m. or p.m. designation for current locale.		No
Hour		G	Hour, numeric, 24-hour clock, leading zero trimmed.	0-23	No
Hour		g	Hour, numeric, 12-hour clock, leading zero trimmed.	0-11	No
Minute	%M	i	Minute, numeric.	00-59	Yes
Second	%S	s	Second, numeric.	00-61 ^[2]	Yes
Day	%d	d	Day of the month, numeric.	01-31	Yes
Day	%e		Day of the month, numeric, leading zero as space.	1-31	No
Day	%j	z	Day of the year, numeric.	001-366 for strftime(), 0-365 for date()	Yes
Day	%u		Weekday, numeric, 1 = Monday.	1-7	No
Day	%w	w	Day of the week, numeric, 0 = Sunday.	0-6	Yes
Day		j	Day of the month, numeric, leading zero trimmed.	1-31	No
Day		S	English ordinal suffix for day of the month, textual.	"st", "th", "nd", "rd"	No
Week	%a	D	Abbreviated weekday name, text for current locale.		Yes
Week	%A	l	Full weekday name, text for current locale.		Yes
Week	%U		Week number in the year, numeric, first Sunday is the first day of the first week.	00-53	Yes
Week	%V		ISO 8601:1988 week number in the year, numeric, week 1 is the first week that has at least four days in the current year, Monday is the first day of the week.	01-53	No
Week	%W		Week number in the year, numeric, first Monday is the first day of the first week.	00-53	Yes
Month	%B	F	Full month name, text for current locale.		Yes

Table 9-1. strftime() and date() format characters

Type	strftime()	date()	Description	Range	Windows?
Month	%b	M	Abbreviated month name, text for current locale.		Yes
Month	%h		Same as %b.		No
Month	%m	m	Month, numeric.	01-12	Yes
Month		n	Month, numeric, leading zero trimmed.	1-12	No
Month		t	Month length in days, numeric.	28, 29, 30, 31	No
Year	%C		Century, numeric.	00-99	No
Year	%g		Like %G, but without the century.	00-99	No
Year	%G		ISO 8601 year with century, numeric. The 4-digit year corresponding to the ISO week number. Same as %Y except if the ISO week number belongs to the previous or next year, that year is used instead.		No
Year	%Y	Y	Year without century, numeric.	00-99	Yes
Year	%Y	Y	Year, numeric, including century.		Yes
Year		L	Leap year flag (1 = = yes).	0, 1	No
Time zone	%z	O	Hour offset from GMT, +/-HHMM (e.g., -0400, +0230).	-1200+1200	Yes, but acts like %Z
Time zone	%Z	T	Time zone or name or abbreviation, textual.		Yes
Time zone		I	Daylight Saving Time flag (1 = = yes).	0, 1	No
Time zone		Z	Seconds offset from GMT; west of GMT is negative, east of GMT is positive.	-43200-43200	No
Compound	%c		Standard date and time format for current locale.		Yes
Compound	%D		Same as %m/%d/%Y.		No
Compound	%F		Same as %Y-%m-%d.		No
Compound	%r		Time in A.M. or P.M. notation for current locale.		No
Compound	%R		Time in 24-hour notation for current locale.		No
Compound	%T		Time in 24-hour notation (same as %H:%M:%S).		No
Compound	%x		Standard date format for current locale (without time).		Yes
Compound	%X		Standard time format for current locale (without date).		Yes

Table 9-1. strftime() and date() format characters

Type	strftime()	date()	Description	Range	Windows?
Compound		r	RFC 822 formatted date; i.e. "Thu, 21 Dec 2000 16:01:07 +0200".		No
Other	%s	U	Seconds since the epoch.		No
Other		B	Swatch Internet time.		No
Formatting	%%		Literal % character.		Yes
Formatting	%n		Newline character.		No
Formatting	%t		Tab character.		No

^[2] The range for seconds extends to 61 to account for leap seconds.

As just mentioned, to get `date()` or `strftime()` to print a formatted time string for a particular time, supply that time (as an epoch timestamp) as the second argument to either function. [Example 9-4](#) prints out the time an hour from now. It uses the `time()` function, which returns the current epoch timestamp.

Example 9-4. Printing a formatted time string for a particular time

```
print 'strftime says( ): ' ;
print strftime('%I:%M:%S', time( ) + 60*60);
print "\n";
print 'date( ) says: ' ;
print date('h:i:s', time( ) + 60*60);
```

At noon on October 20, 2004, [Example 9-4](#) prints:

```
strftime( ) says: 01:00:00
date( ) says: 01:00:00
```

At noon, `time() + 60*60` equals the epoch timestamp for 1 p.m. ($60*60 = 3600$, the number of seconds in one hour.) The formatting characters used by `strftime()` and `date()` in [Example 9-4](#) print the hour, minute, and second corresponding to the supplied epoch timestamp.

The `date()` and `strftime()` functions each have their strong points. If you are generating a formatted time or date string that has other text in it too, `strftime()` is better because you don't have to worry about letters without percent signs turning into time or date values. [Example 9-5](#) shows how to use `date()` and `strftime()` to print a formatted date string like this. The version with `strftime()` is simpler.

Example 9-5. Printing a formatted time string with other text

```

print 'strftime( ) says: ';
print strftime('Today is %m/%d/%y and the time is %I:%M:%S');
print "\n";
print 'date( ) says: ';
print 'Today is ' . date('m/d/y') . ' and the time is ' . date('h:i:s');

```

At noon on October 20, 2004, [Example 9-5](#) prints:

```

strftime( ) says: Today is 10/20/2004 and the time is 12:00:00
date( ) says: Today is 10/20/2004 and the time is 12:00:00

```

The `date()` function shines for different reasons. It supports some things that `strftime()` doesn't, such as a leap year indicator, a DST indicator, and trimming leading zeroes from some values. Furthermore, `date()` is a PHP-specific function. The `strftime()` PHP function relies on an underlying operating system function (also called `strftime()`). That's why some format characters aren't supported on Windows. When you use `date()`, it's guaranteed to work the same everywhere. Unless you need to put text that isn't format characters into the format string, choose `date()` over `strftime()`.

9.2 Parsing a Date or Time

To work with date or time values in your program as epoch timestamps, you need to convert other time representations to epoch timestamps. If you have discrete date or time parts (for example, from different form parameters), then use `mktime()`. It accepts an hour, minute, second, month, day, and year, and returns the corresponding epoch timestamp. [Example 9-6](#) shows `mktime()` at work.

Example 9-6. Making an epoch timestamp

```

// get the values from a form
$user_date = mktime($_POST['hour'], $_POST['minute'], 0, $_POST['month'], $_POST['day'],
$_POST['year']);

// 1:30 pm (and 45 seconds) on October 20, 1982
$afternoon = mktime(13,30,45,10,20,1982);

print strftime('At %I:%M:%S on %m/%d/%y, ', $afternoon);
print "$afternoon seconds have elapsed since 1/1/1970.";

```

[Example 9-6](#) prints:

```

At 01:30:45 on 10/20/82, 403983045 seconds have elapsed since 1/1/1970.

```

All of `mktime()`'s arguments are optional. Whatever is left out defaults to the current date or time. For example, `mktime(15,30,0)` returns the epoch timestamp for 3:30 p.m. today, and `mktime(15,30,0,6,5)` returns the epoch timestamp for 3:30 p.m. on June 5th of this year.

When you want the epoch timestamp for something relative to a time you know, use `strptime()`. It understands English descriptions of relative times and returns an appropriate epoch timestamp. [Example 9-7](#) shows how to find the epoch timestamp for some dates with `strptime()`.

Example 9-7. Using `strptime()`

```
$now = time( );
$later = strptime('Thursday', $now);
$before = strptime('last thursday', $now);
print strftime("now: %c \n", $now);
print strftime("later: %c \n", $later);
print strftime("before: %c \n", $before);
```

At noon on October 20, 2004, [Example 9-7](#) prints:

```
now: Wed Oct 20 12:00:00 2004
later: Thu Oct 21 00:00:00 2004
before: Thu Oct 14 00:00:00 2004
```

Like `date()` and `strftime()`, `strptime()` also accepts an epoch timestamp second argument to use as the starting point for its calculations. [Example 9-8](#) uses `mktime()` and `strptime()` to find when the U.S. presidential election will be in 2008. U.S. presidential elections are held the Tuesday after the first Monday in November.

Example 9-8. Using `strptime()` with a starting epoch timestamp

```
// Find the epoch timestamp for November 1, 2008
$november = mktime(0,0,0,11,1,2008);
// Find the First monday on or after November 1, 2008
$monday = strptime('Monday', $november);
// Skip ahead one day to the Tuesday after the first Monday
$selection_day = strptime('+1 day', $monday);

print strftime('Election day is %A, %B %d, %Y', $selection_day);
```

[Example 9-8](#) prints:

```
Election day is Tuesday, November 04, 2008
```

The grammar that `strptime()` follows is comprehensive but complicated to explain. The best way to familiarize yourself with it is to experiment. If you want to dig into the nitty gritty and see a list of everything that `strptime()` can understand, read http://www.gnu.org/software/tar/manual/html_chapter/tar_7.html.

9.3 Dates and Times in Forms

When you need a user to input a date in a form, the best thing to do is to use `<select>` menus. This generally restricts the possible input to whatever you display in the menus. The specific date or time information you need controls what you populate the `<select>` menus with.

9.3.1 A Single Menu with One Choice Per Day

If there are a small number of choices, you can have just one menu that lists all of them. [Example 9-9](#) prints a `<select>` menu that lets a user pick one day in the coming week. The value for each option in the menu is an epoch timestamp corresponding to midnight on the displayed day.

Example 9-9. A day choice `<select>` menu

```
$midnight_today = mktime(0,0,0);
print '<select name="date">';
for ($i = 0; $i < 7; $i++) {
    $timestamp = strtotime("+${i} day", $midnight_today);
    $display_date = strftime('%A, %B %d, %Y', $timestamp);
    print '<option value="' . $timestamp . '">'. $display_date . "</option>\n";
}
print "\n</select>";
```

On October 20, 2004, [Example 9-9](#) prints:

```
<select name="date"><option value="1098244800">Wednesday, October 20, 2004</option>
<option value="1098331200">Thursday, October 21, 2004</option>
<option value="1098417600">Friday, October 22, 2004</option>
<option value="1098504000">Saturday, October 23, 2004</option>
<option value="1098590400">Sunday, October 24, 2004</option>
<option value="1098676800">Monday, October 25, 2004</option>
<option value="1098763200">Tuesday, October 26, 2004</option>
```

If you're using the `input_select()` form helper function from [Chapter 6](#), put the timestamps and display dates in an array inside the `for()` loop and then pass that array to `input_select()`, as shown in [Example 9-10](#).

Example 9-10. A day choice menu with `input_select()`

```
require 'formhelpers.php';

$midnight_today = mktime(0,0,0);
$choices = array( );
for ($i = 0; $i < 7; $i++) {
    $timestamp = strtotime("+${i} day", $midnight_today);
    $display_date = strftime('%A, %B %d, %Y', $timestamp);
    $choices[$timestamp] = $display_date;
}
input_select('date', $_POST, $choices);
```

[Example 9-10](#) prints the same menu as [Example 9-9](#).

9.3.2 Multiple Menus for Month, Day, and Year

To let a user enter an arbitrary date, provide separate menus for month, day, and year, as shown in [Example 9-11](#).

Example 9-11. Multiple `<select>` menus for date picking

```
$months = array(1 => 'January', 2 => 'February', 3 => 'March', 4 => 'April',
               5 => 'May', 6 => 'June', 7 => 'July', 8 => 'August',
               9 => 'September', 10 => 'October', 11 => 'November',
               12 => 'December');

print '<select name="month">';
// One choice for each element in $months
foreach ($months as $num => $month_name) {
    print '<option value="' . $num . '">' . $month_name . "</option>\n";
}
print "</select> \n";

print '<select name="day">';
// One choice for each day from 1 to 31
for ($i = 1; $i <= 31; $i++) {
    print '<option value="' . $i . '">' . $i . "</option>\n";
}
print "</select> \n";

print '<select name="year">';
// One choice for each year from last year to five years from now
for ($year = date('Y') - 1, $max_year = date('Y') + 5; $year < $max_year; $year++) {
    print '<option value="' . $year . '">' . $year . "</option>\n";
}
print "</select> \n";
```

[Example 9-11](#) displays a set of three menus like the ones shown in [Figure 9-1](#).

Figure 9-1. Multiple `<select>` menus for date picking



To display month, day, and year menus with the `input_select()` helper function, use the same `$months` array, but also build arrays of days and years. Pass these arrays to `input_select()`. [Example 9-12](#) prints the three menus using `input_select()`.

Example 9-12. Date picking with `input_select()`

```

require 'formhelpers.php';

$months = array(1 => 'January', 2 => 'February', 3 => 'March', 4 => 'April',
               5 => 'May', 6 => 'June', 7 => 'July', 8 => 'August',
               9 => 'September', 10 => 'October', 11 => 'November',
               12 => 'December');

$days = array( );
for ($i = 1; $i <= 31; $i++) { $days[$i] = $i; }

$years = array( );
for ($year = date('Y') -1, $max_year = date('Y') + 5; $year < $max_year; $year++) {
    $years[$year] = $year;
}

input_select('month', $_POST, $months);
print ' ';
input_select('day', $_POST, $days);
print ' ';
input_select('year', $_POST, $years);

```

Note that each element of the `$days` and `$years` arrays in [Example 9-12](#) has a key equal to its value. This is to ensure that each choice displayed in the menu is the same as the `value` attribute of the corresponding `<option>` tag.

One common application for date input is checking for credit card expiration. [Example 9-13](#) displays a form with month and year menus for inputting a credit card expiration date. The program checks whether the submitted month and year are before the current month and year. If so, the associated credit card is expired.

Example 9-13. Checking a credit card expiration date

```

require 'formhelpers.php';

$months = array(1 => 'January', 2 => 'February', 3 => 'March', 4 => 'April',
               5 => 'May', 6 => 'June', 7 => 'July', 8 => 'August',
               9 => 'September', 10 => 'October', 11 => 'November',
               12 => 'December');

$years = array( );
for ($year = date('Y'), $max_year = date('Y') + 10; $year < $max_year; $year++) {
    $years[$year] = $year;
}

if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {

```

```

    print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
    print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
    print '</li></ul>';
}

print '<form method="POST" action="' . $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] . '">';

print 'Expiration Date: ';
input_select('month', $_POST, $GLOBALS['months']);
print ' ';
input_select('year', $_POST, $GLOBALS['years']);
print '<br/>';
input_submit('submit', 'Check Expiration');

// the hidden _submit_check variable and the end of the form
print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
print '</form>';
}

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    // Make sure a valid month and year were entered
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['month'], $GLOBALS['months'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a valid month.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['year'], $GLOBALS['years'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a valid year.';
    }
    // Make sure the month and the year are the current month
    // and year or after
    $this_month = date('n');
    $this_year = date('Y');

    if ($_POST['year'] < $this_year) {
        // If the year entered is in the past, the credit card
        // is expired
        $errors[ ] = 'The credit card is expired.';
    }
    elseif (($_POST['year'] == $this_year) &
            ($_POST['month'] < $this_month)) {
        // If the year entered is this year and the month entered
        // is before this month, then the credit card is expired
        $errors[ ] = 'The credit card is expired.';
    }

    return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {
    print "You entered a valid expiration date.";
}

```

The `process_form()` function in [Example 9-13](#) just prints a message saying that the expiration date is acceptable. More typically, a credit card-handling program also needs to verify that the credit card number itself is valid. A PHP program that does this is available at <http://www.analysisandsolutions.com/software/ccvs/>.

9.3.3 Multiple Menus for Hour and Minute

Use `<select>` menus to allow for time input as well. Use one menu for hours and one for minutes. To keep the minutes menu a manageable size, just display choices in 5-minute increments. If you use 12-hour time for the hours menu, also include an am/pm menu. [Example 9-14](#) displays time select menus, and [Example 9-15](#) does the same thing, but uses the `input_select()` helper function.

Example 9-14. Multiple `<select>` menus for time picking

```
print '<select name="hour">';
for ($hour = 1; $hour <= 12; $hour++) {
    print '<option value="' . $hour . '">' . $hour . "</option>\n";
}
print "</select>:";

print '<select name="minute">';
for ($minute = 0; $minute < 60; $minute += 5) {
    printf('<option value="%02d">%02d</option>', $minute, $minute);
}
print "</select> \n";

print '<select name="ampm">';
print '<option value="am">am</option>';
print '<option value="pm">pm</option>';
print '</select>';
```

Example 9-15. Time picking with `input_select()`

```
require 'formhelpers.php';

$hours = array( );
for ($hour = 1; $hour <= 12; $hour++) { $hours[$hour] = $hour; }

$minutes = array( );
for ($minute = 0; $minute < 60; $minute += 5) {
    $formatted_minute = sprintf('%02d', $minute);
    $minutes[$formatted_minute] = $formatted_minute;
}

input_select('hour', $_POST, $hours);
print ':';
input_select('minute', $_POST, $minutes);
input_select('ampm', $_POST, array('am' => 'am', 'pm' => 'pm'));
```

There are two important formatting details to note about [Examples 9-14](#) and [Example 9-15](#). The first is that they both print a colon between the hour menu and the minute menu. This is to make the layout of the menus mirror how hours

and minutes are normally written (at least in the U.S.). The second is the use of `printf()` in [Example 9-14](#) and a new function, `sprintf()`, in [Example 9-15](#).

Both of these functions accomplish the same goal: padding the minutes that are less than 10 with a leading 0. The `printf()` in [Example 9-14](#) uses the `%02d` rule, which means "print an integer, make it take up at least two characters, padding with leading zeroes if necessary." In [Example 9-15](#), `sprintf()` uses the same rule. The `sprintf()` function behaves identically to `printf()`, except it returns the formatted string instead of printing it. In [Example 9-15](#), when `$minute` is 5, `sprintf()` returns `05`, which is assigned to `$formatted_minute` and then put into the `$minutes` array.

9.3.4 Processing Date and Time <select> Menus

When you have individual time/date part form elements in a form, your `process_form()` function should construct an epoch timestamp out of the parts in the form to use in the program. [Example 9-16](#) prints a form with month, day, year, hour, and minute menus. Its `validate_form()` function checks that all of these form parameters are submitted with acceptable values.

The `process_form()` function in [Example 9-16](#) prints out the date of the first New York PHP users group meeting after the submitted date. NYPHP meetings are at 6:30 p.m. on the fourth Thursday of every month. So, `process_form()` uses `mktime()` to calculate an epoch timestamp from the form parameters, and then uses `strtotime()` to find the appropriate meeting date. If the submitted date is the same day as a meeting, `process_form()` uses the submitted time to report whether the meeting has started already.

Example 9-16. Doing calculations with a user-submitted date

```
<?php
require 'formhelpers.php';

// Set up arrays of months, days, years, hours, and minutes
$months = array(1 => 'January', 2 => 'February', 3 => 'March', 4 => 'April',
               5 => 'May', 6 => 'June', 7 => 'July', 8 => 'August',
               9 => 'September', 10 => 'October', 11 => 'November',
               12 => 'December');

$days = array( );
for ($i = 1; $i <= 31; $i++) { $days[$i] = $i; }

$years = array( );
for ($year = date('Y') - 1, $max_year = date('Y') + 5; $year < $max_year; $year++) {
    $years[$year] = $year;
}

$hours = array( );
for ($hour = 1; $hour <= 12; $hour++) { $hours[$hour] = $hour; }

$minutes = array( );
for ($minute = 0; $minute < 60; $minute+=5) {
    $formatted_minute = sprintf('%02d', $minute);
    $minutes[$formatted_minute] = $formatted_minute;
}

if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
```

```

if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
    show_form($form_errors);
} else {
    // The submitted data is valid, so process it
    process_form( );
}
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    global $hours, $minutes, $months, $days, $years;

    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted variables
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, set our own defaults: the current time and date parts
        $defaults = array('hour' => date('g'),
                        'ampm' => date('a'),
                        'month' => date('n'),
                        'day' => date('j'),
                        'year' => date('Y'));

        // Because the choices in the minute menu are in five-minute increments,
        // if the current minute isn't a multiple of five, we need to make it
        // into one.
        $this_minute = date('i');
        $minute_mod_five = $this_minute % 5;
        if ($minute_mod_five != 0) { $this_minute -= $minute_mod_five; }
        $defaults['minute'] = sprintf('%02d', $this_minute);
    }

    // If errors were passed in, put them in $error_text (with HTML markup)
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }

    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    print 'Enter a date and time: ';

    input_select('hour', $defaults, $hours);
    print ':';
    input_select('minute', $defaults, $minutes);
    input_select('ampm', $defaults, array('am' => 'am', 'pm' => 'pm'));
    input_select('month', $defaults, $months);
    print ' ';
    input_select('day', $defaults, $days);
    print ' ';
    input_select('year', $defaults, $years);
    print '<br/>';
    input_submit('submit', 'Find Meeting');
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}

```

```

}

function validate_form( ) {
    global $hours, $minutes, $months, $days, $years;

    $errors = array( );

    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['month'], $months)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid month.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['day'], $days)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid day.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['year'], $years)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid year.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['hour'], $hours)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid hour.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['minute'], $minutes)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid minute.';
    }
    if (($_POST['ampm'] != 'am') && ($_POST['ampm'] != 'pm')) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid am/pm choice.';
    }
}

return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {

    // Before we can feed the form parameters to mktime( ), we must
    // convert the hour to a 24-hour value with influence from
    // $_POST['ampm']

    if (($_POST['ampm'] = = 'am') & ($_POST['hour'] = = 12)) {
        // 12 am is 0 in 24-hour time
        $_POST['hour'] = 0;
    } elseif (($_POST['ampm'] = = 'pm') & ($_POST['hour'] != 12)) {
        // For all pm times except 12 pm, add 12 to the hour
        // 1pm becomes 13, 11 pm becomes 23, but 12 pm (noon)
        // stays 12
        $_POST['hour'] += 12;
    }

    // Make an epoch timestamp for the user-entered date
    $timestamp = mktime($_POST['hour'], $_POST['minute'], 0,
        $_POST['month'], $_POST['day'], $_POST['year']);

    // How to figure out the next NYPHP meeting on or after the user-entered date:
    // If $timestamp is on or before the fourth thursday of the month, then use the NYPHP
    // meeting date for $timestamp's month
    // Otherwise, use the NYPHP meeting date for the next month.

    // Midnight on the user-entered date
    $midnight = mktime(0,0,0, $_POST['month'], $_POST['day'], $_POST['year']);

```



```

// Midnight on the first of the user-entered month
$first_of_the_month = mktime(0,0,0,$_POST['month'],1,$_POST['year']);
// Midnight on the fourth thursday of the user-entered month
$month_nyphp = strtotime('fourth thursday',$first_of_the_month);

if ($midnight < $month_nyphp) {
    // The user-entered date is before the meeting day
    print "NYPHP Meeting this month: ";
    print date('l, F j, Y', $month_nyphp);
} elseif ($midnight == $month_nyphp) {
    // The user-entered date is a meeting day
    print "NYPHP Meeting today. ";
    $meeting_start = strtotime('6:30pm', $month_nyphp);
    // If it's after 6:30pm, say that the meeting has already started
    if ($timestamp > $meeting_start) {
        print "It started at 6:30 but you entered ";
        print date('g:i a', $timestamp);
    }
} else {
    // The user-entered date is after a meeting day, so find the
    // meeting day for next month
    $first_of_next_month = mktime(0,0,0,$_POST['month'] + 1,1,$_POST['year']);
    $next_month_nyphp = strtotime('fourth thursday',$first_of_next_month);
    print "NYPHP Meeting next month: ";
    print date('l, F j, Y', $next_month_nyphp);
}
}
?>

```

The `show_form()` function in [Example 9-16](#) uses `date()` to set the form element defaults to the current time and date. Some fancy footwork is required to calculate the correct `minute` value. Since the choices in the `minute` menu are each multiples of 5 (such as 00, 05, 10, 15, and so on), the default value has to be a multiple of 5 too. If the current minutes value (what `date('i')` reports) is something like 27, then it needs to be bumped down to 25 so it's a valid choice. The expression `$minute_mod_five = $this_minute % 5;` sets `$minute_mod_five` to the remainder of dividing `$this_minute` by 5. If `$this_minute` is 27, `$minute_mod_5` is set to 2. Subtracting 2 from `$this_minute` makes it 25, an appropriate default value.

The `process_form()` does the actual date and time math. First, the submitted `hour` parameter is converted into the correct 24-hour value. This is necessary because `mktime()` expects hours in the range of 0-23, not 1-12. Then, `process_form()` creates the epoch timestamps it needs with `mktime()` and `strtotime()`. Based on the relationship between `$midnight` and `$month_nyphp`, it prints an appropriate message describing the next NYPHP meeting.

If the user-entered date is after the current month's meeting day, `process_form()` figures out the next month's meeting day by obtaining the epoch timestamp for the first of the next month with `mktime()` and then feeding that to `strtotime()` to get the epoch timestamp of the fourth Thursday of the next month. This series of calculations takes advantage of a handy feature of `mktime()`: it automatically handles month or day values that are too big.

The epoch timestamp for the first day of the next month is calculated by this line:

```
$first_of_next_month = mktime(0,0,0,$_POST['month'] + 1,1,$_POST['year']);
```

If the submitted month is 10 and the submitted year is 2004, then the call to `mktime()` is `mktime(0,0,0,11,1,2005)`: midnight on November 1, 2005. But what if the submitted month is 12? Then the call to `mktime()` is `mktime(0,0,0,13,1,2005)`. There is no thirteenth month in 2005, but `mktime()` interprets this as meaning "the first month of the next year." Similarly, if you tell `mktime()` to find the epoch timestamp for noon on the 32nd day of March, it returns the value corresponding to noon on April 1st.

9.4 Displaying a Calendar

This section puts the date and time functions to work in displaying a calendar. The `show_form()` function in [Example 9-17](#) displays a form that asks for a month and year. The `process_form()` function hands those values off to the `show_calendar()` function, which does the real work of printing a calendar grid for a particular month.

The structure of the `if()` statement that controls `show_form()`, `validate_form()`, and `process_form()` is different in [Example 9-17](#) than in previous form examples. That's because we want to display the form above the calendar. Usually, if the form data is valid, `show_form()` is not called—only `process_form()` is. But here, `show_form()` is called before `process_form()` so that the form is displayed above the calendar and the user can pick another month and year to view.

Similarly, the call to `show_form()` that happens when the form has not been submitted (when there is no `$_POST['_submit_check']` parameter) is followed by a call to `show_calendar()` to display the calendar for the current month the first time the page is loaded.

Example 9-17. Printing a calendar

```
<?php
// Use the form helper functions defined in Chapter 6
require 'formhelpers.php';

$months = array(1 => 'January', 2 => 'February', 3 => 'March', 4 => 'April',
                5 => 'May', 6 => 'June', 7 => 'July', 8 => 'August',
                9 => 'September', 10 => 'October', 11 => 'November',
                12 => 'December');

$years = array( );
for ($year = date('Y') - 1, $max_year = date('Y') + 5; $year < $max_year; $year++) {
    $years[$year] = $year;
}

if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($errors);
    } else {
        show_form( );
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // When nothing is submitted, show the form and then
    // a calendar for the current month
    show_form( );
    show_calendar(date('n'), date('Y'));
```

```

}

function validate_form( ) {
    global $months, $years;
    $errors = array( );

    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['month'], $months)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid month.';
    }

    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['year'], $years)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid year.';
    }

    return $errors;
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    global $months, $years, $this_year;

    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted variables
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, set our own defaults: the current month and year
        $defaults = array('year' => date('Y'),
                          'month' => date('n'));
    }

    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }

    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    input_select('month', $defaults, $months);
    input_select('year', $defaults, $years);
    input_submit('submit', 'Show Calendar');
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}

function process_form( ) {
    show_calendar($_POST['month'], $_POST['year']);
}

function show_calendar($month, $year) {
    global $months;
    $weekdays = array('Su', 'Mo', 'Tu', 'We', 'Th', 'Fr', 'Sa');

    // Find the epoch timestamp for midnight on the first day of the month
    $first_day = mktime(0,0,0,$month, 1, $year);
    // How many days are in the month?
    $days_in_month = date('t', $first_day);
    // What day of the week (numerically) is the first day of the month?

```

```

// You need this to put the first table cell in the right place
$day_offset = date('w', $first_day);

// Print the table header and the row of weekday names
print<<<_HTML_
<table border="0" cellspacing="0" cellpadding="2">
<tr><th colspan="7">$months[$month] $year</th></tr>
<tr><td align="center">
_HTML_;
print implode('</td><td align="center">', $weekdays);
print '</td></tr>';

// If the first day of the month is, say, a Tuesday, then you
// need to put blank table cells under "Su" and "Mo" in the first
// row so that the day 1 table cell goes under "Tu"
if ($day_offset > 0) {
    for ($i = 0; $i < $day_offset; $i++) { print '<td>&nbsp;</td>'; }
}

// Print a table cell for each day of the month
for ($day = 1; $day <= $days_in_month; $day++ ) {
    print '<td align="center">' . $day . '</td>';
    $day_offset++;
    // If this cell was the seventh in the row, then
    // end the table row and reset $day_offset
    if ($day_offset = = 7) {
        $day_offset = 0;
        print "</tr>\n";
        // If there are more days to come, then
        // start a new table row
        if ($day < $days_in_month) {
            print '<tr>';
        }
    }
}

// At this point, one table cell has been printed for each day
// of the month. If the last day of the month isn't a Saturday
// then the last row of the table needs to be padded with
// some blank cells out to the end of the row
if ($day_offset > 0) {
    for ($i = $day_offset; $i < 7; $i++) {
        print '<td>&nbsp;</td>';
    }
    print '</tr>';
}
print '</table>';
}
?>

```

In October 2004, [Example 9-17](#) produces a page that looks like [Figure 9-2](#).

Figure 9-2. Calendar form and display



9.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter 9 covers:

- Defining some time- and date-handling vocabulary such as *epoch timestamp*, *time and date parts*, and *formatted time and date string*.
- Printing formatted time and date strings with `strftime()` and `date()`.
- Making an epoch timestamp with `mktime()`.
- Making an epoch timestamp with `strptime()`.
- Displaying form elements to allow for date or time input.
- Doing calculations with a date or time submitted in a form.
- Displaying a calendar.

9.6 Exercises

1. Use `strftime()` to print a formatted time and date string that looks like this:
2. `Today is day 20 of October and day 294 of the year 2004. The time is 07:45 PM (also known as 19:45).`

To make your output exactly match the example, use `mktime()` to get the epoch timestamp for 7:45 p.m. on October 20, 2004.

3. Use `date()` to print the same formatted time and date string.
4. The U.S. holiday Labor Day is the first Monday in September. Print out a table of the dates that Labor Day falls from 2004 to 2020.

5. Write a PHP program that displays a form in which users select a day, month, and year in the future. Print out a list of all the Tuesdays between the current date and the date the user submits in the form.

Chapter 10. Working with Files

The data storage destination of choice for a web application is a database. That doesn't mean that you're completely off the hook from dealing with regular old files, though. Plain text files are still a handy, universal way to exchange some kinds of information.

You can do some easy customization of your web site by storing HTML templates in text files. When it's time to generate a specialized page, load the text file, substitute real data for the template elements, and print it. [Example 10-1](#) shows you how to do this.

Files are also good for importing or exporting tabular data between your program and a spreadsheet. In your PHP programs, you can easily read and write the CSV ("comma-separated value") files with which spreadsheet programs work.

Working with files in PHP also means working with remote web pages. A great thing about file handling in PHP is you can open a remote file on another computer as easily as you can open a file that sits on your web server. Most file-handling functions in PHP understand URLs as well as local filenames. However, for this feature to work, the `allow_url_fopen` configuration directive must be enabled. It is enabled by default, but if you're having problems loading a remote file, check this setting.

10.1 Understanding File Permissions

To read or write a file with any of the functions you'll learn about in this chapter, the PHP interpreter must have permission from the operating system to do so. Every program that runs on a computer, including the PHP interpreter, runs with the privileges of a particular user account. Most of the user accounts correspond to people. When you log in to your computer and start up your word processor, that word processor runs with the privileges that correspond to your account: it can read files that you are allowed to see and write files that you are allowed to change.

Some user accounts on a computer, however, aren't for people, but for system processes such as web servers. When the PHP interpreter runs inside of a web server, it has the privileges that the web server's "account" has. So if the web server is allowed to read a certain file or directory, then the PHP interpreter (and therefore your PHP program) can read that file or directory. If the web server is allowed to change a certain file or write new files in a particular directory, then so can the PHP interpreter and your PHP program.

Usually, the privileges extended to a web server's account are more limited than the privileges that go along with a real person's account. The web server (and the PHP interpreter) need to be able to read all of the PHP program files that make up your web site, but they shouldn't be able to change them. If a bug in the web server or an insecure PHP program lets an attacker break in, the PHP program files should be protected against being changed by that attacker.

In practice, what this means is that your PHP programs shouldn't have too much trouble reading most files that you need to read. (Of course, if you try to read another user's private files, you may run into a problem—but that's as it should be!) However, the files that your PHP program can change and the directories into which your program can write new files are limited. If you need to create lots of new files in your PHP programs, work with your system administrator to make a special directory that you can write to but that doesn't compromise system security. [Section 10.5](#), later in this chapter, shows you how to determine what files and directories your programs are allowed to read and write.

10.2 Reading and Writing Entire Files

This section shows you how to work with an entire file at once, as opposed to manipulating just a few lines of a file. PHP provides special functions for reading or writing a whole file in a single step.

10.2.1 Reading a File

To read the contents of a file into a string, use `file_get_contents()`. Pass it a filename, and it returns a string containing everything in the file. [Example 10-1](#) reads the file in [Example 10-2](#) with `file_get_contents()`, modifies it with `str_replace()`, and then prints the result.

Example 10-1. Using `file_get_contents()` with a page template

```
// Load the file from Example 10.2
$page = file_get_contents('page-template.html');

// Insert the title of the page
$page = str_replace('{page_title}', 'Welcome', $page);

// Make the page blue in the afternoon and
// green in the morning
if (date('H' >= 12)) {
    $page = str_replace('{color}', 'blue', $page);
} else {
    $page = str_replace('{color}', 'green', $page);
}

// Take the username from a previously saved session
// variable
$page = str_replace('{name}', $_SESSION['username'], $page);

// Print the results
print $page;
```

Example 10-2. `page-template.html` for [Example 10-1](#)

```
<html>
<head><title>{page_title}</title></head>
<body bgcolor="{color}">

<h1>Hello, {name}</h1>

</body>
</html>
```



Every time you use a file access function, you need to check that it didn't encounter an error because of a lack of disk space, permission problem, or other failure. Error checking is discussed in detail later in [Section 10.6](#). The examples in the next few sections don't have error-checking code, so you can see the actual file access function at work without other new material getting in the way. Real programs that you write always need to check for errors after calling a file access function.

With `$_SESSION['username']` set to Jacob, [Example 10-1](#) prints:

```
<html>
<head><title>Welcome</title></head>
<body bgcolor="green">

<h1>Hello, Jacob</h1>

</body>
</html>
```

A local file and a remote file look the same to `file_get_contents()`. If you pass a URL to `file_get_contents()`, it reads the web page at that URL. [Example 10-3](#) retrieves a weather report from the U.S. National Weather Service. It uses `strpos()` and `substr()` to scoop out and print just the part of the page that contains the forecast for the upcoming week.

Example 10-3. Retrieving a remote page with `file_get_contents()`

```
$zip = 98052;

$weather_page = file_get_contents('http://www.srh.noaa.gov/zipcity.php?inputstring=' .
$zip);

// Just keep everything after the "Detailed Forecast" image alt text
$page = strstr($weather_page, 'Detailed Forecast');
// Find where the forecast <table> starts
$table_start = strpos($page, '<table>');
// Find where the <table> ends
// Need to add 8 to advance past the </table> tag
$table_end = strpos($page, '</table>') + 8;
// And print a slice of $page that holds the table
print substr($page, $table_start, $table_end - $table_start);
```

Obviously, what the weather is going to be in the coming days varies constantly, but [Example 10-3](#) prints something like:

```
<table cellpadding="0" cellspacing="3" border="0" width="326">
  <tr>
    <td><a name="contents"></a> <b>Today</b>. Numerous showers developing by
noon. A chance of afternoon
thunderstorms. Highs in the mid 50s. Southwest wind 10 to 15 mph. <br><br>
<b>Tonight</b>. Numerous showers and chance of thunderstorms in the
evening. Then mostly cloudy. Lows near 40. Southwest wind near 10
mph. <br><br>
<b>Friday</b>. Partly cloudy. A chance of afternoon showers. Highs in the
mid to upper 50s. South wind near 10 mph shifting to the west in the
afternoon. <br><br>
<b>Friday night</b>. Partly cloudy. A chance of evening showers. Lows in
the upper 30s. Light wind. <br><br>
<b>Saturday</b>. Partly cloudy. A chance of afternoon showers. Highs in
the mid 50s. Southwest wind near 10 mph in the morning becoming
```

```

light. <br><br>
<b>Saturday night</b>. Partly cloudy. A chance of evening showers. Lows
in the mid 30s. <br><br>
<b>Sunday</b>. Partly sunny. Highs in the upper 50s. <br><br>
<b>Sunday night</b>. Partly cloudy. Lows in the upper 30s. <br><br>
<b>Monday</b>. Partly sunny. Highs in the lower 60s. <br><br>
<b>Monday night</b>. Partly cloudy. Lows in the lower 40s. <br><br>
<b>Tuesday</b>. Mostly cloudy. A chance of rain. Highs in the lower 60s. <br><br>
<b>Tuesday night</b>. Mostly cloudy. A chance of rain. Lows in the lower
40s. <br><br>
<b>Wednesday</b>. Mostly cloudy. A chance of rain. Highs in the upper
50s. <br>&&

```

	temperature			/	precipitation		
gold bar	54	40	56	/	50	50	40
enumclaw	55	39	56	/	60	60	40
north bend	56	40	57	/	60	60	40

```

<br><br>
</td>
</tr>
</table>

```

Retrieving a remote URL and slicing out a chunk of it for your use is called *screen scraping*. It's a popular and easy way to incorporate remote data sources into your programs. There are two things to be concerned with, though, when you engage in scraping.

First, screen scraping can be fragile. The slightest changes in page structure can break your carefully tuned string parsing. If the National Weather Service decides to change the HTML around their Short Term Forecast, then [Example 10-3](#) might no longer parse the page correctly. (Perhaps this has already happened since this paragraph was written!)

The second issue with screen scraping is its propriety. The National Weather Service explicitly puts its information in the public domain, but most web sites don't. Before you scrape another site and incorporate its content into your own, be sure that you have permission to do so.

For in-depth screen scraping, consider using regular expressions. With the pattern-matching power of a regular expression, you can flexibly carve up a retrieved web page. Regular expressions are helpful for screen-scraping tasks such as extracting all the links from a page or pulling the content out of individual HTML table cells; you will learn about them in [Appendix B](#).

10.2.2 Writing a File

The counterpart to reading the contents of a file into a string is writing a string to a file. And the counterpart to `file_get_contents()` is `file_put_contents()`. [Example 10-4](#) extends [Example 10-3](#) by saving the short term weather forecast in a local file in addition to printing it.

Example 10-4. Saving a file with `file_put_contents()`

```

$zip = 98052;

$weather_page = file_get_contents('http://www.srh.noaa.gov/zipcity.php?inputstring=' .
$zip);

```

```

// Just keep everything after the "Detailed Forecast" image alt text
$page = strstr($weather_page, 'Detailed Forecast');
// Find where the forecast <table> starts
$table_start = strpos($page, '<table>');
// Find where the <table> ends
// Need to add 8 to advance past the </table> tag
$table_end = strpos($page, '</table>') + 8;
// And get the slice of $page that holds the table
$forecast = substr($page, $table_start, $table_end - $table_start);
// Print the forecast;
print $forecast;
// Save the forecast to a file
file_put_contents("weather-$zip.txt", $forecast);

```

[Example 10-4](#) writes the value of `$forecast` (the weather forecast) to the file `weather-98052.txt`. The first argument to `file_put_contents()` is the filename to write to, and the second argument is what to write to the file.

Just like `file_get_contents()` accepts a URL to read a remote file, `file_put_contents()` accepts a URL to write a remote file. The kinds of URLs that are acceptable to `file_put_contents()` are more limited, however. Not all kinds of remote servers allow you to write files. Usually, you can only write a remote file via an FTP URL, and the FTP server involved must grant the appropriate permissions. [Example 10-5](#) constructs a templated page as in [Example 10-1](#), and then uses `file_put_contents()` to save the page on a remote server via FTP.

Example 10-5. Saving a remote file via FTP with `file_put_contents()`

```

// Load the file from Example 10.2
$page = file_get_contents('page-template.html');

// Insert the title of the page
$page = str_replace('{page_title}', 'Welcome', $page);

// Make the page blue in the afternoon and
// green in the morning
if (date('H' >= 12)) {
    $page = str_replace('{color}', 'blue', $page);
} else {
    $page = str_replace('{color}', 'green', $page);
}

// Take the username from a previously saved session
// variable
$page = str_replace('{name}', $_SESSION['username'], $page);

// Instead of printing the results, save the page on a
// remote FTP server
file_put_contents('ftp://bruce:hax0r@ftp.example.com/usr/local/htdocs/welcome.html',
$page);

```

In [Example 10-5](#), the FTP URL passed to `file_put_contents()` means "log in to `ftp.example.com` with username `bruce` and password `hax0r`, and write to the file `/usr/local/htdocs/welcome.html`."

10.3 Reading and Writing Parts of Files

The `file_get_contents()` and `file_put_contents()` functions are fine when you want to work with an entire file at once. But when it's time for precision work, use other functions to deal with a file a line at a time. [Example 10-6](#) reads a file in which each line contains a name and an email address and then prints an HTML-formatted list of that information.

Example 10-6. Reading a file a line at a time

```
$fh = fopen('people.txt','rb');
for ($line = fgets($fh); ! feof($fh); $line = fgets($fh)) {
    $line = trim($line);
    $info = explode('|', $line);
    print '<li><a href="mailto:' . $info[0] . '>' . $info[1] . "</li>\n";
}
fclose($fh);
```

If *people.txt* contains what's listed in [Example 10-7](#), then [Example 10-6](#) prints:

```
<li><a href="mailto:alice@example.com">Alice Liddell</li>
<li><a href="mailto:bandersnatch@example.org">Bandersnatch Gardner</li>
<li><a href="mailto:charles@milk.example.com">Charlie Tenniel</li>
<li><a href="mailto:dodgson@turtle.example.com">Lewis Humbert</li>
```

Example 10-7. people.txt for [Example 10-6](#)

```
alice@example.com|Alice Liddell
bandersnatch@example.org|Bandersnatch Gardner
charles@milk.example.com|Charlie Tenniel
dodgson@turtle.example.com|Lewis Humbert
```

The four file access functions in [Example 10-6](#) are `fopen()`, `fgets()`, `feof()`, and `fclose()`. The `fopen()` function opens a connection to the file and returns a variable that's used for subsequent access to the file in the program. (This is very similar to the database connection variable returned by `DB::connect()` that you saw in [Chapter 7](#).) The `fgets()` function reads a line from the file and returns it as a string. The PHP interpreter keeps a bookmark of where its current position in the file is. The bookmark starts at the beginning of the file, so the first time that `fgets()` is called, the first line of the file is read. After that line is read, the bookmark is updated to the beginning of the next line. The `feof()` function returns `true` if the bookmark is past the end of the file. ("eof" stands for "end of file.") Last, the `fclose()` function closes the connection to the file.

The `for()` loop in [Example 10-6](#) may look a little funny, but its structure ensures that `fgets()` and `feof()` play nice together. When the `for()` loop starts, the initialization expression runs. This reads the first line from the file and stores it in `$line`. Then the test expression runs: `! feof($fh)`. This is `true` when `feof($fh)` returns `false`—in other words, when the bookmark is not past the end of the file. Next the loop body runs, doing some things with `$line`. After the loop body is done, the iteration expression runs and stores the next line of the file in `$line`.

Everything moves along line by line in the `for()` loop until the last line of the file has been read by the iteration expression. The code block runs one more time, and the `Lewis`

Humbert line of HTML is printed. Then, `fgets()` is called in the iteration expression. At this point, though, there's nothing left in the file, so `fgets()` returns `false` and puts the bookmark past the end of the file. Now, when `feof()` is called in the test expression, it sees where the bookmark is and returns `true`. This ends the `for()` loop.

[Example 10-6](#) uses `trim()` on `$line` because the string that `fgets()` returns includes the trailing newline at the end of the line. The `trim()` function removes the newline, which makes the output look better.

The first argument to `fopen()` is the name of the file that you want to access. Use forward slashes (/) instead of backslashes (\) here, even on Windows. [Example 10-8](#) opens a file in the Windows system directory.

Example 10-8. Opening a file on Windows

```
$fh = fopen('c:/windows/system32/settings.txt','rb');
```

Because backslashes have a special meaning (escaping, which you saw in [Section 2.1.1](#)) inside strings, it's easier to use forward slashes in filenames. The PHP interpreter does the right thing in Windows and loads the correct file.

The second argument to `fopen()` is the *file mode*. This controls what you're allowed to do with the file once it's opened: reading, writing, or both. The file mode also affects where the PHP interpreter's file position bookmark starts, whether the file's contents are cleared out when it's opened, and how the PHP interpreter should react if the file doesn't exist. [Table 10-1](#) lists the different modes that `fopen()` understands.

Table 10-1. File modes for `fopen()`

Mode	Allowable actions	Position bookmark starting point	Clear contents?	If the file doesn't exist?
<code>rb</code>	Reading	Beginning of file	No	Issue a warning, return <code>false</code> .
<code>rb+</code>	Reading, Writing	Beginning of file	No	Issue a warning, return <code>false</code> .
<code>wb</code>	Writing	Beginning of file	Yes	Try to create it.
<code>wb+</code>	Reading, Writing	Beginning of file	Yes	Try to create it.
<code>ab</code>	Writing	End of file	No	Try to create it.
<code>ab+</code>	Reading, Writing	End of file	No	Try to create it.
<code>xb</code>	Writing	Beginning of file	No	Try to create it; if the file does exist, issue a warning and return <code>false</code> .
<code>xb+</code>	Reading, Writing	Beginning of file	No	Try to create it; if the file does exist, issue a warning and return <code>false</code> .

Once you've opened a file in a mode that allows writing, use the `fwrite()` function to write something to the file.

[Example 10-9](#) uses the `wb` mode with `fopen()` and uses `fwrite()` to write information retrieved from a database table to the file `dishes.txt`.

Example 10-9. Writing data to a file

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');

// Open dishes.txt for writing
$fh = fopen('dishes.txt','wb');

$q = $db->query("SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes");
while($row = $q->fetchRow( )) {
    // Write each line (with a newline on the end) to
    // dishes.txt
    fwrite($fh, "The price of $row[0] is $row[1] \n");
}
fclose($fh);
```

The `fwrite()` function doesn't automatically add a newline on to the end of the string you write. It just writes exactly what you pass to it. If you want to write a line at a time (such as in [Example 10-9](#)), be sure to add a newline (`\n`) to the end of the string that you pass to `fwrite()`.

10.4 Working with CSV Files

One type of text file gets special treatment in PHP: the CSV file. It can't handle graphs or charts, but excels for sharing tables of data among different programs. To read a line of a CSV file, use `fgetcsv()` instead of `fgets()`. It reads a line from the CSV file and returns an array containing each field in the line. [Example 10-10](#) is a CSV file of information about restaurant dishes. [Example 10-11](#) uses `fgetcsv()` to read the file and insert the information in it into the `dishes` database table from [Chapter 7](#).

Example 10-10. dishes.csv for [Example 10-11](#)

```
"Fish Ball with Vegetables",4.25,0
"Spicy Salt Baked Prawns",5.50,1
"Steamed Rock Cod",11.95,0
"Sauteed String Beans",3.15,1
"Confucius ""Chicken""",4.75,0
```

Example 10-11. Inserting CSV data into a database table

```
require 'DB.php';
// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
// Open the CSV file
$fh = fopen('dishes.csv','rb');

for ($info = fgetcsv($fh, 1024); ! feof($fh); $info = fgetcsv($fh, 1024)) {
    // $info[0] is the dish name      (the first field in a line of dishes.csv)
    // $info[1] is the price         (the second field)
```

```

// $info[2] is the spicy status (the third field)
// Insert a row into the database table
$db->query("INSERT INTO dishes (dish_name, price, is_spicy) VALUES (?, ?, ?)",
    $info);
print "Inserted $info[0]\n";
}
// Close the file
fclose($fh);

```

[Example 10-11](#) prints:

```

Inserted Fish Ball with Vegetables
Inserted Spicy Salt Baked Prawns
Inserted Steamed Rock Cod
Inserted Sauteed String Beans
Inserted Confucius "Chicken"

```

The second argument to `fgetcsv()` is a line length. This value needs to be longer than the length of the longest line in the CSV file. [Example 10-11](#) uses 1024, which is plenty longer than any of the lines in [Example 10-10](#). If you might have lines longer than 1K in a CSV file, pick a bigger length, such as 1048576 (1 MB).

Writing a CSV-formatted line is trickier than reading one. There's no built-in function for it, so you've got to format the line yourself. [Example 10-12](#) contains a `make_csv_line()` function that accepts an array of values as an argument and returns a CSV-formatted string containing those values.

Example 10-12. Making a CSV-formatted string

```

function make_csv_line($values) {
    // If a value contains a comma, a quote, a space, a
    // tab (\t), a newline (\n), or a linefeed (\r),
    // then surround it with quotes and replace any quotes inside
    // it with two quotes
    foreach($values as $i => $value) {
        if ((strpos($value, ',') != = false) ||
            (strpos($value, '"') != = false) ||
            (strpos($value, ' ') != = false) ||
            (strpos($value, "\t") != = false) ||
            (strpos($value, "\n") != = false) ||
            (strpos($value, "\r") != = false)) {
            $values[$i] = '"' . str_replace('"', '""', $value) . '"';
        }
    }
    // Join together each value with a comma and tack on a newline
    return implode(',', $values) . "\n";
}

```

[Example 10-13](#) uses the `make_csv_line()` function from [Example 10-12](#) along with `fopen()` and `fwrite()` to retrieve information from a database table and write it to a CSV file.

Example 10-13. Writing CSV-formatted data to a file

```

require 'DB.php';
// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
// Open the CSV file for writing
$fh = fopen('dishes.csv','wb');

$dishes = $db->query('SELECT dish_name, price, is_spicy FROM dishes');
while ($row = $dishes->fetchRow( )) {
    // Turn the array from fetchRow( ) into a CSV-formatted string
    $line = make_csv_line($row);
    // Write the string to the file. No need to add a newline on
    // the end since make_csv_line( ) does that already
    fwrite($fh, $line);
}
fclose($fh);

```

To send a page that consists only of CSV-formatted data back to a web client, you have to take an extra step beyond just printing the data. You also have to use PHP's `header()` function to tell the web client to expect a CSV document instead of an HTML document. [Example 10-14](#) shows how to call the `header()` function with the appropriate arguments.

Example 10-14. Changing the page type to CSV

```

// Tell the web client to expect a CSV file
header('Content-Type: text/csv');
// Tell the web client to view the CSV file in a separate program
header('Content-Disposition: attachment; filename="dishes.csv"');

```

[Example 10-15](#) contains a complete program that sends the correct CSV header, retrieves rows from a database table, and prints them. Its output can be loaded directly into a spreadsheet from a user's web browser.

Example 10-15. Sending a CSV file to the browser

```

require 'DB.php';
// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');

// Tell the web client that a CSV file called "dishes.csv" is coming
header('Content-Type: text/csv');
header('Content-Disposition: attachment; filename="dishes.csv"');

// Retrieve the info from the database table and print it
$dishes = $db->query('SELECT dish_name, price, is_spicy FROM dishes');
while ($row = $dishes->fetchRow( )) {
    print make_csv_line($row);
}

```

To generate more complicated spreadsheets that include formulas, formatting, and images, use the Spreadsheet_Excel_Writer PEAR package. You can download it from http://pear.php.net/package/Spreadsheet_Excel_Writer.

10.5 Inspecting File Permissions

As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, your programs can only read and write files when the PHP interpreter has permission to do so. You don't have to cast about blindly and rely on error messages to figure out what those permissions are, however. PHP gives you functions with which you can determine what your program is allowed to do.

To check whether a file or directory exists, use `file_exists()`. [Example 10-16](#) uses this function to report whether a directory's index file has been created.

Example 10-16. Checking the existence of a file

```
if (file_exists('/usr/local/htdocs/index.html')) {
    print "Index file is there.";
} else {
    print "No index file in /usr/local/htdocs.";
}
```

To determine whether your program has permission to read or write a particular file, use `is_readable()` or `is_writable()`. [Example 10-17](#) checks that a file is readable before retrieving its contents with `file_get_contents()`.

Example 10-17. Testing for read permission

```
$template_file = 'page-template.html';
if (is_readable($template_file)) {
    $template = file_get_contents($template_file);
} else {
    print "Can't read template file.";
}
```

[Example 10-18](#) verifies that a file is writable before appending a line to it with `fopen()` and `fwrite()`.

Example 10-18. Testing for write permission

```
$log_file = '/var/log/users.log';
if (is_writable($log_file)) {
    $fh = fopen($log_file, 'ab');
    fwrite($fh, $_SESSION['username'] . ' at ' . strftime('%c') . "\n");
    fclose($fh);
} else {
    print "Cant write to log file.";
}
```

10.6 Checking for Errors

So far, the examples in this chapter have been shown without any error checking in them. This keeps them shorter, so you can focus on the file manipulation functions such as `file_get_contents()`, `fopen()`, and `fgetcsv()`. It also makes them somewhat incomplete. Just like talking to a database program, working with files means interacting with resources

external to your program. This means you have to worry about all sorts of things that can cause problems, such as operating system file permissions or a disk running out of free space.

In practice, to write robust file-handling code, you should check the return value of each file-related function. They each generate a warning message and return `false` if there is a problem. If the configuration directive `track_errors` is on, the text of the error message is available in the global variable `$php_errormsg`.

[Example 10-19](#) shows how to check whether `fopen()` or `fclose()` encounters an error.

Example 10-19. Checking for an error from `fopen()` or `fclose()`

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');

// Open dishes.txt for writing
$fh = fopen('/usr/local/dishes.txt', 'wb');
if (! $fh) {
    print "Error opening dishes.txt: $php_errormsg";
} else {
    $q = $db->query("SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes");
    while($row = $q->fetchRow( )) {
        // Write each line (with a newline on the end) to
        // dishes.txt
        fwrite($fh, "The price of $row[0] is $row[1] \n");
    }
    if (! fclose($fh)) {
        print "Error closing dishes.txt: $php_errormsg";
    }
}
```

If your program doesn't have permission to write into the `/usr/local` directory, then `fopen()` returns false, and [Example 10-19](#) prints:

```
Error opening dishes.txt: failed to open stream: Permission denied
```

It also generates a warning message that looks like this:

```
Warning: fopen(/usr/local/dishes.txt): failed to open stream: Permission denied in
dishes.php on line 5
```

[Section 12.1](#) talks about how to control where the warning message is shown.

The same thing happens with `fclose()`. If it returns `false`, then the `Error closing dishes.txt` message is printed. Sometimes operating systems buffer data written with `fwrite()` and don't actually save the data to the file until you call `fclose()`. If there's no space on the disk for the data you're writing, the error might show up when you call `fclose()`, not when you call `fwrite()`.

Checking for errors from the other file-handling functions (`fgets()`, `fwrite()`, `fgetcsv()`, `file_get_contents()`, and `file_put_contents()`) is a little trickier. This is because you have to do something special to distinguish the value they each return when an error happens from the data they each return when everything goes OK.

If something goes wrong with `fgets()`, `file_get_contents()`, or `fgetcsv()`, they each return `false`. However, it's possible that these functions could succeed and still return a value that evaluates to `false` in a comparison. If `file_get_contents()` reads a file that just consists of the one character `0`, then it returns a one-character string, `0`. Remember from [Section 3.1](#) though, that such a string is considered `false`.

To get around this, you need to use the *identical* operator: `===` (three equals signs). This compares two values and says they're equal only if they have the same value and are the same type. That way, you can compare the return value of a file function with `false` and know that an error has happened only if the function returns `false`, not a string that evaluates to `false`.

[Example 10-20](#) shows how to use the identical operator to check for an error from `file_get_contents()`.

Example 10-20. Checking for an error from `file_get_contents()`

```
$page = file_get_contents('page-template.html');
// Note the three equals signs in the test expression
if ($page === false) {
    print "Couldn't load template: $php_errormsg";
} else {
    // ... process template here
}
```

Use the same technique with `fgets()` or `fgetcsv()`. [Example 10-21](#) correctly checks for errors from `fopen()`, `fgets()`, and `fclose()`.

Example 10-21. Checking for an error from `fopen()`, `fgets()`, or `fclose()`

```
$fh = fopen('people.txt', 'rb');
if (!$fh) {
    print "Error opening people.txt: $php_errormsg";
} else {
    for ($line = fgets($fh); ! feof($fh); $line = fgets($fh)) {
        if ($line === false) {
            print "Error reading line: $php_errormsg";
        } else {
            $line = trim($line);
            $info = explode('|', $line);
            print '<li><a href="mailto:' . $info[0] . '">' . $info[1] . "</li>\n";
        }
    }
    if (! fclose($fh)) {
        print "Error closing people.txt: $php_errormsg";
    }
}
```

When `fwrite()` and `file_put_contents()` succeed, they return the number of bytes they've written. When `fwrite()` fails, it returns `false`, so you can use the identical operator with it just like with `fgets()`. The `file_put_contents()` function is a little different. Depending on what goes wrong, it either returns `false` or `-1`. So you need to check for both possibilities. [Example 10-22](#) shows how to check for errors from `file_put_contents()`.

Example 10-22. Checking for an error from `file_put_contents()`

```
$zip = 10040;
$weather_page = file_get_contents('http://www.srh.noaa.gov/zipcity.php?inputstring=' .
$zip);

if ($weather_page == false) {
    print "Couldn't get weather for $zip";
} else {
    // Just keep everything after the "Detailed Forecast" image alt text
    $page = strstr($weather_page, 'Detailed Forecast');
    // Find where the forecast <table> starts
    $table_start = strpos($page, '<table>');
    // Find where the <table> ends
    // Need to add 8 to advance past the </table> tag
    $table_end = strpos($page, '</table>') + 8;
    // And get the slice of $page that holds the table
    $forecast = substr($page, $table_start, $table_end - $table_start);
    // Print the forecast;
    print $forecast;
    $saved_file = file_put_contents("weather-$zip.txt", $matches[1]);
    // Need to check if file_put_contents( ) returns false or -1
    if (($saved_file == false) || ($saved_file == -1)) {
        print "Couldn't save weather to weather-$zip.txt";
    }
}
```

10.7 Sanitizing Externally Supplied Filenames

Just like data submitted in a form or URL can cause problems when it is displayed (cross-site scripting attack) or put in an SQL query (SQL injection attack), it can also cause problems when it is used as a filename or as part of a filename. It doesn't have a fancy name like those other attacks, but it can be just as devastating.

The cause of the problem is the same: there are special characters that must be escaped so they lose their special meaning. In filenames, the special characters are `/` (which separates parts of filenames), and the two-character sequence `..` (which means "go up one directory" in a filename).

For example, the funny-looking filename `/usr/local/data/../../etc/passwd` doesn't point to a file under the `/usr/local/data` directory but instead to the file `/etc/passwd`, which, on most Unix systems, contains a list of user accounts. The filename `/usr/local/data/../../etc/passwd` means "from the directory `/usr/local/data`, go up one level (to `/usr/local`), then go up another level (to `/usr`), then go up another level (to `/`, the top level of the filesystem), then down into `/etc`, then stop at the file `passwd`."

How could this be a problem in your PHP programs? When you use data from a form in a filename, you are vulnerable to this sort of attack unless you sanitize that submitted form data. [Example 10-23](#) takes the approach of removing all forward slashes and `..` sequences from a submitted form parameter before incorporating the parameter into a filename.

Example 10-23. Cleaning up a form parameter that goes in a filename

```
// Remove slashes from user
$user = str_replace('/', '', $_POST['user']);
// Remove .. from user
$user = str_replace('..', '', $user);

print 'User profile for ' . htmlentities($user) .': <br/>';
print file_get_contents("/usr/local/data/$user");
```

If a malicious user supplies `../../../../etc/passwd` as the `user` form parameter in [Example 10-23](#), that is translated into `etcpasswd` before being interpolated into the filename used with `file_get_contents()`.

Another helpful technique for getting rid of user-entered nastiness is to use `realpath()`. It translates an obfuscated filename that contains `..` sequences into the `..`-less version of filename that more directly indicates where the file is. For example, `realpath('/usr/local/data/../../../../etc/passwd')` returns the string `/etc/passwd`. You can use `realpath()` as in [Example 10-24](#): to see whether filenames, after incorporating form data, are acceptable.

Example 10-24. Cleaning up a file name with `realpath()`

```
$filename = realpath("/usr/local/data/$_POST[user]");

// Make sure that $filename is under /usr/local/data
if ('/usr/local/data/' == substr($filename, 0, 16)) {
    print 'User profile for ' . htmlentities($_POST['user']) .': <br/>';
    print file_get_contents($filename);
} else {
    print "Invalid user entered.";
}
```

In [Example 10-24](#), if `$_POST['user']` is `james`, then `$filename` is set to `/usr/local/data/james` and the `if()` code block runs. However, if `$_POST['user']` is something suspicious such as `../secrets.txt`, then `$filename` is `/usr/local/secrets.txt`, and the `if()` test fails, so `Invalid user entered` is printed.

10.8 Chapter Summary

Chapter 10 covers:

- Understanding where the PHP interpreter's file access permissions come from.
- Reading entire local and remote files with `file_get_contents()`.
- Writing entire local and remote files with `file_put_contents()`.
- Opening and closing files with `fopen()` and `fclose()`.
- Reading a line of a file with `fgets()`.
- Using `feof()` and a `for()` loop to read each line in a file.
- Using forward slashes in filenames with all operating systems.
- Providing different file modes to `fopen()`.
- Writing data to a file with `fwrite()`.
- Reading a line of a CSV file with `fgetcsv()`.

- Determining whether a file exists with `file_exists()`.
- Inspecting file permissions with `is_readable()` and `is_writeable()`.
- Checking for errors returned from file access functions.
- Understanding when to check a return value with the identical operator (`= = =`).
- Removing potentially dangerous parts of externally supplied filenames.

10.9 Exercises

1. Outside of the PHP interpreter, create a new template file in the style of [Example 10-2](#). Use `file_get_contents()` and `file_put_contents()` to read an HTML template file, substitute values for the template variables, and save the new page to a separate file.
2. Outside of the PHP interpreter, create a file that contains some email addresses, one per line. Make sure a few of the addresses appear more than once in the file. Call that file *addresses.txt*. Then, write a PHP program that reads each line in *addresses.txt* and counts how many times each address appears. For each distinct address in *addresses.txt*, your program should write a line to another file, *addresses-count.txt*. Each line in *addresses-count.txt* should consist of the number of times an address appears in *addresses.txt*, a comma, and the email address. Write the lines to *addresses-count.txt* in sorted order from the address that occurs the most times in *addresses.txt* to the address that occurs the fewest times in *addresses.txt*.
3. Display a CSV file as an HTML table. If you don't have a CSV file (or spreadsheet program) handy, use the data from [Example 10-10](#).
4. Write a PHP program that displays a form that asks a user for the name of a file underneath the web server's document root directory. If that file exists on the server, is readable, and is underneath the web server's document root directory, then display the contents of the file. For example, if the user enters `article.html`, display the file *article.html* in the document root directory. If the user enters `catalog/show.php`, display the file *show.php* in the directory *catalog* under the document root directory. [Table 6-1](#) tells you how to find the web server's document root directory.
5. Modify your solution to the previous exercise so that the program displays only files whose names end in *.html*. Letting users look at the PHP source code of any page on your site can be dangerous if those pages have sensitive information in them such as database usernames and passwords.

Chapter 11. Parsing and Generating XML

With XML, you can effortlessly exchange data between programs written in different languages, running on different operating systems, located on computers anywhere in the world. At least, that's what enthusiastic computer programmers and salespeople who work for companies that sell XML tools will tell you. They're sort of telling the truth. XML does make it easier to trade structured information between two programs. But you still have to do some work to herd your data into the right structure. This chapter shows you how to do that work with PHP.

XML is a markup language that looks a lot like HTML. An XML document is plain text and contains tags delimited by `<` and `>`. There are two big differences between XML and HTML:

- XML doesn't define a specific set of tags you must use.
- XML is extremely picky about document structure.

In one sense, XML gives you a lot more freedom than HTML. HTML has a certain set of tags: the `<a>` tags surround a link, the `` tags denote an unordered list, the `` tags indicate a list element, and so on. An XML document, however, can use any tags you want. Put `<rating></rating>` tags around a movie rating, `<height></height>` tags around someone's height, or `<favoritecolor></favoritecolor>` tags around someone's favorite color—XML doesn't care. Of course, whomever (or whatever program) you're sharing the XML document with also needs to agree to use and understand the same set of tags.

While you get more freedom in the tag-choice department, XML clamps down much harder than HTML when it comes to document structure. HTML lets you play fast and loose with some opening and closing tags. The HTML list in [Example 11-1](#) renders just fine in a web browser.

Example 11-1. HTML list that's not valid XML

```
<ul>
  <li>Braised Sea Cucumber
  <li>Baked GIBLETS with Salt
  <li>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet
</ul>
```

As an XML document, though, [Example 11-1](#) has a problem. There are no closing `` tags to match up with the three opening `` tags. Every opened tag in an XML document must be closed. The XML-friendly way to write [Example 11-1](#) is shown in [Example 11-2](#).

Example 11-2. HTML list that is valid XML

```
<ul>
  <li>Braised Sea Cucumber</li>
  <li>Baked GIBLETS with Salt</li>
  <li>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet</li>
</ul>
```

There are lots of existing standard XML tag sets for describing different kinds of information. XHTML, an XML-compatible version of HTML, is described at <http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml11/>. Lots of web sites distribute lists of article headlines or other syndicated data using an XML format called RSS (described at <http://blogs.law.harvard.edu/tech/rss>). Many of the examples in this chapter also involve RSS. You can get a PHP-themed RSS feed from the Planet PHP web site, which collects many PHP-related blogs. The Planet PHP RSS feed is available at <http://www.planet-php.net/rss/>.

To learn more about XML, check out *Learning XML* by Erik T. Ray (O'Reilly). To learn more about XML in PHP, read [Chapter 11](#) of *Programming PHP* by Rasmus Lerdorf and Kevin Tatroe (O'Reilly), [Chapter 12](#) of *PHP Cookbook* by David Sklar and Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly), or Chapter 5 of *Upgrading to PHP 5* by Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly).

11.1 Parsing an XML Document

PHP 5's new SimpleXML module makes parsing an XML document, well, simple. It turns an XML document into an object that provides structured access to the XML.

To create a SimpleXML object from an XML document stored in a string, pass the string to `simplexml_load_string()`. It returns a SimpleXML object. In [Example 11-3](#), `$channel` holds XML that represents the `<channel>` part of an RSS 0.91 feed.

Example 11-3. Parsing XML in a string

```
$channel =<<<_XML_<br><channel><br>  <title>What's For Dinner</title><br>  <link>http://menu.example.com/</link><br>  <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description><br></channel><br>_XML_;<br><br>$xml = simplexml_load_string($channel);
```

The contents of XML elements are available as the data stored in the SimpleXML object. [Example 11-4](#) prints some data inside the `$xml` object created in [Example 11-3](#).

Example 11-4. Printing XML element contents

```
print "The $xml->title channel is available at $xml->link. ";<br>print "The description is \"$xml->description\"";
```

[Example 11-4](#) prints:

```
The What's For Dinner channel is available at http://menu.example.com/. The<br>description is "These are your choices of what to eat tonight."
```

To descend into the hierarchy of XML elements, chain together the element names with arrows. [Example 11-5](#) loads a full RSS feed into a SimpleXML object and prints channel information.

Example 11-5. Printing subelement contents

```
$menu=<<<_XML_
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8" ?>
<rss version="0.91">
  <channel>
    <title>What's For Dinner</title>
    <link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
    <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description>
    <item>
      <title>Braised Sea Cucumber</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke</link>
      <description>Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Baked Giblets with Salt</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=giblets</link>
      <description>Rich giblet flavor infused with salt and spice.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=abalone</link>
      <description>There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.</description>
    </item>
  </channel>
</rss>
_XML_;
```

```
$xml = simplexml_load_string($menu);

print "The {$xml->channel->title} channel is available at {$xml->channel->link}. ";
print "The description is \"{$xml->channel->description}\"";
```

[Example 11-5](#) prints the same text as [Example 11-4](#). The curly braces are necessary around the element names so that the PHP interpreter can properly interpolate the values in the string.

Attributes of XML elements are treated like array indices. [Example 11-6](#) uses the SimpleXML object created in [Example 11-5](#) to access the version attribute of the `<rss>` tag.

Example 11-6. Print XML element attributes

```
print 'This RSS feed is version ' . $xml['version'];
```

[Example 11-6](#) prints:

```
This RSS feed is version 0.91
```

Because there are multiple `<item>` tags in the RSS feed, you need to use array index notation to access a particular item. The first is `item[0]`. [Example 11-7](#) prints the title of each item.

Example 11-7. Accessing identically named elements

```
print "Title: " . $xml->channel->item[0]->title . "\n";
print "Title: " . $xml->channel->item[1]->title . "\n";
print "Title: " . $xml->channel->item[2]->title . "\n";
```

[Example 11-7](#) prints:

```
Title: Braised Sea Cucumber
Title: Baked Giblets with Salt
Title: Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet
```

You can treat the items as an array with a `foreach()` loop. [Example 11-8](#) iterates through the items with `foreach()` to print the titles.

Example 11-8. Looping through identically named elements with `foreach()`

```
foreach ($xml->channel->item as $item) {
    print "Title: " . $item->title . "\n";
}
```

[Example 11-8](#) prints the same text as [Example 11-7](#).

In addition to groups of the same element (such as `<item>`), you can also use `foreach()` with any individual SimpleXML object. This is an easy way to iterate through all the children of a particular element. [Example 11-9](#) prints all the children of the first `<item>` in the RSS feed.

Example 11-9. Looping through child elements with `foreach()`

```
foreach ($xml->channel->item[0] as $element_name => $content) {
    print "The $element_name is $content\n";
}
```

[Example 11-9](#) prints:

```
The title is Braised Sea Cucumber
The link is http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke
The description is Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.
```

Each time the PHP interpreter goes through the `foreach()` loop in [Example 11-9](#), it sets `$element_name` to the name of an child element and `$content` to the text contents of that child element.

To change an element or an attribute, assign a new value to it. [Example 11-10](#) changes the version attribute of the `<rss>` tag, uppercases the title of the channel, and replaces the hostname in each item's `<link>`.

Example 11-10. Changing elements and attributes

```
$xml['version'] = '6.3';
```

```

$xml->channel->title = strtoupper($xml->channel->title);

for ($i = 0; $i < 3; $i++) {
    $xml->channel->item[$i]->link = str_replace('menu.example.com',
        'dinner.example.org', $xml->channel->item[$i]->link);
}

```

You've seen how to print individual parts of the SimpleXML object. To print everything in the object as an XML document, use the `asXML()` method. [Example 11-11](#) prints the RSS document we've been working with after its [Example 11-10](#) modifications.

Example 11-11. Printing an entire XML document

```
print $xml->asXML( );
```

[Example 11-11](#) prints:

```

<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<rss version="6.3">
  <channel>
    <title>WHAT'S FOR DINNER</title>
    <link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
    <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description>
  </channel>
  <item>
    <title>Braised Sea Cucumber</title>
    <link>http://dinner.example.org/dishes.php?dish=cuke</link>
    <description>Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.</description>
  </item>
  <item>
    <title>Baked Giblets with Salt</title>
    <link>http://dinner.example.org/dishes.php?dish=giblets</link>
    <description>Rich giblet flavor infused with salt and spice.</description>
  </item>
  <item>
    <title>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet</title>
    <link>http://dinner.example.org/dishes.php?dish=abalone</link>
    <description>There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.</description>
  </item>
</rss>

```

Similar to sending a CSV file (as in [Example 10-15](#)), to send a page that consists only of XML back to a web client, you have to send a special header. [Example 11-12](#) shows how to call the `header()` function with the appropriate argument. For an XML document, you need only to specify a `Content-Type` with `header()`. You don't need the second call to `header()` for `Content-Disposition`, as in [Example 10-14](#).

Example 11-12. Changing the page type to XML

```
header('Content-Type: text/xml');
```

As with `setcookie()` and `session_start()`, you must call `header()` before any output is sent (or you must use output buffering). [Example 11-13](#) is a complete program that sends a header and then uses SimpleXML to load an XML document from a string, modify it, and print it.

Example 11-13. Sending an XML document to the web client

```
<?php
$menu=<<<_XML_
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8" ?>
<rss version="0.91">
  <channel>
    <title>What's For Dinner</title>
    <link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
    <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description>
    <item>
      <title>Braised Sea Cucumber</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke</link>
      <description>Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Baked GIBLETS with Salt</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=giblets</link>
      <description>Rich gibleet flavor infused with salt and spice.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=abalone</link>
      <description>There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.</description>
    </item>
  </channel>
</rss>
_XML_;

// Create the SimpleXML object
$xml = simplexml_load_string($menu);

// Modify the SimpleXML object
$xml['version'] = '6.3';
$xml->channel->title = strtoupper($xml->channel->title);

for ($i = 0; $i < 3; $i++) {
    $xml->channel->item[$i]->link = str_replace('menu.example.com', 'dinner.example.org',
$xml->channel->item[$i]->link);
}

// Send the XML document to the web client
header('Content-Type: text/xml');
print $xml->asXML( );
?>
```

So far, the source and destination of your XML documents have been strings: `simplexml_load_string()` creates a SimpleXML object from a string, and `asXML()` returns a string representation of a SimpleXML object. However, you can also load XML documents from (and save them to) files.

To process an XML document that is in an existing file, create the SimpleXML object with `simplexml_load_file()` instead of `simplexml_load_string()`. Pass the filename of the XML document to `simplexml_load_file()`, and it returns a SimpleXML object populated with the XML elements from the document. [Example 11-14](#) creates a SimpleXML object from the XML document in a file called *menu.xml*.

Example 11-14. Loading an XML document from a file

```
$xml = simplexml_load_file('menu.xml');
```

Once the SimpleXML object is created by `simplexml_load_file()`, it behaves the same way as if it had been created with `simplexml_load_string()`.

If you want to parse an XML document located on a remote web server, you can still use `simplexml_load_file()`. Just pass the URL of the XML document to `simplexml_load_file()`. The function retrieves the remote page and puts it into a SimpleXML object. [Example 11-15](#) prints an HTML list of item titles from the Yahoo! News "Oddly Enough" RSS feed.

Example 11-15. Loading a remote XML document

```
$xml = simplexml_load_file('http://rss.news.yahoo.com/rss/oddlyenough');

print "<ul>\n";
foreach ($xml->channel->item as $item) {
    print "<li>$item->title</li>\n";
}
print "</ul>";
```

The content of the Yahoo! News feed is always changing, but [Example 11-15](#) prints something like:

```
<ul>
<li>Apologetic Arkansas Peeping Tom Leaves Cash, Note (Reuters)</li>
<li>She Closed Airport to Avoid Vacation with Boyfriend (Reuters)</li>
<li>'First' Pet Cat Found in Tomb (Reuters)</li>
<li>Eeeyew!!!! (Reuters)</li>
<li>Cross-Dressing Heats Up Republican Race (Reuters)</li>
<li>Authorities Finally Catch Rampaging Pig (AP)</li>
<li>"First" pet cat found in Cypriot tomb (Reuters)</li>
<li>9-Year-Old Girl Arrested for Rabbit Theft (AP)</li>
<li>Prostitutes Charge NATO Troops More (AP)</li>
<li>Police Track Down Elusive Fugitive Pig (AP)</li>
<li>No sex please -- we're giant pandas (Reuters)</li>
<li>Bored? Try Molvania, birthplace of whooping cough (Reuters)</li>
<li>Fat German hamster triggers police rescue (Reuters)</li>
</ul>
```

You can also save the XML document that `asXML()` generates directly to a file by passing a filename to `asXML()`. [Example 11-16](#) retrieves the Yahoo! News "Oddly Enough" feed and saves it to the file *odd.xml*.

Example 11-16. Saving an XML document to a file

```
$xml = simplexml_load_file('http://rss.news.yahoo.com/rss/oddlyenough');
```

```
$xml->asXML('odd.xml');
```

11.2 Generating an XML Document

SimpleXML is good for parsing existing XML documents, but you can't use it to create a new one from scratch. For many XML documents, the easiest way to generate them is to build a PHP array whose structure mirrors that of the XML document and then to iterate through the array, printing each element with appropriate formatting.

[Example 11-17](#) generates the XML for the channel part of an RSS feed using the information in the `$channel` array.

Example 11-17. Generating XML from an array

```
$channel = array('title' => "What's For Dinner",
                'link' => 'http://menu.example.com/',
                'description' => 'These are your choices of what to eat tonight.');
```

```
print "<channel>\n";
foreach ($channel as $element => $content) {
    print " <$element>";
    print htmlentities($content);
    print "</$element>\n";
}
print "</channel>";
```

[Example 11-17](#) prints:

```
<channel>
 <title>What's For Dinner</title>
 <link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
 <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description>
</channel>
```

Any text content of XML elements must be encoded by `htmlentities()` before it is printed. Just as characters such as `<` and `>` have special meaning in HTML, they also have special meaning in XML.

You can use a similar technique to generate XML from information that you retrieve from a database table. [Example 11-18](#) makes an XML representation of the data about spicy dishes.

Example 11-18. Formatting information from a database table as XML

```
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
```

```
// Change the fetch mode to string-keyed arrays
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
```

```
print "<dishes>\n";
$q = $db->query("SELECT dish_id, dish_name, price FROM dishes WHERE is_spicy = 1");
while($row = $q->fetchRow( )) {
```

```

print ' <dish id="' . htmlentities($row['dish_id']) .'">' . "\n";
print '   <name>' . htmlentities($row['dish_name']) . "</name>\n";
print '   <price>' . htmlentities($row['price']) . "</price>\n";
print " </dish>\n";
}
print '</dishes>';

```

Example 11-18 prints:

```

<dishes>
  <dish id="4">
    <name>Eggplant with Chili Sauce</name>
    <price>6.50</price>
  </dish>
  <dish id="6">
    <name>General Tso's Chicken</name>
    <price>5.50</price>
  </dish>
</dishes>

```

If you need to generate more complicated XML documents, investigate PHP 5's DOM functions. They require you to write longer programs than the examples in this section but give you more precise, structured control over all aspects of your XML. Some DOM functions are described briefly in [Section 13.9](#). You can read about them in more detail in Chapter 5 of *Upgrading to PHP 5* and the DOM XML section of the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/domxml>).

More complicated XML processing is possible with PHP. [Section 13.9](#) gives some examples, including XSLT transformation. You can read about SOAP and Web Services in PHP at <http://www.zend.com/php5/articles/php5-SOAP.php> and in Chapter 7 of *Essential PHP Tools* by David Sklar (Apress).

11.3 Chapter Summary

Chapter 11 covers:

- Understanding the basic differences between XML and HTML.
- Creating a SimpleXML object from a string that contains XML.
- Printing XML element contents with a SimpleXML object.
- Printing XML element attributes with a SimpleXML object.
- Accessing identically named elements with a SimpleXML object.
- Looping through a SimpleXML object with `foreach()`.
- Changing elements and attributes in a SimpleXML object.
- Printing a SimpleXML object as an XML document.
- Sending a `Content-Type` header to indicate an XML document.
- Creating a SimpleXML object from a local or remote file that contains XML.
- Saving a SimpleXML object to a file as an XML document.
- Generating an XML document from a PHP array.
- Generating an XML document from information in a database table.

11.4 Exercises

1. Using the XML document in the `$menu` variable defined in [Example 11-5](#), print an HTML `` list in which each list element is the `<title>` of one `<item>` in the XML document, and that `<title>` is hyperlinked to the URL listed in the `<link>` element of the item. For example, if one of the items were:
 2. `<item>`
 3. `<title>Steamed Rock Cod</title>`
 4. `<link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cod</link>`
 5. `<description>Enjoy a cod, bursting with flavor.</description>``</item>`

Then the corresponding list element that your code prints would be:

```
<li><a href="http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cod">Steamed Rock Cod</a>
  </li>
```

6. Write a program that prints a form asking for a user to input an RSS item title, link, and description. Make sure the user enters something for each field. Use the submitted form data to print an XML document consisting of a one-item RSS feed. Define the `<channel>` part of the feed in your program (you don't have to gather form input for it). Make sure to use `header()` and `htmlentities()` to produce a valid XML response.
7. Modify your answer to Exercise 7.2 so that the output of the program is an XML document. Structure your output like [Example 11-18](#)—put the information about each dish inside `<dish></dish>` tags, and put all the `<dish></dish>` tags inside `<dishes></dishes>` tags.
8. Write a program that prints a form asking for a user to input a search term. Retrieve an RSS news feed (such as one listed at <http://news.yahoo.com/rss/>) and display a list of links to items in the news feed that have the search term in the item title. Format each list element the same way as Exercise 11.1. To find matching news titles, you can use a regular expression or a function such as `stristr()`.

Chapter 12. Debugging

Programs rarely work correctly the first time. This chapter shows you some techniques for finding and fixing the problems in your programs. When you're just learning PHP, your programs are probably simpler than the programs that PHP wizards write. The errors you get, however, generally aren't much simpler, and you have to use the same tools and techniques to find and fix those errors.

12.1 Controlling Where Errors Appear

Many things can go wrong in your program that cause the PHP interpreter to generate an error message. You have a choice about where those error messages go. The messages can be sent along with other program output to the web browser. They can also be included in the web server error log.

A useful way to configure an error message display is to have the errors displayed on screen when you're developing a PHP program, and then sent to the error log once you're done development and people are actually using the program. While you're working on a program, it's helpful to see immediately that there was a parse error on a particular line, for example. But once the program is (supposedly) working so that your coworkers or customers can use it, such an error message would be confusing to them.

To make error messages display in the browser, set the `display_errors` configuration directive to `On`. To send errors to the web server error log, set `log_errors` to `On`. You can set them both to `On` if you want error messages in both places.

An error message that the PHP interpreter generates falls into one of five different categories:

Parse error

A problem with the syntax of your program, such as leaving a semicolon off of the end of a statement. The interpreter stops running your program when it encounters a parse error.

Fatal error

A severe problem with the content of your program, such as calling a function that hasn't been defined. The interpreter stops running your program when it encounters a fatal error.

Warning

An advisory from the interpreter that something is fishy in your program, but the interpreter can keep going. Using the wrong number of arguments when you call a function causes a warning.

Notice

A tip from the PHP interpreter playing the role of Miss Manners. For example, printing a variable without first initializing it to some value generates a notice.

Strict notices

An admonishment from the PHP interpreter about your coding style. Most of these have to do with esoteric features that changed between PHP 4 and PHP 5, so you're not likely to run into them too much.

You don't have to be notified about all the different error categories. The `error_reporting` configuration directive controls which kinds of errors the PHP interpreter reports. The default value for `error_reporting` is `E_ALL & ~E_NOTICE & ~E_STRICT`, which tells the interpreter to report all errors except notices and strict notices. [Appendix A](#) explains what the `&` and `~` mean in configuration directive values.

PHP defines some constants you can use to set the value of `error_reporting` such that only errors of certain types get reported: `E_ALL` (for all errors except strict notices), `E_PARSE` (parse errors), `E_ERROR` (fatal errors), `E_WARNING` (warnings), `E_NOTICE` (notices), and `E_STRICT` (strict notices).

Because strict notices are rare (and new to PHP 5), they are not included in `E_ALL`. To tell the PHP interpreter that you want to hear about everything that could possibly be an error, set `error_reporting` to `E_ALL | E_STRICT`.

12.2 Fixing Parse Errors

The PHP interpreter is really picky but not very chatty. If you leave out a necessary semicolon, or start a string with a single quote but end it with a double quote, the interpreter doesn't run your program. It throws up its (virtual) hands, complains about a "parse error," and leaves you stuck in the debugging wilderness.

This can be one of the most frustrating things about programming when you're getting started. Everything has to be phrased and punctuated *just so* in order for the PHP interpreter to accept it. One thing that helps this process along is writing your programs in an editor that is PHP-aware. This is a program that, when you tell it you are editing a PHP program, turns on some special features that make programming easier.

One of these special features is *syntax highlighting*. It changes the color of different parts of your program based on what those parts are. For example, strings are pink, keywords such as `if` and `while` are blue, comments are grey, and variables are black. Syntax highlighting makes it easier to detect things such as a string that's missing its closing quote: the pink text continues past the line that the string is on, all the way to the end of the file (or the next quote that appears later in the program).

Another feature is *quote and bracket matching*, which helps to make sure that your quotes and brackets are balanced. When you type a closing delimiter such as `}`, the editor highlights the opening `{` that it matches. Different editors do this in different ways, but typical methods are to flash the cursor at the location of the opening `{`, or to bold the `{ }` pair for a short time. This behavior is helpful for pairs of punctuation that go together: single and double quotes that delimit strings, parentheses, square brackets, and curly braces.

These editors also show the line numbers of your program files. When you get an error message from the PHP interpreter complaining about a parse error in line 35 in your program, you can focus on the right place to look for your error.

[Table 12-1](#) lists seven PHP-aware editors. Some of them go beyond the basics of syntax highlighting and bracket matching and provide more advanced features to help your coding. These features are listed in the "Comments" column of the table.

Table 12-1. PHP-aware text editors

Name	Platform(s)	URL	Cost	Comments
BEdit	OS X	http://www.barebones.com/products/bbedit/index.shtml	\$179	
Emacs and XEmacs	All	http://www.gnu.org/software/emacs/ , http://www.xemacs.org	Free	
Komodo	Windows, Linux, Solaris	http://www.activestate.com/Products/Komodo/	\$29.95 (personal), \$295 (professional)	Provides context-sensitive PHP function and class lookup and completion; includes integrated debugger.
Macromedia Dreamweaver MX 2004	Windows, OS X	http://www.macromedia.com/software/dreamweaver/	\$399	
NuSphere PHPEd	Windows, Linux	http://www.nusphere.com/products/index.htm	\$299	Provides context-sensitive PHP function and class lookup and completion; includes profiler and debugger.
PHPEdit	Windows	http://www.phpedit.net/products/PHPEdit/	Free	Provides context-sensitive PHP function and class lookup and completion; includes the DBG PHP debugger.
Zend IDE	Windows, Linux, OS X	http://www.zend.com/store/products/zend-studio.php	\$195	Provides context-sensitive PHP function and class lookup and completion;

Table 12-1. PHP-aware text editors

Name	Platform(s)	URL	Cost	Comments
				highlights syntax errors in real time; includes profiler for speed-testing code and integrated debugger.

Parse errors happen when the PHP interpreter comes upon something unexpected in your program. Consider the broken program in [Example 12-1](#).

Example 12-1. A parse error

```
<?php
if $logged_in) {
    print "Welcome, user.";
}
?>
```

When told to run the code in [Example 12-1](#), the PHP interpreter produces the following error message:^[1]

^[1] Shown is the error message that PHP 5 produces. PHP 4 prints parse errors slightly differently.

```
Parse error: parse error, unexpected T_VARIABLE, expecting '(' in welcome.php on line 2
```

That error message means that in line 2 of the file, the PHP interpreter was expecting to see an open parenthesis but instead it encountered something called `T_VARIABLE`. The `T_VARIABLE` is called a *token*. It's the PHP interpreter's way of expressing different fundamental parts of programs. When the interpreter reads in a program, it translates what you've written into a list of tokens. Wherever you put a variable in your program, there is a `T_VARIABLE` token in the interpreter's list.

So what the PHP interpreter is trying to tell you with the error message is "I was reading line 2 and saw a variable where I was expecting an open parenthesis." Looking at line 2 of [Example 12-1](#), you can see why this is so: the open parenthesis that should start the `if()` test expression is missing. After seeing `if`, PHP expects a `(` to start the test expression. Since that's not there, it sees `$logged_in`, a variable, instead.

A list of all the tokens that the PHP interpreter uses (and therefore that may show up in an error message) is in the PHP online manual at <http://www.php.net/tokens>.

The insidious thing about parse errors, though, is that the line number in the error message is often not the line where the error actually is. [Example 12-2](#) has such an error in it.

Example 12-2. A trickier parse error

```
<?php
$first_name = "David';
if ($logged_in) {
    print "Welcome, $first_name";
} else {
    print "Howdy, Stranger.";
}
?>
```

When it tries to run the code in [Example 12-2](#), the PHP interpreter says:

```
Parse error: parse error, unexpected T_STRING in welcome.php on line 4
```

That error makes it seem like line 4 contains a string in a place where it shouldn't. But you can scrutinize line 4 all you want to find a problem with it, and you just won't find one. That line, `print "Welcome, $first_name";` is perfectly correct—the string is correctly delimited with double quotes and the line appropriately ends with a semicolon.

The real problem in [Example 12-2](#) is in line 2. The string being assigned to `$first_name` starts with a double quote but "ends" with a single quote. As the PHP interpreter reads line 2, it sees the double quote and thinks "OK, here comes a string. I'll read everything until the next (unescaped) double quote as the contents of this string." That makes the interpreter fly right over the single quote in line 2 and keep going all the way until the first double quote in line 4. When it sees that double quote, the interpreter thinks it's found the end of the string. So then it considers what happens after the double quote to be a new command or statement. But what's after the double quote is `Welcome, $first_name`;. This doesn't make any sense to the interpreter. It's expecting an immediate semicolon to end a statement, or maybe a period to concatenate the just-defined string with another string. But `Welcome, $first_name`; is just an undelimited string sitting where it doesn't belong. So the interpreter gives up and shouts out a parse error.

Imagine you're running down the streets of Manhattan at supersonic speed. The sidewalk on 35th Street has some cracks in it, so you trip. But you're going so fast that you land on 39th Street and dirty the pavement with your blood and guts. Then a traffic safety officer comes over and says, "Hey! There's a problem with 39th Street! Someone's soiled the sidewalk with their innards!"

That's what the PHP interpreter is doing in this case. The line number in the parse error is where the interpreter sees something it doesn't expect, which is not always the line number where the actual error is.

When you get a parse error from the interpreter, first take a look at the line reported in the parse error. Check for the basics, such as making sure that you've got a semicolon at the end of the statement. If the line seems OK, work your way forward and back a few lines in the program to hunt down the actual error. Pay special attention to punctuation that goes in pairs: single or double quotes that delimit strings, parentheses in function calls or test expressions, square brackets in array elements, and curly braces in code blocks. Count that the number of opening punctuation marks (such as `(`, `[`, and `{`) matches the number of closing punctuation marks (such as `)`, `]`, and `}`).

12.3 Inspecting Program Data

Once you clear the parse error hurdle, you still may have some work to do before you reach the finish line. A program can be syntactically correct but logically flawed. Just as the sentence "The tugboat chewed apoplectically with six subtle buffaloes" is grammatically correct but meaningless nonsense, you can write a program that the PHP interpreter doesn't find any problems with but doesn't do what you expect.

If your program is acting funny, add some checkpoints that display the values of variables. That way, you can see where the program's behavior diverges from your expectations. [Example 12-3](#) shows a program that incorrectly attempts to calculate the total cost of a few items.

Example 12-3. A broken program without debugging output

```
$prices = array(5.95, 3.00, 12.50);
$total_price = 0;
$tax_rate = 1.08; // 8% tax

foreach ($prices as $price) {
    $total_price = $price * $tax_rate;
}

printf('Total price (with tax): $%.2f', $total_price);
```

[Example 12-3](#) doesn't do the right thing. It prints:

```
Total price (with tax): $13.50
```

The total price of the items should be at least \$20. What's wrong with [Example 12-3](#)? One way you can try to find out is to insert a line in the `foreach()` loop that prints the value of `$total_price` before and after it changes. That should provide some insight into why the math is wrong. [Example 12-4](#) annotates [Example 12-3](#) with some diagnostic `print` statements.

Example 12-4. A broken program with debugging output

```
$prices = array(5.95, 3.00, 12.50);
$total_price = 0;
$tax_rate = 1.08; // 8% tax

foreach ($prices as $price) {
    print "[before: $total_price]";
    $total_price = $price * $tax_rate;
    print "[after: $total_price]";
}

printf('Total price (with tax): $%.2f', $total_price);
```

[Example 12-4](#) prints:

```
[before: 0][after: 6.426][before: 6.426][after: 3.24][before: 3.24][after: 13.5]Total
price (with tax): $13.50
```

From analyzing the debugging output from [Example 12-4](#), you can see that `$total_price` isn't increasing on each trip through the `foreach()` loop. Scrutinizing the code further leads you to the conclusion that the line:

```
$total_price = $price * tax_rate;
```

should be:

```
$total_price += $price * tax_rate;
```

Instead of the assignment operator (`=`), the code needs the increment-and-assign operator (`+=`).

To include an array in debugging output, use `var_dump()`. It prints all the elements in an array. Surround the output of `var_dump()` with HTML `<pre></pre>` tags to have it nicely formatted in your web browser. [Example 12-5](#) prints the contents of all submitted form parameters with `var_dump()`.

Editing the Right File

If you make changes to a program while debugging it but don't see those changes reflected when you reload the program in your web browser, make sure you're editing the right file. When working with a local copy of the program but loading it in the browser from a remote server, be sure to copy the changed file to the server before you reload the page.

One way to make sure that the file you're editing and the page you're looking at in the web browser are in sync is to temporarily add a line at the top of the program that calls `die()`, as in the following.

```
die('This is: ' . __FILE__ );
```

The special constant `__FILE__` holds the name of the file being run. So when you load a PHP page in your browser with a URL such as `http://www.example.com/catalog.php`, that has the code shown above at the top, all you should see is something like:

```
This is: /usr/local/htdocs/catalog.php
```

When you see the results of `die()` in your web browser, you know you're editing the right file. Remove the call to `die()` from your program and continue debugging.

Example 12-5. Printing all submitted form parameters with `var_dump()`

```
print '<pre>'; var_dump($_POST); print '</pre>';
```

Debugging messages are informative but can be confusing or disruptive when mixed in with the regular page output. To send debugging messages to the web server error log instead of the web browser, use the `error_log()` function instead of `print`. [Example 12-6](#) shows the program from [Example 12-4](#) but uses `error_log()` to send the diagnostic messages to the web server error log.

Example 12-6. A broken program with error log debugging output

```
$prices = array(5.95, 3.00, 12.50);
$total_price = 0;
$tax_rate = 1.08; // 8% tax

foreach ($prices as $price) {
    error_log("[before: $total_price]");
    $total_price = $price * $tax_rate;
    error_log("[after: $total_price]");
}

printf('Total price (with tax): $%.2f', $total_price);
```

[Example 12-6](#) prints just the total price line:

```
Total price (with tax): $13.50
```

However, it sends lines to the web server error log that look like this:

```
[Wed Oct 20 16:33:02 2004] [error] [before: 0]
[Wed Oct 20 16:33:02 2004] [error] [after: 6.426]
[Wed Oct 20 16:33:02 2004] [error] [before: 6.426]
[Wed Oct 20 16:33:02 2004] [error] [after: 3.24]
[Wed Oct 20 16:33:02 2004] [error] [before: 3.24]
[Wed Oct 20 16:33:02 2004] [error] [after: 13.5]
```

The exact location of your web server error log varies based on how your web server is configured. If you're using Apache, the error log location is specified by the `ErrorLog` Apache configuration setting.

Because the `var_dump()` function itself prints information, you need to do a little fancy footwork to send its output to the error log, similar to the output buffering functionality discussed at the end of [Section 8.6](#). You surround the call to `var_dump()` with functions that temporarily suspend output, as shown in [Example 12-7](#).

Example 12-7. Sending all submitted form parameters to the error log with `var_dump()`

```
// Capture output instead of printing it
ob_start( );
// Call var_dump( ) as usual
var_dump($_POST);
// Store in $output the output generated since calling ob_start( )
$output = ob_get_contents( );
// Go back to regular printing of output
ob_end_clean( );
// Send $output to the error log
```



```
error_log($output);
```

The `ob_start()`, `ob_get_contents()`, and `ob_end_clean()` functions in [Example 12-7](#) manipulate how the PHP interpreter generates output. The `ob_start()` function tells the interpreter "Don't print anything from now on. Just accumulate anything you would print in an internal buffer." When `var_dump()` is called, the interpreter is under the spell of `ob_start()`, so the output goes into that internal buffer. The `ob_get_contents()` function returns the contents of the internal buffer. Since `var_dump()` is the only thing that generated output since `ob_start()` was called, this puts the output of `var_dump()` into `$output`. The `ob_end_clean()` function undoes the work of `ob_start()`: it tells the PHP interpreter to go back to its regular behavior with regard to printing. Last, `error_log()` sends `$output` (which holds what `var_dump()` "printed") to the web server error log.

12.4 Fixing Database Errors

When your program involves talking to a database, you have to deal with an additional universe of errors. Just as the PHP interpreter expects your programs to adhere to a particular grammar, the database program expects your SQL statements to adhere to the grammar of SQL.

The `setErrorHandling()` function introduced in [Section 7.4](#) has an additional mode of operation that gives you increased control over how database errors are handled in your PHP programs. Instead of having a terse error message printed or your program exit when a database error happens, you can have a custom function called. That function can do whatever you want, such as print a more detailed error message or write to the web server error log.

To enable this mode, call `setErrorHandling()` with the `PEAR_ERROR_CALLBACK` constant and the name of your error-handling function. [Example 12-8](#) says that when there is a database error, the `database_error()` function should be called.

Example 12-8. Setting up a custom database error handling function

```
$db->setErrorHandling(PEAR_ERROR_CALLBACK, 'database_error');
```

You also have to write the custom error-handling function whose name is passed to `setErrorHandling()`. This function must accept one argument. When DB invokes the function, it passes an object to the function that contains the error information. You can use the `getDebugInfo()` method of that object to get more detailed error information. [Example 12-9](#) is a sample custom error-handling function.

Example 12-9. A custom database error handling function

```
function database_error($error_object) {  
    print "We're sorry, but there is a temporary problem with the database.";  
    $detailed_error = $error_object->getDebugInfo();  
    error_log($detailed_error);  
}
```

The `database_error()` function defined in [Example 12-9](#) prints a generic message when a database error happens. It sends more detailed information about the error to the web server error log. Because this detailed information includes the

full text of the database queries that caused errors, you shouldn't show it to your web site visitors. The messages that `database_error()` sends to the error log look like this:

```
SELECT dish_name, price, has_spiciness FROM dishes WHERE price >= '5.00' AND price <=
'25.00' AND is_spicy = 0 [nativecode=1054 ** Unknown column 'has_spiciness' in 'field
list']
```

Since the `dishes` table doesn't have a column called `has_spiciness`, a query that tries to use such a column fails.

12.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter 12 covers:

- Configuring error display for a web browser, a web server error log, or both.
- Configuring the PHP interpreter's error-reporting level.
- Getting the benefits of a PHP-aware text editor.
- Deciphering parse error messages.
- Finding and fixing parse errors.
- Printing debugging information with `print`, `var_dump()` and `error_log()`.
- Sending `var_dump()` output to the error log with output buffering functions.
- Writing a custom database error-handling function.

12.6 Exercises

1. This program has a syntax error in it:

```
2. <?php
3. $name = 'Umberto';
4. function say_hello( ) {
5.     print 'Hello, ';
6.     print global $name;
7. }
8. say_hello( );
?>
```

Without running the program through the PHP interpreter, try to figure out what the parse error looks like that gets printed when the interpreter tries to run the program. What change must you make to the program to get it to run properly and print `Hello, Umberto`?

9. Modify the `validate_form()` function in your answer to Exercise 6.3 so that it prints in the web server error log the names and values of all of the submitted form parameters.
10. Modify your answer to Exercise 7.4 to use a custom database error-handling function that prints out different messages in the web browser and in the web server error log. The error-handling function should make the program exit after it prints the error messages.

11. This program is supposed to print out an alphabetical list of all the customers in the table from Exercise 7.4. Find and fix the errors in it.

```
12. <?php
13. require 'DB.php';
14. require 'formhelpers.php';
15. // Connect to the database
16. $db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
17. if (DB::isError($db)) { die ("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
18. // Set up automatic error handling
19. $db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
20. // Set up fetch mode: rows as objects
21. $db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_OBJECT);
22. // get the array of dish names from the database
23. $dish_names = array( );
24. $res = $db->query('SELECT dish_id,dish_name FROM dishes');
25. while ($row = $res->fetchRow( )) {
26.     $dish_names[ $row['dish_id']] = $row['dish_name'];
27. }
28. $customers = $db->getAll('SELECT ** FROM customers ORDER BY phone DESC');
29. if ($customers->num_rows( ) = 0) {
30.     print "No customers.";
31. } else {
32.     print '<table>';
33.     print '<tr><th>ID</th><th>Name</th><th>Phone</th><th>Favorite Dish</th></tr>';
34.     while ($customer = $customers->fetchRow( )) {
35.         printf('<tr><td>%d</td><td>%s</td><td>%f</td><td>%s</td></tr>',
36.             $customer['customer_id'],
37.             htmlentities($customer['customer_name']),
38.             $customer['phone'],
39.             $customer['favorite_dish_id']);
40.     }
41.     print '</table>';
    ?>
```

Chapter 13. What Else Can You Do with PHP?

This book covers the fundamental PHP topics that you need for everyday dynamic web site development, such as handling forms, working with a database, and remembering users with sessions. Beyond that core, though, PHP can do much more. Here are a few paragraphs, an example or two, and links to more info about many other capabilities of PHP.

13.1 Graphics

Your PHP programs can produce more than just HTML web pages. With the GD extension, they can also dynamically generate graphics—for example, you can create custom buttons. [Example 13-1](#) draws a rudimentary button whose text comes from the `button` URL variable.

Example 13-1. Drawing a button image

```
<?php

// GD's built-in fonts are numbered from 1 - 5
$font = 3;

// Calculate the appropriate image size
$image_height = intval(imageFontHeight($font) * 2);
$image_width = intval(strlen($_GET['button']) * imageFontWidth($font) * 1.3);

// Create the image
$image = imageCreate($image_width, $image_height);

// Create the colors to use in the image
// gray background
$back_color = imageColorAllocate($image, 216, 216, 216);
// blue text
$text_color = imageColorAllocate($image, 0, 0, 255);
// black border
$rect_color = imageColorAllocate($image, 0, 0, 0);

// Figure out where to draw the text
// (Centered horizontally and vertically)
$x = ($image_width - (imageFontWidth($font) * strlen($_GET['button']))) / 2;
$y = ($image_height - imageFontHeight($font)) / 2;

// Draw the text
imageString($image, $font, $x, $y, $_GET['button'], $text_color);
// Draw a black border
imageRectangle($image, 0, 0, imageSX($image) - 1, imageSY($image) - 1, $rect_color);

// Send the image to the browser
header('Content-Type: image/png');
imagePNG($image);
imageDestroy($image);
?>
```


If [Example 13-1](#) is saved as *button.php* in the document root directory of your web server, then you can call it like this:

```

```

It then outputs a button that looks like [Figure 13-1](#).

Figure 13-1. Dynamic button



Click Here

Read more about these functions in Chapter 9 of *Programming PHP* by Rasmus Lerdorf and Kevin Tatroe (O'Reilly), in Chapter 15 of *PHP Cookbook* by David Sklar and Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly), and in the Image section of the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/image>). Jeff Knight's presentation to NYPHP about PHP's image functions is also a good source of information. It's available at <http://www.nyphp.org/content/presentations/GDintro>.

13.2 PDF

Another kind of non-HTML document that your PHP programs can produce is a PDF file, as shown in [Example 13-2](#). This is handy for making an invoice that incorporates information from your database or providing printable versions of pages that meet exacting layout standards.

Example 13-2. Generating a PDF document

```
// These values are in points (1/72nd of an inch)
$fontsize = 72; // 1 inch high letters
$page_height = 612; // 8.5 inch high page
$page_width = 792; // 11 inch wide page

// Use a default message if none is supplied
if (strlen(trim($_GET['message']))) {
    $message = trim($_GET['message']);
} else {
    $message = 'Generate a PDF!';
}

// Create a new PDF document in memory
$pdf = pdf_new( );
pdf_open_file($pdf, '');

// Add a 11"x8.5" page to the document
pdf_begin_page($pdf, $page_width, $page_height);

// Select the Helvetica font at 72 points
$font = pdf_findfont($pdf, "Helvetica", "winansi", 0);
pdf_setfont($pdf, $font, $fontsize);

// Display the message centered on the page
pdf_show_boxed($pdf, $message, 0, ($page_height-$fontsize)/2,
               $page_width, $fontsize, 'center');

// End the page and the document
pdf_end_page($pdf);
pdf_close($pdf);
```

```
// Get the contents of the document and delete it from memory
$pdf_doc = pdf_get_buffer($pdf);
pdf_delete($pdf);

// Send appropriate headers and the document contents
header('Content-Type: application/pdf');
header('Content-Length: ' . strlen($pdf_doc));
print $pdf_doc;
```

[Example 13-2](#) uses the functions in the PDF extension. This extension depends on the PDFLib library that is available at <http://www.pdflibrary.com>. The CLibPDF extension also generates PDF files, but depends on the ClibPDF library that is available at <http://www.fastio.com>. Both PDFLib and CLibPDF require that you buy a license to use them for commercial purposes.

See Chapter 10 of O'Reilly's *Programming PHP* for detailed information about creating PDF documents, and read <http://www.php.net/manual/faq.using.php#faq.using.freepdf> for some free PDF creation options.

13.3 Shockwave/Flash

You can also create full-featured SWF-format Flash movies with the Ming extension. [Example 13-3](#) produces a movie with a blue circle in it that you can drag around.

Example 13-3. Generating a Flash movie

```
// Use SWF Version 6 to enable Actionscript
ming_UseSwfVersion(6);

// Create a new movie and set some parameters
$movie = new SWFMovie( );
$movie->setRate(20.000000);
$movie->setDimension(550, 400);
$movie->setBackground(0xcc,0xcc,0xcc);

// Create the circle
$circle = new SWFShape( );
$circle->setRightFill(33,66,99);
$circle->drawCircle(40);
$sprite= new SWFSprite( );
$sprite->add($circle);
$sprite->nextFrame( );

// Add the circle to the movie
$displayitem = $movie->add($sprite);
$displayitem->setName('circle');
$displayitem->moveTo(100,100);

// Add the Actionscript that implements the dragging
$movie->add(new SWFAction("
    circle.onPress=function( ){ this.startDrag('');};
    circle.onRelease= circle.onReleaseOutside=function( ){ stopDrag( );};
"));
```

```
// Display the movie
header("Content-type: application/x-shockwave-flash");
$movie->output(1);
```

Save [Example 13-3](#) as *ming.php* and then reference it from another page as in [Example 13-4](#).

Example 13-4. Including the Flash movie in a web page

```
<OBJECT classid="clsid:D27CDB6E-AE6D-11cf-96B8-444553540000"
  codebase="http://download.macromedia.com/pub/shockwave/cabs/flash/swflash.
cab#version=6,0,0,0"
  WIDTH="300" HEIGHT="300">
  <PARAM NAME=movie VALUE="ming.php">
  <PARAM NAME=bgcolor VALUE="#ffffff">
  <EMBED src="ming.php" bgcolor="#ffffff" WIDTH="300" HEIGHT="300"
  TYPE="application/x-shockwave-flash" PLUGINSPAGE="http://www.macromedia.com/go/
getflashplayer"></EMBED>
</OBJECT>
```

Read about the Ming functions in the PHP Manual at <http://www.php.net/ming>. The Ming extension depends on the external Ming library, which you can download from <http://ming.sourceforge.net>. The site at <http://ming.sourceforge.net> also contains lots of documentation and examples of how to use Ming from PHP. ([Example 13-3](#) is adapted from one of the examples on that site.)

13.4 Browser-Specific Code

The `get_browser()` function gives you information about the characteristics and capabilities of a user's browser. It makes it easy to dynamically determine what kind of page to output based on what a browser can do, what kind of browser it is, or on what operating system it's running. [Example 13-5](#) prints a message that depends on the operating system of the user's browser.

Example 13-5. Using `get_browser()`

```
$browser = get_browser( );

if ($browser->platform == 'WinXP') {
    print 'You are using Windows XP.';
} elseif ($browser->platform == 'MacOSX') {
    print 'You are using Mac OS X.';
} else {
    print 'You are using a different operating system.';
}
```

The `get_browser()` function uses the `$_SERVER['HTTP_USER_AGENT']` variable described in [Table 6-1](#). Remember, that variable can be faked, but it is still useful in producing customized pages for the majority of your users. For `get_browser()` to work, you need to download a separate browser capabilities file and set the `browscap` configuration directive. The

PHP Manual page about `get_browser()` (http://www.php.net/get_browser) provides up-to-date information on where to get a browser capabilities file.

13.5 Sending and Receiving Mail

The `mail()` function (which you saw briefly in [Example 6-30](#)) sends an email message. To use `mail()`, pass it a destination address, a message subject, and a message body. [Example 13-6](#) sends a message with `mail()`.

Example 13-6. Sending a message with `mail()`

```
$mail_body=<<<_TXT_
Your order is:
* 2 Fried Bean Curd
* 1 Eggplant with Chili Sauce
* 3 Pineapple with Yu Fungus
_TXT_;
mail('hungry@example.com','Your Order',$mail_body);
```

To handle more complicated messages, such as an HTML message or a message with an attachment, use the PEAR Mail and Mail_Mime modules. [Example 13-7](#) shows how to use Mail_Mime to send a multipart message that has a text part and an HTML part.

Example 13-7. Sending a message with text and HTML bodies

```
require 'Mail.php';
require 'Mail/mime.php';

$headers = array('From' => 'orders@example.com',
                 'Subject' => 'Your Order');

$text_body = <<<_TXT_
Your order is:
* 2 Fried Bean Curd
* 1 Eggplant with Chili Sauce
* 3 Pineapple with Yu Fungus
_TXT_;

$html_body = <<<_HTML_
<p>Your order is:</p>
<ul>
<li><b>2</b> Fried Bean Curd</li>
<li><b>1</b> Eggplant with Chili Sauce</li>
<li><b>3</b> Pineapple with Yu Fungus</li>
</ul>
_HTML_;

$mime = new Mail_mime( );
$mime->setTXTBody($text_body);
$mime->setHTMLBody($html_body);

$msg_body = $mime->get( );
$msg_headers = $mime->headers($headers);
```



```
$mailer = Mail::factory('mail');

$mailer->send('hungry@example.com', $msg_headers, $msg_body);
```

When `hungry@example.com` reads the message sent in [Example 13-7](#), his mail-reading program displays the HTML body or the text body, depending on its capabilities and how it is configured.

Read more about PEAR Mail and Mail_Mime in *PHP Cookbook* (O'Reilly), Recipes 17.1 and 17.2; in Chapter 9 of *Essential PHP Tools* by David Sklar (APress); and at <http://pear.php.net/manual/en/package.mail.mail-mime.php>.

13.6 Uploading Files in Forms

The `<input type="file">` form element lets a user upload the entire contents of a file to your server. When a form that includes a file element is submitted, the PHP interpreter provides access to the uploaded file through the `$_FILES` auto-global array. [Example 13-8](#) shows a form-processing program whose `validate_form()` and `process_form()` functions use `$_FILES`.

Example 13-8. A file upload form

```
if ($_POST['_stage']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}
```

```
function show_form($errors = '') {

    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
}
```

```
print<<<_HTML_
<form enctype="multipart/form-data" method="POST"
    action="$_SERVER[PHP_SELF]">
```

```
File to Upload: <input name="my_file" type="file"/>
```

```
<input type="hidden" name="MAX_FILE_SIZE" value="131072"/>
<input type="hidden" name="_stage" value="1">
<input type="submit" value="Upload"/>
</form>
_HTML_
}
```

```

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );

    if (($FILES['my_file']['error'] = = UPLOAD_ERR_INI_SIZE) ||
        ($FILES['my_file']['error'] = = UPLOAD_ERR_FORM_SIZE)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Uploaded file is too big.';
    } elseif ($FILES['my_file']['error'] = = UPLOAD_ERR_PARTIAL) {
        $errors[ ] = 'File upload was interrupted.';
    } elseif ($FILES['my_file']['error'] = = UPLOAD_ERR_NO_FILE) {
        $errors[ ] = 'No file uploaded.';
    }

    return $errors;
}

function process_form( ) {
    print "You uploaded a file called {$FILES['my_file']['name']} ";
    print "of type {$FILES['my_file']['type']} that is ";
    print "{$FILES['my_file']['size']} bytes long.";

    $safe_filename = str_replace('/', '', $FILES['my_file']['name']);
    $safe_filename = str_replace('..', '', $safe_filename);

    $destination_file = '/usr/local/uploads/' . $safe_filename;
    if (move_uploaded_file($FILES['my_file']['tmp_name'], $destination_file)) {
        print "Successfully saved file as $destination_file.";
    } else {
        print "Couldn't save file in /usr/local/uploads.";
    }
}

```

The `process_form()` function in [Example 13-8](#) uses the techniques from [Example 10-23](#) to sanitize the uploaded filename and the built-in function `move_uploaded_file()` to relocate the uploaded file to a permanent place. These steps prevent security problems that can result from sloppy handling of uploaded files. The `file_uploads` and `upload_max_filesize` configuration directives, described in [Table A-1](#), also affect the PHP interpreter's file upload-related behavior.

Read more about file upload in Sections 7.4.8 and 12.3 of *Programming PHP* (O'Reilly), *PHP Cookbook* (O'Reilly) in Recipe 9.6, and in the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/manual/features.file-upload.php>).

13.7 The HTML_QuickForm Form-Handling Framework

[Chapter 6](#) provides all the building blocks of robust form handling. A PEAR module, `HTML_QuickForm`, takes things a step further. It makes it easy to use common validation rules and simplifies default processing and encoding user input with `htmlentities()`. With `HTML_QuickForm`, the entire form is an object. You call methods on that object to add elements and validation rules to the form. [Example 13-9](#) uses `HTML_QuickForm` to build the form in [Example 6-30](#).

Example 13-9. Building a form with QuickForm

```
<?php
```

```

// Load the QuickForm library
require 'HTML/QuickForm.php';
// Create the form object
$form = new HTML_QuickForm( );

// Define the same arrays of valid sweets and main dishes
$sweets = array('puff' => 'Sesame Seed Puff',
               'square' => 'Coconut Milk Gelatin Square',
               'cake' => 'Brown Sugar Cake',
               'ricemeat' => 'Sweet Rice and Meat');

$main_dishes = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
                    'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",
                    'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
                    'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',
                    'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
                    'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');

// Set the default values for form elements
$form->setDefaults(array('delivery' => 'yes',
                       'size' => 'medium'));

// Add each element to the form
$form->addElement('text', 'name', 'Your Name: ');
$form->addElement('radio', 'size', 'Size:', 'Small', 'small');
$form->addElement('radio', 'size', '', 'Medium', 'medium');
$form->addElement('radio', 'size', '', 'Large', 'large');

$form->addElement('select', 'sweet', 'Pick one sweet item:', $sweets);
$form->addElement('select', 'main_dish', 'Pick two main dishes:',
                $main_dishes, 'multiple="multiple"');

$form->addElement('radio', 'delivery', 'Do you want your order delivered?',
                'Yes', 'yes');

$form->addElement('textarea', 'comments', 'Enter any special instructions. <br/>
                If you want your order delivered, put your address here:');

$form->addElement('submit', 'save', 'Order');

// Create two custom validation rules (implemented by the functions
// add the end of the script)
$form->registerRule('check_array', 'function', 'check_array');
$form->registerRule('check_array_size', 'function', 'check_array_size');

// The name field is required
$form->addRule('name', 'Please enter your name.', 'required');
// The size field is required and its value must be
// one of "small", "medium", or "large"
$form->addRule('size', 'Please select a size.', 'required');
$form->addRule('size', 'Please select a size.', 'check_array',
                array('small' => 1, 'medium' => 1, 'large' => 1));

// The sweet field is required and its value must be in the
// $sweets array
$form->addRule('sweet', 'Please select a valid sweet item.', 'required');
$form->addRule('sweet', 'Please select a valid sweet item.', 'check_array',

```

```

        $sweets);

// The main_dish field is required, it must have exactly two values
// and those values must be in the $main_dishes array
$form->addRule('main_dish','Please select exactly two main dishes.',
    'required');
$form->addRule('main_dish','Please select exactly two main dishes.',
    'check_array_size', 2);
$form->addRule('main_dish','Please select exactly two main dishes.',
    'check_array', $main_dishes);

// The main logic of the page: if the submitted form parameters are
// valid, then process them by running the save_order( ) function.
// Otherwise, display the form.
if ($form->validate( )) {
    $form->process('save_order');
} else {
    $form->display( );
}

// The function to do the form processing. It is identical to process_form( )
// in Chapter 6 except that it accesses the submitted form parameters through
// $form_data instead of $_POST
function save_order($form_data) {
    // look up the full names of the sweet and the main dishes in
    // the $GLOBALS['sweets'] and $GLOBALS['main_dishes'] arrays
    $sweet = $GLOBALS['sweets'][$form_data['sweet'] ];
    $main_dish_1 = $GLOBALS['main_dishes'][$form_data['main_dish'][0] ];
    $main_dish_2 = $GLOBALS['main_dishes'][$form_data['main_dish'][1] ];
    if ($form_data['delivery'] == 'yes') {
        $delivery = 'do';
    } else {
        $delivery = 'do not';
    }
    // build up the text of the order message
    $message=<<<_ORDER_
Thank you for your order, $form_data[name].
You requested the $form_data[size] size of $sweet, $main_dish_1, and $main_dish_2.
You $delivery want delivery.
_ORDER_;
    if (strlen(trim($form_data['comments']))) {
        $message .= 'Your comments: '.$form_data['comments'];
    }

    // send the message to the chef
    mail('chef@restaurant.example.com', 'New Order', $message);
    // print the message, but encode any HTML entities
    // and turn newlines into <br/> tags
    print nl2br(htmlentities($message));
}

// A validation helper function to check that $param_value is
// a key in $array (or that each value in $param_value is a
// key in $array if $param_value is an array)
function check_array($param_name, $param_value, $array) {
    if (is_array($param_value)) {
        foreach ($param_value as $submitted_value) {

```

```

        if (! array_key_exists($submitted_value, $array)) {
            return false;
        }
    }
    return true;
} else {
    return array_key_exists($param_value, $array);
}
}

function check_array_size($param_name, $param_value, $size) {
    return count($param_value) == $size;
}
?>

```

To learn more about HTML_Quickform, read Chapter 3 of *Essential PHP Tools* (APress) and <http://pear.php.net/manual/en/package.html.html-quickform.php>.

13.8 Classes and Objects

PHP 5 provides comprehensive and robust support for object-oriented programming. If you've never heard of object-oriented programming, then you don't need to use any of these fancy features. But if you're coming to PHP from a language such as Java, you can structure your code in familiar ways. You can create interfaces; abstract classes; public, private, and protected properties and methods; constructors and destructors; overloaded property accessors and method dispatchers; and plenty of other OO goodies.

Chapter 2 of *Upgrading to PHP 5* by Adam Trachtenberg (O'Reilly), lays out the many object-related changes in PHP 5. The PHP Manual covers classes and objects at <http://www.php.net/manual/language.oop.php>.

13.8.1 Object Basics

An *object*, in the programming world, is a structure that combines data about a thing (such as the ingredients in an entree) with actions on that thing (such as preparing the entree). Using objects in a program provides an organizational structure for grouping related variables and functions together.

Some words to know when working with objects are defined in the following list:

Class

A template or recipe that describes the variables and functions for a kind of object. For example, an `Entree` class would contain variables that hold its name and ingredients. The functions in an `Entree` class would be for things such as cooking the entree, serving it, and determining whether a particular ingredient is in it.

Method

A function defined in a class is called a method.

Property

A variable defined in a class is called a property.

Instance

An individual usage of a class. If you are serving three entrees for dinner in your program, you would create three instances of the `Entree` class. While each of these instances is based on the same class, they differ internally with different properties. The methods in each instance contain the same instructions, but probably produce different results because they each rely on the particular property values in each instance. Creating a new instance of a class is called "instantiating an object."

Constructor

A special method that is automatically run when an object is instantiated. Usually, constructors set up object properties and do other housekeeping that makes the object ready for use.

Static method

A special kind of method that can be called without instantiating a class. Static methods don't depend on the property values of a particular instance. PEAR DB uses a static method to create a database connection.

13.8.2 Creating a New Object

PEAR DB uses a static method to create a new object instance for you to use:

```
$db = DB::connect($dsn);
```

This calls the `connect()` method defined in the `DB` class. The `connect()` method is a static method: nothing in `connect()` depends on a specific instance of the `DB` class. The `classname::method()` syntax is how you call a static method. When you see two colons in a function name like that in a PHP program, think "static method call."

The other way to create a new object is with the `new` operator:

```
$dinner = new Entree( );
```

This makes the variable `$dinner` an instance of the class `Entree`. To pass arguments to a class's constructor, put them in the parentheses:

```
$dinner = new Entree('Chinese','spicy');
```

13.8.3 Accessing Properties and Methods

The `->` ("arrow") operator, composed of a hyphen and a greater-than sign, is your road to the properties (variables) and methods (functions) inside an object. To access a property, put the arrow after the object's name and put the property after the arrow:

```
print $dinner->price;
$today's_fat = $today's_fat + $dinner->fat;
print 'To eat: '. strtoupper($dinner->name);
```

To call a method, put the method name after the arrow, followed by parentheses:

```
$dinner->prepare( );
$ingredients = $dinner->get_ingredients( );
```

You can pass arguments to a method just like a regular function:

```
$has_pineapple = $dinner->contains('Pineapple');
$dinner->add_ingredient('Ginger Root');
$dinner->serve('Alice','Bob','Charlie');
```

Note that the arrow operator used to access properties and methods is different than the operator-separating array keys and values in `array()` or `foreach()`. The array arrow has an equals sign: `=>`. The object arrow has a hyphen: `->`.

13.9 Advanced XML Processing

SimpleXML is just the tip of PHP 5's new XML processing capabilities. The DOM functions give you exacting control over all aspects of an XML document, and you can also do XSL transformations, XPath queries, and XInclude processing, as well as execute an extravagant, exhaustive exaltation of other exciting and exotic XML exercises.

[Example 13-10](#) shows an RSS feed-handling class based on the built-in `DomDocument` class. The `addItem()` method of the `RSS` class is used to add a new item to the feed.

Example 13-10. Extending `DomDocument` to handle an RSS feed

```
class RSS extends DomDocument {
    function __construct($title, $link, $description) {
        // Set this document up as XML 1.0 with a root
        // <rss> element that has a version="0.91" attribute
        parent::__construct('1.0');
        $rss = $this->createElement('rss');
        $rss->setAttribute('version', '0.91');
        $this->appendChild($rss);
    }
}
```

```

// Create a <channel> element with <title>, <link>,
// and <description> sub-elements
$channel = $this->createElement('channel');
$channel->appendChild($this->makeTextNode('title', $title));
$channel->appendChild($this->makeTextNode('link', $link));
$channel->appendChild($this->makeTextNode('description',
                                         $description));

// Add <channel> underneath <rss>
$rss->appendChild($channel);

// Set up output to print with linebreaks and spacing
$this->formatOutput = true;
}

// This function adds an <item> to the <channel>
function addItem($title, $link, $description) {
    // Create an <item> element with <title>, <link>
    // and <description> sub-elements
    $item = $this->createElement('item');
    $item->appendChild($this->makeTextNode('title', $title));
    $item->appendChild($this->makeTextNode('link', $link));
    $item->appendChild($this->makeTextNode('description',
                                         $description));

    // Add the <item> to the <channel>
    $channel = $this->getElementsByTagName('channel')->item(0);
    $channel->appendChild($item);
}

// A helper function to make elements that consist entirely
// of text (no sub-elements)
private function makeTextNode($name, $text) {
    $element = $this->createElement($name);
    $element->appendChild($this->createTextNode($text));
    return $element;
}

}

// Create a new RSS feed with the specified title, link and description
// for the channel.
$rss = new RSS("What's For Dinner", 'http://menu.example.com/',
              'These are your choices of what to eat tonight.');
```

```

// Add three items
$rss->addItem('Braised Sea Cucumber',
             'http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke',
             'Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.');
```

```

$rss->addItem('Baked GIBLETS with Salt',
             'http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=giblets',
             'Rich giblet flavor infused with salt and spice.');
```

```

$rss->addItem('Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet',
             'http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=abalone',
             "There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.");

// Print the XML
print $rss->saveXML( );

```


Example 13-10 prints:

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<rss version="0.91">
  <channel>
    <title>What's For Dinner</title>
    <link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
    <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description>
    <item>
      <title>Braised Sea Cucumber</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke</link>
      <description>Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.
</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Baked GIBLETS with Salt</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=giblets</link>
      <description>Rich gibleT flavor infused with salt and spice.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=abalone</link>
      <description>There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.
</description>
    </item>
  </channel>
</rss>
```

XSL transformations use the `XSLTProcessor` class. [Example 13-11](#) makes an HTML document from the `$rss` object created in [Example 13-10](#) with the XSL stylesheet in [Example 13-12](#) (saved as `rss.xsl`).

Example 13-11. Transforming XML to HTML with XSL

```
// Create a new XSL Transformer
$xmlslt = new XSLTProcessor( );
// Load the stylesheet from the file rss.xsl
$xmlslt->importStyleSheet(DomDocument::load('rss.xsl'));

// Apply the stylesheet to the XML
$html = $xmlslt->transformToDoc($rss);
// Print out the content of the new document
$html->formatOutput = true;
print $html->saveXML( );
```

Example 13-12. An XSL stylesheet for RSS feeds

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<xsl:stylesheet version="1.0" xmlns:xsl="http://www.w3.org/1999/XSL/Transform" >
<xsl:template match="/">
<h1><xsl:value-of select="/rss/channel/title"/></h1>
<h2><a><xsl:attribute name="href"><xsl:value-of select="/rss/channel/link"/></xsl:
attribute>
<xsl:value-of select="/rss/channel/link"/></a></h2>
<h3><xsl:value-of select="/rss/channel/description"/></h3>
```

```

<hr/>
<ul>
<xsl:for-each select="/rss/channel/item">
<li>
<a><xsl:attribute name="href"><xsl:value-of select="link"/></xsl:attribute>
<xsl:value-of select="title"/></a>
- <xsl:value-of select="description"/></li>
</xsl:for-each>
</ul>
</xsl:template>
</xsl:stylesheet>

```

[Example 13-11](#) prints:

```

<?xml version="1.0"?>
<h1>What's For Dinner</h1>
<h2>
  <a href="http://menu.example.com/">http://menu.example.com/</a>
</h2>
<h3>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</h3>
<hr/>
<ul>
  <li><a href="http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke">Braised Sea Cucumber</a>
  - Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.</li>
  <li><a href="http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=giblets">Baked Giblets with
Salt</a>
  - Rich giblet flavor infused with salt and spice.</li>
  <li><a href="http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=abalone">Abalone with Marrow
and Duck Feet</a>
  - There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.</li>
</ul>

```

Read Chapter 5 of *Upgrading to PHP 5* (O'Reilly) for more details on PHP 5's XML functions. *Learning XSLT* by Michael Fitzgerald (O'Reilly) is a good introduction to XSLT.

13.10 SQLite

The SQLite embedded database engine comes bundled with PHP 5. An SQLite database is a single file. Inside that file are all the tables in a database. You don't need a separate database program running on your server to access an SQLite database—when your PHP program connects to the database, it opens the file, reads from it, and writes to it. For heavily trafficked sites, SQLite isn't as fast as a regular database program such as MySQL, but it is packed with features and is capable for small projects. [Example 13-13](#) shows the answer to Exercise 7.1 using SQLite.

Example 13-13. Using the SQLite database

```

require 'DB.php';

$db = DB::connect('sqlite://:@localhost/restaurant.db');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }

$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);

```

```

$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);

$dishes = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name,price FROM dishes ORDER BY price');

if (count($dishes) > 0) {
    print '<ul>';
    foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
        print "<li> $dish[dish_name] ($dish[price])</li>";
    }
    print '</ul>';
} else {
    print 'No dishes available.';
}

```

The only thing different about [Example 13-13](#) and the answer ([Section C.6.1](#)) to Exercise 7.1 ([Section 7.14](#)) is the DSN supplied to `DB::connect()`. The DSN for SQLite doesn't have a username or password, and instead of a database name, the last part of the DSN is the filename of the SQLite database file.

Chapter 4 of O'Reilly's *Upgrading to PHP 5* discusses SQLite. You can also read about SQLite in the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/sqlite>).

13.11 Running Shell Commands

While you can do almost anything in PHP, you can't do everything. If you need to run an external program from inside a PHP script, you have a few options. These are described in the "Program Execution" section of the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/exec>). [Example 13-14](#) demonstrates the `shell_exec()` command, which runs a program and returns its output. In [Example 13-14](#), `shell_exec()` runs the `df` command, which (on Unix) produces information about disk usage.

Example 13-14. Running a program with `shell_exec()`

```

// Run "df" and divide up its output into individual lines
$df_output = shell_exec('/bin/df -h');
$df_lines = explode("\n", $df_output);

// Loop through each line. Skip the first line, which
// is just a header
for ($i = 1, $lines = count($df_lines); $i < $lines; $i++) {
    if (trim($df_lines[$i])) {
        // Divide up the line into fields
        $fields = preg_split('/\s+/', $df_lines[$i]);
        // Print info about each filesystem
        print "Filesystem $fields[5] is $fields[4] full.\n";
    }
}

```

[Example 13-14](#) prints something like this:

```

Filesystem / is 63% full.
Filesystem /boot is 7% full.

```

```
Filesystem /opt is 93% full.
Filesystem /dev/shm is 0% full.
```

Just like when using external input in a SQL query or filename, you need to be careful when using external input as part of an external command line. Make your programs more secure by using `escapeshellargs()` to escape shell metacharacters in command-line arguments.

Read more about running external commands in Section 12.7 of *Programming PHP* (O'Reilly) and in *PHP Cookbook* (O'Reilly), Recipes 18.20, 18.21, 18.22 and 18.23.

13.12 Advanced Math

On most systems, the PHP interpreter can handle integers between -2147483648 and 2147483647 (that's 2 billion), and floating-point numbers between -10^{308} and 10^{308} . If you're writing scientific or other math-intensive applications, such as figuring out each citizen's portion of the U.S. National Debt, that might not be good enough. The BCMath and GMP extensions provide more advanced mathematical capabilities. The GMP extension is more capable, but not available on Windows. [Example 13-15](#) uses the BCMath extension to compute the hypotenuse of a really big right triangle.

Example 13-15. Doing math with the BCMath extension

```
// Figure out hypotenuse of a giant right triangle
// The sides are 3.5e406 and 2.8e406

$a = bcmul(3.5, bcpow(10, 406));
$b = bcmul(2.8, bcpow(10, 406));

$a_squared = bcpow($a, 2);
$b_squared = bcpow($b, 2);

$hypotenuse = bcsqrt(bcadd($a_squared, $b_squared));

print $hypotenuse;
```

The number that [Example 13-15](#) prints is 407 digits long.

[Example 13-16](#) shows the same calculation with the functions in the GMP extension.

Example 13-16. Doing math with the GMP extension

```
$a = gmp_mul(35, gmp_pow(10, 405));
$b = gmp_mul(28, gmp_pow(10, 405));

$a_squared = gmp_pow($a, 2);
$b_squared = gmp_pow($b, 2);

$hypotenuse = gmp_sqrt(gmp_add($a_squared, $b_squared));

print gmp_strval($hypotenuse);
```

Read about BCMath and GMP in O'Reilly's *PHP Cookbook*, Recipe 2.13; and in the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/bc> and <http://www.php.net/gmp>).

13.13 Encryption

With the mcrypt extension, you can encrypt and decrypt data using a variety of popular algorithms such as Blowfish, Triple DES, and Twofish. [Example 13-17](#) encrypts and decrypts a string with Blowfish.

Example 13-17. Encrypting and decrypting with mcrypt

```
// The string to encrypt
$data = 'Account number: 213-1158238-23; PIN: 2837';
// The secret key to encrypt it with
$key = "Perhaps Looking-glass milk isn't good to drink";

// Select an algorithm and encryption mode
$algorithm = MCRYPT_BLOWFISH;
$mode = MCRYPT_MODE_CBC;
// Create an initialization vector
$iv = mcrypt_create_iv(mcrypt_get_iv_size($algorithm,$mode),
                      MCRYPT_DEV_URANDOM);

// Encrypt the data
$encrypted_data = mcrypt_encrypt($algorithm, $key, $data, $mode, $iv);

// Decrypt the data
$decrypted_data = mcrypt_decrypt($algorithm, $key, $encrypted_data, $mode, $iv);

print "The decoded data is $decrypted_data";
```

[Example 13-17](#) prints:

```
The decoded data is Account number: 213-1158238-23; PIN: 2837
```

Read about mcrypt in *PHP Cookbook*, Recipes 14.7, 14.8, and 14.9, and in the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/mcrypt>). Just as a fancy lock on your front door doesn't do much if your house is made of clear plastic sheeting, the most robust encryption algorithm is just one part of a comprehensively secure program. To learn more about computer security and encryption, read *Practical Unix & Internet Security* by Simson Garfinkel, Alan Schwartz, and Gene Spafford (O'Reilly) and *Applied Cryptography* by Bruce Schneier (John Wiley and Sons).

13.14 Talking to Other Languages

With various extensions, the PHP interpreter can run programs written in other languages such as Java and Perl. On Windows, the PHP interpreter can access COM objects.

The Perl extension is for PHP 5 only. [Example 13-18](#) demonstrates a very simple program that uses the Perl extension to print a message. Typically, you'd use the Perl extension to access some existing Perl libraries that you have.

Example 13-18. Using Perl from PHP

```
$perl = new Perl( );  
  
$perl->eval('print "This is Perl!";');
```

[Example 13-18](#) prints:

```
This is Perl!
```

[Example 13-19](#) shows a simple Java example.

Example 13-19. Using Java from PHP

```
$formatter = new Java('java.text.SimpleDateFormat',  
    "EEEE, MMMM dd, yyyy 'at' h:mm:ss a zzzz");  
  
print $formatter->format(new Java('java.util.Date'));
```

In the afternoon of October 20, 2004, [Example 13-19](#) prints:

```
Wednesday, October 20, 2004 at 1:30:00 PM Eastern Daylight Time
```

Read about the Perl extension at <http://www.zend.com/php5/articles/php5-perl.php>, and the Java and COM extensions in the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/java> and <http://www.php.net/com>).

13.15 IMAP, POP3, and NNTP

You can write a full-featured mail or news client in PHP. (In fact, some people already have—check out <http://www.horde.org/imp/> and <http://www.squirrelmail.org/>). The imap extension gives your PHP programs the ability to talk with IMAP, POP3, and NNTP servers. [Example 13-20](#) uses some of the imap extension functions to connect to the `news.php.net` news server and retrieve information about 10 most recent messages from the `php.announce` newsgroup.

Example 13-20. Connecting to an NNTP server

```
$server = '{news.php.net/nnntp:119}';  
$group = 'php.announce';  
$nntp = imap_open("$server$group", '', '', OP_ANONYMOUS);  
  
$last_msg_id = imap_num_msg($nntp);  
  
$msg_id = $last_msg_id - 9;  
  
print '<table>';  
print "<tr><td>Subject</td><td>From</td><td>Date</td></tr>\n";  
  
while ($msg_id <= $last_msg_id) {  
    $header = imap_header($nntp, $msg_id);
```

```

if (! $header->Size) { print "no size!"; }

$email = $header->from[0]->mailbox . '@' .
    $header->from[0]->host;
if ($header->from[0]->personal) {
    $email .= ' ('.$header->from[0]->personal.')';
}

$date = date('m/d/Y h:i A', $header->update);

print "<tr><td>$header->subject</td><td>$email</td>" .
    "<td>$date</td></tr>\n";

$msg_id++;
}
print '</table>';

```

Example 13-20 prints:

```

<table><tr><td>Subject</td><td>From</td><td>Date</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP Security Advisory: CGI vulnerability in PHP version 4.3.0</td>
<td>sniper@php.net (Jani Taskinen)</td><td>02/17/2003 01:01 PM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 4.3.2 released</td><td>sniper@php.net (Jani Taskinen)</td>
<td>05/29/2003 08:05 AM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 5.0.0 Beta 1</td><td>sterling@bumblebury.com (Sterling Hughes)</td>
<td>06/29/2003 02:19 PM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 4.3.3 released</td><td>ilia@prohost.org (Ilia Alshanetsky)</td>
<td>08/25/2003 09:53 AM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 5.0.0 Beta 2 released!</td><td>andi@zend.com (Andi Gutmans)</td>
<td>10/30/2003 03:57 PM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 4.3.4 Released</td><td>ilia@prohost.org (Ilia Alshanetsky)</td>
<td>11/03/2003 08:25 PM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 5 Beta 3 Released!</td><td>andi@zend.com (Andi Gutmans)</td>
<td>12/22/2003 05:48 AM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 5 Release Candidate 1</td><td>andi@zend.com (Andi Gutmans)</td>
<td>03/18/2004 12:24 PM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 4.3.5 Released</td><td>ilia@prohost.org (Ilia Alshanetsky)</td>
<td>03/26/2004 08:55 AM</td></tr>
<tr><td>PHP 4.3.6 Released</td><td>ilia@prohost.org (Ilia Alshanetsky)</td>
<td>04/15/2004 05:28 PM</td></tr>

```

Read about the `imap` extension in O'Reilly's *PHP Cookbook*, Recipes 17.3, 17.4, and 17.5; and in the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/imap>).

13.16 Command-Line PHP

PHP isn't just for web applications. Your PHP installation can include a CLI (Command-Line Interface) version of the PHP interpreter that lets you run PHP scripts as standalone programs. This can be useful for running a PHP program at certain times of day or just reusing code that you wrote for a web application in a different context.

Read about the CLI version of the PHP interpreter in Section 1.4.5 of O'Reilly's *Programming PHP, PHP Cookbook* (O'Reilly), Section 20.0 and Recipes 20.1-20.4; and the PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/features.commandline>). The PEAR installation instructions in [Appendix A](#) use the CLI version of the PHP interpreter.

13.17 PHP-GTK

One advanced use of the CLI PHP interpreter is to use it along with the PHP-GTK functions, which let you write full-featured GUI applications. The existing version of PHP-GTK (1.0.0) works with PHP 4. A new version of PHP-GTK is in the works for PHP 5.

[Example 13-21](#) uses PHP-GTK to display a window with a button in it.

Example 13-21. Displaying a button with PHP-GTK

```
$window =& new GtkWindow( );

$button =& new GTKButton('I am a button, please click me. ');
$window->add($button);

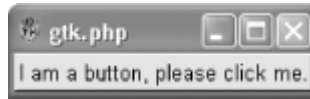
$window->show_all( );

function shutdown( ) { gtk::main_quit( ); }
$window->connect('destroy', 'shutdown');

gtk::main( );
```

The window that [Example 13-21](#) displays is shown in [Figure 13-2](#).

Figure 13-2. Displaying a button with PHP-GTK



Read about PHP-GTK in O'Reilly's *PHP Cookbook*, Recipes 20.5-20.8 and 20.10; and at <http://gtk.php.net>.

13.18 Even More Things You Can Do with PHP

There are even more extensions and built-in functions available than what's discussed in this chapter. Three good places to look to learn about PHP's function library, extensions, and add-ons are:

The PHP Manual (<http://www.php.net/manual/>)

Available in 24 languages, the online PHP Manual has information about all of PHP's built-in functions and lots of user-contributed comments.

The PEAR Package List (<http://pear.php.net/packages.php>)

PEAR is a collection of hundreds of add-on packages to PHP. The DB package covered in [Chapter 7](#) is probably the most popular one. This chapter highlights some others. When you need to solve a new problem with PHP, check out PEAR before you start to write your code. Someone may have already solved it for you.

The PECL Package List (<http://pecl.php.net/packages.php>)

PECL is another location for finding extensions to PHP. While the packages in PEAR are themselves written in PHP, PECL packages are written in C and provide access to external libraries or other resources.

Appendix A. Installing and Configuring the PHP Interpreter

If you want to write some PHP programs, you need a PHP interpreter to turn them from punctuation-studded text files into actual interactive web pages. The easiest way to get up and running with PHP is to sign up for a cheap or free web-hosting provider that offers PHP—but you can run the PHP interpreter on your own computer, too.

A.1 Using PHP with a Web-Hosting Provider

If you already have an account with a web-hosting provider, you probably have access to a PHP-enabled server. These days, it is the odd web-hosting provider that *doesn't* have PHP support. Usually, hosting providers configure their servers so that files whose names end in *.php* are treated as PHP programs. To see whether your hosted web site supports PHP, first save the file in [Example A-1](#) on your server as *phptest.php*.

Example A-1. PHP test program

```
<?php print "PHP enabled"; ?>
```

Load the file in your browser by visiting the right URL for your site (e.g., <http://www.example.com/phptest.php>). If you see just the message `PHP enabled`, then your hosted web site supports PHP. If you see the entire contents of the page (`<?php print "PHP enabled"; ?>`), then your hosting provider probably doesn't support PHP. Check with them, however, to make sure that they haven't turned on PHP for a different file extension or made some other nonstandard configuration choice.

If you can't use PHP with your web hosting provider (or you don't have one), the links at <http://www.php.net/links.php#hosts> are a good place to start when looking for a web-hosting provider that supports PHP.

A.2 Installing the PHP Interpreter

Installing the PHP interpreter on your own computer is a good idea if you don't have an account with a hosting provider, or you just want to experiment with PHP without exposing your programs to the entire Internet. If you're not using a hosting provider and want to install the PHP interpreter on your own computer, follow the instructions in this section. After you've installed the interpreter, you'll be able to run your own PHP programs.

Installing the PHP interpreter is a matter of downloading some files and putting them in the right places on your computer. You must also configure your web server so that it knows about PHP. This section contains instructions on how to do this for computers running Windows, Linux, Unix, and OS X. If you get stuck, check out the installation FAQ at <http://www.php.net/manual/faq.installation>.



As this section is being written, the final version of PHP 5 is not yet released. The instructions here are for PHP 4 but should be almost identical for PHP 5. The only difference may be in the names of some files or packages—for example, a `php5` Debian package instead of `php4`. For the latest information, see <http://www.oreilly.com/catalog/0596005601>.

A.2.1 Installing on Windows

You can install PHP after downloading it from the PHP web site, or you can download a third-party package that integrates PHP, Apache, and MySQL. Installing PHP is a good idea if you already have Apache or MySQL installed, or you want more control over your setup. The integrated packages are a convenient way to get everything up and running in one step.

A.2.1.1 Installing PHP

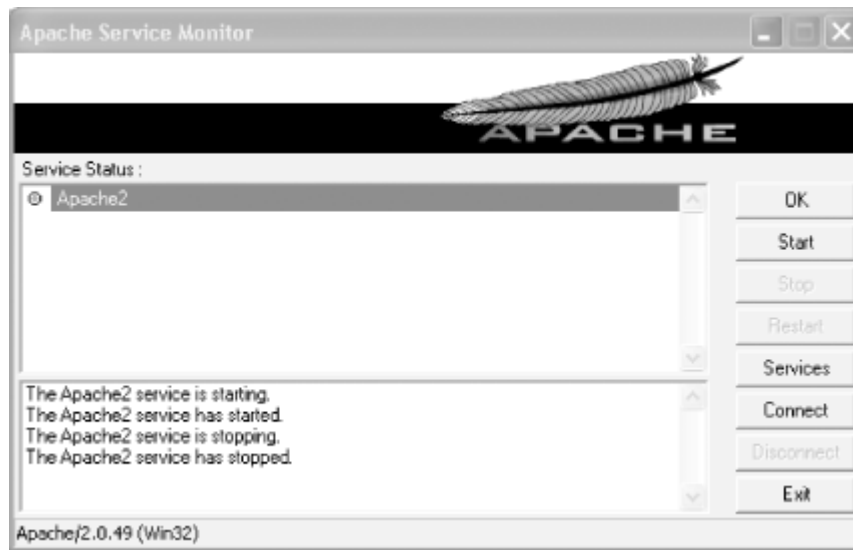
Download the PHP installation package from <http://www.php.net/downloads.php>. There are two versions of the Windows download available: the *installer* download and the *zip* download. Use the installer download. It is an installation program that you run after downloading. This program copies the PHP interpreter program and supporting files to the right places and helps you configure your web server program to work with the PHP interpreter. The zip version contains the PHP interpreter and a number of PHP extensions but no installation program. If you use the zip version, then you must copy the PHP interpreter program and other files to the right places. The installer download is easier to deal with.

Your web server should be installed before you run the PHP installer. If you want to use Apache, follow the instructions in the later section [Section A.4.1.1](#). However, Apache should not be running when you install PHP. Bring up the Apache monitor by double-clicking on the Apache Monitor icon in the System Tray, or go to Start → All Programs → Apache HTTP Server 2.0.49 → Control Apache Server → Monitor Apache Servers. This displays the window in [Figure A-1](#). Select Apache2 in the Service Status window and click Stop to stop Apache. If Apache is correctly stopped, the Service Monitor looks like [Figure A-2](#).

Figure A-1. Stopping Apache with the Apache Monitor



Figure A-2. Apache successfully stopped



Follow these steps to install the PHP interpreter:

1. Start the installer. It brings up a window that looks like [Figure A-3](#). Click Next. Agree to the PHP license on the next page and click Next to continue.
2. As shown in [Figure A-4](#), select the Standard installation. Click Next to continue.
3. As shown in [Figure A-5](#), install PHP into the default folder (`C:\PHP`). Click Next to continue.
4. As shown in [Figure A-6](#), enter information that the PHP interpreter uses when sending email messages: the address of your ISP's mail server and what will appear as the `From` address on those email messages.
5. As shown in [Figure A-7](#), select what kind of web server you are using.
6. As shown in [Figure A-8](#), click Next on the final screen to start the installation.

Figure A-3. Installing PHP

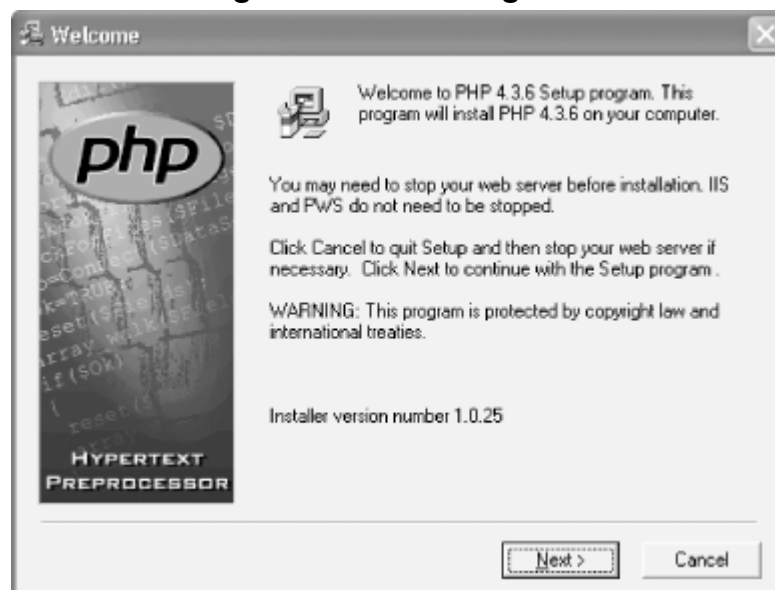


Figure A-4. Choosing standard PHP installation

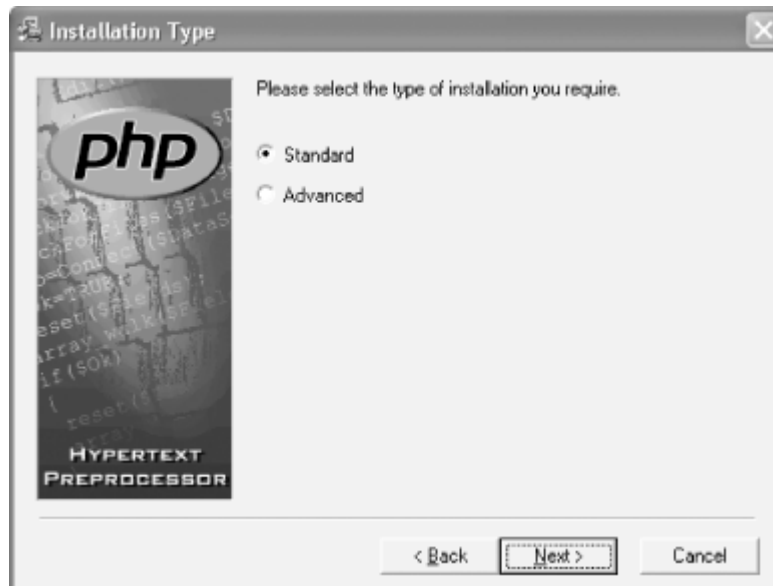


Figure A-5. Choosing the PHP installation folder

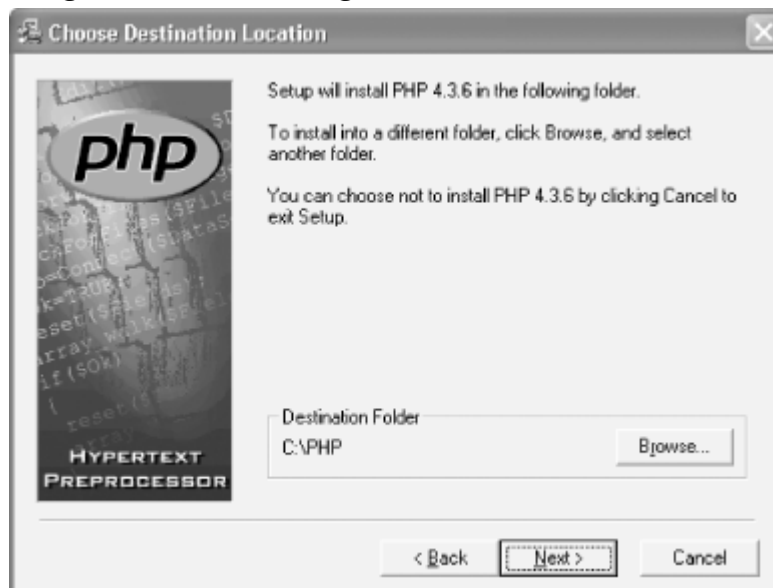


Figure A-6. Setting PHP mail configuration



Figure A-7. Selecting your web server

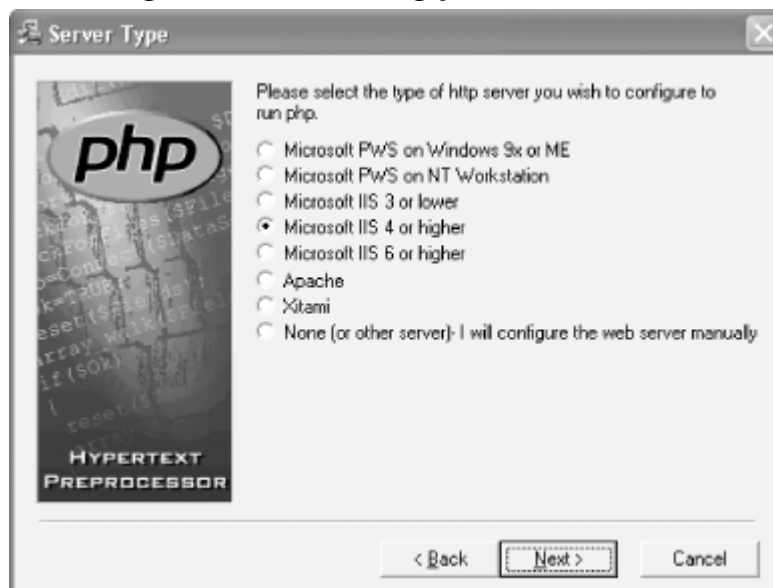
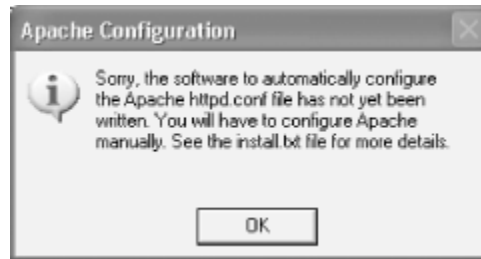


Figure A-8. Starting the PHP installation



When you choose Apache as your web server in the PHP installation process, you get the disappointing message shown in [Figure A-9](#).

Figure A-9. Installing PHP with Apache



You must configure Apache yourself so that it can work with PHP. First, make sure you followed the Apache installation procedure in [Section A.4.1.1](#). Then, add these lines to the very end of your Apache configuration file:

```
Alias /fcgi-bin/ "c:/php/"
FastCgiServer "c:/php/php.exe" -processes 5
AddType application/x-httpd-fastphp .php
Action application/x-httpd-fastphp /fcgi-bin/php.exe
```

Restart Apache from the Apache Monitor. Now, files whose names end with *.php* are handled by PHP. With the default Apache installation directory of *C:\Program Files\Apache Group*, the document root of your web site is *C:\Program Files\Apache Group\Apache2\htdocs*. So, the file *C:\Program Files\Apache Group\Apache2\htdocs\test.php* is accessible at the URL *http://localhost/test.php*.

If you're using IIS, the PHP installer does the work for you. Make sure that IIS is running when you start the PHP installer. When the installer is completed, IIS is configured to pass URLs that end with *.php* to the PHP interpreter. The default

document root for IIS is `C:\Inetpub\wwwroot`. So, the file `C:\Inetpub\wwwroot\test.php` is accessible at the URL `http://localhost/test.php`.

A.2.1.2 EasyPHP

The EasyPHP package makes it a snap to set up your Windows machine with everything you need for web development. You just need to download a single file to install the PHP interpreter, the MySQL database program, the Apache web server, and the PHPMyAdmin database administration program.

To use EasyPHP, download it from <http://www.easyphp.org/telechargements.php3> and then follow the installation instructions at <http://www.canowhoopass.com/guides/easyphp/>.

A.2.2 Installing on Linux and Unix

Most Linux distributions come with PHP already installed or with binary PHP packages that you can install. For example, if you're using Fedora Linux (<http://fedora.redhat.com/>), install the `php` RPM and the RPMs whose names begin with `php-`. If you're using Debian Linux (<http://www.debian.org/>), install the packages whose names begin with `php4-` and `libphp-`.

If those packages are out of date, you can build PHP yourself. From <http://www.php.net/downloads.php>, download the Complete Source Code `.tar.gz` package. From a shell prompt, uncompress and unpack the archive:

```
gunzip php-5.0.0.tar.gz
tar xvf php-5.0.0.tar
```

This creates a directory, `php-5.0.0`, that contains the PHP interpreter source code. Read the file `INSTALL` at the top level of the source code directory for detailed installation instructions. There is also an overview of PHP installation on Linux and Unix at <http://www.php.net/manual/install.unix>. Instructions for installing PHP with Apache 1.3 are at <http://www.php.net/manual/install.apache>. Instructions for installing PHP with Apache 2.0 are at <http://www.php.net/manual/install.apache2>.

A.2.3 Installing on OS X

OS X 10.3.3 comes with PHP 4.3.2 installed. However, the PEAR libraries that come with the default OS X PHP installation are misconfigured. To install a complete, updated version of PHP on OS X, go to <http://www.entropy.ch/software/macosx/php/> and download the latest installation package. This will be something like `Entropy-PHP-4.3.6-3.dmg` (the 4.3.6-3 part will change as PHP's version numbers change).

The package should automatically mount as a disk image and then pop up in a Finder window. If not, double-click on the downloaded file to mount it. The contents of the disk image are shown in [Figure A-10](#). Then, double-click on the `.pkg` file (e.g. `php-4.3.6.pkg`) to begin the installation procedure.

Figure A-10. The PHP installation package mounted as a disk image



Follow these steps to install PHP:

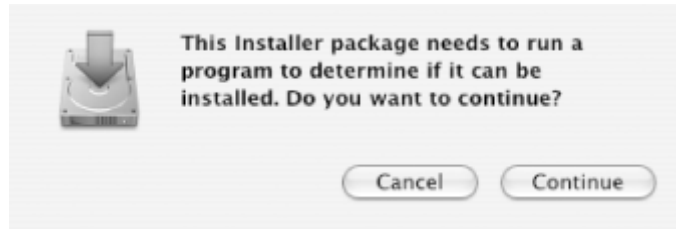
1. In the first step (shown in [Figure A-11](#)), click the Continue button.

Figure A-11. Beginning the OS X installation



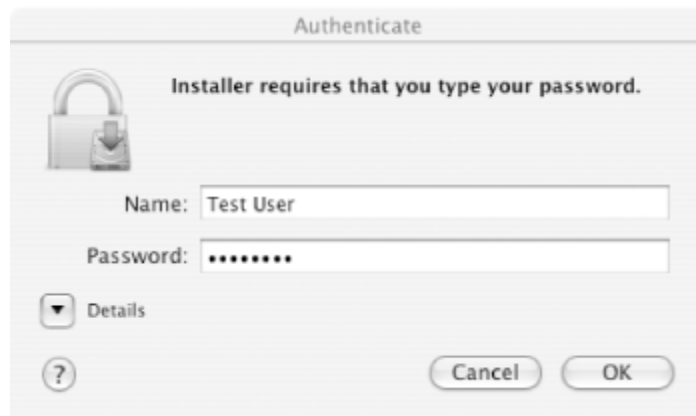
2. If you see a dialog box like the one in [Figure A-12](#), click the dialog box's Continue button.

Figure A-12. Continuing with OS X installation



3. Select the Destination Volume of the installation. This should be your system's main hard drive.
4. Click the Install button to install PHP.
5. If you see a dialog box like the one in [Figure A-13](#), enter your password. The installer needs it to copy some files into protected system areas.

Figure A-13. Entering your password for PHP installation



6. When the installation is complete, you'll see a window like the one in [Figure A-14](#).

Figure A-14. Completing the OS X installation



Make sure Personal Web Sharing is turned on as described in [Section A.4.1.2](#). Any files you put in the *Sites* subdirectory of your home directory are accessible under the URL `http://localhost/~username`. For example, if your username is `funes`, and you save a PHP program called `test.php` in your *Sites* directory, then you can run that PHP program by visiting the URL `http://localhost/~funes/test.php`.

A.3 Installing PEAR

Many PEAR modules, such as the DB module discussed in [Chapter 7](#), make your PHP programming life easier. They are high-quality code libraries that help you do all sorts of common tasks in PHP programs such as interacting with a database or generating an HTML form. I recommend always having the PEAR libraries available.

Depending on how you have installed PHP (or how your hosting provider has installed PHP), you may need to take extra steps to also install the PEAR base libraries (including DB) and its package management tool. To see whether you have PEAR installed properly, make a short PHP program that just attempts to include `DB.php`, as shown in [Example A-2](#).

Example A-2. Testing for PEAR installation

```
require 'DB.php';
if (class_exists('DB')) {
    print "ok";
} else {
    print "failed";
}
```

If PEAR is installed properly, [Example A-2](#) prints `ok`. PEAR is not installed correctly if the program prints `failed`, you get a blank page, or you see an error message like this:

```
Warning: main(DB.php) [function.main]: failed to open stream:
```

```
No such file or directory in /usr/local/apache/htdocs/pearcheck.php on line 2
```

```
Fatal error: main( ) [function.require]: Failed opening required 'DB.php'  
(include_path='.:usr/local/php/lib') in /usr/local/apache/htdocs/pearcheck.php  
on line 2
```

The specific steps to take to start the PEAR installation process vary based on your operating system. On Windows, visit <http://go-pear.org/> in a web browser and save the contents of that page as `C:\PHP\go-pear.org` (assuming you've installed PHP in `C:\PHP`). Then pass that file to the `php.exe` program. From the command prompt, type:

```
C:  
CD \PHP  
PHP go-pear.org
```

On Linux, as `root` at a shell prompt, type:

```
lynx -source go-pear.org | php
```

On OS X, at a Terminal shell prompt, type:

```
curl go-pear.org | sudo php
```

After you've started the PEAR installation process in the appropriate way, the next steps are the same on all platforms. The installation program asks a number of questions about how it should install PEAR. Use the default answers for all the questions, including when it asks you whether it should alter your `php.ini` file. The installation process must change the `include_path` setting in `php.ini` so that `require` and `include` work correctly with PEAR libraries.

Once PEAR has been installed successfully, run the PEAR package manager from a command or shell prompt to install and upgrade individual PEAR packages. The package manager is a program called `pear`. On Windows, you may need to be in the `C:\PHP` directory to run `pear`. On Linux, it should work from any directory, but you should be `root` when you run it. On OS X, you should run `sudo pear` so that the program has the appropriate permissions.

The OS X PHP package from www.entropy.ch installs its own complete copy of the base PEAR libraries and the PEAR package management tools. Because OS X 10.3.3 comes with a broken PEAR installation, however, you have to distinguish between them. If you just type `sudo pear` from the Terminal shell prompt, you run the pre-installed tool. To run the version installed with the www.entropy.ch package, you must type `sudo /usr/local/php/bin/pear`. To save yourself some typing, you can overwrite the preinstalled `pear` tool with the following:

```
sudo cp /usr/local/php/bin/pear /usr/bin/pear
```

Then, you can just type `sudo pear` at the Terminal shell prompt to access the right version of the package management tool.

The `pear` program understands a number of commands that control its behavior. You can see a list of them by running it with no additional arguments. The three most useful commands are `list`, which shows you what packages you have installed, `install`, which installs a new package, and `uninstall`, which removes an installed package.

For example, to list installed packages, type `pear list`. This prints a list of installed packages and their versions:

```
INSTALLED PACKAGES:
=====
PACKAGE          VERSION STATE
Archive_Tar      1.1     stable
Console_Getopt  1.2     stable
DB               1.6.2   stable
Mail             1.1.3   stable
Net_SMTP        1.2.6   stable
Net_Socket      1.0.1   stable
PEAR            1.3.1   stable
PHPUnit         1.0.1   stable
XML_Parser      1.1.0   stable
XML_RPC         1.1.0   stable
```

To install a package, type `pear install`. It's a good idea to use the `-a` flag with `install` so that any packages required by the package you're trying to install are also installed. For example, to install the `HTML_QuickForm` package discussed in [Section 13.7](#), type:

```
pear install -a HTML_QuickForm
```

The `HTML_QuickForm` package requires the `HTML_Common` package, so both are downloaded and installed. The `pear` program prints:

```
downloading HTML_QuickForm-3.2.2.tgz ...
Starting to download HTML_QuickForm-3.2.2.tgz (88,941 bytes)
.....done: 88,941 bytes
downloading HTML_Common-1.2.1.tgz ...
Starting to download HTML_Common-1.2.1.tgz (3,637 bytes)
...done: 3,637 bytes
install ok: HTML_Common 1.2.1
install ok: HTML_QuickForm 3.2.2
```

To remove a package, use `pear uninstall`. For example, to remove `HTML_QuickForm` and `HTML_Common`, you must run `pear uninstall` twice. First, uninstall `HTML_QuickForm`:

```
pear uninstall HTML_QuickForm
```

This prints:

```
uninstall ok: HTML_QuickForm
```

Then, uninstall HTML_Common:

```
pear uninstall HTML_Common
```

This prints:

```
uninstall ok: HTML_Common
```

HTML_QuickForm must be uninstalled before HTML_Common because HTML_QuickForm depends on HTML_Common. If you try to remove HTML_Common first, you get this error message:

```
Package 'html_quickform' depends on 'HTML_Common'  
uninstall failed
```

A.4 Downloading and Installing PHP's Friends

To build a web site with PHP, you need a web server. Apache is the most popular web server in the world. It's free, powerful, stable, and secure. What more could you ask for? You probably want a database program to use with your web site. One of the most common choices for a database program to go along with PHP is MySQL. This section shows you how to install Apache and MySQL on your computer.

The instructions in this section are only for people who are installing PHP on their own computers. If you are using a web-hosting provider's PHP setup, then don't install Apache and MySQL yourself. Your hosting provider has taken care of that for you.

A.4.1 Installing Apache

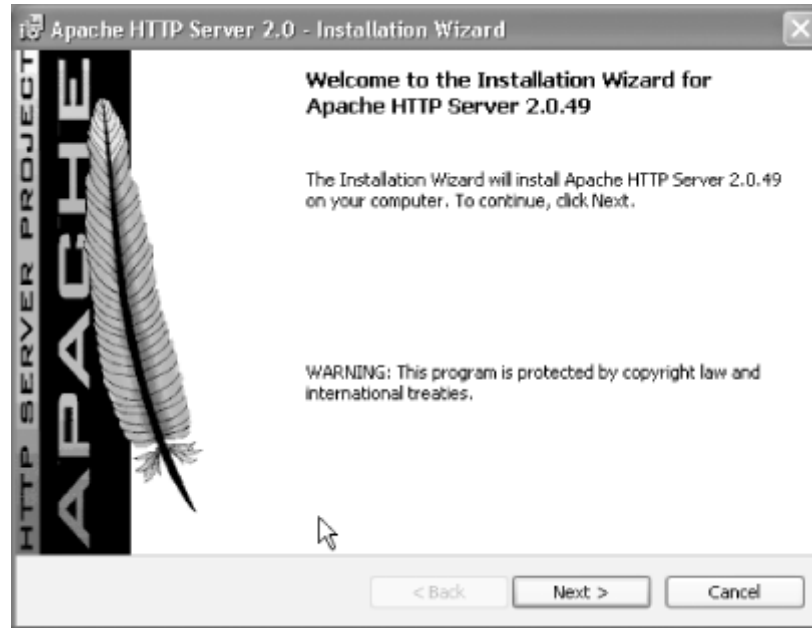
How you install Apache depends on what operating system you're using. Follow the appropriate instructions for your platform.

A.4.1.1 Apache on Windows

Take the following steps to install Apache on Windows:

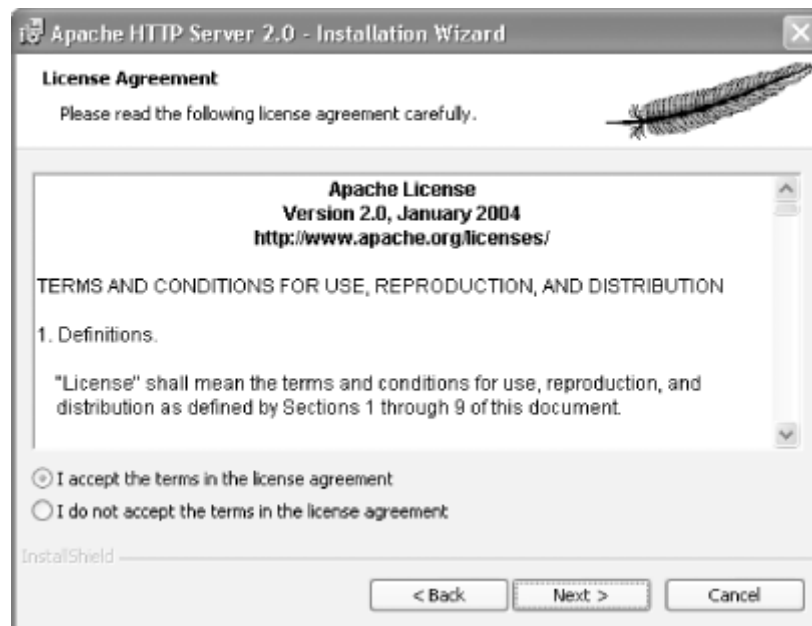
1. Go to <http://httpd.apache.org/download.cgi> and download the most recent version of the "Win32 Binary (MSI Installer)" for Apache 2. This is in a section of the page titled something like "Apache 2.0.49 is the best available version," and has a filename such as *apache_2.0.49-win32-x86-no_ssl.msi*. (As new versions of Apache are released, the 2.0.49 becomes 2.0.50 or 2.1.0 and so on.)
2. After the Installer downloads, double-click on it to run it. You should see a window like the one in [Figure A-15](#). Click the Next button to begin the installation procedure.

Figure A-15. Beginning the Windows Apache installation



3. Accept the terms of the Apache license agreement as shown in [Figure A-16](#). Read the next screen of background information about Apache and click Next to continue.

Figure A-16. Accepting the Apache license agreement



4. On the Server Information screen (Figure A-17), enter the appropriate information. If you're just interested in running Apache on your own computer for testing and experimentation, enter `localhost` for the network domain and server name. If you're running Apache on a computer that must be properly accessible from the Internet, enter the appropriate domain and server names. Put your email address in the Administrator's Email Address box. Choose the "for All Users . . ." radio button. Click Next to continue.

Figure A-17. Entering server information



5. On the Setup Type screen (Figure A-18), pick "Typical" and click Next to continue.
6. On the Destination Folder screen (Figure A-19), accept the default installation folder (`C:\Program Files\Apache Group\`) and click Next to continue.
7. On the next screen, click Install to install Apache.
8. When the installation has completed, click "Finish" to exit the Installer.
9. Next, you must install an extension to Apache called FastCGI that improves how PHP and Apache work together. Go to <http://www.fastcgi.com/dist/> and download the latest version of the FastCGI program for Apache 2. It has a filename such as `mod_fastcgi-2.4.2-AP20.dll`. The `2.4.2` part of the filename may change if a later version of FastCGI has been released (such as 2.4.3 or 2.5.0), but the file you download must end with `-AP20.dll`. Don't download a version of FastCGI that has `SNAP` in the filename.
10. Save `mod_fastcgi-2.4.2-AP20.dll` in `C:\Program Files\Apache Group\Apache2\modules`. (If you changed Apache's default installation folder, adjust where you save the FastCGI extension as well.)
11. Edit Apache's configuration file so that it knows about FastCGI. From the Start menu, Select All Programs → Apache HTTP Server 2.0.49 → Configure Apache Server → Edit the Apache httpd.conf Configuration File. Find the block of lines in the file that begin with `LoadModule` or `#LoadModule`. (For Apache 2.0.49, these are lines 134-172.)
12. After the last `LoadModule` or `#LoadModule` line (which is `#LoadModule ssl_module modules/mod_ssl.so` for Apache 2.0.49), add a line that looks like this:

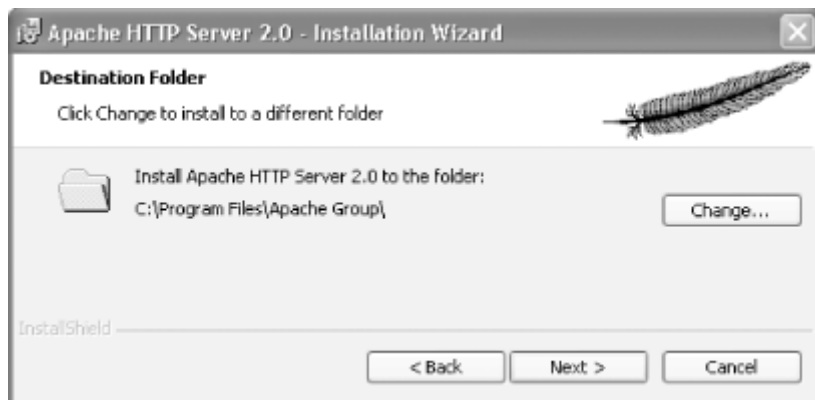

```
LoadModule fastcgi_module modules/mod_fastcgi-2.4.2-AP20.dll
```

If you downloaded a newer file than FastCGI 2.4.2, adjust the line you add to the Apache configuration file appropriately.

Figure A-18. Selecting the Typical Apache installation



Figure A-19. Selecting the Apache installation folder



Apache is now set up and ready for PHP to be installed.

A.4.1.2 Apache on OS X

Apache comes preinstalled with OS X. The preinstalled version of Apache is required to work with the *www.entropy.ch* PHP package. You must turn on Personal Web Sharing in the Sharing panel of the Internet & Network section of the System Preferences application to activate Apache. [Figure A-20](#) shows the Sharing panel.

Figure A-20. Turning on Personal Web Sharing



A.4.1.3 Apache on Linux

Apache comes preinstalled on most Linux distributions. If it is not installed, you can install Apache RPMs or packages. Look for Apache packages for your distribution. In Fedora Linux, these packages are the `httpd`, `httpd-devel`, and `httpd-manual` RPMs. In Debian Linux, the appropriate packages are `apache`, `apache-common`, and `apache-dev`.

If prebuilt packages aren't available for your distribution, you can download the source code for Apache from <http://httpd.apache.org/download.cgi> and build it by following the instructions at <http://httpd.apache.org/docs-2.0/install.html>.

A.4.2 MySQL

Binary MySQL packages are available for all common operating systems. For MySQL 4.1, go to <http://dev.mysql.com/downloads/mysql/4.1.html>. If you must use the older 4.0 version of MySQL, go to <http://dev.mysql.com/downloads/mysql/4.0.html>. On either page, find the appropriate download for your operating system.

Instructions for installation on Windows are at http://dev.mysql.com/doc/mysql/en/Windows_installation.html. For OS X, they are at http://dev.mysql.com/doc/mysql/en/Mac_OS_X_installation.html. There are also helpful OS X tips at <http://www.entropy.ch/software/macosx/mysql/>. For Linux, instructions are at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/mysql/en/Linux-RPM.html>. Information for other Unix operating systems is at http://dev.mysql.com/doc/mysql/en/Installing_binary.html.

A.5 Modifying PHP Configuration Directives

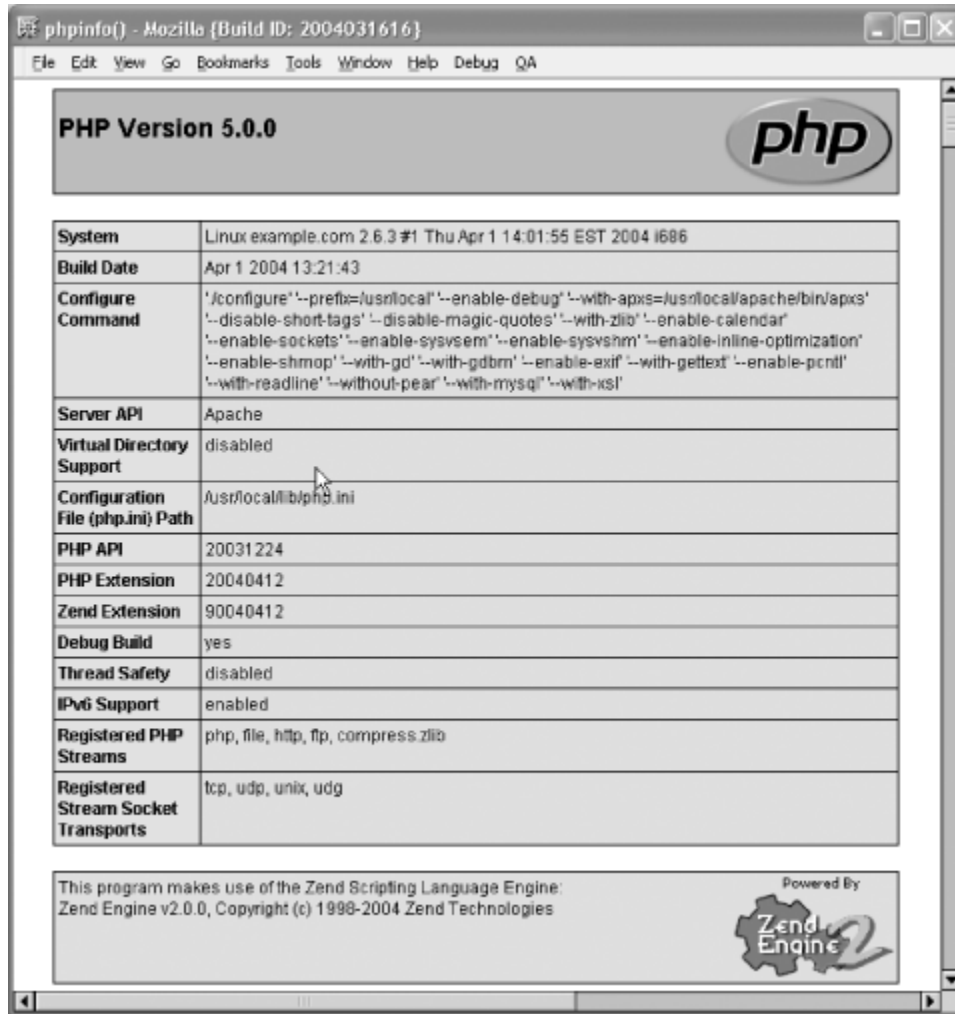
Earlier chapters in the book mention various PHP *configuration directives*. These are settings that affect the behavior of the PHP interpreter, such as how errors are reported, where the PHP interpreter looks for included files and extensions, and much more.

Read this section when you encounter a configuration directive you want to alter or are curious as to how you can tweak the PHP interpreter's settings (whether you are using PHP on your own computer or with a hosting provider). For example, changing the `output_buffering` directive (as discussed in [Section 8.6](#)) makes your life much easier if you are working with cookies and sessions.

The values of configuration directives can be changed in a few places: in the PHP interpreter's *php.ini* configuration file, in Apache's *httpd.conf* or *.htaccess* configuration files, and in your PHP programs. Not all configuration directives can be changed in all places. If you can edit your *php.ini* or *httpd.conf* file, it's easiest to set PHP configuration directives there. But if you can't change those files because of server permissions, then you can still change some settings in your PHP programs.

The *php.ini* file holds system-wide configuration for the PHP interpreter. When the web server process starts up, the PHP interpreter reads the *php.ini* file and adjusts its configuration accordingly. To find the location of your system's *php.ini* file, examine the output from the `phpinfo()` function. This function prints a report of the PHP interpreter's configuration. The tiny program in [Example A-3](#) produces a page that looks like the one in [Figure A-21](#).

Figure A-21. Output of `phpinfo()`



Example A-3. Getting configuration details with `phpinfo()`

```
<?php phpinfo( ); ?>
```

In [Figure A-21](#), the sixth line (Configuration File (php.ini) Path) shows that the `php.ini` file is `/usr/local/lib/php.ini`. Your `php.ini` file may be in a different place.

In the `php.ini` file, lines that begin with a semicolon (`;`) are comments. Lines that set values for configuration directives look like those shown in [Example A-4](#).

Example A-4. Sample lines in `php.ini`

```
; How to specify directories on Unix: forward slash for a separator
; and a colon between the directory names
include_path = ".:/usr/local/lib/php/includes"
```

```
; How to specify directories on Windows: backslash for a separator
; and a semicolon between the directory names
; Windows: "\path1;\path2"
```

```

include_path = ".;c:\php\includes"

; Report all errors but notices and coding standards violations
error_reporting = E_ALL & ~E_STRICT

; Record errors in the error log
log_errors = On

; Don't automatically create variables from form data
register_globals = Off

; An uploaded file can't be more than 2 megabytes
upload_max_filesize = 2M

; Sessions expire after 1440 seconds
session.gc_maxlifetime = 1440

```

The `error_reporting` configuration directive is set by combining built-in constants with logical operators. For example, the line `error_reporting = E_ALL & ~E_STRICT` sets `error_reporting` to `E_ALL` but not `E_STRICT`. The operators you can use are `&` ("and"), `|` ("either ... or"), and `~` ("not"). So, to the PHP interpreter, `E_ALL & ~E_STRICT` means `E_ALL` and not `E_STRICT`. You may find it easier to read "and not" as "but not," as in `E_ALL but not E_STRICT`. The setting `E_ALL | E_STRICT` means either `E_ALL` or `E_STRICT`.

When setting a configuration directive whose value is a number (such as `upload_max_filesize`), you can use `M` or `K` at the end of the number to multiply by 1,048,576 or 1,024. Setting `upload_max_filesize = 2M` is the same as setting `upload_max_filesize = 2097152`. There are 1,048,576 bytes in a megabyte, and $2,097,152 = 2 * 1,048,576$.

To change a configuration directive in Apache's `httpd.conf` or `.htaccess` file, you must use a slightly different syntax, shown in [Example A-5](#).

Example A-5. Sample PHP configuration lines in `httpd.conf`

```

; How to specify directories on Unix: forward slash for a separator
; and a colon between the directory names
php_value include_path ".:/usr/local/lib/php/includes"

; How to specify directories on Windows: backslash for a separator
; and a semicolon between the directory names
; Windows: "\path1;\path2"
php_value include_path ".;c:\php\includes"

; Report all errors but notices and coding standards violations
php_value error_reporting "E_ALL & ~E_STRICT"

; Record errors in the error log
php_flag log_errors On

; Don't automatically create variables from form data
php_flag register_globals Off

; An uploaded file can't be more than 2 megabytes
php_value upload_max_filesize 2M

```

```
; Sessions expire after 1440 seconds
php_value session.gc_maxlifetime 1440
```

The `php_flag` and `php_value` words in [Example A-5](#) tell Apache that the rest of the line is a PHP configuration directive. After `php_flag`, put the name of the configuration directive and then `On` or `Off`. After `php_value`, put the name of the directive and then its value. If the value has spaces in it (such as `E_ALL & ~E_STRICT`), you must put it in quotes. There is no equals sign between the name of the configuration directive and the value.

To change a configuration directive from within a PHP program, use the `ini_set()` function. [Example A-6](#) sets `error_reporting` from within a PHP program.

Example A-6. Changing a configuration directive with `ini_set()`

```
ini_set('error_reporting',E_ALL & ~E_STRICT);
```

The first argument to `ini_set()` is the name of the configuration directive to set. The second argument is the value to which you want to set the configuration directive. For `error_reporting`, that value is the same logical expression as you'd put in `php.ini`. For configuration directives whose values are strings or integers, pass the string or integer to `ini_set()`. For configuration directives whose value is `On` or `Off`, pass 1 (for `On`) or 0 (for `Off`) to `ini_set()`.

To find the value of a configuration directive from within a program, use `ini_get()`. Pass it the name of the configuration directive, and it returns the value. This is useful for adding a directory onto the `include_path`, as shown in [Example A-7](#).

Example A-7. Changing `include_path` with `ini_get()` and `ini_set()`

```
// These lines add /home/ireneo/php to the end of the include_path
$include_path = ini_get('include_path');
ini_set('include_path',$include_path . ':/home/ireneo/php');
```

As mentioned earlier, not all configuration directives can be set in all places. There are some configuration directives that cannot be set from within your PHP programs. These are directives that the PHP interpreter must know about before it starts reading your program, such as `output_buffering`. The `output_buffering` directive makes a change to the interpreter's behavior that must be active before the interpreter gets a look at your program, so you can't set `output_buffering` with `ini_set()`. In addition, some configuration directives are prohibited from being set in Apache `.htaccess` files and some from being set in the Apache `httpd.conf` file. All configuration directives can be set in the `php.ini` file.

The PHP Manual entry for `ini_set()` (http://www.php.net/ini_set) contains a table describing which configuration directives can be set in which places.

Some useful configuration directives to know about are listed in [Table A-1](#).

Table A-1. Useful configuration directives

Directive	Recommended value	Description
<code>allow_url_fopen</code>	On	Whether to allow functions such as <code>file_get_contents()</code> to work with URLs in addition to local files.
<code>auto_append_file</code>		Set this to a filename to have the PHP code in that file run after the PHP interpreter runs a program. This is useful for printing out a common page footer.
<code>auto_prepend_file</code>		Set this to a filename to have the PHP code in that file run before the PHP interpreter runs a program. This is useful for defining functions or including files that you use on your entire site.
<code>browscap</code>		Set this to the filename of a browser capabilities file. See Section 13.4 .
<code>display_errors</code>	On for debugging, Off for production	When this is on, the PHP interpreter prints errors as part of your program output.
<code>error_reporting</code>	E_ALL	This controls what kinds of errors the PHP interpreter reports. See Section 12.1 .
<code>extension</code>		Each <code>extension</code> line in <code>php.ini</code> loads a PHP extension. The extension library must be present on your system to load it.
<code>extension_dir</code>		What directory the PHP interpreter looks in to find extensions specified by the <code>extension</code> directive.
<code>file_uploads</code>	On	Whether to allow file uploads via forms.
<code>include_path</code>		A list of directories that the PHP interpreter looks for files loaded via <code>include</code> , <code>require</code> , <code>include_once</code> , and <code>require_once</code> .
<code>log_errors</code>	On	When this is on, the PHP interpreter puts program errors in the web server error log.
<code>magic_quotes_gpc</code>	Off	When this is on, the PHP interpreter automatically escapes submitted form data to prepare it for inclusion in an SQL query. See the Warning in Chapter 7 in Section 7.5 .
<code>magic_quotes_runtime</code>	Off	When this is on, the PHP interpreter automatically escapes data read from an external file to prepare it for inclusion in an SQL query.
<code>output_buffering</code>	On	When this is on, the PHP interpreter waits until your script runs before it sends HTTP headers, making it easier to use cookies and sessions. See Section 8.6 in Chapter 8 .
<code>register_globals</code>	Off	When this is on, the PHP interpreter creates individual variables for each submitted form or URL variable. For example, the global variable <code>dinner</code> would contain the value of the submitted form parameter <code>dinner</code> . Turning this on opens your PHP programs up to lots of security risks. Do not turn this on.

Table A-1. Useful configuration directives

Directive	Recommended value	Description
<code>session.auto_start</code>	On (if you're using sessions)	When this is on, the PHP interpreter starts a session at the beginning of each page, so you don't have to call <code>session_start()</code> .
<code>session.gc_maxlifetime</code>	1440	The number of seconds that a session should last. The default value of 1440 is fine for most applications.
<code>session.gc_probability</code>	1	The likelihood (out of 100) that expired sessions are cleaned up at the beginning of any request. The default value of 1 is fine for most applications.
SMTP		This directive is only used on Windows. It is the hostname of an SMTP server that should be used to send messages when you call the <code>mail()</code> function.
<code>short_open_tag</code>	Off	When this directive is on, you can start a PHP block with <code><?</code> as well as <code><?php</code> . Since not all servers are configured to accept short tags, it's good practice to leave this off and always use the <code><?php</code> start tag.
<code>track_errors</code>	On for debugging, Off for production	When this is on, the PHP interpreter stores an error message in the global variable <code>\$php_errormsg</code> when it encounters a problem. See Section 10.6 .
<code>upload_max_filesize</code>	2M	The maximum permitted size for an file uploaded via a form. Unless you are building an application that requires users to upload very large files, don't increase this value. Lots of large uploaded files can clog your server.

A.6 Appendix Summary

This appendix covers:

- Using PHP with a web-hosting provider.
- Installing the PHP interpreter on Windows, Linux, or OS X.
- Installing PEAR.
- Installing Apache on Windows, Linux, or OS X.
- Installing MySQL on Windows, Linux, or OS X.
- Using `phpinfo()` to see the PHP interpreter's configuration.
- Understanding the structure of the `php.ini` configuration file.
- Configuring the PHP interpreter in the `httpd.conf` configuration file.
- Reading and writing configuration directive values with `ini_get()` and `ini_set()`.
- Using common configuration directives.

Appendix B. Regular Expression Basics

Behind the innocuous and generic phrase *regular expression* lives an intricate and powerful world of text pattern matching. With regular expressions, you can make sure that a user really entered a ZIP Code or an email address in a form field, or find all the HTML `<a>` tags in a page. If your web site relies on data feeds that come in text files, such as sports scores, news articles, or frequently updated headlines, regular expressions can help you make sense of these.

This appendix provides an overview of the most useful and commonly encountered parts of the regular expression menagerie. By learning the special meanings of 5 or 10 symbols and 2 or 3 PHP functions, you can use regular expressions to solve most of the text-processing problems you run into when building a web site with PHP. There are some dark corners and steep ravines of the regular expression landscape that are not covered here, however, such as locale support, lookahead and assertions, and conditional subpatterns. To learn more about regular expressions, see the PCRE section of the PHP Manual, at <http://www.php.net/pcre>, or read the comprehensive *Mastering Regular Expressions* by Jeffrey E.F. Friedl (O'Reilly).

To work with regular expressions in PHP, use the functions in the PCRE (Perl-compatible regular expressions) extension.^[1] These functions are included with PHP by default and are described in the online manual at <http://www.php.net/pcre>. [Section B.6](#), later in this appendix, gives an overview of the PCRE functions. If you're already familiar with regular expression basics, read that section to learn the language-specific details of using regular expressions in PHP.

^[1] Generally, it's best to avoid the POSIX regular expression functions: `ereg()` and friends. They are not as capable as the PCRE functions.

A regular expression is a string. That string defines a pattern that matches other strings. For example, the regular expression `\d{5}(-\d{4})?` matches U.S. ZIP or ZIP+4 Codes:

`\d`

A digit (0-9)

`{5}`

A total of five of the previous item (a digit)

`-`

A literal - character

`\d`

A digit

{ 4 }

A total of four of the previous item (a digit)

() ?

Makes what's inside the parentheses optional

So, the regular expression `\d{5}(-\d{4})?` matches "five digits, optionally followed by a hyphen and four digits."

Here's another regular expression: `</?[bBiI]>`. This one matches opening or closing HTML `` or `<i>` tags:

<

A literal < character

/

A literal / character

?

Make the previous item (the /) optional

[bBiI]

One of anything inside the square brackets: b, B, i, or I

>

A literal > character

The regular expression `</?[bBiI]>` means "A less-than sign, followed by an optional forward slash, followed by a b, B, i, or I, followed by a greater-than sign." This matches eight HTML tags: ``, ``, ``, ``, `<i>`, `<I>`, `</i>`, and `</I>`.

B.1 Characters and Metacharacters

In a regular expression, some characters match themselves, such as the hyphen in the ZIP Code regex or the `<` in the HTML tag regex. Some characters have special meanings, such as the `?` that makes something optional or the square brackets that mean "one character from the list inside the square brackets." The characters that match themselves are called *literals*. The characters that have special meanings are called *metacharacters*.

A pattern containing only literals matches strings that contain the sequence of literals in the pattern. For example, the pattern `href=` matches the strings `Home`, `schref=`, and `set href=12`.

The metacharacter `.` (dot) matches any character.^[2] So, the pattern `d.g` matches `dog`, `d7g`, `adagio`, `digdug`, and `*d*g*`, among other possibilities. It also matches `d.g`, since dot (the metacharacter) matches a literal `.` character. Without a quantifier (introduced in [Section B.2](#)), dot matches exactly one character. This means that `d.g` doesn't match `ridge` (it has no characters between the `d` and the `g`) or `doug` (it has more than one character between the `d` and the `g`).

^[2] This isn't entirely true. By default, dot doesn't match a newline character. Turning on the `S` pattern modifier makes dot match newline, however. This and other pattern modifiers are explained later in this appendix in [Section B.6](#).

The metacharacter `|` (bar) is for alternation. Use alternation to construct a pattern that matches more than one set of characters. For example, `dog|cat` matches strings that contain `dog` or `cat`, such as `dog`, `cathode`, `redogame`, and `hotdog stand`. The pattern `dog|cat` does not mean "match `do`, then either `g` or `c`, then `at`." The alternation text generally includes everything back to the beginning of the pattern or forward to the end of the pattern. However, you can restrict the reach of alternation by enclosing the choices in parentheses. For example, `s(cr|in)ew` means "match `s`, then either `cr` or `in`, then `ew`"—it matches `screw`, `sinew`, and `my screwdriver`, but not `screen` or `deminews`. Without the parentheses, the pattern `scr|inew` means "match `scr` or `inew`." This still matches `screw` and `sinew`, but it also matches `screen` and `deminews`. Alternation can also be used with more than just two choices. For example, `s(cr|in|tr|ch)ew` matches `screw`, `sinew`, `strew`, and `eschew`.

Using parentheses to group together characters for alternation is called *grouping*. (Some things about regular expressions are straightforward.) Grouping also applies to quantifiers, as discussed in the next section. Parentheses also *capture* the text inside them for subsequent use. The characters that match the part of the pattern inside a set of parentheses are stored in a special variable so you can retrieve them later. Capturing is explained later in this appendix in more detail in [Section B.6.1](#) and [Section B.6.2](#).

B.2 Quantifiers

A *quantifier* is a metacharacter that tells "how many." You put a quantifier after an item to indicate you want to match that item a certain number of times. Quantifiers are listed in [Table B-1](#).

Table B-1. Quantifiers

Quantifier	How many times
*	Zero or more
+	One or more
?	Optional (zero or one)

Table B-1. Quantifiers

Quantifier	How many times
{x}	Exactly x
{x,}	At least x
{x,y}	At least x, but no more than y

To use a quantifier, put it immediately after the item you want to quantify. [Table B-2](#) shows some regular expressions with quantifiers.

Table B-2. Quantifier examples

Regular expression	Meaning	Matches	Doesn't match
ba+	b, then at least one a	ba, baa, baaa, rhumba, babar	b, abs, taaa-daaa, celeste
ba+na*s	b, at least one a, n, zero or more a, s	turbans, baanas, rhumbanas!	banana, bananas
ba(na){2}	ba, then na twice	banana, bananas, semi-banana, bananarama	cabana, banarama
ba{2,}ba{3,}	b, then at least two a, then b, then at least three a	baabaaa, baaaaabaaaaa, rhumbaabaaas	baabaa, babaaar, banana
(baa-){2,4}baa	baa- at least two, but not more than four times, then baa	baa-baa-baa, baa-baa-baa-baa-baa, oomp-pa-pa-baa-baa-baa-oomp-pa-pa	baa-baa, baa-baad-news
dogs? and cats?(and chickens?)?	dog, then an optional s, then and cat, then an optional s, then an optional and chicken or and chickens	dog and cat and chicken, dog and cat and chickens, hotdogs and cats, dogs and cat and chickens, dog and cats and chicken, dog and cat and chickensoup	doggies and cats, dogs and cats or chickens, dogss and catss, dog and cat and chickenlegs

Use the ? quantifier to indicate that something is optional, like in the U.S. ZIP Code pattern at the start of this appendix. A syntactically valid ZIP Code can be five digits, or five digits, a hyphen, and four more digits. The hyphen and last four digits are optional. Just like any other quantifier, to make ? apply to the entire optional section, the characters that match the hyphen and digits have to be grouped with parentheses.

B.3 Anchors

Anchors align a pattern for more specific matching. A pattern such as `ba(na)+` matches `banana` but also `cabana` or `bananarama`. As long as text matching `ba(na)+` is somewhere in a string, the pattern matches. An anchor, however, matches a pattern at the beginning or end of a string. The `^` anchor matches the beginning of a string and the `$` anchor matches the end of a string. For example, this pattern matches strings that begin with `Gre`:

```
^Gre
```

The pattern matches `Green`, `Grey Lantern`, and `Grep is my favorite`, but not `GGreen` `VVegetables`, `gre`, or `InGres`.

This pattern matches strings that end with an exclamation point:

```
!$
```

It matches `"Zip!"`, `"Zoom!"`, and `"Pow! Kablam!"`, but not `"Kerfloofie."`, `"! is the negation operator,"` `"Pow! Oh,"` or `"!!!!!!!!!?"`.

You can use both anchors in a single pattern to match an entire string. The pattern `^ba(na)+` matches `banana` and `bananarama` but not `cabana`. Similarly, `ba(na)+$` matches `banana` and `cabana` but not `bananarama`. Anchored on both ends, however, `^ba(na)+$` matches only `banana` (and `bananana`, `banananana`, and so on.) This pattern matches various nicknames for the name William:

```
^(w|W|b|B)illy?$
```

It matches `Will`, `will`, `Bill`, `bill`, `Willy`, `willy`, `Billy`, and `billy`, but not `Willa`, `billo`, `twill`, `handbill`, or `William`.

In addition to the `^` and `$` anchors, there are anchor metacharacters that deal with word boundaries. The `\b` anchor matches at a word boundary and `\B` matches everywhere that isn't a word boundary. A word boundary is between one character that is a letter, digit, or underscore and another character that is none of those.^[3] So, in the phrase `It's not a_tumor.`, the word boundaries are before the `I`, before and after the apostrophe, before and after each space, and before and after the period.

^[3] More specifically, a word boundary is between a place where something matches `\w` and something does not match `\w`. This includes the beginning of strings that start with word characters and the end of strings that end with word characters. The `\w` metacharacter is discussed in [Section B.4](#).

The word boundary anchors are useful for matching a string that could occur as part of another word. For example, this pattern matches `fish` only when it's not part of a compound word:

```
\b[fF]ish
```

The pattern matches `fish`, `Go fish!`, and `Hamilton Fish High School`, but not `bluefish`, `sportfishing`, or `swordfish`. However, it also matches `sport-fishing`, since a word boundary is between `-` and `f`.

B.4 Character Classes

A *character class* lets you represent a bunch of characters (a "class") as a single item in a regular expression. Put characters in square brackets to make a character class. A character class matches any one of the characters in the class. This pattern matches a person's name or a bird's name:

```
^D[ao]ve$
```

The pattern matches `Dave` or `Dove`. The character class `[ao]` matches either `a` or `o`.

To put a whole range of characters in a character class, just put the first and last characters in, separated by a hyphen. For instance, to match all English alphabetic characters:

```
[a-zA-Z]
```

When you use a hyphen in a character class to represent a range, the character class includes all the characters whose ASCII values are between the first and last character (and the first and last character). If you want a literal hyphen inside a character class, you must backslash-escape it. The character class `[a-z]` is the same as `[abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz]`, but the character class `[a\-z]` matches only three characters: `a`, `-`, and `z`.

You can also create a *negated character class*, which matches any character that is not in the class. To create a negated character class, begin the character class with `^`:

```
// Match everything but letters  
[^a-zA-Z]
```

The character class `[^a-zA-Z]` matches every character that isn't an English letter: digits, punctuation, whitespace, and control characters. Even though `^` is used as an anchor outside of character classes, its only special meaning inside a character class is negation. If you want to use a literal `^` inside a character class, either don't put it first in the character class or backslash-escape it. Each of these patterns match the same strings:

```
[0-9][%^][0-9]  
[0-9][\^%][0-9]
```

Each pattern matches a digit, then either `%` or `^`, then another digit. This matches strings such as `5^5`, `3%2`, or `1^9`.

Character classes are more efficient than alternation when choosing among single characters. Instead of `s(a|o|i)p`, which matches `sap`, `sop`, and `sip`, use `s[aoi]p`.

Some commonly used character classes are also represented by dedicated metacharacters, which are more concise than specifying every character in the class. These metacharacters are shown in [Table B-3](#).

Table B-3. Character class metacharacters

Metacharacter	Description	Equivalent class
\d	Digits	[0-9]
\D	Non-digits	[^0-9]
\w	Word characters	[a-zA-Z0-9_]
\W	Non-word characters	[^a-zA-Z0-9_]
\s	Whitespace	[\t\n\r\f]
\S	Non-whitespace	[^ \t\n\r\f]

These metacharacters can be used just like character classes. This pattern matches valid 24-hour clock times:

```
([0-1]\d|2[0-3]):[0-5]\d
```

You can also include these metacharacters inside a character class with other characters. This pattern matches hexadecimal numbers:

```
[\da-fA-F]+
```

B.5 Greed

Quantifiers in the PHP interpreter's regular expression engine are *greedy*. This means they match as much as they can. The pattern `.*` means "the string ``, then zero or more characters, then the string ``." The "more" in "zero or more" matches as many characters as possible. When the pattern is applied to the string `Look Out! <i>Caution!</i> Uh-Oh!`, the `.*` matches `Look Out! <i>Caution!</i> Uh-Oh!`. The greediness of the quantifier causes it to skip over the first `` it sees and gobble up characters to the last `` in the string.

To turn a quantifier from greedy to nongreedy, put a question mark after it. The pattern `.*?` still matches "the string ``, then zero or more characters, then the string ``", but now the "more" in "zero or more" matches as few characters as possible. [Example B-1](#) shows the difference between greedy and nongreedy matching with `preg_match_all()`. ([Example B-5](#) details how `preg_match_all()` works, including the meaning of the `@` characters at the start and end of the pattern.)

Example B-1. Greedy and nongreedy matching

```
$meats = "<b>Chicken</b>, <b>Beef</b>, <b>Duck</b>";

// With a non-greedy quantifier, each meat is matched separately
preg_match_all('@<b>.*?</b>@', $meats, $matches);
foreach ($matches[0] as $meat) {
    print "Meat A: $meat\n";
}

// With a greedy quantifier, the whole string is matched just once
preg_match_all('@<b>.*</b>@', $meats, $matches);
```

```
foreach ($matches[0] as $meat) {
    print "Meat B: $meat\n";
}
```

[Example B-1](#) prints:

```
Meat A: <b>Chicken</b>
Meat A: <b>Beef</b>
Meat A: <b>Duck</b>
Meat B: <b>Chicken</b>, <b>Beef</b>, <b>Duck</b>
```

The nongreedy quantifier in the first pattern makes the first match by `preg_match_all()` stop short at the first `` it sees. This leaves part of `$meats` to be matched by subsequent applications of the pattern by `preg_match_all()`.

But with the greedy quantifier in the second example, the first match by `preg_match_all()` scoops up all of the text, leaving nothing matchable for subsequent applications of the pattern.

B.6 PHP's PCRE Functions

Use the functions in PHP's PCRE extension to work with regular expressions in your programs. These functions allow you to match a string against a pattern and to alter a string based on how it matches a pattern. When you pass a pattern to one of the PCRE functions, it must be enclosed in delimiters. Traditionally, the delimiters are slashes, but you can use any character that's not a letter, number, or backslash as a delimiter. If the character you choose as a delimiter appears in the pattern, it must be backslash-escaped in the pattern, so you should only use a nonslash delimiter when a slash is in your pattern.

After the closing delimiter, you can add one or more pattern modifiers to change how the pattern is interpreted. These modifiers are listed at <http://www.php.net/pcre.pattern.modifiers>. One handy modifier is `i`, which makes the pattern matching case-insensitive. For example, the patterns (with delimiters) `/[a-zA-Z]+/` and `/[a-z]+/i` produce the same results.

Another useful modifier is `s`, which makes the dot metacharacter match newlines. The pattern (with delimiters) `@.*?@` matches a set of `` tags and the text between them, but only if that text is all on one line. To match text that may include newlines, use the `s` modifier:

```
@<b>.*?</b>@s
```

B.6.1 Matching

The `preg_match()` function tests whether a string matches a pattern. Pass it the pattern and the string to test as arguments. It returns `1` if the string matches the pattern and `0` if it doesn't. [Example B-2](#) demonstrates `preg_match()`.

Example B-2. Matching with `preg_match()`

```
// Test the value of $_POST['zip'] against the
```



```
// pattern ^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$
if (preg_match('/^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$/',$_POST['zip'])) {
    print $_POST['zip'] . ' is a valid US ZIP Code';
}

// Test the value of $html against the pattern <b>[^<]+</b>
// The delimiter is @ since / occurs in the pattern
$is_bold = preg_match('@<b>[^<]+</b>@',$html);
```

A set of parentheses in a pattern capture what matches the part of the pattern inside the parentheses. To access these captured strings, pass an array to `preg_match()` as a third argument. The captured strings are put into the array. The first element of the array (element 0) contains the string that matches the entire pattern, and subsequent array elements contain the strings that match the parts of the pattern in each set of parentheses. [Example B-3](#) shows how to use `preg_match()` with capturing.

Example B-3. Capturing with `preg_match()`

```
// Test the value of $_POST['zip'] against the
// pattern ^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$
if (preg_match('/^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$/',$_POST['zip'],$matches)) {
    // $matches[0] contains the entire zip
    print "$matches[0] is a valid US ZIP Code\n";
    // $matches[1] contains the five digit part inside the first
    // set of parentheses
    print "$matches[1] is the five-digit part of the ZIP Code\n";
    // If they were present in the string, the hyphen and ZIP+4 digits
    // are in $matches[2]
    if (isset($matches[2])) {
        print "The ZIP+4 is $matches[2];";
    } else {
        print "There is no ZIP+4";
    }
}

// Test the value of $html against the pattern @<b>[^<]+</b>
// The delimiter is @ since / occurs in the pattern
$is_bold = preg_match('@<b>([<]+)</b>@',$html,$matches);
if ($is_bold) {
    // $matches[1] contains what's inside the bold tags
    print "The bold text is: $matches[1]";
}
```

Each bit of text that matches the parts of the pattern in each set of parentheses goes into its own element in `$matches`. The parentheses map to array elements in order of the opening parentheses from left to right. [Example B-4](#) uses `preg_match()` with nested parentheses to illustrate how the captured strings are put into `$matches`.

Example B-4. Capturing with nested parentheses

```
if (preg_match('/^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$/',$_POST['zip'],$matches)) {
    print "The beginning of the ZIP Code is: $matches[1]\n";
    // $matches[2] contains what's in the second set of parentheses:
    // The hyphen and the last four digits
```

```

    // $matches[3] contains just the last four digits
    if (isset($matches[2])) {
        print "The ZIP+4 is: $matches[3]";
    }
}

```

If `$_POST['zip']` is 19096-2321, [Example B-4](#) prints:

```

The beginning of the ZIP Code is: 19096
The ZIP+4 is: 2321

```

A companion to `preg_match()` is `preg_match_all()`. While `preg_match()` just matches a pattern against a string once, `preg_match_all()` matches a pattern against a string as many times as the pattern allows and returns the number of times it matched. [Example B-5](#) illustrates the difference between the two functions.

Example B-5. Matching with `preg_match_all()`

```

$html = <<<_HTML_
<ul>
<li>Beef Chow-Fun</li>
<li>Sauteed Pea Shoots</li>
<li>Soy Sauce Noodles</li>
</ul>
_HTML_ ;

preg_match('@<li>(.*?)</li>@', $html, $matches);
$match_count = preg_match_all('@<li>(.*?)</li>@', $html, $matches_all);

print "preg_match_all( ) matched $match_count times.\n";

print "preg_match( ) array: ";
var_dump($matches);

print "preg_match_all( ) array: ";
var_dump($matches_all);

```

[Example B-5](#) prints:

```

preg_match_all( ) matched 3 times.
preg_match( ) array: array(2) {
  [0]=>
  string(22) "<li>Beef Chow-Fun</li>"
  [1]=>
  string(13) "Beef Chow-Fun"
}
preg_match_all( ) array: array(2) {
  [0]=>
  array(3) {
    [0]=>
    string(22) "<li>Beef Chow-Fun</li>"
    [1]=>

```

```

    string(27) "<li>Sauteed Pea Shoots</li>"
    [2]=>
    string(26) "<li>Soy Sauce Noodles</li>"
}
[1]=>
array(3) {
    [0]=>
    string(13) "Beef Chow-Fun"
    [1]=>
    string(18) "Sauteed Pea Shoots"
    [2]=>
    string(17) "Soy Sauce Noodles"
}
}

```

The first array printed is the `$matches` array populated by `preg_match()`. Element 0 is the string that matches the entire pattern, and element 1 is the string that is captured by the first set of parentheses. The pattern `(.*?)` matches an item in an HTML list. With `preg_match()`, this pattern just matches the first list item in `$html`. After finding one successful match, `preg_match()` is done.

The `preg_match_all()` function behaves differently. After matching against the first list item like `preg_match()` does, it tries to match the pattern again, starting in the string where the first match left off. After a successful match, `preg_match_all()` starts over at the character after the match. This process repeats until `preg_match_all()` is out of characters. Element 0 of the `$matches_all` array populated by `preg_match_all()` contains an array of entire-pattern matches. The first time through the string, the entire pattern matched `Beef Chow-Fun`, so that's the first element of this subarray. The second time through, the entire pattern matched `Sauteed Pea Shoots`, so that's the second element of this subarray, and so on. Element 1 of the `$matches_all` array contains the strings captured by the first set of parentheses each time through the string: `Beef Chow-Fun`, `Sauteed Pea Shoots`, and `Soy Sauce Noodles`.

There are some flags you can pass to `preg_match()` and `preg_match_all()` that affect how the captured strings are stored in the `$matches` array. The flags are listed in the PHP Manual at http://www.php.net/preg_match and http://www.php.net/preg_match_all.

Captured text can itself be part of a pattern by using backreferences. These are metacharacters within a pattern that refer to captured strings by number. A backreference is a backslash followed by the number of the captured string. [Example B-6](#) uses a backreference to match starting and ending HTML tags.

Example B-6. Matching using backreferences

```

$ok_html = "I <b>love</b> shrimp dumplings.";
$bad_html = "I <b>love</i> shrimp dumplings.";

if (preg_match('@<([bi])>.*?</\1>@', $ok_html)) {
    print "Good for you! (OK, Backreferences)\n";
}
if (preg_match('@<([bi])>.*?</\1>@', $bad_html)) {
    print "Good for you! (Bad, Backreferences)\n";
}
if (preg_match('@<[bi]>.*?</[bi]>@', $ok_html)) {
    print "Good for you! (OK, No backreferences)\n";
}

```

```

}
if (preg_match('@<[bi]>.*?</[bi]>@', $bad_html)) {
    print "Good for you! (Bad, No backreferences)\n";
}

```

[Example B-6](#) prints:

```

Good for you! (OK, Backreferences)
Good for you! (OK, No backreferences)
Good for you! (Bad, No backreferences)

```

The backreferences in the first two patterns ensure that the closing tag matches the opening tag. The `b` in the opening tag has to match a `/b` in the closing tag. This is why the `OK, Backreferences` line prints, but not the `Bad, Backreferences` line. The `$bad_html` string doesn't match the backreferences pattern because its tags don't match. The patterns without backreferences match either a `` or `<i>` opening tag and either a `` or `</i>` closing tag, whether or not the opening and closing tags go together. So, both `No backreferences` lines are printed.

B.6.2 Replacing

The `preg_replace()` function looks for parts of a string that match a pattern and then replaces those matching parts with new text. Pass `preg_replace()` a pattern, replacement text, and a string to search, as shown in [Example B-7](#). The function returns the changed string.

Example B-7. Replacing with `preg_replace()`

```
$members=<<<TEXT
```

```

Name                E-Mail Address
-----
Inky T. Ghost       inky@pacman.example.com
Donkey K. Gorilla   kong@banana.example.com
Mario A. Plumber    mario@franchise.example.org
Bentley T. Bear     bb@xtal-castles.example.net
TEXT;

```

```

print preg_replace('/^[^@\s]+@([-a-z0-9]+\.)+[a-z]{2,}/',
    '[ address removed ]', $members);

```

[Example B-7](#) uses the email address-matching regular expression from [Section 6.4.4](#) to replace email addresses with the string `[address removed]`. It prints:

```

Name                E-Mail Address
-----
Inky T. Ghost       [ address removed ]
Donkey K. Gorilla   [ address removed ]
Mario A. Plumber    [ address removed ]
Bentley T. Bear     [ address removed ]

```

You can use backreferences to include captured text in replacement strings. [Example B-8](#) doesn't remove email addresses entirely, but changes the @ to "at".

Example B-8. Replacing using backreferences

```
$members=<<<TEXT
```

```
Name                E-Mail Address
-----
Inky T. Ghost       inky@pacman.example.com
Donkey K. Gorilla   kong@banana.example.com
Mario A. Plumber    mario@franchise.example.org
Bentley T. Bear     bb@xtal-castles.example.net
TEXT;

print preg_replace('/([\^\s]+)@([\-a-z0-9]+\.[a-z]{2,})/',
                  '\1 at \2', $members);
```

[Example B-8](#) prints:

```
Name                E-Mail Address
-----
Inky T. Ghost       inky at pacman.example.com
Donkey K. Gorilla   kong at banana.example.com
Mario A. Plumber    mario at franchise.example.org
Bentley T. Bear     bb at xtal-castles.example.net
```

B.6.3 Array Processing

The `preg_split()` function is a souped-up version of the `explode()` function from [Chapter 4](#). With `preg_split()`, the delimiter that chops up a string is a regular expression. Use `preg_split()` when you want to break a string apart based on something more complicated than a literal sequence of characters. [Example B-9](#) uses `preg_split()` with a string containing a list of things to eat. The `preg_split()` function is necessary because the things to eat aren't all separated by the same delimiter.

Example B-9. Using `preg_split()`

```
$sea_creatures = "cucumber;jellyfish, conger eel,shrimp, crab roe; bluefish";
// Break apart the string on a comma or semicolon
// followed by an optional space
$creature_list = preg_split('/[,;] ?/', $sea_creatures);
print "Would you like some $creature_list[2]?";
```

[Example B-9](#) prints:

```
Would you like some conger eel?
```

A third argument to `preg_split()` sets a maximum number of elements in the list that gets returned. In [Example B-10](#), `$creature_list` has only three elements.

Example B-10. Limiting the number of returned elements with `preg_split()`

```
$sea_creatures = "cucumber;jellyfish, conger eel,shrimp, crab roe; bluefish";
// Break apart the string into at most three elements
$creature_list = preg_split('/', ?/', $sea_creatures, 3);
print "The last element is $creature_list[2]";
```

When the number of elements is limited, `preg_split()` puts everything extra in the last element. [Example B-10](#) prints:

```
The last element is conger eel,shrimp, crab roe; bluefish
```

If there are two successive delimiters in the string, `preg_split()` inserts an empty string into the array that it returns. Usually, you want to tell `preg_split()` not to include empty elements in the array it returns by specifying the constant `PREG_SPLIT_NO_EMPTY` as a fourth argument. When you do this, you either need to specify a limit as a third argument or pass `-1` as the third argument to tell `preg_split()` "no limit." [Example B-11](#) uses this feature to count the words in `$text`.

Example B-11. Discarding empty elements with `preg_split()`

```
$text=<<<TEXT
"It's time to ring again," said Tom rebelliously.
"I agree! I'll help you," said Jerry resoundingly.
TEXT;

// Get each of the words in $text, but don't put the whitespace and
// punctuation into $words. The -1 for the limit argument means "no limit"
$words = preg_split('/[",.\!\s]/', $text, -1, PREG_SPLIT_NO_EMPTY);

print 'There are ' . count($words) . ' words in the text.';
```

[Example B-11](#) prints:

```
There are 16 words in the text.
```

The `preg_grep()` function finds elements of an array whose values match a regular expression. [Example B-12](#) uses `preg_grep()` to find all of the words from [Example B-11](#) that contain consecutive double letters.

Example B-12. Using `preg_grep()`

```
$text=<<<TEXT
"It's time to ring again," said Tom rebelliously.
"I agree! I'll help you," said Jerry resoundingly.
TEXT;

$words = preg_split('/[",.\!\s]/', $text, -1, PREG_SPLIT_NO_EMPTY);
```

```
// Find words that contain double letters
$double_letter_words = preg_grep('/([a-z])\1/i',$words);

foreach ($double_letter_words as $word) {
    print "$word\n";
}
```

[Example B-12](#) prints:

```
rebelliously
agree
I'll
Jerry
```

B.7 Appendix Summary

[Appendix B](#) covers:

- Thinking about what you can use a regular expression for.
- Understanding the difference between literals and metacharacters.
- Using the metacharacters `.` (dot) and `|` (bar).
- Using the quantifiers `*`, `+`, `?`, `{x}`, `{x,}`, and `{x,y}`.
- Anchoring a regular expression with `^` or `$`.
- Anchoring a regular expression with `\b` or `\B`.
- Using a character class.
- Using a negated character class.
- Using character class metacharacters such as `\d`, `\D`, `\w`, `\W`, `\s`, and `\S`.
- Understanding greed (in a regular expression context, at least).
- Making quantifiers greedy or nongreedy.
- Matching with `preg_match()`.
- Capturing with `preg_match()`.
- Matching and capturing with `preg_match_all()`.
- Using backreferences in a regular expression.
- Replacing with `preg_replace()`.
- Using backreferences when replacing.
- Making an array from a string with `preg_split()`.
- Selecting array elements with `preg_grep()`.

B.8 Exercises

1. Write a regular expression that flexibly matches a U.S. phone number whether or not it has parentheses around the area code and has its parts separated by spaces, hyphens, or periods. The regular expression should match phone numbers written like this:
 - o (718) 498-1043

- (718) 498 1043
 - 718 498 1043
 - 718 498-1043
 - 718-498-1043
 - 718.498.1043
2. What would you add to a `validate_form()` function to check that a submitted form field named `username` contains only letters and numbers? Use `if()`, `preg_match()`, and a regular expression.
 3. Starting with the code from [Example 10-3](#), write a program that retrieves the weather page for your ZIP Code and parses that page with a regular expression to get the current temperature.
 4. Write a program that retrieves a remote web page and prints a list of the hyperlinks in that page. Just look for links that look like this: `The Example Page`. Don't worry about links with other attributes in the `<a>` tag.

Appendix C. Answers To Exercises

[Section C.1. Chapter 2](#)

[Section C.2. Chapter 3](#)

[Section C.3. Chapter 4](#)

[Section C.4. Chapter 5](#)

[Section C.5. Chapter 6](#)

[Section C.6. Chapter 7](#)

[Section C.7. Chapter 8](#)

[Section C.8. Chapter 9](#)

[Section C.9. Chapter 10](#)

[Section C.10. Chapter 11](#)

[Section C.11. Chapter 12](#)

[Section C.12. Appendix B](#)

C.1 Chapter 2

C.1.1 Exercise 1:

1. The opening PHP tag should be `<?php`. There should not be a space between `<?` and `php`.
2. The string `'I'm fine'` should either be enclosed in double quotes (`"I'm fine"`) or the apostrophe should be escaped (`'I\'m fine'`).
3. The closing PHP tag should be `?>`, not `??>`.

C.1.2 Exercise 2:

```
$hamburger = 4.95;
$milkshake = 1.95;
$cola = .85;
$food = 2 * $hamburger + $milkshake + $cola;
$tax = $food * .075;
$tip = $food * .16;
$total = $food + $tax + $tip;
print "Total cost of the meal is \$$total";
```

C.1.3 Exercise 3:

```
$hamburger = 4.95;
$milkshake = 1.95;
$cola = .85;
$food = 2 * $hamburger + $milkshake + $cola;
$tax = $food * .075;
$tip = $food * .16;
printf("%1d %9s at \$.2f each: \$.2f\n", 2, 'Hamburger', $hamburger, 2 * $hamburger);
printf("%1d %9s at \$.2f each: \$.2f\n", 1, 'Milkshake', $milkshake, $milkshake);
printf("%1d %9s at \$.2f each: \$.2f\n", 1, 'Cola', $cola, $cola);
printf("%25s: \$.2f\n", 'Food and Drink Total', $food);
printf("%25s: \$.2f\n", 'Total with Tax', $food + $tax);
printf("%25s: \$.2f\n", 'Total with Tax and Tip', $food + $tax + $tip);
```

C.1.4 Exercise 4:

```
$first_name = 'James';
$last_name = 'McCawley';
$full_name = "$first_name $last_name";
print $full_name;
print strlen($full_name);
```

C.1.5 Exercise 5:

```
$i = 1; $j = 2;
print "$i $j";
$i++; $j *= 2;
print "$i $j";
$i++; $j *= 2;
print "$i $j";
```

```
$i++; $j *= 2;  
print "$i $j";  
$i++; $j *= 2;  
print "$i $j";
```

C.2 Chapter 3

C.2.1 Exercise 1:

- a. false
- b. true
- c. true
- d. false
- e. false
- f. true
- g. true

C.2.2 Exercise 2:

Message 3.Age: 12. Shoe Size: 14

C.2.3 Exercise 3:

```
$fahr = -50;
$stop_fahr = 50;
print '<table>';
print '<tr><th>Fahrenheit</th><th>Celsius</th></tr>';
while ($fahr <= $stop_fahr) {
    $celsius = ($fahr - 32) * 5 / 9;
    print "<tr><td>$fahr</td><td>$celsius</td></tr>";
    $fahr += 5;
}
print '</table>';
```

C.2.4 Exercise 4:

```
print '<table>';
print '<tr><th>Fahrenheit</th><th>Celsius</th></tr>';
for ($fahr = -50; $fahr <= 50; $fahr += 5) {
    $celsius = ($fahr - 32) * 5 / 9;
    print "<tr><td>$fahr</td><td>$celsius</td></tr>";
}
print '</table>';
```

C.3 Chapter 4

C.3.1 Exercise 1:

```
$population = array('New York, NY' => 8008278,  
                   'Los Angeles, CA' => 3694820,  
                   'Chicago, IL' => 2896016,  
                   'Houston, TX' => 1953631,  
                   'Philadelphia, PA' => 1517550,  
                   'Phoenix, AZ' => 1321045,  
                   'San Diego, CA' => 1223400,  
                   'Dallas, TX' => 1188580,  
                   'San Antonio, TX' => 1144646,  
                   'Detroit, MI' => 951270);  
  
$total_population = 0;  
print "<table><tr><th>City</th><th>Population</th></tr>\n";  
foreach ($population as $city => $people) {  
    $total_population += $people;  
    print "<tr><td>$city</td><td>$people</td></tr>\n";  
}  
print "<tr><td>Total</td><td>$total_population</td></tr>\n";  
print "</table>\n";
```

C.3.2 Exercise 2:

1. Use `asort()` to sort by population.

```
2. $population = array('New York, NY' => 8008278,  
3.     'Los Angeles, CA' => 3694820,  
4.     'Chicago, IL' => 2896016,  
5.     'Houston, TX' => 1953631,  
6.     'Philadelphia, PA' => 1517550,  
7.     'Phoenix, AZ' => 1321045,  
8.     'San Diego, CA' => 1223400,  
9.     'Dallas, TX' => 1188580,  
10.    'San Antonio, TX' => 1144646,  
11.    'Detroit, MI' => 951270);  
12. $total_population = 0;  
13. asort($population);  
14. print "<table><tr><th>City</th><th>Population</th></tr>\n";  
15. foreach ($population as $city => $people) {  
16.     $total_population += $people;  
17.     print "<tr><td>$city</td><td>$people</td></tr>\n";  
18. }  
19. }  
20. print "<tr><td>Total</td><td>$total_population</td></tr>\n";  
    print "</table>\n";
```

21. Use `ksort()` to sort by city name.

```
22. $population = array('New York, NY' => 8008278,  
23.     'Los Angeles, CA' => 3694820,
```

```

24.             'Chicago, IL' => 2896016,
25.             'Houston, TX' => 1953631,
26.             'Philadelphia, PA' => 1517550,
27.             'Phoenix, AZ' => 1321045,
28.             'San Diego, CA' => 1223400,
29.             'Dallas, TX' => 1188580,
30.             'San Antonio, TX' => 1144646,
31.             'Detroit, MI' => 951270);
32. $total_population = 0;
33. ksort($population);
34. print "<table><tr><th>City</th><th>Population</th></tr>\n";
35. foreach ($population as $city => $people) {
36.     $total_population += $people;
37.     print "<tr><td>$city</td><td>$people</td></tr>\n";
38.
39. }
40. print "<tr><td>Total</td><td>$total_population</td></tr>\n";
    print "</table>\n";

```

C.3.3 Exercise 3:

```

// Separate the city and state name in the array so we can total by state
$population = array('New York' => array('state' => 'NY', 'pop' => 8008278),
    'Los Angeles' => array('state' => 'CA', 'pop' => 3694820),
    'Chicago' => array('state' => 'IL', 'pop' => 2896016),
    'Houston' => array('state' => 'TX', 'pop' => 1953631),
    'Philadelphia' => array('state' => 'PA', 'pop' => 1517550),
    'Phoenix' => array('state' => 'AZ', 'pop' => 1321045),
    'San Diego' => array('state' => 'CA', 'pop' => 1223400),
    'Dallas' => array('state' => 'TX', 'pop' => 1188580),
    'San Antonio' => array('state' => 'TX', 'pop' => 1144646),
    'Detroit' => array('state' => 'MI', 'pop' => 951270));

// Use the $state_totals array to keep track of per-state totals
$state_totals = array( );
$total_population = 0;
print "<table><tr><th>City</th><th>Population</th></tr>\n";
foreach ($population as $city => $info) {
    // $info is an array with two elements: pop (city population)
    // and state (state name)
    $total_population += $info['pop'];
    // increment the $info['state'] element in $state_totals by $info['pop']
    // to keep track of the total population of state $info['state']
    $state_totals[$info['state']] += $info['pop'];
    print "<tr><td>$city, {$info['state']}</td><td>{$info['pop']}</td></tr>\n";
}
// Iterate through the $state_totals array to print the per-state totals
foreach ($state_totals as $state => $pop) {
    print "<tr><td>$state</td><td>$pop</td>\n";
}
print "<tr><td>Total</td><td>$total_population</td></tr>\n";
print "</table>\n";

```

C.3.4 Exercise 4:

a. An associative array whose keys are students' names and whose values are associative arrays of grade and ID number.

```
b. $students = array('James D. McCawley' => array('grade' => 'A+',  
c.                                     'id' => 271231),  
d.                                     'Buwei Yang Chao' => array('grade' => 'A',  
                                                             'id' => 818211));
```

e. An associative array whose key is the item name and whose value is the number in stock.

```
f. $stock = array('Woks' => 5, 'Steamers' => 3, 'Heavy Cleavers' => 2,  
                 'Light Cleavers' => 6);
```

g. An associative array whose key is the day and whose value is an associative array describing the meal. This associative array has a key/value pair for cost and a key/value pair for each part of the meal (entree, side dish, drink).

```
h. $lunches = array('Monday' => array('cost' => 1.50,  
i.                                     'entree' => 'Beef Shiu-Mai',  
j.                                     'side' => 'Salty Fried Cake',  
k.                                     'drink' => 'Black Tea'),  
l. 'Tuesday' => array('cost' => 1.50,  
m.                                     'entree' => 'Clear-steamed Fish',  
n.                                     'side' => 'Turnip Cake',  
o.                                     'drink' => 'Black Tea'),  
p. 'Wednesday' => array('cost' => 2.00,  
q.                                     'entree' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',  
r.                                     'side' => 'Turnip Cake',  
s.                                     'drink' => 'Green Tea'),  
t. 'Thursday' => array('cost' => 1.35,  
u.                                     'entree' => 'Stir-fried Two Winters',  
v.                                     'side' => 'Egg Puff',  
w.                                     'drink' => 'Black Tea'),  
x. 'Friday' => array('cost' => 2.15,  
y.                                     'entree' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',  
z.                                     'side' => 'Duck Feet',  
                                     'drink' => 'Jasmine Tea'));
```

aa. A numeric array whose values are the names of family members.

```
$family = array('Bart', 'Lisa', 'Homer', 'Marge', 'Maggie');
```

bb. An associative array whose keys are the names of family members and whose values are associative arrays of age and relationship.

```
cc. $family = array('Bart' => array('relation' => 'brother',
dd.     'age' => 10),
ee.     'Lisa' => array('relation' => 'sister',
ff.     'age' => 7),
gg.     'Homer' => array('relation' => 'father',
hh.     'age' => 36),
ii.     'Marge' => array('relation' => 'mother',
jj.     'age' => 34),
kk.     'Maggie' => array('relation' => 'self',
    'age' => 1));
```


C.4 Chapter 5

C.4.1 Exercise 1:

```
function html_img($url, $alt = '', $height = 0, $width = 0) {
    print '';
}
```

C.4.2 Exercise 2:

```
function html_img2($file, $alt = '', $height = 0, $width = 0) {
    print '';
}
```

C.4.3 Exercise 3:

```
I can afford a tip of 11% (30)
I can afford a tip of 12% (30.25)
I can afford a tip of 13% (30.5)
I can afford a tip of 14% (30.75)
```

C.4.4 Exercise 4:

Using `printf()` is necessary to ensure that one-digit hex numbers (like 0) get padded with a leading 0.

```
function build_color($red, $green, $blue) {
    $redhex    = dechex($red);
    $greenhex  = dechex($green);
    $bluehex   = dechex($blue);
    return sprintf('#%02s%02s%02s', $redhex, $greenhex, $bluehex);
}
```

You can also rely on `sprintf()`'s built-in hex-to-decimal conversion with the `%x` format character:

```
function build_color($red, $green, $blue) {  
    return sprintf('#%02x%02x%02x', $red, $green, $blue);  
}
```

C.5 Chapter 6

C.5.1 Exercise 1:

`var_dump($_POST)` prints:

```
array(4) {
  ["noodle"]=>
  string(14) "barbecued pork"
  ["sweet"]=>
  array(2) {
    [0]=>
    string(4) "puff"
    [1]=>
    string(8) "ricemeat"
  }
  ["sweet_q"]=>
  string(1) "4"
  ["submit"]=>
  string(5) "Order"
}
```

C.5.2 Exercise 2:

```
function process_form( ) {
    print "<ul>";
    foreach ($_POST as $element => $value) {
        print "<li> \$_POST[$element] = $value</li>";
    }
    print "</ul>";
}
```

C.5.3 Exercise 3:

```
<?php
$ops = array('+','-','*','/');
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
}
```

```

}
// the beginning of the form
print '<form method="POST" action="'.$_SERVER['PHP_SELF'].'">';
// the first operand
print '<input type="text" name="operand_1" size="5" value=""';
print htmlspecialchars($_POST['operand_1']) .'" />';
// the operator
print '<select name="operator">';
foreach ($GLOBALS['ops'] as $op) {
    print '<option';
    if ($_POST['operator'] == $op) { print ' selected="selected"'; }
    print "> $op</option>";
}
print '</select>';
// the second operand
print '<input type="text" name="operand_2" size="5" value=""';
print htmlspecialchars($_POST['operand_2']) .'" />';
// the submit button
print '<br/><input type="submit" value="Calculate"/>';
// the hidden _submit_check variable
print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
// the end of the form
print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // operand 1 must be numeric
    if (! strlen($_POST['operand_1'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a number for the first operand.';
    } elseif (! strval(floatval($_POST['operand_1'])) == $_POST['operand_1']) {
        $errors[ ] = "The first operand must be numeric.";
    }
    // operand 2 must be numeric
    if (! strlen($_POST['operand_2'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a number for the second operand.';
    } elseif (! strval(floatval($_POST['operand_2'])) == $_POST['operand_2']) {
        $errors[ ] = "The second operand must be numeric.";
    }
    // the operator must be valid
    if (! in_array($_POST['operator'], $GLOBALS['ops'])) {
        $errors[ ] = "Please select a valid operator.";
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    if ('+' == $_POST['operator']) {
        $total = $_POST['operand_1'] + $_POST['operand_2'];
    } elseif ('-' == $_POST['operator']) {
        $total = $_POST['operand_1'] - $_POST['operand_2'];
    } elseif ('*' == $_POST['operator']) {
        $total = $_POST['operand_1'] * $_POST['operand_2'];
    } elseif ('/' == $_POST['operator']) {
        $total = $_POST['operand_1'] / $_POST['operand_2'];
    }
    print "$_POST[operand_1] $_POST[operator] $_POST[operand_2] = $total";
}
?>

```

C.5.4 Exercise 4:

```
<?php
// load the form element printing helper functions
require 'formhelpers.php';
$us_states = array('AL' => 'Alabama', 'AK' => 'Alaska', 'AZ' => 'Arizona',
    'AR' => 'Arkansas', 'CA' => 'California', 'CO' => 'Colorado',
    'CT' => 'Connecticut', 'DE' => 'Delaware', 'FL' => 'Florida',
    'GA' => 'Georgia', 'HI' => 'Hawaii', 'ID' => 'Idaho',
    'IL' => 'Illinois', 'IN' => 'Indiana', 'IA' => 'Iowa',
    'KS' => 'Kansas', 'KY' => 'Kentucky', 'LA' => 'Louisiana',
    'ME' => 'Maine', 'MD' => 'Maryland', 'MA' => 'Massachusetts',
    'MI' => 'Michigan', 'MN' => 'Minnesota', 'MS' => 'Mississippi',
    'MO' => 'Missouri', 'MT' => 'Montana', 'NE' => 'Nebraska',
    'NV' => 'Nevada', 'NH' => 'New Hampshire',
    'NJ' => 'New Jersey', 'NM' => 'New Mexico',
    'NY' => 'New York', 'NC' => 'North Carolina',
    'ND' => 'North Dakota', 'OH' => 'Ohio', 'OK' => 'Oklahoma',
    'OR' => 'Oregon', 'PA' => 'Pennsylvania',
    'RI' => 'Rhode Island', 'SC' => 'South Carolina',
    'SD' => 'South Dakota', 'TN' => 'Tennessee', 'TX' => 'Texas',
    'UT' => 'Utah', 'VT' => 'Vermont', 'VA' => 'Virginia',
    'WA' => 'Washington', 'DC' => 'Washington D.C.',
    'WV' => 'West Virginia', 'WI' => 'Wisconsin',
    'WY' => 'Wyoming');

if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}

function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // the beginning of the form
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    print '<table>';
    // the first address
    print '<tr><th colspan="2">From</th></tr>';
    print '<td>Name:</td><td>';
    input_text('name_1', $_POST);
    print '</td></tr>';
    print '<tr><td>Street Address:</td><td>';
    input_text('address_1', $_POST);
    print '</td></tr>';
    print '<tr><td>City, State, Zip:</td><td>';
```

```

input_text('city_1', $_POST);
print ', ';
input_select('state_1', $_POST, $GLOBALS['us_states']);
input_text('zip_1', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
// the second address
print '<tr><th colspan="2">To</th></tr>';
print '<td>Name:</td><td>';
input_text('name_2', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
print '<tr><td>Street Address:</td><td>';
input_text('address_2', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
print '<tr><td>City, State, Zip:</td><td>';
input_text('city_2', $_POST);
print ', ';
input_select('state_2', $_POST, $GLOBALS['us_states']);
input_text('zip_2', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
// Package Info
print '<tr><th colspan="2">Package</th></tr>';
print '<tr><td>Height:</td><td>';
input_text('height', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
print '<tr><td>Width:</td><td>';
input_text('width', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
print '<tr><td>Length:</td><td>';
input_text('length', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';
print '<tr><td>Weight:</td><td>';
input_text('weight', $_POST);
print '</td></tr>';

// form end
print '<tr><td colspan="2"><input type="submit" value="Ship Package"></td></tr>';
print '</table>';
print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // first address:
    // name, street address, city are all required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['name_1']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a From name';
    }
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['address_1']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a From street address';
    }
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['city_1']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a From city';
    }
    // state must be valid
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['state_1'], $GLOBALS['us_states'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid From state';
    }
}

```

```

// zip must be 5 digits or ZIP+4
if (!preg_match('/^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$/', $_POST['zip_1'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a valid From Zip code';
}
// second address:
// name, street address, city are all required
if (! strlen(trim($_POST['name_2']))) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a To name';
}
if (! strlen(trim($_POST['address_2']))) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a To street address';
}
if (! strlen(trim($_POST['city_2']))) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a To city';
}
// state must be valid
if (! array_key_exists($_POST['state_2'], $GLOBALS['us_states'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid To state';
}
// zip must be 5 digits or ZIP+4
if (!preg_match('/^\d{5}(-\d{4})?$/', $_POST['zip_2'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a valid To Zip code';
}
// package:
// each dimension must be <= 36
if (! strlen($_POST['height'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a height.';
}
if ($_POST['height'] > 36) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Height must be no more than 36 inches.';
}
if (! strlen($_POST['length'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a length.';
}
if ($_POST['length'] > 36) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Length must be no more than 36 inches.';
}
if (! strlen($_POST['width'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a width.';
}
if ($_POST['width'] > 36) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Width must be no more than 36 inches.';
}
// Weight must be <= 150
if (! strlen($_POST['weight'])) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a weight.';
}
if ($_POST['weight'] > 150) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Weight must be no more than 150 pounds.';
}
return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    print 'The package is going from: <br/>';
    print htmlentities($_POST['name_1']) . '<br/>';
    print htmlentities($_POST['address_1']) . '<br/>';
    print htmlentities($_POST['city_1']) . ', ' . $_POST['state_1'] . ' ' .

```

```

$_POST['zip_1'] . '<br/>';
    print 'The package is going to: <br/>';
    print htmlentities($_POST['name_2']) . '<br/>';
    print htmlentities($_POST['address_2']) . '<br/>';
    print htmlentities($_POST['city_2']) . ', ' . $_POST['state_2'] . ' ' .
$_POST['zip_2'] . '<br/>';
    print 'The package is ' . htmlentities($_POST['length']) . ' x ' .
        htmlentities($_POST['width']) . ' x ' . htmlentities($_POST['height']);
    print ' and weighs ' . htmlentities($_POST['weight']) . ' lbs.';
}
?>

```

C.5.5 Exercise 5:

The `print_array()` function iterates through the array it is passed, printing out each key and value. If one of those values is an array, then `print_array()` calls itself, passing in the subarray to be printed. A function like `print_array()` that invokes itself is called a *recursive* function. The `process_form()` function calls `print_array()` and tells it to print the contents of `$_POST`.

```

function print_array($ar, $prefix) {
    // iterate through the array
    foreach ($ar as $key => $value) {
        // if the value of this element is an array, then
        // call print_array( ) again to iterate over that sub-array
        // and tack the key name onto the prefix
        if (is_array($value)) {
            print_array($value, $prefix . "[" . $key . "]);
        } else {
            // if the value is not an array, then print it out
            // with any prefix
            print $prefix;
            print "[" . htmlentities($key) . "] = ";
            print htmlentities($value) . '<br/>';
        }
    }
}

function process_form( ) {
    print_array($_POST, '$_POST');
}

```


C.6 Chapter 7

C.6.1 Exercise 1:

```
<?php
require 'DB.php';
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
$dishes = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name,price FROM dishes ORDER BY price');
if (count($dishes) > 0) {
    print '<ul>';
    foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
        print "<li> $dish[dish_name] ($dish[price])</li>";
    }
    print '</ul>';
} else {
    print 'No dishes available.';
}
?>
```

C.6.2 Exercise 2:

```
<?php
require 'DB.php';
require 'formhelpers.php'; // load the form element printing functions
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // the beginning of the form
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    print '<table>';
    // the price
    print '<tr><td>Price:</td><td>';
    input_text('price', $_POST);
    print '</td></tr>';

    // form end
```

```

print '<tr><td colspan="2"><input type="submit" value="Search Dishes">';
print '</td></tr>';
print '</table>';
print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    if (! strval(floatval($_POST['price'])) == $_POST['price']) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid price.';
    } elseif ($_POST['price'] <= 0) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a price greater than 0.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    global $db;
    $dishes = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes WHERE price >= ?',
        array($_POST['price']));
    if (count($dishes) > 0) {
        print '<ul>';
        foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
            print "<li> $dish[dish_name] ($dish[price])</li>";
        }
        print '</ul>';
    } else {
        print 'No dishes match.';
    }
}
?>

```

C.6.3 Exercise 3:

```

<?php
require 'DB.php';
require 'formhelpers.php'; // load the form element printing functions
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
// get the array of dish names from the database
$dish_names = array( );
$res = $db->query('SELECT dish_name FROM dishes');
while ($row = $res->fetchRow( )) {
    $dish_names[ ] = $row['dish_name'];
}
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {

```

```

global $db;
if ($errors) {
    print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
    print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
    print '</li></ul>';
}
// the beginning of the form
print '<form method="POST" action="'.$_SERVER['PHP_SELF'].'">';
print '<table>';
// dish select menu
print '<tr><td>Dish:</td><td>';
input_select('dish_name', $_POST, $GLOBALS['dish_names']);
print '</td></tr>';

// form end
print '<tr><td colspan="2"><input type="submit" value="Search Dishes">';
print '</td></tr>';
print '</table>';
print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['dish_name'], $GLOBALS['dish_names'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a valid dish.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    global $db;
    // Translate $_POST['dish_name'] (which is a number) into a
    // name like "Walnut Bun"
    $dish_name = $GLOBALS['dish_names'][ $_POST['dish_name'] ];
    $dish_info = $db->getRow('SELECT dish_id, dish_name, price, is_spicy
                            FROM dishes WHERE dish_name = ?',
                            array($dish_name));
    if (count($dish_info) > 0) {
        print '<ul>';
        print "<li> ID: $dish_info[dish_id]</li>";
        print "<li> Name: $dish_info[dish_name]</li>";
        print "<li> Price: $dish_info[price]</li>";
        print "<li> Is Spicy: $dish_info[is_spicy]</li>";
        print '</ul>';
    } else {
        print 'No dish matches.';
    }
}
?>

```

C.6.4 Exercise 4:

The structure of the `customers` table:

```
CREATE TABLE customers (
```

```

customer_id INT UNSIGNED
customer_name VARCHAR(255),
phone VARCHAR(15),
favorite_dish_id INT
)

```

The form that inserts a new customer:

```

<?php
require 'DB.php';
require 'formhelpers.php';
// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die ("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
// Set up automatic error handling
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
// Set up fetch mode: rows as associative arrays
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
// get the array of dish names from the database
$dish_names = array( );
$res = $db->query('SELECT dish_id,dish_name FROM dishes');
while ($row = $res->fetchRow( )) {
    $dish_names[ $row['dish_id'] ] = $row['dish_name'];
}
// The main page logic:
// - If the form is submitted, validate and then process or redisplay
// - If it's not submitted, display
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    global $dish_names;
    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted variables
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, no defaults
        $defaults = array( );
    }

    // If errors were passed in, put them in $error_text (with HTML markup)
    if ($errors) {
        $error_text = '<tr><td>You need to correct the following errors:';
        $error_text .= '</td><td><ul><li>';
        $error_text .= implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        $error_text .= '</li></ul></td></tr>';
    }
}

```

```

    } else {
        // No errors? Then $error_text is blank
        $error_text = '';
    }
    // Jump out of PHP mode to make displaying all the HTML tags easier
?>
<form method="POST" action="<?php print $_SERVER['PHP_SELF']; ?>">
<table>
<?php print $error_text ?>
<tr><td>Customer Name:</td>
<td><?php input_text('customer_name', $defaults) ?></td></tr>
<tr><td>Phone Number:</td>
<td><?php input_text('phone', $defaults) ?></td></tr>
<tr><td>Favorite Dish:</td>
<td><?php input_select('favorite_dish_id', $defaults, $dish_names); ?></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" align="center"><?php input_submit('save', 'Add Customer'); ?>
</td></tr>
</table>
<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>
</form>
<?php
    } // The end of process_form( )
function validate_form( ) {
    global $dish_names;
    $errors = array( );
    // customer_name is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['customer_name']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter the customer name.';
    }
    // phone number is required and must look right
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['phone']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a phone number';
    } elseif (! preg_match('/^\(\d{3}\) ?\d{3}-\d{4}$/', $_POST['phone'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a phone number in the format (XXX) XXX-XXXX.';
    }
    // favorite dish is required
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['favorite_dish_id'], $dish_names)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a favorite dish.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    // Access the global variable $db inside this function
    global $db;
    // Get a unique ID for this customer
    $customer_id = $db->nextID('customers');
    // Insert the new customer into the table
    $db->query('INSERT INTO customers (customer_id, customer_name, phone, favorite_
dish_id) VALUES (?, ?, ?, ?)',
        array($customer_id, $_POST['customer_name'], $_POST['phone'],
            $_POST['favorite_dish_id']));
    // Tell the user that we added a customer.
    print 'Added ' . htmlentities($_POST['customer_name']) . ' to the database.';
}
?>

```

C.7 Chapter 8

C.7.1 Exercise 1:

```
<?php
$page_count = $_COOKIE['page_count'] + 1;
setcookie('page_count', $page_count);
print "Number of views: $page_count";
?>
```

C.7.2 Exercise 2:

```
<?php
$page_count = $_COOKIE['page_count'] + 1;
if ($page_count == 20) {
    // an empty value deletes the cookie
    setcookie('page_count', '');
    print "Time to start over.";
} else {
    setcookie('page_count', $page_count);
    print "Number of views: $page_count";
    if ($page_count == 5) {
        print "<br/> This is your fifth visit.";
    } elseif ($page_count == 10) {
        print "<br/> This is your tenth visit. Aren't you sick of this page yet?";
    } elseif ($page_count == 15) {
        print "<br/> This is your fifteenth visit. Don't you have anything better to
do?";
    }
}
?>
```

C.7.3 Exercise 3:

Here is the color selection form page:

```
<?php
require 'formhelpers.php';
session_start( );
$colors = array('#ff0000' => 'red',
                '#ff6600' => 'orange',
                '#ffff00' => 'yellow',
                '#0000ff' => 'green',
                '#00ff00' => 'blue',
                '#ff00ff' => 'purple');
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}
```

```

}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    print '<form method="POST" action="'.$_SERVER['PHP_SELF'].'">';
    if ($errors) {
        print '<ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // Since we're not supplying any defaults of our own, it's OK
    // to pass $_POST as the defaults array to input_select and
    // input_text so that any user-entered values are preserved
    print 'Color: ';
    input_select('color', $_POST, $GLOBALS['colors']);
    print '<br/>';
    input_submit('submit', 'Select Color');
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // The dish selected in the menu must be valid
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['color'], $GLOBALS['colors'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please select a valid color.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    $_SESSION['color'] = $_POST['color'];
    print "Your favorite color is: " . $GLOBALS['colors'][$_SESSION['color'] ];
}
?>

```

And here is the background-color-changing page:

```

<?php
session_start( );
print <<<_HTML_
<html>
<body bgcolor="$_SESSION[color]">
This page has your personalized background color.
</body>
</html>
_HTML_;
?>

```

C.7.4 Exercise 4:

Here's the order form page:

```

<?php
session_start( );
require 'formhelpers.php';
$products = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
                  'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",
                  'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
                  'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',

```

```

        'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
        'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    global $products;

    print '<form method="POST" action="'.$_SERVER['PHP_SELF'].'">';
    if ($errors) {
        print '<ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // Build up an array of defaults if there is an order saved
    // in the session
    if ($_SESSION['saved_order']) {
        $defaults = array( );
        foreach ($products as $product => $description) {
            $defaults["dish_$product"] = $_SESSION["dish_$product"];
        }
    } else {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    }
    foreach ($products as $product => $description) {
        input_text("dish_$product", $defaults);
        print " $description<br/>";
    }

    input_submit('submit', 'Order');

    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    global $products;
    $errors = array( );
    foreach ($products as $product => $description) {
        // If something was entered in the text box
        if (strlen($_POST["dish_$product"]) &&
            // And it's not a valid integer
            (($_POST["dish_$product"] != strval(intval($_POST["dish_$product"]))) ||
            // Or it's less than zero
            intval($_POST["dish_$product"]) < 0)) {
            // Then it's an error
            $errors[ ] = "Please enter a valid quantity for $description.";
        }
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {

```



```

global $products;
$_SESSION['saved_order'] = 1;

foreach ($products as $product => $description) {
    if (strlen($_POST["dish_$product"])) {
        $_SESSION["dish_$product"] = $_POST["dish_$product"];
    }
}
print 'Thank you for your order.';
}
?>

```

Here's the check-out page:

```

<?php
session_start( );
require 'formhelpers.php';
$products = array('cuke' => 'Braised Sea Cucumber',
                  'stomach' => "Sauteed Pig's Stomach",
                  'tripe' => 'Sauteed Tripe with Wine Sauce',
                  'taro' => 'Stewed Pork with Taro',
                  'giblets' => 'Baked Giblets with Salt',
                  'abalone' => 'Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet');
// Since the form just consists of one button, there's no need
// to validate the submitted form data
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    process_form( );
} else {
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    global $products;
    if ($_SESSION['saved_order']) {
        print 'Your order: <ul>';
        foreach ($products as $product => $description) {
            if (array_key_exists("dish_$product", $_SESSION)) {
                print '<li> '.$_SESSION["dish_$product"]." $description </li>";
            }
        }
        print '</ul>';
    } else {
        print 'There is no saved order.';
    }
    print '<br/>';
    // This assumes that the order form page is saved as "orderform.php"
    print '<a href="orderform.php">Return to Order Page</a>';
    print '<br/>';
    print '<form method="POST" action="'.$_SERVER['PHP_SELF'].'">';
    input_submit('submit', 'Check Out');
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}
function process_form( ) {
    global $products;
    unset($_SESSION['saved_order']);
}

```

```
foreach ($products as $product => $description) {  
    unset($_SESSION["dish_$product"]);  
}  
print 'Your order has been cleared.';  
}  
?>
```

C.8 Chapter 9

C.8.1 Exercise 1:

```
$stamp = mktime(19,45,0,10,20,2004);
print strftime('Today is day %d of %B and day %j of the year %Y. The time is %I:%M %p
(also known as %H:%M).', $stamp);
```

C.8.2 Exercise 2:

```
$stamp = mktime(19,45,0,10,20,2004);
print 'Today is day '.date('d',$stamp).' of '.date('F',$stamp).' and day '.
(date('z',$stamp)+1);
print ' of the year '.date('Y',$stamp).' The time is '.date('h:i A',$stamp);
print ' (also known as '.date('H:i',$stamp).').';
```

C.8.3 Exercise 3:

```
<?php
print '<table>';
print '<tr><th>Year</th><th>Labor Day</th></tr>';
for ($year = 2004; $year <= 2020; $year++) {
    // Get the timestamp for September 1 of $year
    $stamp = mktime(12,0,0,9,1,$year);
    // Advance to the first monday
    $stamp = strtotime('monday', $stamp);
    print "<tr><td>$year</td><td>";
    print date('F j', $stamp);
    print "</td></tr>\n";
}
print '</table>';
?>
```

C.8.4 Exercise 4:

```
<?php
require 'formhelpers.php';
// Set up arrays of months, days, years, hours, and minutes
$months = array(1 => 'January', 2 => 'February', 3 => 'March', 4 => 'April',
                5 => 'May', 6 => 'June', 7 => 'July', 8 => 'August',
                9 => 'September', 10 => 'October', 11 => 'November',
                12 => 'December');
$days = array( );
for ($i = 1; $i <= 31; $i++) { $days[$i] = $i; }
$years = array( );
for ($year = date('Y') -1, $max_year = date('Y') + 5; $year < $max_year; $year++) {
    $years[$year] = $year;
}
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
```

```

        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    global $months, $days, $years;
    // If the form is submitted, get defaults from submitted variables
    if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
        $defaults = $_POST;
    } else {
        // Otherwise, set our own defaults: one month from now
        $default_timestamp = strtotime('+1 month');
        $defaults = array('month' => date('n', $default_timestamp),
                        'day'    => date('j', $default_timestamp),
                        'year'  => date('Y', $default_timestamp));
    }
    // If errors were passed in, put them in $error_text (with HTML markup)
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    print 'Enter a date and time: ';

    input_select('month', $defaults, $months);
    print ' ';
    input_select('day', $defaults, $days);
    print ' ';
    input_select('year', $defaults, $years);
    print '<br/>';
    input_submit('submit', 'Find Tuesdays');
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    global $months, $days, $years;

    $errors = array( );

    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['month'], $months)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid month.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['day'], $days)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid day.';
    }
    if (! array_key_exists($_POST['year'], $years)) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Select a valid year.';
    }
    // Make sure the submitted date is in the future
    // Find epoch timestamp for midnight today
    // Leaving off month, day, and year arguments make them
    // default to today

```

```

$midnight = mktime(0,0,0);
// Find epoch timestmap for midnight on the submitted date
$midnight_submitted = mktime(0,0,0,$_POST['month'], $_POST['day'],
                             $_POST['year']);
if ($midnight_submitted <= $midnight) {
    $errors[ ] = 'Enter a date in the future.';
}

return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    // Make an epoch timestmap for the user-entered date
    $midnight_submitted = mktime(0,0,0,$_POST['month'], $_POST['day'],
                                 $_POST['year']);
    // Get the epoch timestamp for the next Tuesday (including today,
    // if today is Tuesday.
    $timestamp = strtotime('tuesday');
    if ($timestamp >= $midnight_submitted) {
        print 'There are no Tuesdays between ';
        print date('l, F j, Y');
        print ' and ';
        print date('l, F j, Y.', $midnight_submitted);
    } else {
        while ($timestamp < $midnight_submitted) {
            // Print a formatted date string for $timestamp (which is a Tuesday)
            print date('l, F j, Y', $timestamp);
            print '<br/>';
            // Add a week to $timestamp
            $timestamp = strtotime('+1 week', $timestamp);
        }
    }
}
?>

```

C.9 Chapter 10

C.9.1 Exercise 1:

Here's a sample template file, *article.html*:

```
<html>
<head><title>{title}</title></head>
<body>
<h1>{headline}</h1>
<h2>By {byline}</h2>
{article}
<hr/>
<h4>Page generated: {date}</h4>
</body>
</html>
```

Here's the program that replaces the template fields with actual values. It stores the field names and values in an array and then uses `foreach()` to iterate through that array and do the replacement:

```
<?php
$page = file_get_contents('article.html');
if ($page == false) {
    die("Can't read article.html: $php_errormsg");
}
$svars = array('{title}' => 'Man Bites Dog',
               '{headline}' => 'Man and Dog Trapped in Biting Fiasco',
               '{byline}' => 'Ireneo Funes',
               '{article}' => "<p>While walking in the park today,
Bioy Casares took a big juicy bite out of his dog, Santa's Little
Helper. When asked why he did it, he said, \"I was hungry.\"</p>",
               '{date}' => date('l, F j, Y'));
foreach ($svars as $field => $new_value) {
    $page = str_replace($field, $new_value, $page);
}
$result = file_put_contents('dog-article.html', $page);
if (($result == false) || ($result == -1)) {
    die("Couldn't write dog-article.html: $php_errormsg");
}
?>
```

C.9.2 Exercise 2:

Here's a sample *addresses.txt*:

```
brilling@tweedledee.example.com
slithy@unicorn.example.com
uffish@knight.example.net
slithy@unicorn.example.com
jubjub@sheep.example.com
```

```
tumtum@queen.example.org
slithy@unicorn.example.com
uffish@knight.example.net
manxome@king.example.net
beamish@lion.example.org
uffish@knight.example.net
frumious@tweedledum.example.com
tulgey@carpenter.example.com
vorpal@crow.example.org
beamish@lion.example.org
mimsy@walrus.example.com
frumious@tweedledum.example.com
raths@owl.example.net
frumious@tweedledum.example.com
```

Here's the program to count the addresses:

```
<?php
$in_fh = fopen('addresses.txt','rb');
if (! $in_fh) {
    die("Can't open addresses.txt: $php_errormsg");
}
// We'll count addresses with this array
$addresses = array( );
for ($line = fgets($in_fh); ! feof($in_fh); $line = fgets($in_fh)) {
    if ($line == false) {
        die("Error reading line: $php_errormsg");
    } else {
        $line = trim($line);
        // Use the address as the key in $addresses
        // the value is the number of times that the
        // address has appeared
        $addresses[$line] = $addresses[$line] + 1;
    }
}
if (! fclose($in_fh)) {
    die("Can't close addresses.txt: $php_errormsg");
}
$out_fh = fopen('addresses-count.txt','wb');
if (! $out_fh) {
    die("Can't open addresses-count.txt: $php_errormsg");
}
// Reverse sort $addresses by element value
arsort($addresses);
foreach ($addresses as $address => $count) {
    // Don't forget the newline!
    if (fwrite($out_fh, "$count,$address\n") == false) {
        die("Can't write $count,$address: $php_errormsg");
    }
}
if (! fclose($out_fh)) {
    die("Can't close addresses-count.txt: $php_errormsg");
}
?>
```

C.9.3 Exercise 3:

```
<?php
$fh = fopen('csvdata.csv', 'rb');
if (! $fh) {
    die("Can't open csvdata.csv: $php_errormsg");
}
print "<table>\n";

for ($line = fgetcsv($fh, 1024); ! feof($fh); $line = fgetcsv($fh, 1024)) {
    // Use implode as in Example 4.21
    print '<tr><td>' . implode('</td><td>', $line) . "</td></tr>\n";
}
print '</table>';
?>
```

C.9.4 Exercise 4:

```
<?php
// Load the form element helper functions
require 'formhelpers.php';
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // the beginning of the form
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    // the file name
    print 'File name: ';
    input_text('filename', $_POST);
    print '<br/>';
    // the submit button
    input_submit('submit', 'Show File');
    // the hidden _submit_check variable
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    // the end of the form
    print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // filename is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['filename']))) {
```



```

    $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a file name.';
} else {
    // build the full file name from the web server document root
    // directory, a slash, and the submitted value
    $filename = $_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT'] . '/' . $_POST['filename'];

    // Use realpath to resolve any .. sequences
    $filename = realpath($filename);

    // make sure $filename begins with the document root directory
    $docroot_len = strlen($_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT']);
    if (substr($filename, 0, $docroot_len) != $_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT']) {
        $errors[ ] = 'File name must be under the document root directory.';
    }
}
return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    // reconstitute the full file name, as in validate_form( )
    $filename = $_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT'] . '/' . $_POST['filename'];
    $filename = realpath($filename);
    // print the contents of the file
    print file_get_contents($filename);
}
?>

```

C.9.5 Exercise 5:

The new `validate_form()` function that implements the additional rule:

```

function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // filename is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['filename']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a file name.';
    } else {
        // build the full file name from the web server document root
        // directory, a slash, and the submitted value
        $filename = $_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT'] . '/' . $_POST['filename'];

        // Use realpath to resolve any .. sequences
        $filename = realpath($filename);

        // make sure $filename begins with the document root directory
        $docroot_len = strlen($_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT']);
        if (substr($filename, 0, $docroot_len) != $_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT']) {
            $errors[ ] = 'File name must be under the document root directory.';
        } elseif (strcasecmp(substr($filename, -5), '.html') != 0) {
            $errors[ ] = 'File name must end in .html';
        }
    }
    return $errors;
}

```

C.10 Chapter 11

C.10.1 Exercise 1:

```
$menu=<<<_XML_
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8" ?>
<rss version="0.91">
  <channel>
    <title>What's For Dinner</title>
    <link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
    <description>These are your choices of what to eat tonight.</description>
    <item>
      <title>Braised Sea Cucumber</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=cuke</link>
      <description>Gentle flavors of the sea that nourish and refresh you.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Baked Giblets with Salt</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=giblets</link>
      <description>Rich giblet flavor infused with salt and spice.</description>
    </item>
    <item>
      <title>Abalone with Marrow and Duck Feet</title>
      <link>http://menu.example.com/dishes.php?dish=abalone</link>
      <description>There's no mistaking the special pleasure of abalone.</description>
    </item>
  </channel>
</rss>
_XML_;
$xml = simplexml_load_string($menu);
print "<ul>\n";
foreach ($xml->channel->item as $item) {
    print '<li><a href="' . $item->link . '>' . $item->title . "</a></li>\n";
}
print '</ul>';
```

C.10.2 Exercise 2:

```
<?php
  // Load form helper functions
require 'formhelpers.php';
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    // If validate_form( ) returns errors, pass them to show_form( )
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        // The submitted data is valid, so process it
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    // The form wasn't submitted, so display
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
```

```

        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // the beginning of the form
    print '<form method="POST" action="'.$_SERVER['PHP_SELF'].'">';
    // title
    print 'Title: ';
    input_text('title', $_POST);
    print '<br/>';
    // link
    print 'Link: ';
    input_text('link', $_POST);
    print '<br/>';
    // description
    print 'Description: ';
    input_text('description', $_POST);
    print '<br/>';
    // the submit button
    input_submit('submit', 'Generate Feed');
    // the hidden _submit_check variable and the end of the form
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // title is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['title']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter an item title.';
    }
    // link is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['link']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter an item link.';
    }
    // It's tricky to perfectly validate a URL, but we can
    // at least check to make sure it begins with the right
    // string
    } elseif (! (substr($_POST['link'], 0, 7) == 'http://' ||
        (substr($_POST['link'], 0, 8) == 'https://'))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a valid http or https URL.';
    }

    // description is required
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['description']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter an item description.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    // Send the Content-Type header
    header('Content-Type: text/xml');
    // print out the beginning of the XML, including the channel information
    print<<<_XML_
<rss version="0.91">
<channel>
<title>What's For Dinner</title>
<link>http://menu.example.com/</link>
<description>This is your choice of what to eat tonight.</description>

```

```

    <item>
_XML_ ;

    // print out the submitted form data
    print ' <title>' . htmlentities($_POST['title']) . "</title>\n";
    print ' <link>' . htmlentities($_POST['link']) . "</link>\n";
    print ' <description>' . htmlentities($_POST['description']) .
"</description>\n";

    // print out the end of the XML
    print<<<_XML_
</item>
</channel>
</rss>
_XML_ ;
}
?>

```

C.10.3 Exercise 3:

```

<?php
require 'DB.php';
require 'formhelpers.php'; // load the form element printing functions
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // the beginning of the form
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    print '<table>';
    // the price
    print '<tr><td>Price:</td><td>';
    input_text('price', $_POST);
    print '</td></tr>';

    // form end
    print '<tr><td colspan="2"><input type="submit" value="Search Dishes">';
    print '</td></tr>';
    print '</table>';
    print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
    print '</form>';
}

```

```

}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    if (! strval(floatval($_POST['price'])) == $_POST['price']) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a valid price.';
    } elseif ($_POST['price'] <= 0) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a price greater than 0.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {
    global $db;
    header('Content-Type: text/xml');
    $dishes = $db->getAll('SELECT dish_name, price FROM dishes WHERE price >= ?',
        array($_POST['price']));
    print "<dishes>\n";
    foreach ($dishes as $dish) {
        print " <dish>\n";
        print ' <name>' . htmlentities($dish['dish_name']) . "</name>\n";
        print ' <price>' . htmlentities($dish['price']) . "</price>\n";
        print " </dish>\n";
    }
    print '</dishes>';
}
?>

```

C.10.4 Exercise 4:

```

<?php
require 'formhelpers.php';
if ($_POST['_submit_check']) {
    if ($form_errors = validate_form( )) {
        show_form($form_errors);
    } else {
        process_form( );
    }
} else {
    show_form( );
}
function show_form($errors = '') {
    if ($errors) {
        print 'You need to correct the following errors: <ul><li>';
        print implode('</li><li>', $errors);
        print '</li></ul>';
    }
    // the beginning of the form
    print '<form method="POST" action="'. $_SERVER['PHP_SELF'] .'">';
    print '<table>';
    // the search term
    print '<tr><td>Search Term:</td><td>';
    input_text('term', $_POST);
    print '</td></tr>';

    // form end
    print '<tr><td colspan="2"><input type="submit" value="Search News Feed">';
    print '</td></tr>';
}

```

```

print '</table>';
print '<input type="hidden" name="_submit_check" value="1"/>';
print '</form>';
}
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    if (! strlen(trim($_POST['term']))) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Please enter a search term.';
    }
    return $errors;
}
function process_form( ) {

    // Retrieve the news feed
    $feed = simplexml_load_file('http://rss.news.yahoo.com/rss/topstories');
    if ($feed) {
        print "<ul>\n";
        foreach ($feed->channel->item as $item) {
            if (striestr($item->title, $_POST['term'])) {
                print '<li><a href="' . $item->link .'">' ;
                print htmlentities($item->title);
                print "</a></li>\n";
            }
        }
        print '</ul>';
    } else {
        print "Couldn't retrieve feed.";
    }
}
?>

```

C.11 Chapter 12

C.11.1 Exercise 1:

The error message looks like:

```
Parse error: parse error, unexpected T_GLOBAL in exercise-12-1.php on line 6
```

The `global` declaration has to be on a line by itself, not inside the `print` statement. To fix the program, separate the two:

```
<?php
$name = 'Umberto';
function say_hello( ) {
    global $name;
    print 'Hello, ';
    print $name;
}
say_hello( );
?>
```

C.11.2 Exercise 2:

```
function validate_form( ) {
    $errors = array( );
    // Capture the output of var_dump( ) with output buffering
    ob_start( );
    var_dump($_POST);
    $vars = ob_get_contents( );
    ob_end_clean( );
    // Send the output to the error log
    error_log($vars);
    // operand 1 must be numeric
    if (! strlen($_POST['operand_1'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a number for the first operand.';
    } elseif (! floatval($_POST['operand_1']) = = $_POST['operand_1']) {
        $errors[ ] = "The first operand must be numeric.";
    }
    // operand 2 must be numeric
    if (! strlen($_POST['operand_2'])) {
        $errors[ ] = 'Enter a number for the second operand.';
    } elseif (! floatval($_POST['operand_2']) = = $_POST['operand_2']) {
        $errors[ ] = "The second operand must be numeric.";
    }
    // the operator must be valid
    if (! in_array($_POST['operator'], $GLOBALS['ops'])) {
        $errors[ ] = "Please select a valid operator.";
    }
    return $errors;
}
```

C.11.3 Exercise 3:

Change the beginning of the program to:

```
<?php
require 'DB.php';
require 'formhelpers.php';
// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die ("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
function db_error_handler($error) {
    error_log('DATABASE ERROR: ' . $error->getDebugInfo( ));
    die('There is a ' . $error->getMessage( ));
}
// Set up automatic error handling
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_CALLBACK, 'db_error_handler');
```

C.11.4 Exercise 4:

Here are the errors in the program:

- Line 5: Two colons are needed between `DB` and `connect`.
- Lines 9 and 10: The fetch mode should be set to `DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC` since rows are treated as arrays in the rest of the program. (Alternatively, you could change lines 15 and 25-28 so that they treat rows as objects.)
- Line 15: There is an extra closing square bracket after `$row['dish_id']`.
- Line 17: This should be a call to `$db->query()`, not `$db->getAll()`, because `fetchRow()` is used in line 23 to retrieve each row. The SQL query is also wrong: it should be `SELECT * FROM customers ORDER BY customer_name` (only one asterisk after `SELECT` and `customer_name`, not `phone DESC`, after `ORDER BY`).
- Line 18: The method name that returns the number of rows retrieved by `query()` is `numRows()`, not `num_rows()`.
- Line 22: The string has mismatched delimiters. Either change the opening quote to a double quote or the closing quote to a single quote.
- Line 26: The array key is misspelled. It should be `customer_name`, not `cutsomer_name`.
- Line 28: `$customer['favorite_dish_id']` is the integer ID of the favorite dish. To display the dish name, you need to look up the appropriate element in `$dish_names`. Instead of `$customer['favorite_dish_id']`, it should be `$dish_names[$customer['favorite_dish_id']]`.
- Line 31: The curly brace to end the `else` code block is missing.

Here is the complete corrected program:

```
<?php
require 'DB.php';
require 'formhelpers.php';
// Connect to the database
$db = DB::connect('mysql://hunter:w)mp3s@db.example.com/restaurant');
if (DB::isError($db)) { die ("Can't connect: " . $db->getMessage( )); }
// Set up automatic error handling
$db->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
// Set up fetch mode: rows as associative arrays
```



```

$db->setFetchMode(DB_FETCHMODE_ASSOC);
// get the array of dish names from the database
$dish_names = array( );
$res = $db->query('SELECT dish_id,dish_name FROM dishes');
while ($row = $res->fetchRow( )) {
    $dish_names[ $row['dish_id'] ] = $row['dish_name'];
}
$customers = $db->query('SELECT * FROM customers ORDER BY customer_name');
if ($customers->numRows( ) = = 0) {
    print "No customers.";
} else {
    print '<table>';
    print '<tr><th>ID</th><th>Name</th><th>Phone</th><th>Favorite Dish</th></tr>';
    while ($customer = $customers->fetchRow( )) {
        printf('<tr><td>%d</td><td>%s</td><td>%s</td><td>%s</td></tr>',
            $customer['customer_id'],
            htmlentities($customer['customer_name']),
            $customer['phone'],
            $dish_names [ $customer['favorite_dish_id'] ] );
    }
    print '</table>';
}
?>

```

C.12 Appendix B

C.12.1 Exercise 1:

The regular expression `^\(?:\d{3}\)?[- \.]\d{3}[- \.]\d{4}$` matches "an optional literal (, then three digits, then an optional literal), then either a hyphen, space, or period, then three digits, then either a hyphen, space, or period, then four digits." The `^` and `$` anchors make the expression match only phone numbers, not larger strings that contain phone numbers.

C.12.2 Exercise 2:

```
if (! preg_match('/^[a-z0-9]$/i', $_POST['username'])) {
    $errors[ ] = "Usernames must contain only letters or numbers.";
}
```

C.12.3 Exercise 3:

```
$zip = 98052;
$url = 'http://www.srh.noaa.gov/zipcity.php?inputstring=' . $zip;
$weather_page = file_get_contents($url);
if (preg_match('@<br><br>(-?\d+)&deg;F<br>\((-?\d+)&deg;C\)</td>@',
$weather_page, $matches)) {
    // $matches[1] is the Fahrenheit temp
    // $matches[2] is the Celsius temp
    print "The current temperature is $matches[1] degrees.";
} else {
    print "Can't get current temperature.";
}
```

C.12.4 Exercise 4:

```
$url = 'http://www.sklar.com/';
$page = file_get_contents($url);
if (preg_match_all('@<a href="[^\"]+>.+?</a>@', $page, $matches)) {
    foreach ($matches[0] as $link) {
        print "$link <br/>\n";
    }
}
```

Colophon

Our look is the result of reader comments, our own experimentation, and feedback from distribution channels. Distinctive covers complement our distinctive approach to technical topics, breathing personality and life into potentially dry subjects.

The animal on the cover of *Learning PHP 5* is an eagle. Eagles fall into the category of bird known as "raptors," a category that also includes falcons and hawks. There are two types of raptor: grasping killers, with beaks shaped for tearing and cutting and short toes with curved claws designed for killing; and grasping holders, with beaks shaped for tearing and biting, and longer toes designed for holding. Eagles are grasping killers. Sea eagles have special adaptations to their toes that enable them to grasp smooth prey such as fish. Their excellent vision enables all eagles to spot prey from the air or a high perch. The eagle then swoops down, grabs its prey, and takes off in flight again, in one graceful movement. Eagles often eat their victims while still flying, breaking them apart and discarding the nonedible parts to lighten their load. Eagles, like most raptors, often dine on sick or wounded animals.

There are more than 50 species of eagle spread throughout the world, with the exception of New Zealand and Antarctica. All species of eagles build nests, or aeries, high above the ground, in trees or on rocky ledges. A pair of eagles will use the same nest year after year, lining it with green leaves and grass, fur, turf, or soft materials. The eagle will add to its nest each year. The largest eagle nest ever found was 20 feet deep and 10 feet across.

Hunting, increased use of pesticides, and the diminishment of their natural environment, with the attendant reduction in food sources, have endangered many species of eagle.

Mary Brady was the production editor and the copyeditor for *Learning PHP 5*. Leanne Soylemez was the proofreader. Mary Anne Weeks Mayo and Claire Cloutier provided quality control. Judy Hoer wrote the index.

Hanna Dyer designed the cover of this book, based on a series design by Edie Freedman. The cover image is a 19th-century engraving from the Dover Pictorial Archive. Emma Colby produced the cover layout with QuarkXPress 4.1 using Adobe's ITC Garamond font.

David Futato designed the interior layout. This book was converted by Joe Wizda to FrameMaker 5.5.6 with a format conversion tool created by Erik Ray, Jason McIntosh, Neil Walls, and Mike Sierra that uses Perl and XML technologies. The text font is Linotype Birka; the heading font is Adobe Myriad Condensed; and the code font is LucasFont's TheSans Mono Condensed. The illustrations that appear in the book were produced by Robert Romano and Jessamyn Read using Macromedia FreeHand 9 and Adobe Photoshop 6. The tip and warning icons were drawn by Christopher Bing. This colophon was written by Mary Brady.

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