## Perl

Perl = Practical Extraction and Report Language
Developed by Larry Wall (late 80's) as a replacement for awk.
Has grown to become a replacement for awk, sed, grep, other filters, shell scripts, C programs, ... (i.e. "kitchen sink").
An extremely useful tool to know because it:

- runs on Unix variants (Linux/Android/OSX/IOS/..),
   Windows/DOS variants, Plan 9, OS2, OS390, VMS...
- very widely used for complex scripting tasks
- has standard libraries for many applications (Web/CGI, DB, ...)

Perl has been influential: PHP, Python, Ruby, ... even Java (interpreted)



## Perl

Some of the language design principles for Perl:

- make it easy/concise to express common idioms
- provide many different ways to express the same thing
- use defaults where every possible
- exploit powerful concise syntax accest ambiguity/obscurity in some cases
- create a large language that users will learn subsets of

Many of these conflict with design principles of languages for teaching.

### Perl

So what is the end product like?

- a language which makes it easy to build useful systems
- readability can sometimes be a problem (language is too rich?)
- interpreted efficient? (although still remarkably efficient)

Summary: it's easy to write concise, powerful, obscure programs in Perl

## Reference Material

- Wall, Christiansen & Orwant , Programming Perl (3ed),
   O'Reilly, 2000. (Original & best Perl reference manual)
- Schwartz, Phoenix & Foy, Learning Perl (5ed),
   O'Reilly, 2008. (gentle & careful introduction to Perl)
- Christiansen & Torkington, Perl Cookbook (2ed),
   O'Reilly, 2003. (Lots and lots of interesting Perl examples)
- Schwartz & Phoenix, Learning Perl Objects, References, and Modules (2ed),
   O'Reilly, 2003. (gentle & careful introduction to parts of Perl mostly not covered in this course)
- Schwartz, Phoenix & Foy, Intermediate Perl (2ed),
   O'Reilly, 2008. (good book to read after 2041 starts where this course finishes)
- Sebesta, A Little Book on Perl,
   Prentice Hall, 1999. (Modern, concise introduction to Perl)
- Orwant, Hietaniemi, MacDonald, Mastering Algorithms with Perl,
  - O'Reilly, 1999. (Algorithms and data structures via Perl)



# Running Perl

Perl programs can be invoked in several ways ...

 giving the filename of the Perl program as a command line argument:

```
perl PerlCodeFile.pl
```

• giving the Perl program itself as a command line argument:

```
perl -e 'print "Hello, world\n";'
```

• using the #! notation and making the program file executable:

```
chmod 755 PerlCodeFile
./PerlCodeFile
```

# Running Perl

Advisable to *always* use -w option.

Causes Perl to print warnings about common errors.

```
perl -w PerlCodeFile.pl
perl -w -e 'PerlCode'
```

Can use options with #!

#!/usr/bin/perl -w

PerlCode

you can also get warnings via a pragma:

```
use warnings;
```

To catch other possible problems. Some programmers always use strict, others find it too annoying.

```
use strict;
```



# Syntax Conventions

Perl uses non-alphabetic characters to introduce various kinds of program entities (i.e. set a context in which to interpret identifiers).

Char	Kind	Example	Description
#	Comment	# comment	rest of line is a comment
\$	Scalar	\$count	variable containing simple value
@	Array	@counts	list of values, indexed by integers
%	Hash	%marks	set of values, indexed by strings
&	Subroutine	&doIt	callable Perl code (& optional)

# Syntax Conventions

Any unadorned identifiers are either

- names of built in (or other) functions (e.g. chomp, split)
- control-structures (e.g. if, for, foreach)
- literal strings (like the shell!)

The latter can be confusing to C/Java/PHP programmers e.g.

```
x = abc; is the same as x = abc;
```

### **Variables**

Perl provides these basic kinds of variable:

- scalars ... a single atomic value (number or string)
- arrays ... a list of values, indexed by number
- hashes ... a group of values, indexed by string

Variables do not need to be declared or initialised.

If not initialised, a scalar is the empty string (0 in a numeric context). *Beware:* spelling mistakes in variable names, e.g:

```
print "abc=acb\n"; rather than print "abc=abc\n";
```

Use warnings (-w) and easy to spell variable names.



### **Variables**

Many scalar operations have a "default source/target". If you don't specify an argument, variable \$\_ is assumed This makes it

- often very convenient to write brief programs (minimal syntax)
- sometimes confusing to new users ("Where's the argument??")
- \$\_ performs a similar role to "it" in English text.
- E.g. "The dog ran away. It ate a bone. It had lots of fun."

## Arithmetic & Logical Operators

```
Perl arithmetic and logical operators are similar to C.

Numeric: == != < <= > >= <=>
String: eq ne lt le gt ge cmp

Most C operators are present and have similar meanings, e.g:
+ - * / % ++ -- +=

Perl string concatenation operator: .

equivalent to using C's malloc + strcat
C strcmp equivalent to Perl cmp
```

## Scalars

### Examples:

```
$x = '123';  # $x assigned string "123"
$y = "123 ";  # $y assigned string "123 "
$z = 123;  # $z assigned integer 123
$i = $x + 1;  # $x value converted to integer
$j = $y + $z;  # $y value converted to integer
$a = $x == $y;  # numeric compare $x,$y (true)
$b = $x eq $y;  # string compare $x,$y (false)
$c = $x.$y;  # concat $x,$y (explicit)
$c = "$x$y";  # concat $x,$y (interpolation)
```

Note: c = x y is invalid (Perl has no empty infix operator) (unlike predecessor languages such as awk, where x y meant string concatenation)

## Perl Truth Values

False: " and '0'

True: everything else.

Be careful, subtle consequences:

False: 0.0, 0x0

True: '0.0' and "0\n"

## **Scalars**

A very common pattern for modifying scalars is:

```
$var = $var op expression
```

Compound assignments for the most common operators allow you to write

```
$var op= expression
```

#### Examples:

```
x += 1; # increment the value of x += 2; # double the value of x += 2; # double the value of x += 2; # append "abc" to x += 2;
```

# **Logical Operators**

Perl has two sets of logical operators, one like C, the other like "English".

The second set has very low precedence, so can be used between statements.

Operation	Example	Meaning
And	x && y	false if $x$ is false, otherwise $y$
Or	х II у	true if $x$ is true, otherwise $y$
Not	! x	true if $x$ is not true, false otherwise
And	${\tt x}$ and ${\tt y}$	false if $x$ is false, otherwise $y$
Or	x or y	true if $x$ is true, otherwise $y$
Not	not x	true if $x$ is not true, false otherwise

## Logical Operators

Example of using statement-level logical operations:

```
if (!open(FILE, "myFile")) {
    die "Can't open myFile";
# or
if (!open(FILE, "myFile"))
    { die "Can't open myFile"; }
# can be replaced by Perl idiom
open(FILE, "myFile") or die "Can't open myFile";
```

Files are accessed via handles - similar to FILE \* in the C stdio library.

<HANDLE>; for an input file means "read the next line from that file".

E.g. \$line = <HANDLE>

... stores the next line from standard input in the variable \$line.

Output file handles are used as the first argument to the print command.

E.g. print REPORT "Report for  $\frac{n}{r}$ ;

... writes a line to the file attached to the REPORT handle.

Note: no comma after the handle ID

```
Example (a simple cat):
#!/usr/bin/perl
# Copy stdin to stdout
while ($line = <STDIN>) {
    print $line;
}
However, this can be simplified to:
while (<STDIN>) { print; }
# or even
print <STDIN>;
```

#### Defaults:

- the default destination variable for input is \$\_
- the default argument for print is also \$\_

Handles can be explicitly attached to files via the open command:

```
open(DATA, "<< data");  # read from file "data"
open(RES, ">> results");  # write to file "results"
open(XTRA, ">>> stuff");  # append to file "stuff"
```

Handles can even be attched to pipelines to read/write to Unix commands:

```
open(DATE, "/bin/date |"); # read output of "date" command
open(FEED, "| more"); # send output through "more"
```

Opening a handle may fail:

```
open(DATA, "<< data") or die "Can't open data file";
```

Handles are closed using close (HandleName) (or automatically closed on exit).



Calling <> without a file handle gets unix-filter behaviour.

- treats all command-line arguments as file names
- opens and reads from each of them in turn
- no command line arguments, then <> == <STDIN>

### Example:

Displays the contents of the files a, b, c on stdout.

All single Perl statements must be terminated by a semicolon, e.g.

```
$x = 1;
print "Hello";
```

All statements with control structures must be enclosed in braces, e.g.

```
if ($x > 9999) {
    print "x is big\n";
}
```

You don't need a semicolon after a statement group in  $\{\ldots\}$ . Statement blocks can also be used like anonymous functions.

## **Function Calls**

All Perl function calls ...

- are call by value (like C) (except scalars aliased to @\_)
- are expressions (although often ignore return value)

Notation(s) for Perl function calls:

```
&func(arg{1}, arg{2}, ... arg{n})
func(arg{1}, arg{2}, ... arg{n})
func arg{1}, arg{2}, ... arg{n}
```

```
Selection is handled by if ... elsif ... else
  if ( boolExpr{1} ) { statements{1} }
  elsif ( boolExpr{2} ) { statements{2} }
  ...
  else { statements{n} }
```

Iteration is handled by while, until, for, foreach

```
while ( boolExpr ) {
    statements
until ( boolExpr ) {
    statements
for ( init ; boolExpr ; step ) {
    statements
}
foreach var (list) {
    statements
```

```
Example (compute pow = k^n):
                          # Method 1 ... while
                           pow = i = 1;
                          while ($i <= $n) {
                                                      pow = pow * k;
                                                     $i++:
                          # Method 2 ... for
                           pow = 1;
                          for (\$i = 1; \$i \le \$n; \$i++) {
                                                      $pow *= $k;
                          # Method 3 ... foreach
                           pow = 1;
                          foreach $i (1..$n) { $pow *= $k; }
                          # Method 4 ... foreach $_
                           pow = 1;
                          foreach (1...$n) { $pow *= $k; }
                           # Method 5 ... builtin operator
                           pow = k ** pow = k *
```

Example of fine-grained loop control:

```
OUTER:
while (i < 1000)
   TNNFR:
   for (\$i = 0; \$i < 99; \$i++)
    {
       last OUTER if $i > 90; # terminates both loops
       i += 3;
                                # next iteration of INNER
       next if $i > 80;
       if ($i > 70) { next; }
                                # next iteration of INNER
       i += 4;
       redo if $i < 70;
                                # next iteration of INNER
       next OUTER if $i == 42; # next iteration of OUTER
```

## **Terminating**

Normal termination, call: exit 0

The die function is used for abnormal termination:

- accepts a list of arguments
- concatenates them all into a single string
- appends file name and line number
- prints this string
- and then terminates the Perl interpreter

### Example:

```
if (! -r "myFile") {
    die "Can't read myFile: $!\n";
}
# or
die "Can't read myFile: $!\n" if ! -r "myFile";
# or
-r "myFile" or die "Can't read myFile: $!\n"
```

## Perl and External Commands

Perl is shell-like in the ease of invoking other commands/programs. Several ways of interacting with external commands/programs:

```
comd'; cmd'; capture entire output of cmd as single string
system("cmd") execute cmd and capture its exit status only
open(F,"cmd|")
collect cmd output by reading from a stream
```

## Perl and External Commands

External command Examples:

```
$files = 'ls $d';  # string output from command
$exit_status = system("ls $d");  # output goes to stdout

open(FILES, "ls $d |");  # display dir contents
while (<FILES>) {
    chomp;
    @fields = split;  # split words in $_ to @_
    print "Next file is $fields[$#fields]\n";
}
```

## File Test Operators

Perl provides an extensive set of operators to query file information:

```
-r, -w, -x file is readable, writeable, executable
-e, -z, -s file exists, has zero size, has non-zero size
-f, -d, -l file is a plain file, directory, sym link
```

Cf. the Unix test command. Used in checking I/O operations, e.g.

```
-r "dataFile" && open DATA, "<dataFile";
```

## Special Variables

Perl defines numerous special variables to hold information about its execution environment.

These variables typically have names consisting of a single punctuation character e.g. \$! \$@ \$# \$\$ \$% ... (English names are also available)

The \$\_ variable is particularly important:

- acts as the default location to assign result values (e.g. <STDIN>)
- acts as the default argument to many operations (e.g. print)

Careful use of  $\$  can make programs concise, uncluttered.

Careless use of \$\_ can make programs cryptic.

# Special Variables

\$_	default input and pattern match
@ARGV	list (array) of command line arguments
\$0	name of file containing executing Perl script (cf. shell)
\$ <i>i</i>	matching string for $i^{th}$ regexp in pattern
\$!	last error from system call such as open
\$.	line number for input file stream
\$/	line separator, none if undefined
\$\$	process number of executing Perl script (cf. shell)
%ENV	lookup table of environment variables

## Special Variables

```
Example (echo in Perl):
    for (\$i = 0; \$i < @ARGV; \$i++) {
        print "$ARGV[$i] ";
    }
    print "\n";
or
    foreach $arg (@ARGV) {
        print "$arg ";
    }
    print "\n";
or
    print "@ARGV\n";
```