An introduction to Bash

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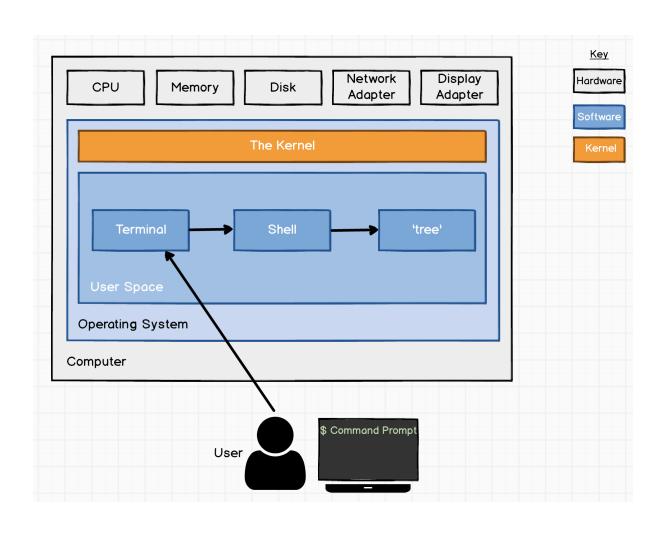
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What is a shell?

From http://www.linfo.org/shell.html:

"A shell is a program that provides the traditional, text-only user interface for Linux and other Unix-like operating systems. Its primary function is to read commands that are typed into a console [...] and then execute (i.e., run) them. The term shell derives its name from the fact that it is an outer layer of an operating system. A shell is an interface between the user and the internal parts of the OS (at the very core of which is the kernel)."



What is Bash?

Bash stands for: Bourne Again Shell, a homage to its creator Stephen Bourne. It is the default shell for most Unix systems and Linux distributions. It is both a command interpreter and a scripting language. The shell might be changed by simply typing its name and even the default shell might be changed for all sessions.

macOS has replaced it with zsh, which is mostly compatible with Bash, since v10.15 Catalina.

Variables and Environmental Variables

Since the shell is a program, as in all programs there are variables. You can assign a value to a variable with the equal sign (no spaces!), for instance type A=1. You can then retrieve its value using the dollar sign and curly braces, for instance to display it the user may type echo \${A}. Some variables can affect the way running processes will behave on a computer, these are called environmental variables. For this reason, some variables are set by default, for instance to display the user home directory type echo \${HOME} . To set an environmental variable just prepend export , for instance export PATH="/usr/sbin:\$PATH" adds the folder /usr/sbin to the PATH environment variable. PATH specifies a set of directories where executable programs are located.

Types of shell - Login

The first distinction that we make is between:

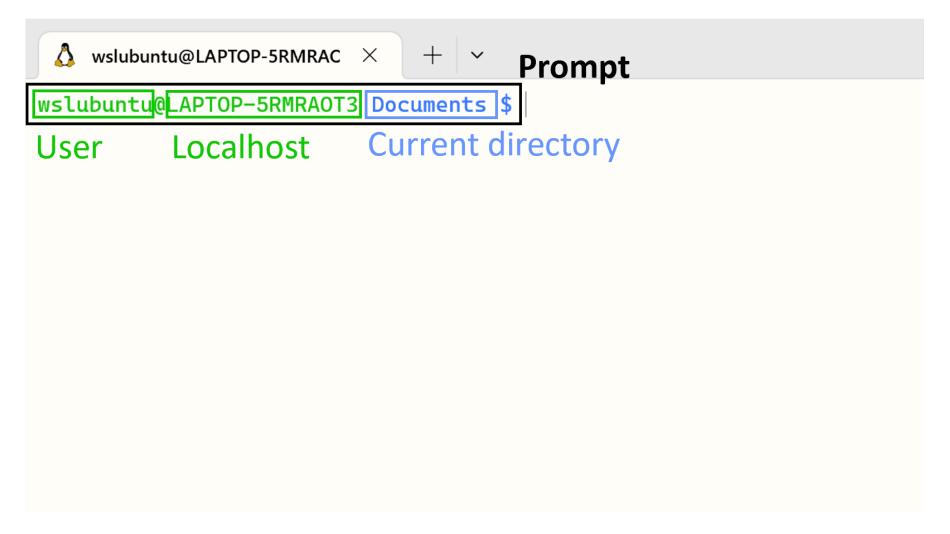
- A **login** shell logs you into the system as a specific user (it requires username and password). When you hit Ctrl+Alt+F1 to login into a virtual terminal you get after successful login: a login shell (that is interactive).
- A **non-login** shell is executed without logging in (it requires a current logged in user). When you open a graphic terminal it is a non-login (interactive) shell.

Types of shell - Interactive

The second distinction we make is between:

- In an interactive shell (login or non-login) you can interactively type or interrupt commands. For example a graphic terminal (non-login) or a virtual terminal (login). In an interactive shell the prompt variable must be set (\$PS1).
- A non-interactive (sub)shell is usually run from an automated process. Input and output are not exposed (unless explicitly handled by the calling process). This is normally a non-login shell, because the calling user has logged in already. A shell running a script is always a non-interactive shell (but the script can emulate an interactive shell by prompting the user to input values).

Exploring the Terminal



The **prompt** can be customized (more on that later).

Moving quickly in the Terminal (1/2)

It should almost never happen that you have to write a terminal command by typing it out character by character. Instead, you should rely on shortcuts to be more efficient. Here some tips:

- Tab: Auto-completes commands and paths. E.g. if in the current folder there are the files main.cpp and test.cpp, if you type g++ m and press Tab, it will auto-complete to g++ main.cpp.
- Up and Down arrows: Slide through previous commands.
- Ctrl + R: Start a incremental reverse search of your bash history. In other words it finds the last complete command that you executed that starts with what you are typing.
- Ctrl + L : Similar to clear command, clears the terminal screen

Moving quickly in the Terminal (2/2)

Ctrl-U

\$ cp monfichier dir/

Ctrl-W Alt-D Erasing

Ctrl-K

Bash as a command line interpreter

When launching a terminal a Unix system first launches the shell interpreter specified in the SHELL environment variable. If SHELL is unset it uses the system default.

After having sourced the initialization files, the interpreter shows the **prompt** (defined by the environment variable \$PS1).

Initialization files are hidden files stored in the user's home directory, executed as soon as an **interactive** shell is run.

Initialization files

• login:

- /etc/profile , /etc/profile.d/* , ~/.profile for Bourne-compatible shells
- ~/.bash_profile (Or ~/.bash_login) for Bash
- /etc/zprofile , ~/.zprofile for zsh
- /etc/csh.login , ~/.login for csh
- non-login: /etc/bash.bashrc , ~/.bashrc for Bash

• interactive:

- /etc/profile, /etc/profile.d/* and ~/.profile
- /etc/bash.bashrc , ~/.bashrc for Bash

• non-interactive:

- /etc/bash.bashrc for Bash (but most of the times the script begins with: [-z "\$PS1"] && return , i.e. don't do anything if it's a non-interactive shell).
- depending on the shell, the file specified in \$ENV (or \$BASH_ENV) might be read.

Getting started

To get a little hang of the bash, let's try a few simple commands:

- echo: returns whatever you type at the shell prompt similar to print in Python, or disp in Matlab.
- date: displays the current time and date.
- clear : clean the terminal.

Basic Bash Commands 1/2

- pwd stands for **Print working directory** and it points to the current working directory, that is, the directory that the shell is currently looking at. It's also the default place where the shell commands will look for data files.
- 1s stands for a **List** and it lists the contents of a directory. Is usually starts out looking at our home directory. This means if we print Is by itself, it will always print the contents of the current directory.
- cd stands for **Change directory** and changes the active directory to the path specified.

Basic Bash Commands 2/2

- mkdir stands for Make directory and is used to make a new directory or a folder.
- mv stands for **Move** and it moves one or more files or directories from one place to another. We need to specify what we want to move, i.e., the source and where we want to move them, i.e., the destination.
- touch command is used to create new, empty files. It is also used to change the timestamps on existing files and directories.
- rm stands for **Remove** and it removes files or directories. By default, it does not remove directories, but if used as rm -r * within a directory, then every directory and file inside that directory is deleted (* is a special characters that matches everything).
- env list the environmental variables

Not all commands are equals

When executing a command, like 1s a subprocess is created. A subprocess inherits all the environment variables from the parent process, executes the command and returns the control to the calling process.

A subprocess cannot change the state of the calling process.

The command source script_file executes the commands contained in script_file as if they were typed directly on the terminal. It is only used on scripts that have to change some environmental variables or define aliases or function.

Typing . script_file does the same.

If the environment should not be altered, use ./script_file , instead.

Run a script

To run your brand new script you may need to change the access permissions of the file. To make a file executable run

```
chmod +x script_file
```

Finally, remember that the **first line of the script** tells the shell which interpreter to use while executing the file. So, for example, if your script starts with <code>#!/bin/bash</code> it will be run by <code>Bash</code>, if is starts with <code>#!/usr/bin/env</code> python it will be run by python.

Built-in commands

Some commands, like cd are executed directly by the shell, without creating a subprocess.

Indeed it would be impossible the have cd as a regular command! Why?

Answer: a subprocess cannot change the state of the calling process, whereas cd needs to change the value of the environmental variable PWD (that contains the name of the current working directory).

Other commands

In general a **command** can refer to:

- a builtin command;
- an executable;
- a function.

The shell looks for executables with a given name within directories specified in the environment variable PATH, whereas aliases and functions are usually sourced by the .bashrc file (or equivalent).

To check what command_name is:

```
type command_name
```

To check its location type:

```
which command_name
```

A warning about filenames

In order to live happily and without worries, **don't** use spaces nor accented characters in filenames!

Space characters in file names should be forbidden by law! The space is used as separation character, having it in a file name makes things a lot more complicated in any script (not just bash scripts).

Use underscores (snake case): my_wonderful_file_name, or uppercase characters (camel case): myWonderfulFileName, or hyphens: my-wonderful-file-name, or a mixture: myWonderful_file-name, instead.

But **not** my wonderful file name. It is not wonderful at all if it has to be parsed in a script.

Quotes

Double quotes may be used to identify a string where the variables are interpreted. Single quotes identify a string where variables are not interpreted. Check the output of the following commands

```
a=yes
echo "$a"
echo '$a'
```

The output of a command can be converted into a string and assigned to a variable for later reuse:

```
list=`ls -l`
or
list=$(ls -l)
```

Wildcards

A wildcard is a symbol (or set of symbols) representing other characters. It is really useful for searching a file (maybe you know just its extension) or listing a subset of files in a folder (maybe you want to display only files starting with 2023-).

- The wildcard ? means it will match a single character. For example, S?? In will match anything that will begin with S and end with n and has two characters between them.
- The wildcard * means it will match any number of characters or a set of characters. For example, S**n will match anything between S and n. The number of characters between them does not count.
- The wildcard [] means it will match characters that are enclosed in square braces. For example, S[on]n will match only Son and Snn. We can also specify characters in braces like S[a-d]n, which will match San, Sbn, Scn, Sdn.

Exercises

- Go to your home folder (*Suggestion*: you can either use ~ or \$HOME)
- Create a folder named test1
- Go inside test1 and create a directory test2
- Go inside test2 and then up one directory (*Suggestion*: .. indicates the upper directory)
- Create the following files f1.txt , f2.txt , f3.dat , f4.md , readme.md , .hidden
- List all files in the directory, also the hidden ones
- List only files with txt extension (*Suggestion*: use * wildcard)
- List files with 1, 2, 3 or 4 in the name (Suggestion: use [1-4] wildcard)
- Move the readme.md in test2
- Move all txt files in test2 in one command
- Remove f3.dat
- Remove all contents of test2 and the folder itself in one commands

Download and extract a Matrix

With wget you can retrieve content from web servers. For instance, you can download a matrix from the matrix market with wget

https://math.nist.gov/pub/MatrixMarket2/NEP/mhd/mhd416a.mtx.gz.

To unzip the file, simply type gzip -dk mhd416a.mtx.gz

More commands

- cat stands for **Concatenate** and it reads a file and outputs its content. It can read any number of files, and hence the name concatenate.
- wc is short for **Word count**. It reads a list of files and generates one or more of the following statistics: newline count, word count, and byte count.
- grep stands for **Global regular expression print**. It searches for lines with a given string or looks for a pattern in a given input stream.
- head show the first lines of a file
- tail show the last lines of a file
- file reads the files specified and performs a series of tests in attempt to classify them by type

Redirection, Pipelines and Filters

We can add operators between commands in order to chain them together.

- The pipe operator | , forwards the output of one command to another. E.g. cat /etc/passwd | grep user checks system information about "user".
- The redirect operator > sends the standard output of one command to a file. E.g. 1s > files-in-this-folder.txt saves a file with the list of files.
- The append operator >> appends the output of one command to a file.
- The operator &> sends the standard output and the standard error to file
- && pipe is activated only if the return status of the first command is 0. It is used to chain commands together: e.g. sudo apt update && sudo apt upgrade
- || pipe is activated only if the return status of first command is different from 0.
- ; is a way to execute to commands regardless of the output status
- \$? is a variable containing the output status of the last command

Exercises

- Create a file with the current date (one command) and display its content
- Count the number of lines in the matrix mhd416a.mtx (Suggestion: use cat, wc
 and |)
- List the entries of the matrix that are smaller than 1e-10 in absolute value. You can assume that all values are in exponential format and all values are greater than 1e-100 in absolute value. Count how many entries satisfy this criteria. (*Suggestion*: use cat, grep, wc and |)

Regex (Advanced)

Similarly to wildcards, regular expressions (regex or regexp) are a string that matches a family of strings. They are extremely useful in extracting information from any text by searching for one or more matches of a specific search pattern. They are supported in almost all programming languages and by grep.

In this site you can test and debug your regex interactively:

https://regex101.com/

In this site you can find step-by-step interactive exercises:

https://regexone.com/

Regex - Anchors

(Advanced)

- ^: matches the start of the line
- \$: matches the end of the line

Examples:

```
echo "the the end end" | grep --color -P ^the
echo "the the end end" | grep --color -P the
echo "the the end end" | grep --color -P end
echo "the the end end" | grep --color -P end$
```

Notes:

- --color option is the color the grep match
- -P option is for regex
- -i option is for case insensitive

Regex - Quantifiers

(Advanced)

- (...) : characters in brackets define a **group**, meaning they are treated as a single entity by quantifiers
- * : matches zero or more times the group before this character
- + : matches one or more times the group before this character
- ?: matches zero or one times the group before this character
- {2} : matches **exactly** two times the group before this character
- {2,} : matches two or more times the group before this character
- {2,5} : matches two to five times the group before this character

Examples:

```
echo abcbcbc | grep --color -P "a(bc)?"
echo abcbcbc | grep --color -P "a(bc){2}"
echo abcbcbc | grep --color -P "a(bc)*"
```

Regex - OR operator

(Advanced)

- | : matches the group on the right or on the left
- [...]: matches any of the characters in the square brackets
- [^...]: ^ inside square brackets has a different meaning, it is a negation: means any character but the ones in the square brackets

Examples:

```
echo abcbcbc | grep --color -P "[ab]"
echo abcbcbc | grep --color -P "(a|b)"
echo abcbcbc | grep --color -P "abc[^d]c"
```

Regex - Character classes

(Advanced)

- \d: matches a single character that is a digit (equivalent to [0-9])
- \w: matches a word character (alphanumeric and underscore, [a-zA-Z0-9_])
- \s : matches a whitespace character (includes tabs and line breaks)
- . : matches any character

Examples:

```
echo abcbcbc-1234 | grep --color -P "\w"
```

Note:

What if I want to match . ? Use the escape \

```
echo "ab.d-abcd" | grep --color -P "ab[^\.]d"
```

Regex - Greedy vs lazy

(Advanced)

The quantifiers * + {} are greedy operators, so they expand the match as far as they can through the provided text.

For example, <.+> matches <div>simple div</div> in This is a <div> simple div</div> test . In order to catch only the div tag we can use a ? to make it lazy:

```
echo "This is a <div> simple div</div> test" | grep --color -P "<.+>"
echo "This is a <div> simple div</div> test" | grep --color -P "<.+?>"
```

Regex - Look ahead

- d(?=r) matches a d only if is followed by r, but r will not be part of the overall regex match
- (?<=r)d matches a d only if is preceded by an r, but r will not be part of the overall regex match
- d(?!r) matches a d only if is not followed by r, but r will not be part of the overall regex match
- (?<!r)d matches a d only if is not preceded by an r, but r will not be part of the overall regex match

Advanced commands - tr

- tr stands for **translate**. It supports a range of transformations including uppercase to lowercase, squeezing repeating characters, deleting specific characters, and basic find and replace. For instance:
 - echo "Welcome to apsc labs" | tr [a-z] [A-Z] converts all characters to upper case.
 - echo -e "A;B;c\n1,2;1,4;1,8" | tr "," "." | tr ";" "," translates a line of
 a CSV in italian format to a standard format.
 - echo "my ID is 73535" | tr -d [:digit:] deletes all the digits from the
 string

Advanced commands - sed

- sed stands for **stream editor** and it can perform lots of functions on file like searching, find and replace, insertion or deletion. We give just an hint of its true power
 - echo "unix is great os. unix is open source." | sed 's/unix/linux/'
 replaces the first occurrence of "unix" with "linux"
 - echo "unix is great os. unix is open source." | sed 's/unix/linux/2'
 replaces the second occurrence of "unix" with "linux"
 - echo "unix is great os. unix is open source." | sed 's/unix/linux/g'
 replaces all occurrences of "unix" with "linux"
 - echo -e "ABC\nabc" | sed '/abc/d' delete a line matching "abc"
 - echo -e "1\n2\n3\n4\n5\n6\n7\n8" | sed '3,6d' delete lines 3 to 6

- cut is a command for cutting out the sections from each line of files and writing the result to standard output.
 - o cut -b 1-3,7- state.txt cut bytes (-b) from 1 to 3 and from 7 to end of the line
 - echo -e "A,B,C\n1.22,1.2,3\n5,6,7\n9.99999,0,0" | cut -d "," -f 1 get the first column of a CSV (-d specifies the delimiter among field, -f n specifies to pick the n-th field from each line)
- find is used to find files in specified directories that meet certain conditions. For example: find . -type d -name "*lib*" find all directories (not files) starting from the current one (.) whose name contain lib.
- locate is less powerful than find but much faster since it relies on a database that is updated on a daily base or manually using the command updatedb. For example: locate -i foo finds all files or directories whose name contains foo ignoring case.

Processes (Advanced)

- Launch a command and send it in the background: ./my_command &
- Ctrl-Z suspends the current subprocess and bg reactivates the suspended subprocess in the background.
- jobs lists all subprocesses running in the background in the terminal.
- fg %n brings back to the foreground the n-th subprocess in the background.
- Ctrl-C terminates the subprocess in the foreground (when not trapped).
- kill pid sends termination signal to the subprocess with id pid. You can get a list of the most computationally expensive processes with top and a complete list with ps aux (usually ps aux is filtered through a pipe with grep)

All subprocesses in the background of the terminal are terminated when the terminal is closed (unless launched with nohup, but that is another story...)

How to get help

Most commands provide a -h or --help flag to print a short help information:

```
find -h
```

man command prints the documentation manual for command.

There is also an info facility that sometimes provides more information: info command.