Course Overview

Course Objective: Develop your Linux Command Line & Shell Scripting skills and advance your career

Basic Admin

Installing Linux on a Virtual Machine

Setting up Accounts

Setting up Permissions

Unix Commands - A Comprehensive Primer

Basics of Shell Scripting

Overview

Editors - Vim and Notepad++

Shell Expansion

Quotes

Braces, Brackets and Parentheses

A starter Shell script

Input and Output Processing

Course Overview

Core Processing

Iterations

For loops

While loops

Until loops

IF statements

Case statements

Regular Expressions

Arrays

Dates

Functions

Course Overview

File Processing

Cut

Sort

Uniq

Awk

Grep

Sed

Cron - Job Scheduling

Projects

Document Merge

Listing Users and Groups

Cron - Scheduling a backup

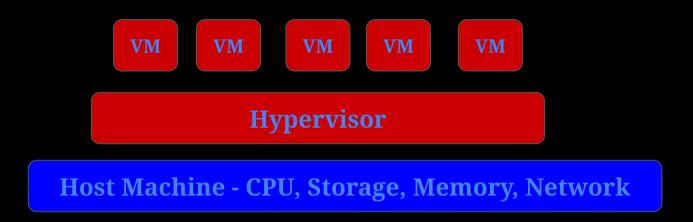
Aggregating data in CSV files

Pivoting input data

Formatting output data

An Enterprise-level shell script putting it all together

Virtual Environment



Virtual Machine - A computing resource that uses software instead of a physical computer to run programs and deploy apps

Each VM in encapsulated from other VMs

Hypervisor - It is a program used to manage and run multiple VMs on a computer

Linux in a Virtual Environment

We install Linux in a Virtual Environment mainly for the following reasons:

- Provides an Isolated Environment for eg. if you install Linux Mint (a Linux distribution) in a
 Virtual Environment such as Oracle VirtualBox, on a Windows system, it minimizes setup
 conflicts. In case something messes up with your Linux install it will not affect your Windows
 system. You can just delete your Virtual Machine and start all over again.
- Easier to clone a Virtual Machine in Virtual Box rather than re-create multiple instances of Linux distros.
- Provides an easy setup mechanism for students wanting to set up a bare bone system on which they could practice Unix Admin & Shell Scripting without affecting other systems.

Linux in a Virtual Environment ...

What we need to do to set up Linux in a Virtual Environment:

1. Install Oracle VirtualBox - https://www.virtualbox.org/wiki/Downloads

It provides a shell with a UI for managing your different Virtual Machines. So you could have multiple VMs in VirtualBox for different Linux distros - one for Centos, one for Linux Mint etc. Each one of them can be managed independently.

2. Download Linux Mint - https://www.linuxmint.com/download.php

This is one of the more popular Linux distros.

- 3. Install Linux Mint on VirtualBox
- 4. Install any utility software. In our case, we are going to be installing Notepad++ so you have an alternative to using the command-key based Vi editor.

Overview of Topics covered:

Types of Users - Root (Sudo), Admin and Regular Users

What is a Root User? What are the privileges?
How do you log in as Root?
Why should you not log in as Root?
What is Sudo? Why use Sudo instead of Root?
How do you lock/unlock Root access?

What is an Admin user in Linux Mint? What is the benefit of this role?

What is a Regular User? What are the privileges of a Regular User?

How do you give a Regular User Sudo privileges?

Overview of Topics covered (contd.):

User Management

Adding Users
Adding Groups
Where can you see the stored User and Group information?

Adding Users to Groups Adding Users to Sudo

Deleting Users from Groups
Deleting Groups
Deleting Users

What is a Root User? What are the privileges?

Default user with full privileges
Can add/modify/delete any file
Can run any executable
Can add/delete Accounts and modify Permissions
Is defined by a user id of 0

• How do you log in as Root?

The administrator assigns a password to Root Use 'su' or 'su -'

The prompt will show a pound sign instead of a dollar to distinguish root

The user id for Root should be 0

Why should you not log in as Root?

Running commands as Root could potentially cause irreversible damage to the system:

You could accidentally delete or modify system files
A malicious program could log in as Root and cause severe damage
Anyone could log in as Root once they know the password

What is Sudo?

Sudo is short form for SuperUser Do. It gives you the ability to act as Root for 'One' command at a time.

Why use Sudo instead of Root?

Since you have to run Sudo for each command you are constantly reminded that you are running commands as root. It is very unlikely that you will accidentally run commands causing damage after repeated reminders. Whereas you could be logged in as Root and forget about it. Inadvertently you could run many commands in sequence that could cause system wide damage and not realize it. You would need a system reinstall in that case.

When you log in as Root the user has to log in with the Root user id. You cannot track which user ran a certain command. In case of Sudo the user has to log in with their own user id. This way we can track user activity.

How do you lock Root access?

sudo passwd -l root

How do you unlock Root access?

sudo passwd root

What is an Admin user in Linux Mint? What is the benefit of this role?

By default the Admin is the user that installed the system. The Admin has sudo access by default and can assign the password for the Root user, making Root active. The benefit of the role is that by default you are starting off with sudo access and Root access is optional and can be kept permanently disabled. In some other versions of Linux, the Root user is the one that installed the system and is the default user. So you could be logged in as Root for a while, simply since that is your default role. That could potentially cause a lot of problems.

• What is a Regular or Standard user? What are the privileges of a Regular user?

The Regular or Standard user has the ability to perform routine tasks such as reading and writing files, and running executables. The scope of the Regular user is limited by its permissions.

How do you give a Regular User Sudo privileges?

Add the user to the Sudo group using either of the following commands: sudo adduser <username> sudo sudo usermod -a -G sudo <user>

Adding Users

sudo adduser test_user

Adding Groups

sudo addgroup test_main_group sudo addgroup test_secondary_group

Where can you see the stored User and Group information?

User information can be viewed in the /etc/passwd file Group information can be viewed in the /etc/group file

- What are the contents of the /etc/passwd file?
 - 1) Username
 - 2) Password: 'x' means that the password is encrypted password and is stored in /etc/shadow file
 - 3) User Id (UID): UID 0 (zero) is root. UIDs 1-999 are reserved for system accounts etc.

Regular ids start at 1000

- 4) Group Id (GID): The primary group Id. This is stored in the /etc/group file
- 5) User Info: Information about the user full name etc
- 6) Home directory: The login directory of the user. If this field is blank, the login directory for the user is *l*
- 7) Command/shell: The shell path or command

Adding Users to Groups
 Add a user to the main group:
 sudo adduser test_user test_main_group
 Add a user to the main group and make it the primary group for the user:
 sudo usermod -g test_main_group test_user
 Add a user to the secondary group
 sudo usermod -aG test_secondary_group test_user

 Adding User to Sudo group sudo adduser <username> sudo or sudo usermod -a -G sudo <user>

List users for a group groups test_user

- Deleting Users from Groups sudo deluser test_user test_secondary_group
- Deleting Groups sudo delgroup test_secondary_group
- Deleting Userssudo deluser -r test_user

Overview of Permissions on Files/Folders:

Adding/Changing/Removing Permissions

Using chmod rwx
Using chmod with numerical values

Change Ownership - chown Change Group - chgrp

Miscellaneous

Copying Permissions

Applying Permissions recursively

Overview of Permissions (contd.):

Permissions on:

User, Group & Other Directories, Files & Links

Directory vs File Permissions

Adding/Changing/Removing Permissions

The permissions on a file *l* directory are specified as:

```
<d/-/l> rwx (User) rwx (Group) rwx (Other)
```

d = Directory

- = Filename

I = Link

r - Read permissions

w - Write permissions

x - Execute permissions

User - The owner of the file/directory

Group - All users in the Group have access to the file/directory as defined

by the

permissions

Adding/Changing/Removing Permissions (contd.)

In case there are no permissions a (-) replaces r (read), w (write) or x

The sample permissions for a directory with full permissions for User,

Group and Other:

(execute)

drwxrwxrwx

The sample permissions for a file with full permissions for User, Group and Other:
-rwxrwxrwx

A directory with Permissions such as User (Read, Write, Execute), Group (Read, Write)
and Other (No permissions) would be defined as:

Adding/Changing/Removing Permissions (contd.)

Use the chmod command to add read <r>, write <w>, execute <x> permissions on a directory / file as below:

chmod <u/g/o> + rwx <directory / filename> ...where u - user, g - group, o - other

Consider a file that has zero permissions for User, Group and Other:

- --- ---

To set the permissions as User (Read, Write), Group (Read, Write), Other

(Read) run the command:

Adding/Changing/Removing Permissions (contd.)

'0':

To remove permissions use the - sign instead of +. So to remove write permissions on the User and Group for the above scenario run:

chmod u-w,g-w <filename>

To change all (User, Group, Other) permissions use 'a' instead of 'u','g' and

chmod a+rwx <filename>

Numerical Permissions

The numerical permissions are set as below:

$$R (4 = 2^2)$$

$$W (2 = 2^1)$$

$$X (1 = 2^{\circ})$$

The total permissions are got by adding R+W+X for user, group and other

To get r-x rwx -- x you would use 5(r-x) 7(rwx) 1(--x)

Instead of chmod u+rx,g+rwx,o+x you could use chmod 571

Change Ownership - chown

The Ownership of a file/directory can be changed using chown:
sudo chown <user> <file/directory>
Use the -v option for verbose output:
sudo chown -v <user> <file/directory>

• Change Group Ownership - chgrp

The Group Ownership of a file/directory can be changed using chown:

sudo chgrp <user> <file/directory>

Use the -v option for verbose output:

sudo chgrp -v <user> <file/directory>

Copying Permissions

Permissions can be copied between files and directories

sudo <chmod/chown/chgrp> --reference=file1 file2

Changing Permissions Recursively

Permissions can be changed recursively:

sudo <chmod/chown/chgrp> -R <user> <file/directory>

Permissions on:

Users, Groups & Other

User permissions apply only to the owner of the file/directory Group permissions apply to all users within the group of the

Other permissions apply to users that do not fall in either the User

or Group

file/directory

category

Directories

read - Can list the contents of the directory write - Can create files/directories in the directory execute - Can switch to the directory

Permissions on:

Files

read - Can read the file write - Can write to the file execute - Can run the executable

Links

The Link displays full permissions but the actual permissions are determined by the file/directory it is pointing to

• Directory vs File Permissions

File permissions are more restrictive/permissive than Directory permissions and override the Directory permissions except in certain cases such as a Delete. For the case of Delete, the permissions of the directory take precedence

• Topics Covered:

Getting information on commands

Types of Unix commands:

Internal Shell commands (built-in)

External Shell commands

Alias commands

Function commands

Keyword commands

Topics Covered (contd.):

Categories:

System Commands
File and Directory Commands
User Info Commands
Networking Commands
SSH and File Transfer Commands
Disk Commands
Security Commands
Archiving Commands
Search Commands
Installation Commands

*** User Management Commands

Getting information on commands

Listing all commands

```
compgen -c (lists all the commands you could run)
compgen -a (lists all the aliases you could run)
compgen -b (lists all the built-ins you could run)
compgen -k (lists all the keywords you could run)
compgen -A function (lists all the functions you could run)
```

Getting help on commands

```
<command> --help/h
man
tldr
bropages
```

• Types of Unix commands

Find the Type of command

type -t

type -a

Internal Shell commands (built-in)

External Shell commands (file)

Alias commands

Function commands

Keyword commands

Internal Shell commands (built-in)

List all built-in commands using:

help -d compgen -b

Some common shell commands:

cd - Change directory pwd - Display current path logout - Log out of the current session

Some common shell commands are:

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ type -a cd cd is a shell builtin

External Shell commands (file)

These are commands which have their own file or binary and are usually

located in

/usr/bin or /bin

Some examples of External Shell commands are 'cat', 'man', 'awk'

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ type -t cat file

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ type -a cat cat is /usr/bin/cat cat is /bin/cat

Alias commands

These are shortcut commands which are used to provide a convenient way to run longer

commands without having to type in the full list of options each time

For example, the command 'ls -latr' displays all the files in the directory in the long format sorted by time in the reverse order

We can create an alias for it (If) as below:

Keyword commands

Keyword commands are commands reserved for shell programming, such as 'if', 'then', 'else', 'for', 'while' etc

syedaf@Mint-VM:~\$ type if then else for while

if is a shell keyword

then is a shell keyword

else is a shell keyword

for is a shell keyword

while is a shell keyword

Function commands

Bash functions allow grouping of a set of commands for execution with a single name. They differ from aliases in that they allow for control flow of execution.

A simple function for listing files with a certain extension could be defined as

follows:

```
batchexec ()
{
     find . -type f -iname '*.'${1}''
}
```

It can be executed as below and will list shell scripts in the directory with a sh

extension:

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ batchexec sh

Command Categories

System commands

```
hostname -- Name of the host
whoami -- Your current user name
                     -- Who is logged into the system
who
date
                     -- The current date and time
free -h
         -- Display free and used system memory
                     -- Display real-time info about running processes
top
          -- Display all current running processes in the system
ps -ef
kill pid -- Kill a certain process
killall  -- Kill all processes named 
ip a
                     -- Display all network interfaces and ip addresses
ping <host>
                                          -- Test connection to host
head/tail -n /var/log/syslog -- Display first or last 'n' lines of the
```

• Command Categories (contd.) - File and Directory commands

```
Is -al
                                 -- List all the files in a directory (long format)
rm -f <file>
                                 -- Remove a file without confirmation
touch <file> -- Create an empty file
                    -- Read the contents of the file
cat <file>
head -n <file>
                     -- Display the top <n> lines of the file
tail -n <file>
                     -- Display the last <n> lines of the file
tail -f <file>
                      -- Scroll and display the last 10 lines of the file
less <file>
                     -- Scroll through contents of file
mkdir <dir>
                     -- Make a directory
                      -- Delete the directory and it's contents
rm -rf <dir>
                                 -- Change to directory
cd
pwd
                                 -- Display present working directory
In -s
                                 -- In -s <filepath> linkname
cp <file1> <file2> -- Copy file1 to file
mv <file1> <file2> -- Move file1 to file2 (directory)
```

• Command Categories (contd.) -

User Info commands

the week	id <user></user>	Displays the User Id and Group Ids for
the user	groups <user></user>	Displays the Groups the User belongs
to	finger <user></user>	Displays detailed information about the
user	getent <db> <user></user></db>	Retrieve user information from the system file -
passwd,	group etc	
in the system	Islogins	Displays login information about users
the system	users	Displays users currently logged in to
the system	Lead of	Minute of the Control of the control of the

Command Categories (contd.) -

Networking commands

ip a ifconfig netstat ping

reached over the network

- -- Display all the IP addresses
- -- Display all the IP addresses
- -- Display network related information
 - -- Test if a device can be

Command Categories (contd.) -

SSH and File Transfer commands

ssh (Secure Shell) -- Connect to host scp (Secure Copy Protocol) -- Secure copy file to remote machine. Linear Rsync (Remote Sync) -- Sync files between the local and remote systems.

Copy

сору.

deltas with the ability to resume interrupted transfers. ftp / sftp (Secure File Transfer Protocol) -- Connect to remote hostname.

Allows for

remote directory file listings and file removal.
get/mget -- Get file(s) from host
put/mput -- Put file(s) on host

Note: The Scp and Rsync commands are similar but Rsync provides many

Command Categories (contd.) -

Disk commands

fdisk -- Add, delete or make changes to partitions cfdisk -- Similar to fdisk but with a GUI

df -h -- Report disk usage on mounted

filesystems in a human-readable

format

du -ah

hwinfo

-- Report total disk usage for all files and directories

in a

human-readable format

-- Displays mount points and their disk usage

Isblk -- Displays disks and their partitions in a

graphical manner

pydf

-- General purpose hardware information

Command Categories (contd.) -

Security commands

who -- Display information on who is logged in to the system -- Displays more detailed information on W logged in users -- Display recent logins last -- Uncomplicated Firewall. Front-end for ufw configuration of a firewall -- Display information on the network ip interfaces kill -- Kill a process -- Change passwords passwd pwck -- Checks for required files and

/etc/shadow files

directories in letclpasswd

Command Categories (contd.) -

Arcl	nivi	na	con	nma	and	Ç
• .		9	•••			

	tar	Standard archiving utility tar cvf (compress) tar xvf (extract)
with tar	ar	Maintains groups of files in a single file. Replaced
files (extract)	gzip	File compression utility for compressing single gzip <filename> (compress) gunzip <filename></filename></filename>
slower rate	bzip2	Provides higher compression than gzip but at a bzip2 -z <filename> (compress) bzip2 -d <filename></filename></filename>

• Command Categories (contd.) -

Search commands

	find	Finds a file in a given directory and sub-directories	
	locate	Locates a file in the database	
	which	Determines which version of a program or command will run	
and			
	displays	ays the path	
	whereis	Locates the binary, source, and manual page files for a	
command			
	whatis	Provides summary descriptions from the man page	
	apropos	Similar to whatis but finds all matches containing the term	
	grep	Search for a pattern in file	

Installation commands

apt – Advanced Packaging Tool. Linux Mint and Debian

Vim Editor

- Vi is the command-based screen editor of choice for UNIX systems
- Vim is a superset of Vi and has enhanced functionality:
 - Multiple undo and redo
 - Windows splitting and tabs
 - Code highlighting
 - Macros
- Vi has 2 modes: Command mode and Insert mode
 - Command mode is used for copying, pasting, deleting and navigating text and is the default mode on entering the editor
 - Insert mode is for entering text and is entered by pressing the 'i' key
 - Revert back to Command mode from Insert mode by pressing the Esc key

Vim Editor

- Type vim <filename> to enter edit mode
- q Quit (will prompt in case changes have been made)
- q! Quit without being prompted for saving in case of changes
- x Save and quit (same timestamp)
- wq Save and quit
- wq! Save and quit . Force write in case of read-only files.

Writing out to a file

- Difference between :w and :w!
- :w prompts when overwriting a read-only file
- :w! overwrites a file without prompting

- Moving Around
 - Use the Arrow keys and PgUp/PgDn keys
 - Move down

```
j - Move down 1 line
```

<n>j - J lines to the bottom

Move to the bottom

G

:\$

- Moving Around
 - Move up

```
k - Move up 1 line
```

<n>k - k lines to the top

Move to the top

gg

:1

- Moving Around
 - Move right
 - I Move right 1 character
 - <n>I I characters to the right
 - Move left
 - h Move left 1 character
 - <n>h h characters to the left

- Moving Around
 - ^ to move the cursor to the start of the current line
 - \$ to move the cursor to the end of the current line
 - Page forward Ctrl-F
 - Page backward Ctrl-B

- Inserting Text
 - a Append text to the right of the cursor
 - A Append text at the end of the line
 - i Insert text at the left of the cursor
 - I Insert text at the beginning of the line
 - o Open a line below the cursor
 - O Open a line above the cursor

- Changing Text
 - cw Change the word to the right of the cursor
 - cc Replace a line
- Deleting Text
 - x Deletes a character the cursor is on
 - dw Position the cursor at the beginning of the word and delete the word
 - dd Deletes the line
 - <n>dd Deletes n lines

- Copy and Paste
 - yy Copy/Yank the line
 - p Paste the line below the cursor
 - P Paste the line above the cursor
 - <n>yy Yanks <n> lines into the buffer
 - :1,\$y Yanks all lines into the buffer

The above Paste commands work with the Delete command 'dd' too which puts the deleted lines in a buffer.

Shell Expansion

- Expansion The shell processes special characters contained in a command before it processes the entire command as a whole
- The different types of expansion are:
 - Brace expansion
 - Tilde expansion
 - Parameter expansion
 - Command substitution
 - Arithmetic expansion
 - Process substitution
 - Word splitting
 - Filename expansion
 - Quotes

Brace Expansion

- In brace expansion multiple text strings are contained within a pattern enclosed in braces
- The main benefit of this expansion is when creating directories. For example when creating a bunch of directories for a series of months for a year range, this saves us a lot of work since we could now do this instead:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ mkdir {2020..2022}-{01..03}
```

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ ls
2020-01 2020-02 2020-03 2021-01 2021-02 2021-03 2022-01 2022-02 2022-03
```

If you had a specific range of years (2020,2022) and months (01-04), you could do this:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ mkdir {2020,2022}-{01,04}
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ Is
2020-01 2020-04 2022-01 2022-04
```

Tilde Expansion

• The tilde character (~) when used at the beginning of a word expands into the home directory of the named user. For example:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo ~
```

/home/syedaf

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir\$ echo ~/*D*

/home/syedaf/Desktop /home/syedaf/Documents /home/syedaf/Downloads

Parameter Expansion

• In Parameter expansion the value of a variable which is set is processed to give a new value. For example:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var="this is a test string"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test dir$ echo $var
this is a test string
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo ${var:0:4}
this
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo ${#var}
21
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo "${var/this/that}"
that is a test string
```

Command Substitution

• In Command substitution the output of a command is used to replace the command. For example:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $(pwd)
/home/syedaf/test_dir
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $(Is)
2020-01 2020-04 2022-01 2022-04
```

The output of a command can also be piped to another: syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir\$ ls -l \$(which mv) -rwxr-xr-x 1 root root 137744 Feb 7 2022 /usr/bin/mv

A variable can be set to the value of a system command using command substitution: syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir\$ var=\$(date) syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir\$ echo \$var

Fri Aug 12 11:26:29 AM EDT 2022

Arithmetic Expansion

In Arithmetic expansion the arithmetic expression is evaluated and then substituted:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test dir$ y=$((2 + 2))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $y
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ y=$((6 / 2))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $v
     3
```

A value of a variable can also be substituted as below:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ y=1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ y=$((y + 1))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $y
```

Process Substitution

 Process substitution allows the input or output of a command to appear as file. This helps to minimize the number of operations when comparing files as shown below:

Comparing 2 files in reverse order:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ diff <(cat test_file_1.txt) <(cat test_file_2.txt)
... <differences displayed>
```

Reversing file 2 so they match in order:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ diff <(cat test_file_1.txt) <(cat test_file_2.txt | sort test_file_2.txt)
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$</pre>
```

To perform the same operation would take multiple steps normally: 1.) Sort the output of file 2

and pipe it to a temp file. 2.) Compare this temp file with file 1 3.) Delete the temp file

Word Splitting

• When a string variable is expanded the default separator is either space, tab or newline. These are the boundaries used to separate words in the string which can now be listed as an array

This is useful when parsing parameters passed in to a script:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var="parm1 parm2 parm3"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ for word in $var;do
    echo "Word: $word";
    done
```

Output:

Word: parm1 Word: parm2 Word: parm3

The word splitting can be prevented by setting the default separator to null as: IFS=

Filename Expansion

- Wildcards are used to enable filename expansion. For example:
- * Match a group of 0 or more characters

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ ls *.txt
0.txt 1.txt 2.txt 3.txt 4.txt 5.txt 6.txt 7.txt 8.txt 9.txt test_file_1.txt test_file_2.txt
```

• ? - Match exactly 1 character

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ ls 1.?xt
1.txt
```

• [..] - Matches any of the characters in range

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ ls [1-4].txt
1.txt 2.txt 3.txt 4.txt
```

Quotes

Quotes are used to prevent unwanted expansions

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $1000
000 ... since $1 is considered a variable with an undefined value
```

To suppress all expansions use single quotes:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo '$1000'
$1000
```

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo "$USER" syedaf
```

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo '$USER'
$USER
```

Quotes...

• Double quotes are used to prevent unwanted expansions in the case of filenames or to preserve spaces in strings

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var="new file.txt"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ cp 1.txt $var
     cp: target 'file.txt' is not a directory
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ cp 1.txt "$var"
svedaf@MintVM:~/test dir$ ls
     0.txt 1.txt 2020-01 2020-04 2022-01 2022-04 2.txt 3.txt 4.txt 5.txt 6.txt 7.txt
8.txt
     9.txt 'new file.txt' test file 1.txt test file 2.txt
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo one
                                                two
     one two
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo "one
                                               two"
                     two
     one
```

Quotes...

Putting any command between backquotes causes the command to be executed:

- echo `date` is equivalent to
- echo \$(date)

```
syedaf@MintVM:~$ echo $(date)

Mon Sep 26 04:27:49 PM EDT 2022
```

syedaf@MintVM:~\$ echo `date`
Mon Sep 26 04:27:58 PM EDT 2022

Basic Shell Script

- Shebang
- Variables
- Command-line parameters
- Piping commands
- Child scripts
- Variable scope
- Exit code
- Comments

Shebang

• The first line in the shell script is called the shebang. It could be either #!/bin/bash or #!/bin/sh. It specifies the shell that the interpreter is supposed to use to run the commands in the script. #!/bin/bash uses the Bash shell and #!/bin/sh is a symbolic link which could point either to Bash or some other shell such as Dash on recent versions of Ubuntu

Variables

- A variable is a storage for a piece of information. It represents either a string or a numeric value
- System variables such as the present working directory (PWD) should be in upper-case. User defined variables should preferably be kept in lower-case since variables are case-sensitive and this avoids overwriting system variables by accident
- Assignment takes place with a name
- The value is displayed by preceding the variable with the \$ sign
- There should be no spacing between the = and the variable and the value.
 - The shell script will throw an error since it treats the variable as a command

Variables...

- Special script variables
 - \$0 The name of the Bash script
 - \$1 \$9 The first 9 arguments to the Bash script. (As mentioned above)
 - \$# How many arguments were passed to the Bash script
 - \$@ All the arguments supplied to the Bash script
 - \$? The exit status of the most recently run process
 - \$\$ The process ID of the current script

Variables...

- Enclose the contents of the variable in single or double quotes to prevent word splitting
- The difference between double and single quotes is that double quotes expands the enclosed variable while single quotes translate the enclosed variable literally

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var1="Test1"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $var1
Test1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var2="var2 and $var1"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $var2
var2 and Test1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var2='var2 and $var1'
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo $var2
var2 and $var1
```

Tip: Test out the output with an echo statement on the command line

Variables...

When quoting variables which include wildcard expansion do not quote the variable since the expanded value will be based on the resultant string including the quotes

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var1="*"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo ${var1}
0.txt 1.txt 2020-01 2020-04 2022-01 2022-04 2.txt 3.txt 4.txt 5.txt 6.txt 7.txt 8.txt 9.txt new file.txt
test_file_1.txt test_file_2.txt
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo "${var1}"
```

If the variable doesn't include wildcards the result is the same:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var1="1.txt"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo ${var1}
1.txt
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ echo "${var1}"
1.txt
```

Variables...

• It is preferable to use braces - {} - to enclose a variable in order to separate it from adjacent text or variables. In the example below if you do not include the braces the variable is treated as a result of the concatenation with the adjacent string

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir$ var="Hello"
```

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir\$ echo \$varWorld

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_dir\$ echo \${var}World

HelloWorld

Basic Demo Script

- **★** Download test csv input file from https://extendsclass.com/csv-generator.html
- Demo script to demonstrate use of the following:
 - Use of command line parameters
 - Piping command output into a variable
 - Calling a child script
 - Exporting variables to be picked up in the child script
 - Scope of Variables Local & Global
 - Exit Codes
 - Comments

- Command-line parameters are 'positional parameters'. The command itself is \$0. The max number of command line parameters that can be passed in is 9 and these can be accessed using \$1 through \$9
- Shift is used to used to shift the position of the parameters left. This is useful when there are more than 9 parameters.

```
syedaf@MintVM:~$ set parm1 parm2 parm3 parm4 syedaf@MintVM:~$ echo $1 parm1 syedaf@MintVM:~$ shift 2 syedaf@MintVM:~$ echo $1 parm3
```

• Command piping is used to chain a sequence of commands. For eg:

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat test.csv | head -10 | tail -5

.. pipes the output of the file test.csv and first reads the top 10 lines. These are then piped to the

tail command and the last 5 lines are read

Child scripts

A script can be called within another script. The calling script is called the parent script and the

called script is the child script

Variable scope

All variables declared within a function are global - accessible within the whole body of the script even though they may be defined within a function. They can be made local within a function by specifying the local keyword

- Exit codes Every command executed by a Shell script has a return code. We get the value of the exit code from the '\$?' variable. An exit status of 0 means success whereas a non-zero return code means failure
- Comments Comments are marked by beginning the line with a #. Multi-line comments can be declared by using the HereDoc:

```
<< 'MULTILINE-COMMENT'
Line 1
Line 2
MULTILINE-COMMENT</pre>
```

Dates are formatted using options:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/linux_course/sed$ echo $(date)
Wed Oct 5 06:17:03 PM EDT 2022
syedaf@MintVM:~/linux_course/sed$ echo $(date +%m-%d-%Y)
10-05-2022
```

• A function is a set of encapsulated commands. Arguments can be passed in to a function similar to the manner in which they are passed in to a shell script

```
function test_function() {
        echo "arg 1: " $1
        echo "arg 2: " $2
}
test function $1 $2
```

Logical Operators

- Logical Operators are used to test conditions and can further test complex expressions by combining multiple conditions. The 3 main Logical Operators are:
- 1. && (AND Operator) Combines 2 conditions and the overall expression is true only if both conditions are true

```
var1=10; var2="Test";
[[ $var -eq 10 && $var2 == "Test" ]] && echo true
```

2. || (OR Operator) - Combines 2 conditions and the overall expression is true only if at least 1 condition is true

```
[[ $var1 -eq 20 || $var2 == "Test" ]] && echo true
```

3. ! (NOT Operator) - Returns true if the condition is false and vice -versa

```
[[!-f test1.csv]] && echo "File doesn't exist"
```

 Single Parentheses - The commands are run within a subshell. All of the commands contained are run and a single exit code is returned

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo "Var outside: $var"
Var outside: Hello

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ ( var="World"; echo "Var in subshell: $var" )
Var in subshell: World

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo "Var outside: $var"
Var outside: Hello
```

syedaf@MintVM:~/test scripts\$

 Double Parentheses - Used to perform Mathematical operations when there is no return value. The value of the variable is modified within the double parentheses. If the result within is non-zero an exit code of 0 is returned, else a return code of 1 is returned.

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ i=1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ (( i+=9 ))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo $i
10
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ (( i=3 ))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo $?
0
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ (( i=0 ))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo $?
1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$
```

 Dollar (\$) Single Parentheses - The command inside is executed in a subshell and the value is utilized within the containing string

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo "The full path of current dir is: $(pwd)"
The full path of current dir is: /home/syedaf/test_scripts

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ var=$( inner_var=10; echo $inner_var )

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo $var
10

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$
```

 Dollar (\$) Double Parentheses - This is similar to ((...)) except that a value is returned to the container string

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo "The total is $(( 4 + 4 ))"
The total is 8

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ var=$((10/2))
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo $var
5
```

• Single Square Brackets - These are used to evaluate an expression to true or false. These are mainly used in checking for file/directory existence or comparing strings and integers.

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [ -f test.sh ] && echo true true syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ a=10 syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ b=20 syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [ $a -eq $b ] && echo true syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [ $a -ne $b ] && echo true true
```

A complete listing of all the file related checks can be found here: https://tldp.org/LDP/abs/html/fto.html

A complete listing of string and integer related testing can be found here: https://tldp.org/LDP/abs/html/comparison-ops.html

- Double Square Brackets These are used to evaluate an expression to true or false just like Single Square Brackets with the following differences:
 - 1. Double square brackets prevent word splitting

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ var="Hello World"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [ $var = $var ] && echo true
bash: [: too many arguments
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [[ $var = $var ]] && echo true
True
```

2. Double square brackets allow wildcard expansion

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [ Hello == H* ] && echo true
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ [[ Hello == H* ]] && echo true
true
```

Braces - These are used for expansion and ranges.

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo This is test# {1,2,3}
This is test# 1 2 3
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo {0..5}
0 1 2 3 4 5
```

 Dollar Braces - These are used for variable interpolation to separate the expanded variable from adjacent text

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ var="Test#"
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo $var1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ echo ${var}1
Test#1
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$
```

Std. Input, Std. Output, Std. Error

• The input or output of any Unix process is considered a file. The file descriptors are:

0 - STDIN - Reads from our Input file (Keyboard file)

1 - STDOUT - Writes to our output file (Screen)

2 - STDERR - Writes to our Error file which is redirected to our Output file

(Screen)

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ Is
test child.sh test.csv test.out test.sh
```

In the example above 'Is' typed in at the prompt is Std. Input and the files listed by the command

are Std. Output

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ Is x.sh Is: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory

Std. Input, Std. Output, Std. Error

Std. Error redirection:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ ls -l test.sh x.sh 2>/tmp/err.log -rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh
```

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ view /tmp/err.log

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat /tmp/err.log ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory

Std. Output redirection:

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ Is -I test.sh x.sh 1>/tmp/output.log 2>/tmp/err.log

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat /tmp/output.log -rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat /tmp/err.log ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory

Std. Input, Std. Output, Std. Error...

The default redirection is to the output so we can achieve the same by skipping the 1 below:

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ ls -l test.sh x.sh 1>/tmp/output.log 2>/tmp/err.log

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat /tmp/output.log -rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat /tmp/err.log ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ ls -l test.sh x.sh >/tmp/output.log 2>/tmp/err.log

syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts\$ cat /tmp/output.log -rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh

Std. Input, Std. Output, Std. Error...

• The Std. Error can be redirected to the same location as Std. Output as below:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ ls -l test.sh x.sh 1> /tmp/output.log 2>&1
```

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ cat /tmp/output.log
ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory
-rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh
```

A shortcut for redirecting Std. Output and Std. Error to the same location is:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ Is -I test.sh x.sh &> /tmp/output.log
```

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ cat /tmp/output.log
ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory
-rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh
```

Std. Input, Std. Output, Std. Error...

The Std. Input can also be redirected as below:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ cat 0< /tmp/output.log
ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory
-rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh
```

Since the default for Std. Input is 0 it can be skipped:

```
syedaf@MintVM:~/test_scripts$ cat < /tmp/output.log
ls: cannot access 'x.sh': No such file or directory
-rwxr--r-- 1 syedaf test_main_group 1742 Aug 14 11:53 test.sh
```

- Looping is processed using 3 commands:
 - while loop
 - for loop
 - until loop

while loop

```
while [ condition ]
do
st of conditions>
done
```

- break exits the loop when a condition is hit
- continue skips processing for the rest of the loop
- while loops are commonly used for file processing:

```
cat ${fileName} | while read -r line
do
echo $line
done
```

for loop

until loop

```
until [ ! condition ]
do
st of conditions>
done
```

- break exits the loop when a condition is hit
- continue skips processing for the rest of the loop
- Difference between the while loop and until loop: The while loop processes while the condition is true. The until loop processes until the condition is not true

IF Statements

• The IF statement is a condition statement with the following syntax:

IF Statements...

- The IF statement can be used with either:
 - Single Parentheses ()
 - Double Parentheses (())
 - Single Brackets []
 - Double Brackets [[]]

IF Statements...

Single Parentheses

These are used to evaluate a set of conditions within a sub-shell. If the set of conditions

executes successfully then the commands in the IF clause are executed.

Double Parentheses

These are used to evaluate numerical conditions

Single / Double Brackets

These are used to compare strings and numbers. The difference between the two is that the double brackets has more enhanced features and allows for numeric operators in comparison and also has additional features such as wildcards

CASE Statement

 The CASE statement is used instead of the IF statement when multiple branches depend on the value of a single variable. The syntax is:

```
case <expression> in
          <pattern 1>)
          <statements>
     <expression> in
          <pattern_x>)
          <statements>
     *)
          default condition
esac
```

Regular Expressions

- A Regular Expression is a sequence of characters that defines a search pattern in text
- The Regular Expression is mostly used in conjunction with Unix utilities like SED (Stream Editor) to perform operations such as search and replace
- It is handy to keep a cheat sheet for reference when working out the patterns:

Regular Expressions Cheat Sheet by Dave Child - Download free from Cheatography.com

Tip: Test out your regular expression at an online regex tester site to confirm your results before using them in code

https://regex101.com/

Regular Expressions

Common patterns to check out on test file (regex.txt):

```
grep "a.c" regex.txt - '.' is a single wildcard character in any position
     grep "a.*c" regex.txt - '.*' zero or more occurrences of a wildcard character in any position
     grep "x\s*y" regex.txt - '.*' zero or more occurrences of a space in any position
     grep [abAB] test.csv - Character class. One or more of the chars between square brackets
     grep [h-kA-C] regex.txt - Check for Character ranges
     grep '\[.*]' regex.txt - Escape special characters such as '[' with a backslash
     grep '\a.*c\string beginning with a and ending with c
```

Regular Expressions

Common patterns to check out on test file (regex.txt):

```
grep -E '^[0-9]{2}$' regex.txt - Check for occurrences of 2 digits of a number grep -E '[0-9]{4,}' regex.txt - Check for occurrences of 4 digits or more of a number grep -Eo '[0-9]+' regex.txt - Check for multiple occurrences of a number
```

Arrays

- Bash supports both Indexed and Associative arrays. Indexed arrays have a numeric key whereas Associative arrays have a numeric or string key
- Indexed arrays are declared as below:

```
declare -a arr=( 10 20 30 40 )
... or

declare -a arr
arr=( 10 20 30 40 )
... or

arr=()
arr[0]=10 arr[1]=20 arr[3]=30 arr[4]=40
```

Arrays

- Arrays can be looped over using either: \${arr[@]} or \${arr[*]}
- In case of string elements with spaces the array expansion should be enclosed in double spaces:

```
"${arr[@]}" or "${arr[*]} "
```

However, when using '*' the entire array is treated as a single element and so @ is normally used

For eg: ("One" "Two" "Three Four") is split into 3 elements using @:

"One" "Two" and "Three Four"

...whereas * processes the entire element as one string: "One Two Three Four"

Arrays

- The entire array can be accessed using: "\${arr[@]} "
- To access an indexed element: \${arr[0]}
- To set a particular element: arr[0]="Value"
- To unset a particular element: unset arr[0]
- To access all the indexes: \${!arr[@]}
- To append a value to the array without using an index: arr+=(new_val)
- To find the length of an array: \${#arr[@]}
- To get a subset of an array: \${arr[@]:<start_index>:<end_index>}

AWK

- Awk is a scripting language used primarily for data extraction based on patterns and generating formatted reports from raw data
- The basic syntax of an AWK program is: (pattern) {action to be performed on pattern match}

The default pattern matches every line if (pattern) is skipped The default action is to print the line if the action is skipped

• Two optional patterns are:

```
BEGIN { actions to perform } (pattern) {action to be performed on pattern match} END { actions to perform }
```

Online reference sites:

https://awk.js.org/ - Test AWK online https://quickref.me/awk - AWK reference

AWK

- Awk can be run in 3 formats:
 - 1. From the command line as a standalone statement

```
awk -v <variable_list> <rest of awk statements>
```

- 2. Inside a bash script
- 3. From the command line but inside an awk file

```
awk -f <awk file> <input file>
```

The GNU Awk reference is available at:

https://www.gnu.org/software/gawk/manual/gawk.html

Awk Cheatsheet:

Awk Command Cheat Sheet & Quick Reference (https://quickref.me/awk)

Common Awk Variables

- ARGC # of arguments at command line 1 (the word 'awk' is considered one argument)
- ARGV array storing the command line arguments
- FNR number of records in file
- FS field separator
- NF number of fields
- NR total number of records
- OFS output field separator
- ORS output record separator
- RS input record separator

Awk Regular Expressions

• Regular Expressions are used in Awk to search for and replace patterns in the input file:

For matching a pattern:

awk -e '<word/s> ~ /<pattern to match>/ {action}' file

For NOT matching a pattern the exclamation mark is used:

awk -e '<word/s> !~ /<pattern to match>/ {action}' file

For replacing all occurrences of the pattern:

awk '{gsub(/{SEARCH_PATTERN}/,{REPLACE_PATTERN}); print}' {file}

SED

 SED is an abbreviation for Stream Editor. It is mainly used for searching and replacing strings in files.

The syntax is:

sed [options] <input_file>

Common examples of usage:

- sed 's/<search>/<replace>/' filename
- replaces the search pattern with the replace pattern. Only the first occurrence is replaced.
 - sed 's/<search>/<replace>/g' filename
 - replaces every occurrence in the line
 - sed 's/<search>/<replace>/n' filename
 - replaces the nth occurrence in the line

SED

- sed '1,ns/<search>/<replace>/g' filename
 - replaces the word in a range of lines in the file
- sed 's/<search>/<replace>/n' filename
 - replaces the nth occurrence in the file
- sed 'nd' filename
 - deletes the nth line in the file
- sed 'n1,n2d' filename
 - deletes the range of lines in the file
- sed '/<pattern>/d' filename
 - deletes a pattern in the file

Grep

• Grep searches a file for a pattern of characters and returns the lines that match. Some of the common options are:

```
grep -i <pattern> filename - - Case insensitive
```

```
grep -n <pattern> filename - - Returns the line number too
```

grep <^pattern> filename - - Return lines that begin with the pattern

grep <pattern\$> filename - - Return lines that end with the pattern

grep -r <pattern> - - Recursive grep through sub-directories

Grep

- Grep can be used within a shell script in the following cases:
 - Check for a true/false condition

Loop through multiple lines from the result

```
grep <pattern> filename | while read a; do ... done
```

Useful Utilities

- The cut command is used to extract columns from piped inputs or files based on delimiters
 Cut columns 1 and 2 from a csv file: cut -d',' -f 1,2 <filename>
- The uniq command is used in conjunction with the sort command to eliminate duplicate lines

Sort then get unique lines: sort -t '<delimiter>' -n (numerical) -k<col#> <input_file> | uniq

Scheduling Jobs - Cron

- The Cron utility is used to schedule jobs to run at fixed intervals. Crontab is short form for 'Cron table' and is a table used to list all the scheduled Cron jobs.
- The common crontab commands are:

List the crontab for the user - 'crontab -l'

Edit the crontab - 'crontab -e' - Gives an initial choice of an editor

Remove the crontab - 'crontab -r'

Display the last time edited - 'crontab -v'

Scheduling Jobs - Cron

A starter template for the crontab is listed below:

```
# .----- Minute (0 - 59)

# | .----- Hour (0 - 23)

# | | .---- Day Of Month (1 - 31)

# | | | .---- Month (1 - 12) OR Jan,Feb,Mar,Apr ...

# | | | | .--- Day Of Week (0 - 6) (Sunday=0 OR 7) OR Sun,Mon,Tue,Wed,Thu,Fri,Sat

# | | | | | |

# * * * * * Command to be executed
```

Cheat Sheet: https://quickref.me/cron.html

Processing Input

Script Input is processed using the following options:

- Using command-line arguments to the script
- Read arguments from a prompt

read - Read data from the keyboard

read -p - Read data from a prompt

read -s - Read typed data in silent mode (eg. passwords)

\$REPLY - Read the whole line of input data. There is no splitting into multiple arguments

- Read a file line-by-line in a loop
- Process the parameters using 'getopts'

Processing Input...

Getopts is a built-in command of the bash shell. It processes command options and arguments. It is the bash version of the system tool - getopt.

- getopts processes short options which is a '-' followed by a letter or digit
- The positional parameters are stored in the shell variable '\$@'

For the input: 'command -x value_1 -y value_2' the value of the variable '\$@' is '-x value_1 -y value_2'

- getopts is processed by running it in a loop (while) and processing each option in a loop. The loop is terminated when there are no more options to process.
- For example we will discuss the following line processing getOpts in our demo script:

Processing Input...

- while getopts ":a:bc:" optName; do ... <rest of while loop>
- "abc" is the option string with the 3 options being a, b and c
- The colon preceding a specifies that getopts does not report errors but the script has to process the errors itself
- The colon following 'a' specifies that option 'a' needs an argument
- There is no colon following b so it does not require an argument
- The colon following 'c' specifies that option 'c' needs an argument
- The optional arguments begin after all the options and their arguments have been specified
- Given the options above, this is what our command line would look like:

Processing Input...

- For <scriptName> -a <argA> -bc <argC> <inputFileName>
 ...and the script snippet below:
- while getopts ":a:bc:" optName; do ...
- The first run of the while loop will place 'a' in optName and <argA> in \$OPTARG. The second run will place 'b' in optName but there is no \$OPTARG since there is no following colon. The third run will place 'c' in optName and <argC> in \$OPTARG. The '-' preceding 'a, b and c' indicates that they are options
- If the option does not match 'a,b or c' optName is set to '?'. If the option matches but there is no argument then optName is set to ':'
 - <inputFileName> follows all the options and arguments. It is the optional argument.
 \${1} is '-a', {2} is <argA>, {3} is '-bc', {4} is <argC>, {5} is <inputFileName>
 - shift "\$((OPTIND 1))" resets {1} to the beginning of the optional arguments which is <inputFileName> and any arguments after it would be assigned {2}, {3} etc

Processing Output...

Output to stdout:

echo <text to display>

Output can be piped out to a file using redirection

```
echo "<text to output>" > ${outputFile} - (> creates a new file)
echo "<text to output>" >> ${outputFile} - (>> appends to an existing file)
```

Display in stdout as well as file:

```
echo "<text to output>" | tee ${outputFile}
echo "<text to output>" | tee -a ${outputFile} — (Append)
```

Send stdout and stderr to the same file:

```
echo "<text to output>" >> ${outputFile} <Invalid command> >> ${outputFile} 2>&1
```