

Lecture Notes for Lecture 4 of CS 5600
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Shell Scripting

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Lecture 3 Review

- In lecture 3, we learned about *shells* that run in the outer-most layer of the operating system.
- Shells are interactive command interpreters that provide access to functionality provided by the libraries and system calls. They also provide functions to facilitate user interaction.
- Shells provide access to commands that implement higher-level functions, and also manage the execution of applications and services on behalf of users.
- We also looked at some basic POSIX commands, and ways that they can perform useful tasks.

Shell Scripting

- In this lecture, we will learn about shells as an environment for creating script applications.
- Shell scripts utilize the same set of commands and techniques for composing them that we learned about in the previous lecture.
- When creating shell scripts, these commands are used in the same way that library functions are used in regular programming languages.
- We will now learn about the facilities available in the bash shell language for creating full-functioned script applications, including control structures, variables, functions and I/O operations.
- We will also see how to combine script-based and conventional utilities to create more complex applications.

Shell Scripting

Create a Script File

- The shell is also a scripting language can include built-in and external commands, variables, conditional and loop control structures, and functions.
- Any sequence of commands that can be typed into the shell can also be included in a shell script and performed repeatedly by running the script from the shell.
- In POSIX systems, scripts and compiled programs are treated equally. A script can execute a command written in C, or a shell script.

Shell Scripting

Create a Script File

- Here is a simple shell script that reports the number of arguments that you passed to the script on the command line. We will store it in a file "hello.sh" (the suffix is not required).

```
#!/bin/bash  
# file name: "hello.sh"  
echo Hello, you passed $# parameters
```

- Parameters are accessed by position: \$1 for the first parameter, \$2 for the second one, etc. \$# is the number of parameters.
- You can run the script in one of two ways:
 - Run **bash** and pass in the script and parameters
 - Make the script "executable" to run as a normal program:
chmod +x hello.sh

Shell Scripting

Create a Script File

- Passed in to *bash* with parameters

bash ./hello.sh

bash ./hello.sh world

bash ./hello.sh from around the world

- Run as executable

./hello.sh

./hello.sh world

./hello.sh from around the world

- Output is

Hello, you passed 0 parameters

Hello, you passed 1 parameters

Hello, you passed 4 parameters

Shell Scripting

Create a Script File

- Parameters can be accessed sequentially using the shift command.
- The shift command shifts the parameter list left n positions. The default value of n is 1.
- After shifting 1, the next parameter is now at \$1, the one after that at \$2, etc., and the value \$# is decreased.

command	parameter list	value of \$1	value of \$#
	from around the world	from	4
shift	around the world	around	3
shift	the world	the	2
shift	world	world	1
shift			0

Shell Scripting

Variables

- You can store values for later use using *shell variables*. These are also referred to as *environment variables*. For example:
 - `proj_path="/my_project"`
Defines the variable "proj_path" with the path "~/my_project"
- By prefixing a dollar sign, "\$" to the variable name or enclosing variable name in \${}, you can access its value:
 - `echo $proj_path`
Prints "~/my_project" if "proj_path" is defined as above
 - `cd ${proj_path}/bin`
Changes working directory to "~/my_project/bin" if "proj_path" is defined as above
 - `proj_bin=${proj_path}/bin`
Defines variable "proj_bin" as "~/my_project/bin" if "proj_path" is defined as above

Shell Scripting

Variables

- Unset a variable using the "unset" command:
 - **unset** proj_path
variable no longer defined
- List all currently defined variables using the "env" command. The shell pre-defines and maintains a number of variables.

```
$ env
HOSTNAME=phil-local
SHELL=/bin/bash
HISTSIZE=100
USER=phil
LOGNAME=phil
HOME=/Users/phil
PWD=/Users/phil
PATH=/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/sbin:/Users/phil/bin
TERM=xterm
TEMP=/tmp
LANG=en_US.UTF-8
```

Shell Scripting

Quoting and Variable Substitution

- Bash supports both single and double quotes. Quotes are used to group together multiple words separated by whitespace.
- Variable substitution takes place within double quotes, but no substitution takes place within single quotes.

str=hello	#quotes not required
str="good morning"	#quotes required
echo "\$str everyone"	#substitution within double quotes
echo '\$str everyone'	#no substitution within single quotes
echo "she said \"\$str\""	#escaped quotes within quotes

Output:

```
good morning everyone
$str everyone
she said "good morning"
```

Shell Scripting

Capture to Variables

- The output of a command can be captured and either used directly or assigned to a variable by enclosing the command in `$()`
 - `wc -c $(find . -type f -name '*.txt')`
count number of words in all text files in the current directory tree
 - `dirlist=$(ls)`
capture list of files in the current directory
 - `curdate=$(date +%Y-%m-%d)`
capture current date as "2019-01-30"

Shells and System Commands

Reading Into Variables

- A line of input can be read into one or more variables and used with other commands:
 - **read** -r line
read the entire line into variable line, trims leading/trailing ws.
 - IFS= **read** -r line # IFS set just for this command
read the entire line into variable line preserving leading/trailing ws.
 - **read** -r var1 var2 var3
reads words delimited by whitespaces from input into three variables; the last variable gets the remainder of the line.
 - IFS=':' **read** -r var1 var2 var3 <<< "word1:word2:word3"
reads words delimited by colons from input into three variables.

IFS stands for Input Field Specifier. The default value of the IFS variable is whitespace characters (<space>, <tab>, and <newline>).

Shells and System Commands

Formatted Output

- One or more variables can be formatted using the **printf** command. The command has a formatting string with field specifiers, and zero or more values to be formatted.
 - **printf** "My name is %s\n" "\$(whoami)"
Prints the user's login name from the **whoami** command (note could use shell supplied \$USER variable)
 - **printf** "Today is %s\n" "\$(date +%Y-%m-%d)"
Prints today's date captured from the **date** command
 - **printf** "Current directory %s has %d entries\n" "\$(pwd) \$(ls | wc -l)"
Prints current working directory and number of files it contains from **pwd**, **ls**, and **wc** commands. (could use shell supplied \$PWD variable)
 - **printf** "%d\n" 1 2 3 4 5
Prints the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 on separate lines since there are more values than format specifiers

Shell Scripting

Numeric Variables

- Bash supports integer arithmetic expressions by enclosing the expression in `$(())`. Supports operators `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `++`, `--`, `%`, `==`, `!=`, `<`, `>`, `>=`, `<=`, `<<`, `>>`, `&`, `|`, `^`, `~`
 - `declare -i m=5` declare integer variable (add `-r` for read-only)
 - `m="abc"` invalid: sets integer-only variable `m` to 0
 - `n=5` initialize general variable `n` to an integer
 - `$((n+1))` evaluates to 6
 - `$((n % 2))` evaluates to 1
 - `$((n*n + 2*n + 1))` evaluates to 36
 - `$((n++))` evaluates to 5 and increments `n` to 6
 - `$((--n))` decrements `n` to 5 and evaluates to 5
 - `$((n == 5))` evaluates to 1 (true)
 - `$((n != 5))` evaluates to 0 (false)

Shell Scripting

String Variables

- Bash supports operations on string variables
 - `s="aaaa cccc eeee"`
initialize `s` to the string "aaaa cccc eeee"
 - `${#s}`
evaluates to the length of the string: 14
 - `${s:5:4}`
evaluates to "cccc", the four characters at positions 5, 6, 7, and 8
 - `${s:10}`
evaluates to "eeee", the substring starting at position 10
 - `${s:0:5}CCCC${s:9}`
evaluates to string replacing "cccc" with "CCCC": "aaaa CCCC eeee"
 - The numeric values can also be numeric variables.
 - `i=10`
 - `${s:i}` # evaluates to "eeee"

Shell Scripting

String Variables

- Bash supports operations on string variables
 - `s="aaaa cccc eeee":`
initialize s to the string "aaaa cccc eeee"
 - `${s/a/A}`
replaces the first 'a' with 'A' ("Aaaa cccc eeee")
 - `${s//[aeiou]/?}`
replaces all vowels with question marks ("???? cccc ?????")
 - `${s#a*a}`
deletes shortest match of "a*a" from front ("aa cccc eeee")
 - `${s###a*a}`
deletes longest match of "a*a" from front (" cccc eeee")
 - `${s%e*e}`
deletes shortest match of "e*e" from back ("aaaa cccc ee")
 - `${s%%e*e}`
deletes longest match of "e*e" from back ("aaaa cccc ")

Shell Scripting

Array Variables

- Bash supports array variables. Here are examples.

<code>declare -a arr</code>	Create an empty array (optional, add <code>-r</code> for read-only)
<code>arr=()</code>	Create an empty array
<code>arr=(1 2 3)</code>	Initialize array
<code>readarray -t arr</code>	Reads lines of stdin into array; <code>-t</code> strips newlines (bash 4)
<code>\${arr[2]}</code>	Retrieve third element
<code>\${arr[@]}</code>	Retrieve all elements
<code>\${!arr[@]}</code>	Retrieve array indices
<code>\${#arr[@]}</code>	Calculate array size
<code>arr[2]=3</code>	Overwrite element 2
<code>unset arr[2]</code>	Unset element 2
<code>arr+=(4)</code>	Append value(s)
<code>arr=(\$(ls))</code>	Save ls output as an array of files
<code>\${arr[@]:s:n}</code>	Retrieve n elements starting at index s

Shell Scripting

Associative Array Variables

- Bash 4 and later supports associative array variables. Here are examples.

declare -A arr

Create associative array (add `-r` for read-only)

arr=([mon]=1 [tue]=2 [wed]=3)

Initialize associative array of weekdays

`${arr[wed]}`

Retrieve "wed" element (must use `${ }`)

`${arr[@]}`

Retrieve all values

`${!arr[@]}`

Retrieve keys

`${#arr[@]}`

Calculate array size

arr[wed]=9

Overwrite element "wed"

unset arr[wed]

Unset element "wed"

Shell Scripting

Variable Indirect and Nameref (Alias)

- You can access the value of a variable indirectly through another variable that contains its name (like C/C++ pointer vars).
 - ```
proj_path=~ /my_project
path_name="proj_path"
echo ${!path_name}

echoes "~ /my_project"
```
- You can create an *nameref* (alias) for another variable and use it wherever the other variable can be used (like C++ reference vars).
  - ```
arr=(1 2 3)  
declare -n arr_alias="arr"  
arr_alias[1]=-2  
echo ${arr[1]} ${arr_alias[1]}  
  
echoes -2 -2
```

Shell Scripting

Test

- The built-in bash **test** command can test file attributes, and perform string and arithmetic comparisons. Test has no output, but returns exit status 0 for “true” and 1 for “false”
- Example:
 num=4
 test \$num -gt 5
 echo \$? # echo return status of last command
 num=6
 test \$num -gt 5
 echo \$? # echo return status of last command
- Output:
 1
 0

Shell Scripting

Test

- Bash provides another way to invoke the built-in **test** command by enclosing the expression in square brackets: `[expr]`
- Example:
 `num=4`
 `[$num -gt 5]`
 `echo $? # echo return status of last command`
 `num=6`
 `[$num -gt 5]`
 `echo $? # echo return status of last command`
- Output:
 1
 0

Shell Scripting

Numeric Tests

Operator	Description
INTEGER1 -eq INTEGER2	INTEGER1 is numerically equal to INTEGER2
INTEGER1 -ne INTEGER2	INTEGER1 is numerically not equal to INTEGER2
INTEGER1 -lt INTEGER2	INTEGER1 is numerically less than INTEGER2
INTEGER1 -le INTEGER2	INTEGER1 is numerically less or equal to INTEGER2
INTEGER1 -gt INTEGER2	INTEGER1 is numerically greater than INTEGER2
INTEGER1 -ge INTEGER2	INTEGER1 is numerically greater or equal to INTEGER2

Shell Scripting

String Tests

Operator	Description
! EXPRESSION	The EXPRESSION is false.
-n STRING	The length of STRING is greater than zero.
-z STRING	The length of STRING is zero (ie it is empty).
STRING1 = STRING2	STRING1 is equal to STRING2
STRING1 != STRING2	STRING1 is not equal to STRING2

Shell Scripting

File Tests

Operator	Description
-d FILE	FILE exists and is a directory.
-e FILE	FILE exists.
-r FILE	FILE exists and the read permission is granted.
-s FILE	FILE exists and it's size is greater than zero (ie. it is not empty).
-w FILE	FILE exists and the write permission is granted.
-x FILE	FILE exists and the execute permission is granted.

Shell Scripting

Alternate Numeric Test

- Bash provides another way to test numeric expressions using the double-parentheses numeric evaluation notation we saw earlier.
- Example:
num=4
((num > 5))
echo \$? # echo return status of last command
num=6
((num > 5))
echo \$? # echo return status of last command
- Output:
1
0

Shell Scripting

Compound Tests

- Compound tests can be connected using '||' and '&&'.

```
value=50
```

```
[ $value -gt 100 ] || [ $value -lt 10 ]
```

```
echo $?
```

```
((value <= 100)) && ((value >= 10))
```

```
echo $?
```

```
fi
```

- Outputs

```
1
```

```
0
```

Shell Scripting

***If* Statement**

- A basic **if** statement executes commands if one or more conditions is true, or optional **else** commands

```
if <test1>
then
    <commands>
elif <test2>
then
    <commands>
else
    <commands>
fi
```

Shell Scripting

***If* Statement**

- This example tests the a numeric value against three ranges.

```
value=1000
```

```
if [ $value -gt 100 ]      # or (( value > 100 ))
```

```
then
```

```
    echo Hey, $value is too large
```

```
elif [ $value -lt 10 ]     #or (( value < 10 ))
```

```
then
```

```
    echo Hey, $value is too small
```

```
else # 10 < value <= 100
```

```
    echo Hey, $value is too just right
```

```
fi
```

- Outputs "Hey, 1000 is too large"

Shell Scripting

Case Statement

- Case statement selects commands to execute based on selector value. Targets can be literals or file patterns, including wildcards and character or digit ranges.

```
case <selector value> in  
  target1)  
    <commands>  
    ;;  
  target2)  
    <commands>  
    ;;  
  target3)  
    <commands>  
    ;;  
  *)  
    <commands>  
    ;;  
esac
```

Shell Scripting

Case Statement

- This example matches the number with a digit range.

```
case "$val" in
    [1-3]) echo low
    ;;
    [4-6]) echo medium
    ;;
    [7-9]) echo high
    ;;
    *) echo try again
    ;;
esac
```

Shell Scripting

While Loop

- While loops repeat commands while an expression is true. They have the following format:
 while *<some test>*
 do
 <commands>
 done
- Anything between **do** and **done** will be executed while the test (between the square brackets) is true.
- Use **break** to break out of loop, **continue** for next iteration.

Shell Scripting

While Loop

```
counter=1
while [ $counter -le 10 ]    # or (( counter <= 10 ))
do
    echo $counter
    ((counter++))
done
echo All done
```

- Outputs the number 1 through 10, and then "All done"

Shell Scripting

While Loop

initialize an associative array by breaking apart lines

declare -A arr # bash 4+

while IFS='=' read -r name val # use = as word separator
do

 arr[\$name]="\${val}"

done << EOF

mon=Monday

tue=Tuesday

wed=Wednesday

EOF

printf "Day for 'mon' is '%s'\n" "\${arr[mon]}"

- Outputs "Day for 'mon' is 'Monday'"

Shell Scripting

Combining *while* and *case*

- **While** and **case** statement can be combined to process arguments.

```
interactive=0
filename=~ /sysinfo_page.html
while [ -n "$1" ]    # length > 0
do
    case $1 in
        -f | --file )           shift
                                filename=$1
                                ;;
        -i | --interactive )    interactive=1
                                ;;
        -h | --help )           printf "usage: %s [-f filename | -i | -h]\n" "$(basename $0)"
                                exit 0
                                ;;
        * )                     printf "usage: %s [-f filename | -i | -h]\n" "$(basename $0)"
                                exit 1
    esac
    shift
done
```

Shell Scripting

For Loop

- The for loop perform the given set of commands for each item in a list. It has the following syntax.
 for *var* in *<list>*
 do
 <commands>
 done
- Anything between **do** and **done** will be executed only once for each item in the list.
- Use **break** to break out of loop, **continue** for next iteration.

Shell Scripting

For Loop

```
names='Stan Kyle Cartman'
for name in $names
do
    echo $name
done
echo All done
```

- Outputs
Stan
Kyle
Cartman
All done
- Use break to break out of loop, continue for next iteration.

Shell Scripting

For Loop

- Can also use **for** loop to operate on list of files

```
for name in *.txt
do
    echo $name
done
echo All done
```
- Outputs

```
file1.txt
file2.txt
file3.txt
All done
```
- Use **break** to break out of loop, **continue** for next iteration.

Shell Scripting

For Loop

- Another variation similar to the C for loop has the following syntax.

```
for ((e1; e2; e3))  
do  
    <commands>  
done
```

- Here is an example that echoes numbers between first and last. As with arithmetic expressions, variable references do not require '\$':

```
first=5  
last=10  
for ((i=first; i <= last; i++))  
do  
    echo $i  
done
```

- Use **break** to break out of loop, **continue** for next iteration.

Shell Scripting

Function

- A function can have one of two equivalent forms

```
function_name() {  
    <commands>  
}
```

or

```
function function_name {  
    <commands>  
}
```

- Parameters are accessed by position: \$1 for the first parameter, \$2 for the second one, etc. \$# is the number of parameters.
- The **shift** *n* operation shifts parameters left by *n*. The default value of *n* is 1.
- \$0 is still the script name variable.

Shell Scripting

Function

- The return value of a function is the same as the return/exit value of a command. 0 indicates success and other values indicate some other condition.
- Functions return 0 unless a **return** *n* statement is used, where *n* is the numeric code. The return value of a function can be accessed through the special variable **\$?** after calling the function.
- Functions can read from standard input and return results by writing them to standard output. Functions can also participate in pipes with commands and other functions

Shell Scripting

Function

```
function howdy {  
    if [ $# -eq 0 ]  
    then  
        echo howdy stranger  
    else  
        echo howdy $1  
    fi  
}
```

howdy

howdy friend

echo "neighbor" | xargs howdy # cannot call howdy from xargs

```
function howdy {  
    # if $1 not set, use "stranger"  
    echo howdy ${1:-stranger}  
}
```

- **Output is**

howdy stranger

howdy friend

xargs: howdy: no such file or directory

Shell Scripting

Function

- Earlier we learned that a script and a compiled C program are treated equally when executed from the command line or within a script.
- Now we can see that within a script file, a function is also treated in exactly the same way as a script or a compiled C program, with only a few exceptions where a program or script name is required.
- Within a function the positional arguments access the arguments of the function. Outside of a function, the positional arguments refer to the arguments to the script.

Shells and System Commands

Function

- Here is another example, `word_counts` that reads files and prints a frequency count of unique words in the specified files.

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
# This script presents counts of unique words in input files in ascending order
```

```
# usage: word_counts [file] ...
```

```
# words: breaks input into words and echoes them to output one per line
```

```
words() {
```

```
    while read -r line; do           # for each input line
```

```
        printf "%s\n" $line          # echo words one per line
```

```
    done
```

```
}
```

```
# pipes input files through words() for word list, then uniq and sort
```

```
cat $* | words | sort | uniq -c | sort -n
```

Shell Scripting

Variable Scopes

- Bash supports scopes for variables. Unqualified variables are global to the script. It is also possible to declare variables local to a function by adding the qualifier **local**.

```
script_var=$1 # global variable has first script argument
function f {
    local local_var=$1 # local variable has first function argument
}
```

- Scripts can also export variables to make them visible globally in the environment that is running the shell script.
 export global_var=\$1 # exports the variable to the shell environment
- When the shell script that executes this export exits, global_var will be visible within that environment too, as well as to any other program or shell script run from that environment or this script.

Shell Scripting

Calling Functions in Other Scripts

- Functions are local to the script where they are defined. A function in one script cannot be called directly from another script.
- However, there are two ways to accomplish the same thing:
 - Import script with functions into script that calls them
 - Build dispatch table in script with functions

Shell Scripting

Calling Functions in Other Scripts

- Here is how to import one script into another to call its functions.

second:

```
function pub_info {  
    type=$1  
    genre=$2  
    printf "type=%s, genre=%s\n" "$type" "$genre"  
}
```

first:

```
source ./first  
pub_info novel mystery  
pub_info poetry romantic
```

- The second script in this example is located in the current directory.
- Be aware that the **source** command actually executes code outside of functions in the file specified by its argument.

Shell Scripting

Calling Functions in Other Scripts

- Another technique is to create a dispatch table in second.

second-a:

```
function pub_info {
    type=$1
    genre=$2
    printf "type=%s, genre=%s\n" "$type" "$genre"
}

function second {
    case $1 in
        pub_info)    pub_info "$1" "$2"
                    ;;
        *)           printf "Unknown selector: %s\n" "$1" 1>&2  # stderr
    esac
}

second $*
```

Shell Scripting

Calling Functions in Other Scripts

- Now the functions in **second-a** can be called from **first-a** through the `second()` dispatch function in **second-a**.
first-a.sh:
 `second-a pub_info novel mystery`
 `second-a pub_info poetry romantic`
- Note that this method is less efficient than including **second** in **first** because it requires starting a new process for each call to a function in **second-a**.