# hackerschool

### Hacker Tools: Part 1

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#### Where are we?

Introduction

Shell and Scripting

Data Wrangling

Conclusion

#### **NUS Hackers**



http://nushackers.org

**hacker**school

Friday Hacks

Hack & Roll

NUS Hackerspace

#### About Me

Hi! I'm Julius. My GitHub is
https://github.com/indocomsoft

A Year 2 Computer Science Undergraduate who loves hacking and building systems.

I also enjoy Space Exploration, Music Theory and History.

(my favourite games are KSP and EU4 hit me up if you play those too)

### **About This Workshop**

- No prior knowledge assumed
- Learning how to make the most of tools that productive programmers use.
- How to hack on Unix-like environment.

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### Required Software

Unix-like environment, either one of these:

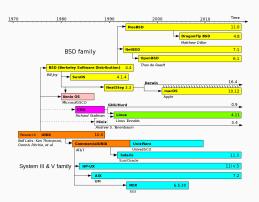
- Linux<sup>1</sup>
- macOS<sup>2</sup>
- BSD
- Other Unix-like OS'es (Minix, Solaris, AIX, HP-UX, etc.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For beginners, Ubuntu is recommended. Either dual-boot or install as virtual machine using VirtualBox

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Open Terminal, and run xcode-select --install first

#### Unix? Can I eat that?

- A family of multitasking, multiuser OS'es.
- First developed in the 1970's.
- Popularised the use of interactive command line.



# The Unix Philosophy

- 1. Write programs that do one thing and do it well.
- 2. Write programs to work together.
- 3. Write programs to handle text streams, because that is a universal interface.

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#### Introduction to Shell

- An efficient, textual interface to your computer.
- Provides an interactive programming language ("scripting").
- Many shells to choose from:
  - Standard ones: sh or bash
  - Shells that match languages: csh
  - "Better" shells: fish, zsh, ksh
- For this workshop, the focus is on the ubiquitous **sh** and **bash**.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Feel free to explore other shells. On macOS, many people prefer fish or zsh

# The Shell Prompt

■ What greets you when you open a terminal.

```
0 16:21:57 julius⊕r-165-105-25-172:~/GitHub/hackerschool-hackertools
501 (master) $ █
```

- Lets your run programmes and commands.
- Determined by the variable PS1. For example, export PS1='> '

#### **Common Commands**

- man to get the manual pages of a command
- cd to change directory
- 1s to list files and directories
- mkdir to make directory
- rm to remove files and directories
- cp to copy file
- mv to move file

# **Command Editing Shortcuts**

bash has shortcuts based on emacs keybindings:

- Ctrl + a : beginning of line
- Ctrl+ e: end of line
- (Alt)+ b : move back one word
- [Alt]+ f : move forward one word
- [Ctrl]+[ k ]: delete from cursor to the end of line

And some special ones:

- Ctrl+ u: delete from cursor to the start of line
- Ctrl + w: delete from cursor to start of word

#### **Command Control Shortcuts**

- Ctrl+ c: terminates the command
- Ctrl + z : suspends the command (fg to continue)
- Ctrl+ l : clears the screen
- Ctrl + s : stops the output to the screen
- [Ctrl]+ q : allows output to the screen

# Script (1/2)

You can write programs directly at the prompt, or write into a file (writing scripts)

- ı #!/bin/sh
- 2 echo something
  - Open an editor (for beginner, nano is recommended), save the script as example-script
  - On your shell, run chmod +x example-script
  - You can run your script as ./example-script

# Script (2/2)

- 1 #!/bin/sh
- 2 echo something

#### Magic?

- #!/bin/sh is also known as the shebang, specifies the interpreter<sup>4</sup>
- echo is a command that prints its arguments to the standard output.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>You can use other interpreters too, e.g.

<sup>#!/</sup>usr/bin/env python for a python script.

# Flags (1/3)

- Most command line utilities take parameters using flags.
- They come in short form (-h) and long form (-help)
- Usually, running COMMAND -h or man COMMAND will give you a list of the flags the program takes.
- Short flags can be combined: rm -r -f is equivalent to rm -rf or rm -fr

# Flags (2/3)

- A double dash -- is used in to signify the end of command options, after which only positional parameters are accepted.
  - For example, to create a file called -v, Use touch
    - -- -v instead of touch -v
  - For example, to grep a file called -v, grep pattern
    - -- -v will work while grep pattern -v will not.

# Flags (3/3)

#### Some common flags are a de facto standard:

- -a commonly refers to all files (i.e. also including those that start with a period<sup>5</sup>)
- -f usually refers to forcing something, e.g. rm -f
- -h displays the help for most commands
- -v usually enables a verbose output
- -V usually prints the version of the command

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>In Unix, by convention files whose names begin with a period is hidden

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# Running a command

echo Hello

■ COMMAND ARG1 ARG2 ARG3

# Variables (1/3)

```
PS1='> '
echo location
name=Julius
echo $name
```

- Used to store text
- name=value to set variable
- **\$name** to access variable

# Variables (2/3)

There are also a number of special variables:

- \$?: get exit code of the previous command
- \$1 to \$9: arguments to a script
- \$0: name of the script itself
- \$#: number of arguments
- \$\$: process ID of current shell

# Variables (3/3)

Create a script variable-example containing the code below, then try running it with various arguments.

- #!/bin/sh
- 2 echo \$0
- ₃ echo \$1
- 4 echo \$2
- 5 echo \$#

# Loop (1/4)

Loop is used to run a command a bunch of times. For example:

for i in \$(seq 1 5); do echo hello; done

# Loop (2/4)

```
for i in $(seq 1 5); do echo hello; done
Let's unpack this!
```

for x in list; do BODY; done

- ; terminates a command equivalent to newline
- Split list, assign each to x, and run BODY
- Split by "whitespace" we will get into it later
- Compared to C, no curly braces, instead **do** and **done**

# Loop (3/4)

```
for i in $(seq 1 5); do echo hello; done
Let's unpack this!
$(seq 1 5)
```

- Run the program seq with arguments 1 and 5
- Substitute the **\$(...)** block with the output of the program
- Equivalent to for i in 1 2 3 4 5; do echo hello; done

# Loop (4/4)

for i in \$(seq 1 5); do echo hello; done

Let's unpack this!

#### echo hello

- Everything in a shell script is a command
- Here, it means run the echo command, with argument hello.
- All commands are searched in \$PATH (colon-separated)
- Find out where a command is located by running which COMMAND, e.g. which ls

### Conditionals (1/2)

```
if test -d /bin; then echo true; else echo

false; fi;
```

Let's unpack this!

```
if CONDITION; then BODY; fi
```

- CONDITION is a command.
- If its exit code is 0 (success), then BODY is run.
- Optionally, you can also hook in an else or elif

### Conditionals (2/2)

```
if test -d /bin; then echo true; else echo

→ false; fi;
```

Let's unpack this!

```
test -d /bin
```

- test is a program that provides various checks and comparison which exits with exit code 0 if the condition is true<sup>6</sup>
- Alternate syntax: [ condition ], e.g. [ -d /bin ]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Remember, you can check exit code using \$?

# **Everything Together**

Let's create a command like ls that only prints directories:

```
#!/bin/sh
for f in $(ls)
do

if test -d $f
then
echo dir $f
fi
done
```

### Bug!

Hold on! What if the directory is called "My Documents"?

- for f in \$(ls) expands to for f in My Documents
- Will first perform the test on My, then on Documents
- Not what we wanted!

# **Argument Splitting**

- Bash splits arguments by whitespace (tab, newline, space)
- Same problem somewhere else: test -d \$f
- If \$f contains whitespace, test will error!
- Need to use quote to handle spaces in arguments for f in "My Documents"
- How do we fix our script?
- What do you think **for** f in "\$(ls)" does?

# Globbing (1/2)

- bash knows how to look for files using patterns:
  - \*: any string of characters
  - ?: any single character
  - {a,b,c}: any of these characters
- Thus, **for** f in \* means all files in this directory
- When globbing, each matching file becomes its own argument
- However, still need to make sure to quote, e.g. test -d "\$f"

# Globbing (2/2)

You can make advanced patterns

■ for f in a\*:

## Globbing (2/2)

You can make advanced patterns

- for f in a\*: all files starting with a in the current directory
- for f in foo/\*.txt:

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- for f in a\*: all files starting with a in the current directory
- for f in foo/\*.txt: all .txt files in foo
- for f in foo/\*/p??.txt:

### Globbing (2/2)

#### You can make advanced patterns

- for f in a\*: all files starting with a in the current directory
- for f in foo/\*.txt: all .txt files in foo
- for f in foo/\*/p??.txt: all three-letter text files, starting with p, in subdirectories of foo

## Other whitespace issues

```
■ if [ $foo = "bar" ]; then: What's the issue?
```

## Other whitespace issues

- if [ \$foo = "bar" ]; then: What's the issue?
- What if \$foo is empty? arguments to [ are = and bar
- Possible workaround: [ x\$foo = "xbar" ], but
  very hacky

## Other whitespace issues

- if [ \$foo = "bar" ]; then: What's the issue?
- What if \$foo is empty? arguments to [ are = and bar
- Possible workaround: [ x\$foo = "xbar" ], but very hacky
- Instead, use [[ CONDITION ]]: bash built-in comparator that has special parsing
- Good news: it also allows && instead of -a, || instead of -o, etc.

#### shellcheck

- The mentioned problems are the most common bugs in shell scripts.
- A good tool to check for these kinds of possible bugs in your shell script:

https://www.shellcheck.net/

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### Composability

- Shell is powerful, in part because of **Composability**
- You can chain multiple programs together, rather than one program that does everything
- Remember The Unix Philosophy:
  - 1. Write programs that do one thing and do it well.
  - 2. Write programs to work together.
  - 3. Write programs to handle text streams, because that is a universal interface.

## Pipe (1/2)

dmesg | tail

Let's unpack this!

a | b

■ Means run both **a** and **b**, but send all the output of **a** as input to **b**, and then print the output of **b** 

## Pipe (2/2)

You can chain this even longer!

cat /var/log/sys\*log | grep Mar 23 | tail

- cat /var/log/sys\*log prints the system log
- This output is fed into grep Mar 23, which looks for all entries from today.
- This output is then further fed into tail, which prints only the last 10 lines.

#### Streams

- All programs launched have 3 streams:
  - STDIN: the program reads input from here
  - STDOUT: the program prints to here
  - STDERR: a second output that the program can choose to use.
- By default, STDIN is your keyboard, STDOUT and STDERR are both your terminal

#### Stream Redirection (1/2)

- However, this can be changed!
- a | b: makes STDOUT of a the STDIN of b.
- a > foo: STDOUT of a goes to the file foo
- a 2> foo: STDERR of a goes to the file foo
- a < foo: STDIN of a is read from the file foo
- a <<< some text: STDIN of a is read from what comes after <<<

## Stream Redirection (2/2)

So why is this useful?

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It lets you manipulate output of a program!

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It lets you manipulate output of a program!

- ls | grep foo: all files that contain the word foo
- ps | grep foo: all processes that contain the word foo
- On Linux: journalctl | grep -i intel | tail
   -n 5: last 5 system log messages with the word
   intel (case-insensitive)
- Note that this forms the basis for data-wrangling, which will be covered later.

## **Grouping Commands**

```
(a; b) | tac
```

- Run a, then b, and send all their output to tac<sup>7</sup>
- For example: (echo qwe; echo asd; echo zxc) | tac

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>tac print in reverse

#### **Process Substitution**

b <(a)

- Run a, generate a temporary file name for its output stream, and pass that filename to b
- To demonstrate: echo <(echo a) < (echo b)
- On Linux: diff <(journalctl -b -1 | head -n20) <(journalctl -b -2 | head -n20)
- This shows the difference between the first 20 lines of the last boot log and the one before that.

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## Job (1/2)

Used to run longer-term things in the background.

- Use the & suffix
  - It will give back your prompt immediately.
  - For example: (for i in \$(seq 1 100); do echo hi; sleep 1; done) &
  - Note that the running program still has your terminal as STDOUT. Instead, can redirect STDOUT to file.
  - Handy especially to run 2 programs at the same time like a server and client: server & client
  - For example: nc -l 1234 & nc localhost 1234 <<< test

### Job (2/2)

- jobs: see all jobs
- fg %JOBS: bring the job corresponding to the id to the foreground (with no argument, bring the latest job to foreground)
- You can also background the current program: ^Z<sup>8</sup>, then run bg
  - ^Z stops the current process and makes it a job.
  - **bg** runs the last job in the background.
- \$! is the PID of the last background process.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Ctrl is usually denoted as ^, thus Ctrl + z is denoted as ^Z

### Process Control (1/2)

- ps: lists running processes
  - ps -A: lists processes from all users
  - Check out the man page for other arguments.
- pgrep: find processes by searching (like ps -A |
  grep)
  - pgrep -f: find processes with arguments
- kill: send a *signal* to a process by ID (pkill to search and run kill)
  - Signal tells a process to do something
  - SIGKILL (-9 or -KILL): tell it to exit *right now* (equivalent to ^\)
  - SIGTERM (-15 or -TERM): tell it to exit gracefully (equivalent to ^C)

#### Process Control (2/2)

- kill: send a *signal* to a process by ID (pkill to search and run kill)
  - Signal tells a process to do something
  - Most common<sup>9</sup>:
    - SIGKILL (-9 or -KILL): tell it to exit right now (equivalent to ^\)
    - SIGTERM (-15 or -TERM): tell it to exit gracefully (equivalent to ^C)

<sup>9</sup>Prefer SIGTERM over SIGKILL: https://turnoff.us/geek/dont-sigkill/

#### More Resources

- If you are completely new to the shell, you might want to read a comprehensive guide, such as BashGuide<sup>10</sup>.
- For a more in-depth introduction, The Linux Command Line<sup>11</sup> is a good resource.

<sup>10</sup> http://mywiki.wooledge.org/BashGuide
11 http://linuxcommand.org/tlcl.php

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#### xargs

- Sometimes piping doesn't quite work because the command being piped into does not expect the newline separated format.
- For example, **file** command tells you properties of the file.
- Try running ls | file and ls | xargs file
- What is **xargs** doing?

#### Other Exercises

- Try running touch {a,b}{a,b}, then ls. What appeared?
- Sometimes you want to keep **STDIN** and still output to a file. Try running **echo HELLO** | **tee hello.txt**
- Run echo HELLO > hello.txt, then echo WORLD >> hello.txt. What are the contents of hello.txt? How is > different from >>?

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## What is Data Wrangling?

- Have you ever had a bunch of text and wanted to do something with it?
- Great! That's Data Wrangling
- Adapting data from one format to another, until you end up with exactly what you wanted.

# Basic Data Wrangling (1/2)

#### Linux:

```
journalctl | grep -i intel
```

- This is an example of basic data wrangling: finding all system log entries that mentions Intel
- Most of data wrangling is just about knowing what tools you have, and how to combine them.
- Remember The Unix Philosophy!

## Basic Data Wrangling (2/2)

- Let's start from the beginning:
  - 1. We need a data source
  - 2. Something to do with it.
- A good use case is for logs, because you often want to investigate them, but reading the whole thing is not feasible.

## Data Wrangling Example (1/)

Let's try to figure out who is trying to log into my server.

- First, I try to look into my server's log: cat log
- That's far too much stuffs!
- Let's limit it to ssh stuffs: cat log | grep sshd
- That is still way more stuffs than what we wanted, and it's pretty hard to read.

## Data Wrangling Example (2/)

We can do better!

```
cat log
| grep sshd
| grep "Accepted publickey for"
```

There's still a lot of noise here.

There are *a lot* of ways to get rid of that, but let's look at one of the most powerful tools in your toolkit: **sed**.

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#### sed? Isn't that the adjective to describe my life?

- sed is a stream editor that builds on top of the old ed¹² editor
- In it, you basically give short commands for how to modify the file.
- If you use vim, you should be familiar with some of the commands (ed -> vi -> vim)
- There are tonnes of commands, but the most common one is **s** for substitution.

<sup>12</sup> If you're into lame computing jokes, here's a joke about ed: https://www.gnu.org/fun/jokes/ed-msg.html

## Back to Our Example

```
cat log
| grep sshd
| grep "Accepted publickey for"
| sed 's/.*Accepted publickey for //'
```

- Wow! It's a lot cleaner.
- What we just wrote was a simple Regular Expression

#### The s Command in sed

#### Syntax: s/REGEX/SUBSTITUTION/

- **REGEX** is the regular expression you want to search for.
- **SUBSTITUTION** is the text you want to substitute matching text with.

# What is Regular Expression

- It's a powerful construct that lets you match text against patterns.
- They are common and useful enough that it's worthwhile to take some time to understand how they work.
- Usually (though not always) surrounded by /
- Most ASCII characters just carry their normal meaning, but some characters have special matching behaviour.
- Exactly which characters do what vary somewhat between different implementations of regular expressions, which is a source of great frustration.

### List of Regex Special Characters

Character	Meaning
•	Any single character except newline
*	Zero or more of the preceding match
?	One or more of the preceding match
[abc]	Any one character of <b>a</b> , <b>b</b> , and <b>c</b>
(RX1 RX2)	Either something that matches RX1 or RX2
^	The start of the line
\$	The end of the line

If you are unfamiliar with regex, there is a nice tutorial at <a href="https://regexone.com/">https://regexone.com/</a>

### Obsolete vs Modern Regex

- Note that **sed**'s regex is somewhat weird and will require you to put a \ before most of these to give them special meaning.
- This is because by default **sed** is using the *obsolete* regex format.
- You can avoid this problem by passing E flag to sed, which tells it to switch to the *modern* regex format.
- You can explore the differences by running man re\_format

## Looking at our regex just now

#### /.\*Accepted publickey for /

- It means any text that starts with any number of characters, followed by the literal string "Accepted publickey for "
- However, regexes are tricky.
- What if the username is also "Accepted publickey for "?
- Why? By default, \* and + are "greedy" they will match as much text as they can

#### Solution: Match the whole line

```
| sed -E 's/.*Accepted publickey for (.*) from

→ ([0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.
→ port ([0-9]+) ssh2: RSA SHA256:.*//'
```

Let's look at what's going on with a regex debugger<sup>13</sup>

<sup>13</sup>https://regex101.com/r/wPc8Ii/3

# Explanation

- The start is still as before.
- Then on any string of characters (username).
- Then on **from** followed by an IP address<sup>14</sup>
- Then on **port** followed by a sequence of digits.
- Finally, we try to match on the suffix ssh2: RSA SHA256: followed by any string of characters.
- Notice that with this technique, a username of Accepted publickey for will not confuse us anymore. Can you see why?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>This matches **999.999.999.999** which is not a valid IPv4 address. A regex that only matches valid address is left as an exercise

# **Capture Groups**

- Oh no, the entire log is now empty.
- We want to keep the username
- Use Capture Groups!
- Any text matched by a regex surrounded by parentheses is stored in a numbered capture group.
- Capture group 0 is special. It is the whole text matched by the regex.
- These are available in the SUBSTITUTION<sup>15</sup> as \1, \2, \3, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>In some engines, even in the pattern itself!

# Using Capture Groups in sed

```
| sed -E 's/.*Accepted publickey for (.*) from

→ ([0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.
→ port ([0-9]+) ssh2: RSA SHA256:.*/\1/'
```

- Note that in our current regex, capture group 1 is username, capture group 2 is IP address, capture group 3 is port number.
- You can try out using \2 and \3 instead of \1.

### More on Regular Expressions

- As you can probably imagine, you can come up with really complicated regex.
- For example, there is an article on how you might match an email address<sup>16</sup>. It's not easy<sup>17</sup>. People have even written tests<sup>18</sup> and test matrices<sup>19</sup>
- Regular expressions are notoriously hard to get right, but they are also very handy to have in your toolbox!

<sup>16</sup>https://www.regular-expressions.info/email.html

<sup>17</sup>http://emailregex.com/

<sup>18</sup>https://fightingforalostcause.net/content/misc/

<sup>2006/</sup>compare-email-regex.php

<sup>19</sup>https://mathiasbynens.be/demo/url-regex

# More Regex Trivia

- You can check for prime numbers using regex<sup>20</sup>
- You can match A B C where  $A + B = C^{21}$
- You can match nested brackets, e.g. to parse Lisp's s-expressions using Regex<sup>22</sup>
- Note: these are more for curiosity purposes. There are usually better tools than regex, although for a quick and dirty script, regex is usually enough.

```
20https://www.noulakaz.net/2007/03/18/
a-regular-expression-to-check-for-prime-numbers/
21http://www.drregex.com/2018/11/
how-to-match-b-c-where-abc-beast-reborn.html
22http://www.drregex.com/2017/11/
match-nested-brackets-with-regex-new.html
```

# Back to Data Wrangling

So now we have

#### sed All the Way!

But we can do everything just with sed!

```
cat log
| sed -E -e '/Accepted publickey for/!d' -e

    's/.*Accepted publickey for (.*) from

    ([0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.
    port ([0-9]+) ssh2: RSA SHA256:.*/\1/'
```

- d is to delete, ! is to apply the function to the lines not selected by the pattern.
- Check out man sed!

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#### Let's look for common usernames

```
| sort | uniq -c
```

- **sort** will, well, sort its input.
- uniq -c will collapse consecutive lines that are the same into a single line, prefixed with a count of the number of occurrences.

# How about the most common logins?

We probably want to sort that too and only keep the most common logins

```
| sort -nk1,1 | tail -n3
```

- sort -n sorts in numeric (instead of lexicographic) order, -k1,1 means sort only by the first whitespace-separated column<sup>23</sup>.
- **Exercise**: what if we wanted the least common ones?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup>In this *particular* example, sorting by the whole line wouldn't matter, but we're here to learn!

# How about the most common logins?

We probably want to sort that too and only keep the most common logins

```
| sort -nk1,1 | tail -n3
```

- sort -n sorts in numeric (instead of lexicographic) order, -k1,1 means sort only by the first whitespace-separated column<sup>23</sup>.
- Exercise: what if we wanted the least common ones?
- Either use **head** instead of **tail** or use **sort** -**r** which sorts in reverse order.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup>In this *particular* example, sorting by the whole line wouldn't matter, but we're here to learn!

#### We can do better

Okay, so that's pretty cool, but we'd sort of like to only give the usernames, and maybe not one per line?

```
| awk '{print $2}' | paste -sd, -
```

Let's start with paste

- It lets you combine lines (-s) by a given single-character delimiter (-d), and ask it to to read from STDIN (-)<sup>24</sup>
- You can also emulate this using tr '\n' ',', but this results in a trailing comma.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup>Using GNU paste, the - can be omitted, but this is not POSIX compliant.

#### awk

- A programming language that happens to be really good at processing text streams.
- There is *a lot* to say about **awk** if you were to learn it properly, but as with many other things here, we'll just go through the basics.

#### awk Syntax

- Basic awk syntax: pattern { block }
- awk takes in an optional pattern plus a block saying what to do if the pattern matches a given line.
- The default pattern (if no pattern is provided) matches all lines.
- Inside the block, \$0 is set to the entire line's content, and \$1 to \$n is set to the n-th field of that line, when separated by awk field separator<sup>25</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup>whitespace by default, can be changed with **-F** 

#### Our Use of awk

```
| awk '{print $2}'
```

■ So in this case, we're saying that, for every line, print the contents of the second field, which happens to be the username.

# More fancy awk

Let's compute the number of single-use usernames that start with  ${\bf r}$  and end with  ${\bf t}$ :

```
| awk '$1 == 1 && $2 ~ /^r[^ ]*t$/ { print $2 
 \rightarrow }' | wc -l
```

Let's unpack this!

- The pattern means the first field of the line should be equal to 1 (the count from uniq -c), and the second field should match the regex.
- The block says to print the second field (username)
- Finally, we count the number of lines in the output with wc -1.

### awk as a Programming Language

Remember that **awk** is a programming language, so we can actually not use **wc** -1 at all:

```
BEGIN { rows = 0 }
$1 == 1 && $2 ~ /^c[^ ]*e$/ { rows += $1 }
END { print rows }
```

- **BEGIN** is a pattern that matches the start of the input, and **END** matches the end.
- First we initialise the count to 0. The per-line block just adds the count from the first field. Then we print it out at the end.

#### Advanced awk

- In fact, we could get rid of **grep** and **sed** entirely, because **awk** can do it all, but that is left as an exercise.
- A good resource to read is https://backreference.org/2010/02/10/ idiomatic-awk/

#### We can do Maths too!

```
| awk '{print $1}'
| paste -sd+ -
| bc
```

- **bc** is actually a calculator language.
- You can even run it straight from your shell and use it as a normal calculator.
- In this case, we are piping a mathematical expression to **bc**

# Data Wrangling to Make Arguments (1/2)

- Remember the xargs tool from the exercise just now?
- Since we can pipe data to it, we can use data wrangling to make arguments too.
- Say we want to delete all files that matches the regex asd.a [0-9]{2}

```
ls | grep -E 'asd.a [0-9]{2}' | xargs rm
What happened?
```

# Data Wrangling to Make Arguments (2/2)

- It's the annoying whitespace splitting again.
- A workaround is to use the null character (\0) as delimiter instead

```
ls
| grep -E 'asd.a [0-9]{2}'
| tr '\n' '\0'
| xargs -0 rm
```

#### Where are we?

Introduction

Shell and Scripting

#### Data Wrangling

- Introduction
- sed and Regular Expression (regex)
  - More Advanced Data Wrangling
  - Exercises

Conclusion

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# Exercises (1/2)

- How is sed s/REGEX/SUBSTITUTION/g different from regular sed? What about /textbackslash I or /textbackslash m?
- To do in-place substitution it is quite tempting to do something like sed s/REGEX/SUBSTITUTION/input.txt > input.txt. However this is a bad idea, why? Is this particular to sed?

# Exercises (2/2)

- Find the number of words (in /usr/share/dict/words) that contain at least three as and don't have 's ending.
- What are the three most common last two letters of those words?
- How many of those two-letter combinations are there?
- And for a challenge: which combinations do not occur?

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Conclusion

#### Talk to us!

- Feedback form: https://is.gd/hs2019\_hackertools\_1
- Upcoming hackerschool:
  - Hackertools Part Two