Advanced Bash-Scripting Guide:

<u>Prev</u> Next

Chapter 3. Special Characters

What makes a character *special*? If it has a meaning beyond its *literal meaning*, a <u>meta-meaning</u>, then we refer to it as a *special character*. Along with commands and <u>keywords</u>, *special characters* are building blocks of Bash scripts.

Special Characters Found In Scripts and Elsewhere

#

Comments. Lines beginning with a # (with the exception of $\frac{\#!}{}$) are comments and will *not* be executed.

```
# This line is a comment.
```

Comments may also occur following the end of a command.

Comments may also follow whitespace at the beginning of a line.

```
# A tab precedes this comment.
```

Comments may even be embedded within a pipe.



A command may not follow a comment on the same line. There is no method of terminating the comment, in order for "live code" to begin on the same line. Use a new line for the next command.

Of course, a <u>quoted</u> or an <u>escaped</u> # in an <u>echo</u> statement does *not* begin a comment. Likewise, a # appears in <u>certain</u> <u>parameter-substitution constructs</u> and in <u>numerical constant expressions</u>.

```
echo "The # here does not begin a comment."
echo 'The # here does not begin a comment.'
```

```
echo The \# here does not begin a comment.
echo The # here begins a comment.

echo ${PATH#*:}  # Parameter substitution, not a comment.
echo $(( 2#101011 )) # Base conversion, not a comment.

# Thanks, S.C.
The standard quoting and escape characters ("'\) escape the #.
```

Certain <u>pattern matching operations</u> also use the #.

;

Command separator [semicolon]. Permits putting two or more commands on the same line.

;;

Terminator in a <u>case</u> option [double semicolon].

```
case "$variable" in
  abc) echo "\$variable = abc" ;;
  xyz) echo "\$variable = xyz" ;;
esac
```

;;&, ;&

Terminators in a case option (version 4+ of Bash).

•

"dot" command [period]. Equivalent to source (see Example 15-22). This is a bash builtin.

6/21/2020

"dot", as a component of a filename. When working with filenames, a leading dot is the prefix of a "hidden" file, a file that an <u>ls</u> will not normally show.

```
bash$ touch .hidden-file
bash$ ls -l
total 10
               1 bozo
                           4034 Jul 18 22:04 data1.addressbook
 -rw-r--r--
               1 bozo
                           4602 May 25 13:58 data1.addressbook.bak
 -rw-r--r--
                           877 Dec 17 2000 employment.addressbook
               1 bozo
 -rw-r--r--
bash$ ls -al
total 14
 drwxrwxr-x
               2 bozo bozo
                                 1024 Aug 29 20:54 ./
              52 bozo bozo
                                 3072 Aug 29 20:51 ../
 drwx----
              1 bozo bozo
                                 4034 Jul 18 22:04 data1.addressbook
 -rw-r--r--
               1 bozo bozo
                                 4602 May 25 13:58 data1.addressbook.bak
 -rw-r--r--
                                  877 Dec 17 2000 employment.addressbook
               1 bozo
                      bozo
 -rw-r--r--
               1 bozo
                      bozo
                                    0 Aug 29 20:54 .hidden-file
 - rw-rw-r--
```

When considering directory names, a single dot represents the current working directory, and two dots denote the parent directory.

```
bash$ pwd
/home/bozo/projects

bash$ cd .
bash$ pwd
/home/bozo/projects

bash$ cd ..
bash$ pwd
/home/bozo/
```

The *dot* often appears as the destination (directory) of a file movement command, in this context meaning *current directory*.

```
bash$ cp /home/bozo/current_work/junk/* .
```

Copy all the "junk" files to **<u>\$PWD</u>**.

[&]quot;dot" character match. When <u>matching characters</u>, as part of a <u>regular expression</u>, a "dot" <u>matches a single character</u>.

,, ,

partial quoting [double quote]. "STRING" preserves (from interpretation) most of the special characters within STRING. See Chapter 5.

full quoting [single quote]. 'STRING' preserves all special characters within STRING. This is a stronger form of quoting than "STRING". See Chapter 5.

comma operator. The *comma operator* [1] links together a series of arithmetic operations. All are evaluated, but only the last one is returned.

```
let "t2 = ((a = 9, 15 / 3))" # Set "a = 9" and "t2 = 15 / 3"
```

The *comma* operator can also concatenate strings.

Thank you, Rory Winston, for pointing this out.

Lowercase conversion in parameter substitution (added in version 4 of Bash).

escape [backslash]. A quoting mechanism for single characters.

 $\$ *escapes* the character X. This has the effect of "quoting" X, equivalent to X. The $\$ may be used to quote " and ', so they are expressed literally.

See <u>Chapter 5</u> for an in-depth explanation of escaped characters.

/

Filename path separator [forward slash]. Separates the components of a filename (as in /home/bozo/projects/Makefile).

This is also the division <u>arithmetic operator</u>.

`

command substitution. The **`command`** construct makes available the output of **command** for assignment to a variable. This is also known as <u>backguotes</u> or backticks.

:

null command [colon]. This is the shell equivalent of a "NOP" (*no op*, a do-nothing operation). It may be considered a synonym for the shell builtin <u>true</u>. The ":" command is itself a *Bash* <u>builtin</u>, and its <u>exit status</u> is *true* (0).

```
echo $? # 0
Endless loop:
while:
do
   operation-1
   operation-2
   . . .
   operation-n
done
# Same as:
     while true
     do
     done
Placeholder in if/then test:
if condition
then: # Do nothing and branch ahead
         # Or else ...
else
   take-some-action
fi
```

Provide a placeholder where a binary operation is expected, see <u>Example 8-2</u> and <u>default parameters</u>.

```
: ${username=`whoami`}
# ${username=`whoami`} Gives an error without the leading :
# unless "username" is a command or builtin...
: ${1?"Usage: $0 ARGUMENT"} # From "usage-message.sh example script.
```

Provide a placeholder where a command is expected in a <u>here document</u>. See <u>Example 19-10</u>.

Evaluate string of variables using <u>parameter substitution</u> (as in <u>Example 10-7</u>).

```
: ${HOSTNAME?} ${USER?} ${MAIL?}
# Prints error message
#+ if one or more of essential environmental variables not set.
```

Variable expansion / substring replacement.

In combination with the > <u>redirection operator</u>, truncates a file to zero length, without changing its permissions. If the file did not previously exist, creates it.

```
: > data.xxx # File "data.xxx" now empty.
# Same effect as cat /dev/null >data.xxx
# However, this does not fork a new process, since ":" is a builtin.
See also Example 16-15.
```

In combination with the >> redirection operator, has no effect on a pre-existing target file (: >> target_file). If the file did not previously exist, creates it.



This applies to regular files, not pipes, symlinks, and certain special files.

May be used to begin a comment line, although this is not recommended. Using # for a comment turns off error checking for the remainder of that line, so almost anything may appear in a comment. However, this is not the case with :.

```
: This is a comment that generates an error, ( if [ $x -eq 3] ).
```

The ":" serves as a <u>field</u> separator, in <u>/etc/passwd</u>, and in the <u>\$PATH</u> variable.

```
bash$ echo $PATH
/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/X11R6/bin:/sbin:/usr/sbin:/usr/games
```

A colon is acceptable as a function name.

```
:()
{
  echo "The name of this function is "$FUNCNAME" "
```

```
# Why use a colon as a function name?
# It's a way of obfuscating your code.
}
:
```

The name of this function is :

This is not <u>portable</u> behavior, and therefore not a recommended practice. In fact, more recent releases of Bash do not permit this usage. An underscore _ works, though.

A *colon* can serve as a placeholder in an otherwise empty function.

```
not_empty ()
{
   :
} # Contains a : (null command), and so is not empty.
```

reverse (or negate) the sense of a test or exit status [bang]. The ! operator inverts the <u>exit status</u> of the command to which it is applied (see <u>Example 6-2</u>). It also inverts the meaning of a test operator. This can, for example, change the sense of *equal* (\equiv) to *not-equal* (\equiv). The ! operator is a Bash <u>keyword</u>.

In a different context, the ! also appears in indirect variable references.

In yet another context, from the *command line*, the ! invokes the Bash *history mechanism* (see <u>Appendix L</u>). Note that within a script, the history mechanism is disabled.

*

wild card [asterisk]. The * character serves as a "wild card" for filename expansion in <u>globbing</u>. By itself, it matches every filename in a given directory.

```
bash$ echo *
abs-book.sgml add-drive.sh agram.sh alias.sh
```

The * also represents <u>any number (or zero) characters</u> in a <u>regular expression</u>.

*

arithmetic operator. In the context of arithmetic operations, the * denotes multiplication.

** A double asterisk can represent the <u>exponentiation</u> operator or <u>extended file-match</u> *globbing*.

?

test operator. Within certain expressions, the ? indicates a test for a condition.

In a <u>double-parentheses construct</u>, the ? can serve as an element of a C-style *trinary* operator. [2]

condition?result-if-true:result-if-false

In a parameter substitution expression, the ? tests whether a variable has been set.

?

wild card. The ? character serves as a single-character "wild card" for filename expansion in <u>globbing</u>, as well as <u>representing one character</u> in an <u>extended regular expression</u>.

\$

Variable substitution (contents of a variable).

```
var1=5
var2=23skidoo
echo $var1  # 5
echo $var2  # 23skidoo
```

A \$ prefixing a variable name indicates the *value* the variable holds.

\$

end-of-line. In a <u>regular expression</u>, a "\$" addresses the <u>end of a line</u> of text.

\${}

Parameter substitution.

\$' ... '

Quoted string expansion. This construct expands single or multiple escaped octal or hex values into ASCII [3] or <u>Unicode</u> characters.

\$*,\$@

positional parameters.

\$?

exit status variable. The \$? variable holds the exit status of a command, a function, or of the script itself.

\$\$

process ID variable. The <u>\$\$ variable</u> holds the *process ID* [4] of the script in which it appears.

()

command group.

```
(a=hello; echo $a)
```



A listing of commands within *parentheses* starts a <u>subshell</u>.

Variables inside parentheses, within the subshell, are not visible to the rest of the script. The parent process, the script, <u>cannot read variables created in the child process</u>, the subshell.

```
a=123
( a=321; )
echo "a = $a"  # a = 123
# "a" within parentheses acts like a local variable.
```

array initialization.

```
Array=(element1 element2 element3)
```

```
{xxx,yyy,zzz,...}
```

Brace expansion.

```
echo \"{These,words,are,quoted}\" # " prefix and suffix
# "These" "words" "are" "quoted"
```

```
cat {file1,file2,file3} > combined_file
# Concatenates the files file1, file2, and file3 into combined_file.
cp file22.{txt,backup}
# Copies "file22.txt" to "file22.backup"
```

A command may act upon a comma-separated list of file specs within *braces*. [5] Filename expansion (globbing) applies to the file specs between the braces.



{a..z}

No spaces allowed within the braces *unless* the spaces are quoted or escaped.

```
echo {file1,file2}\ :{\ A," B",' C'}
file1 : A file1 : B file1 : C file2 : A file2 : B file2 : C
```

Extended Brace expansion.

```
echo {a..z} # a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z # Echoes characters between a and z.

echo {0..3} # 0 1 2 3 # Echoes characters between 0 and 3.

base64_charset=( {A..Z} {a..z} {0..9} + / = ) # Initializing an array, using extended brace expansion.

# From vladz's "base64.sh" example script.
```

The {*a..z*} <u>extended brace expansion</u> construction is a feature introduced in <u>version 3</u> of *Bash*.

{}

Block of code [curly brackets]. Also referred to as an *inline group*, this construct, in effect, creates an *anonymous function* (a function without a name). However, unlike in a "standard" <u>function</u>, the variables inside a code block remain visible to the remainder of the script.

```
bash$ { local a;
a=123; }
bash: local: can only be used in a
function
```

```
a=123
{ a=321; }
echo "a = $a"  # a = 321  (value inside code block)
```

```
# Thanks, S.C.
```

The code block enclosed in braces may have **I/O** redirected to and from it.

Example 3-1. Code blocks and I/O redirection

```
#!/bin/bash
# Reading lines in /etc/fstab.

File=/etc/fstab
{
    read line1
    read line2
} < $File

echo "First line in $File is:"
    echo "$line1"
    echo
    echo "Second line in $File is:"
    echo "$line2"

exit 0

# Now, how do you parse the separate fields of each line?
# Hint: use awk, or . . .
# . . . Hans-Joerg Diers suggests using the "set" Bash builtin.</pre>
```

Example 3-2. Saving the output of a code block to a file

```
#!/bin/bash
# rpm-check.sh

# Queries an rpm file for description, listing,
#+ and whether it can be installed.
# Saves output to a file.
#
# This script illustrates using a code block.

SUCCESS=0
E_NOARGS=65

if [ -z "$1" ]
then
    echo "Usage: `basename $0` rpm-file"
    exit $E_NOARGS
```

```
fi
{ # Begin code block.
  echo
 echo "Archive Description:"
  rpm -qpi $1
                    # Query description.
  echo
  echo "Archive Listing:"
                    # Query listing.
  rpm -qpl $1
  echo
  rpm -i --test $1 # Query whether rpm file can be installed.
  if [ "$?" -eq $SUCCESS ]
  then
    echo "$1 can be installed."
    echo "$1 cannot be installed."
  fi
 echo
                    # End code block.
                    # Redirects output of everything in block to file.
} > "$1.test"
echo "Results of rpm test in file $1.test"
```

See rpm man page for explanation of options.

exit 0

Unlike a command group within (parentheses), as above, a code block enclosed by {braces} will *not* normally launch a <u>subshell</u>. [6]

It is possible to <u>iterate</u> a code block using a <u>non-standard for-loop</u>.

{}

{};

placeholder for text. Used after <u>xargs -i</u> (*replace strings* option). The {} double curly brackets are a placeholder for output text.

pathname. Mostly used in <u>find</u> constructs. This is *not* a shell <u>builtin</u>.

Definition: A *pathname* is a *filename* that includes the complete <u>path</u>. As an example, /home/bozo/Notes/Thursday/schedule.txt. This is sometimes referred to as the *absolute path*.



The ";" ends the -exec option of a **find** command sequence. It needs to be escaped to protect it from interpretation by the shell.

[]

test.

<u>Test</u> expression between []. Note that [is part of the shell *builtin* <u>test</u> (and a synonym for it), *not* a link to the external command /usr/bin/test.

[[]]

test.

Test expression between [[]]. More flexible than the single-bracket [] test, this is a shell <u>keyword</u>.

See the discussion on the [[...]] construct.

[]

array element.

```
In the context of an <u>array</u>, brackets set off the numbering of each element of that array. Array[1]=slot_1 echo ${Array[1]}
```

[]

range of characters.

As part of a <u>regular expression</u>, brackets delineate a <u>range of characters</u> to match.

\$[...]

integer expansion.

```
Evaluate integer expression between $[].
a=3
b=7
echo $[$a+$b] # 10
echo $[$a*$b] # 21
```

Note that this usage is *deprecated*, and has been replaced by the $((\underline{\dots}))$ construct.

integer expansion.

Expand and evaluate integer expression between (()).

See the discussion on the ((...)) construct.

```
> &> >& >> < <>
```

redirection.

scriptname >filename redirects the output of scriptname to file filename. Overwrite filename if it already exists.

command &>filename redirects both the stdout and the stderr of command to filename.



This is useful for suppressing output when testing for a condition. For example, let us test whether a certain command exists.

```
bash$ type bogus_command &>/dev/null

bash$ echo $?
```

Or in a script:

command >&2 redirects stdout of command to stderr.

scriptname >>**filename** appends the output of scriptname to file filename. If filename does not already exist, it is created.

```
[i] <> filename opens file filename for reading and writing, and assigns file descriptor i to it. If filename does not exist, it is created.
      process substitution.
      (command)>
      <(command)
      <u>In a different context</u>, the "<" and ">" characters act as <u>string comparison operators</u>.
      <u>In yet another context</u>, the "<" and ">" characters act as <u>integer comparison operators</u>. See also <u>Example 16-9</u>.
<<
      redirection used in a here document.
<<<
      redirection used in a here string.
<,>
      ASCII comparison.
      veg1=carrots
      veg2=tomatoes
      if [[ "$veg1" < "$veg2" ]]</pre>
      then
         echo "Although $veg1 precede $veg2 in the dictionary,"
        echo -n "this does not necessarily imply anything "
         echo "about my culinary preferences."
         echo "What kind of dictionary are you using, anyhow?"
      fi
\<, \>
      word boundary in a regular expression.
      bash$ grep '\<the\>' textfile
```

pipe. Passes the output (stdout) of a previous command to the input (stdin) of the next one, or to the shell. This is a method of chaining commands together.

```
echo ls -l | sh
# Passes the output of "echo ls -l" to the shell,
#+ with the same result as a simple "ls -l".

cat *.lst | sort | uniq
# Merges and sorts all ".lst" files, then deletes duplicate lines.
```

A pipe, as a classic method of interprocess communication, sends the stdout of one <u>process</u> to the stdin of another. In a typical case, a command, such as <u>cat</u> or <u>echo</u>, pipes a stream of data to a *filter*, a command that transforms its input for processing. [7]

```
cat $filename1 $filename2 | grep $search word
```

For an interesting note on the complexity of using UNIX pipes, see the UNIX FAQ, Part 3.

The output of a command or commands may be piped to a script.

```
#!/bin/bash
# uppercase.sh : Changes input to uppercase.

tr 'a-z' 'A-Z'
# Letter ranges must be quoted
#+ to prevent filename generation from single-letter filenames.
exit 0
```

Now, let us pipe the output of **ls -l** to this script.



The stdout of each process in a pipe must be read as the stdin of the next. If this is not the case, the data stream will *block*, and the pipe will not behave as expected.

```
cat file1 file2 | ls -l | sort
# The output from "cat file1 file2" disappears.
```

A pipe runs as a <u>child process</u>, and therefore cannot alter script variables.

```
variable="initial_value"
echo "new_value" | read variable
echo "variable = $variable" # variable = initial value
```

Special Characters

If one of the commands in the pipe aborts, this prematurely terminates execution of the pipe. Called a *broken pipe*, this condition sends a *SIGPIPE* <u>signal</u>.

>

6/21/2020

force redirection (even if the <u>noclobber option</u> **is set).** This will forcibly overwrite an existing file.

 $\|$

OR logical operator. In a <u>test construct</u>, the || operator causes a return of 0 (success) if *either* of the linked test conditions is true.

&

Run job in background. A command followed by an & will run in the background.

```
bash$ sleep 10 &
[1] 850
[1]+ Done sleep 10
```

Within a script, commands and even <u>loops</u> may run in the background.

Example 3-3. Running a loop in the background

```
# 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
# Sometimes, though, you get:
# 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
# 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 bozo $
# (The second 'echo' doesn't execute. Why?)
# Occasionally also:
# 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
# (The first 'echo' doesn't execute. Why?)
# Very rarely something like:
# 11 12 13 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
# The foreground loop preempts the background one.
exit 0
# Nasimuddin Ansari suggests adding
                                        sleep 1
#+ after the echo -n "$i" in lines 6 and 14,
#+ for some real fun.
```

1

A command run in the background within a script may cause the script to hang, waiting for a keystroke. Fortunately, there is a <u>remedy</u> for this.

&&

AND logical operator. In a <u>test construct</u>, the && operator causes a return of 0 (success) only if *both* the linked test conditions are true.

-

option, **prefix**. Option flag for a command or filter. Prefix for an operator. Prefix for a <u>default parameter</u> in <u>parameter substitution</u>.

The *double-dash* -- prefixes *long* (verbatim) options to commands.

sort --ignore-leading-blanks

Used with a **Bash builtin**, it means the *end of options* to that particular command.

 $\mathbf{\hat{j}}$ This provides a handy means of removing files whose names begin with a dash.

```
bash$ ls -l
-rw-r--r- 1 bozo bozo 0 Nov 25 12:29 -badname

bash$ rm -- -badname

bash$ ls -l
total 0
```

The *double-dash* is also used in conjunction with <u>set</u>.

```
set -- $variable (as in Example 15-18)
```

redirection from/to stdin or stdout [dash].

```
bash$ cat -
abc
abc
...
Ctl-D
```

As expected, **cat** - echoes stdin, in this case keyboarded user input, to stdout. But, does I/O redirection using - have real-world applications?

```
(cd /source/directory && tar cf - . ) | (cd /dest/directory && tar xpvf -)
# Move entire file tree from one directory to another
# [courtesy Alan Cox <a.cox@swansea.ac.uk>, with a minor change]
# 1) cd /source/directory
     Source directory, where the files to be moved are.
# 2) &&
   "And-list": if the 'cd' operation successful,
    then execute the next command.
# 3) tar cf - .
    The 'c' option 'tar' archiving command creates a new archive,
    the 'f' (file) option, followed by '-' designates the target file
    as stdout, and do it in current directory tree ('.').
# 4)
    Piped to ...
# 5) ( ... )
    a subshell
# 6) cd /dest/directory
    Change to the destination directory.
# 7) &&
    "And-list", as above
#8) tar xpvf -
    Unarchive ('x'), preserve ownership and file permissions ('p'),
    and send verbose messages to stdout ('v'),
    reading data from stdin ('f' followed by '-').
    Note that 'x' is a command, and 'p', 'v', 'f' are options.
# Whew!
# More elegant than, but equivalent to:
   cd source/directory
   tar cf - . | (cd ../dest/directory; tar xpvf -)
     Also having same effect:
 cp -a /source/directory/* /dest/directory
     0r:
# cp -a /source/directory/* /source/directory/.[^.]* /dest/directory
     If there are hidden files in /source/directory.
bunzip2 -c linux-2.6.16.tar.bz2 | tar xvf -
# --uncompress tar file-- | --then pass it to "tar"--
# If "tar" has not been patched to handle "bunzip2",
```

```
#+ this needs to be done in two discrete steps, using a pipe.
# The purpose of the exercise is to unarchive "bzipped" kernel source.
```

Note that in this context the "-" is not itself a Bash operator, but rather an option recognized by certain UNIX utilities that write to stdout, such as **tar**, **cat**, etc.

```
bash$ echo "whatever" | cat -
whatever
```

Where a filename is expected, - redirects output to stdout (sometimes seen with tar cf), or accepts input from stdin, rather than from a file. This is a method of using a file-oriented utility as a filter in a pipe.

```
bash$ file
Usage: file [-bciknvzL] [-f namefile] [-m magicfiles] file...
```

By itself on the command-line, <u>file</u> fails with an error message.

Add a "-" for a more useful result. This causes the shell to await user input.

```
bash$ file -
abc
standard input:

ASCII text

bash$ file -
#!/bin/bash
standard input:

Bourne-Again shell script text executable
```

Now the command accepts input from stdin and analyzes it.

The "-" can be used to pipe stdout to other commands. This permits such stunts as prepending lines to a file.

Using <u>diff</u> to compare a file with a *section* of another:

```
grep Linux file1 | diff file2 -
```

Finally, a real-world example using - with <u>tar</u>.

Example 3-4. Backup of all files changed in last day

```
#!/bin/bash
# Backs up all files in current directory modified within last 24 hours
#+ in a "tarball" (tarred and gzipped file).
```

```
BACKUPFILE=backup-$(date +\%m-\%d-\%Y)
                  Embeds date in backup filename.
                  Thanks, Joshua Tschida, for the idea.
archive=${1:-$BACKUPFILE}
# If no backup-archive filename specified on command-line,
#+ it will default to "backup-MM-DD-YYYY.tar.gz."
tar cvf - `find . -mtime -1 -type f -print` > $archive.tar
gzip $archive.tar
echo "Directory $PWD backed up in archive file \"$archive.tar.gz\"."
# Stephane Chazelas points out that the above code will fail
#+ if there are too many files found
#+ or if any filenames contain blank characters.
# He suggests the following alternatives:
   find . -mtime -1 -type f -print0 | xargs -0 tar rvf "$archive.tar"
       using the GNU version of "find".
   find . -mtime -1 -type f -exec tar rvf "$archive.tar" '{}' \;
         portable to other UNIX flavors, but much slower.
exit 0
```

1

Filenames beginning with "-" may cause problems when coupled with the "-" redirection operator. A script should check for this and add an appropriate prefix to such filenames, for example ./-FILENAME, \$PWD/-FILENAME, or \$PATHNAME/-FILENAME.

If the value of a variable begins with a -, this may likewise create problems.

var="-n"
echo \$var
Has the effect of "echo -n", and outputs nothing.

previous working directory. A **cd** - command changes to the previous working directory. This uses the <u>\$OLDPWD</u> <u>environmental variable</u>.

Do not confuse the "-" used in this sense with the "-" redirection operator just discussed. The interpretation of the "-" depends on the context in which it appears.

Minus. Minus sign in an arithmetic operation.

=

```
Equals. Assignment operator
```

```
a=28
echo $a # 28
```

In a <u>different context</u>, the "=" is a <u>string comparison</u> operator.

+

Plus. Addition arithmetic operator.

In a <u>different context</u>, the + is a <u>Regular Expression</u> operator.

+

Option. Option flag for a command or filter.

Certain commands and <u>builtins</u> use the + to enable certain options and the - to disable them. In <u>parameter substitution</u>, the + prefixes an <u>alternate value</u> that a variable expands to.

%

modulo. Modulo (remainder of a division) <u>arithmetic operation</u>.

```
let "z = 5 % 3"
echo $z # 2
```

In a <u>different context</u>, the % is a <u>pattern matching</u> operator.

. •

home directory [tilde]. This corresponds to the <u>\$HOME</u> internal variable. ~bozo is bozo's home directory, and **ls ~bozo** lists the contents of it. ~/ is the current user's home directory, and **ls ~/** lists the contents of it.

```
bash$ echo ~bozo
/home/bozo
bash$ echo ~
/home/bozo
```

```
bash$ echo ~/
/home/bozo/
bash$ echo ~:
/home/bozo:
bash$ echo ~nonexistent-user
~nonexistent-user
```

~+

current working directory. This corresponds to the <u>\$PWD</u> internal variable.

~-

previous working directory. This corresponds to the <u>\$OLDPWD</u> internal variable.

=~

regular expression match. This operator was introduced with version 3 of Bash.

Λ

beginning-of-line. In a <u>regular expression</u>, a "^" addresses the <u>beginning of a line</u> of text.

 \wedge , $\wedge\wedge$

<u>Uppercase conversion</u> in parameter substitution (added in <u>version 4</u> of Bash).

Control Characters

change the behavior of the terminal or text display. A control character is a **CONTROL** + **key** combination (pressed simultaneously). A control character may also be written in *octal* or *hexadecimal* notation, following an *escape*.

Control characters are not normally useful inside a script.

• Ctl-A

Moves cursor to beginning of line of text (on the command-line).

• Ctl-B

Backspace (nondestructive).

• Ctl-C

Break. Terminate a foreground job.

Ctl-D

Log out from a shell (similar to exit).

EOF (end-of-file). This also terminates input from stdin.

When typing text on the console or in an *xterm* window, **Ctl-D** erases the character under the cursor. When there are no characters present, **Ctl-D** logs out of the session, as expected. In an *xterm* window, this has the effect of closing the window.

• Ctl-E

Moves cursor to end of line of text (on the command-line).

• Ctl-F

Moves cursor forward one character position (on the command-line).

• Ctl-G

BEL. On some old-time teletype terminals, this would actually ring a bell. In an *xterm* it might beep.

• Ctl-H

Rubout (destructive backspace). Erases characters the cursor backs over while backspacing.

```
#!/bin/bash
# Embedding Ctl-H in a string.
a="^H^H"
                           # Two Ctl-H's -- backspaces
                           # ctl-V ctl-H, using vi/vim
echo "abcdef"
                           # abcdef
echo
echo -n "abcdef$a "
# Space at end ^
                           # abcd f
                                 ^ Backspaces twice.
echo
echo -n "abcdef$a"
                           # abcdef
                                  ^ Doesn't backspace (why?).
# No space at end
                           # Results may not be quite as expected.
echo; echo
```

• Ctl-I

Horizontal tab.

• Ctl-J

Newline (line feed). In a script, may also be expressed in octal notation -- '\012' or in hexadecimal -- '\x0a'.

• Ctl-K

Vertical tab.

When typing text on the console or in an *xterm* window, **Ctl-K** erases from the character under the cursor to end of line. Within a script, **Ctl-K** may behave differently, as in Lee Lee Maschmeyer's example, below.

• Ctl-L

Formfeed (clear the terminal screen). In a terminal, this has the same effect as the <u>clear</u> command. When sent to a printer, a **Ctl-L** causes an advance to end of the paper sheet.

Ctl-M

Carriage return.

```
#!/bin/bash
# Thank you, Lee Maschmeyer, for this example.
```

```
read -n 1 -s -p \
$'Control-M leaves cursor at beginning of this line. Press Enter. \x0d'
           # Of course, 'Od' is the hex equivalent of Control-M.
echo >&2 # The '-s' makes anything typed silent,
           #+ so it is necessary to go to new line explicitly.
read -n 1 -s -p $'Control-J leaves cursor on next line. \x0a'
           # '0a' is the hex equivalent of Control-J, linefeed.
echo >&2
###
read -n 1 -s -p $'And Control-K\x0bgoes straight down.'
echo >&2 # Control-K is vertical tab.
# A better example of the effect of a vertical tab is:
var=$'\x0aThis is the bottom line\x0bThis is the top line\x0a'
echo "$var"
# This works the same way as the above example. However:
echo "$var" | col
# This causes the right end of the line to be higher than the left end.
# It also explains why we started and ended with a line feed --
#+ to avoid a garbled screen.
# As Lee Maschmeyer explains:
# In the [first vertical tab example] . . . the vertical tab
#+ makes the printing go straight down without a carriage return.
# This is true only on devices, such as the Linux console,
#+ that can't go "backward."
# The real purpose of VT is to go straight UP, not down.
# It can be used to print superscripts on a printer.
# The col utility can be used to emulate the proper behavior of VT.
exit 0
```

• Ctl-N

Erases a line of text recalled from *history buffer* [8] (on the command-line).

• Ctl-0

Issues a *newline* (on the command-line).

• Ctl-P

Recalls last command from history buffer (on the command-line).

• Ctl-Q

Resume (XON).

This resumes stdin in a terminal.

• Ctl-R

Backwards search for text in *history buffer* (on the command-line).

• Ctl-S

Suspend (X0FF).

This freezes stdin in a terminal. (Use Ctl-Q to restore input.)

• Ctl-T

Reverses the position of the character the cursor is on with the previous character (on the command-line).

• Ctl-U

Erase a line of input, from the cursor backward to beginning of line. In some settings, Ctl-U erases the entire line of input, regardless of cursor position.

Ctl-V

When inputting text, Ctl-V permits inserting control characters. For example, the following two are equivalent:

```
echo -e '\x0a'
echo <Ctl-V><Ctl-J>
```

Ctl-V is primarily useful from within a text editor.

• Ctl-W

When typing text on the console or in an xterm window, **Ctl-W** erases from the character under the cursor backwards to the first instance of <u>whitespace</u>. In some settings, **Ctl-W** erases backwards to first non-alphanumeric character.

• Ctl-X

In certain word processing programs, Cuts highlighted text and copies to clipboard.

• Ctl-Y

Pastes back text previously erased (with Ctl-U or Ctl-W).

• Ctl-Z

Pauses a foreground job.

Substitute operation in certain word processing applications.

EOF (end-of-file) character in the MSDOS filesystem.

Whitespace

functions as a separator between commands and/or variables. Whitespace consists of either *spaces*, *tabs*, *blank lines*, or any combination thereof. [9] In some contexts, such as <u>variable assignment</u>, whitespace is not permitted, and results in a syntax error.

Blank lines have no effect on the action of a script, and are therefore useful for visually separating functional sections.

\$IFS, the special variable separating *fields* of input to certain commands. It defaults to whitespace.

Definition: A *field* is a discrete chunk of data expressed as a string of consecutive characters. Separating each field from adjacent fields is either *whitespace* or some other designated character (often determined by the \$IFS). In some contexts, a field may be called a *record*.

To preserve whitespace within a string or in a variable, use quoting.

UNIX <u>filters</u> can target and operate on *whitespace* using the <u>POSIX</u> character class [:space:].

Notes

- [1] An *operator* is an agent that carries out an *operation*. Some examples are the common <u>arithmetic operators</u>, + * /. In Bash, there is some overlap between the concepts of *operator* and <u>keyword</u>.
- [2] This is more commonly known as the *ternary* operator. Unfortunately, *ternary* is an ugly word. It doesn't roll off the tongue, and it doesn't elucidate. It obfuscates. *Trinary* is by far the more elegant usage.
- [3] American Standard Code for Information Interchange. This is a system for encoding text characters (alphabetic, numeric, and a limited set of symbols) as 7-bit numbers that can be stored and manipulated by computers. Many of the ASCII characters are represented on a standard keyboard.
- [4] A PID, or process ID, is a number assigned to a running process. The PIDs of running processes may be viewed with a ps command.

Definition: A *process* is a currently executing command (or program), sometimes referred to as a *job*.

[5] The shell does the *brace expansion*. The command itself acts upon the *result* of the expansion.

[6] Exception: a code block in braces as part of a pipe *may* run as a <u>subshell</u>.

```
ls | { read firstline; read secondline; }
# Error. The code block in braces runs as a subshell,
#+ so the output of "ls" cannot be passed to variables within the block.
echo "First line is $firstline; second line is $secondline" # Won't work.
# Thanks, S.C.
```

- [7] Even as in olden times a *philtre* denoted a potion alleged to have magical transformative powers, so does a UNIX *filter* transform its target in (roughly) analogous fashion. (The coder who comes up with a "love philtre" that runs on a Linux machine will likely win accolades and honors.)
- [8] Bash stores a list of commands previously issued from the command-line in a *buffer*, or memory space, for recall with the <u>builtin</u> *history* commands.
- [9] A linefeed (*newline*) is also a whitespace character. This explains why a *blank line*, consisting only of a linefeed, is considered whitespace.

<u>Prev</u>	<u>Home</u>	<u>Next</u>
Basics	<u>Up</u>	Introduction to Variables and Parameters