

1.109.2 Customize or write simple scripts Weight 3

Linux Professional Institute Certification — 102

Nick Urbanik <nicku@nicku.org>

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Outline

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1 Context

Topic 109 Shells, Scripting, Programming and Compiling [8]

1.109.1 Customize and use the shell environment [5]

1.109.2 Customize or write simple scripts [3]

2 Objectives

Description of Objective

Candidate should be able to customize existing scripts, or write simple new (ba)sh scripts. This objective includes using standard sh syntax (*loops, tests*), using *command substitution*, testing *command return values*, testing of *file status*, and conditional *mailing to the superuser*. This objective also includes making sure the correct interpreter is called on the first (#!) line of scripts. This objective also includes managing *location, ownership*, execution and *suid-rights* of scripts.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

while — shell builtin: does things repetively while a condition is true

for — shell builtin: does things repetively, once with each element of a list

test — used to construct a condition

chmod — an external command, to change the permission on a file

3 The shebang: #!

The Shebang: #!

- You ask the Linux kernel to execute the shell script
- kernel reads first two characters of the executable file
 - If first 2 chars are “#!” then
 - kernel executes the name that follows, with the file name of the script as a parameter

- Example: a file called `find.sh` has this as the first line:

```
#!/bin/sh
```

- then kernel executes this:

```
/bin/sh find.sh
```

- What will happen in each case if an executable file begins with:
 - `#!/bin/rm`
 - `#!/bin/ls`

For shell scripts, the interpreter is `/bin/sh`, so the first line of all our shell scripts is:

```
#!/bin/sh
```

If you make any typing mistake in the name of the interpreter, you will get an error message such as “bad interpreter: No such file or directory.”

4 Making the script executable

Making the script executable

To easily execute a script, it should:

- be on the `PATH`
- have execute permission.

How to do each of these?

- Red Hat Linux by default, includes the directory `~/bin` on the `PATH`, so create this directory, and put your scripts there:

```
$ mkdir ~/bin ↵
```

- If your script is called `script`, then this command will make it executable:

```
$ chmod +x script ↵
```

5 Should you make a script SUID?

Should you make a script SUID?

- Normally, when *you* run a script, the process is owned by *you*, and has the *same access rights as you*
- If a script has the SUID permission, then:
 - it does not matter who executes it!
 - the owner of the process is the owner of the file
 - This is *very dangerous*, especially if the *owner of the file is root!*
- *Never* make a shell script SUID, unless you really, really know what the risks are and how to avoid them
- Instead, write it in a language such as Perl, with taint checking, and make it as simple as possible.
- See Topic *1.114.1 Perform security administration tasks* for details of manipulating SUID/SGID permissions.

6 True and False

True and False

- Shell programs depend on executing external programs
- When any external program execution is successful, the exit status is zero, 0
- An error results in a non-zero error code
- To match this, in shell programming:
 - The value 0 is true
 - any non-zero value is false
- This is opposite from other programming languages

7 Shell Variables

Variables—1

- Variables not declared; they just appear when assigned to
- Assignment:
 - no dollar sign
 - no space around equals sign
 - examples:


```
$ x=10 # correct
```

```
$ x = 10 # wrong: try to execute program called ‘x’
```
- Read value of variable:
 - put a ‘\$’ in front of variable name
 - example:


```
$ echo "The value of x is $x"
```

Variables—Assignments

- You can put *multiple assignments* on one line:


```
i=0 j=10 k=100
```
- You can *set a variable temporarily* while executing a program:

```
$ echo $EDITOR
emacsclient
$ EDITOR=gedit crontab -e
$ echo $EDITOR
emacsclient
```

Variables—Local to Script

- Variables disappear after a script finishes
- Variables created in a sub shell disappear
 - *parent shell cannot read variables in a sub shell*
 - example:

```
$ cat variables
#!/bin/sh
echo $HOME
HOME=happy
echo $HOME
$ ./variables
/home/nicku
happy
$ echo $HOME
/home/nicku
```

Variables—unsetting Them

- You can make a variable hold the null string by assigning it to nothing, but it does not disappear totally: `$ VAR=` \leftrightarrow `$ env | grep '^VAR'` \leftrightarrow `VAR=`
- You can make it disappear totally using `unset`:


```
$ unset VAR  $\leftrightarrow$  $ env | grep '^VAR'  $\leftrightarrow$ 
```

8 Special Variables

Command-line Parameters

- Command-line parameters are called \$0, \$1, \$2, ...
- Example: when call a shell script called “shell-script” like this:

```
$ shell-script param1 param2 param3 param4 ←
```

variable	value
\$0	shell-script
\$1	param1
\$2	param2
\$3	param3
\$4	param4
\$#	number of parameters to the program, e.g., 4

– Note: these variables are read-only.

Special Built-in Variables

- Both \$@ and \$* are a list of all the parameters.
- The only difference between them is when they are quoted in quotes—see manual page for bash
- \$? is exit status of last command
- \$\$ is the process ID of the current shell
- Example shell script:

```
#!/bin/sh
echo $0 is the full name of this shell script
echo first parameter is $1
echo first parameter is $2
echo first parameter is $3
echo total number of parameters is $#
echo process ID is $$
```

9 Quoting

9.1 Quoting and Funny Chars

Special Characters

Character	Meaning
~	Home directory
`	Command substitution. Better: \$(...)
#	Comment
\$	Variable expression
&	Background Job
*	File name matching wildcard
	Pipe
(Start subshell
)	End subshell
[Start character set file name matching
]	End character set file name matching
{	Start command block
;	Command separator
\	Quote next character
'	Strong quote
"	Weak quote
<	Redirect Input
>	Redirect Output
/	Pathname directory separator
?	Single-character match in filenames
!	Pipeline logical NOT
<i><space or tab></i>	shell normally splits at white space

9.2 Quoting

Quoting

- Sometimes you want to use a special character *literally*; i.e., without its special meaning.
- Called *quoting*
- Suppose you want to print the string: `2 * 3 > 5` is a valid inequality?
- If you did this:

```
$ echo 2 * 3 > 5 is a valid inequality
```

the new file '5' is created, containing the character '2', then the names of all the files in the current directory, then the string "3 is a valid inequality".

Quoting—2

- To make it work, you need to protect the special characters '*' and '>' from the shell by quoting them. There are three methods of quoting:
 - Using double quotes (“weak quotes”)
 - Using single quotes (“strong quotes”)
 - Using a backslash in front of each special character you want to quote
- This example shows all three:

```
$ echo "2 * 3 > 5 is a valid inequality"
$ echo '2 * 3 > 5 is a valid inequality'
$ echo 2 \* 3 \> 5 is a valid inequality
```

Quoting—When to use it?

- Use quoting when you want to pass special characters to another program.
- Examples of programs that often use special characters:
 - find, locate, grep, expr, sed and echo
- Here are examples where quoting is required for the program to work properly:

```
$ find . -name \*.jpg
$ locate '/usr/bin/c*'
$ grep 'main.*(' *.c
$ i=$(expr i \* 5)
```

More about Quoting

- Double quotes " . . ." stop the special behaviour of all special characters, except for:
 - variable interpretation (\$)
 - backticks (`) — see slide 20
 - the backslash (\)
- Single quotes ' . . . ':
 - stop the special behaviour of *all* special characters

- Backslash:
 - preserves literal behaviour of character, except for newline; see slides §29, §24
 - Putting “\” at the end of the line lets you continue a long line on more than one physical line, but the shell will treat it as if it were all on one line.

10 Command Substitution

Command Substitution — \$(. . .) or ` . . . `

- Enclose command in \$(. . .) or backticks: ` . . . `
- Means, “Execute the command in the \$(. . .) and put the output back here.”
- Here is an example using **expr**:

```
$ expr 3 + 2
5
$ i=expr 3 + 2 # error: try execute command '3'
$ i=$(expr 3 + 2) # correct
$ i=`expr 3 + 2` # also correct
```

Command Substitution—Example

- We want to put the *output of the command* hostname into a *variable*:

```
$ hostname
nicku.org
$ h=hostname
$ echo $h
hostname
```

- Oh dear, we only stored the *name* of the command, not the *output* of the command!
- *Command substitution* solves the problem:

```
$ h=$(hostname)
$ echo $h
nicku.org
```

- We put \$(. . .) around the command. You can then assign the output of the command.

11 The if statement

if Statement

- Syntax:

```
if <test-commands>
then
    <statements-if-test-commands-1-true>
elif <test-commands-2>
then
    <statements-if-test-commands-2-true>
else
    <statements-if-all-test-commands-false>
fi
```

- Example:

```
if grep nick /etc/passwd > /dev/null 2>&1
then
    echo Nick has a local account here
else
    echo Nick has no local account here
fi
```

12 while statement

while Statement

- Syntax:

```
while <test-commands>
do
    <loop-body-statements>
done
```

- Example:

```
i=0
while [ "$i" -lt 10 ]
do
    echo -n "$i " # -n suppresses newline.
    let "i = i + 1" # i=$(expr $i + 1) also works
done
```

13 The for statement

for Statement

- Syntax:

```
for <name> in <words>
do
    <loop-body-statements>
done
```

- Example:

```
for planet in Mercury Venus Earth Mars \
    Jupiter Saturn Uranus Neptune Pluto
do
    echo $planet
done
```

- The backslash “\” quotes the newline. It’s just a way of folding a long line in a shell script over two or more lines.

for Loops: Another Example

- Here the shell turns `*.txt` into a list of file names ending in “.txt”:

```
for i in *.txt
do
    echo $i
    grep 'lost treasure' $i
done
```

- You can leave the `in <words>` out; in that case, `<name>` is set to each parameter in turn:

```
i=0
for parameter
do
    let 'i = i + 1'
    echo "parameter $i is $parameter"
done
```

14 The test program

14.1 Conditions

Conditions—String Comparisons

- All programming languages depend on *conditions* for `if` statements and for `while` loops
- Shell programming uses a built-in command which is either `test` or `[...]`
- Examples of *string* comparisons:

```
[ "$USER" = root ]      # true if the value of $USER is "root"
[ "$USER" != root ]    # true if the value of $USER is not "root"
[ -z "$USER" ]         # true if the string "$USER" has zero length
[ string1 \<; string2 ] # true if string1 sorts less than string2
[ string1 \> string2 ] # true if string1 sorts greater than string2
```

- Note that we need to quote the ‘>’ and the ‘<’ to avoid interpreting them as file redirection.
- *Note:* the spaces after the “[“ and before the “]” are essential.
- Also spaces are *essential* around operators

Conditions—Integer Comparisons

- Examples of *numeric* integer comparisons:

```
[ "$x" -eq 5 ] # true if the value of $x is 5
[ "$x" -ne 5 ] # true if integer $x is not 5
[ "$x" -lt 5 ] # true if integer $x is < 5
[ "$x" -gt 5 ] # true if integer $x is > 5
[ "$x" -le 5 ] # true if integer $x is ≤ 5
[ "$x" -ge 5 ] # true if integer $x is ≥ 5
```

- Note again that the spaces after the “[“ and before the “]” are essential.
- Also spaces are *essential* around operators

Conditions—File Tests, NOT Operator

- The shell provides many tests of information about *files*.
- Do `man test` to see the complete list.
- Some examples:

```
$ [ -f file ] # true if file is an ordinary file
$ [ ! -f file ] # true if file is NOT an ordinary file
$ [ -d file ] # true if file is a directory
$ [ -u file ] # true if file has SUID permission
$ [ -g file ] # true if file has SGID permission
$ [ -x file ] # true if file exists and is executable
$ [ -r file ] # true if file exists and is readable
$ [ -w file ] # true if file exists and is writeable
$ [ file1 -nt file2 ] # true if file1 is newer than file2
```

- *Note again:* the spaces after the “[“ and before the “]” are essential.
- Also spaces are *essential* around operators

Conditions—Combining Comparisons

- Examples of *combining comparisons* with AND: `-a` and OR: `-o`, and *grouping* with `\(...\)`

```
# true if the value of $x is 5 AND $USER is not equal to root:
[ "$x" -eq 5 -a "$USER" != root ]
# true if the value of $x is 5 OR $USER is not equal to root:
[ "$x" -eq 5 -o "$USER" != root ]
# true if ( the value of $x is 5 OR $USER is not equal to root ) AND
# ( $y > 7 OR $HOME has the value happy )
[ \( "$x" -eq 5 -o "$USER" != root \) -a \
  \( "$y" -gt 7 -o "$HOME" = happy \) ]
```

- Note again that the spaces after the “[“ and before the “]” are essential.
- Do `man test` to see the information about all the operators.

15 Arithmetic

Arithmetic Assignments

- Can do with the external program **expr**

– ...but `expr` is not so easy to use, although it is very standard and *portable*: see `man expr`

– Easier is to use the built in **let** command

* see help let

– Examples:

```
$ let x=1+4
$ let ++x           # Now x is 6
$ let x='1 + 4'
$ let 'x = 1 + 4'
$ let x="(2 + 3) * 5" # now x is 25
$ let "x = 2 + 3 * 5" # now x is 17
$ let "x += 5"        # now x is 22
$ let "x = x + 5"     # now x is 27; NOTE NO $
```

– Notice that you do not need to quote the special characters with `let`.

– Quote if you want to use white space.

– Do not put a dollar in front of variable, even on right side of assignment; see last example.

16 Input & Output

16.1 Output with echo

Output with echo

- To perform output, use `echo`, or for more formatting, **printf**.
- Use `echo -n` to print no newline at end.
- Just `echo` by itself prints a newline

16.2 Input with read

Input: the read Command

- For input, use the built-in shell command **read**

17. Finding examples of shell scripts on your computer

- `read` reads standard input and puts the result into one or more variables
- If use one variable, variable holds the whole line
- Syntax:

```
read <var1>...
```

- Often used with a `while` loop like this:

```
while read var1 var2
do
    # do something with $var1 and $var2
done
```

- Loop terminates when reach end of file

- To prompt and read a value from a user, you could do:

```
while [ -z "$value" ]; do
    echo -n "Enter a value: "
    read value
done
# Now do something with $value
```

17 Finding examples of shell scripts on your computer

Your Linux system has a large number of shell scripts that you can refer to as examples. I counted about 1400. Here is one way of listing their file names:

```
$ file /bin/* /usr/bin/* /usr/sbin/* /sbin/* /etc/rc.d/* /usr/X11R6/bin/* \
| grep -i "shell script" | awk -F: '{print $1}'
```

Let's see how this works. I suggest executing the commands separately to see what they do:

```
$ file /bin/* /usr/bin/*
$ file /bin/* /usr/bin/* | grep -i "shell script"
$ file /bin/* /usr/bin/* | grep -i "shell script" | awk -F: '{print $1}'
```

The `awk` program is actually a complete programming language. It is mainly useful for selecting columns of data from text.

`awk` automatically loops through the input, and divides the input lines into fields. It calls these fields `$1`, `$2`,... `$NF`. `$0` contains the whole line. Here the option `-F`: sets the *field separator* to the colon character. Normally it is any white space. So printing `$1` here prints what comes before the colon, which is the file name.

Suppose you want to look for all shell scripts containing a particular command or statement? Looking for example shell scripts that use the `mktemp` command:

```
$ file /bin/* /usr/bin/* /usr/sbin/* /sbin/* /etc/rc.d/* /usr/X11R6/bin/* \
| grep -i 'shell script' | awk -F: '{print $1}' | xargs grep mktemp
```


18 Alerting about problems by email

Alerting about problems by email

```
#!/bin/sh
# A quick script whipped up by Nick to send mail if
# root file system is more than 90 per cent full.

percentful=$(df / | awk 'NR > 1{sub("%", "", $5);print $5}')
if [ "$percentful" -gt 90 ]
then
    message="root file system is $percentful% full"
    echo "$message" | mail -s $message root
fi
```

How does that work?

- \$ **df /** ↔ prints how full the hard disk is full.
 - The fifth column is the percentage full.
 - The first row is a row of headings:

```
\cmd{df /}
Filesystem          1K-blocks      Used Available Use% Mounted
/dev/md0             28840124  23822440   3552692   88% /
```

- We pipe this through `awk` which
 - chooses lines greater than 1: `NR > 1`
 - substituted “%” with nothing: `sub("%", "", $5)`
 - prints the remaining number.
- The number is assigned to the variable `percentful`
- we use the `test` program in its “[. . .]” guise, as the condition for the `if` statement to check whether this is greater than 90%
- If so, we email the message in the body, and also in the subject, to the `root` mail user, which of course, has been assigned by a mail alias to another user (see Topic 1.114.1 Perform security administration tasks)
- You could run that script from `cron`.

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