Contents

Shell Programming—an Introduction

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Aim

After successfully working through this exercise, You will:

- write simple shell scripts using `for`, `if`, `while`, `case`, `getopts` statements;
- write shell script functions, and be able to handle parameters;
- understand basic regular expressions, and be able to create your own regular expressions;
- understand how to execute and debug these scripts;
- understand some simple shell scripts written by others.

Why Shell Scripting?

- Basic startup, shutdown of Linux, Unix systems uses large number of shell scripts
  - understanding shell scripting important to understand and perhaps modify behaviour of system
- Very high level: powerful script can be very short
- Can build, test script incrementally
- Useful on the command line: “one liners”

Where to get more information

- the Libarary has two copies of the book, *Learning the Bash Shell*, second edition, by Cameron Newham & Bill Rosenblatt, O'Reilly, 1998.
- There is a free on-line book about shell programming at: `http://tldp.org/LDP/abs/html/index.html` and `http://tldp.org/LDP/abs/abs-guide.pdf`. It has hundreds of pages, and is packed with *examples*.
- The handy reference to shell programming is:
  `$` **`pinfo bash`**
  or
  `$` **`man bash`**
- *IMPORTANT*: `bash` provides simple on-line help for all built-in commands, e.g.,
  `$` **`help let`**

The Shell is an Interpreter

- Some languages are compiled: C, C++, Java,. . .
- Some languages are interpreted: Java bytecode, Shell
- Shell is an interpreter: kernel does not run shell program directly:
  - kernel runs the shell program `/bin/sh` with script file name as a parameter
  - the kernel cannot execute the shell script directly, as it can a binary executable file that results from compiling a C program

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`

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`**

Special Characters

- Many characters are *special* to the shell, and have a particular meaning to the shell.

Character	Meaning	See slide
~	Home directory	§ 7
`	Command substitution. Better: `$(...)`	§ 24
#	Comment	
$	Variable expression	§ 15
&	Background Job	2.10 on page 41
*	File name matching wildcard	2.18 on page 49
|	Pipe	2.9 on page 40

Special Characters—continued: 2

Character	Meaning	See slide
(	Start subshell	§ 45, 17, 39
)	End subshell	§ 45, 17, 39
[	Start character set file name matching	2.9 on page 40
]	End character set file name matching	2.9 on page 40
{	Start command block	§ 39
;	Command separator	§ 40
\	Quote next character	§ 23
'	Strong quote	§ 23
"	Weak quote	§ 23

Special Characters—continued: 3

Character	Meaning	See slide
<	Input redirect	2.7 on page 38
>	Output redirect	2.6 on page 37
/	Pathname directory separator	
?	Single-character match in filenames	2.18 on page 49
!	Pipline logical NOT	§ 28
⟨*space or tab*⟩	shell normally splits at white space	§44

- Note that references to pages in the tables above refer to the modules in the workshop notes

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)
```


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

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=
$ set | grep '^VAR'
VAR=
```

- You can make it disappear totally using **unset**:

```
$ unset VAR
$ set | grep '^VAR'
```


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 $$
```


Variables: use Braces `${...}`

- It's good to put braces round a variable name when getting its value
- Then no problem to join its value with other text:

```
$ test=123
$ echo ${test}
123
# No good, variable $test456 is undefined:
$ echo $test456

$ echo ${test}456
123456
```


Braces and Parameters after $9

- Need braces to access parameters after `$9`:

```
$ cat paramten
#! /bin/sh
echo $10
echo ${10}
$ ./paramten a b c d e f g h i j
a0
j
```

- Notice that `$10` is the same as `${1}0`, i.e., the first parameter "`a`" then the literal character zero "`0`"

More about Quoting

- Double quotes: `"..."` stop the special behaviour of all special characters, except for:
  - variable interpretation (`$`)
  - backticks (`` ` ``) — see slide 24
  - the backslash (`\`)
- Single quotes `'...'`:
  - stop the special behaviour of *all* special characters
- Backslash:
  - preserves literal behaviour of character, except for newline; see slides §29, §31, §35
  - 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.

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
nickpc.tyict.vtc.edu.hk
$ 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
nickpc.tyict.vtc.edu.hk
```

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

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.

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.

Arithmetic Expressions with `$((...))`

- The shell interprets anything inside `$((...))` as an arithmetic expression
- You could calculate the number of days left in the year like this:

```
$ echo "There are \
$(( (365-$(date +%j)) / 7 )) weeks \
left till December 31"
```

- No dollar sign in front of variables in these arithmetic expressions.

Arithmetic Conditions with ((...))

- A (less portable) alternative to the arithmetic conditions in slide 27 is putting the expression in `((...))`
- So you can do
  `(( (3>2) && (4<=1) ))`
  instead of
  `[ \( 3 -gt 2 \) -a \( 4 -le 1 \) ]`
- Operators that work with `let`, `$((...))` and `((...))` include:
  ```
  ++ -- **
  + - * / % << >> & | ~ ! ^
  < > <= >= == !=
  ? :
  ```
  which have *exactly* the same effect as in the C programming language
  - except exponentiation operator `**`, i.e., `echo $((2**20))` prints the value of 2^{20}, i.e.,

`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
  ```


`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
  ```


`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
```


for Loops: second, C-like syntax

- There is a second (less frequently used, and less portable) C-like **for** loop syntax:

```
for (( ⟨expr1⟩ ; ⟨expr2⟩ ; ⟨expr3⟩ ))
do
    ⟨loop-body-statements⟩
done
```

- Rules: same as for arithmetic conditions—see slide 32
- Example:

```
for (( i = 0; i < 10; ++i ))
do
    echo $i
done
```


break and continue

- Use inside a loop
- Work like they do in C
- **break** terminates the innermost loop; execution goes on after the loop
- **continue** will skip the rest of the body of the loop, and resume execution on the next itteration of the loop.

Blocks: { . . . }

- A *subshell* is one way of grouping commands together, but it starts a new process, and any variable changes are localised
- An alternative is to group commands into a *block*, enclosing a set of commands in braces: `{ . . . }`
- Useful for grouping commands for *file input* or *output*
  - . . . though variables are not localised
- See next slide for another application.

Error Handling: `||`, `&&` and `exit`

- Suppose we want the user to provide exactly two parameters, and exit otherwise
- A common method of handling this is something like:

```
[ $# -eq 2 ] || { echo "Need two parameters"; exit 1; }
```

- Read this as “the number of parameters is two OR exit”
- Works because this logical OR uses short-circuit Boolean evaluation; the second statement is executed only if the first fails (is false)
- Logical AND “`&&`” can be used in the same way; the second statement will be executed only if the first is successful (true)
- A note about blocks: must have semicolon “`;`” or newline at end of last statement before closing brace

Output: `echo` and `printf`

- 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
- `printf` works the same as in the C programming language, except no parentheses or commas:

```
$ printf "%16s\t%8d\n" $my_string $my_number
```

- Do `man printf` (or look it up in the `bash` manual page) to read all about it.

Input: the `read` Command

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


`set`: Splitting a Multi-Word Variable

- Sometimes may want to split a multi-word variable into single-word variables
- `read` won’t work like this:

```
MY_FILE_INFO=$(ls -lR | grep $file)
# ...
echo $MY_FILE_INFO | read perms links \
user group size month day time filename
```

- Use the builtin command `set` instead:

```
MY_FILE_INFO=$(ls -lR | grep $file)
# ...
set $MY_FILE_INFO
perms=$1 links=$2 user=$3 group=$4 size=$5
month=$6 day=$7 time=$8 filename=$9
```

More about `set`, and `IFS`

- `set` splits its arguments into pieces (usually) at whitespace
- It sets the first value as `$1`, the second as `$2`, and so on.
- Note that you can change how `set` and the shell splits things up by changing the value of a special variable called `IFS`
- `IFS` stands for *Internal Field Separator*
- Normally the value of `IFS` is the string "⟨*space*⟩⟨*tab*⟩⟨*newline*⟩"
- Next slide shows how changing `IFS` to a colon let us easily split the `PATH` into separate directories: ⇝ next slide

Example: Changing `IFS`

- Notice that here, I make the change to `IFS` in a subshell. I have simply typed the loop at the prompt.
- As I said in slide 17, changes in a subshell are local to the subshell:

```
$ echo $PATH
/usr/bin:/bin:/usr/X11R6/bin:/home/nicku/bin
$ (IFS=:
> for dir in $PATH
> do
>     echo $dir
> done
> )
/usr/bin
/bin
/usr/X11R6/bin
/home/nicku/bin
```


`case` Statement

- Similar to the `switch` statement in C, but more useful and more general
- Uses pattern matching against a string to decide on an action to take
- Syntax:

```
case ⟨expression⟩ in
    ⟨pattern1⟩ )
        ⟨statements⟩ ;;
    ⟨pattern2⟩ )
        ⟨statements⟩ ;;
    ...
esac
```


`case` Statement: Example

- This example code runs the appropriate program on a graphics file, depending on the file extension, to convert the file to another format:

```
case $filename in
    *.tif)
        tifftopnm $filename > $ppmfile
        ;;
    *.jpg)
        tjpeg $filename > $ppmfile
        ;;
    *)
        echo -n "Sorry, cannot handle this "
        echo "graphics format"
        ;;
esac
```

`shift`: Move all Parameters Up

- Sometimes we want to process command-line parameters in a loop
- The **`shift`** statement is made for this
- Say that we have four parameters:

parameter	value	parameter	value
`$1`	`one`	`$3`	`three`
`$2`	`two`	`$4`	`four`

- Then after executing the `shift` statement, the values are now:

parameter	value	parameter	value
`$1`	`two`	`$3`	`four`

`shift`: Many Places

- You can give a number argument to `shift`:
  - If before, we have four parameters:

parameter	value	parameter	value
`$1`	`one`	`$3`	`three`
`$2`	`two`	`$4`	`four`

  - After executing the statement:
    `$` **`shift 2`**
    we have two parameters left:

parameter	value	parameter	value
`$1`	`three`	`$3`	*no longer exists*
`$2`	`four`	`$4`	*no longer exists*

Command-Line Options—1

- Sometimes we want to modify the behaviour of a shell script
  - For example, want an *option* to show more information on request
  - could use an option "`-v`" (for "verbose") to tell the shell script that we want it to tell us more information about what it is doing
  - If script is called `showme`, then we could use our `-v` option like this:
    `$` **`showme -v`**
  - the script then shows more information.

Command-Line Options—2

- For example, We might provide an option to give a starting point for a script to search for SUID programs
- Could make the option `-d` ⟨*directory*⟩
- If script is called `findsuid`, could call it like this:
  `$` **`findsuid -d /usr`**
  to tell the script to start searching in the directory `/usr` instead of the current directory

Command-Line Options—3

- We could do this using `shift`, a `while` loop, and a `case` statement, like this:

```
while [ -n "$(echo $1 | grep '-')" ]
do
     case $1 in
          -v) VERBOSE=1 ;;
          -d)
               shift
               DIRECTORY=$1
               ;;
          *)   echo "usage: $0 [-v] [-d dir]"
               exit 1 ;;
     esac
     shift
done
```


getopts: Command-Line Options—4

- Problems with above solution: inflexibility:
  - Does not allow options to be "bundled" together like `-abc` instead of `-a -b -c`
  - Requires a space between option and its argument, i.e., doesn't let you do `-d/etc` as well as `-d /etc`
  - Better method: use the built-in command **getopts**:

```
while getopts ":vd:" opt
do
    case opt in
        v) VERBOSE=1 ;;
        d) DIRECTORY=$OPTARG ;;
        *)  echo "usage: $0 [-v] [-d dir]"
            exit 1 ;;
    esac
done
shift $((OPTIND - 1))
```


getopts: Command-Line Options—5

- `getopts` takes two arguments:
  - first comes the string that can contain letters and colons.
    - Each letter represents one option
    - A colon comes after a letter to indicate that option takes an arguement, like `-d directory`
    - A colon at the beginning makes `getopts` less noisy, so you can provide your own error message, as shown in the example.
  - The second is a variable that will hold the option (without the hyphen "-")
- Shift out all processed options using the variable `OPTIND`, leaving any other arguments accessible
- Search for `getopts` in the `bash` man page

Temporary Files: mktemp

- Sometimes it is convenient to store temporary data in a temporary file
- The **mktemp** program is designed for this
- We use it something like this:

```
TMPFILE=$(mktemp /tmp/temp.XXXXXX) || exit 1
```

- `mktemp` will create a new file, replacing the "`XXXXXX`" with a random string
- Do `man mktemp` for the complete manual.

Signals that may Terminate your Script

- Many key strokes will send a *signal* to a process
- Examples:
  - Control-C sends a `SIGINT` signal to the current process running in the foreground
  - Control-\ sends a `SIGQUIT` signal
- When you log out, all your processes are sent a `SIGHUP` (hangup) signal
- If your script is connected to another process that terminates unexpectedly, it will receive a `SIGPIPE` signal
- If anyone terminates the program with the `kill` program, the default signal is `SIGTERM`

Signals: `trap`

- Sometimes you want your script to clean up after itself nicely, and remove temporary files
- Do this using **`trap`**

Signals: `trap` Example

- Supose your script creates some temporary files, and you want to remove them if your script recieves any of these signals
- You can "catch" the signal, and remove the files when the signals are received before the program terminates
- Suppose the temporary files have names stored in the variables `TEMP1` and `TEMP2`
- Then you would trap these signals like this:

```
trap "rm $TEMP1 $TEMP2" HUP INT QUIT PIPE TERM
```

- Conveniently, (but not very portably), `bash` provides a "pretend" signal called `EXIT`; can add this to the list of signals you trap, so that the temporary files will be removed when the program exits normally.

Functions

- The shell supports functions and function calls
- A function works like an external command, except that it does not start another process
- Syntax:

```
function ⟨functname⟩
{
        ⟨shell commands⟩
}
```

Or:

```
⟨functname⟩ ()
{
        ⟨shell commands⟩
}
```

Parameters in Functions

- Work the same as parameters to entire shell script
- First parameter is `$1`, second is `$2`,. . . , the tenth parameter is `${10}`, and so on.
- `$#` is the number of parameters passed to the function
- As with command line parameters, they are read-only
- Assign to meaningful names to make your program more understandable

Example, Calling a Function

- This is a simple example program:

```
#! /bin/sh

function cube {
    echo $(($1 * $1 * $1))
}

j=$(cube 5)
echo $j      # Output is 125
```

- Note the use of *command substitution to get a return value*
- The *function prints result to standard output*.

Debugging Shell Scripts—1

- If you run the script with:
  `$ sh -v` ⟨*script*⟩
  then each statement will be printed as it is executed
- If you run the script with:
  `$ sh -x` ⟨*script*⟩
  then an execution trace will show the value of all variables as the script executes.

Debugging Shell Scripts—2

- Use `echo` to display the value of variables as the program executes
- You can turn the `-x` shell option on in any part of your script with the line:
  `set -x`
  and turn it *off* with:
  `set +x`
  - No, that's not a typo: `+x` turns it *off*, `-x` turns it *on*.
- The book *Learning the bash Shell* includes a `bash` shell debugger if you get desperate

Writing Shell Scripts

- Build your shell script *incrementally*:
  - Open the editor in one window (*and leave it open*), have a terminal window open in which to run your program as you write it
  - *Test as you implement*: this makes shell script development *easy*
  - Do *not* write a very complex script, and *then* begin testing it!
- Use the standard software engineering practice you know:
  - Use *meaningful* variable names, function names
  - Make your program *self-documenting*
  - Add *comment blocks* to explain obscure or difficult parts of your program

Useful External Programs—1

Each of these has a manual page, and many have info manuals. Read their online documentation for more information.

- `awk` — powerful tool for processing columns of data
- `basename` — remove directory and (optionally) extension from file name
- `cat` — copy to standard output
- `cut` — process columns of data
- `du` — show disk space used by directories and files
- `egrep`, `grep` — find lines containing patterns in files
- `find` — find files using many criteria

Useful External Programs—2

- `last` — show the last time a user was logged in
- `lastb` — show last bad log in attempt by a user
- `rpm` — RPM package manager: manage software package database
- `sed` — stream editor: edit files automatically
- `sort` — sort lines of files by many different criteria
- `tr` — translate one set of characters to another set
- `uniq` — replace repeated lines with just one line, optionally with a count of the number of repeated lines

Regular Expressions

- Many programs and programming languages use *regular expressions*, including Java 1.4 and later, Perl, VB.NET, C# (and any language using the .NET Framework), PHP, Python, Ruby, Tcl and MySQL (plus many others; even MS Word uses regular expressions under Edit → Find → More → Use wildcards)
- These programs use regular expressions:
  - **`grep`**, **`egrep`**, **`sed`**, **`awk`**
- All programmer's editors support regular expressions (Emacs, vi, . . .)
- *Regular expressions* provide a *powerful language* for *manipulating data* and *extracting important information* from masses of data

What is In a Regular Expression?

- There are two types of character in a regular expression:
  - *Metacharacters*
    - These include:
    - `* \ . + ? ^ ( ) [ { |`
  - Ordinary, *literal* characters:
    - i.e., all the other characters that are not metacharacters

Literal characters

- Find all lines containing "`chan`" in the password file:
  `$ grep chan /etc/passwd`
- The *regular expression* is "`chan`"
- It is made entirely of literal characters
- It matches only lines that contain the *exact* string
- It will match lines containing the words `chan`, `changed`, `merchant`, `mechanism`,...

Character Classes: [...]

- A character class represents *one* character
- Examples:

```
# Find all words in the dictionary that contain a vowel:
$ grep "[aeiou]" /usr/share/dict/words
# Find all lines that contain a digit:
$ grep "[0123456789]" /usr/share/dict/words
# Find all lines that contain a digit:
$ grep "[0-9]" /usr/share/dict/words
# Find all lines that contain a capital letter:
$ grep "[A-Z]" /usr/share/dict/words
```


Negated Character Classes: [^...]

- Examples of negated character classes:

```
# Find all words in the dictionary
# that contain a character that is not a vowel:
$ grep "[^aeiou]" /usr/share/dict/words
# Two ways of finding all lines that contain
# a character that is not a digit:
$ grep "[^0123456789]" /usr/share/dict/words
$ grep "[^0-9]" /usr/share/dict/words
# Find all lines that contain a character
# that is not a digit, or a letter
$ grep "[^0-9a-zA-Z]" /usr/share/dict/words
```

- Remember: each set of square brackets represents exactly *one* character.

Match Any Character

- The dot "`.`" matches *any single character*, except a newline.
- The pattern '`.....`' matches all lines that contain at least five characters

Matching the Beginning or End of Line

- To match a line that contains exactly five characters:
  `$ grep '^.....$' /usr/share/dict/words`
- The hat, `^` represents the *position* right at the *start* of the line
- The dollar `$` represents the *position* right at the *end* of the line.
- Neither `^` nor `$` represents a character
- They represent a position
- Sometimes called *anchors*, since they anchor the other characters to a specific part of the string

Match Repetitions: `*`, `?`, `+`, `{n}`, `{n,m}`

- To match *zero* or more:
- `a*` represents zero or more of the lower case letter `a`, so the pattern will match `""` (the empty string), "`a`", "`aa`", "`aaaaaaaaaaaaaaa`", "`qwewtrryu`" or the "nothing" in front of any string!
- To match *one* or more:
- '`a+`' matches one or more "`a`"s
- '`a?`' matches zero or one "`a`"
- '`a{10}`' matches exactly 10 "`a`"s
- '`a{5,10}`' matches between 5 and 10 (inclusive) "`a`"s

Matching Alternatives: "`|`"

- the vertical bar represents alternatives:
- The regular expresssion '`nick|albert|alex`' will match either the string "`nick`" or the string "`albert`" or the string "`alex`"
- Note that the vertical bar has very low precedence:
- the pattern '`^fred|nurk`' matches "`fred`" only if it occurs at the start of the line, while it will match "`nurk`" at any position in the line

Putting it All Together: Examples

- Find all words that contain at least three 'a's:
  `$ egrep 'a.*a.*a' /usr/share/dict/words`
  - Why is this different from
    `$ egrep 'aaa' /usr/share/dict/words`
- Find all words that begin in 'a' and finish in 'z', ignoring case:
  `$ egrep -i '^a.*z$' /usr/share/dict/words`
  - How is this different from:
    `$ egrep -i '^a.*z' /usr/share/dict/words`
- Find all words that contain at least two vowels:
  `$ grep '[aeiou].*[aeiou]' /usr/share/dict/words`
- Find all words that contain *exactly* two vowels:

```
$ egrep \
'^[^aeiou]*[aeiou][^aeiou]*[aeiou][^aeiou]*$' \
/usr/share/dict/words
```

- Find all lines that are empty, or contain only spaces:

Basic awk

- **awk** is a complete programming language
- Mostly used for one-line solutions to problems of *extracting columns of data* from text, and processing it
- A complete book is available on `awk`; you can buy it here: `http://www.oreilly.com/catalog/awkprog3/` or
- read it on your computer, as it is the official manual for `gawk` (GNU awk); do
  `$ info gawk`
  or read it in Emacs.
  - A printable postscript file of the book (353 pages) is on my computer at
    `/usr/share/doc/gawk-3.1.3/gawk.ps`

What Does awk Do?

- `awk` reads file(s) or standard input *one line at a time*, and
- automatically *splits the line into fields*, and calls them `$1`, `$2`,..., `$NF`
- `NF` is equal to the *number of fields* the line was split into
- `$0` contains the *whole line*
- `awk` has an option `-F` that allows you to select another pattern as the *field separator*
  - Normally `awk` splits *columns* by *white space*
- To execute code after all lines are processed, create an *`END` block*.

awk Examples

- Print the sizes of all files in current directory:
  `ls -l | awk '{print $5}'`
- Add the sizes of all files in current directory:
  `ls -l | awk '{sum += $5} END{print sum}'`
- Print only the permissions, user, group and file names of files in current directory:
  `ls -l | awk '{print $1, $3, $4, $NF}'`

sed—the Stream Editor

- sed provides many facilities for editing files
- The *substitute* command, s///, is the most important
- The syntax (using sed as an editor of standard input), is:
  $ **sed 's/**⟨*original*⟩**/**⟨*replacement*⟩**/'**
- Example: replace the first instance of Windows with Linux on each line of the input:
  sed 's/Windows/Linux/'
- Example: replace *all* instances of Windows with Linux on each line of the input:
  sed 's/Windows/Linux/g'
  - Note: by default, sed uses "basic regular expressions", which require a backslash '\' in front of the metacharacters '{', '(', ')', '|', '+' and '?'.
  - To use "extended regular expressions" (which we covered here), call sed with the option -r, as in this example:

sed—Backreferencees

- You can match part of the ⟨*original*⟩ in a sed -r substitute command, and put that part back into the replacement part.
- You enclose the part you want to refer to later in (...)
- You can get the first value in the replacement part by \1, the second opening parenthesis of (...) by \2, and so on.

sed—Backreferencees: Example

- If you do
  $ **find /etc | xargs file -b**
  you will get a lot of output like this:
```
symbolic link to bg5ps.conf.zh_TW.Big5
symbolic link to rc.d/rc.local
symbolic link to rc.d/rc
symbolic link to rc.d/rc.sysinit
symbolic link to ../../X11/xdm/Xservers
```
- If you want to edit each line to remove everything after "symbolic link", then you could pipe the data through sed like this:
  $ **find /etc | xargs file -b **
  | sed -r 's/(symbolic link).*/\1/'
- See slide 83 for an application

find Examples

- Count the number of unique manual pages on the computer:
  $ **find /usr/share/man -type f | wc -l**
- Print a table of types of file under the /etc directory, with the most common file type down at the bottom:
```
$ find /etc | xargs file -b \
  | sed -r 's/(symbolic link).*/\1/' \
  | sort \
  | uniq -c \
  | sort -n
```

Finding SUID Programs

- Finding SUID or SGID files:
  ```
  $ sudo find / -type f \
  \( perm -2000 -o -perm -4000 \) \
  > files.secure
  ```
- Let's compare with a list of SUID and SGID files to see if there are any changes, since SUID and SGID programs can be a *security risk*:
  ```
  $ sudo find / -type f \
  \( perm -2000 -o -perm -4000 \) \
  | diff - files.secure
  ```


A `find` Example with Many Options

- Set all directories to have the access mode 771, set all backup files (*.BAK) to mode 600, all shell scripts (*.sh) to mode 755, and all text files (*.txt) to mode 644:

```
$ find . \( -type d       -a exec chmod 771 {} \; \) -o \
         \( -name "*.BAK" -a exec chmod 600 {} \; \) -o \
         \( -name "*.sh"  -a exec chmod 755 {} \; \) -o \
         \( -name "*.txt" -a exec chmod 644 {} \; \)
```


`rpm` Database Query Commands

- The `rpm` software package management system includes a database with very detailed information about every file of every software package that is installed on the computer.
- You can query this database using the `rpm` command.
- The manual page does not give the complete picture, but there is a book called *Maximum RPM* that comes on the Red Hat documentation CD
- This package is installed on `ictlab`
- You can see the appropriate section at this URL:

`http://nicku.org/doc/maximum-rpm-1.0/html/s1-rpm-query-parts.html`