

Shell Scripting

Xiaoxu Guan High Performance Computing, LSU February 15, 2017









• What is a shell?







- What is a shell?
- What is **bash** and why do we need **bash**?







- What is a shell?
- What is **bash** and why do we need **bash**?
- Bash Shell Scripting
 - Linux Internal and External Commands;
 - Shell Parameters;
 - Standard Input/Output, and Exit Status;
 - Meta Characters; Control, and Logical Operations;
 - Quotes; Group Commands;
 - Special Parameters; Shell Arrays;
 - Pattern Matching; Arithmetic Operations;
 - Control Flow: Testing and Looping;
 - Aliases and Functions;
 - Regular Expressions;







- What is a shell?
- What is **bash** and why do we need **bash**?
- Bash Shell Scripting
 - Linux Internal and External Commands;
 - Shell Parameters;
 - Standard Input/Output, and Exit Status;
 - Meta Characters; Control, and Logical Operations;
 - Quotes; Group Commands;
 - Special Parameters; Shell Arrays;
 - Pattern Matching; Arithmetic Operations;
 - Control Flow: Testing and Looping;
 - Aliases and Functions;
 - Regular Expressions;

Summary and Further Reading





What is a shell?



- We are using shell almost every day!
- Shell is a fundamental interface for users or applications to interact with the Linux OS and kernels;
- Shell is a special program that accepts commands from users' keyboard and executes it to get the tasks done;
- Shell is an interpreter for command languages that reads instructions and commands;
- Shell is a high-level programming language (compared to C/C++, Fortran, ...);
- It serves as a bridge between the Linux kernels and users/applications;
- Don't be confused with the Linux commands that need to be ran in a shell;





What is a shell?



- Shell has many different flavors from a number of aspects;
- At the system level: (non-)login shells,

(non-)interactive shells;

- At the implementation level: sh, bash, csh, tcsh, zsh, ...
- Login shell is the shell where you land once you login into a Linux machine. Non-login shell might build on the top of login shell (executing by the shell name).
- It sets up system-wide variables (/etc/bashrc and /etc/profile) and user-specified variables (~/.bashrc and ~/.bash_profile, if available).
- \$ echo \$0 (or ps -p \$\$)
- -bash (login shell) or bash (non-login shell);
- The default shell is bash (Bourne-Again Shell) on most Linux/Unix/MaC OSs;





What is bash and why do we need bash?



- Modern shells are very sophisticated today. You can reuse or modify the commands you ran before; define our own shortcuts for the commands; programmable ...;
- GNU Bash is one of the GNU open source projects;
- Bash is the effectively "standard", and probably the most popular shell;
- It's very useful for Linux/Unix system administration;
- Bash, Python, Perl, and Ruby;
- Many startup scripts were written in Bash. Bash works better as it's closer to OS;
- Learning Bash helps us better understand how Linux/Unix works;
- It's not hard to master, but it might not be simple either (a lot of pitfalls): a quick-and-dirty way;





What is bash and why do we need bash?



- Bash shell scripting is not for everything:
 - Lack of rich data structures;
 - Heavy-duty floating point operations;
 - Extensive file operations (line-by-line operations);
 - Potential incompatibilities with other shells, if portability is critical;
 - \circ Plotting, ...;
- Bash incorporates many features from other shells (ksh and csh); Significant improvements over sh;
- Enhance your productivity and efficiency;
- Bash supports filename globbing, redirections, piping, command history, substitution, variable, etc;
- Good for the tasks that repeat many times with minor or no changes in input parameters;





Example Scripts



• This's the list for the example scripts in the tarball: 01-hello-world.bash 02-quotes.bash 03-case-v0.bash 04-case-v1.bash 05-for-loop-all-headers.bash 06-for-loop-primes.bash 07-while-loop-sleep.bash 08-addition-v0.bash 09-addition-v1.bash 10-quadratic-function.bash 11-arrays.bash 12-alias-for-loop.bash





Bash Shell Commands



- Linux internal and external commands;
- Internal commands: builtin in the shell and no external executables needed (cd, pwd, echo, type, source, bg, ...);
- External commands: they are executable, separate files in your \$PATH (ls, mv, cp, rm, ...);
- \$ compgen -b (Or -a, -k, -e) # list builtins (-b), aliases (-a), keywords (-k), # exported variables (-e), etc.
- \$ type command_name [which command_name]
- The internal commands run faster than external ones;
- Commands include aliases, bash scripts (functions), builtins, keywords, external commands;
- All these can be called in a bash script (but pay attention to aliases);





Shell Parameters



- Shell parameter is a placeholder to store a value: variables and special parameters; all parameters can be assigned with values and can also be referenced;
- Substitution (parameter expansion) means referencing its value stored in that parameter;
- Builtin variables: \$BASH, \$BASH_VERSION, \$HOME, \$PATH, \$MACHTYPE, \$SHLVL, ..., \$0, \$1, etc; \$my_variable or \${my_variable} [Don't use \$()]
- Variable assignment (avoid using \$, @, #, %) and substitution \$:
- Be careful with whitespaces (but why?);
- Shell variables are case sensitive;
- Bash variables are untyped (typeless)! It depends on whether a variable contains only digits or not;
- Define a constant: \$ readonly abc=456 ; abc=123





Standard Input and Output



- Redirection facilities (< and >);
- \$ my_script < file.inp > results.out
 # Input (<) from file.inp and
 # Output (>) to results.out;
- File descriptor 0 is for the standard input (STDIN), 1 for the standard output (STDOUT), and 2 for the standard error (STDERR);
- \$ my_script 1> script.out 2> script.err
- A single file holding all error and output messages (two non-standard options: >& or &>)
- Remember that the default value for > is the 1, and 0 for <;
- Compare 1>&2 and 2>&1 (note the spaces);
- The double greater-than sign >> means to append the output;





10/46

Exit Status



- The builtin exit command can be used to (1) terminate a script, and (2) return a value for the last executed command;
- The return value is called the exit status (or exit code). Here zero stands for a successful return (true), while non-zero value means errors (false or error code);
- It can be used to debug your scripts (\$?); All functions, aliases, commands, bash scripts, ..., return an exit code;
- Don't be confused with return, though both are the shell builtins;
 - (1) return is used in a function to optionally assign the function to a particular integer value;
 - (2) Function calls also return the information on whether it was successful or not. This is the exit status;





Bash Meta Characters



Meta Char.	Explanation
#	Are comments that will not be executed
&	Puts the command in the background
\$	Expansion; (1) referencing the content of variable,
	(2) command substitution \$(),
	(3) arithmetic computation \$(())
\mathbf{h}	Escape meta characters; Protect the next
	character from being interpreted
	as a meta character
;	Connects two or more commands in a single line
;;	To mark the end of case statement
\sim	Means home directory





Bash Meta Characters



Meta Char.	Explanation
H H	(Double quote) protects the text from being split
	allows substitution
> >	(Single quote) protects the text from being split
	doesn't allow the substitution (literal meaning)
:	A null command (do-nothing operation, true)
	The pipe operator
()	The group command starting a sub-shell;
{ }	The group command not starting a sub-shell
[Test (builtin, what about]?)
[[]]]	Test (keyword)





Bash Meta Characters



Meta Char.	Explanation
	Separates the command/arguments
	and argument/argument
~ ~	Enclosed text treated as a command (output)
(())	Means arithmetic expression
\$(())	Means arithmetic computation
< >	Redirections
<u>!</u>	Reverses an exit status or test (negate)
•	(1) Source command and (2) hidden filenames
/	Forward slash to separate directories



Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017



p. 14/46

Control and Logical Operators



Operatio	n Explanation
\$\$	The logical AND
	The logical OR
!	The logical NOT (depending on the exit status)
Ctrl-A	Moves cursor to the beginning of the command line
Ctrl-E	Moves cursor to the end of the command line
Ctrl-D	Log out of a shell
Ctrl-Z	Suspends a foreground job
Ctrl-P	Repeats the last executed command
Ctrl-L	Clears up the screen (clear)
Ctrl-K	Clears up the text from the cursor to the end of line
Ctrl-R	Searches through history command





Quotes



- That's where the confusion arose;
- Three types of quotes in Bash: double quotes " ", single quotes ' ', and backticks ` `;
- Double quotes (" "): Allow substitution to occur, and protect the text from being split; Weak form quoting in the sense of the bash interpretation for characters in pattern matching;
- Single quotes (', '): Protect the text in its literal meaning, any interpretation by Bash is ignored, and protect the text from being split; Strong form quoting; A single quote may not appear between other single quotes; No escaping happens in single quotes;
- Backticks (` `): Enclosed text runs as a command (output);





Examples on Control and Logical Operators

- \$ ls -ltr ; echo `pwd`
- \$ my_script && echo `pwd`
- \$ echo `pwd` || echo "\$USER"
- \$ ps aux | grep "\$USER"
- \$: > my_script.log
- \$ cat {file.1,file.2,file.3} > allfiles.123
- \$ a=456 ; { a=123; }; echo \$a # not a sub-shell
- \$ a=456 ; (a=123;); echo \$a # starts a sub-shell
- \$ echo \$?
- \$ a=456 ; b=123 ; [\$a -eq \$b] ; echo \$?
- \$ a=456 ; b=123 ; ! [\$a -eq \$b] ; echo \$?
- \$ a=456 ; b=123 ; [[\$a -eq \$b]] ; echo \$?
- \$ test \$a -eq \$b ; echo \$? # the same as [[]]





Group Commands



- Group commands { } and ():
- Remember { and } are the keywords, but (and) are not;
- Two options for **{ }**:
 - (1) Multiple-line version (separated by a newline) is
 {
 <command_1>
 <command_2>
 <command_3>
 }
- Don't forget that { } doesn't invoke a sub-shell (i.e., in the same shell);





Group Commands



- Group commands { } and ():
- Remember { and } are the keywords, but (and) are not;
- Two options as well for ():
 - (1) Multiple-line version (separated by a newline) is
 (
 <command_1>
 <command_2>
 <command_3>
)
 - (2) Single-line version (separated by ; and whitespace) is
 (<command_1> ; <command_2> ; <command_3>)
- Don't forget that () does invoke a sub-shell (i.e., like a child process); At the end, the semicolon is an optional to ();



Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017



p. 19/46

Group Commands



- Differences between { } and ()
- (1) Starts a **sub-shell** or not;

(2) Variable **scope** (visibility): variables in a sub-shell are not visible to its parent shell (parent process). They are local to the child process. However, we can use export to transfer the values of variables from the parent shell to a child shell. But a child process cannot export variables back to its parent shell. This is also true for changing directories.

(3) Semicolon (;) at the **end** of command: in fact semicolon is a **statement terminator** that tells shell this is the end of the statement. If a command terminates properly by itself, there are no needs to add ; at the end;

Advantages of launching multiple sub-shells;





Questions on Sub-shell?



- Sub-shell is like a child process spawned by the parent process (shell); Multiple and concurrent sub-shells are supported;
- Q1: Can we safely quit a sub-shell and get back to the parent shell?
- Q2: How can I bring the values of variables from a sub-shell back to its parent shell?
- Q3: In what cases would be it useful to spawn sub-shells?
- Q4: Is there any other benefit to spawn a sub-shell?
- The short answers to Q2 and Q3 are to get files involved!
- Remember all STDIN, STDOUT, or STDERR, and external files on disks are called **files**;





Special Parameters



Operation	Explanation
\$?	Exit status of the last command
\$\$	Process ID (keyword)
\$ 0	Command name; \$1 is the first argument, etc
\$#	Number of the positional arguments
\$ @	Expansion of all the positional arguments,
	a list of every words (" ")
\$*	Expansion of all the positional arguments
	a single string containing all of them ("")

• These are very useful, particularly, in functions, when arguments need to be parsed;





Examples on Control and Logical Operators • Let's consider a real bash script using if/fi, [[]], and case **#!**/bin/bash 2 # how to use case in bash script. # Jan 30, 2016 **#!** is called shebang (shabang or hashbang) 3 echo 4 # check \$1 for year. 5 if [[(\$1 -ne "2015") && (\$1 -ne "2016")]]; then 6 echo "Year must be 2015 or 2016!" 7 echo "Quit!" 8 echo 9 exit 1 10 fi 11 # select year. 12 case "\$1" in 13 2015) echo "==== \$1 Calendar ===="; cal \$1 ;; 14 2016) echo "==== \$1 Calendar ===="; cal \$1 ;; 15 esac exit 0 16





Shell Arrays



- Array variable contains multiple variables, and array index starts from zero;
- Bash supports one-dimensional arrays, and sparse array;
- \$ my_array=("Alice" "Bill" "Cox" "David")
- \$ my_array[0]="Alice" ; my_array[1]="Bill" ;
 my_array[5]="John" ; my_array[10]="Collin"
- Explicit declaration of array: \$ declare -a my_array
- Referencing an array element \${my_array[1]}, etc;
- Get the number of arrays elements: \${#my_array[@]}
- List all arrays elements: \${my_array[*]} or \${my_array[@]} (" " might be needed);
- Destroy array variables:
 - \$ unset my_array Or \$ unset my_array[2]





Pattern Matching in Shell



- Pattern matching was designed for
 (1) selecting filenames;
 (2) certain strings satisfying a desired for
 - (2) certain strings satisfying a desired format;

Pattern matching includes { Extended Globs,

Regular Expressions (ver. \geq 3.0).

- Globs:
 - (1) * : matches any strings including the null string;

Globs,

echo * Or \$ls *

- (2) ? : matches any single character;
 - \$ echo a? Or \$ rm ??
- (3) [...] : matches any one of enclosed characters;
 - \$ls a[123]*.dat Or \$rm [!a-z]*.dat
- Bash also provides extra features through Extended Globs;
- By default, these features (extended globs) were turned off;





Arithmetic Operations (let and bc)



- Arithmetic expansion with (()) [works only for integer operations]: \$ echo \$((3-5)) or \$ ((n -= 2))
- Arithmetic evaluation: let (builtin for integers only) or
 bc (external for high-precision floating-point operations);
- Be careful with whitespaces in let;
 \$ let t=1 + 4; echo \$t Or \$ let t="1 + 4"; echo \$t
- \$ t=3.4 ; t=`echo "\$t + 1.2" | bc`; echo \$t
- \$ t=3.434059; t=`echo "scale=5;\$t^4" | bc`; echo \$t
- \$ echo "ibase=10;obase=2;256" | bc
 # convert between decimal and binary numbers
 # (ibase = input base, obase = output base);
- \$ echo "c(4)" | bc -1 # compute cos(4) in radians;
 # "-1" loads predefined math libs; the default scale is 20;





Test Constructs



- Every programming language needs to have good test constructs;
- Bash supports three types of test constructs: test, [, and [[]] ;
- Builtin commands test and [, while [[]] are keywords;
- All test constructs return an exit status: success (0) or false (non-zero value);
- Bash provides if/then/fi construct to support conditional branching;
- However, note Bash if/then/fi can be used alone without involving test constructs;

```
if grep -q "toys" my_file.dat
   then echo "Mom, I found it."
```



fi

Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017



o. 27/46

General Form of if/then/fi construct

- Note elif is identical to else if;
- Multi-line version using [:

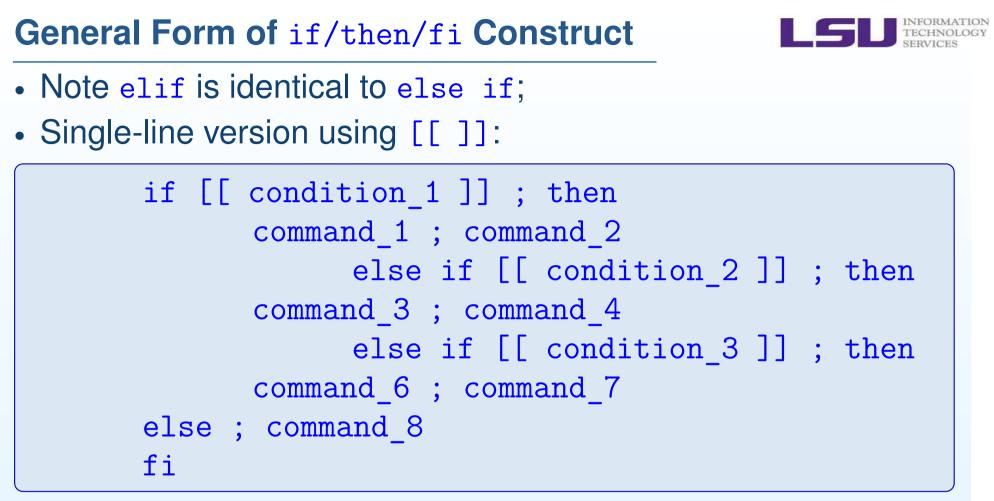
```
if [ condition 1 ]
then
  command 1
  command 2
elif [ condition 2 ]
then
  command 3
  command 4
else
  command 5
fi
```

- Or using test with relevant options:
 - if test condition_1









- Bash shell offers comparison operators for both integers and strings; however, note the differences!
- For integer comparison: -eq (is equal to); -ne (not equal to);
 -ge (means ≥); -lt (less than), etc;



Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017



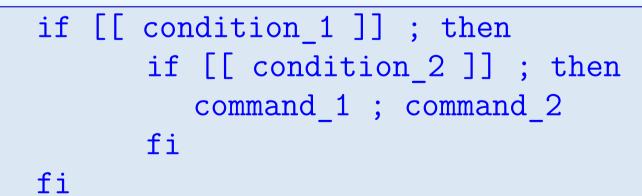
o. 29/46

General Form of if/then/fi Construct



Operation	Explanation
-z	zero-length string (null string)
-n	string is not null
!n	is not equal to
<	is less than
>	is greater than

- Similarly to C, Bash uses the ASCII code for string comp.;
- Bash also supports nested if/then/if constructs:







General Form of if/then/fi Construct



File Operation	Explanation
-е	existence or not
-d	directory or not
-f	regular file
-s	zero-size file
-nt	f1 -nt f2 (if file f1 is newer than f2)
-0	you're the file owner

my_file=\$1 # \$1 is the 1st arg. of the script. if [[-f my_file]] ; then do something here else do something else here fi





Loop Constructs



- Bash also supports rich loop constructs so they become more powerful;
- Loop blocks are the repeatable code blocks that having same structures (for-in-do-done);
- Bash provides three types of loop constructs: for, while, and until loops; Again for, in, while, until, do, and done are all the bash builtin keywords;

• [list] can be any valid multiple variables including wild cards (* and ?), or even a valid output from a command;



Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017

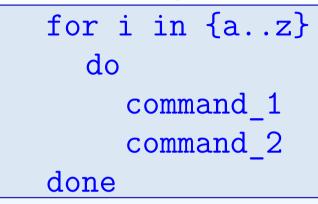


32/46

Loop Constructs



• The other example:



- Bash also supports C-style three-expression loops;
- Using double parentheses (());

• The for-loop rules are the same as those of C;





Loop Constructs



- while loop:
- This needs to be combined with a test (true or false);
- while-[[]]-do-done

```
a=200 ; b=100
while [[ "$a" -gt "$b" ]]
do
    echo "a = $a"; a=`expr $a - 1`
done
```

- The while-loop is similar to those of C: test at the loop top;
- This complements the functionality provided by for loop, for instance, in the cases of unknown iterations before entering a loop;





Loop Controls



- Similarly to C, we can use the builtin commands break and continue to control loop behaviors;
- break jumps out of loops (break the loop), while continue jumps to the next loop iteration within the loop. In both cases, some commands are skipped in the loop;

```
a=1 ; counter=0 ; amax=1000;
while [[ "$a" -lt "$amax" ]]
do
  a=$(($a+2))
  let counter=couter+1
  if [[ "$a" -ge 100 ]] ; then
      break
  fi
done
echo "counter = $counter"
```





Aliases



- Alias is a lightweight shortcut for a long or complicated command (substitution/expansion);
- Bash provides limited support for aliases;
- That doesn't mean we cannot use aliases in bash scripts; we can use them in some simple cases;
- All aliases can be replaced by functions;
- Using both double quotes (" ") and single quotes (' ') should be fine;
 - \$ alias rm='rm -i'
 - \$ alias smic="ssh -XY xiaoxu@smic.hpc.lsu.edu"
- Restrictions on aliases:
 - (1) Aliases cannot be expanded recursively;
 - (2) Aliases would not work in the constructs of if/then, loops, and functions;





Bash Functions



- Bash functions are similar to other languages like functions in C and functions/subroutines in Fortran;
- C-style definition:

```
name_function ()
    {
        command_1
        command_2
        command_3
    }
```

• Single-line version:

```
funct () { command_1 ; command_2 ; command_3 [;] }
```

• The difference from C: in Bash scripts the function definition must appear earlier than where the function call happens;



Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017



p. 37/46

Bash Functions



• Local and global variables in bash functions;

```
#!/bin/bash
name_function ()
# this's a local variable.
  local loc1 var=123
# this's a global variable.
        glob var=456
name function
echo "locl var = $locl var"
echo "glob var = $glob var"
```

- Declare local variables through local;
- A local variable is invisible outside of function;





Passing Arguments to Bash Scripts



- Bash scripts accept arguments at run-time;
- \$0 stands for the command (including script, function, etc);
- \$1 stands for the first argument passed to the \$0;
- \$2 stands for the second argument passed to the \$0;
- . . . ;
- \${10} stands for the 10th argument passed to the \$0;

Operation	Explanation
\$\$	the PID of the current process
\$?	the exit code of the last executed command
\$*	the list of arguments fed the current process
\$#	how many arguments in \$*





Function Example: Addition



Below is an example for the function to add two integers:

1	#!/bin/bash	addition-v0.bash
2		
3	echo \$1 \$2	
4	a=\$1	
5	b=\$2	
6	echo \$#	
7	<pre>function_add() {</pre>	
8	<pre>function_add=\$((\$a+\$b))</pre>	
9	}	
10	function_add	
11	<pre>echo "sum =" \$function_a</pre>	dd

- \$./addition-v0.bash 12 34
- Can we make it work better (say, for addition of any numbers, and defensive programming)?





Regular Expressions (REs or Regexs)



- **RE** is a group of characters (including meta characters) that match specified textual patterns in files;
- Why do we need REs? They are needed by the Linux commands/utilities grep, sed, awk, vi, emacs, etc;
- Don't be confused with Bash Globs;
- Character set (no metas), anchor set (specifying the positions), and modifiers (range of characters);

+	The preceding item will be matched ≥ 1 times
*	The preceding item will be matched ≥ 0 times
	will be matched ≤ 1 times
?	The preceding item is optional and
	Matches any single character
Operator	Explanation





Regular Expressions (REs or Regexs)



Operator	Explanation
{N}	The preceding item matched N times
{N,}	The preceding item matched $\ge N$ times
{N,M}	The preceding item matched $\ge N$, but $\le M$ times
-	represents the range if it's not first or last
	in a list or the ending point of a range in a list
^	Matches the beginning of a line; also represents
	the characters not in the range of a list
\$	Matches the empty string at the end of a line
\b	Matches the empty string at the edge of a word
\<	Match the empty string at the beginning of word
\>	Match the empty string at the end of word





Regular Expressions (REs or Regexs)



- Matching strings form subsets of the specified pattern;
- (1). matches any one character, except a newline (line break); The pattern ad.pt ← adapted, iadopt, ad_pt;
- (2) * matches any number of repeats of the preceding character (including zero occurrence);
 The pattern 10na* ← 10n, 210nab, 10naaa;
- (3) ^ matches the beginning of the line. The pattern ^ed ← I finished the editing of files.
- (4) \$ matches a line ending with a particular pattern; The pattern ed\$ ← I finished the editing of files.
- (5) ^\$ matches blank lines;
- (6) [^a-c] matches every single character except a, b, and c;





Regular Expressions (REs)



 More examples? Let's consider the editor vi: Delete all blank lines: :g/^\$/d Search all 2-digit numbers: \d\d Search all non-digit words: \D Search all non-digit words: \D Search all whitespaces: \s What shall I find if I search: the*? Search all 3-letter words: \s\w\w\w\s Search all 3-letter words that start with capital letters: \u\w\w

- What do we get to match the following patterns?
 - (\ to escape)

```
es\+
gs\=
s\{2}
[0-9]
```





Regular Expressions (REs)



- Even more examples? Let's consider the editor sed:
- GNU sed is a stream editor; In most cases, sed is not sensitive to double or single quotes;
 - \$ sed "s/RE/SUB/" my_file.dat
 - \$ echo "shell scripting" | sed "s/[si]/?/g"
 - \$ echo "shell scripting 101" | sed "s/[^0-9]/0/g"
- A word (\w) in sed means any combination of lowercases, uppercases, numbers, and underscores (_);
 \$ echo "shell scripting 101" | \

sed "s/w/w/w/=/g"

- \$ echo "shell scripting: 101 (02/17/2016)" | \
 sed "s/[[:alnum:]]/+/g" # the same as [a-zA-Z0-9]
 \$ echo "My cat was educated." | \
- sed "s/\<cat\>/dog/g"
- \$ echo "egg" | sed "s/e\+/=/g/"







The best way to master shell scripting is to write scripts yourself!

Quotes, Whitespaces, Parentheses, and Meta Characters.

Shell Scripting \rightarrow REs \rightarrow sed, awk, vi, emacs, ...

Advanced Bash Scripting Guide, Mendel Cooper (2008). The Comprehensive List of Bash References.

Questions?

sys-help@loni.org



Information Technology Services LSU HPC Training Series, Spring 2017



0. 46/46