## Miscellaneous Scripting Tools

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- In order to get input from the user without using command line arguments, we need to use the *read* command
- When Bash comes across a *read* command, it

 $_{\odot}$  Waits for the user to enter some text at the terminal

- Assigns the text entered by the user to the variable following the *read* command
- Let's look at an example...

```
$ cat read 1.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# demonstrate use of the read command
echo -n "Please enter a word: "
read reply
echo You entered: $reply
$ ./read 1.sh
Please enter a word: foo
You entered: foo
```

- When *read* takes in a value from the terminal, it grabs everything the user types until they hit Enter
  - \$ ./read\_1.sh

Please enter a word: foo bar bletch

You entered: foo bar bletch

In the script above, we used *echo* to print a prompt for the user, but we can also use the -p option to have *read* issue the prompt...

```
$ cat read 2.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
 demonstrate use of the read command
# using the prompt option
read -p "Please enter a word: " reply
echo You entered: $reply
$ ./read 2.sh
Please enter a word: foo
You entered: foo
```

 By default, the *read* command will not allow you to edit the text using the readline library commands

```
$ ./read_2.sh
Please enter a word: foooo^?^?^?
You entered: foooo
```

- Here we have hit the backspace key three times
- But, the *read* command normally ignores this; however, it can be *forced* to allow <u>command line editing</u>, if you use the -e option to *read*

- Scripts can read data from a file like any Unix command
- But sometimes, you want the data to be contained <u>inside the</u> <u>script itself</u>
- You might want to do that to make a script easier to deploy since you would not have to distribute a second (data) file along with the script
- This can be accomplished with a **here document**
- A here document is a feature of Bash that allows a file to be included within a script, which the script can read for its input

• Here is an example...

```
$ cat here.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# demonstrates how here documents work
read -p "Please enter a city: " city
grep $city << EOF
Boston Red Sox
New York Yankees
Toronto Blue Jays
Baltimore Orioles
Tampa Bay Rays
EOF
```

```
$ ./here.sh
Please enter a city: Boston
Boston Red Sox
```

- The script contains a list of all American League Eastern Division baseball teams, along with the cities in which they play
- The here document begins with the two less than symbols << followed **immediately** by a string
- In the script above, we have chosen "EOF" as the string
- This string will serve to mark the beginning and end of the here document

- This string can be anything you like, as long as it contains no whitespace
- Bash will look for another occurrence of the same string on a line by itself and read that as the end of the here document
- Nothing must appear on the line after the first string, and the second appearance of the sting must be on a line by itself

## Using Braces { } with Variables

 Normally, when we use the value of a variable, any text following the variable name is separated by <u>whitespace</u> \$ team=Bruins

\$ echo Go \$team
Go Bruins

- But, what if you needed to use the value of the variable as part of a larger string?
- If the following string starts with a period . or a slash / there is no problem
- Here is an example...

## Using Braces { } with

#### Variables

\$ filename=test

\$ echo Creating \$filename.txt
Creating test.txt

- \$ dirname=test\_dir
- \$ echo Creating \$dirname/test.txt
  Creating test\_dir/test.txt
- But with any other text you run into difficulty \$ echo Creating \$filename\_1.txt Creating .txt
- Bash did not see the variable filename next to the string
   "\_1.txt"

## Using Braces { } with Variables

- Instead, it saw a <u>new</u> variable, <u>filename\_1</u>, which was not defined. Since this variable was not defined, it has no value
- In order to concatenate the value of a variable with a string, we need to use braces
- The braces surround the name of the variable
- They <u>set off</u> the name of the variable from surrounding text \$ echo Creating \${filename}\_1.txt Creating test\_1.txt
- The braces surround the variable name and the opening brace comes after the dollar sign \$

- **bash** supports one-dimensional array variables
- An array can hold many individual values
- An array variable is defined as follows
   VARIABLE\_NAME=(ELEMENT1 ELEMENT2 ... )
- For example
  - \$ cities = (Boston Chicago Philadelphia Cleveland)
- Notice that there are no spaces on either side of the equal sign = but spaces are required between individual array values

- To access the array values we must
  - $_{\odot}$  Follow the name of the variable with square brackets
  - $_{\odot}$  Have a number inside the square bracket indicating the desired value

 $_{\odot}$  Enclose the variable name and the square bracket inside braces

Here is an example
 \$ echo \${cities[0]}
 Boston

```
$ echo ${cities[1]}
Chicago
```

- Notice that the array elements are numbered starting with **0**
- If you don't use the square brackets, you will simply get the first value of the array \$ echo \$cities Boston
- If you don't use the braces, you will not get the results you expect
   \$ echo \$cities[2]
   Boston[2]
- Since I did not put braces around cities[2], bash simply appended the string "[2]" to the value of the first entry

 There are two symbols that can be used to get all the values in an array \$ echo \${cities[\*]}

```
Boston Chicago Philadelphia Cleveland
```

```
$ echo ${cities[@]}
Boston Chicago Philadelphia Cleveland
```

- The asterisk \* turns all the elements of the array into a single string with the values separated by spaces
- The at sign @ reproduces the original array. That is, it creates a new array with the same elements in the same order

- Each element of the array remains distinct
- We can see this if we use the *declare* built-in
- *declare* is normally used to set the attributes of a variable, and one of those attributes is <u>whether the variable is an</u> <u>array</u>
- You can also use *declare* to list every variable which is an array
- To do this run *declare* with a dash followed by an attribute, but no argument

So if we run *declare* with the -a option, it will display all array variables
 \$ c1=("\${cities[\*]}")

```
$ echo $c1
Boston Chicago Philadelphia Cleveland
```

```
$ c2=("${cities[@]}")
```

\$ echo \$c2
Boston

```
$ declare -a
```

• • •

- The variable **c1** is an array with only one element
- That element is a string composed of all the values in the original array variable
- c2 is an array variable with exactly the same entries as cities in the same order

- You can use the hash mark # to get the length of an array value.
- Place the # within the curly braces, immediately in front of the array name, followed by the index number, inside square brackets \$ echo \${cities[0]} Boston \$ echo \${#cities[0]}

```
6
```

• We can use an array variable to present a list of arguments to a script...

```
$ cat print args.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
#
 prints the arguments given on the command line
for arg
do
    echo $arg
done
$ ./print args.sh ${cities[*]}
Boston
Chicago
Philadelphia
Cleveland
```

- You assign a <u>new</u> value to an element of an array the same way you assign a value to <u>an ordinary variable</u> \$ cities[3]=Akron
  - \$ echo \${cities[@]}
    Boston Chicago Philadelphia Akron
- Array variables will not be on the final

## Special Parameters

- Special parameters are <u>shell variables</u> whose values are automatically set by Bash
- The parameters contain information about the <u>current shell</u> <u>environment</u>
- They are very useful when writing shell scripts
- Bash sets the values of these parameters based on the state of current environment

#### \$ - PID of Current Shell Process

- The special parameter \$ contains the <u>process ID</u> (PID) of the current shell
- If you *echo* the \$ at the command line, you will get the process ID of your current shell
   \$ echo \$\$
   6834
  - \$ ps PID TTY TIME CMD 6834 pts/1 00:00:00 bash 7024 pts/1 00:00:00 ps
- Notice that the value returned is the <u>same</u> as that of the shell

#### \$ - PID of Current Shell Process

- Notice also that \$ is the name of the parameter, so we had to put a \$ in front of it to get its value
- The \$ special parameter is very useful when creating temporary files
- When you create a temporary file you want to be sure the name is unique
- Otherwise, you might overwrite a temp file created by another process

#### \$ - PID of Current Shell Process

- You can create a unique temp file using the special parameter like this
  - \$ tmp=\$\$tmp
  - \$ echo \$tmp
    6834tmp

! - The PID of the Last Process
 Put into the Background

 ! contains the process ID (PID) of the <u>last</u> process put into the background \$ sleep 60 & [1] 7347

```
$ echo $!
7347
```

# ! - The PID of the Last Process Put into the Background

You can use ! to kill a job that you just ran
 ./bother.sh > /dev/null &
 [1] 5274

\$ jobs [1]+ Running

./bother.sh > /dev/null &

\$ echo \$! 5274

\$ kill \$!
[1]+ Terminated

./bother.sh > /dev/null

\$ jobs

#### ? - The Exit Status

• The ? special parameter returns the exit status of the last command \$ pwd /home/it244gh/it244/work \$ echo \$?  $\mathbf{0}$ \$ 1s asdfasd ls: cannot access asdfasd: No such file or directory \$ echo \$? 2

#### ? - The Exit Status

- The <u>first</u> command succeeds and returns an exit status of **0**, while the <u>second</u> fails and returns a non-zero exit status
- You can set the exit code in a shell script by using the *exit* builtin
   \$ cat exit.sh
- #! /bin/bash
- #

demonstrates the use of the exit command with a status code

exit 2

\$ ./exit.sh

\$ echo \$? 2

• The exit status is also called the *condition code* or the *return code* 

#### Positional Parameters

- Positional parameters give the value of the command line arguments to a shell script
- They can also be used with *functions*

## # - The Number of Command Line

#### Arguments

- The # positional parameter contains the number of command line arguments
  \$ cat arg\_count.sh
  #!/bin/bash
  #
  # Prints the number of arguments sent to this script
  echo This script received \$# arguments
  \$ ./arg\_count.sh foo bar bletch
  - This script received 3 arguments
- This parameter allows you to check if your script has received all the arguments it needs

## O - The Pathname of the Script

 The *o* positional parameter contains the full pathname used to call the script \$ cat command name.sh #!/bin/bash # # prints the pathname by which called this script echo This sript was called using the pathname \$0 \$ ./command name.sh This sript  $\overline{w}$  as called using the pathname ./command name.sh

\$ /home/ghoffmn/examples\_it244/command\_name.sh
This sript was called using the pathname
/home/ghoffmn/examples\_it244/command\_name.sh

## 0 - The Pathname of the Script

- You should use this parameter when creating a usage message
- But, you should use it with the *basename* command to remove the path part of the pathname

#### n - The Command Line Arguments

- The numbered positional parameters are used to give <u>command line arguments</u> to a script or to a function
- Here is an example...

```
$ cat print_positionals.sh
#!/bin/bash
#
#
# Prints the value of the first four positional arguments
```

echo 0: \$0 echo 1: \$1 echo 2: \$2 echo 3: \$3

## n - The Command Line Arguments

- \$ ./print positionals.sh foo bar bletch
- 0: ./print\_positionals.sh
- 1: foo
- 2: bar
- 3: bletch
- If there is no corresponding command line argument, then

the parameter will have no value

\$ ./print\_positionals.sh foo bar

```
0: ./print_positionals.sh
```

- 1: foo
- 2: bar
- 3:
- You cannot run *test* on a positional parameter if there is no corresponding command line argument

## n - The Command Line Arguments

• If you do, you will get an error

```
$ cat greater than zero.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# this script tests whether its first command line
# argument is greater than 0
if [ $1 -gt 0 ]
then
    echo $1 is greater than 0
else
    echo $1 is not greater than 0
fi
```

## n - The Command Line Arguments

- \$ ./greater\_than\_zero.sh ./greater\_than\_zero.sh: line 5: [: -gt: unary operator expected is not greater than 0
- This is why you need to <u>check</u> for the correct number of arguments whenever your script takes arguments from the command line

- There are two special parameters that can be used to return all arguments from the command line
- They are \* and @
- Both return all the arguments from the command line \$ cat special\_param\_test\_1.sh #! /bin/bash # # demonstrates some properties of the special # parameters \$\* and \$@
  echo 'Here is \$\*: ' \$\* echo 'Here is \$@: ' \$@

```
$ ./special_param_test_1.sh 1 2 3 4 5
Here is $*: 1 2 3 4 5
Here is $@: 1 2 3 4 5
```

• You can use them in *for ... in* loops

```
$ cat special param test 2.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# demonstrates some properties of the special
# parameters $* and $@
echo 'The $* loop'
for arg in $*
do
echo $arg
done
. . . .
```

```
echo 'The $@ loop'
for arg in $@
do
echo $arg
done
1
2
3
4
5
The $@ loop
```

 So, why does *bash* give us two different parameters that *appear* to do the same thing?

. . . .

Because they are subtly different

```
$ ./special_param_test_2.sh 1 2 3 4 5
The $* loop
1
2
3
4
5
The $@ loop
1
2
3
4
5
```

- When you enclose <u>\$</u>\* within **double quotes** it's value is a single string
- That single string consists of <u>all</u> command line arguments, concatenated together with a space between them
- But, when you enclose <u>\$@</u> within double quotes, its value is a <u>list</u> of separate strings – one for each command line argument
- Let's look at an example...

```
$ cat special param test 3.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# demonstrates some properties of the special
# parameters $* and $@
echo 'The $* loop'
for arg in "$*"
do
  echo $arg
done
echo 'The $@ loop'
for arg in "$@"
do
 echo $arg
done
```

```
$ special_param_test_3.sh 1 2 3 4 5
The $* loop
1 2 3 4 5
The $@ loop
1
2
3
4
5
```

- The difference between \$\* and \$@ only appears when they are placed inside double quotes
- \$\* and \$@ will not be on the final

- The *shift* built-in promotes command line arguments
- This means that...
  - $_{\odot}$  the value of positional parameter 2 is assigned to positional parameter 1
  - $_{\odot}$  and the value of positional parameter 3 is assigned to positional parameter 2
  - $\circ$  and so on...
- Let's look at an example...

```
$ cat shift 1.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# demonstrates the use of
# the shift command
echo '$1: ' $1
echo '$2: ' $2
echo '$3: ' $3
echo '$4: ' $4
echo
echo shifting arguments
shift
echo
```

```
echo '$1: ' $1
echo '$2: ' $2
echo '$3: ' $3
echo '$4: ' $4
$ ./shift 1.sh foo bar
bletch bling
$1: foo
$2: bar
$3: bletch
$4: bling
shifting arguments
$1:
   bar
```

```
$2: bletch
```

```
$3: bling
$4
```

- After *shift* is called, all arguments move <u>up</u> one position, and the first argument value is lost
- It is not possible to get the value of the first parameter after *shift* has been called
- If *shift* is called with a numeric argument, all arguments are moved up that number of positions
- Let's look at an example...

```
$ cat shift 2.sh
                                  echo '$1: ' $1
#! /bin/bash
                                  echo '$2: ' $2
#
                                  echo '$3: ' $3
 demonstrates the use of the
                                  echo '$4: ' $4
# shift command with an
# integer argument
                                  $ ./shift 2.sh foo bar bletch
                                  bling
echo '$1: ' $1
                                  $1: foo
echo '$2: ' $2
                                  $2: bar
echo '$3: ' $3
                                  $3: bletch
echo '$4: ' $4
                                  $4: bling
echo
                                  shifting arguments by 2
echo shifting arguments by 2
shift 2
                                  $1:
                                      bletch
echo
                                  $2:
                                       bling
                                  $3:
```

```
$4:
```

- The first two command line arguments are lost after *shift* is called, and every positional parameter moves up <u>2</u> positions
- **shift** comes in handy when you want to write a script that loops over all command line arguments \$ shift 3.sh #! /bin7bash # # demonstrates the use of the shift in a while loop while [ ! -z \$1 ] do echo 'The value of \$1 is ' \$1 shift done

\$ ./shift\_3.sh foo bar bletch bling blam The value of \$1 is foo The value of \$1 is bar The value of \$1 is bletch The value of \$1 is bling The value of \$1 is bling

- *shift* keeps promoting arguments until there are no more left
- The -z option to test returns true if the length of what follows is zero
- But the not operator ! makes the test true when the string is <u>greater than zero</u>

# set: Initialize Command Line

# Arguments

- The *set* command can create positional arguments from <u>*within*</u> a script
- Normally, the positional parameters take their value from the command line arguments
- If you call *set* and follow it with a list of values, then *set* will assign each of those values to a positional parameter – and any values from the command line are lost
- Each of the values following *set* are loaded into the corresponding positional parameter, starting with 1

#### set: Initialize Command Line Arguments

```
$ cat set.sh
#! /bin/bash
#
# demonstrates using the set command to assign values
# to positional parameters
echo This script received $# arguments from the command line
echo '$1: ' $1
echo '$2: ' $2
echo '$3: ' $3
echo '$4: ' $4
echo
echo 'After set bloo blah blim blak'
set bloo blah blim blak
echo '$1: ' $1
echo '$2: ' $2
echo '$3: ' $3
echo '$4: ' $4
```

#### set: Initialize Command Line Arguments

```
$ ./set.sh foo doo ewe qoh
This script received 4 arguments from the command line
$1:
    foo
$2: doo
$3: ewe
$4: goh
After set bloo blah blim blak
$1:
    bloo
$2:
   blah
$3: blim
$4: blak
```

- This script was run with one set of positional parameters
- But, after I ran set, the positional parameters had different values

- *set* is a built-in command
- set has a completely different behavior when called with the -o or +o options
- With those options, the *set* command sets or unsets a shell option that alters the way *bash* behaves
- *set* will not be on the final