IT 244: Introduction to Linux/Unix Class 27

Today's Topics

Review

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- Aborting a Background Job
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- The [and] Meta-characters
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- <u>0 The Pathname of the Script</u>
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Running a Command in the Background

- Normally, when you run a command ...
- you have to wait for it to finish
- Such commands are said to be running in the **foreground**
- Unix gives you a way to get the command prompt back ...
- after running a command that will take a long time to finish
- You can run the command in the background
- The background job loses it's connection to the keyboard ...
- and the shell will give you a prompt
- The shell will tell you when the background job has finished
- Every time a program runs, a **process** is created
- The process has access to system resources ...
- like memory (RAM) and a connection to the filesystem
- Unix, like most OSs, is a multitasking operating system
- This means you can have more than one process running at a time
- To run a command in the background ...
- enter an ampersand, & , at the end of the command line ...
- just before hitting Enter:

```
$ sleep 5 &
[1] 17895
$
```

<u>Jobs</u>

- Every time you type something at the command line ...
- and hit Enter ...
- you are creating a **job**
- Every time a program runs ...
- a process is created for that program
- A pipeline is a collection of commands joined by pipes
- Each command will generate its own process ...
- but the collection of all the separate processes ...
- is a single job
- Each process in a pipeline will have its own process ID
- So as the pipeline progresses, the currently running process will change ...
- but the job number does not change
- The job is the collection of all processes created at the command line
- You can have multiple jobs running at the same time ...
- but only one job can be in the foreground at any one time
- Every process has a process ID number ...
- and every job has a job number
- When you tell the shell to run a job in the background ...
- it returns two numbers:

```
$ sleep 5 <mark>&</mark>
[1] 7431
$
```

- The job number is enclosed in brackets and comes first
- The second, larger, number is the process identification number ...
- of the first process in the job
- The process identification number is also known as the PID
- When the job finishes, the shell prints out a message

[1]+ Done

sleep 5

- The message does **not** appear the moment the job finishes
- The shell waits for the next time you hit Enter ...
- and it prints the message after the output from the command

Moving a Job from the Foreground into the Background

- There can only be one foreground job ...
- though you can have many background jobs
- Unix will let you move a job from the foreground ...
- to the background
- To do this, you must first suspend the foreground job
- A suspended job is not dead ...
- it is in a state of suspended animation
- You can reactivate it later
- To suspend a foreground job you must use the suspend key sequence
- On our systems you suspend a job by hitting Control Z
- After you do this, the shell stops the current process
- It also disconnects it from the keyboard
- Once the job is suspended ...
- you can place it in the background using the bg command
- bg stands for background
- Once placed in the background, the job resumes running
- If more than one job is running ...
- you must give bg the job number

Aborting a Background Job

- There are two ways to abort a background job
- You can bring a job from the background to the foreground ...
- using the fg (foreground) command
- Once you have the job in the foreground ...
- you can abort it using Control C
- When there is more than one job in the background ...
- you must specify the job number when using fg
- You can also terminate any job using the kill command

- But to use kill you must tell it what to kill
- The usual way to do this is to give kill a process ID
- If you don't remember the process ID ...
- run ps (process status) to get the process ID (PID)
- You can also use the job number with *kill* ...
- but you must precede a job number with a percent sign, %
- You can get the job number by using the jobs command

Pathname Expansion

- <u>Pathname expansion</u> allows you to specify a file or directory ...
- without typing the full name
- It also allows you to specify more than one file or directory ...
- with a single string of characters
- Pathname expansion uses characters with special meaning to the shell
- These special characters are called **meta-characters**
- Meta-characters are also sometimes called wildcards
- They allow you to specify a pattern
- When the shell sees one of these characters on the command line ...
- it replaces the pattern with a sorted list ...
- of all pathnames that match the pattern
- The shell then runs this altered command line
- The pattern is called an **ambiguous file reference**
- You can use as many meta-characters as you want to form a pattern
- Pathname expansion is different from **pathname completion** ...
- which you get by hitting Tab

The ? Meta-character

- The question mark, ?, meta-character stands for a single instance of any character
- ? can be used with any command ...
- even those that don't normally deal with files

```
$ echo dir?
dir1 dir2 dir3 dir4
```

- The ? meta-character does not match a leading period in a filename
- You must explicitly enter a leading period,
- when specifying an "invisible" file

The * Meta-character

- An asterisk, * , will match any number of characters in a pathname
- It will even match no characters
- * can be used with any command ...
- even those that don't normally deal with files

```
$ echo dir*
dir dir1 dir10 dir2 dir3 dir4
```

- * cannot be used to match the initial period, . , in a hidden filename
- But you can list all the hidden file in a directory using * ...
- if you put it after a period

```
$ ls .*
.addressbook .bashrc .forward .pinerc
.bash_history .cshrc .login .plan
.bash profile .emacs .msgsrc
```

The and Meta-characters

- The square brackets, [and], are also meta-characters
- They work somewhat like ?
- They only match a single character in a pathname ...
- but the pathname character must match **one** of the characters ...
- within the brackets
- No matter how many characters are within the bracket ...
- the pattern can match only a single character
- You can use the bracket meta-characters with any program
- You can use a range to avoid listing all characters
- A range is specified by listing the first and last characters of a sequence ...
- separated by a dash, -
- The sequence is specified in alphabetical order
- The square brackets provide another shortcut
- If you insert an exclamation mark, !, or a caret, ^ ...
- immediately after the opening bracket ...
- the shell will match any single character ...
- that is NOT included within the brackets

Built-ins

- Not all commands can be found on disk as executable files
- Some are actually written as part of the shell
- Such commands are called **built-ins**
- When you run a built-in ...
- the shell does not have to create a new **process** ...
- when you run these programs
- Instead the command runs in the same process as the shell
- This makes execution faster

Ways a Shell Can Be Created

• There are three ways a user can create a shell

- Login shell
- Interactive non-login shell
- Non-interactive shell
- There are subtle differences between these three types of shells

Your Login Shell

- The login shell is the shell you get ...
- after your password has been accepted
- Each login session has one, and only one, login shell
- Your default shell version you run is set ...
- when your account is created
- The absolute pathname of this shell is contained in the variabale SHELL
- When your login shell starts up ...
- it runs the commands found in /etc/profile
- This is a file customized by the system administrator ...
- for all users
- You can create your own customizations in a startup file ...
- in you home directory
- The file **must** have one of these names
 - .bash_profile
 - o .bash login
 - o .profile
- We will use .bash_profile

<u>Interactive Non-login Shells</u>

- You can run another shell from your login shell
- This sub-shell is called an interactive non-login shell

- Notice that the first entry for bash ...
- has the same process ID each time you run ps
- This is your login shell

- The second *bash* process is the sub-shell
- So your login shell is still running ...
- but you are talking to a sub-shell ...
- and the login shell is sleeping ...
- waiting for the sub-shell to finish
- the sub-shell is **not** a login shell
- It is an interactive non-login shell
- An interactive non-login shell is a shell that you create ...
- without having to enter a password
- Interactive non-login shells have their own startup file ...
- called .bashrc ...
- and it must be in your home directory

Non-interactive Shells

- A shell scripts is a file containing Unix commands
- When you run this file, all the commands in the file are executed
- The program that understands these commands and runs them ...
- is a shell
- So your current shell has to create a sub-shell ...
- to run the commands in the shell script
- This sub-shell does not give you a prompt ...
- so it is not an interactive shell
- It is a non-interactive shell
- There is no standard startup file for such a shell

Creating Startup Files

- A startup file contains Unix commands ...
- that are run just before you get a prompt
- The startup file normally used by Bash is .bash_profile
- This file must be placed in your home directory

Running a Startup File after a Change has been Made

- Usually, when you change a startup file ...
- you want the changes to take place immediately
- But if you made a change to .bash profile ...
- the changes won't take effect until the next time you login
- Unix gives you a way to make the changes take effect immediately
- You do this by running the source command

source .bash_profile

- source runs a Unix script in the current shell ...
- **not** a subshell

Commands that are Symbols

- Unix has some commands that are symbols rather than words
- I'll just mention them now and go into greater detail in future classes

| () | Runs whatever commands are enclosed in the parentheses in a sub-shell |
|----------------|--|
| \$() | Command substitution: rruns the commands enclosed in the paretheses in a subshell and returns their value to the command line, replacing the dollar sign, the parentheses and everything in them with this value |
| \$(()) | Arithmetic expansion: evaluates an arithmetic expression and returns its value at that place on the command line |
| | The test command: used to evaluate a boolean expression in constructs like if clauses |

File Descriptors

- Every time the shell creates a **process** ...
- it gives that process a connection to three "files"
 - Standard input
 - Standard output
 - Standard error
- A program can open other files besides these
- File descriptors are data structures that Unix creates ...
- to handle access to files
- File descriptors are the abstract representation ...
- of the files that are connected to a process
- Each file descriptor is assigned a positive number ...
- starting with 0
- Think of a file descriptor as an integer that refers to a file
- Standard input, standard output and standard error
- each have their own file descriptors

| Name | File Descriptor |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| Standard input | 0 |
| Standard output | 1 |
| Standard error | 2 |

- So while we think of standard input, standard output and standard error ...
- Unix thinks of the file descriptors 0, 1 and 2

Redirecting Standard Error

- Standard error is the "file" into which error messages are sent
- Redirecting standard error allows a program to separate its output stream ..
- from its error messages
- To redirect standard input we use the less than symbol, <
- followed by a pathname
- This construction is really a shorthand ...
- for a notation using file descriptors
- When you type

```
./repeat.sh < test.txt</pre>
```

Unix thinks of this as

```
./repeat.sh 0< test.txt
```

where 0 is the file descriptor for standard input

• Similarly, when we use output redirection

```
$ echo "Hello there" > hello.txt
```

Unix thinks of this as meaning

```
$ echo "Hello there" 1> hello.txt
```

- Again the file descriptor precedes the redirection symbol, >
- So how do we redirect standard error?
- We place a 2 in front of the greater than symbol

```
$ ls xxxx
ls: cannot access xxxx: No such file or directory
$ ls xxxx 2> error.txt
$ cat error.txt
ls: cannot access xxxx: No such file or directory
```

- Remember, 2 is the file descriptor for standard error
- Unix also gives you a way to redirect **both** standard output and standard input ...
- to the same file
- You can do this using the ampersand and greater than symbols together, &>

Shell Scripts

- A shell script can use any shell feature
- that is available at the command line
 - Ambiguous file references using the metacharacters ?, * and []
 - Redirection

- Pipes
- But not those features which are provided by tty
 - Command line editing (arrow keys, control key combinations)
 - Pathname completion (hit Tab to get more of a filename)
 - The history mechanism (up arrow to recall previous command line)
- Unix also provides control structures
 - If statements
 - Loops

Making a Shell Script Executable

- You must have both <u>read</u> and <u>execute</u> permission ...
- to run a shell script
- Because the shell has to read the contents of the script ...
- you need read permission
- You need execute permission so the script can actually be run ...
- without calling bash
- Normally you would give a shell script file 755 permissions
- The owner can read, write and execute
- The group and everyone else can read and execute

Specifying Which Version of the Shell Will Run a Script

- When the shell runs a shell script ...
- it creates a new shell ...
- inside the process that will run the script
- Normally this <u>sub-shell</u> will be the same version of the shell ...
- as your login shell
- A script can use the **hashbang** line ...
- to specify which shell version to use ...
- when running a script
- The hashbang line **must** be the first line of the script
- The first two characters on the line
- must be a hash symbol, # ...
- followed by an exclamation mark, !
- After these two characters, you need to have the absolute pathname ...
- of the version of the shell which will run the script

Comments in Shell Scripts

- Scripts have to be read by the people
 - Who write the program
 - Who maintain the program
 - Who use the program
- To make clear what is happening inside a program ...

- use comments
- Anything following a hash mark, #, is a comment ...
- except for the hashbang line

Separating and Grouping Commands

- You can enter many commands on a single command line ...
- if you separate them with a semi-colon, ;

```
$ echo Here are the contents of my home directory ; ls ; echo
Here are the contents of my home directory
error.txt foo it244 work
```

- When you hit Enter each command is executed ...
- in the order it was typed at the command line

(pipe) and & (ampersand) as Command Separators

- The pipe, | , and ampersand, & , characters are also command separators
- When we separate commands with the pipe character, | ...
- each command takes its input from the previous command
- We use an ampersand, & , after a command ...
- to run that command in the **background**
- When we do this, two things happen
 - The command is disconnected from the keyboard
 - The command will run at the same time as the next command you enter at the terminal
- But the ampersand is also a command separator
- So we can use it to run many commands at the same time

Continuing a Command onto the Next Line

- If you want to coninute a command line entry onto another line ...
- You can typ a backslash, \
- followed **immediately** by the Enter key

```
$ echo A man \
> A plan \
> A canal \
> Panama
A man A plan A canal Panama
```

- After hitting \ and newline ...
- the shell responds with the greater than symbol, >
- This is the **secondary prompt**
- The shell is telling you it expects more input

Using Parentheses, (), to Run a Group of Commands in a Sub-shell

- A group of commands within, a longer command line ...
- can be given a sub-shell of their own ...
- in which to run
- You can do this by putting the commands within parentheses

```
( cd ~/bar ; tar-xvf - )
```

• The shell creates a sub-shell and runs the commands in that sub-shell

Shell Variables

- A <u>variable</u> is a place in memory with a name ...
- that holds a value
- To get the value of a variable ...
- put a dollar sign, \$, in front of its name
- Some variables are set and maintained by the shell itself
- They are called **keyword shell variables** ...
- or just keyword variables
- Other variables are created by the user
- They are called are called user-created variables
- The environment in which a variable can be used is called the **scope**
- Shell variables have two scopes
 - Local
 - o Global

Local Variables

- Local variables only exist in the shell in which they are defined
- To create a local variable, use the following format

```
VARIABLE NAME=VALUE
```

- There are no spaces on either side of the equal sign ...
- when setting Bash variables
- Variables are local unless you explicitly make them global
- If the value assigned to a variable has spaces or tabs ...
- you must quote it
- If you run a shell script, the local variables will not be visible ...
- because the script is running in a sub-shell ...
- and the local variables are not defined there

Global Variables

• Global variables are defined in one shell ...

- and keep their values in all sub-shells created by that shell
- Global variables are defined in Bash using the export command
- like .bash profile
- The env command, when used without an argument ...
- displays the values of all global variables

Keyword Shell Variables

- Keyword shell variables have special meaning to the shell
- They have short, mnemonic names
- By convention, the names of keyword variables are always capitalized
- Most keyword variables can be changed by the user
- This is normally done in the startup file .bash_profile

Important Keyword Shell Variables

- There are a number of keyword variables that affect your Unix session
- Some of the more important are

| Variable | Value |
|----------|--|
| HOME | The absolute pathname of your home directory |
| PATH | The list of directories the shell will search when looking for the executable file associated with a command you entered at the command line |
| SHELL | The absolute pathname of your default shell |
| PS1 | Your command line prompt - what you see after entering each command |
| PS2 | The secondary prompt - what you see if you continue a command to a second line |

User-created Variables

- User-created variables are any variables you create
- By convention, the names of user-created variables are lower case
- User-created variables can be either local or global in scope

Quoting and the Evaluation of Variables

- Whenever the value of a variable contains spaces or tabs ...
- you must quote the string or escape the whitespace character
- There are three ways this
 - Single quotes ('')

- Double quotes ("")
- o Backslash(\)
- Everything surrounded by single quotes ...
- appears in the variable exactly as you entered it
- Double quotes also preserve spaces and tabs ...
- in the strings they contain
- But you can use a \$ in front of a variable name ...
- to get the value of a variable ...
- inside double quotes
- Quotes affect everything they enclose
- The backslash, \ , only effects the character immediately following it

Removing a Variable's Value

- There are two ways of removing the value of a variable
- You can use the *unset* command
- Or you can set the value of the variable to the empty string

Processes

- A **process** is a running program
- Unix is a multitasking operating system
- Many processes can run at the same time
- The shell runs in a process like any other program
- Every time you run a program ...
- a process is created ...
- except when you run a built-in
- When you run a shell script ...
- your current shell creates a sub-shell to run the script
- This sub-shell runs in a new process
- When each command in the script is run ...
- a process is created for that command

Process Structure

- Processes are created in a hierarchical fashion
- When the machine is started, there is only one process
- This process is called init
- init then creates other processes
- These new processes are child process of init
- These child processes can create other processes
- init has PID (Process ID) of 1
- init is the ancestor of every other processes ...
- that ever runs on the machine

Process Identification

- Each process has a unique Process ID (PID) number
- ps -f displays a full listing of information about each process running for the current user

- The UID column shows the user's Unix username
- The PID column is the process ID of the process
- The PPID column is the process ID of the parent process ...
- the process that created this process
- The CMD column gives the command line that started the process

Executing a Command

- When you run a command from the shell ...
- the shell asks the operating system to create a process ...
- to run the command
- Then it sleeps ...
- waiting for the child process to finish
- When the child process finishes ...
- it notifies its parent process of its success or failure ...
- by returning an exit status ...
- and then it dies

History

- The history mechanism maintains a list of the command lines you type
- These command line entries are called events
- To view the history list, use the *history* command
- If you run history without an argument ...
- it will display all the events in this history list
- By default, this list contains 500 values
- To restrict how many lines are displayed ...
- run history followed by a number
- You cannot have a in front of the number ...
- as there **must** be when using *head* or *tail*

Using the History Mechanism

- If you know the event number of a previous command ...
- you can run it again by using an exclamation mark, ! ...

followed by the event number

```
$ !517
echo $PATH
/usr/local/sbin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/sbin:/usr/bin:/bin:/usr/games
```

- The history mechanism prints out the old command line ...
- before running it
- There must be no space between the! and the number ...

The Readline Library

- The readline library is a collection of procedures ...
- which let you edit the command line
- When you use Control key combinations on the command line ...
- you are using the readline library
- Any program running under Bash and written in C can use the readline library
- Here are some of the more useful commands for the emacs version of the readline library

| Command | Meaning |
|---------------|--|
| Control A | Move to the beginning of the line |
| Control E | Move to the end of the line |
| Control U | Remove everything from the text entry point to the beginning of the line |
| Control K | Remove everything from the text entry point to the end of the line |
| \rightarrow | Move the text entry point one character to the left |
| ← | Move the text entry point one character to the right |
| ↑ | Recall the previous command line entry in the history list |
| | Recall the following command line entry in the history list |

Readline Completion

- The readline library provides a completion mechanism
- Type a few letters of something ...
- and readline completion will try to supply the rest
- There are three forms of completion provided by the readline library
 - Pathname completion
 - Command completion

• Variable completion

Pathname Completion

- The readline library provides pathname completion
- You begin typing a pathname, then hit Tab
- If there is only one pathname that matches ...
- the readline library will provide the the rest of the pathname
- If there is more than one possible completion ...
- the readline library will beep
- You can then enter more characters ...'
- before hitting Tab again ...
- or you can hit Tab right after the first beep ...
- and the readline library will give you a list of possible completions
- If the second Tab still gives you a beep ...
- there are no possible completions

Command Completion

- The readline library will complete the name of a command for you
- Begin typing a command ...
- then hit Tab ...
- and the readline library will try to supply the rest of the command
- If there is more than one possibility ...
- you will hear a beep
- If you hit Tab a second time ...
- you will see a list of possible completions

Variable Completion

- When you type a dollar sign, \$, followed immediately by some text ...
- you are entering a variable name
- The readline library knows this
- and will attempt to complete the name of the variable
- If there is more than one possibility, you will hear a beep
- If you then hit Tab another time
- you will see a list of possible completions
- If no list appears after the second Tab ...
- there are no possible variable name completions

Aliases

- An <u>alias</u> alias is a string ..
- that the shell replaces with some other string
- Usually, the value assigned to the alias ...

- is a command or part of a command
- To define an alias, you use the alias command
- alias uses the following format in Bash

```
alias ALIAS_NAME=ALIAS_VALUE
```

- In Bash, there must be no spaces on either side of the equal sign, =
- If the value assigned to the alias has spaces, it must be quoted
- If you follow *alias* with the name of an alias, it will display the definition

```
$ alias 11
alias 11='ls -1'
```

- In Bash, an alias cannot accept an argument
- Instead of allowing Bash to have aliases that accept an argument ...
- Bash has functions
- Aliases are **not** global
- They only work in the shell in which they are defined

Single Quotes Versus Double Quotes in Aliases

- Usually you want to use single quotes ...
- when defining alias
- If you use single quotes any variables in the alias ...
- will be evaluated when you use the alias
- If you use double quotes, any variable in the alias ...
- will be evaluated when it is defined

Functions

- A function is a collection of commands that is given a name
- Functions can accept arguments from the command line
- Functions can be run anywhere you happen to be in the filesystem ...
- because function exist in memory ...
- not on the disk
- Functions, unlike aliases, can have arguments
- They use the same positional arguments that shell scripts use
- Functions differ from shell scripts in a number of ways
 - They are stored in memory (RAM), rather than in a file on disk
 - The shell preprocesses the function so it can execute more quickly
 - The shell executes the function in it's own process
- Functions are local to the shell in which they are defined
- They do not work in subshells
- Functions definitions have the following form

```
FUNCTION_NAME ()
{
```

COMMANDS

}

- For clarity you can precede the function name ...
- with the keyword function
- The keyword *function* is optional

Shell Modification of the Command Line

- But before the shell executes the commands ...
- if first looks to see if it needs to make changes ...
- to the **tokens** on the command line
- The shell actually rewrites the command line before executing it
- It does this to implement features of the shell ...
- like command substitution and pathname expansion
- These are features that make the shell more powerful ...
- but they require the shell to change what you typed on the command line ...
- before executing it
- There are 10 different ways in which the shell can modify the command line

History Expansion

- History expansion occurs when you use the exclamation mark, ! ...
- to run again a previous command using the history mechanism

```
$ history 5
540 cat output.txt
541 echo "Go Red Sox" > output.txt
542 cat output.txt
543 echo foo
544 history 5
$ !543
echo foo
foo
```

Alias Substitution

- After history expansion, bash performs alias substitution
- The shell replaces the name of the alias ...
- with the value of the alias
- Aliases allow you to run complicated commands ...
- by typing only a few characters

Brace Expansion

• Braces, {}, allow you to specify several strings ...

- all at once
- Braces can appear with strings of characters in front ...
- or behind
- The braces contain strings of characters separated by commas
- The shell expands a brace by creating many strings ...
- one for each string contained within the braces
- If I wanted to create 5 foo files I could use braces expansion as follows

```
$ touch foo{1,2,3,4,5}.txt

$ ls
foo1.txt foo2.txt foo3.txt foo4.txt foo5.txt
```

Expansion

- Whenever bash sees a tilde, ~, by itself ...
- it substitutes the absolute pathname of your home directory
- Whenever bash sees a tilde, ~, followed by a Unix user name,
- it substitutes the absolute pathname of the home directory ...
- of that account

Parameter and Variable Expansion

• After tilde expansion, bash performs parameter and variable expansion

```
$ echo $SHELL
/bin/bash
```

- bash notices the \$ in front of a string ...
- and looks to see if that string is the name of a variable
- If the string is a variable, bash substitutes the value of the variable ...
- for the dollar sign and variable name

Arithmetic Expansion

- Unix treats everything on the command line as text
- except in a few situations
- <u>Arithmetic expansion</u> is where the text inside **\$(())** ...
- is treated as an arithmetic expression ...
- and the result of evaluating that expression replaces \$(()) ...
- and everything inside it

Command Substitution

- In command substitution, a command is run in a sub-shell ...
- and the output of that command ...

- replaces the command itself
- Command substitution uses the following format

```
$(COMMAND)
```

• Where COMMAND is any valid Unix command

Pathname Expansion

- Pathname expansion is where you use <u>meta-characters</u> ...
- to specify one or more pathnames
- The metacharacters are used to create patterns ...
- that are called ambiguous file references
- The meta-characters are
 - o ?
 - 0

Shell Script Control Structures

- Control structures are Unix statements that change the order of execution ...
- of commands within a program or script
- There are two basic types of control structures
 - Loops
 - Conditionals

The if ... then ... Construct

- The first conditional is the *if* ... *then* statement ...
- which has the format

- COMMAND is any Unix command
- COMMAND_1, COMMAND_2, ... are a series of Unix commands
- The most common comman used with if is test
- which must be followed by arguments that form a logical expression
- It is used to test the truth or falsity of a condition
- The keyword fi must close the conditional statement
- The statements between *then* and fi are executed ...
- depending on the status code ...
- given by the command that follows *if*

- If the command following if runs without error ...
- then it will return an exit status of 0 ...
- which the if ... then statment treats as true

test

- The *test* command evaluates a logical expression ...
- given to it as an argument ...
- and returns a status code of 0 ...
- if the expression evaluates to true
- It returns a status code of 1 ...
- if the expression evaluates to false
- In an *if* statement, a status code of 0 means true ...
- and a status code greater than 0 means means false

The test operators

- *test* has a number of operators
- The operators test for different conditions
- When used with two arguments, the operators are placed between
- Some operators work only on numbers

| Operator | Condition Tested |
|----------|---|
| -eq | Two numbers are equal |
| -ne | Two numbers are not equal |
| -ge | The first number is greater than, or equal to, the second |
| -gt | The first number is greater than the second |
| -le | The first number is less than, or equal to, the second |
| -lt | The first number is less than the second |

• *test* uses the different operators when comparing **strings**

| Operator | Condition Tested |
|----------|---|
| = | When placed between strings, are the two strings the same |
| != | When placed between strings, are the two strings not the same |

- Note that *test* uses symbols (=) when comparing strings
- But letters preceded by a dash (-eq) when comparing numbers
- There are two additional operators ...
- that *test* uses when evaluating two expressions
- It is placed between the two expressions

| Operator | Condition Tested |
|----------|---|
| -a | Logical AND meaning both expressions must be true |
| -0 | Logical OR meaning either of the two expressions must be true |

- The exclamation mark, ! is a negation operator
- It changes the value of the following logical expression
 - It changes a false expression to true
 - And a true expression to false

Using test in Scripts

- Bash provides a synonym for test ...
- a pair of square brackets, []
- To test whether the value of the variable number 1
- is greater than the value of the variable number2
- you could write either

```
test $number1 -gt $number2
or
[ $number1 -gt $number2 ]
```

- Whenever you use this construction
- there **must** be a space ...
- before and after each square bracket

The if ... then ... else ... Construct

- The another conditional is the *if* ... *then* ... *else* ... construct ...
- which has the following format

```
if COMMAND
then
   COMMAND_1
   COMMAND_2
   ...
else
   COMMAND_A
   COMMAND_B
   ...
fi
```

- If COMMAND returns an exit status of 0 ...
- COMMAND_1, COMMAND_2, ... will be executed ...
- otherwise COMMAND_A, COMMAND_B, ..., will be run

The if ... then ... elif ... Construct

• The if ... then ... elif ... construct allows you to create nested if statements

```
if COMMAND
then
   COMMAND_1
   COMMAND_2
   ...
elif ANOTHER_COMMAND
then
   COMMAND_A
   COMMAND_B
   ...
else
   COMMAND_N1
   COMMAND_N2
   ...
fi
```

- elif stands for "else if"
- Notice that *elif* must be followed by *then*
- The *then* must either be on the next line ...
- or the same line separated by a semi-colon, ;
- The *else* statement must be terminated by a *fi*
- elif only requires a single fi at the end

Debugging Scripts

- If you run a script using bash with the -x option ...
- the shell will print each line of the script ...
- just before it executes that line
- Before bash prints a line from the script ...
- it prints a plus sign, +
- to let you know that the line is not output from the script

for ... in ... Loops

- Bash provides many kinds of loops,
- but we'll start with the for ... in loop

- The block of loop commands start after the *do* keyword ...
- and end just before the *done* keyword
- The *do* keyword is like the *then* keyword in an *if* statement
- With a *for* ... *in* loop, Bash
 - Assigns the first value in the LIST_OF_VALUES ...
 to the variable specified by LOOP VARIABLE
 - Executes the block of commands between do and done
 - Assigns the next value in the LIST_OF_VALUES to the LOOP VARIABLE
 - Executes the commands between do and the done again
 - o And so on until each value in LIST_OF_VALUES has been used

for Loops

• The for loop has a simpler structure than the for ... in ... loop

- The difference between the two *for* loops ...
- is where they get the values for the loop variable
- The for ... in ... loop gets its values ...
- from the list that appears right after the *in* keyword
- These values are "hard coded" into the script
- They never change
- The simple for loop gets its values from the command line
- This for loop can have different values each time it is run

Three Expression for loops

- The first two *for* loops are totally different ...
- from the for loops in programming languages
- In programming languages, the for statement
 - o Initializes a loop variable
 - Tests the current value of the loop variable ...
 to determine whether the loop should continue
 - Changes the loop variable at the end of the loop code
- The *for* statements in programming languages ...
- **create** the values used in the loop
- The two *for* loops we just have studied ...
- must be given the values used in the loop
- But there is a third form of *for* loop in Bash
- This form creates loop values the same way ...

- as the for loop in programming languages
- It has the following form

- Notice that the three expressions after the *for* keyword ...
- are inside double parentheses
- That means that anything inside them will be treated as numbers
- The first expression sets the inital value of the loop variable
- The second is a logical expression
- As long as it is true, the loop will continue
- The third expression changes the value of the loop variable ...
- after each pass through the loop

while Loops

- The first two *for* loops keep running ...
- until all values supplied to them ...
- have been used in the loop
- A while loop continue running ...
- as long as the command following the keyword while
- returns a status code of 0
- while loops have the form

```
while COMMAND
do
COMMAND_1
COMMAND_2
...
done
```

- As long as COMMAND is returns and exit status of 0 ...
- the code block between do and done will be executed

until Loops

- The *until* loop is similar the *while* loop
- Except that the *until* loop ends ...
- when the command following until returns an exit status of 0
- The *while* loop stops ...
- when the exit status is **not** 0
- The *until* loop has the form

```
until COMMAND
do
COMMAND_1
COMMAND_2
...
```

• In practice, the *while* loop is used much more often than the *until* loop

<u>continue</u>

- Normally, a loop will execute all the commands ...
- between do and done ...
- in each pass through the loop
- But sometimes, you want to skip all or part ...
- of the commands in the loop block ...
- under specific conditions
- continue causes the shell to stop running the rest of the code ...
- between the *do* and *done* keywords
- The script then returns to the top of the loop ...
- and begins the next iteration
- continue does not cause the script to break out of the loop
- It merely stops the execution of the loop code ...
- for one iteration

break

- When you start a loop, you specify the conditions ...
- which will cause the loop to end
- With for ... in and simple for loops, the code leaves the loop ...
- when every value in the argument list has been used
- In the *while*, *until* and three expression *for* loops ...
- the code exits the loop when a logical condition is met
- But what if you encountered some unusual condition ...
- and wanted to break out of the loop entirely?
- To do this, you would have to use *break*
- When bash comes across the *break* keyword ...
- it jumps out of the loop

case Statement

- Sometimes you want to write code that takes one of several different paths ...
- depending on the value of a single variable
- You could do this with an *if* ... *elsif* statement ...
- but a *case* statement is easier to use ...
- in this situation

• The *case* statement has the following format

```
case TEST_VARIABLE in
  PATTERN 1)
    COMMAND 1A
    COMMAND 1B
    COMMAND 1C
    ;;
  PATTERN 2)
    COMMAND 2A
    COMMAND 2B
    COMMAND 2C
    ;;
  PATTERN_3)
    COMMAND 3A
    COMMAND 3B
    COMMAND 3C
    ;;
esac
```

- When bash encounters a case statement it
 - Finds the first pattern that matches the test variable
 - Runs the statements for that pattern
 - Leaves the *case* statement
- Notice
 - There is a right parenthesis,), after each pattern
 - The statements for each pattern end with two semi-colons, ;;
 - esac marks the end of the case statement
- esac is case spelled backwards
- This * will match anything that has not matched a previous pattern
- When creating patterns you can use the meta-characters and the logical OR

| * | Matches any string of characters |
|---|---|
| ? | Matches any single character |
| | Every character within the brackets can match a single character in the test string |
| | Logical OR separates alternative patterns |

read Command

- The *read* command sets a variable ...
- to a value entered by the user at the terminal
- When bash comes across a read command it

- Waits for the user to enter some text at the terminal
- Assigns the text entered by the user to the variable ... whose name follows the *read* command
- When read takes in a value from the terminal ...
- it grabs everything the user types ...
- until they hit Enter
- I can use the -p option to read
- to have *read* issue a prompt
- By default, the *read* command does not allow you to edit text at the terminal ...
- the way you can a the command line
- But you can enable the readline library to make it possible to edit the line ..
- if you use the -e option to *read*

<u>Using Braces, { } , with Variables</u>

• If we try to concatenate the value of a variable with a string, we run into problems

```
$ dir=hw
$ echo The directory is $dir11
The directory is
```

- bash did not see the variable dir next to the string "11"
- Instead, it saw a new variable, dir11, which was not defined
- Since this variable was not defined ...
- it has no value
- To concatenate the value of a variable with a string ...
- we need to use braces, { }
- The braces surround the name of the variable
- They set off the name of the variable from surrounding text

```
$ echo The directory is ${dir}11
The directory is hw11
```

• The opening brace comes right after the dollar sign, \$

Special Parameters

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

? - The Exit Status

• The ? special parameter returns the exit status of the last command

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
- This parameter allows you to check ...
- if your script has received all the arguments it needs

0 - The Pathname of the Script

- The 0 positional parameter contains the full pathname used to call 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

1 - n - The Command Line Arguments

- The numbered positional parameters are used to give command line arguments ...
- to a script ...
- or to a function
- If there is no corresponding command line argument ...
- the parameter will have no value

shift: Promotes Command Line Arguments

- The *shift* built-in promotes command line arguments
- This means that the value of positional parameter 2 ...
- is assigned to positional parameter 1 ...
- and the value of positional parameter 3 ...
- is assigned to positional parameter 2 ...
- and so on
- •
- After *shift* is called, all arguments move up one position ...
- and the first argument value is lost
- If *shift* is called with a numeric argument ...
- all arguments are moved up that number of positions
- The first two command line arguments are lost ...
- after *shift* is called ...
- and every positional parameter moves up 2 positions

- shift comes in handy when you want to write a script ...
- that loops over all command line arguments
- shift keeps promoting arguments until there are no more left