

Shell introduction

More features and gory details in ‘`man sh`’—hard to follow for beginners, but hopefully much better after these notes.

I stick to less fancy ‘`sh`’ in this course for more fundamental understanding.

Most systems default to Bourne Again shell (a pun) ‘`bash`’. Many more features and cursor editing.

There are others, e.g., `zsh`, `fish`, `csch`, `tcsh`.

Your homework submissions and test/exam answers must work under the very basic `sh`. You may use other nicer shells otherwise.

Comments

A comment begins with '#' and extends until end of line. Can be whole line or begin from middle of line.

```
# whole line comment
```

```
ls -l      # comment
```

echo: The Print Command

To print stuff to stdout:

```
echo xxx yyy zzz
```

By default has newline at the end. To omit:

```
echo -n xxx yyy zzz
```

echo: The Print Command

To print stuff to stdout:

```
echo xxx yyy zzz
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By default has newline at the end. To omit:

```
echo -n xxx yyy zzz
```

What if you want more spaces between xxx and yyy?

This won't work. (Exercise: Why?)

```
echo xxx    yyy zzz
```

Solutions:

```
echo xxx\ \ \ yyy zzz
```

```
echo 'xxx    yyy zzz'
```

```
echo "xxx    yyy zzz"
```

```
echo xxx'    'yyy zzz
```

etc.

Variables

Type is string.

Set value: `var=abc`

Tricky: No space around '='

Read value: `$var` or `${var}`

(If uninit: get empty string.)

Why '`${var}`' syntax provided:

```
v=xxx
```

```
v0=yyy
```

```
echo $v0           # yyy
```

```
echo ${v}0        # xxx0
```

Want your \$ back?

What if you want the string "\$v" itself, not the variable:

```
echo \$v
```

```
echo '$v'
```

```
echo '$'v
```

```
echo "$v"
```

Want your \$ back?

What if you want the string "\$v" itself, not the variable:

```
echo \$v
echo '$v'
echo '$'v
echo "\$v"
```

Here is what "\$v" does:

Store a string containing spaces (or special characters):

```
v='Sale Receipt.pdf'
```

This is 2 arguments "Sale", "Receipt.pdf":

```
ls $v
```

i.e., shell reinterprets string under shell syntax.

This is 1 argument "Sale Receipt.pdf":

```
ls "$v"
```

Good idea to always write like that.

Shell Scripts

Put your commands in a file, call it “myscript” say. You can run it with

```
sh myscript
```

More savvy users go one step further:

- ▶ Put as first line: `#!/bin/sh`
- ▶ Set executable flag on the file:
`chmod u+x myscript`
- ▶ Run it with `./myscript`

Example: `print-things`

Command Line Arguments: Positional Parameters

If I run your script with arguments:

```
./myscript foo bar xyz  
sh myscript foo bar xyz
```

- ▶ \$# has 3, the number of arguments
- ▶ \$0 has name of script
- ▶ \$1 has foo
- ▶ \$2 has bar
- ▶ \$3 has xyz
- ▶ \$* has foo bar xyz
"\$*" expands to one single word "foo bar xyz"
- ▶ @\$ has foo bar xyz
"\$@" expands to 3 words "foo", "bar", "xyz"

Demo: **print-3-args**

shift

Shift positional parameters. E.g., starting from the previous slide, one shift causes:

- ▶ \$# has 2
- ▶ \$1 has bar
- ▶ \$2 has xyz
- ▶ \$* has bar xyz
"\$*" expands to one single word "bar xyz"
- ▶ @\$ has "bar xyz"
"\$@" expands to 2 words "bar", "xyz"

Demo: `print-args`

Empty-string argument and argument containing spaces:

```
sh print-args "" " " " " "hello world"
```

“Simple” Commands

“simple command” = command name, arguments, optionally [file] redirection (next slide).

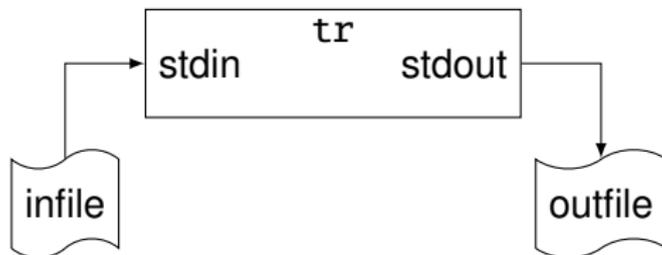
Example (without redirection): `tr -d 123`

Command name has 4 cases, not apparent from syntax:

- ▶ Shell built-in command, e.g., ‘`cd`’
- ▶ Shell function (user-defined).
- ▶ Shell alias (user-defined) (omitted, but dead simple).
- ▶ Program name, e.g., ‘`tr`’.

[File] Redirection

```
tr -d 123 < infile > outfile  
tr -d 123 0< infile 1> outfile
```



'>' erases and overwrites. To append: '>>'

Redirect stderr:

```
command 2> file
```

Redirect both stdout and stderr to the same file:

```
command > file 2>&1
```

Command Substitution

Run a command, capture its stdout, insert output data in-place:

```
$(command)
```

The data is split into words.

```
./print-args $(echo 'aaa bbb ccc')
```

⇒ 3 arguments, spaces stripped.

If inside double-quotes, not splitted.

```
./print-args "$(echo ' aaa bbb ccc ')"
```

⇒ 1 argument, spaces preserved.

But tricky details for newlines, not shown.

More use cases:

```
echo "Time: $(date)"
```

```
x="$(date)"
```

Compound Commands Overview

Next slides explain constructs for compound commands.

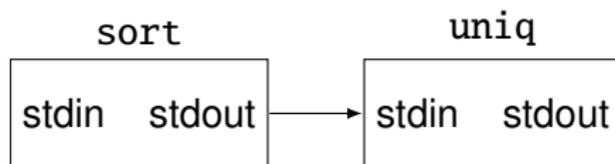
Operators from highest to lowest precedence:

description	operator
grouping	{ } ()
redirection	< > >>
pipeline	
not	!
and, or	&&
command list	; newline

Also if-then-else, loops.

Pipeline

E.g., `sort | uniq`



[Command] List—Sequential Composition

Multiple commands can be separated by newlines (especially in shell script files). Example:

```
cd B09  
ls -l  
cd ..
```

Or, a single line but separated by semicolons. Example:

```
cd B09 ; ls -l ; cd ..
```

Either way, known as “list” or “command list”, sequentially executed: wait for one to finish before running the next.

[Command] List—Sequential Composition

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Or, a single line but separated by semicolons. Example:

```
cd B09 ; ls -l ; cd ..
```

Either way, known as “list” or “command list”, sequentially executed: wait for one to finish before running the next.

One command but you want to split into multiple lines: Need to escape the newlines:

```
echo hello B09 \  
students
```

Exit Code, Success, Failure

Commands give an exit code when done.

In C, recall “`int main(...)`”, return value is exit code!

Demo: `ret.c`

Special shell variable `$?` is most recent command's exit code.

Exit codes also convey success/true and failure/false.

0 for success/true

non-0 for failure/false, e.g.,

- ▶ Most commands declare failure if file not found.
- ▶ A string search program declares failure if string not found.

Beware: ‘`echo $?`’ is also a command! And it succeeds. Exercise:
What does it print if you run it twice consecutively?

Logical AND, OR, NOT

```
mkdir foo && cp myfile foo
```

Sequential execution, but stop upon first “false”.

```
mkdir foo1 || mkdir foo2 || mkdir foo3
```

Sequential execution, but stop upon first “true”.

(So they are short-circuiting.)

```
! mkdir foo
```

Logical not: turn 0 to 1, non-0 to 0.

Operator precedence:

‘&&’, ‘||’ same precedence (tricky!)

both lower than ‘!’

Test Commands

A whole suite of shell builtin “[expression]” commands to do useful tests and give you exit codes for booleans.

File tests (more on man page, search for “[expression]”):

- ▶ [-e path]: exists
- ▶ [-f path]: exists and regular file
- ▶ [-d path]: exists and directory
- ▶ [-r path]: exists and readable
- ▶ [-w path]: exists and writable
- ▶ [-x path]: exists and executable
- ▶ [path1 -nt path2]: both exist and path1 is newer
- ▶ [path1 -ot path2]: both exist and path1 is older

Example: [-d lab02] || echo sadface

Test Commands

String comparisons:

- ▶ [s1 = s2]: string equality
Also '!=', '<', '>' (need escaping/quoting)
- ▶ [-n string]: string not empty
- ▶ [-z string]: string empty

Recall \$v vs "\$v". You want:

```
[ "$v" = xxx ]
```

```
[ -n "$v" ]
```

```
[ -z "$v" ]
```

Number comparisons (parsing strings to numbers):

- ▶ [n1 -eq n2]: integer equality
Also '-ne', '-gt', '-ge', '-lt', '-le'

Test Commands

Logical connectives, by example:

- ▶ [! -e path]: not
- ▶ ["\$x" -eq 5 -a "\$y" -eq 6]: and
- ▶ ["\$x" -eq 5 -o "\$y" -eq 6]: or

-a higher precedence than -o

Parentheses also supported, but need escaping or quoting.

```
[ -d dir1 -a '(' -d dir2 -o -d dir3 ')' ]
```

Grouping 1/2

When operator precedence doesn't work for you, write

```
{ list ; }
```

for explicit grouping. (Recall “[command] list”.)

Example:

```
{ grep foo file1 ; ls ; } > file2
```

Again, may use newline instead of ;

Easy to miss: This looks right but is wrong, tricky!

```
{ grep foo file1 ; ls } > file2
```

Missing one last newline or ; before }

Grouping 2/2: Subshell

() also does grouping, plus one more thing.

```
( list ; )
```

Difference from {} by example:

```
{ x=hello ; cd / ; }
```

Effects retained afterwards. Faster.

```
( x=hello ; cd / ; )
```

Effects lost afterwards. Slower, in fact new shell process.

Hence known as “run in subshell”.

Operators Summary And Precedence

From highest to lowest precedence:

description	operator
grouping	{ } ()
redirection	< > >>
pipeline	
not	!
and, or	&&
command list	; newline

Conditional Branching

Demo: `if-demo`

```
if list1 ; then
    list2
elif list3 ; then
    list4
else
    list5
fi
```

Easy to miss:

- ▶ before “then”, need ; or newline
- ▶ “elif”, not “else if”

Exercise: “else if” is not wrong, but what is annoying about it?

While-Loop

Demo: `while-demo`, `print-args`

```
while list1 ; do
  list2
done
```

```
while list1 ; do list2 ; done
```

May use 'break' and 'continue'.

Easy to miss: before "do", need ; or newline.

These look right but are wrong:

```
while list1 do
  list2
done
```

```
while list1 ; do list2 done
```

Test Commands in if/while

```
if [ $x = $y ] ; then
```

```
...
```

```
fi
```

```
while [ $x = $y ] ; do
```

```
...
```

```
done
```

Easy to miss: Still need ; or newline, even though] ends the condition.] is the last argument of the test command.

Arithmetic

Arithmetic is delegated to the `expr` program.

But most symbols need escaping/quoting, lest clash with shell syntax.

```
Example: expr '( 1 + 2 )' '*' 10
```

Outputs answer to stdout. Usually you add command substitution to store answer in variable or give to another command.

```
x=5  
x=$(expr $x + 1)  
echo "$(expr $x + 1)"
```

See [link](#) for all features. `expr --help` and `man expr` have quick reminders.

For-loop

Demo: `for-demo`

```
for var in word1 word2 ... ; do
    list
done
```

Use `$var` to read the variable.

May use 'break' and 'continue'.

Easy to miss: Need `;` or newline before `do` to mark end of words.
Lest computer thinks your `do` is one of the words, like above.

for i=0 to 3

Integer range is delegated to the seq program.

seq 0 3 outputs 0 to 3 to stdout.

Use command substitution to capture, give to for-loop.

```
for i in $(seq 0 3) ; do ... ; done
```

Demo: [for-demo](#)

See seq --help or man seq for variations.

Patterns (to match filenames)

- ▶ '*' matches any string (but doesn't cross directory boundaries)
Example: `ls a2/*.py`
All python files in directory a2
- ▶ '?' matches one character
- ▶ '[ace]' matches "a" or "c" or "e"
- ▶ '[0-9]' matches a digit
- ▶ '[!0-9]' matches a non-digit

Important: Shell expands pattern to multiple pathnames before handing to program. 'ls' never saw "a2/*.py"; it saw "a2/foo.py", "a2/bar.py", etc.

Important: If no match, the pattern stays as itself.

Good for for-loops too:

```
for i in *.py ; do echo $i ; done
```

Case

Pattern matching but on the string you want.

```
case "$var" in
    *.py)
        rm "$var"
        ;;
    *.c | *.sh | myscript)
        echo w00t "$var"
        ;;
    *)
        echo meh "$var"
esac
```

Small Example Script (Pg 1/2)

```
#!/bin/sh
dryrun=
verbose=
while [ $# -gt 0 ]; do
    case "$1" in
        -n)
            dryrun=y
            ;;
        -v)
            verbose=y
            ;;
        *)
            break
    esac
    shift
done
```

Small Example Script (Pg 2/2)

```
for f in "$@" ; do
  case "$f" in
    *.py)
      [ -n "$verbose" ] && echo "deleting $f"
      [ -z "$dryrun" ] && rm "$f"
      ;;
    *)
      [ -n "$verbose" ] && echo "not deleting $f"
  esac
done
```

Code file: [smallscript](#)

Small Example Script: Explanation

Go through arguments (meant to be filenames), delete those that are Python files.

But if there are '-n' and/or '-v' at the beginning:

-n means dry-run—don't actually delete

-v means verbose—say what is happening to each filename

Page 1 detects '-n' and '-v'.

After that, \$@ is left with the filenames.

Page 2 can use a for-loop over \$@ to process each filename.

getopts: General Option Processing

Shell built-in `getopts` helps pick out those `-n`, `-v` options.

Suppose I want to support these options:

- ▶ `-M` followed by a string
- ▶ `-n`
- ▶ `-v`

and after options, arbitrarily many filenames.

I also need to choose a variable name. I choose `myflag`.

Then I use one of these (they're equivalent):

```
getopts M:nv myflag
```

```
getopts vM:n myflag
```

```
getopts nvM: myflag
```

getopts Sample Run 1

If user runs my script (code: `tinyscript`) with

```
./tinyscript -n -v -Mfoo -v -M bar abc def -n xyz
```

then when I call `getopts M:nv myflag` the i th time:

i	<code>\$myflag</code>	<code>\$OPTARG</code>	<code>\$OPTIND</code>	exit code
1	n	(empty)	2	0
2	v	(empty)	3	0
3	M	foo	4	0
4	v	(empty)	5	0
5	M	bar	7	0
6	?	bar	7	1

Note that `$7` is `abc`, 1st non-option argument (filename for me). I can do `shift 6` to get rid of options.

`getopts` does not pick out options after seeing 1st non-option argument.

getopts Sample Run 2

If user adds `--` to explicitly mark end of options:

```
./tinyscript -n -v -Mfoo -v -M bar -- abc def -n xyz
```

then when I call `getopts M:nv myflag` the i th time:

i	\$myflag	\$OPTARG	\$OPTIND	exit code
1	n	(empty)	2	0
2	v	(empty)	3	0
3	M	foo	4	0
4	v	(empty)	5	0
5	M	bar	7	0
6	?	bar	8	1

Note that \$8 is `abc`, 1st non-option argument (filename for me). I can do `shift 7` to get rid of options.

`getopts` honours using `--` to mean end of options.

getopts Sample Run 3

If user gives unsupported option, e.g., -k:

```
./tinyscript -n -v -Mfoo -k -M bar abc def -n xyz
```

then when I call `getopts M:nv myflag` the i th time:

i	\$myflag	\$OPTARG	\$OPTARG	exit code
1	n	(empty)	2	0
2	v	(empty)	3	0
3	M	foo	4	0
4	?	(empty)	5	0
		and "Illegal option -k" to stderr		
5	M	bar	7	0
6	?	bar	7	1

Small Example Script But getopt

Code: **toyscript**

```
while getopt M:nv myflag ; do
  case "$myflag" in
    n)
      dryrun=y
      ;;
    v)
      verbose=y
      ;;
    M)
      msg="$OPTARG"
      ;;
  esac
done

shift $(expr $OPTIND - 1)

for f in "$@" ; do ...
```

Exit

May use the command `'exit'` to terminate the shell script and the shell process.

Not required if your script just runs from start to finish normally.

But handy for:

Early termination (when inside loops, functions, etc.)

Controlling exit code, e.g., `'exit 1'`.

(Default exit code is whatever the last executed command gives.)

Escaping And Quoting

Recall special-meaning characters in shell syntax:

< * \$ # (; space newline (and more)

Use escaping or quoting to get the character itself.

Example: print "<*; #" (2 spaces in between):

```
echo \<&#92;\*\&#92;\ \ \&#92;\#
```

```
echo '&#92;&#92;\*\&#92;\ \ \&#92;\#'
```

```
echo "&#92;&#92;\*\&#92;\ \ \&#92;\#"
```

Note: So '\\' is also special! Use '\\\' for backslash itself.

Example: store that string in a variable:

```
v='&#92;&#92;\*\&#92;\ \ \&#92;\#'
```

Example: Many use cases of [and expr:

```
[ "$v" '&#92;&#92;\*\&#92;\ \ \&#92;\#' ]
```

```
expr '( 1 + 2 )' '*' 10
```

Variables in Double Quotes

Common mistake when checking whether `$v` is non-empty:

```
[ -n $v ]
```

No!

- ▶ If `$v` is empty, shell sees `[-n]`, which makes no sense.
- ▶ If `$v` is purely spaces, shell still sees `[-n]`
- ▶ If `$v` is "x y", shell sees `[-n x y]`, which makes no sense.

Solution: `[-n "$v"]`

Exercise: Older generation used

```
[ x != x$v ]
```

When does it work? When does it break?

More Fun with echo

Why do I need $4n$ backslashes to get echo to print n backslashes?

```
$ echo \\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
\\
```

(BTW: Odd number \Rightarrow last backslash escapes newline, shell thinks I am splitting my command into two lines.)

If I use quoting, I still need $2n$ backslashes:

```
$ echo '\\\\\\\\'
\\
```

More Fun with echo

Use C to verify how many backslashes actually seen by command.

```
$ ./print-args-c \\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
argc = 2
argv[0] = "./print-args-c"
argv[1] = "\\\\\\\\\\\\"
```

No surprise, shell said it would translate 2 backslashes to 1.

```
$ ./print-args-c '\\\\\\\\\\\\'
argc = 2
argv[0] = "./print-args-c"
argv[1] = "\\\\\\\\\\\\"
```

No surprise, quoting works.

Code: [print-args-c.c](#)

Oh so echo adds its own translation...

More Fun with echo

sh man page: echo also interprets backslash:

`\n` newline

`\t` tab

`\\` 1 backslash

etc.

More Fun with echo

sh man page: echo also interprets backslash:

`\n` newline

`\t` tab

`\\` 1 backslash

etc.

Moral of the story:

What you see is never what you get.

It's telephone games all the way down.

It's lasagna all the way down.

Unless you prefer desserts, in which case:

It's baklava all the way down.

Functions

Example function definition:

```
myfunction() {  
    echo "$1"  
    echo "$@"  
}
```

Example function call:

```
myfunction foo bar xyz
```

Inside a function, positional parameters become function arguments.

May return from function early, or specify exit code, with 'return' or e.g., 'return 1'.

(Default exit code is from the last executed command.)

Dot command: Execute stuff in current shell

This reads commands from `cmds.sh`, executes them in current shell:

```
. ./cmds.sh
```

The command name is a single dot “.”

Contrast: `sh cmds.sh` runs in newly spawned shell process.

Use case: If `cmds.sh` defines functions, set variables, or uses `cd`, then

- ▶ `. ./cmds.sh` does them in current shell.
- ▶ `sh cmds.sh` does them in new shell process, which then quits, much ado about nothing.
`./cmds.sh` ditto.

Demo: [dot-demo](#)

Here Document

To feed multi-line hardcoded text into stdin of a command:

```
cat << EOF
Hello I'm Albert.
You can use variables too
E.g., \ $x=$x
EOF
```

The first time I said “EOF”, shell takes note. Second time, shell knows I’m marking the end.

“EOF” is not a keyword, you may choose another word, just don’t clash with your actual text!

Code file: [here-doc](#)

Here Document: One More Thing

If you declare your end-marker in quotes:

```
cat << 'EOF'  
Hello I'm Albert.  
Now $x is $x  
EOF
```

```
cat << "EOF"  
Hello I'm Albert.  
And $x is still $x  
EOF
```

then \$ is no longer special.

Code file: [here-doc](#)

Environment Variables

Every process (shell or otherwise) has a collection of “environment variables”, as part of process state.

Names are strings, values are strings too. Convention: Names in all caps, e.g., PATH, HOME, TZ, LC_ALL (these are standard Unix ones), CLASSPATH (specific to Java).

Initialized by copying from launcher (done by kernel): If p launches q , q gets a copy of p 's. But independently changeable otherwise.

Program ‘printenv’ prints the environment variables you currently have. It works because at startup it gets a copy of yours! Now it just has to print what *it* has.

Environment Variables in Shell

Shell *downplays* difference between shell variables and environment variables. Only convention: shell variable names are in lowercase.

Both read by same syntax: `$x`, `$LC_ALL`

Both changeable by same syntax:

```
x=C
```

```
LC_ALL=C
```

Both erasable by same 'unset' command.

How to mark a variable as environment variable:

```
export MYENVVAR=foo
```

or two commands:

```
MYENVVAR=foo
```

```
export MYENVVAR
```

Environment Variables in Shell

To run a program but give it different environment variables (existing or new) without changing your own:

```
LC_ALL=C MYNEWENV=foo printenv
```

This is why the following two commands mean different things:

```
x='foo bar'
```

```
x=foo bar
```

Some Standard Environment Variables

HOME: Home directory.

TZ: User timezone preference. (Can be absent.)

PATH: Colon-separated list of directories. Searched when you launch a program, if program name does not contain any slash.

Example: Assume

```
PATH=/usr/local/cms/jdk1.8.0_31/bin:/usr/bin:/bin
```

```
javac Foo.java
```

```
found in /usr/local/cms/jdk1.8.0_31/bin
```

```
printenv
```

```
found in /usr/bin
```

```
sh
```

```
found in /bin
```