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# bash Scripting

Chapters 13 and 14 in Quigley's "UNIX Shells by Example"

#### bash Version Reminder

- The original version of /bin/bash was version 1 [GNU bash, version 1.14.7(1)], which does not support all of the features. It remains upward compatible with the original Bourne shell, /bin/sh.
- Fedora 14 uses GNU bash, version 4.1.7(1)-release when it's fully up-to-date. If you are using another Linux system, make sure you are using a reasonably recent version of **bash**.

# **Some Shell Stuff**

- We've been using the bash shell from the command line all semester. However, Chapter 13 is full of details. Be sure to *read* and *re-read* it carefully, taking notes while you do. Some people even write or highlight right in their book - if you can believe it!
- Note, in particular, such things as:
  - set -x and set +x to turn script expansion tracing on and off;
  - **set** -**v** and **set** +**v** to toggle script line tracing;
  - **set** -**n** and **set** +**n** to toggle script execution;
  - or use #! /bin/bash -xvn to set them all on;
  - controlling prompt contents (especially, but not only, PS1 and PS2);
  - built-in commands like alias, dirs, help, popd, pushd, and type;
  - And much more! It's a big chapter.

# **Structured Scripts**

We will take advantage of some basic CS concepts:

- <u>Structure Theorem</u>: it is possible to write any computer program using only three control structures:
  - <u>Sequence</u> executing one statement after another
  - <u>Selection</u> choosing between two actions
  - <u>Repetition</u> repeating a sequence of instructions while a condition is true.
- <u>Top-down development</u>:
  - Incorporate the <u>control structures</u> into a modular design
  - Start at a top level and break down a problem into a <u>hierarchy</u> of increasingly refined procedures
  - The scripts and functions are the <u>modules</u> of the program

## **Order of Processing**

- The <u>verb</u> is the first token on the command line at the prompt or within a script. Since it can be many different items, it's processed in this order:
  - Aliases
  - Keywords
  - Functions
  - Built-ins
  - Executables
- What conclusions can you draw from this sequence?

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  - Aliases
  - Keywords
  - Functions
  - Built-ins
  - Executables
- What conclusions can you draw from this sequence?
  - You can replace a shell built-in command with an alias or a function;
  - You can also replace an executable program with an alias or a function.
  - Consider how each of these could be useful.

#### bash Variables (pages 810 – 831)

Normally, variables are local to the current shell, but they can be exported to the environment (**export** builtin) so they can be globally available to all sub-shells as well.

By convention, global names are **UPPER CASE** while local variables use **mixedCase** (also known as **camelCase** because there's a hump in the middle) or **under\_scores**. Variables ought to be declared with the **declare** built-in even though it's not strictly necessary. I recommend that <u>all arrays</u> and <u>key variables</u> be declared, but a loop control variable (conventionally **i**, **j**, and **k**) need not be.

In addition, there are some predefined variables created upon entry to a script. The command-line arguments are referred to as **\$0**, which is the script name and path (you can use **\$(basename \$0)** and **\$(dirname \$0)** to separate them), **\$1** to **\$9** for the first 9 arguments, and **\${10}** and up for more (the **{}** are required for more than 1 digit; you can also use **\${1}** instead of **\$1** if you want to be completely consistent).

The entire list of arguments from **\$1** on up can be obtained from **\$@** (space-separated) or **\$\*** (technically, separated by **\$IFS**, the inter-field separator; it's usually a space as well). You can find out how many arguments there are from **\$1** up by using **\$#**.

Finally, **\$?** returns the exit value of the most recently completed command or a script exit value. It can be handy for determining the success or failure of a command, but remember than <u>any</u> intervening command will change it.

It terms of the planning and design of your solution, you are to list your key variables in a Data Dictionary, one for each script or function that you write. You don't need to define any of the predefined variables, nor any casually used variables such as a loop control.

Name	Туре	Range	Purpose
len	-i	0 to 100	length of string
my_str	string	N/A	the string
list	-r string	N/A	list of char

There need be no PDL for a variable, since the Data Dictionary addresses that. There are instances where you may wish to show where and how a variable is initialized, however.

#### **Declaring** bash Variables

You <u>should</u> declare all variables you create, using the built-in **declare** command and its options:

- -a the variable is an array
- -i the variable is an integer, not a string
- r the variable is read-only (a constant)
- -x export the variable to the environment

You can also define read-only variables with **readonly**, and local variables (not for export) inside a function with **local**. You can assign an initial value at the time you declare a variable.

#### **Some Variable Examples**

- declare -ai myArray
- declare -r pi=3.1415926
- readonly maxsize=99
- declare my\_string='x'
- local anotherString
- declare -i len=0

- # numeric array
- # constant float
- # constant integer
- # local string
- # local string
- # local integer

You can use the **\$** operator (or **\${...}**)and the **echo** command to inspect these:

#### echo "pi is \$pi and maxsize is \${maxsize}"

Note that the variable **pi** above is actually a <u>string</u>, and not a <u>number</u>. If you try to use it as a number, it will produce an invalid operator error for the '.'.

# Screen Output: echo

- Page 1066 in the textbook
- A quick way to have a look at variables is to use **echo** with some useful escape sequences:

#### echo [-e][-n][-E] [argument ...]

- -n prevents a newline at the end of the echo
- -e permits the use of escape codes
- -E disables escape codes (default).
- The full list of escape codes is in the textbook, but the most useful probably include
  - \**a** alert
  - \c no newline (used at end, same as -n)
  - $\mathbf{n}$  newline right here
  - \t tab, for formatting output

# Screen Output: printf

- Pages 821 823
- You have much more control with the **printf** command:

#### printf format-string [argument ...]

- Notice that the format-string is required, but the list of arguments is not
- The format string uses special printf codes to format data (see printf(1) and the section of printf(3) titled "Format of the format string"), such as:
  - %i display an integer value
  - %s display a string
  - %c display a single character
- Plus the escape codes like n and t as with **echo**.

#### printf formats

The **format-string** can be a variable or a string, but it mostly consists of normal characters which are simply copied to **stdout**, escape sequences (which are converted and copied to **stdout**), and format specifications, each of which causes printing of the next successive argument.

In addition to the standard printf(3) formats (see\_both: <http://www.daemon-systems.org/man/printf.1.html> <http://www.gnu.org/software/bash/manual/bashref. html>), %b means to expand escape sequences inside the corresponding argument, and %q means to quote the argument in such a way that it can be reused as shell input (for example \ becomes \\).

#### printf Examples

```
Normal printf
     Prompt$ printf "%s\n" "ab\ncd"
     ab\ncd
Quoting printf
     Prompt$ printf "%q\n" "ab\ncd"
     ab\\ncd
Backslash printf
     Prompt$ printf "%b\n" "ab\ncd"
     ab
     cd
Variable printf
     Prompt$ declare fred="stuff"
     Prompt$ printf "%s\n" $fred
     stuff
```

#### **PDL for output**

Since the PDL is explaining <u>WHAT</u> and <u>WHY</u>, in order to describe output simply use a keyword like PUT, WRITE, DISPLAY, or SHOW. Be reasonably consistent in each scripting project.

PDL: **PUT error message to stderr** 

Script: echo Improper input format >> stderr

PDL: DISPLAY result of calculations Script: printf "%10s has %i and %i\n" acct v1 rc

Briefly, make the PDL easy to read and to understand in its context.

#### Screen Input: read

- Pages 867 871 in the textbook
- To read user input in a script, use the read built-in command:

read [-r][-p xx][-a yy][-e] [zz ...]

- where
  - xx is a prompt string for -p
  - yy is an array name for -a
  - **zz** is a list of variable names.
- The -r option allows the input to contain backslashes, and -e allows vi editing of the input line.

#### read Command

#### read [-r][-p xx][-a yy][-e] [zz ...]

- If **zz** is a single variable, the whole line of input is placed there when **ENTER** is pressed.
  - If there is a second variable name, the first receives the first word and the second the rest of the line, and so on.
  - If there are enough variables, one word is placed into each one in sequence.
  - If there are not enough input words, excess variables are set to the null (also known as the empty) string, "".
  - If there are no variable names given, the special **REPLY** variable receives all the input.
  - The read command returns 0 in \$? (the command exit status special variable) if it terminates normally with a newline (ENTER), or else \$? is set to 1 if Control-D (end of file for stdin) or end-of-file (for another file) is found.

#### read Examples

read -p "Enter: " var # prompt for var

read # read into REPLY

read -a tt -p 'Array> ' # prompt for tt

read -p "proceed (Y/N)? " x # get Yes/No

#### **PDL for input**

PDL explains <u>WHAT</u> and <u>WHY</u>. To describe input simply, use a keyword like **GET** or **READ**. It helps the reader if you are fairly consistent in each scripting project.

PDL: **READ array from file** 

Script: read -a my\_array < file

PDL: GET OK to proceed?

Script: read -p "proceed (Y/N)? " x

As with the output, make the PDL easy to read and to understand in its context.

#### **Numeric Operators**

Most of the common C-style arithmetic operators (widely used; see also Java, C++, C#, and so on) are available in **bash**, so the integer operations + - \* / % can be used, as well as += -= \*= /= %= and both the ++ and -- operators (see Quigley pages 884 - 885 for the complete list or search for /**^arithmetic\ evaluation** in bash(1)).

Float operations must be done in the **bc** or another calculator, or **gawk**, since **bash** does not support float directly. Thus:

#### echo `echo "scale=2; 15/4" | bc`

Or, using variables:

```
declare y=15; declare z=4; declare m
m=$(echo "scale=2; $y/$z" | bc)
echo $m
```

Both print the **bash** string **3.75** as the result.

#### Arithmetic

Arithmetic is normally done with the let command:
 declare -i x=0

```
let "x = x + 1"
let x=$x+1
let x+=1
```

- You can enclose an arithmetic expression in ((...)) as well, or in \$[...] or \$((...)) to have the value returned.
- For example, these are the same. In each case, the **x** variable now holds the value that was displayed:

((x=x+1)); echo \$x echo \$((x=x+1)) echo \$[x=x+1]

#### **More Arithmetic**

- You may also do arithmetic in array subscripts (arrays come later), so that these examples all have the same effect on declare -i x=3
  - let x+=1
  - let "x = x + 1"
  - (( x += 1 ))
  - echo  $\{x = x + 1\}$
  - echo \$(( x += 1 ))
  - array[x++]="value"
- In each case, **echo \$x** will print the result **4**

#### **Arithmetic PDL**

You will not normally show the actual calculation, since that's  $\underline{HOW}$ . Instead, describe  $\underline{WHAT}$  and/or  $\underline{WHY}$  you're doing it. For example:

PDL: CALCULATE area of room Script: let "area = len \* width"

PDL: COMPUTE total price
Script: (( total = num \* unit ))

PDL:COUNT next iteration of loopScript:let i+=1