

Software Engineering Tools Lab

Lecture 2 Bash 8/27/2018



- Variables
- Math
- Branching
- Script I/O
- Looping
- Simple Text Operations
- Arrays (online only)
- I/O Redirection
- Pipes
- Quotes



- Capturing Command Output
- Commands: cat, head, tail, cut, paste, wc

The Shell

- The shell is a program that interfaces users with the operating system
- The Graphical Shell
 - Point an click on things, sometimes you need to use the keyboard
- The Command Line Shell
 - Interactive mode: type commands at the prompt
 - Batch mode: run a multiple commands in a shell script



The Shell (2)

- What does the shell do? (Bash Manual 3.1.1)*
- 1. Read input from: a file, a string, or a user terminal
- 2. Break input into words and operators.
- 3. Parse tokens into simple & compound commands.
- 4. Perform shell expansions.
- 5. Execute commands.
- 6. Wait for commands to complete and collect exit codes.



The Shell (3)

- A shell script should start with a special line:
 - #! /absolute/path/to/the/shell
 - This line indicates what shell program the OS should run
 - Allows a script to be run no matter what shell you are currently using
- Some common shells include:

#! /bin/sh **Bourne Shell** #! /bin/ksh KornShell

#! /bin/bash Bourne-Again Shell (Bash)

C-Shell #! /bin/csh TC-Shell #! /bin/tcsh



Return Codes

- When a command terminates it returns a numeric value called the return code
 - Recall returning and integer at the end of your main() function in C
 - A return value of zero indicates successful termination
- The exit <n> command terminates the current script with a return value <n>



Running Bash Scripts

- A bash shell script can be run by providing it to the bash executable program explicitly:
 - bash MyScript.sh <arg1> <arg2> ...
- If the shell script contains a #! line then that shell will be invoked using the specified program
 - ./MyScript.sh <arg1> <arg2> ...
 - You will need execute permissions to run your script



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Commands in Bash

 Commands must be separated from one another with a semicolon or newline

```
Cmd1; Cmd2; Cmd3
Cmd4
Cmd5
```

 If your line gets too long you can continue on the next line by adding a \ (backslash)

```
Cmd6 With a very long set of command arguments \backslash that span multiple \backslash lines
```

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Commands in Bash (2)

- Some commands are built-in to the shell, others may be external shell scripts or programs
- When Bash executes your command it will first see if it is a built-in command
 - If not, it will attempt to execute your command as an external program
- Commands in bash can always be entered manually at the command prompt
 - Even complicated commands like for or if!



Commenting Bash Scripts

- Comments are denoted by a the pound sign #
 - Each line of a comment must start with #
- The #! line is called the shebang line.
 - Specifies the *interpreter* that should be used for the remainder of the file (e.g., bash, python, etc.).
 - The Wikipedia article about the shebang line is 8 pages!!!
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shebang_(Unix)



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Debugging Bash Scripts

- Debugging features are controlled by providing additional arguments to the shell program
 - bash [options] ./MyScript.sh
 - #! /bin/bash [options]

Option Description

-n Check the script for syntax errors but do not execute any commands

Prints out commands as they are executed

- The -x option is especially useful for observing what commands are executed as your script runs
 - Often easier then littering your code with print statements



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Variables in Bash

To assign and declare a variable:

VAR NAME=value

• To access the variable:

\$VAR_NAME Of \${VAR_NAME}

Some Examples:

Var1=7 Var2=Hello! Var3=\$Var1 # Var3=7 Var4=\${Var2} # Var4=Hello!

NOTE: NO WHITESPACE BETWEEN THE EQUAL SIGN!



Variables in Bash (2)

- Before each command is executed, any variables are replaced with their current value, even in strings
 - Called variable substitution
 - Run your script with the -x shell debug option to see
- > foovar=42

```
> echo foovar # $ needed to substitute
foovar # foovar looks like a string
> echo $foovar # becomes "echo 42"
42
```

Variables in Bash (3)

- Curly braces are optional when all you want is a simple variable substitution
- Sometimes you must use them to disambiguate between a variable name and adjacent characters in a string
- You should aim to improve readability.

```
> number=10
> echo "There are $numbers of people"
There are of people
> echo "There are ${number}s of people"
There are 10s of people
```

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Special Variables in Bash

Set by Bash automatically and can not be assigned directly

```
$# Number of command line arguments to the script
$0 All the command line arguments to the script
$0 The relative path to your script (includes its name)
$$$$ Current process ID number
$? Return code from last executed command
$1 to $N$ The Nth command line parameter
$RANDOM A random integer value
```

Bash Math

- Bash supports basic math on integers
- Use let or ((...)) to isolate mathematical statements
 - You will get syntax errors if you forget this!
 - You can exclude \$ from variable names in arithmetic evaluation
- Operators: +, -, *, /, <<, >>, %



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Integer Math Example

• The let command indicates a mathematical expression

```
let a=66+11  # a is 77
let b=$a*2  # b is 154
let c=5/2  # c is 2
let d=(a-c)*6  # d is 450
```

 Alternatively you can enclose the mathematical expression in double parenthesis ((...))

```
((a=66+11))  # a is 77
((b=$a*2))  # b is 154
((c=5/2))  # c is 2
((d=(a-c)*6))  # d is 450
```



Conditional Testing

- Bash has several flavors conditional tests
 - Arithmetic Tests Compare numbers
 - File Tests Check properties of files
 - String Tests Compare string values
- Syntax for each test command varies depending on the flavor of test



Conditional Testing (2)

- When a command completes it will set the return value variable: \$?
 - A return value of 0 indicates: success/true
 - A non-zero return value indicates: failure/false
 - This is opposite to programming languages!
- Any conditional test preformed in Bash is checking the return value of a command



```
Conditional Testing (3)

((5 == 5))  # is 5 == 5?
echo $?

[[-e/etc/passwd]] # does the file exist?
echo $?

[[-z "Nope"]]  # is the string empty?
[[ "foo"!= "bar"]] # this will overwrite $? !!!
echo $?

The above commands will produce the output:
0 0 0
```

Conditional Testing (4)

 Any conditional test may be inverted using the not operator (!) before the test expression

```
(( ! 5 == 5 ))
[[ ! -e /etc/passwd ]]
[[ ! -z "Nope" ]]
```

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Conditional Testing (5)

 Multiple tests can be combined using AND (&&) and OR (||) operators

```
(( 5 == 5 && 6 == 6 ))
[[ ! -f /etc/passwd || -d /etc ]]
[[ ! -z $input && $input < "foo" ]]</pre>
```

 If you need to mix test flavors the operators can be placed outside of the parenthesis or brackets

```
(( 5 == 5 )) && [[ ! -d /etc ]]
```

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Arithmetic Test Expressions

```
Expression
                                 Description
     x == y
                      True if x is equal to y
     x != y
                     True if x is not equal to v
     x < y
                     True if x is less than y
     x > y
                     True if x is greater than v
                      True if x is less than or equal to y
     x <= y
                     True if x is greater than or equal to y
     x >= y
Example Usage:
```

File Testing

- A significant part of many shell scripts is devoted to file tests
 - Does a file exist?
 - Is a file readable? writable? executable?
 - Is the file a directory?
 - Is the file empty?
- In practice you should always perform the appropriate file tests before operating on files



Expression -e <file> True if <file> exists -f <file> True if <file> is a regular file -d <file> True if <file> is a directory -r <file> True if <file> is readable -w <file> True if <file> is writable -x <file> True if <file> is executable -x <file> True if <file> is executable -x <file> True if <file> is executable -x <file> True if <file> exists and is not empty Example Usage: [[-e \$my_file]] [[! -x /bin/bash]]

```
Expression

Expression

Description

True if <str>
n <str>
n <str>
s <str>
s <str>
true if <str>
s is empty
True if <str>
s is not empty

True if <str/>is equal to <str/
s is lexicographically ordered before <str/
True if <str/>is is lexicographically ordered after <str/>
True if <str/>is lexicographically ordered after <str/>
str/
s <str/
s <str/>
s true if <str/>is lexicographically ordered after <str/
s true if <str/>is lexicographically ordered after <str/>
s true if <str/>
s true if <str/>is lexicographically ordered after <str/>
s true if <str/>
s true
```

```
if Command (2)

if gcc file.c
then
        echo "You code compiles!"
else
        echo "Try again..."
fi

if [[ -d $filename ]]
then
        echo "The file is a directory!"
elif [[ -f $filename ]]
        echo "The file is a regular file!"
fi
```

```
if Command (3)

read -p "Enter a number: " num
if (( $number < 10 ))
then
    printf "The number %d is too small!\n" $num
elif [[ -f /numbers/${num} ]]
then
    printf "The number %d already exists!\n" $num
else
    echo "$num" > /numbers/${num}
fi
```

```
if On A Single Line

[[ $DEBUG == "YES" ]] && save_output

Is equivalent to:
    if [[ $DEBUG == "YES" ]]
    then
        save_output
fi

[[ -e mydir ]] || mkdir mydir

Is equivalent to:
    if [[ ! -e mydir ]]
    then
        mkdir mydir
fi
```

Brace Expansion

 A sequence of elements like a1, a2, a3, ... z1, z2, z3 can be generated using brace expansion

```
• {1..10} # 1 2 3... 10
• {a..e} # a b c d e
• {a..z}{1..3} # a1 a2 a3...z1 z2 z3
• ee364{a..f}{1..9} # ee364a1 ee364a2...
• a{b,C,5}f # abf aCf a5f
• {1,2}x{a..b} # 1xa 1xb 2xa 2xb
```

Globs (Pathname Expansion)

A glob is a pattern that expands to match file names

```
* Matches everything

*.foo Matches strings ending in .foo

ee364* Matches strings starting with ee364

*bar* Matches string containing "bar"

*.[ch] Matches strings ending in .c or .h

? Matches any single character

JK[0-9]??? Matches JK followed by any 0-9 digit and three other characters.

Ex: JK4x2z or JK87bb
```

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Globs (2)

- Globs are expanded into a list of file names that match the glob
- Examples:

```
ls *.c
cat ee364*.log
rm -f accounts/ee364???/Lab*/*.bash
```

Globs (3)

- If no files match a glob the string will not be expanded!
- Example:

```
cat *junk_dsfsfsdfsf
cat: *junk_dsfsfsdfsf: No such file or directory
```

Globs (4)

- Brace expansion can be combined with globs to form even more complex patterns
- Example:

```
ls /pics/*.{jpg,png,gif}
```

Same as above

ls /pics/*.jpg /pics/*.png /pics/*.gif



echo Command

echo [options] [string]

Prints a string to standard output (the terminal)

Option Meaning
-n Disable the automatic newline
-e Treat \ as an escaping character

> age=23
> echo "You are \${age} years old."
You are 23 years old

> echo "Hello \name" > echo -e "Hello \name"
Hello \name Ame

printf Command

- Useful when you need to format output
 - Uses the same format string e.g. %s %d...
 - Arguments are separated by a space
 - No automatic newline

```
printf "Magic number is %d\n" $RANDOM printf "My name is %s\n" Goldfarb printf "Pi = %1.2f e = %1.2f\n" 3.14159 2.71828
```



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read Command

- read [-p prompt] [variable]
- Reads a single line from standard input into a variable

```
echo -n "Enter a line of text:"
read aLineOfText
echo "You entered: " $aLineOfText
read -p "How old are you? " age
echo "You are $age years old"
echo "Press [ENTER] to continue..."
read
```

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read Command (2)

- The read command can populate more then one variable
 - e.g. read First Second Third Rest
 - Each variable will contain a word of text
 - The last variable will get remaining contents of the line

for Command

- The for command executes a loop over a set of elements in a list
 - · A list can be anything separated by whitespace

```
for <var> in <list>
do
    <...commands...>
done
```

A more C-like for command syntax is also allowed:

```
for ((<pre-cond>; <cond>; <iter-step>))
do
    <...commands...>
done
```

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for Command (2)

```
for I in 1 2 3 4 5
do
    echo -n ${I}
done

for I in {1..5}
do
    echo -n ${I}
done

for (( I=1; I < 6; I++ ))
do
    echo -n ${I}
done</pre>
```

All three result in the same output:

12345

for Command (3)

 The list of a for loop can also be globs/brace expansions for iterating over files

```
# With globs
for File in *.c
do
    # Print all C source files
    lp -dSOME_PRINTER $File
done

# With brace expansion and globs
for File in /students/ee364{a..f}*.c
do
    # Compile all student files
    cc -Wall -lm -O3 -o${File}.o ${File}
done
```

Loop Control Commands

continue

Used to skip to the next iteration of the inner-most loop

break

 Used to end the execution of the inner-most loop



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Command Line Arguments

- What if we want to loop through the command line arguments?
 - Easy \$@ is a list of arguments

```
for arg in $0
do
   echo $arg
done
```



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while Command

 Run a set of commands until a conditional test or command returns a non-zero value (false)

```
while gcc student_file.c
do
    echo "Student code still compiles!"
    inject_errors student_file.c
done
while (( $RANDOM % 10 != 0 ))
do
    echo "Still no luck!"
done
```

while Command (2)

 The read command is typically used with a while loop to process lines of text

```
while read line
do
  echo "$line"
done < $1 # Redirect into the loop!</pre>
```

- \$1 will be redirected into standard input of the while command which will execute read until all lines are read
- Note the placement of the redirect at the <u>END</u> of the while command



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while Command (3)

 Like the conditional tests [[...]] and ((...)) other command tests can be inverted with a ! Operator

```
while ! gcc student_file.c
do
     echo "Student still has bugs!"
     correct_errors student_file.c
done
```



shift Command

- Left shifts the parameters on the command line by n (default n = 1) places
- The \$0 parameter is <u>NEVER</u> shifted



```
shift Command (2)
echo '$0 -- ' $0
echo '$# -- ' $#
while (( $# != 0 ))
  ((X=X+1))
  echo "\"\$${X}\" was $1" shift
done
Example usage:
$ parameters q "1 2 3" xyz
$0 -- ./parameters
$# -- 3
"$1" was q
"$2" was 1 2 3
"$3" was xyz
                                                                        49
```

cat Command cat [option] [files] Concatenates and prints the contents of each file Standard input is used if no files are provided • A hyphen (-) may be used as one of the files to indicate standard in as an additional source of input Description Include line numbers for each line Remove extra empty lines so that there is at most one empty line between two non-empty lines Include line numbers of non-empty lines

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head Command

- head [option] [files]
- Prints the beginning each file specified
 - Standard input is used if no files are provided

	Option	Description	
	-n <n></n>	Displays the first <n> lines</n>	
	-n - <n></n>	Displays all but the last <n> lines</n>	
	-c <n></n>	Displays the first <n> characters/bytes</n>	
Ļ			

tail Command tail [option] [files] • Prints the end (tail) each file specified • Standard input is used if no files are provided Option Description -n <N> Displays the last <N> lines -n +<N> Displays all lines starting at line <N> Displays the last <N> characters -c <N> Displays all characters starting at the <N>th character -c +<N>

wc Command

- wc [options] [files]
- Counts the number of lines in one or more files
 - Standard input is used if no files are provided

Option	Description	
-w	Count the number of words in each file	
-1	Count the number of lines in each file	
-c	Count the number of characters in each file	
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cut Command

• cut [options] [files]

Option

-n

-s

-b

- Cuts out columns from one or more files
 - Standard input is used if no files are provided
 - Delimiters may only be single characters

Option	Description	
-d <d></d>	Specifies the character <d> as the field delimiter. The default field delimiter is a TAB character</d>	
-s	Ignore lines that do not contain any delimiter characters	
-f <fields></fields>	Specifies a range or set of fields to include. A range can be a valid numeric range (e.g. 3-6) or a list of individual fields (e.g. 1,3,7)	
-c <chars></chars>	Specifies a range or set of character to include. A range can be a valid numeric range (e.g. 3-6) or a list of individual characters (e.g. 1,3,7) Note: No delimiter is set when cutting characters.	54

cut Command (2) • Assume the file "tabdata" contains: Mike Goldfarb mgoldfar Jacob Wyant jwyant Jung Yang yang205 Aarthi Balachander abalacha ■ To print the record #s (first 3 characters): \$ cut -c 1-3 tabdata

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002

004

0.01

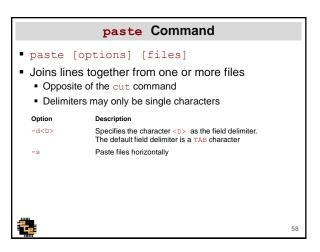
002

003

004

cut Command (3) Assume the file "tabdata" contains: Mike Goldfarb mgoldfar 002 Jacob Wyant jwyant Jung Yang yang205 Aarthi Balachander abalacha 004 ■ To print the 2nd column (field): \$ cut -f2 tabdata Mike Goldfarb Jacob Wyant Jung Yang Aarthi Balachander

cut Command (4) Assume the file "tabdata" contains: Mike Goldfarb mgoldfar Jacob Wyant 002 jwyant yang205 Jung Yang 004 Aarthi Balachander abalacha To print the 1st and 3rd column (field): \$ cut -f1,3 tabdata 001 mgoldfar 002 jwyant 003 yang205 004 abalacha



Assume the file "accounts" contains ee364a01 ee364a02 Assume the file "names" contains Michael Goldfarb Jung Yang ■ To combine accounts and student names: \$ paste -d':' accounts names ee364a01:Michael Goldfarb ee364a02:Jung Yang 59

paste Command (2)



paste Command (3)

Array Variables

- Declaring and initializing array: A= (1 foo 2)
- Accessing an array element: \${A[index]}
 - Index may be a non-negative variable or number
- Getting all elements in an array: \${A[*]}
 - \${A} will only get the first element of the array!
- Assign an array element: A[index]=<value>
 - Can assign non-consecutive indices, arrays are sparse
 - Different from C, where an array elements are always contiguous
 - Array indices start at zero!



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Arrays Variables (2)

- To get the size of an array: \${#Array[*]}
- To get a list of indices: \${!Array[*]}
- Attempting to access an unset array index will simply return an empty string
- When would a list of array indices be useful or necessary?



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Array Variables (3)

```
A=(foo bar baz)
A[5]=cosby
A[10]=jello
  for item in ${A[*]}
                                 for item in ${!A[*]}
      echo $item
                                     echo ${A[$item]}
           for ((I = 0; I < \${\#A[*]}; I++))
               echo ${A[$I]}
           done
```

What is the problem in the bottom for loop?



Reading Into an Array

```
while read -a Data # Splits on whitespace
do
  echo Read ${#Data[*]} items.
 echo The third item is ${Data[2]}.
done < Some Data File
```

- Use the -a option of the read command to split each line read from Some_Data_File into an array
 - Note: read will still only read one line at a time



Converting to Arrays

• It is often helpful to convert scalar variables to arrays

```
values="1 2 3 4 5"
arrval=($values)
for i in ${arrval[*]}
 echo -n "$i "
done
```

Will print:

1 2 3 4 5



abcde



 The set command will convert a scalar into an array by setting each value to the command line parameter variables (\$n):

```
set $values
echo $1 $2 $3 $4 $5
Will print:
```

values="a b c d e"

I/O Redirection

Many commands and programs read and write to the standard file streams

```
$ ./setup.sh
What is your name?: Foo Bar
What is your age?: 31
```

- For example the above script prints some text to the screen and accepts input from the keyboard
 - Standard input and standard output



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I/O Redirection (2)

- It is also possible to take input and output from nonstandard sources using I/O redirection
- Input redirection takes input from a source such as a file or hardware device and directs it to standard input (stdin)
- Output redirection takes output from a program and directs it to standard output (stdout)



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I/O Redirection (3)

- When the operating system reads and writes to a file is uses a special number called the file descriptor to identify the open file
 - Think of a file descriptor as the FILE* from C
- File descriptors allow you to precisely specify the file you want to read from or write to
 - By default it is assumed that you will read from standard input and write to standard output

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I/O Redirection (4)

 The standard file descriptors are ALWAYS assigned the numbers:

Name	File Descriptor #	
Standard Input (stdin)	0	
Standard Output (stdout)	1	
Standard Error (stderr)	2	

 If you do not explicitly specify file descriptor numbers stdin or stdout are usually assumed



>file

I/O Redirection (5)

Redirect data into a command with <

```
<infile
n<infile n is the file descriptor number
```

- # Redirect my document into stdin mail mgoldfar@purdue.edu < my document</pre>
- # Redirect work into file descriptor 4 grade lab L1 4< work



I/O Redirection (5)

Redirect data out from a command with >

```
Redirect stdout into file and overwrite
      n>file
                      Redirect output from file descriptor n into file
      >>file
                      Append stdout to the contents of file
      n>>file
                      Append output from file descriptor n into file
ls *.c > source_files
ls *.h >> source files # Append to source files
# Redirect output from stderr (#2) to /dev/null
cc -Wall -O3 -oFile.o -cFile.c 2>/dev/null
```

Advanced I/O Redirection

- We can assign additional file descriptors if we need to read and write to multiple sources simultaneously
- A special exec command "opens" a new file descriptor that can be read to or written from

 Statement
 Description

 exec n<file</td>
 Assigns file descriptor n to file for reading

 exec n>file
 Assigns file descriptor n to file for writing

 exec n>>file
 Assigns file descriptor n to file for appending

Advanced I/O Redirection (2)

 You can also redirect from one file descriptor to another

 $\begin{array}{lll} <\&n & \text{Redirects file descriptor n into $\tt stdin} \\ m <\&n & \text{Redirects file descriptor n into file descriptor m} \\ >\&n & \text{Redirects stdout to file descriptor n out to $\tt stdout} \\ m >\&n & \text{Redirects file descriptor m out to file descriptor n} \end{array}$

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Advanced I/O Redirection (3)

- By default the read command reads input from stdin and echo writes output to stdout
 - This can be changed with I/O redirection
- read [var1 var2 ... varN] <&n
 - Reads a line from file descriptor n
- echo [options] [string] >&n
 - Prints to file descriptor n

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Advanced I/O Redirection (4)

```
# Open logfile.txt for writing
exec 4> logfile.txt

# Print a message to stdout
echo "Writing logfile..."

# Write to the logfile (notice the >&4)
echo "This will be written to logfile.txt" >&4
```

Advanced I/O Redirection (5)

```
# Open logfile.txt for reading
exec 4< logfile.txt

# Get the number of lines to read from stdin
read -p "how many lines? " nlines

# Print out each line by reading it
for (( i = 1; i <= $nlines; i++ ))
do

# Read a line from logfile.txt
read line <&4
echo "Line $i: $line"
done</pre>
```

Advanced I/O Redirection (6)

Why do we need to assign a file descriptor? Why not redirect directly from a file?

```
# Print out each line by reading it
for (( i = 1; i <= $nlines; i++ ))
do

# BUG! Will always read the first line of logfile.txt
# A descriptor will remember where to continue reading
read line < logfile.txt
echo "Line $i: $line"
done</pre>
```

This example shows how to read from multiple files # Assume the input files have equal number of lines exec 3< \$1 # 1st argument is input file name exec 4< \$2 # 2nd argument is input file name exec 5> \$3 # 3rd argument is output file name # Read from the first input file until the end while read lineA <&3 do # Read one line from the second input file read lineB <&4 # Write output to file descriptor 5 echo "\$lineA // \$lineB" >&5 done

Special Files

- In Unix systems there are several special files that provide useful behaviours:
- /dev/null
 - · A file that discards all data written to it
 - Reading always produces <EOF>
- /dev/zero
 - · A file that discards all data written to it
 - Reading always produces a string of zeros
- /dev/tty
 - The current terminal (screen and keyboard) regardless of redirection



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Pipes

 Pipes take output from one command and pass it as input to the next command

```
command_1 | command_2 | ... | command_n
```

- command 1 sends output to command 2
- command_2 receives input from command_1
- command 2 sends output to command 3...
- Example: Count the number of words in a file
- \$ cat TheWealthOfNations.txt | wc -w
 380599

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tee Command

- tee [-a] <file>
- Sends all input from stdin to stdout and also to <file>
- Use the tee command when you need to save intermediate output of a command sequence

 ${\tt cmd1}$ | tee ${\tt cmd1.out}$ | ${\tt cmd2}$



tee Command (2)

- The tee command overwrites the contents of its file
- Use the -a option to force tee to append to the file

cmd1 | tee -a cmd1.out | cmd2

Quotes

- There are various kinds of quotes, and each one can mean something different
 - ' The single forward quote character
 - " The double quote character
 - The back quote character
 - The backslash character (often used to begin an escape sequence)



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Single Quotes

- Must appear in pairs
- Protects all characters between the pair of quotes
- Ignores all special characters
- Protects whitespace



Single Quotes (2) \$ Name='Ekim Brafdlog' \$ echo Welcome to ECE364 \$Name Welcome to ECE364 Ekim Brfdlog \$ echo 'Welcome to ECE364 \$Name' Welcome to ECE364 \$Name \$ echo 'The book costs \$2.00' The book costs \$2.00

Single Quotes (3)

- A star (*) character has some confusing behaviour:
 - Used within single quotes * is **NOT** expanded
 - Except when assigning it to a variable

Double Quotes

- Must come in pairs
- Protects whitespace
- Does <u>NOT</u> ignore the following characters
 - Dollar SignBack QuoteBackslash

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Double Quotes (2)

```
$ Path="/b/ee264"
$ echo "The path for ee364 is $Path"
The path for ee364 is /b/ee364
```

 $\$ echo "The book costs $\2.00$ " The book costs 2.00"

Note: Since double quotes will treat \$ as a variable it must be escaped with a backslash



\$(command)

- Runs a command and captures its output
 - Capture program output into variables

\$ echo "Directory is \$(pwd)"
Directory is /home/min/a/mgoldfar

\$ DIR=\$(pwd)
\$ echo "Directory is \${DIR}"
Directory is /home/min/a/mgoldfar

Historical note: Backquote

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You will also see the backquote used in the same way, but this is deprecated.

cho "Directory is `pwd`"

\$(command) (2)

 \$ (...) can be used to capture the output from a sequence of commands connected by pipes

```
$ now=$(date | cut -d' ' -f4)
$ printf "The current time is %s\n" $now
The current time is 14:56:02
```

Backquote: `command` (deprecated!)

- Historically, the backquote was used for this purpose, but that has been deprecated.
 - Use \$ (...) instead.

```
$ echo "Directory is `pwd`"
Directory is /home/min/a/mgoldfar

$ DIR=`pwd`
$ echo "Directory is ${DIR}"
```

Directory is /home/min/a/mgoldfar

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\$((expression))

Evaluates an arithmetic expression

```
$ echo 11 + 11
11+11
$ echo $((11 + 11))
22
$ k=99
echo $((k*66))
6534
```

The Backslash \

- Use to remove any special meaning that a symbol may have.
 - e.g \\$1.00 or \\$
- Used to add special meaning to symbols like \n or \b
- If it is the last symbol on a line, it will act as a continuation indicator.



The Backslash \ (2)

Combining head and tail

- Recall how head and tail works.
- Suppose you wanted to print lines 10 to 20
- Since head and tail read from stdin a pipe can be used to "connect" the commands

head -n 20 my_file | tail -n 10

 Many of the basic commands in this lecture can be piped together to perform complex operations



wc Command

- wc [options] [files]
- Counts the number of lines in one or more files
 - Standard input is used if no files are provided

	•	
Option	Description	
-w	Count the number of words in each file	
-1	Count the number of lines in each file	
-c	Count the number of characters in each file	
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```
wc Command (2)

$ wc -w TheWealthOfNations.txt
  380599 TheWealthOfNations.txt

$ wc -wl TheWealthOfNations.txt
  35200  380599 TheWealthOfNations.txt

$ wc -c TheWealthOfNations.txt TheWealthOfNations.txt
  2256586 TheWealthOfNations.txt
  2256586 TheWealthOfNations.txt
  4513172 total

# Capturing the number of words:
# Note the conversion to an array:
$ words=($(wc -w *.txt | tail -nl))
echo "There are ${words[0]} in all files."
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```

sort Command

- sort [options] [files]
- The sort command sorts data in a set of files
 - Standard input is used if no files are provided
 - Will merge multiple files to produce a single result

Option	Description
-f	Treat lowercase and uppercase letters the same
-k <start>[,Stop]</start>	Specifies the sort field in a line. If no stop position is specified the end of the line is used. Multiple $-\mathbf{k}$ options can be specified to indicate sorting behavior for ties
-n	Treat the field as a numeric value when sorting
-r	Sort in reverse order
-t <x></x>	Sets $<\!X\!>$ as the field separator. TAB and SPACE are the default separators.

sort Command (2)

Consider a file called "data" that contains:

555 Mike Goldfarb mgoldfar 666 Jacob Wyant jwyant 777 Jung Yang yang205 444 Aarthi Balachander abalacha

■ To sort by TA name (2nd column):

\$ sort -k2 data 444 Aarthi Balachander abalacha 666 Jacob Wyant jwyant 777 Jung Yang yang205 555 Mike Goldfarb mgoldfar



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sort Command (3)

Consider a file called "data2" that contains:

ece 201 fff aaa 100 fff bbb 199 ggg ccc 302 fff

To sort on column 3 first and then on column 2:

\$ sort -k3 -k2 data2 aaa 100 fff ece 201 fff ccc 302 fff bbb 199 ggg



diff Command

- The diff command compares files line by line
- diff <file1> <file2>
 - Will compare file1 with file2 and print a list of differences
- diff --brief <file1> <file2>
 - Will print a short message if file1 differs from file2
- diff will produce a return code of 0 if the files do not differ and 1 otherwise



```
data1 data2

1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4

1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4

1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4

$ diff data1 data2

2c2

< 1 2 3 4

---

> 5 6 7 8

Line 2 of data1 was changed to line 2 in data2
```

