

## Module 10: Unix Primer

**From UNICS To Unix: A brief history:** - Early on, in the 1960s and 1970s, every major computer manufacturer supplied operating system as a proprietary software.

Such OSs were written specifically for their own machine. In particular, each machine had an instruction set and the operating system was generally written in its intermediate language (often assembly language). As a result, no two operating systems were alike in features. When a user moved to a new machine, he would be expected to learn the new operating system. No two machines could even exchange information, not to mention the notion of portability of software.

It was in this context, that “unics”, an acronym for uniplexed information and computing system was developed by Dennis Richie at Bell Laboratories in USA. The idea was to offer an interpreted common (uniplexed) command language environment across platforms. Unics later became UNIX [16].

To implement this idea, Bell Laboratory team developed the idea of isolating a basic “kernel” and a “shell”. Most OSs today follow UNIX design philosophy of providing a kernel and a shell. Modern Unix-based environments support an extensive suite of tools.

### 10.1 Motivation

Unix is a popular operating system. Unix philosophy has been to provide a rich set of generic tools and to support tool based application development. For instance, Unix provides generic string matching tools which are very useful in software development.

These tools and utilities also aid in enhancing a user's productivity. Clearly, the main advantage of such an approach is to leave a lot of leeway for the users. Experience indicates that this encourages users to use tools in innovative ways to create new applications. Or they may just create a pleasant customised work environment. Now contrast this with a closed and/or packaged environment. That leaves little room, if any, for creative composition or enhancements. It offers little or no outlet to a user to customise the working environment. In Unix, users have access to the same tools which are also used by Unix as an OS. This gives one a peek into the working of the internals of Unix as well. In fact, by letting the user enrich the tool suite, or the OS utilities, Unix users expand their horizon. This is what makes Unix an open system.

Besides the tools and utilities orientation, there were two other major developments which have affected operational environments. First, the development of X-windows offered users a very helpful environment to develop graphical user interface (GUI) for newer applications. Secondly, Unix provided a strong backbone support in the development of computer communication networks by supporting client-server architecture. In fact, the TCP/IP suite of protocols (which forms the core of internet operations) was first developed on Unix.

In this module we shall study the elements of the Unix operating systems.

## **10.2 Unix Environment**

Unix, with X-windows support, provides a virtual terminal in every window. A Unix environment is basically a command driven environment<sup>1</sup>. Each window can be used to give commands. With this a user can run multiple applications, one in each of the windows. A user may open more windows if he needs them (though there is usually an upper limit to the number of windows that may be active at one time).

Basically Unix provides a user a friendly shell. It hides the system kernel beneath the shell. The shell interface accepts user commands. The user command is interpreted by the shell and then the shell seeks the desired service from the kernel on behalf of the user.

In Unix everything veers around the following two basic concepts:

- Files
- Processes

Users organise applications using files and processes. A program text is a file. A program in execution is a process.

An application may be spread over several files. In addition to program files, there may be other kinds of data files too. Files are generated with some end application in mind. For instance, a file may be a text file for document generation or it may be an image file supporting some medical information in a health-care system. A user may have many applications. Each application may require several files. Unix file system helps users in organizing their files. Next we shall study the file system in Unix.

## **10.3 Unix File System**

Unix allows a user to group related files within a directory. Suppose we want to work with two different applications, one involving documents and the other involving images.

May be we group the document related files under one directory and image related files in another directory. Sometimes it helps to further subdivide files. Unix allows creation of sub-directories to help organise files hierarchically. Such a file organisation creates a tree of directories with files as leaves.

When you log into a Unix system you always do so in your login directory. You may create files as well as subdirectories starting from the login directory.

**An example of file hierarchy:** When I created course notes for web browsing, I first created a directory COURSES under my home directory. Under this directory I created directories called OS, SE, COMPILERS respectively for operating systems, software engineering and compiler courses. You may browse the course pages at the URL <http://www.iiitb.ac.in/bhatt>. If you browse these files, you will notice that each course has files organized around topics grouped as Modules. In fact, there is an organizational hierarchy. The COURSES directory has subdirectories like OS, SE and COMPILERS within each of which there are modules. At the bottom most level within the modules subdirectory there are individual page files. The links, which help you navigate, lead you to image files or postscript files of the course pages.

It is important to know how one may reach a particular file in such a file hierarchy. The home directory is usually denoted in Unix by tilde (~). Suppose we wish to reach a particular module in OS course in my organisation of files as described above. This would require that we traverse down from the home to COURSES to OS to the particular module. This is called traversing a path. Our path would be /COURSES/OS/moduleX. Note how each step in the path hierarchy is separated by a forward slash.

We say that directory COURSES has a subdirectory (or a child directory) OS. We may also say that COURSES is the parent of directory OS. In Unix, all paths emanate from a directory called *root*. The root directory has no parent. A user's login directory is usually a child of a directory named home which is a child of "/"(i.e. root). Under home user's home directories are created with the user's login name. My home directory is named bhatt.

The directory where you may be currently located is denoted by a period (.) symbol. The parent of current directory is denoted by two periods (..). These two are special symbols. These symbols are used when the user has to make a reference *relative* to the present

position in the file system. An absolute path name would trace the file path starting with root as in */home/bhatt/COURSES/OS/module5*. Suppose we are in directory *COURSES* then the same path shall be denoted as *./OS/module5*. Note that the file path name has no spaces. In fact, no spaces are permitted within file path names.

**Unix commands for files:** The general command structure for Unix has the following structure:

*< UnixCommand > < Options > < arguments >*

A user may choose one or more options and one or more arguments.

It is important to be well versed with the commands that support the identification of files and navigation on the directory tree. Here is a brief list of relevant Unix commands<sup>34</sup>.

- *ls*: Lists all the files within a directory.
- *cd*: By itself it brings you back to home directory.
- *cd pathname*: Takes you to the directory described by the *pathname*.
- *rm filename*:: Removes file *filename* from the current directory.
- *pwd*: Prints the name of the current working directory.
- *mkdir subdirname*: Creates a subdirectory under the current directory with the name *subdirname*.
- *rmdir subdirname*: Removes a subdirectory under the current directory with the name *subdirname*.
- *touch filename*: Creates a file in the current directory with the name *filename*.

This file, on creation has 0 characters and 0 lines.

For now you should use the above listed commands to create files and directories. You should basically learn to navigate the directory tree. Later, we shall learn more commands applicable to files. You should also consult the online manual for options available on *ls* and *rm* commands.

In general, files have three basic operations associated with them. These are *read*, *write*, and *execute*.

Unix supports four types of files.

- Ordinary files: These are usually text files. Programs written in specific programming languages may have specific extensions. For instance, programs

written in C have a .c extension. Files prepared for TeX documentation have a .tex extension. These are usually the files users create most often using an editor.

- Directories: Subdirectories are treated as files by Unix.
- Binary files: These are executables.
- Special files: Special files provide input/output capability for Unix environment.

Unix treats the device IO as file communication. In fact, these gives the look and feel of a file read or write whenever a user communicates with an IO device.

#### 10.4 Some Useful Unix Commands

We give here a list of some commonly used Unix commands:

- *bc*: Gives you a basic calculator. Try simple arithmetic to get a feel for its operation.
- *cal*: Shows the calendar for the current month. A variation of *cal* will allow you to view calendar for any month or year.
- *clear*: Clears the screen.
- *cp filename1 filename2*: Creates a copy of file filename1 in filename2.
- *date*: Shows the current time and date.
- *echo sometext*: Echos back *sometext* on the terminal.
- *history*: Shows the previously given command history. This may be customised.
- *more( filename*: Shows the file filename one page at a time. *less* does the same except that it gives scrolling additionally.
- *cat filename*: Displays the file filename on the screen.
- *cat filename(s) > newfile*: Combines all the files in filename(s) and outputs to create a file newfile.
- *manAUnixCmd*: Shows the description of the command AUnixCmd from the online help manual. It describes the use of a command with all its possible options and arguments.
- *exit*: Exits the current shell.

#### 10.5 Unix Portability

In Section 10.1 we described why Unix may be regarded as an open system. One of the main outcomes of such an open system, as Unix has been, is that there are many versions of Unix with mutual incompatibility. This led to problems in communication and

interoperability. Fortunately, there are some standards now. Two of the better known standards are X/Open and POSIX. In developing the POSIX, professional organizations like IEEE (URL: <http://standards.ieee.org>) have been involved. Now-a-days most developers ensure that their products are POSIX compliant. POSIX compliant software adheres to some interface protocols. This ensures interoperability. A very good URL which describes both X/Open and POSIX is <http://www.starlink.rl.ac.uk/star/docs/sun121.htx/node9.html>.

**Finally:** We discussed some Unix commands in this module. This description is far from complete. For instance, Unix allows the use of regular expressions in arguments. We have not discussed that in this module. This is because in the next module we shall be discussing tools for pattern matching which requires extensive use of regular expressions. However, some exercises in this chapter may contain regular expressions. It is expected that the users of Unix are motivated to learn a few such details on the fly.