04 - More Files, Chaining Commands, and your First(?) Git Repository

CS 2043: Unix Tools and Scripting, Spring 2016 [1]

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Some Logistics

- Last day to add is today.
- (Poll) The demo last time.

Recap on Permissions

The Octal Version of **chmod**

Last time I linked you to this[2] website for a good explanation. For the formula hungry, you can represent **r**, **w**, and **x** as binary variables (where 0 is off, and 1 is on). Then the formula for the modes is

$$r \cdot 2^2 + w \cdot 2^1 + x \cdot 2^0$$

Examples

- `chmod 755`: `rwxr-xr-x`
- `chmod 777`: `rwxrwxrwx`
- `chmod 600`: `rw-------`

If that makes less sense to you, feel free to ignore it.

Super Confused...

Superuser Do

`sudo <command>`

- Execute **<command>** as the super user.
- The regular user (e.g. **student**) is executing the **sudo** command, *not* the **root**.
- You enter *your* user password.
- You can only execute **sudo** if you are an "administrator"*.

- On the course VMs the **student** user originally had the password **student**, so that is what you would type if you were executing **sudo**.
- On your personal Mac (or native Linux install), you would be typing whatever your password is to login to the computer.

*Note that where you look to see who can execute **sudo** varies greatly between distributions.

Super Confused...

If you know the `root` password, then you can become `root` using `su` directly.

Switch User

`su <user_name>`

- Switches to user `user_name`.
- The password you enter is the password for `user_name`.
- If no username is specified, `root` is implied.

- The commands `sudo su root` and `sudo su` are equivalent:
  - Since you typed `sudo` first, that is why you type the user password.
- If you just execute `su` directly, then you have to type the `root` password.

Default Permissions

When you create files during a particular session, the mode you are running in determines what the permissions will be.

User mask

`umask <mode>`

- Remove `mode` from the file's permissions.
- Similar syntax to `chmod`:
  - `umask 077`: full access to the user, no access to anybody else.
  - `umask g+w`: enables group write permissions.
- `umask -S`: display the current mask.

- Changing the `umask` only applies for the remainder of the session (e.g. until you close the terminal window you were writing this in).
- If this has meaning, it is just a bit mask with `0o777`.

File Compression

Making Archives: Zip

Zip

`zip <name_of_archive> <files_to_include>`

- Note I said *files*.
  - E.g. `zip files.zip a.txt b.txt c.txt`
  - These will extract to `a.txt`, `b.txt`, and `c.txt` in the current directory.
- To do folders, you need recursion.
  - `zip -r folder.zip my_files/`
  - This will extract to a folder named `my_files`, with whatever was inside of it in tact.

Unzip

`unzip <archive_name>`

Note: The original files DO stay in tact.

Making Archives: Gzip

Gzip

```
gzip <files_to_compress>
```

- Less time to compress, larger file: `--fast`
- More time to compress, smaller file: `--best`
- Read the `man` page, lots of options.

Gunzip

```
gunzip <archive_name>
```

Notes:

- By default, *replaces* the original files!
  - You can use `--keep` to bypass this.
- Does not bundle the files.
- Usually has better compression than `zip`.

Making Archives: Tar

Tape Archive

`tar -cf <tar_archive_name> <files_to_compress>`

- Create a tar archive.

`tar -xf <tar_archive_name>`

- Extract all files from archive.

Notes:

- `tar` is just a bundling suite, creating a single file.
- By default, it does *not* compress.
- Original files DO stay in tact.
- Unlike `zip`, you do not need the `-r` flag for folders :)

Making Archives: Tarballs

Making tarballs

```
tar -c(z/j)f <archive_name> <source_files>
tar -x(z/j)f <archive_name>
```

- `(z/j)` here means *either* `z` *or* `j`, not both.
- The `-z` flag specifies `gzip` as the compression method.
- YOU have to specify the file extension.
  - Extension convention: `.tar.gz`
  - Example: `tar -cjf files.tar.gz files/`
- The `-j` flag specifies `bzip2` as the compression method.
  - Extension convention: `.tar.bz2`
  - Example: `tar -cjf files.tar.bz2 files/`

Note:

- Extraction can *usually* happen automatically:
  - `tar -xf files.tar.gz` will usually work (no `-z`)

Assorted Commands

Before we can Chain...

...we need some more interesting tools to chain together!

Counting

Word Count

`wc [options] <file>`

- `-l`: count the number of lines.
- `-w`: count the number of words.
- `-m`: count the number of characters.
- `-c`: count the number of bytes.

Great for things like:

- revelling in the number of lines you have programmed.
- analyzing the verbosity of your personal statement.
- showing people how cool you are.

Sorting

Sort

`sort [options] <file>`

- Default: sort by the `ASCII` code (roughly alphabetical) for the whole line.
- Use `-r` to reverse the order.
- Use `-n` to sort by numerical order.
- Use `-u` to remove duplicates.

```
>>> cat peeps.txt
Manson, Charles
Bundy, Ted
Bundy, Jed
Nevs, Sven
Nevs, Sven
```

```
>>> sort -r peeps.txt
Nevs, Sven
Nevs, Sven
Manson, Charles
Bundy, Ted
Bundy, Jed
```

```
>>> sort -ru peeps.txt
Nevs, Sven
Manson, Charles
Bundy, Ted
Bundy, Jed
# only 1 Nevs, Sven
```

Advanced Sorting

- The `sort` command is quite powerful, for example you can do:

```
>>> sort -n -k 2 -t "," <filename>
```

- Sorts the file numerically by using the second column, separating by a comma as the delimiter instead of a space.
- Read the `man` page!

```
>>> cat numbers.txt
02,there
04,how
01,hi
06,you
03,bob
05,are
```

```
>>> sort -n -k 2 -t "," numbers.txt
01,hi
02,there
03,bob
04,how
05,are
06,you
```

Special Snowflakes

Unique

`uniq [options] <file>`

- No flags: discards all but one of successive identical lines.
- Use `-c` to prints the number of successive identical lines next to each line.

Search and Replace

Translate

`tr [options] <set1> [set2]`

- Translate or delete characters.
- Sets are strings of characters.
- By default, searches for strings matching `set1` and replaces them with `set2`.
- You can use POSIX and custom-defined *sets* (we'll get there soon!).

- The `tr` command only works with streams.
- Examples to come after we learn about chaining commands in the next section.

Chaining Commands

Your Environment and Variables

- There are various environment variables defined in your environment. They are almost always all capital letters.
- You obtain their value by dereferencing them with a $.

```
>>> echo $PWD     # present working directory
>>> echo $OLDPWD # print previous working directory
>>> printenv     # print all environment variables
```

- When you execute commands, they have something called an "exit code".
- The exit code of the last command executed is stored in the $? environment variable.

What is Defined?

- The environment:
  - `env`: displays all environment variables.
  - `unsetenv <name>`: remove an environment variable.
- The local variables:
  - `set`: displays all shell / local variables.
  - `unset <name>`: remove a shell variable.
- We'll cover these a little more when we talk about customizing your terminal shell.

Exit Codes

- There are various exit codes, here are a few examples:

```
>>> super_awesome_command
bash: super_awesome_command: command not found...
>>> echo $?
127
>>> echo "What is the exit code we want?"
>>> echo $?
0
```

  - The success code we want is actually `0`. Refer to [3] for some more examples.
  - Remember that `cat /dev/urandom` trickery? You will have to `ctrl+c` to kill it, what would the exit code be?

Executing Multiple Commands in a Row

With exit codes, we can define some simple rules to chain commands together:

- Always execute:

```
>>> cmd1; cmd2   # exec cmd1 first, then cmd2
```

- Execute conditioned upon exit code:

```
>>> cmd1 && cmd2 # exec cmd2 only if cmd1 returned 0
>>> cmd1 || cmd2 # exec cmd2 only if cmd1 returned NOT 0
```

- Kind of backwards, in terms of what means continue for *and*, but that was likely easier to implement since there is only one `0` and many not `0`'s.

Piping Commands

Bash scripting is all about combining simple commands together to do more powerful things. This is accomplished using the "pipe" character.

Piping

`<command1> | <command2>`

- Passes the output from `command1` to be the input of `command2`.
- Works for *heaps* of programs that take input and provide output to the terminal.

Some Piping Examples

Piping along...

```
>>> ls -al /bin | less
```

- Allows you to scroll through the long list of programs in `/bin`

```
>>> history | tail -20 | head -10
```

- Displays the 10^{th} - 19^{th} previous commands from the previous session.

```
>>> echo * | tr ' ' '\n'
```

- Replaces all spaces characters with new lines.
- Execute just `echo *` to see the difference.

Redirection

To redirect input / output streams, you can use one of `>`, `>>`, `<`, or `<<`.

- To redirect standard output, use the `>` operator.
  - `command > file`
- To redirect standard input, use the `<` operator.
  - `command < file`
- To redirect standard error, use the `>` operator and specify the stream number `2`.
  - `command 2> file`
- Combine streams together by using `2>&1` syntax.
  - This says: send standard error to where standard output is going.
  - Useful for debugging / catching error messages...
  - ...or ignoring them (you will often see that sent to `/dev/null`).

Redirection Example

- Bash processes I/O redirection from left to right, allowing us to do fun things like this:

Magic

```
tr -cd '0-9' < test1.txt > test2.txt
```

- Deletes everything but the numbers from `test1.txt`, then store them in `test2.txt`.
- CAUTION: do not *ever* use the same file as output that was input.
  - Example: `tr -cd '0-9' < original.txt > original.txt`
  - You will *lose* all your data, you cannot read and write this way.

- Piping and Redirection are quite sophisticated, please refer to the Wikipedia page in [4].

More Git: Forking a Repository

In class demo...

https://github.com/cs2043-sp16/lecture-demos/tree/master/lec04

References I

[1] B. Abrahao, H. Abu-Libdeh, N. Savva, D. Slater, and others over the years.
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[2] C. Hope.
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`http://www.computerhope.com/unix/uchmod.htm`, 2016.

[3] T. L. D. Project.
Exit codes with special meanings.
`http://tldp.org/LDP/abs/html/exitcodes.html`.

References II

[4] Wikipedia.
Redirection (computing).
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Redirection_%28computing%29.