

# **CS 45, Lecture 2**

## **Shell Tools**

**Spring 2023**

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# Outline

1. What is the Shell?
2. The UNIX Shell
3. Basic Commands
4. Pipes
5. Conclusion

# Outline

## 1. What is the Shell?

### 1.1 What is an Operating System?

### 1.2 The UNIX Philosophy

### 1.3 The UNIX File Abstraction

## 2. The UNIX Shell

## 3. Basic Commands

## 4. Pipes

# UNIX

- The shell (as we recognize it) began with the UNIX operating system in 1969.<sup>1</sup>
- UNIX was made at Bell Labs by Ken Thompson and Dennis Ritchie.
- UNIX introduced what is now called “the UNIX philosophy.”
- Almost all modern computing is derived from the legacy of UNIX.

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<sup>1</sup>Dennis M. Ritchie and Ken Thompson. The UNIX time-sharing system.  
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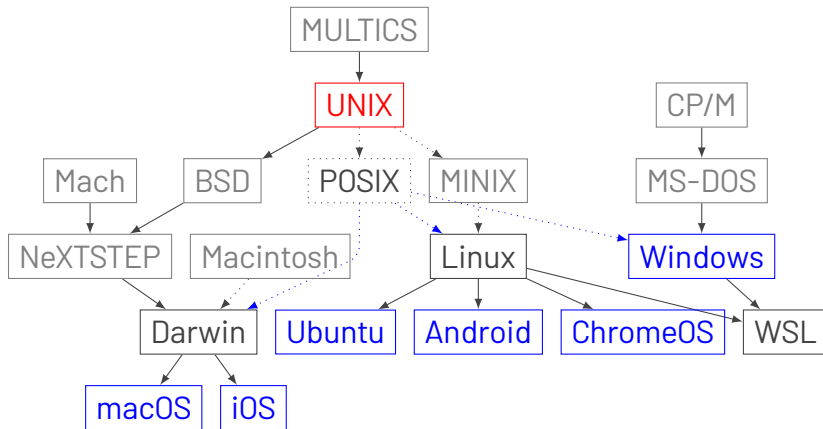
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# Modern Operating Systems



# UNIX Explained

Ken Thompson and Dennis Ritchie explain:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JoVQTPbD6UY>.

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# Anatomy of a Computer

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Definition (kernel)

An OPERATING SYSTEM KERNEL is a program that abstracts over different hardware, allowing the same software to run on different computers.

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## Definition (userspace)

USERSPACE is the set of programs that come bundled with an OS kernel, which allow a user to perform various tasks.

# Running Programs

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## Definition (operating system)

An `OPERATING SYSTEM` is the combination of a kernel, a set of userspace programs, and a shell.

# Types of Shell

Operating System	Shell	Type	How you start programs
Windows	explorer.exe	Graphical	Start Menu, Desktop
macOS	Aqua	Graphical	Dock, Launchpad
iOS, Android	Home Screen	Graphical	Tap icon
Linux	GNOME, KDE, XFCE, ...	Graphical	Various

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Windows	cmd.exe	Text	Type name of .exe file
UNIX	sh	Text	The rest of this lecture.
Linux	bash	Text	Same as sh
macOS	zsh	Text	Same as sh

Table: Shells across common operating systems

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## 4. Pipes

As described in the Bell System Technical Journal in 1978 <sup>2</sup>:

1. Make each program do one thing well. To do a new job, build afresh rather than complicate old programs by adding new "features."
2. Expect the output of every program to become the input to another, as yet unknown, program. Don't clutter output with extraneous information. Avoid stringently columnar or binary input formats. Don't insist on interactive input.
3. Design and build software, even operating systems, to be tried early, ideally within weeks. Don't hesitate to throw away the clumsy parts and rebuild them.
4. Use tools in preference to unskilled help to lighten a programming task, even if you have to detour to build the tools and expect to throw some of them out after you've finished using them.

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<sup>2</sup>M. D. McIlroy, E. N. Pinson, and B. A. Tague. UNIX time-sharing system: Foreword. *The Bell System Technical Journal*, 57(6):1899–1904, July 1978

# Simplified

## The UNIX Philosophy

Build lots of small tools, each of which does exactly one thing well, but which can be combined to do more powerful things.



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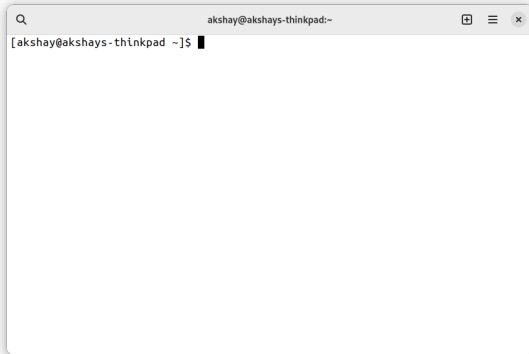
# The UNIX File Abstraction

- In UNIX, everything is a file (including hardware!).
- Most files are text.
- Programs which operate on text can operate on almost everything.

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# The UNIX Shell



# The Prompt

## Example (prompt)

An default shell prompt might look like this:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
```

This PROMPT will print every time the shell is ready to accept another command. It probably looks different on your computer, since different shells have different defaults. Regardless of what it looks like right now, you can customize it to look like whatever you want. In most cases, you can get back to it by pressing CTRL-C on your keyboard.

# The Prompt

## Username

Example (prompt: username)

This part of the prompt is your username:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
```

This is probably the same as the username you use to log into your computer. By default, you're auto-logged into the shell using your normal user account.



# The Prompt

## Hostname

Example (prompt: hostname)

This part of the prompt is your computer's hostname:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
```

This is your computer's name on whatever network it's connected to. Generally you don't really care about this unless you have multiple computers.

# The Prompt

## Current Directory

Example (prompt: current directory)

This part of the prompt is your current directory.

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
```

This is your WORKING DIRECTORY; “directory” is just a fancy name for “folder”, like you'd have in Windows Explorer or macOS Finder.

By default, you start in your HOME DIRECTORY, which is the folder that contains Documents, Downloads, Pictures, Videos, etc. The home directory is abbreviated as a tilde (~) because it's so common.

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In Windows Explorer or macOS Finder, the current directory is always visible. In the shell, you have to ask for the list of current files manually.

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## Example (ls)

On my computer, the results look like this:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$ ls
Desktop      Downloads    Music        Public        Videos
Documents    Dropbox      Pictures     Templates
```

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
```

These are all the SUBDIRECTORIES of my home directory.

# You are here

- Before we go exploring, let's do one more command in the home directory.



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## Example (pwd)

Print the current working directory:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$ pwd
/home/akshay
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
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Print the current working directory:

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/home/akshay
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$
```

## Definition (root directory)

The ROOT DIRECTORY is the topmost directory on the filesystem. It's often called `/`.

# Changing Directories

- The home directory isn't too interesting on its own.
- Let's go somewhere you probably know well: the Desktop!
- In Explorer or Finder you could just click on a folder to enter it.

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# Changing Directories

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- Let's go somewhere you probably know well: the Desktop!
- In Explorer or Finder you could just click on a folder to enter it.

The CHANGE DIRECTORY command is called `cd`.

## Example (cd)

Change (cd) into the Desktop directory:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad ~]$ cd Desktop  
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad Desktop]$
```

# Not Changing Directories

- There's a special name that always means "the current directory": `.`
- `cd .` says "change directory to the current directory".

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## Example (cd .)

Don't change directories:

```
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad Desktop]$ pwd
/home/akshay/Desktop
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad Desktop]$ cd .
[akshay@akshays-thinkpad Desktop]$ pwd
/home/akshay/Desktop
```



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- This is the equivalent of right-clicking and selecting "New Folder".

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## Example (mkdir)

Create a directory called “cs45-test-directory” and `cd` into it:

```
$ mkdir cs45-test-directory  
$ cd cs45-test-directory/
```

You can go back to the Desktop by typing `cd ..` or `cd ~/Desktop`.

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The REMOVE DIRECTORY command is `rmdir`.

# Directory Review

Shortcut	Name
~	Home Directory
/	Root Directory
.	Current Directory
..	Parent Directory

Table: Directory Shortcuts

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Shortcut	Name
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Table: Directory Shortcuts

Command	Description	Argument	Required
ls	List Directory	Directory Name	No, defaults to .
cd	Change Directory	Directory Name	No, defaults to ~
pwd	Print Working Directory	N/A	N/A
mkdir	Make Directory	Directory Name	Yes
rmdir	Remove Directory	Directory Name	Yes

Table: Directory Commands

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## Example (echo)

Print the text “hello, world”:

```
$ echo "hello, world"
hello, world
$
```

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The **CONCATENATE** command is called **cat**. It can also be used for input.

# Input

The CONCATENATE command is called `cat`. It can also be used for input.

## Example (cat)

Read text from the user:

```
$ cat
this is a test
this is a test
line 2
line 2
$
```

The `cat` command will print out whatever you type into it... forever. To get it to stop, you can either “kill” it by pressing CTRL-C, or tell it “end of file” by pressing CTRL-D. <sub>33</sub>

# Creating Files

- There are a few different ways to create files. Let's start with the simplest.

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The **TOUCH FILE** command is called, **touch**. While we don't care about "touching" files as such, it has the handy side effect of creating files.



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The TOUCH FILE command is called, `touch`. While we don't care about “touching” files as such, it has the handy side effect of creating files.

## Example (touch)

To create a file called “text.txt”:

```
$ touch test.txt
$ ls
test.txt
$
```

# Renaming Files

The MOVE FILE command is called `mv`. It can also be used to rename files.

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## Example (mv)

To rename a file called “text.txt” to “empty.txt”:

```
$ mv test.txt empty.txt
$ ls
empty.txt
$
```

# Deleting Files

The REMOVE FILE command is called `rm`.

This is irreversible!

This command is dangerous! It does **not** move the file to a “trash” folder; it permanently and irreversibly deletes it.

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## Example (rm)

To remove a file called “text.txt”:

```
$ rm test.txt  
$
```

# Writing to Files

- We have a problem though: the file we created is empty. We can't do much with a bunch of empty files.
- We can check this by running `ls` with a special FLAG asking for extra info (including the file size).

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## Example (`ls -l`)

To print extra information about files:

```
$ ls -l
total 0
-rw-r--r-- 1 akshay akshay 0 Dec 18 11:59 test.txt
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One very useful flag which is supported by almost every command is `--help`.



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## Example (output redirection)

To create a file called “hello.txt” with the contents `hello, world`:

```
$ echo "hello, world" > hello.txt  
$
```

To append to an existing file, you can use `>>` instead of `>`.

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- The shell also lets us REDIRECT standard input to come from a file.

## Example (input redirection)

To print a file called “hello.txt”:

```
$ cat < hello.txt  
hello, world  
$
```



# I/O(/E?)

Definition (standard input)

STANDARD INPUT (/dev/stdin) is the file from which a program reads its input.

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## Definition (standard error)

STANDARD ERROR (/dev/stderr) is the file to which a program writes its error messages.

# Redirection Operators

Operator	File	Overwrite?
<	/dev/stdin	
>	/dev/stdout	Overwrite
>>	/dev/stdout	Append
2>	/dev/stderr <sup>3</sup>	Overwrite
2>>	/dev/stderr	Append

Table: UNIX Shell Redirection Operators

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<sup>3</sup>It's uncommon to redirect standard error, but there are some valid reasons to (which we'll see later in the quarter).

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# Environment Variables

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## Definition (environment variable)

An `ENVIRONMENT VARIABLE` is a configuration value that's set globally by a program, which applies to itself and any other programs it runs.

# All the Environment Variables

The ENVIRONMENT VARIABLE command `env` prints all the environment variables which are currently set.



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## Example (env)

To print every environment variable:

```
$ env
MAIL=/var/spool/mail/akshay
PWD=/home/akshay
XDG_SESSION_TYPE=wayland
PATH=/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/sbin
HOME=/home/akshay
USERNAME=akshay
[...]
```

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- The WORD COUNT command is called `wc`.
- It has a flag `--lines` (or `-l` on Macs) which counts lines in its input instead of words.

## Example (count environment variables with a temporary file)

We can write the output into a temporary file, and give it as input to `wc`:

```
$ env > /tmp/env.txt
$ wc -l < /tmp/env.txt
78
```

# Pipes

We want to send the output of `env` into `wc -l`:

Example (count environment variables with a pipe)

We can connect the output of `env` and the input of `wc` with a PIPE:

```
$ env | wc -l  
78
```

# Benefits of Pipes

## Definition (pipe)

A PIPE is a direct connection between the output of one program and the input of another. It can be set up using the `|` (pipe) operator, which connects `stdout` of whatever is on the left with `stdin` of whatever is on the right.

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Pipes are superior to temporary files for several reasons:

- They are **parallel**: the programs on the left and right can run at the same time.

# Benefits of Pipes

## Definition (pipe)

A PIPE is a direct connection between the output of one program and the input of another. It can be set up using the `|` (pipe) operator, which connects `stdout` of whatever is on the left with `stdin` of whatever is on the right.

Pipes are superior to temporary files for several reasons:

- They are **parallel**: the programs on the left and right can run at the same time.
- They are **lazy**: the program on the right can read exactly as much data as it needs from the program on the left.

# More Piping

## Example (the first $n$ environment variables)

With the `head` command, we can extract only the first few lines from a file:

```
$ env | head --lines=3
MAIL=/var/spool/mail/akshay
PWD=/home/akshay
XDG_SESSION_TYPE=wayland
$
```

# More Piping

## Example (random numbers)

We can lazily evaluate part of an infinitely long “file” such as `/dev/random`:

```
$ cat /dev/random | hexdump | head --lines 1  
00000000 4730 003c 6c22 1d16 49ef 6eff 91b2 a9f0
```

# Outline

1. What is the Shell?
2. The UNIX Shell
3. Basic Commands
4. Pipes
5. Conclusion

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- Most commands have lots of flags and options.
- We already talked about the `--help` flag, which usually gives you a brief summary of how to use a command.

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## Example (man wc)

To open the UNIX manual page for the `wc` word-count tool:

```
$ man wc
```

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## Example (man man)

To open the UNIX manual page for the manual itself:

```
$ man man
```

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- We'll post Assignment 1 soon, but it'll only be due on Wednesday, January 19th (fourteen days from now). It'll cover Lectures 2, 3, and 4 (this week and next week)



## To be continued... (Continued)

- In the meantime: try doing file management from the terminal. We didn't cover every command you'll need, so if you don't know how to do something, try searching the manual using `apropos` or searching the web.

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- Use man pages, <http://cheat.sh/>, or <https://devhints.io/bash> to find out more about shell commands.

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## Be Careful!

The shell often doesn't warn you when you're doing dangerous things! Be sure to read the `man` page before running commands you find on the internet. Be especially careful with the REMOVE FILE command, `rm`, or when using the `>` (overwrite) operator.

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- Sometimes `sudo` won't even ask for your password!
- If you're using `sudo`, make sure you know what the command after it will do.
- `sudo` is necessary for certain tasks (we'll see some in the next few lectures), but it's always good to be careful around it.



# Sudo Warning

We trust you have received the usual lecture from the local System Administrator. It usually boils down to these three things:

- #1) Respect the privacy of others.
- #2) Think before you type.
- #3) With great power comes great responsibility.

# Interesting Commands

`head`: Get the beginning of a file (or pipe).

`tail`: Get the end of a file (or pipe).

`grep`: Search within a file.

`sed`: Find-and-replace.

`cut`: Get a specific “column” of a file (e.g., a CSV file).

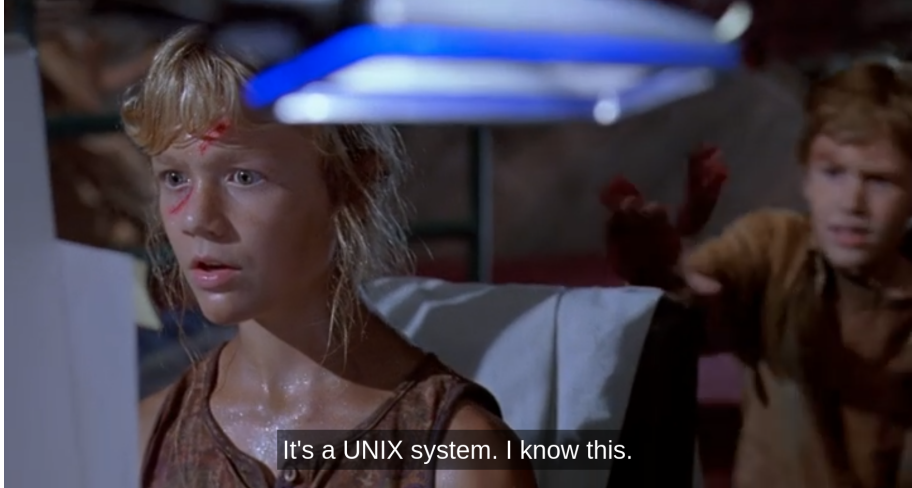
`ping`: Test your internet connection.

`sort`: Sort lines in a file.

`uniq`: Remove duplicate lines in a file.

`exit`: Exit the terminal.

# Questions?



# References

- [1] M. D. McIlroy, E. N. Pinson, and B. A. Tague. UNIX time-sharing system: Foreword. *The Bell System Technical Journal*, 57(6):1899–1904, July 1978.
- [2] Dennis M. Ritchie and Ken Thompson. The UNIX time-sharing system. *Commun. ACM*, 17(7):365–375, jul 1974.