

UNIX AND LINUX
IN INFOCOMMUNICATION
Week 5

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Text Editors

OK. We can create a file using the ‘[cat](#)’ utility and view the file using a viewer. But what if we need to change something, especially if we only have a TTY interface? And it is possible — we have a so-called line editor named ‘[ed](#)’. The only interface for such an editor is the command line: (<http://sdn.ifmo.ru/education/courses/free-libre-and-open-source-software/lectures/lecture-6>).

So let’s try to edit new file.

```
$ ed tst
tst: No such file or directory
```

At first — we will add some lines:

```
i
1 2
3 4
```

and we must end our input with one ‘dot’ per line.

```
.
```

Let’s take a look at our file, moving to the first line:

```
1
1 2

3 4

?
```

Seems good. Now we can add something to the end:

```
a
5 6
.
1
1 2
```

```
3 4
5 6
?
```

OK — we have 3 lines in the file now. And finally — let's try to make a magic pass:

```
1,$s/\(.\) \(.\)/\2 \1/
1
2 1
4 3
6 5
?
```

This means: from the first to the last line, replace the lines where we have two separate letters separated by a space, exchanging those letters with places. And now 'write' and 'quit':

```
w
12
q
```

Let's check the result:

```
$ cat tst
2 1
4 3
6 5
```

But for what purposes can you use a line editor now that we have full-screen editors with a user-friendly interface? Of course, you can imagine a situation where your full-screen environment is broken and only the line editor will be the salvation. And in general I had such situations. But the main use case for [ed](#) is for automatic editing in scripts. Anything you need to change in the

text data can be done with this editor, including sophisticated regex search and replace.

Moreover, we have a `sed` — stream editor, for editing text data in pipelines:

```
$ sed 's/\(.\) \(.\)/\2 \1/' < tst
1 2
3 4
5 6
```

As you can see, the original file does not change, all changes are simply sent to standard output:

```
$ cat tst
2 1
4 3
6 5
```

But UNIX-like systems also have full-screen editors, which can also be confusing for beginners. It was developed by Berkeley student Bill Joy for BSD initially as a visual mode for a line editor. It is a very fast and lightweight editor that is part of the Single Unix Specification and the POSIX, which found on every UNIX-like system. The `VI` editor works on all types of terminals and generally requires only a conventional letter keyboard. You can work with it without the arrow keys, PgUp/Down or anything similar. There are actually very small keyboards out there that are optimized for `vi`.

But to work on it, you need to understand the basic concept of this editor: it can be in three states (<http://sdn.ifmo.ru/education/courses/free-libre-and-open-source-software/lectures/lecture-6>).

Immediately after launch, we find ourselves in the usual `command mode` and can switch to `editing mode`, for example, by pressing the “[Insert]” key. As we can see, the mode status in the lower left corner has changed to ‘-- INSERT --’, and now we can edit our file. Pressing `Insert` again will change the state mode to ‘-- REPLACE --’ and vice versa. Exit the editing mode by pressing `ESC`. The third mode can be accessed by pressing the colon key in command mode. This is `ed` mode. In this mode, we can use the normal `ed` line editor commands and finish them with `ENTER`.

In command mode, you can find something with regex by slash and question marks, as in the `less` viewer. In improved VI (`vim`), you can use very useful

visual mode by pressing **V**. After that you can delete the selection with ‘**d**’ or just copy it with ‘**y**’ (yank). Then you can paste it anywhere with ‘**p**’ (paste). Moreover, you can use **[Ctrl-V]** to select a vertical box. To exit visual mode, simply press **ESC**.

Also you may look to [vimtutor](#) — a guide to Vim can be useful for beginners.

And the second most common editor is [Emacs](#). This Richard Stallman’s editor was the starting point for the GNU Project, along with GCC and UNIX utilities. EMACS means, for example, “Editing MACroS”. An apocryphal hacker koan alleges that the program was named after Emack&Bolio’s, a popular Cambridge ice cream store. But overall it is a really very powerful editor with macro extensions, allowing the user to override any keystrokes to launch the editor program. But unlike other editors that support macro-extensions, in Emacs they are implemented using the LISP programming language embedded on editor. At the time, LISP was very popular in artificial intelligence in the United States, and Stallman, who worked at the MIT Artificial Intelligence Lab, chose it as the editor extension language.

This implementation allows many LISP-based applications to be developed, including a user-friendly interface for developers in various programming languages. Usually Emacs is a text editor with a simple graphical interface. But it can only be run in a text environment. The most commonly used keystrokes are:

C-c C-x — exit
C-h t — tutorial
C-h i — info

If you feel overwhelmed by the difficulty of Emaccs, you can see a personal psychoanalyst: [M-x doctor](#). It would spoil the fun and hurt your recovery to say too much here about how the doctor works. But when you’re ready, you may try to find the well-known Turing-test related AI program ELIZA on WikiPedia.

Also in the UNIX/Linux world, there are many other editors that may be more convenient for you, such as:

- [joe](#), [nano](#) — simple text editors or
- [gedit](#), [kate](#) – text editors from Gnome and KDE projects

Advanced Text Utilities

Searching

If we are talking about text data, finding some text is a common task. And in fact, these are two separate tasks — to find some text inside a file or text stream and to find a file, for example, by name in some directories.

For the first task, we have the ‘[grep](#)’ utility which print lines matching a pattern.

```
man grep
```

Both fixed strings and regular expressions can be used as a pattern. Also you can do recursive search.

Another commonly used command is ‘[find](#)’ — search for files in a directory hierarchy.

```
man find
```

You must set the starting point — the directory to start the search or starting points if you are interested in several directories and expressions with search criteria and actions. You may search by name with using of standard shell matching patterns, by time of modification or access, by size, by user and group, by permissins, file type, etc. You can use logical operators such as “[and](#)”, “[or](#)” and “[not](#)” in your expressions.

Also you can do some actions when you find something that matches the criteria. The default action is ‘[print](#)’. You can also use formatted printing, list of found files, delete them, and execute commands with them. In ‘[exec](#)’ actions, you can use curly braces to insert the name of the found file. But keep in mind — you must end your command with a semicolon, and to avoid interpreting this Shell character, you must escape it with a ‘slash’ (‘/’).

But the main drawback of ‘[find](#)’ is the long execution time if you are looking in large deep directories. And to speed up this process, you can use the ‘[locate](#)’ utility. It finds files by name from databases prepared by ‘[updatedb](#)’ and does it incredibly fast. But you have to understand — ‘[updatedb](#)’ is started automatically by the cron service at night. And if you only install the ‘[lookup](#)’ toolkit or want to find something in the changed filesystem at this

time — you have to update this database manually by running ‘[updatedb](#)’.

Utilities for Manipulation with a Text Data

Another operation that we often need is comparing files or directories. And we have some tools for this.

```
man cmp
```

The ‘[cmp](#)’ utility compares the two files byte-by-byte and reports the position from which we have a difference. By this way we can compare binaries.

To compare text files ‘[diff](#)’ utility can be used:

```
man diff
```

We can compare files, directories with the ‘[--recursive](#)’ option. We can get the output as a set of commands for the ‘[ed](#)’ editor or the ‘[patch](#)’ utility. This method of propagating changes was the first in the development of projects in the UNIX ecosystem and is still useful today.

Another important action with text data is sorting, and we have the ‘[sort](#)’ utility which sort lines of text files:

```
man sort
```

To eliminate duplicate lines, we have the `uniq` utility, but first we have to sort our text stream:

```
sort file | uniq
```

We may output the first/last part of files by ‘[head](#)’ and ‘[tail](#)’ utilities. By default is the first or last 10 lines of standard input, or each FILE from arguments to standard output. You can set another number of lines as an option:

```
tail -15
```

Also in ‘[tail](#)’ you can use the ‘[--follow](#)’ option to display the appended data as the file grows.

More that, from text lines you can cut some fields, separated by some kind of separators by ‘[cut](#)’ utility.

Also you can join lines of two files on a common field by ‘[join](#)’ utility and merge lines of files by ‘[paste](#)’.

And finally, we have ‘[awk](#)’, a scanning and templating language that can do this and other complex work on text files or streams.

Networking history

UUCP

From the very beginning of the development of computer communication technologies, UNIX has been closely associated with them. Historically, the first worldwide network to operate over conventional dial-up telephone lines was created in the late 1970s at At&T and called [UUCP](#) — “UNIX to UNIX copy”. And in 1979, two students at Duke University, [Tom Truscott](#) and [Jim Ellis](#), originated the idea of using Bourne shell scripts to transfer news and mail messages on a serial line UUCP connection with nearby University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. Following public release of the software in 1980, the mesh of UUCP hosts forwarding on the Usenet news rapidly expanded and named [UUCPnet](#).

Technically, in the beginning, these could be dial-up modems, simply attached to the telephone tubes with suction cups which makes connects on hundreds of bits per second speed with very unstable connection. Even so, on this stage UNIX offered a fully functional network with the ability to remotely execute commands and transfer data over a complex mesh network topology.

UUCP provided just two main utilities:

- [uucp](#) — system-to-system copy
- [uux](#) — remote command execution

It was a very simple addressing scheme with no dynamic routing or anything similar, and the command to do something on a remote machine with files hosted on other machines might look like this:

```
uux 'diff sys1!~user1/file1 sys2!~user2/file2 >!file.diff'
```


Fetch the two named files from system `sys1` and system `sys2` and execute `diff` putting the result in `file.diff` in the current directory. It's funny, this addressing is still supported, for example, by the “`sendmail`” mail system, which adds some complexity to MTA.

TCP/IP

The development of modern networks began with research sponsored by the military Advanced Research Projects Agency (now DARPA) — [ARPANET](#) started in the late 1960s. The main goal of the development was systems that could withstand operation if partially destroyed, for example, as a result of a nuclear war. The main idea of the developed theoretical model was distributed adaptive switching of message blocks.

Research was carried out in some universities and companies, and as a result, the [TCP/IP](#) protocol was developed in the mid-70s. Its open source implementation on BSD UNIX in June 1989 spread it around the world and made it the backbone of the Internet. And we now have a mature 30-year-old worldwide network with dynamic routing, rich protocol stacks, and ready-to-use applications. The spread of this technology is now so great that the 32-bit address space of Internet Protocol version 4 ([IPv4](#)) is not enough now, and we are moving to 128-bit [IPv6](#).

Traditional Network Utilities

In the world of [TCP/IP](#) Network, other programs have been developed that are still relevant in some cases, classical Internet programs:

- [telnet](#) — user interface to the TELNET protocol
- [ftp](#) — ARPANET file transfer program
- [mail](#) — send and receive mail

Again we have a tool for remote execution and a tool for data transfer.

Generally, telnet just gives us a connection to the TELNET protocol server:

```
man telnet
```

It's just a CLI for another host and this protocol still used for access to some hardware devices. Moreover, you can use it for debugging by connecting to other servers by choosing of TCP server's port. On modern systems, you can use the lighter 'nc' utility, [netcat](#). For example let's try to play with [HTTP](#) protocol:

```
$ telnet google.com 80
Trying 173.194.73.101...
Connected to google.com.
Escape character is '^]'.
GET /index.html HTTP/1.1
```

To switch to telnet command mode, press the “[Ctrl-\]](#)” key. Here we can ask for help and exit, for example, if the program on the other side is frozen:

```
telnet> h
Commands may be abbreviated. Commands are:
close    close current connection
logout   forcibly logout remote user and close the connection
display  display operating parameters
mode     try to enter line or character mode ('mode ?' for more)
open     connect to a site
quit     exit telnet
send     transmit special characters ('send ?' for more)
set      set operating parameters ('set ?' for more)
unset    unset operating parameters ('unset ?' for more)
status   print status information
toggle   toggle operating parameters ('toggle ?' for more)
slc      set treatment of special characters

z        suspend telnet
environ  change environment variables ('environ ?' for more)
telnet> q
Connection closed.
```

[FTP](#) or [File Transfer Protocol](#) is another well-known part of the networked world of the Internet. It is still supported by some internet servers and is

also built into some devices. We can access the FTP server through a regular web browser as well as through the `ftp` utility:

```
man ftp
```

In some cases, the latter variant is preferable, because, for example, we may want to restore a file or upload/download many files. First, we have to log into the FTP server. Let's try to do this as an anonymous user:

```
$ ftp ftp.funet.fi
Name (ftp.funet.fi:user): ftp
331 Any password will work
Password:
```

In this case any password will work, but often FTP-server wait email address as a password.

FTP has its own command line interface where we can ask for help:

```
ftp> ?
Commands may be abbreviated. Commands are:

!      dir mdelete qc site
$      disconnect mdir sendport size
account exit mget put status
append form mkdir pwd struct
ascii get mls quit system
bell glob mode quote sunique
binary hash modtime recv tenex
bye help mput reget tick
case idle newer rstatus trace
cd image nmap rhelp type
cdup ipany nlist rename user
chmod ipv4 ntrans reset umask
close ipv6 open restart verbose
cr lcd prompt rmdir ?
delete ls passive runique
debug macdef proxy send
ftp>
```

We can first determine our current directory, and as we understand it, we have two current directories: remote and local. We can get the remote directory with the standard `'pwd'` command. To get the current local directory we can use the same command preceded by an exclamation mark. This means — call this command on the local computer. You may change directory remotely by `'cd'` and local directory by `'lcd'`.

We can get a list of remote directory using the well-known `'ls'` command. And what about local `'ls'`? Yes — just preced it by an exclamation mark. This means — run the program locally. If you have sufficient permissions, you can download file by `'get'` command and upload by `'put'`, but only a single file. If you want to work with multiple files, you will need to use the `'mget'`/`'mput'` commands.

In this case, it makes sense to disable the questions about confirming operations using the `prompt` command. Also switching to binary mode using the `bin` command can be important for the Microsoft client system. Otherwise, you may receive a corrupted file.

Finally, you can use the `'reget'` command to try to continue downloading the file after an interrupted transfer. And the `'hash'` command toggle the 'hash' printing for each transmitted data block, which can be informative if the connection to the server is poor.

Another useful scripting program is `'mail'`, which is a simple command line client for sending email:

```
$ mail user@localhost
Subject: test
This is a test!
.
```

The mail message must end with one `'dot'` per line.

Internet Tools

OK. But what about modern Internet world?

The main problem with these classic `'telnet'` and `'ftp'` tools is insecurity: the user and password are transmitted over the network in plain text and

can be hijacked by an evil hacker. Today they have practically been replaced by the [Secure Shell](#) utilities. Secure Shell provides secure, encrypted communication between untrusted hosts on an unsecured network. And again we have a remote Shell and transfer tool:

- [ssh](#) — SSH client (remote login program)
- [scp](#) — secure copy (remote file copy program)

```
man ssh
```

In [ssh](#), you must specify the host and can set user and port. If you don't set a user, by default you will try to log in with the same name as the local user. Alternatively, you can add the command you want to run remotely directly to the command line, without that ssh will just start an interactive shell session on the remote host.

'[scp](#)' copies files between hosts on a network. It uses the same authentication and provides the same security as ssh, also data transfer encrypted by ssh. You also may choose a port, you can use compression while transferring.

Secure Shell utilities can be configured for passwordless authentication using certificates.

Internet Data-transfer Utilities

Finally, there are many tools that can be used to non-interactively access network resources in scripts.

The first is the '[lynx](#)' text web browser. With the "[-dump](#)" parameter, it dumps the text formatted output of the URL of the WEB resource to standard output. This output can then be used when processing the web page in a script.

Also we have non-interactive network downloaders — '[wget](#)' and '[curl](#)'. These tools can be used to download and mirror online resources offline.

'[lftp](#)' — sophisticated file transfer program with different access methods — [FTP](#), [FTPS](#), [HTTP](#), [HTTPS](#), [HFTP](#), [FISH](#), [SFTP](#) and [file](#).

And finally '[rsync](#)' — remote (and local) file-copying tool which reduces the amount of data sent over the network by sending only the differences

between the source files and the existing files in the destination. [Rsync](#) is widely used for backups and mirroring and as an improved copy command for everyday use. There are two different ways for [rsync](#) to contact a remote system: using a remote-shell program as the transport (such as ssh or rsh) or contacting an rsync daemon directly via [TCP](#).