

FACULTY OF TELECOMMUNICATION AND INFORMATION ENGINEERING



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Operating systems

LINUX SHELLS

LAB MANUAL 4

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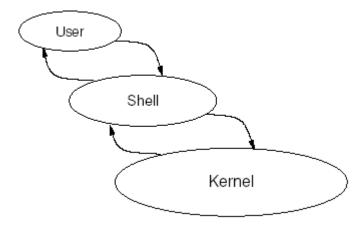
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Lab objective

This lab will give overview of Linux shells. You will get insight of 'bash' shell.

Shells

- ♣ A **shell** provides an interface between the user and the operating system kernel
- **♣** Either a **command interpreter** or a graphical user interface
- **◄** Traditional Unix shells are **command-line interfaces** (CLIs)
- ♣ Usually started automatically when you log in or open a terminal



The Bash Shell

Linux's most popular command interpreter is called bash

- **4** The **Bourne-Again Shell**
 - o More sophisticated than the original sh by Steve Bourne
 - o Can be run as sh, as a replacement for the original Unix shell
 - o Gives you a prompt and waits for a command to be entered
- ♣ Although this course concentrates on Bash, the shell tesh is also popular
 - o Based on the design of the older C Shell (csh)

Shell Commands

- ♣ Shell commands entered consist of words
 - o Separated by spaces (whitespace)



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- The first word is the command to run
- o Subsequent words are options or arguments to the command
- ♣ For several reasons, some commands are built into the shell itself
 - Called builtins
 - Only a small number of commands are builtins, most are separate programs

Command-Line Arguments

- ♣ The words after the command name are passed to a command as a list of arguments
- ♣ Most commands group these words into two categories:
 - o Options, usually starting with one or two hyphens
 - o Filenames, directories, etc., on which to operate
- The options usually come first, but for most commands they do not need to
- ♣ There is a special option '--' which indicates the end of the options
 - Nothing after the double hyphen is treated as an option, even if it starts
 with -

Syntax of Command-Line Options

- ♣ Most Unix commands have a consistent syntax for options:
 - o Single letter options start with a hyphen, e.g., -B
 - Less cryptic options are whole words or phrases, and start with two hyphens, for example
 - --ignore-backups
 - o For example, long options (not single letters) sometimes start with a single
 - rather than --



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Examples of Command-Line Options

↓ List all the files in the current directory:

\$ ls

♣ List the files in the 'long format' (giving more information):

\$ ls -1

↓ List full information about some specific files:

\$ ls -l notes.txt report.txt

List full information about all the .txt files:

\$ ls -1 *.txt

↓ List all files in long format, even the hidden ones:

\$ ls -1 -a

\$ ls -la

Setting Shell Variables

- **Shell variables** can be used to store temporary values
- ♣ Set a shell variable's value as follows:

\$ files="notes.txt report.txt"

- o The double quotes are needed because the value contains a space
- o Easiest to put them in all the time
- ♣ Print out the value of a shell variable with the echo command:

\$ echo \$files

- The dollar (\$) tells the shell to insert the variable's value into the command line
- ♣ Use the set command (with no arguments) to list all the shell variables

Environment Variables

♣ Shell variables are private to the shell



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- ♣ A special type of shell variables called **environment variables** are passed to programs run from the shell
- ♣ A program's **environment** is the set of environment variables it can access
 - o In Bash, use export to export a shell variable into the environment:
 - \$ files="notes.txt report.txt"
 - \$ export files
 - Or combine those into one line:
 - \$ export files="notes.txt report.txt"
- **♣** The env command lists environment variables

Where Programs are found

- **♣** The location of a program can be specified explicitly:
 - o ./sample runs the sample program in the current directory
 - o /bin/ls runs the ls command in the /bin directory
- ♣ Otherwise, the shell looks in standard places for the program
 - o The variable called PATH lists the directories to search in
 - o Directory names are separated by colon, for example:

\$ echo \$PATH

/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin

So running whoami will run /bin/whoami or /usr/bin/whoami or /usr/local/bin/whoami (whichever is found first)

Bash Configuration Variables

- ♣ Some variables contain information which Bash itself uses
 - The variable called PS1 (Prompt String 1) specifies how to display the shell prompt
- ♣ Use the echo command with a \$ sign before a variable name to see its value, e.g.



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\$ echo \$PS1

 $[\u(a)\h\W]\$

- ♣ The special characters \u, \h and \W represent shell variables containing, respectively, your user/login name, machine's hostname and current working directory, i.e.,
 - o \$USER, \$HOSTNAME, \$PWD

Using History

- ♣ Previously executed commands can be edited with the Up or Ctrl+P keys
- This allows old commands to be executed again without re-entering
- **♣** Bash stores a **history** of old commands in memory
 - o Use the built-in command history to display the lines remembered
 - History is stored between sessions in the file 7.bash history
- ♣ Bash uses the readline library to read input from the user
 - o Allows Emacs-like editing of the command line
 - o Left and Right cursor keys and Delete work as expected

Reusing History Items

- ♣ Previous commands can be used to build new commands, using history expansion

\$ rm index.html

\$ echo !!

echo rm index.html

rm index.html

■ More often useful is !string, which inserts the most recent command which started with string



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• Useful for repeating particular commands without modification:

\$ ls *.txt

notes.txt report.txt

\$!ls

ls *.txt

notes.txt report.txt

Retrieving Arguments from the History

♣ The event designator !\$ refers to the last argument of the previous command:

\$ ls -l long_file_name.html

-rw-r--r-- 1 jeff users 11170 Feb 20 10:47 long file name.html

\$ rm !\$

rm long file name.html

♣ Similarly, !^ refers to the first argument

Summary of Bash Editing Keys

- **♣** These are the basic editing commands by default:
 - o Right move cursor to the right
 - Left move cursor to the left
 - o Up previous history line
 - o Down next history line
 - o Ctrl+A move to start of line
 - o Ctrl+E move to end of line
 - o Ctrl+D delete current character
- → There are alternative keys, as for the Emacs editor, which can be more comfortable to use than the cursor keys



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♣ There are other, less often used keys, which are documented in the bash man page (section 'Readline')

Combining Commands on One Line

- ¥ You can write multiple commands on one line by separating them with;
- Useful when the first command might take a long time: time-consuming-program; ls
- ♣ Alternatively, use && to arrange for subsequent commands to run only if earlier ones succeeded:
 - time-consuming-potentially-failing-program && ls

Repeating Commands with 'for'

- - O Structure: for varname in list; do commands...; done
- **♣** For example, to rename all .txt files to .txt.old :

```
$ for file in *.txt;
```

> do

> mv -v \$file \$file.old;

> done

barbie.txt -> barbie.txt.old

food.txt -> food.txt.old

quirks.txt -> quirks.txt.old

♣ The command above could also be written on a single line

Command Substitution

Command substitution allows the output of one command to be used as arguments to another



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- For example, use the locate command to find all files called *manual.html* and print information about them with ls:
 - \$ ls -l \$(locate manual.html)
 - \$ ls -l 'locate manual.html'
- ♣ The punctuation marks on the second form are opening single quote characters, called backticks
 - o The \$() form is usually preferred, but backticks are widely used
- ♣ Line breaks in the output are converted to spaces

Finding Files More Flexibly: 'find'

- ♣ locate only finds files by name
- ♣ find can find files by any combination of a wide number of criteria, including name
- Structure: find directories criteria
- **♣** Simplest possible example: find .
- ♣ Finding files with a simple criterion:

\$ find . -name manual.html

Looks for files under the current directory whose name is manual.html

→ The *criteria* always begin with a single hyphen, even though they have long names

'find' Criteria

- find accepts many different criteria; two of the most useful are:
 - -name pattern: selects files whose name matches the shell-style wildcard pattern
 - o -type d, -type f: select directories or plain files, respectively
- ♣ You can have complex selections involving 'and', 'or', and 'not'



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'find' Actions: Executing Programs

- # find lets you specify an action for each file found; the default action is simply to print out the name
 - o You can alternatively write that explicitly as -print
- ♣ Other actions include executing a program; for example, to delete all files whose name starts
- ♣ with manual:

 find . -name 'manual*' -exec rm '{}' ':'
- ♣ The command rm '{}' is run for each file, with '{}' replaced by the filename
- ♣ The {} and ; are required by find, but must be quoted to protect them from the shell

Exercises

Q1

- a. Use the df command to display the amount of used and available space on your hard drive.
- b. Check the man page for df, and use it to find an option to the command which will display the free space in a more human-friendly form. Try both the single-letter and long-style options.
- c. Run the shell, bash, and see what happens. Remember that you were already running it to start with. Try leaving the shell you have started with the exit command.

$\mathbf{Q2}$

- a. Try ls with the -a and -A options. What is the difference between them?
- b. Write a for loop which goes through all the files in a directory and prints out their names with echo. If you write the whole thing on one line, then it will be easy to repeat it using the command line history.



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- c. Change the loop so that it goes through the names of the people in the room (which needn't be the names of files) and print greetings to them.
- d. Of course, a simpler way to print a list of filenames is echo *. Why might this be useful, when we usually use the ls command?

Q3

- a. Use the find command to list all the files and directories under your home directory. Try the -type d and -type f criteria to show just files and just directories.
- b. Use 'locate' to find files whose name contains the string 'bashbug'. Try the same search with find, looking over all files on the system. You'll need to use the * wildcard at the end of the pattern to match files with extensions.
- c. Find out what the find criterion -iname does.