## Unix background

### COMP9021, Session 2, 2015

## 1 Introduction

Using the Terminal application, open an x-term window. You type your commands in an x-term window.

- Many commands take one or more *arguments*.
- Many commands can take one or more *options*.
- The *short* options start with one hyphen (-) followed by one letter, and sometimes an argument for the option.
- The *long* options start with one or two hyphens (- or --) followed by a string (word or sequence of words usually separated with a hyphen), and sometimes an argument for the option.
- Many short options that do not take an argument can be combined together, with one hyphen followed by the letters of the options.
- Many arguments are *optional*.

# 2 A few Unix commands

Try the following commands.

- date.
- cal (no argument), cal 2015 (one argument), cal 8 2015 (two arguments).
- pwd to print the working directory, which after you have logged in and before you have done anything, is also your *home directory*.
- 1s to list the *files* (of which *directories* are a particular case) in the working directory, excluding the *hidden files* whose name starts with a dot (these are usually configuration files that are seldom modified or read).
- 1s -a (one short option) to list all files in the working directory.
- 1s -1 to get a long listing of the files in the working directory, excluding the hidden files.
  - The most common characters for the first character are for a regular file, and d for a directory.

- The next three characters indicate whether the file is *readable* (**r**) or not (-), *writable* (**w**) or not (-), and *executable* (**x**) or not (-) by the *owner* of the file.
- The next three characters provide the same information for the users who belong to the same *group* as the owner of the file.
- The next three characters provide the same information for all other users.
- 1s -1 -a or 1s -a -1 or 1s -1a or 1s -al to use 1s with both short options.
- mkdir followed by a number of directory names to make (create) some directories. The names can be either
  - *absolute paths*, that start with the string that pwd returns when it is executed in your home directory;
  - paths that are *implicitly relative* to the working directory;
  - paths that are *explicitly relative* to the working directory, starting with ./;
  - paths that are explicitly relative to the *parent* of the working directory, starting with .../. More generally, ... can be used in paths to go one level higher in the *hierarchy* of directories;
  - paths that are explicitly relative to your home directory, starting with  $(\sim)$ .

For instance, assume that pwd, when executed in your home directory, prints out

#### /import/kamen/1/aussie278

So your user name is aussie278. Assume that your home directory contains a subdirectory named COMP9021 which itself contains a subdirectory named Labs. Finally, assume that your working directory is the subdirectory COMP9021 of your home directory. So pwd, executed in this working directory, outputs

#### /import/kamen/1/aussie278/COMP9021

Now assume that you want to create the subdirectories Quizzes, Assignments and Lectures of the subdirectory COMP9021 of your home directory, a subdirectory COMP9311 of the home directory, and a subdirectory Lectures of the directory COMP9311. Then corresponding to the 5 options listed above, you could execute:

- mkdir /import/kamen/1/aussie278/COMP9021/Quizzes
- mkdir Assignments
- mkdir ./../COMP9311
- mkdir ../COMP9021/Lectures
- mkdir ~/COMP9311/Lectures

Of course, rather than the first, third and fourth commands above, it would be more natural and effective to execute instead:

- mkdir Quizzes
- mkdir ../COMP9311 or mkdir ~/COMP9311

- mkdir Lectures

- touch followed by a number of file names to create empty files or to modify the *last modifica*tion date of existing files. When creating empty files, > is a simpler alternative to touch. For instance, to create two files *file\_name1* and *file\_name2* in the working directory you can type either touch *file\_name1 file\_name2* or >*file\_name1 > file\_name2* (with or without spaces after >).
- cd to change (go to another) directory. This command can be followed by:
  - no argument, in which case the new directory is the home directory;
  - an absolute path name;
  - a pathname that is implicitly relative to the working directory;
  - a pathname that, starting with ./, is explicitly relative to the working directory;
  - a pathname that, starting with .../, is explicitly relative to the parent of the working directory.
  - a pathname that, starting with  $\sim/$ , is explicitly relative to your home directory.

For instance, assume that your working directory is ~/COMP9021/Labs, that is, the subdirectory Labs of the subdirectory COMP9021 of your home directory. Also assume that you first want to go to your home directory, and from there to the directory ~/COMP9021, and from there to ~/COMP9021/Quizzes, and from there to ~/COMP9311/Lectures, and from there to ~/COMP9021/Lectures, and from there to ~/COMP9021. Then corresponding to the 6 options listed above, you could execute:

- cd
- cd /import/kamen/1/aussie278/COMP9021
- cd Quizzes
- cd ./../COMP9311/Lectures
- cd ../COMP9021/Lectures
- cd ~/COMP9021

Of course, rather than the second, fourth and sixth commands above, it would be more natural and effective to execute instead:

- cd COMP9021
- cd ../COMP9311/Lectures or cd ~/COMP9311/Lectures
- $cd \ldots$
- mv file\_name directory\_name to move the file file\_name to the directory directory\_name, where file\_name and directory\_name can be either relative or absolute paths.
- cp file\_name1 file\_name2 to copy the file file\_name1 and give it the name file\_name2, where file\_name1 and file\_name2 can be either relative or absolute paths.
- cp file\_name directory\_name to copy the file file\_name in the directory directory\_name, where file\_name and directory\_name can be either relative or absolute paths.

- **rmdir** followed with some directory paths to **remove** those **directories**, provided that they are *empty*, *i.e.*, do not contain any file.
- rm followed with some regular file paths to remove those files.
- **rm** -**r** followed with some directory paths, *i.e.*, the previous command provided with one short option and directory paths as arguments, to **r**ecursively remove those directories and everything they contain, down to any depth. To be used with utmost care...

*Command completion* is a useful feature of the *bash shell*, the command-line interpretation we are using. By pressing the **tab** key, you let bash complete what you are typing. For instance, suppose that you want to go from the working directory to a subdirectory whose name starts with COMP. Suppose that you type cd COMP.

- If only one subdirectory has a name that starts with COMP, say COMP9021, then pressing the tab key after cd COMP automatically completes the command to cd COMP9021.
- If no subdirectory has a name that starts with COMP, then pressing the tab key again and again after cd COMP will just make your computer beep, or flash, or complain in some way.
- If many subdirectories have a name that starts with COMP, then pressing the tab key once after cd COMP will make your computer complain, but pressing the tab key a second time will display the list of all subdirectories whose name starts with COMP, and let display cd with its incomplete argument again, giving you hints on how to complete it partially or totally.

You can also use the uparrow and the downarrow of your keyboard to retrieve commands you have typed previously.

### 2.1 The chmod command

Recall from previous section what the ls -l command outputs. When you want to change the permissions of some file, you use the chmod command to change the mode of the file.

- With the options, +r, +w or +x, you make (or keep) the file readable, writable or executable, respectively.
- With the options, -r, -w or -x, you make (or keep) the file nonreadable, nonwritable or nonexecutable, respectively.
- Depending on which system you work on, the previous options might change the permissions for everyone, or for just the owner of the file. To restrict the change to the owner of the file, to the members of the group to which the owner of the file belongs, and to the other users, prefix the option with u (like user), g (like group), or o (like other), respectively.
- The options can be combined. For instance, chmod go-wx *file\_name* will prevent the members of the group and the other users to write and execute the file *file\_name*.

### 2.2 The tar command

tar is used to put together a number of files into a single file, called an *archive*, possibly compressed so that it takes less space. It is also used to perform the inverse operation of creating a hierarchical structure of files from a single, possibly compressed, archive. Finally, it can be used to display the contents of an archive.

- You create a compressed (zipped) archive
  - of all files stored in a directory directory\_name, by executing

tar czf archive\_name.tar.gz directory\_name

- of the files *filename\_1...filename\_n*, by executing

tar czf archive\_name.tar.gz filename\_1...filename\_n

which will create a file whose name is archive\_name.tar.gz.

- You display the contents of an archive *archive\_name.tar.gz* by executing the command tar tzf *file\_name.tar.gz*, where t stands for table of contents.
- You obtain the files from which an archive *archive\_name.tar.gz* has been created by executing tar xzf *archive\_name.tar.gz*, where x stands for extract.

Note the extensions we have been using: .tar.gz that indicates a compressed (.gz) archive (.tar). Sometimes, you will only want to compress or uncompress a single file; the commands gzip and gunzip will do the job, respectively.

## 3 Wildcards

Wildcard save you from typing too many characters. Here are some example of uses of the wildcards \*, ? and [numbers\_or\_range\_of\_numbers]:

- 1s \* gives a listing of all files and directories in the working directory.
- ls file\*.c gives a listing of all files whose name starts with file and ends in .c, with any characters (possibly none) in between (so it would match file.c, file2.c, ...).
- 1s file?3.c gives a listing of all files whose name starts with file and ends in 3.c, with exactly one character in between (so it would match file13.c, fileA3.c, ...).
- 1s file??.c gives a listing of all files whose name starts with file and ends in .c, with exactly two characters in between (so it would match file12.c, file1B.c, ...).
- ls file[13].c gives a listing of all files whose name starts with file and ends in .c, with either 1 or 3 in between (so it would match file1.c and file3.c).

• ls file[1-3].c gives a listing of all files whose name starts with file and ends in .c, with either 1, 2 or 3 in between (so it would match file1.c, file2.c and file3.c).

Of course, wildcard can be used with any command, not just 1s.