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Experiment #2 Shells - editors - pipes under Linux

0.1 Introduction

The experiment intends to make students at ease working under Linux: Expose the different shells and to the most popular text editors.

The power of Linux will be better illustrated if we combine several commands to get a more useful output. Examples will be provided on how to use these commands and better manipulate the obtained output.

0.2 Objectives

The objectives of the experiment is to learn the following:

- Get knowledge on the different available shells.
- Show how multiple commands can be combined through piping.
- Tackle more commands.
- Provide examples on how to use these commands.

0.2.1 Shells

The shell sits between you and the operating system, acting as a command interpreter. It reads your terminal input and translates the commands into actions taken by the system. The shell is analogous to **command.com** in DOS. When you log into the system you are given a default shell. When the shell starts up it reads its startup files and may set environment variables, command search paths, and command aliases, and executes any commands specified in these files.

The original shell was the Bourne shell, **sh**. Every Unix platform will either have the Bourne shell, or a Bourne compatible shell available. It has very good features for controlling input and output, but is not well suited for the interactive user. To meet the latter need the C shell, **csh**, was written and is now found on most, but not all, Unix systems.

Numerous other shells are available from the network. Almost all of them are based on either **sh** or **csh** with extensions to provide job control to sh, allow in-line editing of commands, page through previously executed commands, provide command name completion and custom prompt, etc. Some of the more well known of these may be on your favorite Unix system: the Korn shell, **ksh**, by David Korn and the Bourne Again SHell, **bash**, from the Free Software Foundations GNU project, both based on sh, the T-C shell, **tcsh**, and the extended C shell, **cshe**, both based on **csh**.

The shells have a number of **built-in**, or native commands. These commands are executed directly in the shell and dont have to call another program to be run. These built-in commands are different for the different shells.

As mentioned in the previous experiment, the following files will be *sourced* (read) when you either log on to the system or open a new command window:

- If your shell is **sh** (Bourne shell), your hidden file's name is .profile.
- If your shell is **bash**, your hidden file's name is .bashrc.
- If your shell is **csh**, your hidden file's name is .cshrc.
- If your shell is tcsh, your hidden file's name is .tcshrc.

The default shell for users is set in the file **passwd** that can be found under folder /etc. The file is in text mode and can be read by any user. However, only the **root** is allowed to change its content.

To do:

Open the file /etc/passwd and check on the default shell that is assigned to you.

0.3 Text editors

There are multiple text editors under Linux. Each of them present some advantages over others. However, they all do a neat job and selecting a particular text editor is just a matter of personal taste. Some text editors are described below:

- vi: This is a console based plain text editor. It comes with every Linux/Unix installation which is an advantage. It is command-based.
- **vim:** This console based plain text editor supports syntax highlighting and numerous plug-ins for specialized configurations and features.
- **emacs:** This console based plain text editor supports the theory that more is better. It tries to support every feature possible. Emacs is a very powerful editor, though command-based.
 - pico: A console based plain text editor.
- gedit: This is the default text editor for the Linux Gnome desktop. It supports syntax highlighting, printing, a variety of plug-ins, multi-language spell check, tabbed for multiple files, etc.

0.4 More on commands

As mentioned before, Linux is mostly command-based. You need to know as many commands as you can so as to feel at ease navigating the filesystem and manipulating directories, files and data. Keep in mind that the power of Linux doesn't come only from the rich set of commands it has but also from the different options that these commands take as argument. The output display of a specific command will be formatted differently if supplied with different options. Let's consider some of the commands that you will encounter so frequently:

• which command: Shows the full path of (shell) commands. It can be helpful if you need to locate command.

Example:

which ls

• sort command: Sort lines of text files.

Example:

```
touch sort.txt
echo "13" >> sort.txt
echo "12" >> sort.txt
```

```
echo "140" >> sort.txt
echo "20" >> sort.txt
echo "1" >> sort.txt
echo "12" >> sort.txt
sort sort.txt
You'll note that the sort occurs based on text.
To do sorting numerically, execute:
sort -n sort.txt
To redirect the output to a file:
sort -n sort.txt >> sort_new.txt
Or you can use the option -o with the command sort as follows:
sort -n sort.txt -o sort_new.txt
```

- uniq command: You would have noticed that enry 12 is repeated twice in the above example. To remove duplicates, you can use the uniq command on sorted files as follows: uniq sort_new.txt sort_uniq.txt
- grep command: Print lines matching a pattern. The grep command is useful when you need to search in a folder, file or set of files for a particular pattern. For example, assume you have the file sort.txt that you created in the previous step. To search for the pattern 12 in file sort.txt, you execute:

grep 12 sort.txt

If you need to look for the pattern 12 in all files under the current foler, you execute:

grep 12 *

where ***** is a wild card that refers to any file.

To look for the pattern 12 in all files with extension txt, you execute:

grep 12 *.txt

The behavior of the command grep can be inverted if used with option -v. In that case, all lines that do not include the pattern will get displayed. For example, if you execute:

grep -v 12 sort.txt

you'll get on the standard output all the lines of file **sort.txt** that do not include the pattern **12**.

A useful option with command grep is the -n which prefixes each line of output with the line number within its input file:

grep -n 12 sort.txt

Below are some examples on how to use the command grep. You'll notice that it gets very useful once combined with *regular expressions*. We'll see more about regular expressions going forward:

grep	'[A-Z]' sort.txt	Lines from sort.txt containing a capital letter
grep	'[0-9]' sort.txt	Lines from sort.txt containing a number
grep	'[A-Z][0-9]' sort.txt	Lines from sort.txt containing five-character
		patterns that start with a capital letter and end with a digit
grep	'\.pic\$' filelist	Lines from sort.txt that end in .pic

• **ps** command: Report process status. If run without options, the command **ps** will report about the current processes that are owned by the user. An example on the output of the command **ps** can be as follows:

PID TTY	TIME CMD
2532 pts/1	00:00:00 tcsh
2549 pts/1	00:00:00 ps

In the above example, we can notice that the user has 2 running processes: tcsh and ps with PIDs 2532 and 2549 respectively.

To see every process on the system using standard syntax, use the option -e (select all processes) or the combined options -ef. The option -f gives full-format listing.

An example on the output of the command **ps** -ef can be as follows:

UID	PID	PPID	C SI	CIME	TTY	TIME	E CMD
root	1	0	0 14	1:30	?	00:00:03	3 init [5]
root	2	1	0 14	1:30	?	00:00:00) [ksoftirqd/0]
root	3	1	0 14	1:30	?	00:00:00) [watchdog/0]
root	4	1	0 14	1:30	?	00:00:00) [events/0]
root	5	1	0 14	1:30	?	00:00:00	[khelper]
root	2244	2076	0 14	1:32	?	00:00:00) /usr/bin/gdm-binary -nodaemon
root	2290	2244	0 14	1:32	?	00:00:00) /usr/bin/gdm-binary -nodaemon
root	2295	2290	0 14	1:32	?	00:00:04	/usr/X11R6/bin/X :0 -audit 0 -au
gdm	2330	2290	0 14	1:32	?	00:00:02	2 /usr/bin/gdmgreeter
root	2331	1926	0 14	1:32	?	00:00:00) in.tftpd -s /tftpboot
root	2494	1926	0 14	1:37	?	00:00:00) telnetd
root	2495	2494	0 14	1:37	pts/1	00:00:00) login -h bzurt -p
user	2532	2495	0 14	1:39	pts/1	00:00:00) -tcsh
user	2790	2532	0 14	1:47	pts/1	00:00:00) ps -ef

Note the different columns that you get when running ps -ef. In particular, the column 1 refers to the process owner, column 2 shows the PID for each process and column 3 shows the parent ID for each process. Note as well that the Linux OS refers to each process by its unique PID and *not* by the process name.

• kill command: Send signals to processes. The default signal is the SIGINT which interrupts the execution of processes.

The kill command takes a particular process ID as argument. It can be used as follows: kill PID_num

where PID_num refers to a current process ID.

If a particular process hangs, you need to run the command **ps** as described above in order to get its PID and then you terminate it using the command kill.

Note that the command kill can send different signals to processes. Below is a shortlist for some of these signals (to see the list of all signals, execute kill -1):

SIGHUP	1	hangup
SIGINT	2	interrupt
SIGQUIT	3	quit
SIGILL	4	illegal instruction (not reset when caught)
SIGTRAP	5	ctrace trap (not reset when caught)
SIGABRT	6	used by abort
SIGEMT	7	EMT instruction
SIGFPE	8	floating point exception
SIGKILL	9	kill (cannot be caught or ignored)
SIGBUS	10	bus error
SIGSEGV	11	segmentation violation
SIGSYS	12	bad argument to system call
SIGPIPE	13	write on a pipe with no one to read it
SIGALRM	14	alarm clock
SIGTERM	15	software termination signal from kill
SIGURG	16	urgent condition on IO channel

To send a particular signal to a process, you can send it by the number. For example, you can send the signal SIGALRM to a process that has the PID 1234 as follows:

kill -14 1234

Alternatively, you can the signal by name after removing the prefix SIG as follows:

kill -ALRM 1234

Note:

To kill the last process that has been executed, you can use the shortcut % as follows: kill %

The symbol % will be replaced by the PID of the last executed process.

0.4.1 The wc command

The command wc counts the number of words in a file. the command can be used as well to count the number of lines, characters, or words in a file. We'll illustrate its use in an example:

- Create a file called wc.txt.
- Execute the following command 5 times:
 - echo "My name is coco" >> wc.txt
- Execute the following command:

```
wc wc.txt
```

You'll notice that you get 3 integers. These are respectively the number of lines, number of words and number of characters in the file wc.txt.

- If you want to get only the number of lines in file wc.txt, use the -1 option of the command wc as follows:
 - wc -l wc.txt
- If you want to get the number of words in file wc.txt, use the -w option of the command wc as follows:
 - wc -w wc.txt

• If you want to get the number of characters in file wc.txt, use the -c option of the command wc as follows:

wc -c wc.txt

0.5 Pipes

Suppose you want to count the number of files and directories contained in your home directory. One way to do that is to execute the following¹:

- Execute the command:
 - ls -l >> file.txt
- Execute the command:
 - wc -l file.txt

The trick is that the command ls -l will return one line for each file/directory. The command wc -l will count the number of lines.

Another approach to determine the number of files/directories in your home directory bypasses the use of files. the Unix/Linux OS allows you to effectively connect two commands together. This connection is known as a *pipe*, and it enables you to take the output from one command and feed it directly into the input of another command. A pipe is effected by the character |, which is placed between the two commands. As such, the 2 above steps can be combined using pipes as follows:

ls -l | wc -l

When a pipe is set up between two commands, the standard output from the first command is connected directly to the standard input of the second command. You know that the ls -l command writes its list to standard output. Furthermore, you know that if no filename argument is specified to the wc command, it takes its input from standard input. Therefore, the list of files/directories that is output from the ls -l command automatically becomes the input to the wc command. Note that you never see the output of the ls -l command at the terminal because it is piped directly into the wc command.

A pipe can be made between *any* two programs, provided that the first program writes its output to standard output, and the second program reads its input from standard input.

It is also possible to form a pipeline consisting of more than two programs, with the output of one program feeding into the input of the next as follows:

ls -l | grep user | wc -l

0.5.1 The cut command

This command is used to extract various fields of data from a data file or the output of a command. The general format of the cut command is:

```
cut -cchars file
```

where chars specifies what characters you want to extract from each line of file. This can consist of a single number, as in -c5 to extract character 5; a comma-separated list of numbers, as in -c1,13,50 to extract characters 1, 13, and 50; or a dash-separated range of numbers, as in -c20-50 to extract characters 20 through 50, inclusive. To extract characters to the end of the line, you can omit the second number of the range; so

cut -c5- file

extracts characters 5 through the end of the line from each line of file and writes the results

¹Stephen Kochan, Patrick Wood, **Unix Shell programming** Third Edition. Sams Publishing, 456 pages.

to standard output.

Example

If you execute the command **who** (show who is logged on the system), you might get the following output:

root	console	Feb	24	08:54
steve	tty02	Feb	24	12:55
george	tty08	Feb	24	09:15
ahmed	tty10	Feb	24	15:55

As shown, currently four people are logged in. Suppose that you just want to know the names of the logged-in users and don't care about what terminals they are on or when they logged in. You can use the cut command to cut out just the usernames from the who command's output:

```
who | cut -c1-8
```

The output will look as follows:

root steve george ahmed

The -c1-8 option to cut specifies that characters 1 through 8 are to be extracted from each line of input and written to standard output.

A more interesting command would be:

who | cut -c1-8 | sort

The output will look as follows:

```
ahmed
george
root
steve
```

The cut command can take a delimiter using the option -d and show a particular field using the -f option. In such a case, the format becomes:

```
cut -ddchar -ffields file
```

where dchar is the character that delimits each field of the data, and fields specifies the fields to be extracted from file. Field numbers start at 1, and the same type of formats can be used to specify field numbers as was used to specify character positions before (for example, -f1,2,8, -f1-3, -f4-).

Example

cut -d: -f1 /etc/passwd

Note that if the -d option is not supplied, cut uses the tab character as the default field delimiter.

0.5.2 The paste command

The **paste** command is sort of the inverse of **cut**: Instead of breaking lines apart, it puts them together. The general format of the **paste** command is:

paste file1 file2 ... filen

where corresponding lines from each of the specified files are *pasted* together to form single lines that are then written to standard output. The use of the command **paste** can be illustrated in the following example:

- Create the 2 files: names.txt and numbers.txt
- In the file names.txt, type the following:

Mohammad Khalil Fatmeh Amin Manal

- In the file numbers.txt, type the following:
 - 123456 654321 112233 332211 615243

You can use **paste** to print the names and numbers side-by-side as follows:

paste names.txt numbers.txt

The output will look as follows:

Mohammad	123456
Khalil	654321
Fatmeh	112233
Amin	332211
Manal	615243

Each line from names.txt is displayed with the corresponding line from numbers.txt, separated by a tab.

Assume we have as well a file called addresses.txt that contain the following:

Jerusalem Ramallah Jenin Hebron Tulkarem

We can use the command **paste** on multiple files as follows:

paste names.txt numbers.txt addresses.txt

The output will look as follows:

Mohammad	123456	Jerusalem
Khalil	654321	Ramallah
Fatmeh	112233	Jenin
Amin	332211	Hebron
Manal	615243	Tulkarem

You can use the -d option if you want to use a separator different than the tab character. For example, if you execute the following command:

paste -d'+' names.txt numbers.txt addresses.txt

you get the following output:

Mohammad+123456+Jerusalem Khalil+654321+Ramallah Fatmeh+112233+Jenin Amin+332211+Hebron Manal+615243+Tulkarem

You can as well use the -s option of the command **paste** to paste together lines from the same file, not from alternate files. The effect is to merge all the lines from the file together, separated by tabs, or by the delimiter characters specified with the -d option as follows:

paste -s names.txt

The output will look as follows:

Mohammad Khalil Fatmeh Amin Manal

If you execute the following command:

paste -s -d '+' names.txt

you get the following on the standard output:

Mohammad+Khalil+Fatmeh+Amin+Manal

0.5.3The find command

In the previous experiment, we've seen the grep command that helps users search in a file, set of files or set of directories. Regular expressions and wild cards can be used to give more power to the search operation.

The find command will recursively search the indicated directory tree to find files matching a type or pattern you specify. find can then list the files or execute arbitrary commands based on the results.

For example:

find . -name coco.txt -print

will search for the file coco.txt starting the current directory as well as all subdirectories. Once it encounters a file or subdirectory that holds the name coco.txt, it will display the path that leads to that directory or file. Note that the option -print is not necessary since it represents the default behavior of the command find.

The command:

find / -name coco.txt -print

will search for the file coco.txt starting the root directory. The search will thus be exhaustive and might take a lot of time.

The search can be done on partial file names of directory names as well using wild cards. For example:

```
find . -name *coco* -print
```

will search for any file or directory containing the string coco. A better example would be:

```
find . -name a*bcd*e.txt -print
```

will search for any file or directory that start with the letter **a**, contain the string **bcd** and end with the letter e and has the extension .txt starting the current directory. You can thus notice the power of Linux commands once combined with regular expressions.

The command find can execute arbitrary commands on obtained results as well. For example, a user can decide to move the file coco.txt one directory up once it has been located as follows: find -name coco.txt -exec mv $\{\}$../ \setminus ;

Note that the command argument, {}, replaces the current path name. The end of the command

is indicated by \setminus ;. Other examples that relate to the command find are included below²:

- To find all files newer than the file library.txt, execute: find . -newer library.txt -print
- To find all files with general read or execute permission set, and then to change the permissions on those files to disallow this:

```
find . 

 ( -perm -004 -o -perm -001 
 ) -exec chmod o-rx {} 
 ; -exec ls -al {} 
 ; ;
```

0.5.4 The tr command

The tr command translates or deletes characters from standard input³. The general form of the command is:

tr from-chars to-chars

To get a feeling about the bahavior of the command tr, execute the following:

- Create a new file called tr.txt.
- Write the following phrase in file tr.txt:

The UNIX operating system was pioneered by Ken Thompson and Dennis Ritchie at Bell Laboratories in the late 1960s. One of the primary goals in the design of the UNIX system was to create an environment that promoted efficient program development.

• Run the command:

tr e x < tr.txt

and note the output.

The input to tr must be redirected from the file tr.txt because tr always expects its input to come from standard input. The results of the translation are written to standard output, leaving the original file untouched.

Example

If you run the following command:

cut -d: -f1,6 /etc/passwd

You might get an output similar to the following:

```
root:/
cron:/
bin:/
uucp:/usr/spool/uucp
asg:/
steve:/users/steve
other:/
```

You can translate the colons into tab characters to produce a more readable output simply by tacking an appropriate tr command to the end of the pipeline:

cut -d: -f1,6 /etc/passwd | tr : ' '

The output look as follows:

²Extracted from the book entitled: **Introduction to Unix** by Frank G. Fiamingo, Linda DeBula, Linda Condron - University Technology Services - The Ohio State University.

³Stephen Kochan, Patrick Wood, **Unix Shell programming** Third Edition. Sams Publishing, 456 pages.

root /
cron /
bin /
uucp /usr/spool/uucp
asg /
steve /users/steve
other /

The octal representation of a character can be given to ${\tt tr}$ command in the format $\verb|nnn|$

where nnn is the octal value of the character. For example, the octal value of the tab character is 11. If you are going to use this format, be sure to enclose the character in quotes. For example, the tr command:

tr : '\11'

translates all colons to tabs, just as in the preceding example. Below is the list of characters that you'll often want to specify in octal format:

Character	Octal Value
Bell	7
Backspace	10
Tab	11
Newline	12
Linefeed	12
Formfeed	14
Carriage Return	15
Escape	33

Example

The command date prints or sets the system date and time. To set date and time, you need to be an admin user (i.e. root). The output of the command date is as follows:

```
Mon Feb 7 12:11:49 JST 2011
```

You can translate all spaces into newline characters using the tr command as follows:

date | tr ' ' '\12'

The output will look as follows:

```
Mon
Feb
7
12:11:49
JST
2011
```

If you want to translate all lowercase letters in file addresses.txt to their uppercase equivalents, you execute the following:

tr '[a-z]' '[A-Z]' < addresses.txt</pre>

To change all uppercase letters in file addresses.txt to their lowercase equivalents, you execute the following:

tr '[A-Z]' '[a-z]' < addresses.txt</pre>

The -s option of command tr is used to squeeze out multiple occurrences of characters. In

other words, if more than one consecutive occurrence of a character occurs after the translation is made, the characters will be replaced by a single character.

For example, execute the following steps:

- Create a new file called new_tr.txt
- Type the following in file new_tr.txt:

my name is coco. I am a student at Birzeit University Thank you.

• Execute the following command:

tr -s ' ' ' ' < new_tr.txt

• Note the new output you get after executing the previous command.

The option -d of the command tr can be used to delete single characters from a stream of input. For example, you can execute the following command:

tr -d ' ' < new_tr.txt</pre>

and note the output that you get.

As an additional example on how useful the command tr is, you might want to delete all digits from a file. You can thus execute the following command:

tr -d '[0-9]' < new_tr.txt.