# 04 - More Files, Chaining Commands, and your First(?) Git Repository

CS 2043: Unix Tools and Scripting, Spring 2016 [1]

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- Last day to add is today.
- $\cdot$  (Poll) The demo last time.

## **Recap on Permissions**

## The Octal Version of **chmod**

Last time I linked you to this[2] website for a good explanation. For the formula hungry, you can represent **r**, **w**, and **x** as binary variables (where 0 is off, and 1 is on). Then the formula for the modes is

$$r \cdot 2^2 + w \cdot 2^1 + x \cdot 2^0$$

#### Examples

- chmod 755: rwxr-xr-x
- chmod 777: rwxrwxrwx
- chmod 600: rw-----

If that makes less sense to you, feel free to ignore it.

### Super Confused...

#### Superuser Do

#### sudo <command>

- Execute **<command>** as the super user.
- The regular user (e.g. **student**) is executing the **sudo** command, *not* the **root**.
- You enter your user password.
- You can only execute **sudo** if you are an "administrator"<sup>\*</sup>.
- On the course VMs the student user originally had the password student, so that is what you would type if you were executing sudo.
- On your personal Mac (or native Linux install), you would be typing whatever your password is to login to the computer.

<sup>\*</sup>Note that where you look to see who can execute **sudo** varies greatly between distributions.

## Super Confused...

## If you know the **root** password, then you can become **root** using **su** directly.

Switch User

su <user\_name>

- Switches to user **user\_name**.
- The password you enter is the password for **user\_name**.
- If no username is specified, **root** is implied.
  - The commands **sudo su root** and **sudo su** are equivalent:
    - Since you typed **sudo** first, that is why you type the user password.
  - If you just execute su directly, then you have to type the root password.

## **Default Permissions**

## When you create files during a particular session, the mode you are running in determines what the permissions will be.

User mask

umask <mode>

- Remove mode from the file's permissions.
- Similar syntax to **chmod**:
  - umask 077: full access to the user, no access to anybody else.
  - umask g+w: enables group write permissions.
- **umask S**: display the current mask.
  - Changing the **umask** only applies for the remainder of the session (e.g. until you close the terminal window you were writing this in).
  - If this has meaning, it is just a bit mask with **00777**.

File Compression

## Making Archives: Zip

## Zip

## zip <name\_of\_archive> <files\_to\_include>

- Note I said files.
  - E.g. zip files.zip a.txt b.txt c.txt
  - These will extract to **a.txt**, **b.txt**, and **c.txt** in the current directory.
- To do folders, you need recursion.
  - zip -r folder.zip my\_files/
  - This will extract to a folder named **my\_files**, with whatever was inside of it in tact.

#### Unzip

#### unzip <archive\_name>

#### Note: The original files DO stay in tact.

## Making Archives: Gzip

## Gzip

## gzip <files\_to\_compress>

- Less time to compress, larger file: --fast
- More time to compress, smaller file: --best
- Read the **man** page, lots of options.

#### Gunzip

#### gunzip <archive\_name>

#### Notes:

- By default, *replaces* the original files!
  - You can use --keep to bypass this.
- Does not bundle the files.
- Usually has better compression than zip.

## Making Archives: Tar

#### Tape Archive

#### tar -cf <tar\_archive\_name> <files\_to\_compress>

- Create a tar archive.
- tar -xf <tar\_archive\_name>
- Extract all files from archive.

#### Notes:

- tar is just a bundling suite, creating a single file.
- By default, it does *not* compress.
- Original files DO stay in tact.
- Unlike zip, you do not need the -r flag for folders :)

## Making Archives: Tarballs

#### Making tarballs

## tar -c(z/j)f <archive\_name> <source\_files> tar -x(z/j)f <archive\_name>

- (z/j) here means either z or j, not both.
- The -z flag specifies gzip as the compression method.
- YOU have to specify the file extension.
  - Extension convention: .tar.gz
  - Example: tar -cjf files.tar.gz files/
- The  **j** flag specifies **bzip2** as the compression method.
  - Extension convention: .tar.bz2
  - Example: tar -cjf files.tar.bz2 files/

#### Note:

- Extraction can usually happen automatically:
  - tar -xf files.tar.gz will usually work (no -z)

## Assorted Commands

#### Before we can Chain...

...we need some more interesting tools to chain together!

## Counting

#### Word Count

## wc [options] <file>

- -l: count the number of lines.
- -w: count the number of words.
- -m: count the number of characters.
- c: count the number of bytes.

#### Great for things like:

- $\cdot\,$  revelling in the number of lines you have programmed.
- analyzing the verbosity of your personal statement.
- showing people how cool you are.

## Sorting

#### Sort

## sort [options] <file>

- Default: sort by the **ASCII** code (roughly alphabetical) for the whole line.
- Use **- r** to reverse the order.
- Use  **n** to sort by numerical order.
- Use  **u** to remove duplicates.

>>> cat peeps.txt Manson, Charles Bundy, Ted Bundy, Jed Nevs, Sven Nevs, Sven >>> sort -r peeps.txt Nevs, Sven Nevs, Sven Manson, Charles Bundy, Ted Bundy, Jed >>> sort -ru peeps.txt
Nevs, Sven
Manson, Charles
Bundy, Ted
Bundy, Jed
# only 1 Nevs, Sven

## **Advanced Sorting**

• The **sort** command is quite powerful, for example you can do:

>>> sort -n -k 2 -t "," <filename>

- Sorts the file numerically by using the second column, separating by a comma as the delimiter instead of a space.
- Read the **man** page!

```
>>> cat numbers.txt >>> sort -n -k 2 -t "," numbers.txt
02,there 01,hi
04,how 02,there
01,hi 03,bob
06,you 04,how
03,bob 05,are 06,you
```

#### Unique

## uniq [options] <file>

- No flags: discards all but one of successive identical lines.
- Use  **c** to prints the number of successive identical lines next to each line.

## Search and Replace

#### **Translate**

## tr [options] <set1> [set2]

- Translate or delete characters.
- Sets are strings of characters.
- By default, searches for strings matching **set1** and replaces them with **set2**.
- You can use POSIX and custom-defined *sets* (we'll get there soon!).
  - The **tr** command only works with streams.
  - Examples to come after we learn about chaining commands in the next section.

## **Chaining Commands**

## Your Environment and Variables

- There are various environment variables defined in your environment. They are almost always all capital letters.
- You obtain their value by dereferencing them with a **\$**.

>>> echo \$PWD # present working directory
>>> echo \$OLDPWD # print previous working directory
>>> printenv # print all environment variables

- When you execute commands, they have something called an "exit code".
- The exit code of the last command executed is stored in the **\$?** environment variable.

- The environment:
  - env: displays all environment variables.
  - unsetenv <name>: remove an environment variable.
- The local variables:
  - **set**: displays all shell / local variables.
  - **unset** <**name>**: remove a shell variable.
- We'll cover these a little more when we talk about customizing your terminal shell.

## Exit Codes

• There are various exit codes, here are a few examples:

```
>>> super_awesome_command
bash: super_awesome_command: command not found...
>>> echo $?
127
>>> echo "What is the exit code we want?"
>>> echo $?
0
```

- The success code we want is actually **0**. Refer to [3] for some more examples.
- Remember that cat /dev/urandom trickery? You will have to ctrl+c to kill it, what would the exit code be?

### Executing Multiple Commands in a Row

With exit codes, we can define some simple rules to chain commands together:

- Always execute:
- >>> cmd1; cmd2 # exec cmd1 first, then cmd2
  - Execute conditioned upon exit code:

>>> cmd1 && cmd2 # exec cmd2 only if cmd1 returned 0
>>> cmd1 || cmd2 # exec cmd2 only if cmd1 returned NOT 0

 Kind of backwards, in terms of what means continue for and, but that was likely easier to implement since there is only one 0 and many not 0's. Bash scripting is all about combining simple commands together to do more powerful things. This is accomplished using the "pipe" character.

## Piping

<command1> | <command2>

- Passes the output from command1 to be the input of command2.
- Works for *heaps* of programs that take input and provide output to the terminal.

## Some Piping Examples

## Piping along...

#### >>> ls -al /bin | less

- Allows you to scroll through the long list of programs in /bin

## >>> history | tail -20 | head -10

- Displays the 10<sup>th</sup> - 19<sup>th</sup> previous commands from the previous session.

#### >>> echo \* | tr ' ' \\n'

- Replaces all spaces characters with new lines.
- Execute just **echo** \* to see the difference.

## Redirection

To redirect input / output streams, you can use one of >, >>, <, or <<.

- To redirect standard output, use the > operator.
  - command > file
- To redirect standard input, use the < operator.
  - $\cdot$  command < file
- To redirect standard error, use the > operator and specify the stream number 2.
  - command 2> file
- Combine streams together by using 2>&1 syntax.
  - This says: send standard error to where standard output is going.
  - Useful for debugging / catching error messages...
  - …or ignoring them (you will often see that sent to /dev/null).

## **Redirection Example**

• Bash processes I/O redirection from left to right, allowing us to do fun things like this:

#### Magic

#### tr -cd '0-9' < test1.txt > test2.txt

- Deletes everything but the numbers from test1.txt, then store them in test2.txt.
- CAUTION: do not ever use the same file as output that was input.
  - Example: tr -cd '0-9' < original.txt > original.txt
  - You will lose all your data, you cannot read and write this way.
- Piping and Redirection are quite sophisticated, please refer to the Wikipedia page in [4].

## More Git: Forking a Repository

## https://github.com/cs2043-sp16/lecturedemos/tree/master/lec04

### References I

[1] B. Abrahao, H. Abu-Libdeh, N. Savva, D. Slater, and others over the years.

Previous cornell cs 2043 course slides.

[2] C. Hope.

Linux and unix chmod command help and examples. http://www.computerhope.com/unix/uchmod.htm, 2016.

[3] T. L. D. Project.

Exit codes with special meanings.
http://tldp.org/LDP/abs/html/exitcodes.html.

## [4] Wikipedia. Redirection (computing). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Redirection\_ %28computing%29.