CS395T: Introduction to Scientific and Technical Computing

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Outline

- Continue with Unix overview
 - File attributes and permissions
 - Basic commands
 - Pattern matching, regular expressions
 - Shell scripting



UNIX Command Examples

Remember the "Is –I" command to show long listings?

-				Terminal			•
<u>W</u> indow	<u>E</u> dit	<u>O</u> ptions					<u>H</u> elp
/export. total_2		/rob % l	s -I				
drwxr-x drwx	r-x 	2 rob 2 rob 1 rob	user		512 Nov	2 15:09 bin/ 1 09:19 my_data/ 5 13:51 data.fas	
				specifi		y displays tes about each v.	



File Attributes

- Every file has a specific list of attributes:
 - Access Times:
 - when the file was created
 - when the file was last changed
 - when the file was last read
 - Size
 - Owners
 - user (remember UID)
 - group (remember GID)
 - Permissions



File Time Attributes

- Time Attributes:
 - Is -I shows when the file was last changed
 - Is -Ic shows when the file was created
 - Is -lu shows when the file was last accessed
- Special names exist for these date-related attributes:
 - mtime (last modification time)
 - ctime (last change time, ie. when changes were made to the file or directory's inode: owner, permissions, etc.
 - atime (last access time)

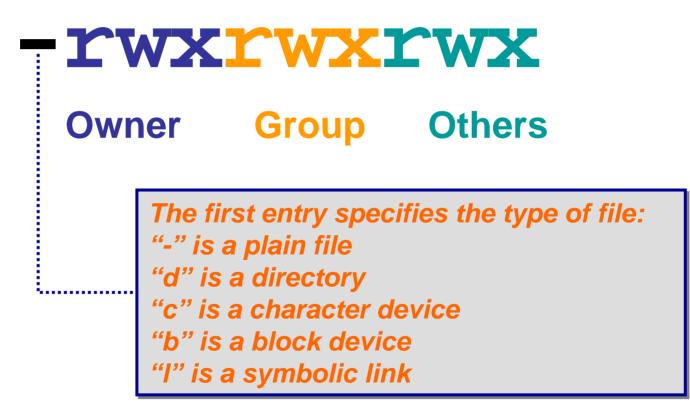


File Permissions

- Each file has a set of permissions that control who can access the file
- There are three different types of permissions:
 - read
 abbreviated r
 - write abbreviated w
 - execute abbreviated x
- In Unix, there are permission levels associated with three types of people that might access a file:
 - owner (you)
 - group (a group of other users that you set up)
 - world (anyone else browsing around on the file system)



File Permissions Display Format





What is this *rwx* Craziness?

- Meaning for Files:
 - **r** allowed to read
 - w allowed to write
 - **x** allowed to execute
- Meaning for Directories:
 - **r** allowed to see the names of the files
 - w allowed to add and remove files
 - **x** allowed to enter the directory



Changing File Permissions

- The chmod command changes the permissions associated with a file or directory
- Basic syntax is: chmod mode file
- The *mode* can be specified in two ways:
 - symbolic representation
 - octal number
- Both methods achieve the same result (*user's choice*)
- Multiple symbolic operations can be given, separated by commas



chmod: Symbolic Representation

• Symbolic Mode representation has the following form:

[ugoa][+-=][rwxX...]

u=user	+ add permission	r =read
g=group	- remove permission	w=write
o=other	= set permission	x=execute
a = all		X= pure unix gold

• The X permission option is very handy - it sets to execute only if the file is a directory or already has execute permission



chmod Symbolic Mode Examples

- > ls -al foo
- -rw----- 1 karl support ...
- > chmod g=rw foo
- > ls -al foo
- -rw-rw---- 1 karl support ...
- > chmod u-w,g+x,o=x foo
- > ls -al foo
- -r--rwx--x 1 karl support ...



chmod: Octal Representation

- Octal Mode uses a single argument string which describes the permissions for a file (3 digits)
- Each digit of this number is a code for each of the three permission levels (user,group,world)
- Permissions are set according to the following numbers:
 - Read = 4
 - Write = 2
 - Execute = 1

0 = no permissions whatsoever; 1 = execute only 2 = write only 3 = write and execute (1+2) 4 = read only 5 = read and execute (4+1) 6 = read and write (4+2) 7 = read and write and execute (4+2+1)

• Sum the individual permissions to get the desired combination



chmod Octal Mode Examples

- > ls -al foo
 -rw----- 1 karl support ...
- > chmod 660 foo
- > ls -al foo
- -rw-rw---- 1 karl support ...
- > chmod 417 foo
- > ls -al foo
- -r---xrwx 1 karl support ...



Basic Commands

- Some basic commands for interacting with the Unix file system are:
 - Is - pwd - touch - cd- mkdir - cp - df- awk - rmdir - find - cat - rm
 - more (less) chmod grep
 - head - tail

- chown/chgrp
- Let's cruise through some examples....



UNIX Commands: mkdir

mkdir creates directories.

	Terminal	•
<u>W</u> in	dow <u>E</u> dit <u>O</u> ptions	<u>H</u> elp
bi /e:	xport/home/rob % ls n/ my_data/ data.fasta backup.fasta xport/home/rob % mkdir new_data xport/home/rob % ls	
bi ba	n' my_data/ new_data/ data.fasta ckup.fasta xport/home/rob %	
iL_		



UNIX Commands: rmdir

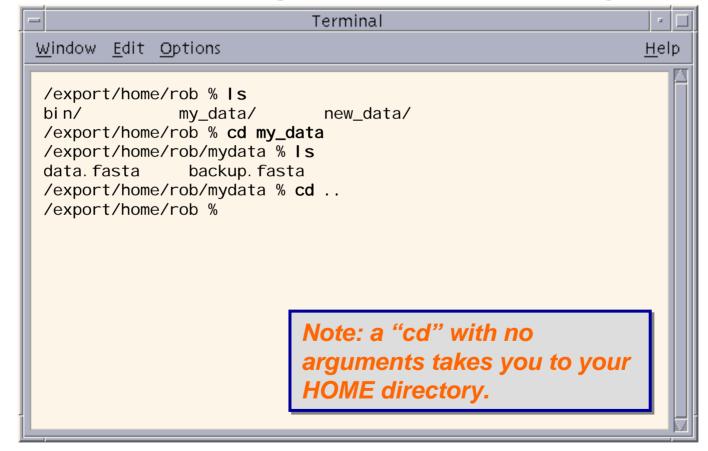
rmdir removes directories.

-	Terminal		•
<u>W</u> indow <u>E</u> dit <u>O</u> ptions			<u>H</u> elp
/export/home/rob % ls bin/ my_data/ backup.fasta	new_data/	data. fasta	
/export/home/rob % rmdir n /export/home/rob % ls bin/ new_data/	-	backup. fasta	
/export/home/rob %	uata. Tasta		



UNIX Commands: cd

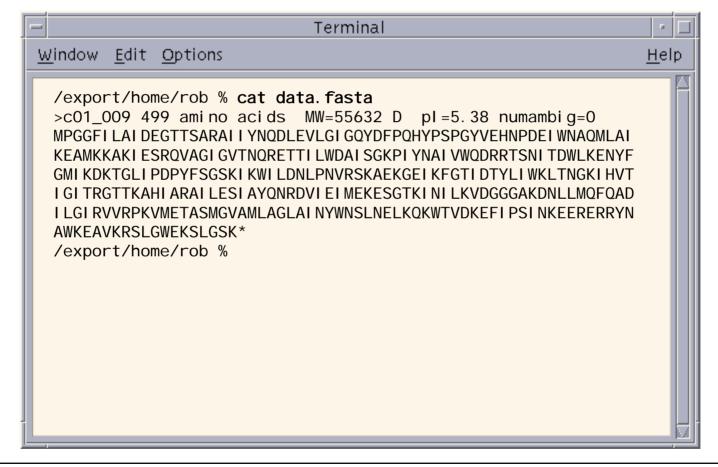
cd changes the current directory.





UNIX Commands: cat

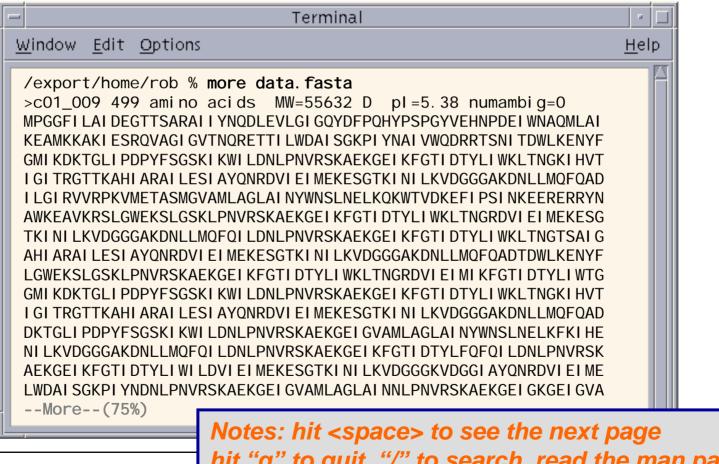
cat displays the contents of a text file:





UNIX Commands: more

more displays the contents of a text file one screen's worth at a time:





Notes: hit <space> to see the next page hit "q" to quit, "/" to search, read the man page. "less" is an enhanced version of "more" on Linux

UNIX Commands: cp

cp copies files

-	Terminal	•
7	<u>W</u> indow <u>E</u> dit <u>O</u> ptions	<u>H</u> elp
	/export/home/rob % ls bin/ my_data/ data.fasta /export/home/rob % ls bin/ my_data/ data.fasta backup.fasta /export/home/rob %	



UNIX Commands: mv

mv moves files

	Terminal	•
<u>w</u>	<u>/indow E</u> dit <u>O</u> ptions	<u>H</u> elp
 	<pre>/export/home/rob % ls oin/ my_data/ data.fasta backup.fasta /export/home/rob % mv backup.fasta my_data /export/home/rob % ls oin/ my_data/ data.fasta /export/home/rob % ls my_data backup.fasta /export/home/rob %</pre>	



UNIX Commands: mv

mv also renames files

_	Terminal		• 🗆
<u> </u>	ndow <u>E</u> dit <u>O</u> ptions		<u>H</u> elp
bi /e bi /e ba /e	export/home/rob % Is n/ my_data/ data.fasta export/home/rob % mv backup.fasta my_data export/home/rob % Is n/ my_data/ data.fasta export/home/rob % Is my_data ackup.fasta export/home/rob % mv data.fasta Dec15.fasta export/home/rob % Is n/ my_data/ Dec15.fasta export/home/rob %	backup. fasta	



UNIX Commands: rm

rm deletes files - permanantly.

	Terminal	•
<u>W</u> in	dow <u>E</u> dit <u>O</u> ptions	<u>H</u> elp
bir /ex /ex bir	xport/home/rob % s n/ my_data/ data.fasta backup.fasta xport/home/rob % rm backup.fasta xport/home/rob % s n/ my_data/ data.fasta xport/home/rob %	
	Note: There is no Recycle bin or Undelete Key! Thou shalt know what thou are doing	

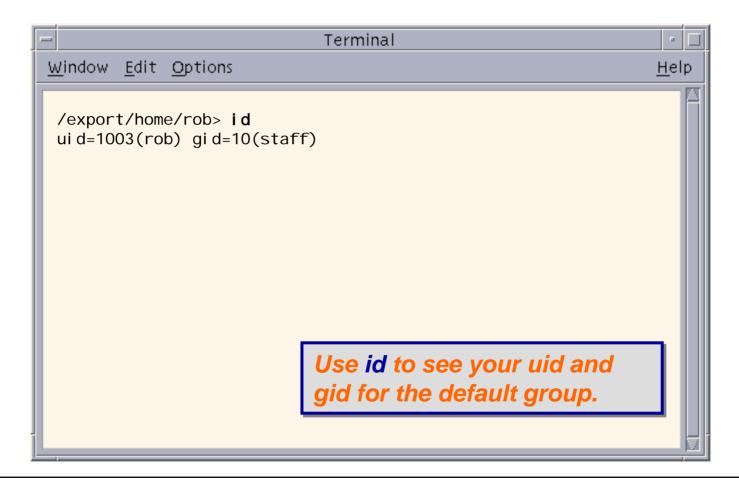


UNIX Commands: head & tail

- head displays the *top* of a file
 - head -n displays the top n lines
 - default is 10
- tail displays the bottom of a file
 - -tail -n displays the bottom n lines
 - default is 10
 - -tail +n displays the file starting at line n

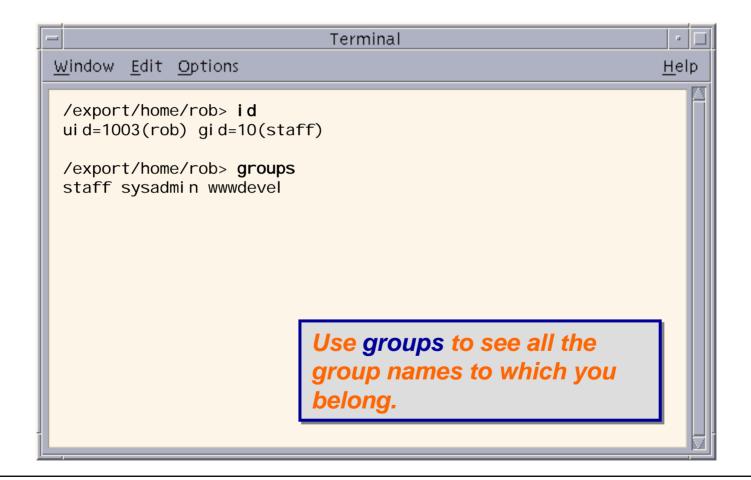


UNIX Commands: id



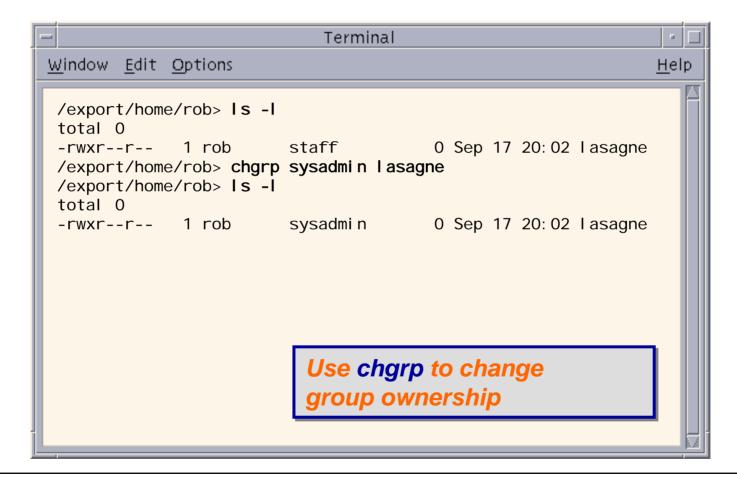


UNIX Commands: groups





UNIX Commands: chgrp





UNIX Commands: find

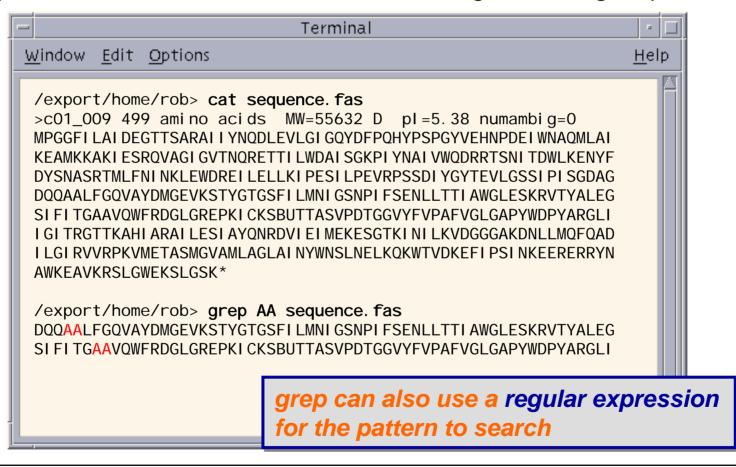
- At its simplest, find searches the filesystem for files whose name matches a specific pattern
- However, it can do a lot more and is one of the most useful commands in Unix (as it can find specific files and then perform operations on them)
- Here is a simple example:

```
> ls
dir1 foo foo2
> find . -name foo -print
./foo
```



UNIX Commands: grep

grep extracts lines from a file that match a given string or pattern





- In addition to grep, a number of Unix commands support the use of *regular expressions* to describe patterns:
 - sed
 - awk
 - perl
- General search pattern characters:
 - Any character (except a metacharacter) matches itself
 - "." matches any character except a newline
 - "*" matches zero or more occurrences of the single preceding character
 - "+" matches one or more of the proceeding character
 - "?" matches zero or one of the proceeding character
- Additional special characters:
 - "()" parentheses are used to quantify a sequence of characters
 - "|" works as an OR operator
 - "{}" braces are used to indicate ranges in the number of occurrences



 If you really want to match a period '.', you need to escape it with a backslash "\."

Regexp	Matches	Does not match
a.b	axb	abc
a\.b	a.b	axb



- A *character class*, also called a character set can be used to match only one out of several characters
- To use, simply place the characters you want to match between square brackets []
- You can use a hyphen inside a character class to specify a range of characters
- Placing a caret (^) after the opening square bracket will negate the character class. The result is that the character class will match any character that is *not* in the character class
- Examples:
 - [abc] matches a *single* a b or c
 - [0-9] matches a *single* digit between 0 and 9
 - [^A-Za-z] matches a single character as long as it is not a letter



- Since certain character classes are used often, a series of shorthand character classes are available for convenience:
 - \d a digit. eg [0-9]
 - \D a non-digit, eg. [^0-9]
 - \w a word character (matches letters and digits)
 - W a non-word character
 - \s a whitespace character
 - \S a non-whitespace character



- More shorthand classes are available for *matching boundaries*:
 - the beginning of a line
 - \$ the end of a line
 - \b a word boundary
 - **\B** a non-word boundary
 - \A the beginning of the input
 - \z the end of the input



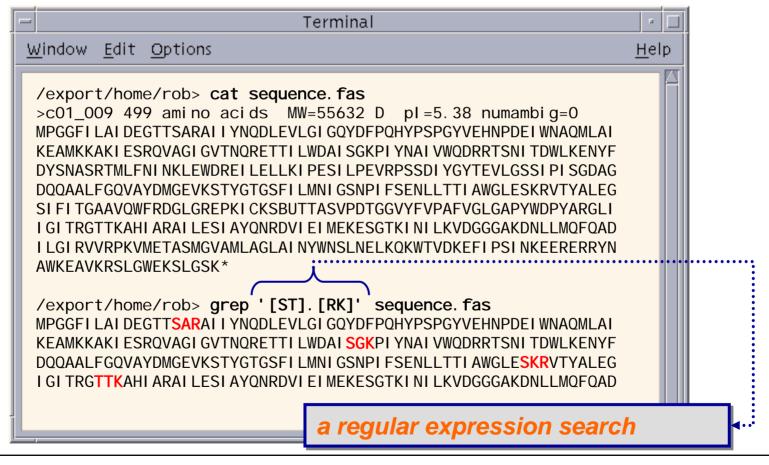
Regular Expressions Examples

- "notice" a string that has the text "notice" in it
- "F." matches an "F" followed by any character
- "a.b" matches "a" followed by any 1 char followed by "b"
- "AThe" matches any string that starts with "The"
- "oh boy\$" matches a string that ends in the substring "oh boy";
- "^abc\$" matches a string that starts and ends with "abc" -- that could only be "abc" itself!
- "ab*" matches an "*a*" followed by zero or more "*b*"s ("a", "ab", "abbb", etc.)
- "ab+" similar to previous, but there's at least one "b" ("ab", "abbb", etc.)
- "(b|cd)ef" matches a string that has either "bef" or "cdef"
- "a(bc)*" matches an "a" followed by zero or more copies of the sequence "bc"
- "ab{3,5}" matches an "a" followed by three to five "b" s ("abbb", "abbbb", or "abbbbb")
- "[Dd][Aa][Vv][Ee]" matches "Dave" or "dave" or "dAVE", does not match "ave" or "da"



UNIX Commands: grep

grep extracts lines from a file that match a given string or pattern





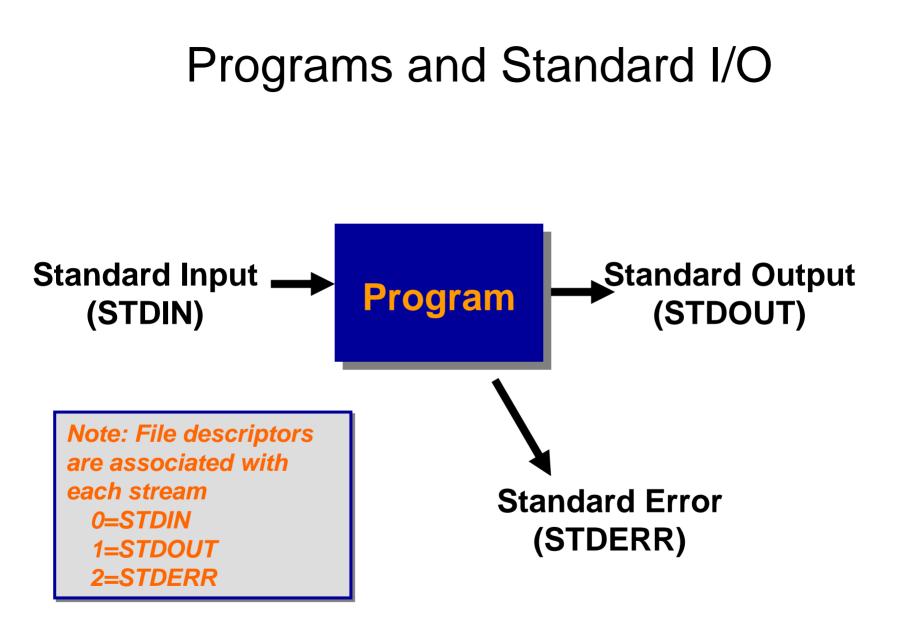
Interacting with the Shell



Running a Unix Program

- Typically, you type in the name of a program and some command line options
- The shell reads this line, finds the program and runs it, feeding it the options you specified
- The shell establishes 3 separate I/O streams:
 - Standard Input
 - Standard Output
 - Standard Error







Defaults for I/O

- When a shell runs a program for you:
 - standard input is your keyboard
 - standard output is your screen or window
 - standard error is your screen or window
- If standard input is your keyboard, you can type stuff in that goes to a program
- To end the input you press Ctrl-D (^D) on a line by itself, this ends the input stream
- The shell is a program that reads from standard input
- Any idea what happens when you give the shell ^D?



UNIX: Shell Flavors

- There are two main 'flavors' of shells:
 - Bourne created what is now known as the standard shell: "sh", or "bourne shell". It's syntax roughly resembles Pascal. It's derivatives include "ksh" ("korn shell") and now, the most widely used, "bash" ("bourne again shell")
 - One of the creators of the C language implemented a shell to have a "C-programming" like syntax. This is called "csh" or "C-shell". Today's most widely used form is the very popular "tcsh"
- Shells can run interactively or as a *shell script*



Customization

- Each shell supports some customization.
 - user prompt settings
 - environment variable settings
 - aliases
- The customization takes place in *startup* files which are read by the shell when it starts up
 - Global files are read first these are provided by the system administrators (eg. /etc/profile)
 - Local files are then read in the user's HOME directory to allow for additional customization



Shell Startup Files

```
sh,ksh:
  ~/.profile
bash:
  ~/.bash profile
  ~/.bash_login
  ~/.profile
  ~/.bashrc
  ~/.bash logout
csh:
  ~/.cshrc
  ~/.login
  ~/.logout
tcsh:
  ~/.tshrc
  ~/.cshrc
  ~/.login
  ~/.logout
```

Note: on TACC production systems, we provide an alternative location for customization files to avoid over-riding system defaults:

BASH: CSH/TCSH: ~/.login_user

~/.profile_user ~/.cshrc user

Wildcards for Filename Abbreviation

- When you type in a command line the shell treats some characters as special (*metacharacters*)
- These special characters make it easy to specify filenames
- The shell processes what you give it, using the special characters to replace your command line with one that includes a bunch of file names



The special character *

- "*" matches anything.
- If you give the shell "*" by itself (as a command line argument), the shell will remove the * and replace it with all the filenames in the current directory.
- "a*b" matches all files in the current directory that start with a and end with b.



Understanding *

• The echo command prints out whatever you tell it:

> echo hi hi

- > ls dir1 foo foo2
- What will the following command do?

> echo *
dir1 foo foo2



Shell Stream Redirection

- A very powerful function in Unix is redirection for input and output:
 - The shell can attach things other than your *keyboard* to standard input (stdin)
 - A file (the contents of the file are fed to a program as if you typed it) - common in scientific programming
 - A pipe (the output of another program is fed as input as if you typed it)
 - The shell can attach things other than your screen to standard output (stderr)
 - A file (the output of a program is stored in file)
 - A pipe (the output of a program is fed as input to another program



Stream Redirection

 To tell the shell to store the *output* of your program in a file, follow the command line for the program with the ">" character followed by the filename:

ls > lsout

 The command above will create a file named lsout and place the output of the ls command in the file



Stream Redirection

• To have the shell get standard *input* from a file, use the "<" character:

sort < nums</pre>

- The command above would sort the lines in the file **nums** and send the result to *stdout*
- Beauty of redirection is that you can do both forms together:

sort < nums > sortednums



Modes of Output Redirection

- There are two modes of output redirections:
 - ">" the create mode
 - ">>" the append mode
- For example:
 - the command ls > foo will create a new file named foo (deleting any existing file named foo).
 - if you use ">>" instead, the output will be appended to foo:

```
ls /etc >> foo
ls /usr >> foo
```



Stream Redirection

- Many commands send error messages to standard error (stderr) which is different from stdout.
- However, the ">" output redirection only applies to stdout (not stderr)
- To redirect stderr to a file you need to know what shell you are using:
 - BASH
 - "2>" redirects stderr (eg. 1s foo blah gork 2> erroroutput)
 - "&>" redirects stdout and stderr (eg. ls foo &> /dev/null)
 - TCSH
 - ">&" merges stdout and stderr and sends to a file:
 ls foo blah >& saveboth
 - ">>&" merges stdout and stderr and appends to a file: ls foo blah >>& saveboth



References/Acknowledgements

- National Research Council Canada (Rob Hutten, Canadian Bioinformatics Resource)
- Intro. to Unix, Dave Hollinger, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute
- Unix in a Nutshell, A. Robbins, O'Reilly Media, 2006.
- Regular expression info (<u>http://www.regular-expressions.info/reference.html</u>)

