

Chapter 1 – First steps on the Unix command line

As users of digital services we are familiar with the notion of *application program*, a piece of software that performs a a specific task, such as writing documents, playing games, or browsing the web. But applications are not designed to run alone on bare hardware: computers are too complex and too diverse for every application to support every machine. Instead, computers are equipped with an *operating system*, a set of utility programs that collectively form an execution platform for applications. Example OSes include Microsoft Windows, MacOS, Android, etc.

1 Setting up your work environment

In this course, we will be doing all our practical work on Linux. There are several flavours of Linux OSes available out there, like Fedora, Ubuntu, Debian, etc. If you already have a favourite version of Linux, then use it and skip directly to section 3 on page 4. Otherwise, please read on.

The easiest way to get started is to use INSA's Virtual Desktop Infrastructure, as described in section 2 below. However, there are several alternatives that would work just as well (in no particular order):

- Install a Linux distribution on your laptop, possibly as a dual boot option alongside Windows.
- Create a bootable USB stick with a live version of e.g. Ubuntu or Fedora.
- Install a Linux distribution inside a virtual machine (through VirtualBox or VMWare).
- Use the Windows Subsystem for Linux (WSL).
- Work through SSH on a remote Linux host. For instance, INSA provides such machines with names of the form 2d-linux-NNN.insa-lyon.fr (for NNN in 001 to 150).
- Not use Linux but another system from the Unix family, such as macOS. Most of this course (not all, but most) will still apply.

You are encouraged to explore (and/or combine several of) those solutions. Please don't hesitate to ask us for help, even though we cannot promise to solve all your setup problems. In all cases, please do give us feedback on your work environment of choice!

2 Using INSA's Virtual Desktop Infrastructure (aka "Bureau Virtuel")

Visit https://bv.insa-lyon.fr/ and login with your INSA credentials. You get a selection page looking like figure 1. Choose "2D-LINUX". You should see an in-browser Linux desktop (cf figure 2).

2.1 Switching your interface to English

By default, INSA's Bureau Virtuel is configured in French. Here is the procedure to switch the whole interface to English. First open the main menu in the bottom-left corner, and type "langues" in the search box and then click on "Prise en charge des langues" (see figure 3). A small window appears, cf figure 4. In the first tab "Langues", move English to the top of the list. In the "Format régionaux" tab, choose English from the dropdown menu. Click on "Fermer".

Now log out then reconnect to the 2D-LINUX virtual machine. A new window appears (see figure 5) asking you to "Update standard folders to current language". Click on "Update Names".

Your system is now configured to show all messages (menus, help pages, etc) in English.

2.2 Configuring the keyboard

By default, INSA's Bureau Virtuel is configured for French keyboards with AZERTY layout, which is not what you want.

In the main menu, click "Preferences" then "Keyboard" and go to the third tab "Layouts". Click "+" and add your preferred layout, then remove "French" with "—" and close the window.

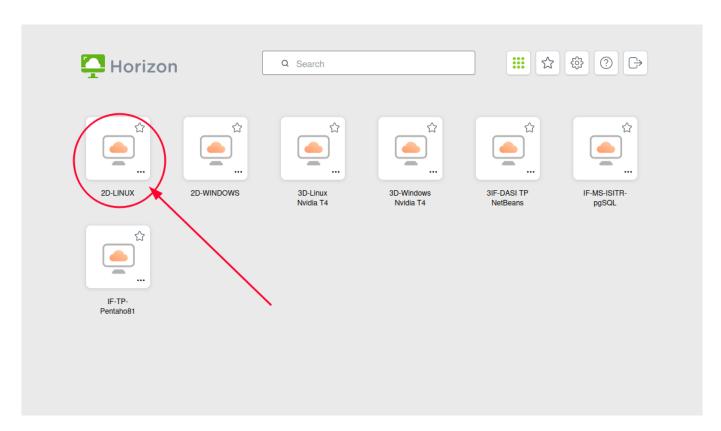


Figure 1: Selecting the Linux VM



Figure 2: The BV's Linux desktop

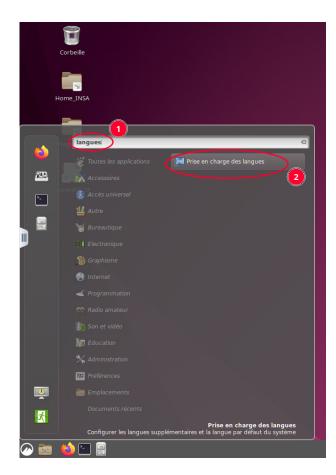


Figure 3: Finding the "change your language" option.

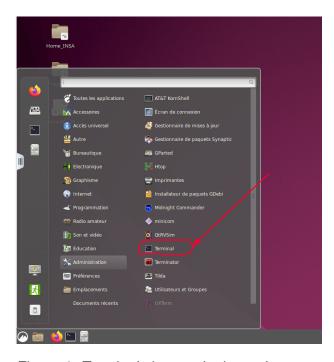


Figure 6: Terminal shortcut in the main menu.

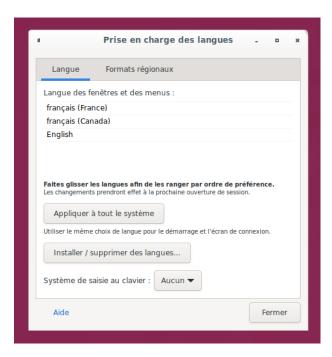


Figure 4: The window allowing to change the system's language.

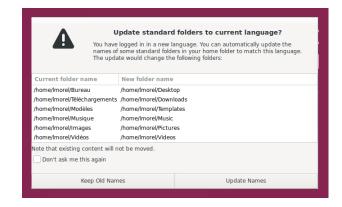


Figure 5: Updating standard folder names.



Figure 7: Terminal shortcut in the taskbar.

3 Through the Looking Glass: First Steps in Unix Land

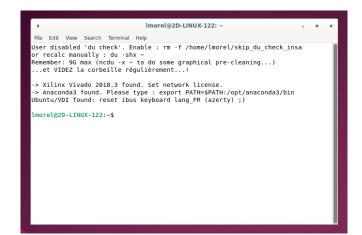
Modern Linux systems such as Ubuntu come with a **Graphical User Interface** (GUI) similar to Windows or MacOS. But for the purpose of this course, we will mostly interact with the system through its **Command-Line Interface** (CLI). Historically, command-line interfaces emerged in the 1960s as a more user-friendly alternative to punched cards. Sitting in front of a *computer terminal* (a screen+keyboard device connected to a computer) the user would type their inputs interactively and read the results as text in real-time.

Nowadays, most users rely on graphical user interfaces for their everyday use. However, many programs and operating system utilities have no GUI, and are intended to be used through the command-line. For this reason, modern systems generally include a *terminal emulator* program, often referred to as just a **terminal**. This combination brings the benefits of both worlds: the expressive power of the command-line and the comfort of a graphical interface.

3.1 Terminal, Shell, Commands

Exercise Open a terminal window. On the Bureau Virtuel, the Terminal application can be launched from the main menu (in "System Tools" of figure 6) or by clicking on its icon in the task bar (of figure 7).

Exercise Text typed in the terminal window is fed to a **shell**¹, i.e. a command-line interpreter, in our case the bash shell. The shell presents itself as a **command prompt** (cf figure 8) waiting for you to type a line of text. Start by typing your login name then press "enter". The shell will complain that it is not a valid command, cf figure 9. The shell only understands a finite number of command names. We will explore some of them today.²



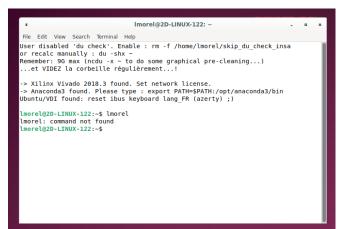


Figure 8: A new terminal window, ready to take commands.

Figure 9: Trying to execute an unknown command.

Exercise Type command <u>date</u> and observe the results. A command line is a list of words separated by spaces: the first word is the command name and the rest are the **arguments**. By convention, arguments starting with a dash are called **options**. Type command <u>date -d yesterday</u> and compare the results.

It is the responsibility of the shell to split the line into arguments before running the actual command. When needed, we can also group multiple words into a single argument, by enclosing them in quotes, e.g. date -d "next month".

¹yes, like an eggshell. cf https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shell_(computing)

²Thanks to Igor Khmelnitsky for the inspiration. http://www.lsv.fr/~khmelnitsky/teaching/2019-2020/arch_sys/tp01_eng.pdf

Exercise You have probably already come across other types of prompts. For instance in the Python interpreter, the prompt looks like ">>> ". Type python3 and play with python for a bit. Notice how our input is not interpreted by bash anymore, until we type quit() to terminate python and go back to the shell. What happens is, a terminal can accommodate several programs at the same time but only one of them can be **in the foreground** at any point. All programs can print text on the terminal, but only the foreground program will receive keyboard input.

Exercise While in the middle of typing a command line, you can press the "tab" key and the shell will try to auto-complete your command. Type "dat" and then press "tab". Press Ctrl-C to cancel. If there are has a multiple matches for completion, the shell will do nothing, but pressing "tab" again will print out all of the completion matches. Type just "da" and then press "tab" twice. Notice how there are several matches. Type an additional "t" and press "tab" again.

Exercise You may have noticed that in a terminal, pressing Ctrl-C does not trigger the usual copy-and-paste mechanism³, but instead it means "stop the current command". However, you can copy-and-paste with Shift-Ctrl-C and Shift-Ctrl-V.

3.2 Looking for help

Of course there are many ways to find help:

- invoke a command with option --help at the end usually shows a help screen, e.g. | date --help |,
- use a web search engine, e.g. visit https://duckduckgo.com and type "unix date command".
- ask a fellow student or teacher,
- but when everything else fails, you might want to just RTFM.

Linux comes with a builtin documentation system that is accessible through a dedicated shell command named man (short for "manual") You can type man followed by the name of a command and you will see some documentation for that command. All **man pages** are organized in a similar way:

- 1. NAME : name and purpose
- 2. SYNOPSIS: short summary of the command-line syntax
- 3. DESCRIPTION: long description, typically listing all supported options
- 4. sometimes other sections, like EXAMPLES, or KNOWN BUGS
- 5. AUTHOR: the people who developed the program
- 6. SEE ALSO: references to other docs: man pages, websites, etc

Exercise Type man_date and try the following: scroll with up/down arrows, advance by one screen with "space", and go back to the top with "g". To search for some text, press "/" then your search query followed by "enter", then use keys "n" and "p" to navigate between search results. Press "h" to get some help and press "q" to exit and return to the shell.

3.3 Essential commands: ls, cd

Exercise Read the man page for 1s and look for answers to the following questions:

- 1. In no more than 10 words, what is the purpose of this command?
- 2. Which option will print the name of all the files, even the "hidden" ones? (by default, filenames starting with a dot are not shown, for instance .bashrc)
- 3. Which option will print the listing with a longer, more detailed format?
- 4. Which option will print the size of the files in a human readable way?
- 5. Which option will recursively print all the subdirectories of a given directory?

Exercise Read the man page for cd and find our what this command is for. Then:

- Go to the /tmp directory at the root of the system and list its contents;
- Return to your home directory;
- What does | cd | do? What does | cd | with no arguments do?

³this is for historical reasons: unix terminals and shells predate the idea of copy-and-paste by quite some time

4 Working With Files

4.1 File system organisation

One of the key principles of the Unix philosophy is that "everything is a file". To keep things organized, all files in the system are structured as a giant tree, where every node has an associated name, like illustrated in figure 10. Internal tree nodes are called **directories** (aka folders) and they contain other directories as well as ordinary files. The topmost node is called the **root directory** and is denoted by "/". Every node can be denoted by its **path** from the root (e.g. /home/lmorel/.bashrc). Some important directories:

- /bin is where most of the shell commands are stored, e.g. /bin/date or /bin/ls
- /home contains all the users' personal directories
- /home/yourlogin is your personal **home directory**. In the shell, you can type "~" as a shortcut for this path, e.g. $\lceil 1s \rceil$
- /tmp is for temporary files. It is emptied every time the system reboots

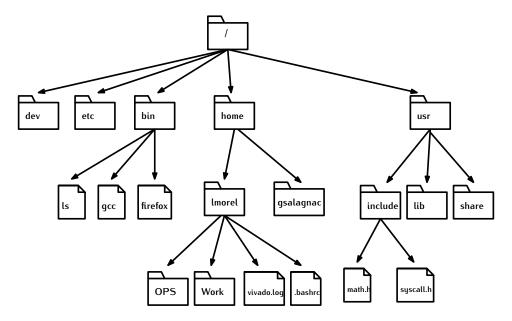


Figure 10: Typical directory hierarchy of a Linux filesystem.

A command-line shell provides basically the same features as a graphical file manager. In the following exercises you will learn how to create new files and directories (sections 4.2 and 4.3), how to copy and move things around (section 4.4), how to look into files (section 4.5), and also how to delete them permanently (section 4.6).

Warning A CLI shell is a powerful tool and it will blindly obey your commands. However, what you type may or may not be what you wanted. Compared to a typical GUI system, there are few safety nets and some actions cannot be "undone". This can feel intimidating at first, but having such a powerful tool under your belt will often prove very useful.

4.2 Creating directories: mkdir

Exercise Type man mkdir and read the manual page. Within your home directory, create a directory named "ops".

Now we want to create a directory with path " \sim /a/b/c/d". Look in the mkdir man page for the option to create this entire directory hierarchy in one command.

Exercise Try to create a directory under the /usr folder. What happens? Indeed, most of the filesystem is protected against (accidental or intentional) damage by ordinary users.

4.3 Creating empty files: touch

Exercise Read the first lines of the touch man page. Create an empty file named readme.txt inside the ops folder. Using cd and 1s, make sure your file has been created.

4.4 Copying and moving things around: cp and mv

Exercise Browse the man page for the cp command.

Use it to create a copy of your readme.txt file named readme new.txt.

Try to copy the readme_new.txt to a file that has the same name. What happens?

The cp command can also be used to copy folders. Go and look at the man page again and read the description of the -r option.

Exercise Copy the whole the ops folder to a new location. Go into that location, and check that all the original content has been duplicated here.

The mv command lets you move files and directories around. Now instead of duplicating things, we can change their location anywhere in the file system. Anywhere? well, only in places we have write-access to, of course. But we'll cover this later.

Exercise Create a new directory named work inside your home folder. Note that you can do that from anywhere in the file system, by specifying the full path, e.g mkdir /home/yourlogin/work or even better, by using the "~" shortcut.

Now move your original ops folder to place it in your work directory.

4.5 Looking at files

Many files in the system are **plain text** documents i.e. they contain simple ASCII characters with no formatting. Plain text files are important for the rest of the course, and for programming in general, because all programming tools (compilers, IDE, etc) rely only on those.

Exercise Go into the ~/work/ops directory, and type code readme.txt. This opens Visual Studio Code, a simple IDE that you will use to write your programs. Modify the file by adding some lines, save it.

Exercise We can edit files with a graphical editor. But we can also display their content from the command line directly. This is often interesting for quickly checking some info (configurations of system variables, quick tour of a program, etc).

Back in the shell, use commands cat and less to observe the content of the readme.txt file.

What is the difference between these two commands? Browse their respective man pages to find out.

4.6 Deleting files: rm and rmdir

Exercise Navigate to your \sim /work/ops/ folder and type $\boxed{\tt rm_readme.txt}$ to remove the file. Go back to the parent folder with $\boxed{\tt cd.../}$. From there, we now want to delete the whole ops folder.

Try command rm ops and watch it fail:

```
:~$ rm ops
rm: cannot remove 'ops': Is a directory
```

Now try and type rmdir ops, which fails too:

```
:~$ rmdir ops
rmdir: failed to remove 'ops': Directory not empty
```

Indeed, the ops folder still contains the readme new.txt file.

There are two ways to actually delete the entire ops directory:

- First remove everything inside, i.e. go into the folder, and remove the readme_new.txt file. Then, remove the (now empty) directory itself with rmdir.
- Force the removal of the whole ops hierarchy by typing rm -rf ops. Go read the rm man page to learn more about these options.

Warning! Command rm -rf forces deletion of a whole directory tree, without asking for confirmation. Use this command with extreme caution or you will lose precious data.

Exercise To make these commands more user-friendly, open file \sim /.bashrc in VSCode and add the following lines at the bottom:

```
alias rm="rm -i"
alias cp="cp -i"
alias mv="mv -i"
```

4.7 File ownership and access rights

In the shell, go back to your home directory and type 1s -1 You will see something comparable to figure 11.

```
Imorel@2D-LINUX-122: ~
 File Edit View Search Terminal Help
lmorel@2D-LINUX-144:~$ ls -l
drwxr-xr-x 2 lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             78 Sep 17 2020 Bureau
 drwxr-xr-x 2 lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             10 Oct 19 11:42 Desktop
                                             10 Sep 21 2020 Documents
10 Oct 19 11:42 Downloads
drwxr-xr-x 2 lmorel dsiuseradmin
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
drwxr-xr-x 4 lmorel dsiuseradmin
drwxr-xr-x 2 lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             50 Jul 19 14:43 hpeesof
                                             10 Oct 19 11:42 Music
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             46 Oct 19 11:48 ops 33 Oct 9 13:49 OPS
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             10 Oct 19 11:42 Pictures
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             10 Sep 21
                                                           2020 Public
-rw-r--r-- 1
drwx----- 3
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                              0 Jul 19 14:31 skip du check insa
                                             41 Sep 13 14:51 snap
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
-rwxr-xr-x 1 lmorel dsiuseradmin 16720 Oct 10 14:45 tabstat
-rw-r--r- 1 lmorel dsiuseradmin 222 Oct 10 14:45 tabstat.c
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             10 Oct 19 11:42 Templates
drwxr-xr-x 2
                lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                             44 Sep 21 2020 tp
drwxr-xr-x 0 root root
drwxr-xr-x 2 lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                              0 Jan
                                                           1970 tsclient
                                             10 Oct 19 11:42 Videos
 rw-r--r-- 1 lmorel dsiuseradmin
rw-r--r-- 1 lmorel dsiuseradmin
                                           460 Nov 30
460 Nov 30
                                                          2021 vivado.jou
2021 vivado.log
drwxr-xr-x 6 lmorel dsiuseradmin
lmorel@2D-LINUX-144:~$
                                            159 Jul 20 14:28 Work
```

Figure 11: Output of the ls -1 command.

Let's go through all columns, from right to left. For each file, we have: its name, its timestamp of last modification (aka **mtime**),⁴ its size (in bytes)⁵, then some ownership info (login and group names), then its *link count* (let's ignore that for now), and finally a series of rwx letters.

The leftmost column describes the **access rights** to the file, in a sequence of characters similar to e.g. "-rw-r--r" or "drwxr-xr-x". You should read this sequence in four groups of 1, 3, 3, and 3 boolean flags, respectively:

- The very first character is "-" for an ordinary file or "d" for a directory.6
- The first rwx trigram indicates the access rights (read, write, execute) for the file's owner
- The second rwx trigram indicates the access rights for the members of the file's owning group (let's ignore groups for now)

⁴Try to touch a file and observe that it changes its mtime

⁵Warning: a directory's size info has nothing to do with the total size of files in that directory.

⁶Or it can be "1" for a *symbolic link* to another path, but we'll ignore that for now

• The last rwx trigram indicates the access rights for everyone else.

The x flag means *execute*: for an ordinary file, it means that the file contains an executable program, which we can run from the shell can by typing its name. For directories, it means that one is allowed to *navigate* (e.g. with cd) to that directory.

Exercise If you want to know more about access rights, read the man page of command chmod and try it out on a few examples. Otherwise you can probably forget about it.

Exercise Even without the -1 option, command 1s can tell us some details about the file with the -F option. Try it out, then find it in the 1s man page. Open your ~/.bashrc once more and add the aliases below. Then play with them in your home directory.

```
alias ls="/usr/bin/ls -hF"
alias ll="ls -l"
alias lat="ls -lat"
alias latt="ls -latt"
alias lart="ls -lart"
alias larS="ls -larS"
```