HEP Computing Part I Very short intro to UNIX/LINUX Marcella Bona

Lectures 1



m.bona@qmul.ac.uk

Adrian Bevan

Lecture 1

- Recap simple UNIX commands for manipulation of files and directories.
- Communicating with remote machines
- Text Editing
- sed **and** awk
- Environment variables and aliases
- Archiving files



Some useful commands

ls <dir> cd <dir> mkdir <--p> <dir> cp <file> <newfile> my <file name> <new file name> tail <file> head <file> cat <file> more <file> less <file> sleep <nSeconds> gzip <file> tar cvf somefile.tar <directory> tar xvf somefile.tar tar cvzf somefile.tgz <directory> tar xvzf somefile.tgz

list the content of a directory change directory to the specified one make a new directory (–p makes missing parents) make a copy of a file rename a file look at the end of a file look at the start of a file show the file from start to finish on the terminal file viewer file viewer (more versatile than more) sleep for a number of seconds before continuing zip a file up make a tar file (archive files or directory trees) unpack a tar file make a tar file and zip it up in one go unpack a zipped tar file



Looking at the content of a file

```
cat .bash profile
head .bash profile
head -20 .bash profile
tail .bash profile
tail -30 .bash profile  # print last 30 lines
more .bash profile
less .bash profile
```

```
# print the file to the screen
     # print the first 10 lines
     # print first 20 lines
 # print last 10 lines
# use more to look at the file
# use less to look at the file
```

N.B. use 'q' in more or less to quit and return to the command prompt \rightarrow in less you can use the up and down arrows to move through the file \rightarrow / followed by a string entered into less will search for that string \rightarrow ? followed by a string entered into less will search backwards for that string



Communicating between different machines

Some group machines may use telnet and ftp for communication (login and copy).

- > telnet somemachine.somedomain
- > telnet MyComputer.MyUni.ac.uk
- > ftp somemachine.somedomain
- > ftp MyComputer.MyUni.ac.uk

ftp is generally discouraged. It's a good idea not to use it!

Almost all machines you will encounter will not use these programs. Instead you need to use ssh/scp to login or copy a file to a new machine.

- > ssh <options> somemachine.somedomain
- > ssh MyComputer.MyUni.ac.uk



where <options> are command line options that you can type in if you want to. [N.B. the angled brackets are not to be input but indicate that this is an option]

Logon and copy examples:

Example of using ssh to log into a machine

- > ssh -l username hostname.MyUni.ac.uk
- > ssh username@hostname.MyUni.ac.uk
- > ssh hostname.MyUni.ac.uk

Example of using scp

Equivalent forms of using the command. N.B. if you don't specify the username it will be assumed that you

- want to use your for the connection.
- > scp test.ps username@hostname:./public_html/

copy a single file to a subdirectory on another machine

> scp -r test-dir username@hostname:./public_html/

recursively copy a directory to another machine

So why do/should you care?

 \rightarrow most ... if not all ... of your work will be done at remote machines



Text editing

As soon as you want to start to do analysis/write reports etc ... you need to edit files. There is nothing like word available for editing code so you have to learn how to use a text editor.

Some UNIX Text Editors:

(x)emacsnice gui/text based editor – most people use thisvivery useful for sysadmin/minimal system workpico, vim, ...

EMACS:

to start emacs:

&=run in background

> emacs <somefile> &

to start a gui emacs session

> emacs –nw <somefile>

to start a text session within your terminal

Useful resources can be found:

GNU's online manual

http://www.gnu.org/manual/manual.html

man pages give a summary of information emacs help \rightarrow enter this by opening emacs and pressing F1 twice



Some emacs

Aside: On mac OS you need to replace Alt with Esc

Some of the emacs commands you should know:

[ctrl-x]+[ctrl-f] [ctrl-x]+i [ctrl-x]+[ctrl-s] [ctrl-x]+[ctrl-c] [alt-x]+ispell-buffer [alt-x]+spell-region [alt-x]+goto-line [ctrl-x]+([ctrl-x]+)[ctrl-x]+e [ctrl-x]+u# [alt-x]+query-replace

open a file insert a file save a file close emacs run ispell from emacs run ispell from emacs go to line # start defn. of a macro close dfn of a macro execute a macro repeat next command # times replace string with another one



Some more emacs





sed and awk

These are command line text editing utilities to help process information involving replacement of strings/extracting columns of text from files etc.

Some useful examples:

sed	-e 's/A/B/' <filename></filename>	substitute A for B in 1 st instance on line in the whole file
sed	-e 's/A/B/g' <filename></filename>	substitute A for B in whole file
awk	'{print \$1}' <filename></filename>	print the first column of file [space separator used by default]
awk	<pre>x -F'=' '{print \$1}' <filename></filename></pre>	
		use the '=' character as a separator
awk	'{s+=\$1}END{print "sum = '	"s}' <filename></filename>
		add up the numbers
		in the first column

Look at the GNU manuals for gawk & search on google for awk/sed O'Reilly "sed & awk" is a good book to read



Some simple examples

- sed 's/the/THE/g' test.txt
- sed 's/the/THE/' test.txt

replace 'the' with 'THE'

replace the first 'the' per line with 'THE'

awk '{print \$1}' test.txt

print the first word on each line

echo "hello world" | sed 's/world/universe/'
substitute world for universe
in print out

sed and awk can do a lot more than shown here ... see extra material for a few ideas



Some more UNIX command line examples

grep <string> test.txt > myStringFile

search for <string> in the file and
redirect the output to a file called myStringFile

./myBin >& myBin.log & tail -f myBin.log run the binary – writing to a log file (passing stdout and stderr to that log file) and then follow the tail of the log file as it gets written out append the content of file2 cat file2 >> file1 at the end of file1 export MYVAR=val; ./mmyBin >& mylog &; tail -f mylog do several things on one line e.g. pattern a search for binaries with ls /usr/local/bin/?v* a single character followed by a 'v' and finishing with anything else.



Some more commands



now you've seen the rm command, you know how to delete things \rightarrow you might want to use the following until you get more confident rm -i <aFile>

• Note that the work areas you have and use are generally not backed up.

• if you have something that is important (e.g. thesis) you should ask how to make back up copies on a regular basis (if you don't know how to do it) so that you don't loose everything if you accidentally delete the original or a hardware failure looses the disk etc.

see rsync

• At outside labs there is usually a copy of your home area backed up once a day: check if this exists and if the backup it suits your needs.

Environment Variables

There are many so called environment variables set in a shell. To list these type

printenv	tcsh/sh
env	tcsh/sh

The most important one is:

PATH set the search path for commands so the system knows where to look for them. This is the search path that a shell uses to find a command. If a command is not in one of the directories listed in \$PATH then you have to refer to it using the full path name e.g. /usr/bin/perl instead of perl

How do you know if you can see a command? Use which to search for it. If the shell can find a command by looking through the locations in \$PATH it returns the one it finds first. e.g.

```
somehost ~ > which perl
/usr/bin/perl
```



Using environment variables



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Sometimes you want to append to an existing variable, e.g. PATH. You can do this like

```
export PATH=<new path to add>:$PATH
```

• command not found means just that – the system can not find the command when searching the directories listed in \$PATH

These examples are for sh. For the tcsh they differ slightly and I'll leave it to you to find out how to manipulate the environment variables there.

A few other useful variables are:

EDITOR	set the default text editor	
PRINTER	the default printer (what lpr will try to	
	print to unless you tell it otherwise)	
PAGER	e.g. set more or less as the default pager	

e.g.

export EDITOR=emacs export PAGER=less export PRINTER=oa2



Aliases

An alias is a command short cut that you can specify. These usually go into your login scripts such as .cshrc/.tcshrc etc

e.g.



rm -i prompts you to confirm you want to delete something

you can see the list of aliases by typing alias at the command line:

```
alias clean='rm *~'
alias l.='ls -d .* --color=tty'
alias ll='ls -l --color=tty'
alias ls='ls -l'
```

This can be useful so that you don't have to type in the full command to ssh to an outside lab all the time, or to customize your setup as you like.



...

Examples

- List the environment variables already set for you.
- Check the variables EDITOR, PAGER and PRINTER. Are these defaults ok? if not change them: e.g. I have



- Could have just echo(ed) the variables instead.
- Make a directory called scripts and add this to your PATH. You'll use this later on.



Compressing files and directories

- You can compress files to save space. The gzip/gunzip commands are used to zip/unzip files. Large savings in space can be had in compressing ascii files ... on the other hand sometimes binary files are packed so efficiently that you don't get any gain from using these utilities to compress those files.
 - use ls -1 to see how big a file is
 - (ls -lh shows the file size in Kb/Mb/Gb)
 - e.g. compressing a single file

gzip thesis.ps

this command will write a compressed file called thesis.ps.gz that should be a lot smaller than the original thesis.ps

you can then unzip the file by using

gunzip thesis.ps.gz

 This can be quite handy if you have very limited disk space (e.g. at SLAC/CERN etc)



what about dealing with the content of a directory tree?

Archiving files

• If you have a lot of files that you want to store you can make an archive before moving/compressing them. The most common utility you will see for this is called tar. The name comes from the historical origin as a Tape ARchival program.

- Other programs exist such as dd & cpio etc.
- to make an archive of the directory test

 you should now have a file called test.tar in your home directory that can be compressed using gzip. To unpack the archive in a new directory

mkdir new-test
cd new-test
 here the destination is the current directory
 cp ~/test.tar .

tar xvf test.tar # unpack the archive in ~/new-test

so new-test now contains a complete copy of the directory tree test



What did the options given to tar mean???



if you use the option 'z' when using tar, you can compress the archive at the same time as making it. e.g.

tar zcvf test.tgz test/ tar zxvf test.tgz

• So How are you supposed to know all of this for the different commands?



Man Pages

• system commands usually come with man pages

→ these are instructions on how to use the command.
 e.g. type the following to look at the ls man page

```
> man ls
                NAME
                       ls - list directory contents
                SYNOPSIS
                       ls [OPTION]... [FILE]...
                DESCRIPTION
                       List information about the FILEs (the current directory by
                       default). Sort entries alphabetically if none of -cftuSUX
                       nor --sort.
                       -a, --all
                              do not hide entries starting with .
                       -A, --almost-all
                              do not list implied . and ..
                       -b, --escape
                              print octal escapes for nongraphic characters
```



Finding files

Sometimes you will loose track of where a particular file is. Either you are looking for something you have written, or something that you've been asked to find. There are two useful utils for tracking down files:

set the path to start searching

find . - name core - name the file/string you are looking for

locate core

Iocate uses a database of files that is automatically updated on a LINUX machine so it is usually a lot quicker than using find to locate a file (unless you have made the file AFTER the db was last updated).



Exercise

- 1. Try following the examples on using gzip and tar to compress and archive the dummy directory
- If you've not already done so, download the example tgz files and unpack these in your home directory. Look at the content of ~/Lectures for each new examples file you add.
- 3. Run the command

du -sh ~/Lectures

to see how much disk is used in total and compare this with the sum of file sizes for partN_examples.tgz that you've unpacked using ls -lh [N.B.] most of the space is taken up by root files that are already compressed so the reduction in size is not great for part3_examples.tgz.

4. Look at the man pages for some of the commands you now know.

HINT: the commands you know now do a lot more than you have learnt about so far. Details on the man page tell you what else they can do ... sometimes the description isn't that easy to follow!



Command Relationship Summaries



Most of what you will do with computers is, in essence, manipulating information in files. These commands cover a range of ways to look at the content of files and edit them.

It's a good idea that you make yourself familiar with the behaviour of these Commands and know how to use them if you've not done so yet.



































































Available Resources

- If you are stuck with a problem there are several resources available to you:
 - collaborators in your group or on your experiment.
 - books: library, colleague's bookshelf etc.
 - web resources:
 - Google is surprisingly good in helping you find useful technical websites.
 - An alternative is cetus-links (URL on next page)



This website contains links to beginner and advanced web based resources on most programming languages you might want to use (*except FORTRAN*)





Code Development

Before moving on from this introduction, here is a biased opinion of what is worth knowing:



Along the way you may also learn a bit about design patterns and Object Orientated programming.

If you do, don't worry about good design to begin with just learn the syntax. When you know this then you'll start to pick up what is good and what is bad. Writing 'good code' takes a long time ... so be patient and don't worry too much about making mistakes when you are learning.

