More on files and directories

Recall, last time we saw the following commands for dealing with directories: pwd, cd, ls.

The following commands are also useful when dealing with files and directories. Recall that whenever we talk about a file or a directory, it actually stands for a path to a file or directory.

- mkdir *directory*: creates *directory*
- rmdir *directory*: removes *directory* (only if it's empty and you are not inside it)
- touch *file*: creates an empty *file*
- cat file: dumps the content of file
- rm file: removes file
- mv oldname newname: renames a file (and moves it if names refer to different directories)
- mv file1 file2 ... directory: moves files into a directory
- cp oldname newname: copies a file
- cp file1 file2 ... directory: copies files into a directory

Some commands have *options*, that affect the way they behave. Options are typically a letter preceded by a –. For example, if you give the option –i to rm, that is, if you write rm –i *file*, the system will prompt you for confirmation before deleting the file. Some commands understand many options. The command 1s for instance, recognizes, among others, the option –F, which makes 1s give you some indication of the type of each file (it adds a trailing / at the end of every directory), and also the option –a, which makes 1s display *everything* in the directory, including so-called *hidden* files or directory. A file or directory is hidden if its name starts with a period, such as .i-am-hidden. Hidden files aren't special in any ways, except that 1s by default will not list them. Typically, programs needed configuration files will make those files hidden, otherwise they'd clutter up your home directory.

How do you learn and remember the various options that each command understand? You can look at the online Unix documentation, available through a command man. If you type man *command*, it

will search for and display documentation on *command*. This information is called the *man pages* of the command. Among other things, you will get a description of the arguments the command expects, and the options it understands. (The command man itself understanding different options, you can always do a man man to find out.)

Commands are often built-in. Programs (or applications) are essentially commands stored on the filesystem. You use a program just like you would a command, by specifying its name at the prompt, along with possible arguments. By default, Unix will search for the program in some directories it knows about (for instance, /bin, /usr/bin/, /usr/local/bin, etc) to attempt to find a file matching the name you specify. If it cannot find one (or if it is not marked as executable, which we will see in the next lecture), it reports an error. Otherwise, it starts the program.

To give you an example of a program, consider lynx, a web browser that you can use from a textonly console. To start it, do either lynx or lynx *URL*. (lynx can be found in /usr/local/bin/.) It can also be used noninteractively. If you try lynx -dump *URL*, it will dump the formatted content of the *URL* on the screen. For more information on lynx, consult the man pages.

Since programs are just files, you can specify exactly where you the program you want to execute is stored, by using a path. For example, consider pine, an email program you will be using. We have installed pine in the directory of the course, $\sim cs114/bin/$. To execute pine, you need to specify a path to pine (either absolute or relative). Therefore, you can invoke pine by writing $\sim cs114/bin/pine$ at the Unix prompt. This by-passes the Unix search, and attempts directly to execute the program you specify.

Unix security

Creating and deleting directories, and copying, moving and deleting files raises a question: how do you keep other users from messing around with your files? Or the system files?

Recall that each user has an identity, given by its username. Moreover, each user can belong to one or more groups. Membership in a group is set by the system administrator. For example, everyone in this class is a member of group cs114. I am also a member of group cs114, and I may also be a member of group instructors. Thus, you can be a member of more than one group.

The following commands give you identity information on yourself or someone else:

- id gives information on yourself
- id *username* gives information on user *username*
- groups returns the groups your are a member of
- groups username returns the groups user username is a member of

Permissions

Going back to security, each file and each directory has an *owner* (usually, the creator) and a group associated with it.

There are three ways in which a file or directory can be accessed: read, write or execute. They mean different things for files and for directories:

	For a file	For a directory
read (\mathbf{r})	view content	list content
write (w)	modify content	create, remove, delete files in directory
execute (x)	run program	enter directory (via cd)

From a file or directory point of view, there are three kind of people: the owner, members of the group, and others. Each file has read, write, and execute permissions (which I'll abbreviate as r/w/x permissions) for each of these kind of people: r/w/x permissions for the owner, r/w/x permissions for members of the group, and r/w/x permissions for everyone else. This kind of information is summarized by a string of 9 characters of the form xxxyyyzzz where xxx represent the r/w/x permissions for the owner, yyy the r/w/x permissions for the members of the group, and zzz the r/w/x permissions for everyone else. Each set of r/w/x permissions is of the form abc, where a is either r or –, b is either w or –, and c is either x or – (you will sometimes see s instead of x; for the time being, you can assume it means the same as x). A – indicates simply that the corresponding permission is denied.

Consider the following examples:

- rw----- only the owner can read or write
- rw-rw-rw- everyone can read or write
- ---rw---- all members of the group (excluding the owner) can read or write
- rwxrwx--- the owner and all members of the group can read, write, or execute

How do you check the permissions of a file or a directory? The command ls has an option that shows you the permissions of the files and directories it lists. If you type ls -l (the option -l stands for "long display"), you get output that looks like this:

babbage% ls	-1							
total 12								
drwx	6	cs114	cs114	512	Feb	18	2001	2000FA
drwx	9	cs114	cs114	512	Oct	3	16:17	2001SP

drwxrwx	5 cs114	cs114	512 Oct	5	11:34 HW1
drwxr-xr-x	2 cs114	cs114	512 Oct	9	13:48 bin
drwxx	3 cs114	cs114	512 Oct	1	2000 man
drwxx	3 cs114	cs114	512 Oct	1	2000 share

The leftmost string of characters on each line gives you type and permission information for the corresponding file. The first character is either d for a directory, or – for a file. (You will sometimes see 1 as well; this says that file is a link to another file. We'll cover links later in the course.) The following 9 characters are the permissions, as described above. Later on the line, you get the owner of the file or directory (cs114 in all the examples above), as well as the group associated with the file or directory (cs114 as well in all the examples above). For example, you see that the owner has read, write and execute permissions on directory bin/, while members of the cs114 group have read and execute access, as do everyone else for that matter.

Changing owner and group

How do you change things such as the owner or group of a file or directory? Unix provides the following commands:

- chown username arg1 arg2 ... changes the owner of the files/directories arg1, ... to username
- chgrp groupname arg1 arg2 ... changes the group associated with the files/directories arg1, ... to groupname

To recursively change the owner (or the group) of all the files in all the subdirectories of a given directory, you can write chown *username* -R *directory* (similarly with chgrp).

Changing permissions

How do you change permissions on a file or a directory? The command chmod does this for you. The command is invoked as follows: chmod *spec arg1 arg2 ...*, changing the permissions of *arg1*, ... according to the specification *spec*.

A specification has the form $\langle user \rangle \langle mode \rangle \langle permissions \rangle$, meaning that you are changing according to $\langle mode \rangle$ the permissions $\langle permissions \rangle$ of the users $\langle user \rangle$, where:

- $\langle user \rangle$ is any combination of the letters u (the owner), g (the group), and o (all others). The letter a (for all) can also be used. Using a is like using ugo
- (mode) is either + (adding permissions), (removing permissions), or = (setting permissions)
- $\langle permissions \rangle$ is any combination of the letters r, w, and x

For example,

- chmod a+r file adds read permissions to all (owner, group, others) to file file
- chmod og-rwx *file* removes read, write and execute permissions for the group members and everyone else to file *file*

You can combine multiple specifications by separating them by a comma (without any space). Hence,

• chmod ug+w, o-w *file* adds write permissions for the owner and the group, and removes write permissions for everyone else, to file *file*

As with chown and chgrp, you can recursively change permissions for all the files in all the subdirectories of a directory by using the -R option. For example, chmod -R o-rwx foo.