Files and Directories



Files and Directories (1)

What is a file?

- a container for ordered data
- persistent (stays around) and accessible by name

Unix files

- regular Unix files are pretty simple
 *essentially a sequence of bytes
 *can access these bytes in order
- Unix files are identified by a name in a directory

*this name is actually used to resolve the hard disk name/number, the cylinder number, the track number, the sector, the block number

-you see none of this

*it allows the file to be accessed

Files and Directories (2)

- Unix files come in other flavors as well, such as
 - Directories
 - a file containing pointers to other files
 equivalent of a "folder" on a Mac or Windows
 - Links
 - ♦ a pointer to another file
 - \$ used like the file it points to
 - similar to "shortcuts" in Windows, but better
 - Devices
 - *access a device (like a soundcard, or mouse, or ...) like it is a file

Directories (1)

- Current Working Directory
 - the directory you are looking at right now
 - the shell remembers this for you
- To determine the Current Working Directory, use the command pwd (Print Working Directory)

Use: obelix[18] > pwd

Result: print the current working directory

Directories (2)

Moving about the filesystem

- Use the "cd" (Change Directory) command to move between directories and change the current directory Use: obelix[19] > cd 211
 Result: Makes cs211 the current working directory
- Listing the contents of a directory
 - Use the "Is" (LiSt directory) command to list the contents of a directory

obelix[20] > ls



Directories (3)

The upside-down tree

- the Unix filesystem is organized like an upside-down tree

✤ at the top of the filesystem is the root

– write this as a lone slash: /

- this is NOT a backslash (opposite of MS-DOS)!

✤ For example, you can change to the root directory:

```
obelix[21] > cd /
obelix[22] > ls
TT_DB/ dev/
bin@ devices/
cdrom/ etc/
core export/
courses@gaul/
```

| home/ | mnt/ | sbin/ | xfn/ |
|-------------|-----------|-------|------|
| kernel/ | net/ | tmp/ | |
| lib@ | opt/ | usr/ | |
| local/ | platform/ | var/ | |
| lost+found/ | proc/ | vol/ | |

Directories (4)



Directories (5)

- Some standard directories and files in a typical Unix system
 - / the root
 - /bin BINaries (executables)
 - /dev DEVices (peripherals)
 - /devices where the DEVICES really live
 - /etc startup and control files
 - /lib LIBraries (really in /usr)
 - /opt OPTional software packages
 - /proc access to PROCesses
 - /sbin Standalone BINaries
 - /tmp place for TeMPorary files
 - /gaul/
- where home directories are mounted s0...s9: different places for users

Directories (6)

- /usr
- /usr/bin
- /usr/include
- /usr/lib
- /usr/local local stuff
- /usr/local/bin **local BINaries**
- /usr/local/lib
- /usr/openwin
- /usr/sbin
- /usr/tmp
- /usr/ucb
- /var
- /var/mail

- USeR stuff
- **BINaries** again
- include files for compilers
 - LIBraries of functions etc.
- local LIBraries
- X11 stuff
 - sysadmin stuff
 - place for more TeMPorary files
 - **UCB** binaries
 - VARiable stuff
 - the mail spool

Pathnames (1)

- A typical Unix file system spans many disks
 - As a user you don't know or need to know which physical disk things are on
 - In fact, you don't even know which machine they are attached to: disks can be "remote" (eg: your home directory is stored on a disk attached to a server in the machine room)
 - Look at the *df* command to see different disks and space used
 - Inside each directory may be more directories
- The Absolute Path
 - to identify where a file is, string the directories together
 - separating names with slashes:
 - * e.g. /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow
 - this is the absolute path for my home directory
 - Iists everything from the root down to the directory you want to specify

Pathnames (2)

- When you first log in, you are in your HOME directory
 - To see what this is:

obelix[1] > pwd

/gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow

 Your home directory is also stored in the environment variable HOME

obelix[2] > echo My home is \$HOME

My home is /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow

– You can "Go Home" by typing obelix[3] > cd \$HOME

Pathnames (3)

Some shorthand

- In some shells (including tcsh, csh, and bash), \$HOME can be abbreviated as ~ (tilde)
- Example: obelix[26] > cd ~/bin
 - change to the bin directory under your home directory (equivalent to \$HOME/bin)
 - * this is where you usually store your own commands or "executables"
- To quickly go home:

obelix[27]% cd

with no parameters, cd changes to your home directory

– viser refers to the home directory of user

✤ For me, ~csnow is the same as ~

 ~doug refers to Doug Vancise's home directory (/gaul/s1/usr/faculty/doug)

Pathnames (4)

Relative pathnames

- You can also specify pathnames relative to the current working directory
 - This is called a relative pathname
- For example

obelix[28] > pwd /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow obelix[29] > ls tmp/ a.out* smit.script cs211@ obelix[30] > cd tmp obelix[31] > pwd /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow/tmp

Note: You don't need to know absolute pathnames

For most commands which require a file name, you can specify a pathname (relative or absolute)

Pathnames (5)

- Every directory contains two "special" directories: .
 and ..
 - . : another name for the current directory

-e.g. cp cs211/foo.

- .. : another name for the immediate parent directory of the current directory
 - use this to cd to your parent:
 - obelix[32] > pwd
 /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow
 obelix[33] > cd ..
 obelix[34] > pwd
 /gaul/s1/student/1999
 obelix[35] > cd ../..
 obelix[36] > pwd
 /gaul/s1

Pathnames (6)

- You can locate a file or directory by this way:
 - look at the first character of the pathname
 - */ start from the root
 - *. start from the current directory
 - start from the parent directory
 - start from a home directory
 - * else start from the current directory
 - going down to the subdirectories in the pathname, until you complete the whole pathname.
 - if you start in ~csnow, the following are equivalent:
 */gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow/cs211/readme.txt
 * ~/cs211/readme.txt
 - * cs211/readme.txt

Working with Directories (1)

- Create a directory with the mkdir command mkdir newdirname
- newdirname can be given with pathname
 - obelix[37] > pwd /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow/cs211 obelix[38] > Isreadme.txt obelix[39] > mkdir mydir1 obelix[40] > Isreadme.txt mydir1/ obelix[41] > mkdir mydir1/mydir2 obelix[42] > Is mydir1[▲] Note: we can specify mydir2/ a directory with Is obelix[43] > cd mydir1/mydir2

Working with Directories (2)

 Remove a directory with the rmdir command rmdir dirname

- dirname is the directory to remove and can be specified using a pathname
- if the directory exists and is <u>empty</u> it will be removed
- ♦ Examples:



Working with Directories (3)

 Move a file from one directory to another obelix[1] > pwd /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow/cs211 obelix[2] > ls readme.txt mydir1/ obelix[3] > Is mydir1 A dot is here. hello.txt obelix[4] > mv mydir1/hello.txt. obelix[5] > Is mydir1obelix[6] > Isreadme.txt hello.txt mydir1/

You can also move a directory the same way - it is just a special file, after all.

Working with Directories (4)

 Copy a file from one directory to another obelix[1] > Isreadme.txt mydir1/ obelix[2] > cp readme.txt mydir1 obelix[3] > ls mydir1 readme.txt Copying a directory obelix[4] > cp mydir1 mydir2 cp: mydir1: is a directory obelix[5] > cp -r mydir1 mydir2 obelix[6] > ls mydir2 Must do a recursive copy readme.txt (cp -r) to copy a directory

Cannot use just cp to copy a directory

Working with Directories (5)

- Some shells (csh and tcsh) provide pushd and popd directory commands
- pushd changes directories, but remembers the previous one by pushing it on to a stack
- popd changes directories back to the last directory placed on the stack by pushd



Working with Directories (6)

- What if you need to locate a file, or set of files, in a large directory structure?
 - Using cd and Is would be very tedious!
- The command find is used to search through directories to locate files.
 - Wildcards can be used, if the exact file name is unknown, or to find multiple files at once.
 - Can also find files based on size, owner, creation time, type, permissions, and so on.
 - Can also automatically execute commands on each file found.
- ◆ Do a "man find" for details and examples!

More Files and Directories (1)

- What files do I already have?
 - Startup files for csh and tcsh (.login, .cshrc)
 - Contain commands run after you type your password, but before you get a prompt
 - Assume you've not used your account before obelix[1] > ls obelix[2] >
 - Why can't I see any files?
 - Files beginning with a 'dot' are usually control files in Unix and not generally displayed
 - Use the –a option to see all files obelix[3] > ls -a ./ ../ .cshrc .login obelix[4] >

obelix[4] >

More Files and Directories (2)

 OK, let us study some new commands, and variations of some familiar ones

> obelix[51] > ls -a < list all files including those beginning a with . ./ ../ .cshrc .login obelix[52] > cp .cshrc my_new_file obelix[53] > ls -a.login my_new_file ../ .cshrc obelix[54] > cp -i .login my_new_file The –i option says to cp: overwrite my_new_file (yes/no)? y ask when this overwrites obelix[55] > head -7 my_new_file existing files. # # WGUI is twm or mwm # head displays the top lines of a file if (!(\$?HOSTTYPE)) then set HOSTTYPE = `uname -m` endif

More Files and Directories (3)



Unix Filenames (1)

Almost any character is valid in a file name

- all the punctuation and digits
- the one exception is the / (slash) character
- the following are not encouraged

* ? * [] ""'() &:;!

the following are not encouraged as the first character

ᢤ - ∼

- control characters are also allowed, but are not encouraged
- UPPER and lower case letters are different
 A.txt and a.txt are different files

Unix Filenames (2)

- No enforced extensions
 - The following are all legal Unix file names

∗a ∗a. ∗.a

*...

♦ a.b.c

- Remember files beginning with dot are hidden
 - Is cannot see them, use Is -a
- and .. are reserved for current and parent directories

Unix Filenames (3)

- Even though Unix doesn't enforce extensions,
 - "." and an extension are still used for clarity
 - ✤.jpg for JPEG images
 - .tex for LaTeX files
 - .sh for shell scripts
 - .txt for text files
 - .mp3 for MP3's
 - some applications may enforce their own extensions
 - Compilers look for these extensions by default
 - .c means a C program file
 - -.C or .cpp or .cc for C++ program files
 - .h for C or C++ header files
 - .o means an object file

Unix Filenames (4)

- Executable files usually have no extensions
 - cannot execute file a.exe by just typing a
 - telling executable files from data files can be difficult
- "file" command
 - Use: file filename
 - Result: print the type of the file
 - Example: obelix[1] > file ~/.cshrc
 - .cshrc: executable c-shell script
- Filenames and pathnames have limits on lengths
 - 1024 characters typically
 - these are pretty long (much better than MS-DOS days and the 8.3 filenames)

Fixing Filename Mistakes

- It is very easy to get the wrong stuff into filenames
 - Say you accidentally typed

obelix[3] > cp myfile -i

What if you type

Creates a file with name -i

✤ The shell thinks -i is an option, not a file

obelix[4] > rm -i

- * Getting rid of these files can be painful
- ♦ There is an easy way to fix this...
 - You simply type

obelix[5] > rm -- -i

- Many commands use "--" to say there are no more options

Filename Wildcarding (1)

- Wildcarding is the use of "special" characters to represent or match a sequence of other characters
 - a short sequence of characters can match a long one
 - a sequence may also match a large number of sequences
- Often use wildcard characters to match filenames
 - filename substitution generally known as "globbing"
- Wildcard characters
 - * matches a sequence of zero or more characters
 - Example: a*.c* matches abc.c, abra.cpp,
 - ? matches any single character
 - Example: a?.c matches ab.c, ax.c, but not abc.c
 - [...] matches any one character between the braces
 - Example: b[aei]t matches bat, bet, or bit, not baet

Filename Wildcarding (2)

Wildcard sequences can be combined

obelix[6] > mv a*.[ch] cfiles/

* mv all files beginning with a and ending with .c or .h into the directory cfiles

obelix[7] > ls [abc]*.?

 list files whose name begins with a, b, or c and ends with . (dot) followed by a single character

- Wildcards do not cross "/" boundaries
 - Example: csnow*c does not match csnow/codec
- Wildcards are expanded by the shell, and not by the program
 - Programmers of commands do not worry about searching the directory tree for matching file names
 - The program just sees the list of files matched

Filename Wildcarding (3)

- Matching the dot
 - A dot (.) at
 - * the beginning of a filename, or
 - immediately following a /

must be matched explicitly.

- Similar to the character /
- Example: obelix[8] > cat .c*

cat all files whose names begin with .c

- As mentioned earlier, [....] matches any one of the characters enclosed
 - Within "[...]", a pair of characters separated by "-" matches any character lexically between the two
 - Example:

obelix[9] > ls [a-z]* ←

lists all files beginning with a character between ASCII 'a' and ASCII 'z' Filename Wildcarding (4)

More advanced examples: – What does the following do? $obelix[10] > ls /bin/*[-_]*$ – What about this? obelix[11] > ls *- What about this? obelix[12] > mv *.bat *.bit Answer: this one is complicated...

Unix Quoting (1)

- Double Quotes: "...."
 - Putting text in double quotes "..." stops interpretation of some shell special characters (whitespace mostly)
 - Examples:

obelix[12] > echo Here are some words Here are some words obelix[13] > echo "Here are some words" Here are some words obelix[14] > mkdir "A directory name with spaces! " obelix[15] > Is A* A directory name with spaces!/

Unix Quoting (2)

♦ Single Quotes '...'

- Stops interpretation of even more specials
 - Stop variable expansion (\$HOME, etc.)
 - Backquotes `...` (execute a command and return result ...we'll get to this later)
 Note difference: single quote ('), backquote (`)
 - *Examples:
 - obelix[16] > echo "Welcome \$HOME"
 Welcome /gaul/s1/student/1999/csnow
 obelix[17] > echo 'Welcome \$HOME'
 Welcome \$HOME

Unix Quoting (3)

Backslash \

- 'quotes' the next character
- Lets one escape all of the shell special characters obelix[18] > mkdir Dir\ name\ with\ spaces** obelix[19] > ls Dir\ * Dir name with spaces**/
- Use backslash to escape a newline character obelix[20]% echo "This is a long line and\ we want to continue on the next" This is a long line and we want to continue on the next
- Use backslash to escape other shell special chars
 - Like quote characters
 - obelix[21] > echo \"Bartlett\'s Familiar Quotations\"
 "Bartlett's Familiar Quotations"

Unix Quoting (4)

Control-V

- Quotes the next character, even if it is a control character
- Lets one get weird stuff into the command line
- Very similar to backslash but generally for ASCII characters which do not show up on the screen
- Example: the backspace character
 - obelix[22] > echo "abc^H^H^Hcde"

cde

Control-h is backspace on most terminals

typing Control-v Control-h enters a "quoted" Control-h to the shell • written ^H

 Precisely how it works is dependent on the shell you use, and the type of terminal you are using

Hard and Symbolic Links (1)

- When a file is created, there is one link to it.
- Additional links can be added to a file using the command In. These are called hard links.
- Each hard link acts like a pointer to the file and are indistinguishable from the original.
 - obelix[1] > ls
 - readme.txt
 - obelix[2] > In readme.txt unix_is_easy
 - obelix[3] > ls
 - readme.txt unix_is_easy
- There is only one copy of the file contents on the hard disk, but now two distinct names!

Hard and Symbolic Links (2)

- A symbolic link is an indirect pointer to another file or directory.
- It is a directory entry containing the pathname of the pointed to file.

```
obelix[1] > cd
obelix[2] > \ln -s /usr/le
```

```
obelix[2] > In -s /usr/local/bin bin
```

```
obelix[3] > ls -l
```

```
Irwxrwxrwx bin -> /usr/local/bin
```

```
obelix[4] > cd bin
obelix[5] > pwd
/usr/local/bin
```

Hard and Symbolic Links (3)

- Two hard links have the same authority to a file
 - Removing any of them will NOT remove the contents of the file
 - Removing all of the hard links will remove the contents of the file from the hard disk.
- ♦ A symbolic link is just an entry to the real name
 - Removing the symbolic link does not affect the file
 - Removing the original name will remove the contents of the file
- Only super users can create hard links for directories
- Hard links must point to files in the same Unix filesystem

FTP (1)

♦ FTP File Transfer Protocol obelix[1] > ftp gaul.csd.uwo.ca Connected to gaul.csd.uwo.ca 220 gaul.csd.uwo.ca FTP server ready. Name : csnow 331 password required for csnow Password: 230 user csnow logged in. ftp> get remotefile localfile ftp> quit 221 Goodbye

obelix[2] >

FTP (2)

Basic FTP commands

- Is list the remote directory (dir is more verbose)
- cd change the remote directory
- get remotefile [localfile] download remotefile
- put localfile [remotefile] upload localfile
- bye quit
- ? list all the available commands
- -? command print the information about a command
- mget file_name_with_wildcards get multiple files
- mput file_name_with_wildcards put multiple files
- prompt toggles prompting with mget and mput
- bin transfer binary files (8 bits per char)