

03 - Manipulating Files and Using Git

CS 2043: Unix Tools and Scripting, Spring 2017 [1]

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Some Logistics

- Last day to add is Wednesday 2/1.
- On moving forward independently, and using **sudo**.
 - I strongly advise taking a *snapshot* of your VM.

Working with Files

Users and Groups

Like most OS's, Unix allows multiple people to use the same machine at once. The question: who has access to what?

- Access to files depends on the users' account.
- All accounts are presided over by the Superuser, or **root** account.
- Each user has absolute control over any files they own, which can only be superseded by **root**.
- Files can also be owned by a **group**, allowing more users to have access.

File Ownership

- You can discern who owns a file many ways, the most immediate being `ls -l`

Permissions with `ls`

```
$ ls -l Makefile
-rw-rw-r--. 1 sven users 4.9K Jan 31 04:42 Makefile
           sven      # the user
                users # the group
```

- The third column is the *user*, and the fourth column is the *group*.

What is this RWX Nonsense?

- R = read, W = write, X = execute.
- `rxrwxrwx`
 - User permissions.
 - Group permissions.
 - Other permissions (a.k.a. neither the owner, nor a member of the group).
- Directory permissions begin with a **d** instead of a `-`.

An example

What would the permissions `-rwxr-----` mean?

- It is a file.
- User can read and write to the file, as well as execute it.
- Group members are allowed to read the file, but cannot write to or execute.
- Other cannot do *anything* with it.

Changing Permissions

Change Mode

```
chmod <mode> <file>
```

- Changes file / directory permissions to **<mode>**.
- The format of **<mode>** is a combination of three fields:
 - Who is affected: a combination of **u**, **g**, **o**, or **a** (all).
 - Use a **+** to add permissions, and a **-** to remove.
 - Specify type of permission: any combination of **r**, **w**, **x**.
- Or you can specify mode in octal: user, then group, then other.
 - e.g. **777** means user=7, group=7, other=7 permissions.

The octal version can be confusing, but will save you time.
Excellent resource in [2].

Changing Ownership

Changing the group

Change Group

```
chgrp group <file>
```

- Changes the group ownership of <file> to **group**.

As the super user, you can change who owns a file:

Change Ownership

```
chown user:group <file>
```

- Changes the ownership of <file>.
- The **group** is optional.
- The **-R** flag is useful for recursively modifying everything in a directory.

File Ownership, Alternate

If you are like me, you often forget which column is which in `ls -l...`

Status of a file or filesystem

`stat [opts] <filename>`

- Gives you a wealth of information, generally more than you will ever actually need.
- **Uid** is the user, **Gid** is the group.
 - BSD/OSX: use `stat -x` for standard display of this command.
- Can be useful if you want to mimic file permissions you don't know.
 - Human readable: - `format=%A`, e.g. `-rw-rw-r--`
 - BSD/OSX: `-f %Sp` is used instead.
 - Octal: - `format=%a` (great for `chmod`), e.g. `664`
 - BSD/OSX: `-f %A` is used instead.

Platform Notes

- Convenience flag for **chown** and **chmod** on non-BSD Unix:

```
$ chmod --reference=<src> <dest>
```

- Set the permissions of **dest** to the permissions of **src**!
- BSD/OSX users: **--reference** does not exist, you will have to execute two commands.

```
$ chmod $(stat -f %A <src>) <dest>
```

- The command inside of **\$(...)** gets evaluated *before* **chmod**.
 - You may see backticks: ``stat -f %A <src>``, this is the old way, and is no longer supported.
- The **stat** command performs a little differently on BSD/OSX by default. Read the **man** page.

Types of Files and Usages

Plain text files are human-readable, and are usually used for things like:

- Documentation,
- Application settings,
- Source code,
- Logs, and
- Anything you may want to read via the terminal (e.g. README.txt).

Binary files are not human-readable. They are written in the language your computer prefers.

- Executables,
- Libraries,
- Media files,
- Archives (.zip, etc), and many more.

Reading Files Without Opening

Concatenate

```
cat <filename>
```

- Prints the contents of the file to the terminal window

```
cat <file1> <file2>
```

- Prints `file1` first, then `file2`.

more

```
more <filename>
```

- Scroll through one page at a time.
- Program exits when end is reached.

less

```
less <filename>
```

- Scroll pages or lines (mouse wheel, space bar, and arrows).
- Program does not exit when end is reached.

Long files can be a pain with the previous tools.

Head and Tail of Input

```
head -[numlines] <filename>
```

```
tail -[numlines] <filename>
```

- Prints the first / last numlines of the file.
- Default is 10 lines.

You can talk to yourself in the terminal too!

Echo

```
echo <text>
```

- Prints the input string to the standard output (the terminal).
- We will soon learn how to use **echo** to put things into files, append to files, etc.

Let's Git Started

What is **git**?

- **git** is a *decentralized* version control system.
- Ever used "track changes" for a word document? It's basically the same thing.
- Except for exceptionally more advanced, and you don't have to pay for it.
- Basically, it enables you to save changes as you go to your code.
 - As you make these changes, if at any point in time you discover your code is "broken", you can *revert* back in time!
 - Of course, if you haven't been "saving" frequently, you have less to work with.
 - Mantra: *commit* early and often.

git Terminology

- The "document" is called a *repository* (*repo*).
 - The initial download is called *clone*.
- The location where files are being stored on the server is the *remote*.
- We'll refer to the copies on your computer as the *local*, or sometimes *client*.
- The act of "saving" is *commit*.
 - Just because you saved it *locally* doesn't mean anything for the *remote*.
 - To publish changes to the *remote*, you *push*.
- When the version you have is different than what is online, this can produce a *conflict* - if **git** cannot figure out what to do, it will tell you.
- To acquire updates from the *remote*, you need to *pull*.

What does it actually look like?

Teaser: Example Scenario

- Suppose you (**A**), and your best friend **B** are working in the same repo.
- You both **clone** the repository at the same time, and both make different changes to the same file.
- **B** hacks your internet and takes you offline, and **pushes** their changes to the **remote**.
- You get internet back, and go to **push**. What happens?
 - The **remote** will reject your **push**, and force you to merge in the changes from **B** first.
- Basically, **git** can get complicated quickly.
- HOWEVER! You **must** work independently in this class, so you won't have nearly as many problems ;)

Demo Time!

Our first in class demo

- Ok, lets not get too carried away with **git**.
- The first thing you'll want to do is learn how to download a **repo**.

```
$ git clone https://github.com/cs2043-sp17/lecture-demos.git
```

- ... lets walk through the demo ...
- Hey a solution! To get it now:

```
$ git pull
```

References I

[1] B. Abrahao, H. Abu-Libdeh, N. Savva, D. Slater, and others over the years.

Previous cornell cs 2043 course slides.

[2] C. Hope.

Linux and unix chmod command help and examples.

<http://www.computerhope.com/unix/uchmod.htm>,
2016.