

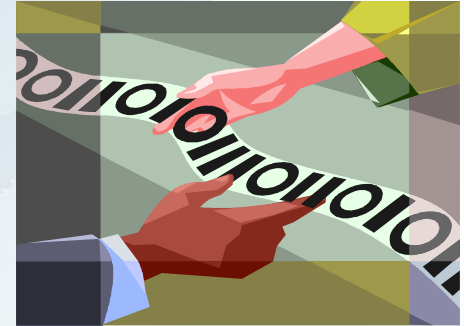
ULI101

Week 04

Week Overview

- Data Representation
- Binary, octal, decimal and hexadecimal numbering systems
- Number conversions
- Unix file permissions

Data Representation



Why Study Data Representation?

- Computers process and store information in binary format
- For many aspects of programming and networking, the details of data representation must be understood
 - **C Programming** – sending information over networks, files
 - **Unix / Linux** – setting permissions for files and directories
 - **Web Pages** – setting color codes

Data Representation

- In terms of this course, we will learn how a simple decimal number (integer) is stored into the computer system as a binary number.
- We will also learn other numbering systems (octal and hexadecimal) that can be used as a “short-cut” to represent binary numbers.

Data Representation

- Before we learn numbering systems, we have to “go-back in time” to see how we learned the decimal numbering system.
- The decimal numbering system (base 10) uses 10 symbols for each digit (0, 1, 2, ... 9). Since most humans have 10 extensions on their hands (2 thumbs, 8 fingers), many suspect that is why humans work with decimal numbers.

Data Representation

Decimal Numbers

- Back in grade school we learn how to understand decimal numbers. For example, take the decimal number 3572. In grade school, we probably learned to break-down this number as follows:

3 thousands
5 hundreds
7 tens
2 ones

10784.36
5x9=45
2.719372
9÷1

10784.36
5 × 8 = 40
2.71372
9 ÷ 1

Data Representation

Decimal Numbers

- Another way to look at this number is multiplying the digit by 10 (the numbering base) raised to increasing powers (starting at 0 from the “ones” and moving towards the higher digits)

3 thousands = $3 \times 10^3 = 3 \times 1000$
5 hundreds = $5 \times 10^2 = 5 \times 100$
7 tens = $7 \times 10^1 = 7 \times 10$
2 ones = $2 \times 10^0 = 2 \times 1$

This way of understanding decimal numbers is the basis for math operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, decimal numbers, etc!

Data Representation

Binary Numbers

- We can use a similar method to convert a binary number to a decimal number. We do the same thing in the previous slide, but we multiply by base 2 instead of base 10. Take the binary number 1101:

$$1 \times 2^3 = 1 \times 8 = 8$$

$$1 \times 2^2 = 1 \times 4 = 4$$

$$0 \times 2^1 = 0 \times 2 = 0$$

$$1 \times 2^0 = 1 \times 1 = 1$$

$$+ \quad \text{---}$$
$$\mathbf{13}$$

Remember, start from the right-hand-side and move to the left.

Therefore, **1101** in binary is **13** in decimal . For programmers, the 8-bit binary number **00001101** can represent the unsigned integer **13**!

Data Representation

Octal Numbers

- The octal numbering system (base 8) uses 8 symbols for each digit (0, 1, 2, ... 7). We can use the same process in the previous slide to convert an octal number to a decimal number (but use base 8 instead!) . Convert the octal number **2741** to decimal:

$$2 \times 8^3 = 2 \times 512 = 1024$$

$$7 \times 8^2 = 7 \times 64 = 448$$

$$4 \times 8^1 = 4 \times 8 = 32$$

$$1 \times 8^0 = 1 \times 1 = 1$$

$$+ \quad \text{---}$$
$$\mathbf{1505}$$

Remember, start from the right-hand-side and move to the left.

Therefore, **2741** in octal is **1505** in decimal.

Data Representation

Hexadecimal Numbers

- The hexadecimal numbering system (base 16) uses 16 symbols for each digit (0, 1, 2, ... 9, A, B, C, D, E, F). Why use letters? Because we are only human and we need to use letters to represent higher digits 10 – 15 as a single digit! Let's convert the hexadecimal number F2A to decimal:

$$F \times 16^2 = 15 \times 16^2 = 15 \times 256 = 3840$$

$$2 \times 16^1 = 2 \times 16^1 = 2 \times 16 = 32$$

$$A \times 16^0 = 10 \times 16^0 = 10 \times 1 = 10$$

$$+ \quad \text{---}$$
$$3882$$

Therefore, **F2A** in
Hexadecimal
is **3882** in decimal.

Data Representation

- I can understand now how decimal numbers can be stored in the computers as binary numbers, but why are we learning Octal and Hexadecimal numbers?
- As computers and computer programming languages evolved, octal and hexadecimal numbers were considered “short-hand” a short-cut to represent binary numbers.

For example:

- Each octal digit represents 3 binary digits.
- Each hexadecimal digit represents 4 binary digits.

Data Representation

- Linux/Unix operating system commands, networking specialists, programming analysts as well as car-crash investigators use these types of shortcuts which help save space and time issuing a command.

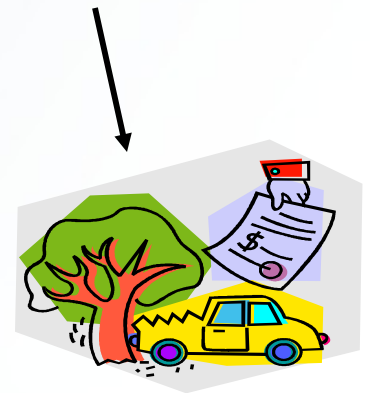
`chmod 700 secretfile`

↑
Unix/Linux command to allow file read, write and execute access to the file's owner only!



↑
Hexadecimal numbers can refer to memory addresses which point to incorrect programming procedure!

Cars provide hexadecimal codes to record info prior to impact!



Data Representation

- You will be converting between any number system whether it is from binary to decimal, binary to octal, decimal to binary, octal to hexadecimal, etc.
- The next series of slides provide interesting shortcut how to perform these numbering system conversions. The symbol ^ is used to represent “raised to the power of..”.

For Example: $10^3 = 10^3$

Converting Binary to Octal

Convert the binary number 111110000 to an octal number:

$$\begin{array}{r} = \\ \times \\ \text{i.e.} \end{array} \begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2^2 & 2^1 & 2^0 & 2^2 & 2^1 & 2^0 & 2^2 & 2^1 & 2^0 \\ (4) & (2) & (1) & (4) & (2) & (1) & (4) & (2) & (1) \\ 1 \times 4 + & 1 \times 2 + & 1 \times 1 & 1 \times 4 + & 1 \times 2 + & 0 \times 1 & 0 \times 4 + & 0 \times 2 + & 0 \times 1 \\ = & 7 & & 6 & & & 0 & & \end{array}$$

Remember:

1 octal digit is equal to 3 binary digits. Group binary digits into groups of 3 starting from the right. Add leading zeros if left-most group has less than 3 digits. Convert each group of 3 digits to an octal digit.

Therefore, the binary number 111110000 represents 760 as an octal number. This code can be used to represent directory and file permissions (you will learn how to set permissions soon)

Converting Octal to Binary

Similar to previous calculation, but in reverse:
Convert octal number 760 to binary.

7	6	0
(4)(2)(1)	(4)(2)(1)	(4)(2)(1)
1 1 1	1 1 0	0 0 0

= 111110000

“Spread-out” octal number to make room for binary number result.

Determine digits (0's or 1's) that are required when multiplied by appropriate power of 2 to add up to octal digit.

Converting Binary to Hex

Convert the binary number 111110000 to a hexadecimal number:

=	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
	(8)	(4)	(2)	(1)	(8)	(4)	(2)	(1)	(8)	(4)	(2)	(1)
	1				15				0			
	1				F				0			

Note:

1 hexadecimal digit is equal to 4 binary digits. Group binary digits into groups of 4 starting from the right. Add leading zeros if last group of digits is less than 4 digits. Convert each group of 4 digits to a hexadecimal digit.

Therefore, the binary number 111110000 represents 1F0 as a hexadecimal number.

Converting Hex to Binary

Similar to previous calculation, but in reverse:
Convert hexadecimal number 1F0 to binary.

1	F	0
1	15	0

“Spread-out” hex number to make room for binary number result.

(8)(4)(2)(1)	(8)(4)(2)(1)	(8)(4)(2)(1)
0 0 0 1	1 1 1 1	0 0 0 0

= 000111110000 = 111110000

Determine digits (0's or 1's) that are required when multiplied by appropriate power of 2 to add up to hexadecimal digit.

Data Representation

Converting decimal to binary

Example: Convert 78 to a binary number

- List the powers of 2 (until greater than or equal to 78)
Start with the highest number equal or just less than 78.
Put a binary digit “1” below that number and subtract that decimal equivalent from 78 (eg. $78 - 64 = 14$).
Repeat the same step for the remainder until result is zero.
Any numbers NOT used become binary digit “0”

64	32	16	8	4	2	1
1	0	0	1	1	1	0
$78 - 64 = 14$			$14 - 8 = 6$	$6 - 4 = 2$	$2 - 2 = 0$	

File Permissions

As you may recall from our previous notes, that Unix/Linux recognizes everything as a file:

- Regular files to store data, programs, etc...
- Directory files to store regular files and subdirectories
- Special Device files which represent hardware such as hard disk drives, printers, etc...

You may ask, “Since I can navigate throughout the Unix/Linux file system – what prevents someone from removing important files on purpose or by accident?”

Answer: **Ownership** of the file, and **file permissions**

File Permissions



In previous classes, you only noted a few items from a detailed listing such as type of file, file size and date of creation/modification.

Let's look at the following detailed listing of a device (a hard-disk partition) located in the `/dev` (devices) directory and explore more items:

```
[username] ls -l /dev/hda  
brw-r----- 1 root disk 3,0 2003-03-14 08:07 /dev/hda
```

Let's explore the results of this detailed listing in the next slide

File Permissions

```
brw-r----- 1 root disk 3,0 2003-03-14 08:07 /dev/hda
```



This indicates the user who “owns” the file.

In this case, the superuser or “root” probably created the file.



File Permissions

```
brw-r----- 1 root disk 3,0 2003-03-14 08:07 /dev/hda
```



This indicates:

1. File Type (i.e. “**b**” or “**c**” for device file, “-” for regular files, “**d**” for directory file)

2. File Permissions (i.e. what permissions are granted

access, by the owner regarding file file modification, and/or file execution)

Let’s look at these permissions in more detail in the next slide...

File Permissions

File type File permissions

↓ ↓

b rw-r-- ---

File Permissions

The diagram illustrates the structure of a file's permission string. It shows a sequence of characters: a file type character (represented by 'b'), followed by permissions for the owner (rw), group (r), and others (---). Arrows indicate the mapping from labels to parts of the string: 'File type' points to 'b', 'File permissions' points to the 'rw-r--' part, and an unlabeled arrow points to the owner's permissions 'rw'.

File owner permissions:

In this case, the owner (in this case root) can access (**read**) the file, the owner can modify (**write**) the file, but a dash instead of an “x” means that the owner cannot run (**execute**) the file like a program....



File Permissions

OK, I can now see that the owner ([root](#)) is the only user that has permissions to make changes ([write](#)) to the file [/dev/hda](#), so no other user can damage or edit and save changes to that file.

But what if an owner of a file wanted other users to view or write to their file? Can the owner of the file allow access to some users, and not to others?

Answer: That is what the other 2 sets of permissions are for. Look at the next slide...

File Permissions

Let's look at the detailed listing for a regular file owned by someone else:

```
[joe.professor] ls -l ~/work_together
```

```
-rw-rw---- 1 joe.professor users 0 2006-02-02 10:47 ~/work_together
```

File Permissions

Let's look at the detailed listing for a regular file owned by someone else:

```
[joe.professor] ls -l ~/work_together
```

```
-rw-rw---- 1 joe.professor users 0 2006-02-02 10:47 ~/work_together
```



This indicates the user “**joe.professor**” owns the file “**work_together**”. The owner “joe.professor” can **read** and **write** to that file.

By the way, you can change the ownership of files (using the **chown** command, assuming you own them)

File Permissions

Let's look at the detailed listing for a regular file owned by someone else:

```
[joe.professor] ls -l ~/work_together
```

```
-rw-rw---- 1 joe.professor users 0 2006-02-02 10:47 ~/work_together
```



This indicates a **group name (called “**users**”) that is assigned to that file “**work_together**”.**

File Permissions

Let's look at the detailed listing for a regular file owned by someone else:

```
[joe.professor] ls -l ~/work_together
```

```
-rw-rw---- 1 joe.professor users 0 2006-02-02 10:47 ~/work_together
```




In this case the user **“joe.professor”** has given permission to other users that belong to the **“users”** group to read and write to the file **“work_together”**.

File Permissions

Let's look at the detailed listing for a regular file owned by someone else:

```
[joe.professor] ls -l ~/work_together
```

```
-rw-rw---- 1 joe.professor users 0 2006-02-02 10:47 ~/work_together
```



What does this last set of permissions refer to?

Answer: all “other” users - users that DO NOT belong to the “users” group.!

Directory Permissions

- We use the same letters for permissions as for regular files and permissions are assigned for owner, group, and others
- However, since a directory is a special kind of file which holds lists of other files, permissions work differently than for regular files:
 - **r** – allows listing contents of the directory
 - **w** – allows creating and deleting files inside
 - **x** – allows access to files inside
- In order to have access to directory contents, at least the “**x**” permission is necessary.
 - This is called the “pass-through” permission

Pass-Through Permissions

The pass-through permission is the key to grant access to only selected directories and/or files

Consider this example – you are giving others access to the following:

[/home/you/documents/uli101/jokes.txt](#)

- The following directories need pass-through permissions set by you for others:
[you](#), [documents](#), [uli101](#)
- Even if the above directories have other files, possibly readable by others, they would have to know/guess their name before accessing them
- Just in case, you should not grant access permissions to others by default
 - Only in specific case, such as this one ([jokes.txt](#)), give read permissions to specific files

File Permissions

Changing Permissions via **chmod** command

`chmod [permissions] file(s)`

- Can be used to change permissions for **directories** and **regular files**.
- There are two ways to set [who][operation][permission]:
 - **Symbolic Method (using characters)**
 - **Absolute Method (using Octal Numbers)**

File Permissions

Symbolic Method

Symbolic Method

- Permissions are set for:
user (**u**), group (**g**), others (**o**), or all (**a**)
- Permissions are set through:
adding (**+**), removing (**-**) and/or setting (**=**)
- Permissions are set to:
read (**r**), write (**w**) and execute (**x**)

Examples:

Add Permission: `chmod g+rw file1`

Remove Permission: `chmod g-w *txt`

Set Permission: `chmod o=rx /tmp/xyz`

Combined: `chmod u=rwx,g+x,o= .`

File Permissions

Octal Method

You can use the `chmod` command with 3 octal number to represent permissions for user, group and others

In this method, each permission has a numerical value:

- $r = 4$
- $w = 2$
- $x = 1$

The resulting/intended permission is the sum of the above, for example “rw” permission has a value of “6”, for example:

`chmod 755 file`, results in: **rwxr-xr-x**

`chmod 531 file`, results in: **r-x-wx--x**

umask

- Sets default file permissions for new files and directories in the current shell
- How does it work?
umask permissions
For example: *umask 467*
Represents later: *chmod 310*
- Has the reverse effect to chmod – you set permissions which you do not want
- Each file permission is a subtraction result:

default	7	7	7
	-	-	-
umask	4	6	7
	=	=	=
result	3	1	0 (for a directory)

- For ordinary files any execute permissions are not applied
For example: *umask 310* would result in permissions *466*
(r--rw-rw-)