Linux Filesystem Quick-Reference

Directory Contents with Is

All of these take one or more directories (relative or absolute) as an argument. If not supplied, the current directory is used. Many installations have a default shell alias for ls to supply some common options. A nice default is 'ls -FCA'.

| $\overline{Command}$ | Result |
|----------------------|---|
| ls | List the directory contents |
| ls -l | Long listing, with lots of details |
| ls -a | Include files/directories beginning with a dot |
| ls -A | Like -a, but omitting special . and directories |
| ls -lt | Long listing, sorted by modified time (latest first) |
| ls -ltr | Like -lt, but reversing the sort order |
| ls -1 | Produce a listing in a single column |
| ls -m | Produce a listing as a single comma-delimited line |
| ls -F | Decorate names with type indicators (/=directory, @=link, etc.) |
| ls -lh | Display sizes in friendly units |
| ls -ln | Display owner and group as numbers, not names |
| ls -d | Do not expand directories |

Moving Around

| $\overline{Command}$ | Result |
|---------------------------------|--|
| $\overline{\mathrm{cd}}$ | Change the working directory to the user's home directory |
| cd dir | Change the working directory to dir |
| $\operatorname{cd} {\sim} user$ | Change the working directory to user's home directory |
| cd - | Change the working directory to the previous working directory |
| pushd dir | Like "cd dir", but adds dir to bash's directory stack |
| popd | Pop the top of the directory stack, cd'ing to the new top |

Moving, Copying, and Extracting Pieces of Files

| $\overline{Command}$ | Result |
|---|---|
| $cp \ a \ b$ | Create a copy of file a named b |
| $\begin{array}{c} \text{mv } a \ b \\ \text{dd if} = a \ \text{of} = b \end{array}$ | Rename file a so that it is now b Dump the contents of input file a to output file b |

For all of these the files may be in any directory, so to move a file foo up a directory, you could run

```
mv foo ../foo
or just
mv foo ../
```

dd is an extremely powerful tool, and if and of are only the beginning of its options. Either can be omitted, and use STDIN or STDOUT as the default. Here's another simple example:

dd if=/dev/zero of=foo bs=1024 count=5

This will create a file foo with the first 5kB of /dev/zero, which will provide you with as many NULL bytes as you request. Give this a try, and then run

xxd foo

See the manpage for dd for all options. It's well worth you time to learn more about this command!

File Permissions

Every file or directory has an user (owner) and group, and a set of permission bits (the first column of "ls -l"). On most systems, your group will be the same as your username, though other groups are likely to exist, and you may be a member of some of them. The groups command will show you what groups your account belongs to.

Here are some examples from the Fall 2018 course VM:

vmuser@f18marsh:~\$ ls -ld gitsrc drwxrwxr-x 21 vmuser vmuser 4096 Jun 21 15:16 gitsrc vmuser@f18marsh:~\$ ls -ld .ssh drwx—— 2 vmuser vmuser 4096 Jun 21 14:18 .ssh vmuser@f18marsh:~\$ ls -l .ssh total 12 -rw—— 1 vmuser vmuser 3312 Jun 21 14:17 id_rsa -rw-rw-r— 1 vmuser vmuser 738 Jun 21 14:18 id_rsa.pub -rw-r—1 vmuser vmuser 444 Jun 21 14:18 known hosts

In all of these, vmuser is the owner, and all files/directories are also assigned to the group vmuser. The first column is 10-characters wide:

| $\overline{Character}$ | Meaning |
|------------------------|--|
| 0 | File type: d=directory, l=symlink, c=char device |
| 1 | User (u) read (r) permission |
| 2 | User (u) write (w) permission |
| 3 | User (u) execute (x) permission |
| 4 | Group (g) read (r) permission |
| 5 | Group (g) write (w) permission |
| 6 | Group (g) execute (x) permission |
| 7 | Other (o) read (r) permission |
| 8 | Other (o) write (w) permission |
| 9 | Other (o) execute (x) permission |

Anything not set is indicated with a "-", which for character 0 means a normal file. We see that gitsrc is a directory, readable and executable by everyone (user, group, and other), but writable only by user and group. For directories, "executable" means a user with matching credentials can cd into that directory. ~/.ssh/id_rsa, a private key, has full permissions for the user, but no permissions for anyone else. ~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub is readable by everyone, and also writable by the group.

We can change the permissions on a file (a directory is just a type of file) using chmod. Here are some options:

| \overline{Option} | Meaning |
|---------------------|---|
| u+rwx | Add read, write, and execute perms for the user |
| g+rwx | The same, for the group |
| o+rwx | The same, for others |
| O-W | Removed write permissions for others |
| go-rwx | Remove all permissions for the group and others |
| ugo+x | Add execute perms for all users |
| a+x | The same as the previous |
| 700 | Set the permissions to -rwx—— |

| \overline{Option} | Meaning |
|---------------------|---|
| 655 | Set the permissions to -rwxr-xr-x |
| -R | Apply the permissions recursively, when given a directory |

The numeric versions set permissions exactly, and use octal to specify the bits (1=x, 2=w, 4=r) in the order (user, group, other). After writing a lot of scripts, chmod a+x <file> will become part of your muscle memory.

You can also change the ownership of files, using chown. The syntax is

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

When you run things as root, you often have to run this (using sudo) to fix the file ownership. As with chmod, you can provide -R to change ownership recursively.

Disk Usage

These will let you figure out how much space is used/available, and where that used space is.

| $\overline{Command}$ | Result |
|-----------------------------|---|
| df | Display statistics for all mounted filesystems |
| df dir | Display statistics for the filesystem on which dir is mounted |
| df -h | Use friendly units for sizes |
| $\mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}\ dir$ | Count the disk usage for the specified directory and subdirs |
| du -s | Only show the total usage, not the subdir breakdown |
| du -h | Use friendly units for sizes |

Special Files

Most executables live in /bin, /usr/bin, or /usr/local/bin

Most libraries (static or shared) live in /lib, /usr/lib, or /usr/local/lib

Configuration files generally live in /etc

Temporary files generally live in /tmp, which is often flushed on shutdown

Device files live in /dev, and a couple of these are worth note:

- /dev/null contains nothing, and is often used as a target for output that should be discarded
- /dev/zero will produce as many null bytes as you care to read

Process files live in /proc, in subdirectories named with process IDs (PIDs). Also of possible interest in /proc (somewhat-readable ASCII files):

- /proc/cpuinfo
- /proc/meminfo
- /proc/stat
- /proc/vmstat

Finding Things

Being able to find something specific is extremely useful. Here are some tools to do this:

- locate <name> Given name, find indexed files containing name as a substring; relies on updatedb having been run since the file was added.
- find <dir> ... Starting in dir, find files matching a set of specifiers. More on this below.
- grep <pattern> <files> Find lines in files matching pattern. More on this below.
- ack <pattern> [<dir>] Like grep, but faster when searching large directories. Most systems don't have this installed by default.

grep can take regular expressions, and can operate recursively on directories, though it tends not to be particularly efficient when doing so. Here are some options (there are many more):

| \overline{Option} | Meaning |
|---------------------|---|
| -E | Interpret pattern as an extended regular expression |
| -r | Recursively grep directories |
| -A n | Include n lines of context after a matching line |
| -B n | Include n lines of context before a matching line |
| -C n | Include n lines of context before and after a matching line |
| -H | Prepend matching lines with the name of the file |
| -i | Ignore case in matches |
| -l | Only print the names of files with matches |
| -L | Only print the names of files without matches |
| -n | Prepend the matching line number |
| -q | Don't print matches, just return 0 (match) or -1 (no match) |
| -v | Match lines not including pattern |

find has a lot of options, far too many to go into detail here. Some of the more useful ones:

| \overline{Option} | Meaning |
|---------------------|--|
| -name n | Match files containing n |
| -iname n | Case-insensitive version of -name |
| -type t | Match files of type t (f=normal file, d=directory, etc.) |
| -depth d | Limit the depth of the search |
| -size s | Match files with size matching s, like 10, 20k, 32M, etc. |
| -size - s | Match files smaller than s |
| -size $+s$ | Match files larger than s |
| -newer f | Match files modified more recently than file f |
| -mtime t | Match files modified within time t, default unit days |
| | Also, $-t$ or $+t$ |
| | -ctime and -atime do same thing for file creation and access |
| -print | Print the name of a matched file (default) |
| -ls | Print ls -1-like lines for matching files |
| -exec | Execute a command on matches (see below) |
| -delete | Removes files and directories - USE WITH EXTREME CAUTION |

For matches, the order can matter, especially for performance. You want to run -exec as late in the filtering process as possible, for example, since it runs an external program for each file.

-exec is very powerful, because it allows you to extend find's already-considerably functionality. Here's an illustrative example:

```
find . -name \*.txt -exec grep -H foo {} \;
```

This will start from the current directory, match all files ending in ".txt", and run grep on them. The string "{}" is replaced with the name of the current match. The -exec command must be terminated with ";",

regardless of whether any other commands are provided. This is essentially the same as: $\verb|grep --include| \verb| +.txt -Hr foo . |$