File and Filesystem Structure
File Management
Unix File Permissions
Filesystem Management
Reading and Writing Files

COMP09024 Unix System Administration

Lecture 2: Files, Filesystems and File Management

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2.1 File and Filesystem Structure



What is a file?

- A file comprises two types of data:
 - An inode, containing information about the file
 - Blocks containing information in the file
- But in Unix, 'everything is a file'
 - So directories ('folders') are files (whose contents are relative filenames with references to inodes)
 - Links to other files are files (whose contents are the path to the other file)
 - (most) Devices are (special) files which can be read or written
- File data lives in a filesystem: could be on a hard disk, a USB key, a CDROM, over the network...



What is a file? inodes Virtual Filesystem Filesystem Hierarchy Standard

What's stored in an inode?

- An inode number (a unique integer on each filesystem)
- Type of file (file, directory, device, symbolic link...)
- Size of file in bytes
- Pointers to blocks where data is stored (may be direct, indirect, double indirect, or triple indirect, depending on file size)
- ID of user and group who own the file
- Timestamps of last access, modification and change time
- File permissions (or mode)
- Link count (how many hard links exist to this file)

Notice what's **not** stored in an inode: file name!

The Virtual Filesystem (VFS)

- The overall Unix filesystem is hierarchical, made of multiple filesystems grafted together
- The first filesystem accessed is known as the root filesystem — it becomes the structure onto which other filesystems can be attached
- The process of making a physical filesystem available (whether the root FS or a later one) is known as mounting
- Entries usually directories are used as mount points for subsequent filesystems attached after the root system
- The overall hierarchy resulting from a series of such mounts is known as the virtual filesystem (VFS)



Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (FHS)

- Unix standard specifying purpose of directories
- /bin essential binaries
- /sbin essential system binaries
- /lib libraries required for either of above
- /boot boot loader files and kernel images
- /etc configuration files (often in subdirectories)
- /home users' home directories
- /root root user's home directory
- /usr user utilities and applications (including bin, sbin, lib, include, share...subdirectories)
- /var variable files (eg log files, cached data, etc)
- /media removable media mount points
- /mnt general purpose mount points
- /tmp temporary files



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Navigating the Filesystem Copying, Moving, Deleting Directory Management Links

2.2 File Management

The cd and pwd Commands

- cd changes the current working directory
- pwd shows the current directory
- Can take relative or absolute path names
- Relative names can include several elements, and may use . . for upward relative movement (to parent directory)
- With no parameter changes to user's home directory
- For example, if user alice is currently in the directory /home/bob/reports, all of the following commands would change the working directory to /home/alice:

```
cd /home/alice
cd ../../alice
cd
```

The 1s Command

- Lists directory entries (sorted by name, in columns, by default)
- -1 gives long listing (owners, timestamp, permissions...):

```
-rwxr-xr-- 1 alice admin 32768 Feb 01 11:13 eg.t
```

- -a includes filenames starting with a dot (usually omitted)
- –S sort by file size
- -t sort by time accessed
- -u and -c use access time or inode change time instead of modification time for sorting by or displaying timestamps
- −i includes inode number
- -r reverses sort order
- -m print a comma-separated list instead of columns

Copying Files with cp

- cp makes a copy of a file
- First parameter is source, last parameter is destination:

```
cp myfile.txt newfile
```

Can also copy multiple files into a directory:

```
cp file1 file2 file3 directory
cp * /home/alice/subdir # * matches all
```

- By default overwrites destination file(s) prevent this with -n (noclobber) or -i (interactive)
- -a preserves all information possible ('archive')
- --preserve lists what information to preserve
- -r performs recursive copy (copy directory contents too)

Moving & Renaming Files with my

- mv moves a file to another location or name
- Source file(s) copied to destination (last parameter)
- If destination is a filename, the file is renamed and moved;
 if destination is a directory, the file is moved:

```
mv myfile.txt myfilenew.txt
mv *.docx wordfiles
```

- -i and -n can prevent overwriting destination (as with cp)
- If a directory is specified as a source, the whole directory and its contents is moved (no need for -r flag for recursion)

Deleting Files with rm

- Files can be removed with rm
- List of files specified all removed if permissions allow:
- Used non-recursively, rm will not remove a directory
- -r recursive removal (remove directories and contents)
- -i asks for confirmation about every file (interactive)
- -f forces removal, even if would ask otherwise
- The most dangerous command: rm -rf *
- Remember: Unix assumes you know what you're doing... what if you were root in the / directory?



Managing Directories with mkdir and rmdir

- mkdir creates one (or more) empty directory
 - -m allows setting of permissions (mode)
 - -p creates any missing parent directories required mkdir reports

```
mkdir -m 700 secrets
```

- rmdir removes an (empty) directory
- Remember that a directory may contain 'hidden' files you can see these with ls -a



Links: Hard Links and Symbolic Links

- Hard links are directory entries pointing to the same inode
 - Must be on same physical filesystem
 - Create with ln command: ln file linkname
 - File remains until last link is removed
 - Number of hard links to a file is shown in ls -l output
- Symbolic links are directory entries containing a VFS path
 - May span physical filesystems
 - Created with ln -s
 - If original file is removed, link is left 'dangling'
 - Indicated by 1 in 1s -1 listings

```
$ ln file hard; ln -s file soft; ls -l
-rw-r--r-- 2 bob bob 0 Jan 10 12:00 file
-rw-r--r-- 2 bob bob 0 Jan 10 12:00 hard
lrwxrwxrwx 1 bob bob 4 Jan 10 12:01 soft -> file
```

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2.3 Unix File Permissions



File Permissions

- Three main permission types exist for Unix files:
- Read (r, octal 4)
 - For files, allow reading of file contents
 - For directories, allow list names of directory contents
- Write (w, octal 2)
 - For files, allow appending or writing to file
 - For directories, allow creation, renaming and removal of files in directory
- Execute (x, octal 1)
 - For files, allow execution as a program (or script)
 - For directories, allow access to file and inode contents in a directory (provided name is known)



User Classes and File Owners

- Each file in Unix is owned by a user and a group
- These can be seen using the -1 option to 1s (or the -o or -g options)
- When a user attempts to access a file, they are considered to belong to one of three classes:
 - The user who owns the file
 - The group who owns the file
 - All other users
- The user and group who own a file can be changed using:
 - chown to change user and/or group
 - chgrp to change group only



Permission Notation — Symbolic

- Nine characters are used to indicate the mode (permissions) of a file by ls -l
- For each of three classes of user (user, group, other), there are three characters:
 - r if readable by that class, if not
 - w if writable by that class, if not
 - x if executable by that class, if not
- For example, rwxr-x--- means:
 - The owner can read, write and execute the file
 - The group owners can read and execute the file
 - Other users have no permissions



Permission Notation — Octal

- Permissions can also be expressed as a 3-digit octal (base-8) number
- Each digit represents the permissions for each of three classes of user: user, group, other
- Each digit is then made up of the permissions which that class of user has added together:
 - 4 for read permission
 - 2 for write permission
 - 1 for execute permission
- For example, 750 would be the same permissions as in the previous slide:
 - The owner can read, write and execute the file
 - The group owners can read and execute the file
 - Other users have no permissions



The chmod Command

- chmod changes the permissions on a file
- The first parameter is the permissions
- Remaining parameters are file names
- The permissions can be octal (eg 750, 644) which will set the file permissions to that overall value
- Permissions can also be symbolic, with each group of changes separated by commas, and including:
 - User class (u, g, o or a (all))
 - Addition (+), removal (-) or setting (=) of permissions
 - Permissions (r, w, or x)
- For example: chmod u+w,g-x,o= file2 adds write permissions for the owner, removes execute permission for the group, and sets other permissions to be none

Examples of chmod

To set the permissions to 750 on file1:

chmod 750 file1

To remove read permission for others on file2:

chmod o-r file1

To add execute permission for all on file3 and file4:

chmod a+x file3 file4

 To set user permissions to r-x and remove write permission for group and other users on file5 a:

chmod u=rx, go-w file5



Setting Default Permissions with umask

- Files and directories are first created with default permissions
- These are controlled by the value of the umask
- umask command shows the current umask value (eg 0022)
- The umask value is an octal number showing which permissions are not given by default
- Files will have permissions of 666, and directories of 777, masked by umask value (masked by in a bitwise sense)
- Example: If umask value is 027, files will have permissions of 640, and directories of 750, by default
- umask command can be used to change the umask value
- umask -s shows mask symbolically (as the permissions which remain)

Additional Permissions

- There are in fact 12 mode bits in total in Unix
- The set UID bit (SUID) allows executable files to be run with the user permissions of their owners (shown by an s instead of an x for the user permissions)
- The set GID bit (SGID) allows executable files to be run with the group permissions of their group owners; when applied to a directory, new files created will have the group owner of the directory (shown by an s instead of an x for the group permissions)
- The sticky bit (T), on a directory, prevents users from moving or deleting other users' files in writable directories (shown by a t instead of an x for the other permissions)
- chmod can be used to add and remove these permissions
 (symbolically s or t)

Extended Permissions Systems

- Some Unix systems include extended permissions (or security) systems
- eg Linux include access control lists (ACLs), which:
 - Allow fine-grained per-user and per-group permissions
 - These can be examined with getfacl and changed with setfacl
- Many Unix variants implement a similar ACL system (from a draft POSIX standard)
- eg SELinux adds Mandatory Access Control (MAC) to Linux, and includes the idea of security contexts to all files
 - These can be examined with -Z option to 1s



File and Filesystem Structure File Management Unix File Permissions Filesystem Management Reading and Writing Files

Mounting Filesystems Checking Filesystems Backing up Filesystems

2.4 Filesystem Management

Mounting Filesystems with mount

- The mount command is used to mount filesystems into the VFS
- It takes (usually) two parameters with a type flag (and options)
 - Filesystem type specified with -t flag
 - Device (or other source) where the filesystem is stored
 - Mount point directory in the VFS where the FS is to be attached
- Example: mount -t ext4 /dev/sda3 /home
- A wide range of options can be used with mount, including:
 - ¬w mount read/write (default)
 - -r mount readonly
 - -o remount remount (eg with different options)

(Some) Filesystem Types

- ufs Unix File System, used by most Unices
- ext2 Second extended filesystem (Linux 0.99)
- ext3 Third extended filesystem (Linux 2.4.15)
- ext4 Second extended filesystem (Linux 2.6.28)
- jfs Journaled File System (from IBM)
- xfs XFS, developed by Silicon Graphics
- zfs ZFS, developed by Sun/Oracle
- iso9660 used on CDROMs
- fat File Allocation Table, original DOS filesystem
- vfat Virtual FAT, DOS/Windows filesystem (USB disks)
- ntfs New Techology File System, MS Windows NT
- nfs Network File System
- cifs Common Internet File System

Device Files or Filesystem 'Sources'

- Device files are usually stored in the /dev directory
- Hard disks (and their partitions) appears as block special files (with a b in the first column of ls -l output)
- Different Unices have different naming conventions
- Modern Linux systems usually name hard disks sdX, where X is a for first disk, b for second, etc
- Partitions on disks are numbered: sda1, sda2, etc
- Other physical devices will have files in /dev
- Networked filesystems specify server name and 'shared' or 'exported' name:
 - NFS example (on server mozart): mozart:/home
 - CIFS example (on server satie): //satie/home



The umount Command

- To unattach a physical filesystem from VFS, use the umount command (note the spelling!)
- Requires either the filesystem source or the mount point as a parameter
- When a filesystem is in use, the umount command will not work
- Other commands which can be useful for removable media:
 - The sync command ensures all pending writes to filesystems have been written out
 - The eject command can eject CDROM drives and similar



- It would be tedious if we had to use a lot of mount commands every time a system booted up
- To avoid this, the /etc/fstab file lists details for filesystems which can be mounted automatically at boot
- A mount -a command mounts these on bootup
- The format is space-separated fields:
 - Filesystem source (device, server/name, label, UUID)
 - Filesystem mount point (none for swap)
 - Filesystem type (or swap for swap space)
 - Options (comma-separated)
 - Number indicating whether dump should backup
 - Number representing order of filesystem check at boot
- The /etc/mtab file lists mounted filesystems (and mount on its own lists these too)

Checking Filesystems with fsck

- Most filesystems should be checked for integrity on a regular basis
- Some types of filesystems (eg journaling filesystems)
 require this less than others but all need it
- The fsck (file system check) utility can be run to do this
- Normally during bootup after a fixed number of mounts or amount of time
- May be run to automatically fix problems, or manually, where the operator is asked before any changes
- fsck is often a front end to various filesystem-type specific utilities (eg e2fsck, dosfsck, etc
- fsck should only be run on unmounted filesystems, giving the device file as a parameter: fsck /dev/sda3

Backing up and Restoring Filesystems

- There are many ways of backing up filesystems, including:
 - Using RAID to provide mirrored or redundant disks
 - Coping elsewhere using tools such as cpio, tar, dd, rsync
 - Using cloud-based backup services
- However the 'traditional' Unix method is backing up to removable media such as tape or CDROM, using dump
- dump operates at the filesystem level
- Should be used ideally on unmounted, readonly, or at least quiescent filesystems
- Supports ten backup levels, allowing a range of backup strategies including incremental and differential
- The restore utility is used to retrieve data

Creating Files Reading File Contents

2.5 Reading and Writing Files

Creating Files

- Easiest way to create an empty file: touch filename (more generally, touch updates timestamps on files)
- Creating a file with contents: use cat >filename and then Ctrl-D (EndOfFile) to finish:

```
cat >myfile
This is the file contents
and we end it by pressing Control-D
EOF
```

- Or edit file using a text editor
- Many GUI systemshave text editors (eg gedit in Gnome)
- But the ubiquitous Unix text editor is vi
- Others exist: pico, emacs...



Basics of vi

- Modeful in command mode each key is a command
- Movement commands (can precede with a number):
 - Arrow keys (or h j k l)
 - ^ for start of line, \$ for end of line
 - w goes forward a word; b goes back a word
 - G goes to a line number (or end of file)
- Commands to enter insert mode, to enter text into the file:
 - a to append after cursor; i to insert before it
 - c with movement to change; (cc to change a whole line)
 - o to open a new line
 - Exit insert mode with ESC key
- d with movement to delete (or dd for a whole line)
- Enter: w to save file; :q to quit; or: wq to save and quit

Reading File Contents

- cat command (short for conCATenate) can string together a number of files and display them
- more (and less) show files one page at a time:
 - SPACE to move forward a page
 - / to search
 - q to quit
- To identify what a file is, can use the file command

```
file /etc/passwd
more /etc/passwd
```



Summary

- Files, directories and inodes
- The Virtual Filesystem (mounting / unmounting)
- FHS: standard locations for things
- File management: cd, pwd, ls, cp, mv, rm, mkdir, rmdir
- Links: hard and symbolic; ln and ln -s
- Permissions, user classes, octal and symbolic permissions
- chmod, chown, chgrp, umask
- Filesystem types and devices
- mount, umount and /etc/fstab
- Filesystem maintenance: fsck, dump and restore
- Creating files (t touch, cat, vi and other editors)
- Reading files (cat, more, less, and file)