CS107 / AC207

SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT FOR COMPUTATIONAL SCIENCE LECTURE 1

Tuesday, September 7th 2021

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RECAP OF LAST TIME

- Course introduction and policies
- Bell labs and its impact on the computer as we know it today
- Gentle transition from Unix to Linux
- How to list content with the 1s command (list)



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OUTLINE

- More on Linux commands and the man -pages
- Working with the shell
- Regular expressions and grep
- File attributes and finding files
- Short journey into text editors

PAIR-PROGRAMMING SECTIONS

- Pair-programming is attendance graded and we check the work you push to your GitHub account.
- You must attend *one* section per week (cycle).
- We implement a 5-minute late tolerance. After 5 minutes past the section start it will not be possible anymore to join the ongoing section.

The pair-programming cycles *start on Friday* morning (new PPexercises handed out) and *end on Thursday* after the last section. *Hand-in deadline of the PP-exercise is the following Thursday*.

YOUR GITHUB REPO FOR THE CLASS

• Your GitHub repo for the class should be *private* and follow the naming convention cs107_firstname_lastname. It should look similar to this:

<pre>\$ tree cs107_fabian_wermelinger</pre>	
cs107_fabian_wermelinger/	
homework	
L HW1-final	
lectures	
pair_programming	
PP1 PP1	
README.md	
EADME.md	

- For the HW, you work on a branch called HWn-dev where n is the homework number. For the current homework the branch is HW1-dev.
 You do not need to create pull-requests for pair-programming exercises.
- Put your HW solution file(s) inside the HWn-final directory and commit it on the HWn-dev branch. Create a pull-request for merging branch HWn-dev into your main or master branch.
- The teaching staff will grade and provide feedback to you via the **open** pull-request. **Do not merge this pull-request until you have received our feedback.**
- See https://harvard-iacs.github.io/2021-CS107/pages/coursework.html

LINUX COMMANDS AND GETTING HELP

UNIX / LINUX CHEAT SHEET

EILE SYSTEM

1s - list items in current directory
1s -1 - list items in current directory and show in lo format to see perimissions, size, and modification date
1s -a — list all items in current directory, including hidden files
1s -F — list all items in current directory and show directories with a slash and executables with a star
1s dir – list all items in directory dir
cd dir - change directory to dir
cd – go up one directory
cd / - go to the root directory
cd - go to to your home directory
cd – go to the last directory you were just in
pwd - show present working directory
mkdir dir - make directory dir
rm file - remove file
rm -r dir - remove directory dir recursively
cp file1 file2 - copy file1 to file2
cp -r dir1 dir2 - copy directory dir1 to dir2 recursively
mv file1 file2 — move (rename) file1 to file2
<pre>ln -s file link - create symbolic link to file</pre>
touch file - create or update file
cat file - output the contents of file
less file - view file with page navigation
head file - output the first 10 lines of file
tail file - output the last 10 lines of file
tail -f file - output the contents of file as it grows, starting with the last 10 lines
vim file — edit file
alias name 'command' - create an alias for a

SYSTEM - shut down machine shutdown reboot - restart machine - show the current date and time date

lona

whoami - who you are logged in as finger user - display information about user man command — show the manual for command df - show disk usage du - show directory space usage free - show memory and swap usage

whereis app - show possible locations of app which app - show which app will be run by default

COMPRESSION

file

tar cf file.tar files - create a tar named
file.tar containing files
tar xf file.tar — extract the files from file.tar
tar czf file.tar.gz files — create a tar wit
Gzip compression
tar xzf file.tar.gz — extract a tar using Gzip
gzip file - compresses file and renames it to file
gzip -d file.gz - decompresses file.gz back to

PROCESS MANAGEMENT

ps - display your currently active processes top - display all running processes kill pid - kill process id pid kill -9 pid - force kill process id pid

SEARCHING

e.qz



pattern in dir and show the line number found

grep -r pattern dir --include='*.ext search recursively for pattern in dir and only search in files with .ext extension

command | grep pattern - search for pattern in the output of command

find file - find all instances of file in real system **locate file** – find all instances of file using indexed database built from the updatedb command. Much faster than find

sed -i 's/day/night/g' file — find all occurrences of day in a file and replace them with night s means substitude and g means global - sed also supports regular expressions

PERMISSIONS

1s -1 - list items in current directory and show permissions **chmod ugo file** – change permissions of file to ugo

- u is the user's permissions, g is the group's permissions, and o is everyone else's permissions. The values of u, g, and o can be any number between 0 and 7.

7 full permissions

- 6 read and write only
- 5 read and execute only
- 4 read only

3 write and execute only

- 2 write only 1 execute only
- 0 no permissions

chmod 600 file - you can read and write - good for files

chmod 700 file - you can read, write, and execute - good for scripts

chmod 644 file - you can read and write, and everyone else can only read - good for web pages

chmod 755 file - you can read, write, and execute, and everyone else can read and execute - good for programs that you want to share



NETWORKING

wget file - download a file
curl file - download a file
scp user@host:file dir — secure copy a file from remote server to the dir directory on your machine
scp file user@host:dir — secure copy a file from your machine to the dir directory on a remote server
scp -r user@host:dir dir — secure copy the directory dir from remote server to the directory dir on your machine
ssh user@host - connect to host as user
<pre>ssh -p port user@host - connect to host on port as user</pre>
ssh-copy-id user@host — add your key to host for user to enable a keyed or passwordless login
ping host - ping host and output results
whois domain — get information for domain
dig domain - get DNS information for domain
dig -x host - reverse lookup host
lsof -i tcp:1337 - list all processes running on port 1337

SHORTCUTS



command

LINUX COMMANDS AND GETTING HELP

There are *numerous* commands available in Linux. They are so numerous because of the core Unix philosophy:

Every command in Unix/Linux does *exactly one* job. In other words, this implies **modularity** and **reusability**. Once you have digested this principle, you will *love it*!



Ken and Dennis, 1973 (wiki)

LINUX COMMANDS

The commands you will likely need most often:

ls	List directory contents
cd	Change directories
mkdir	Create directories
rm	Remove files and directories. Be very mindful with this command! Unlike other OSs, there is no trash bin in Linux.
ср	Copy files and directories
801/80	Demoste (and least) file as meteol. This teal will be seen friend
rsync	Remote (and local) file sync tool. This tool will be your friend.
ln	Create links to files and directories
ln grep	Create links to files and directories Search file contents for a pattern. This tool is very important and you will use it often. A faster alternative might be ripgrep.
ln grep find	Create links to files and directories Search file contents for a pattern. This tool is very important and you will use it often. A faster alternative might be ripgrep. Find files in the file system

LINUX COMMANDS

These are already 10 commands. Looking at all of them in detail is not efficient. You will learn these commands most efficiently by **practice**. Once you use them daily, they will become second nature to you.

Command names in Unix/Linux are a mnemonic of *what they do* (**recall:** they have only one job to do). The ancient ones are 2-3 letters short because typing on the Teletype Model 33 was a finger gym.

Finally, one very important command is missing: man gives you the manual pages (documentation) of every Linux command.

Manual pages are obtained using: man <command name>

• The manual page of man is:



- man pages are split into 9 numbered sections (see man man):
 - 1. Executable programs or shell commands
 - 2. System calls (functions provided by the kernel)
 - 3. Library calls (functions within program libraries)
 - 4. Special files (usually found in /dev)
 - 5. File formats and conventions, e.g. /etc/passwd
 - 6. Games
 - 7. Miscellaneous (including macro packages and conventions)
 - 8. System administration commands (usually only for root)
 - 9. Kernel routines (Non standard)

If you do not specify a section, man will default to section 1:

<pre>\$ man printf PRINTF(1)</pre>	User Commands	PRINTF(1)
NAME printf – format and print data		
SYNOPSIS printf FORMAT [ARGUMENT] printf OPTION 		

Or you can specify the section number explicitly:

```
$ man printf
PRINTF(1)
                                        User Commands
                                                                                    PRINTF(1)
NAME
       printf - format and print data
SYNOPSIS
       printf FORMAT [ARGUMENT]...
       printf OPTION
$ man 3 printf # explicitly specify the section number with the first argument
PRINTF(3)
                                  Linux Programmer's Manual
                                                                                    PRINTF(3)
NAME
       printf, fprintf, dprintf, sprintf, snprintf, vprintf, vfprintf, vdprintf, vsprintf,
       vsnprintf - formatted output conversion
SYNOPSIS
```

You can use the whatis command to find out more about particular man -page entries for a command:

<pre>\$ whatis whatis</pre>	
whatis (1)	– display one-line manual page descriptions
<pre>\$ whatis printf</pre>	
printf (3)	- formatted output conversion
printf (1)	- format and print data
printf (1p)	- write formatted output
printf (3p)	- print formatted output

Try out the man command with your neighbors:

- Pick a Linux command that you would like to investigate. A few examples are given below.
- Read about it using the man command
- Make sure you can all provide a short summary of what it does
- What is one interesting option that this command provides?

ls, cp, mv, ln, rm, du, df, wc, ps, id, w, vi, bc, pwd, sh, chsh, bash, csh, ksh, env, ssh, ssh-keygen, man, whatis, whereis, which, stat, info, make, sudo, echo, sort, cut, uniq, sed, awk, cat, tac, tar, zip, unzip, head, tail, gcc, top, dstat, ulimit, history, passwd, useradd, usermod, userdel, mkdir, rmdir, touch, rsync, grep, find, diff, jobs, kill, chmod, chown, time, date, sleep, mount, ping, ex, pico, nano, vim, reboot, shutdown, halt

WORKING WITH THE SHELL

There is this long lasting joke...



Which translates to this in the shell:

[wife@husband]\$ make sandwich # husband@wife would also be valid user and host names ;)
make: cannot make target 'sandwich': Permission denied
[wife@husband]\$ sudo make sandwich # see also `man sudo` and `man make`

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sudo

RUNNING A PROGRAM

Recall: the shell offers you a prompt to input a character sequence which will be interpreted after you press enter.

- The shell reads the character sequence, locates the program(s) and executes it by passing the argument(s) you have specified
- There are **three** standard I/O streams:

Standard *input*: stdin (associated to file descriptor 0)
 Standard *output*: stdout (associated to file descriptor 1)
 Standard *erro*: stderr (associated to file descriptor 2)
 Also see: man stdin (covers all three)

File descriptor: is a reference in the kernel for open files. There is a limit to how many files you can have open at the same time.
 See ulimit -a for how many. (The currently open file descriptors are listed in

the /dev/fd directory.)

- **Recall:** Unix philosophy is one program for a particular task
- Traditional Unix programs therefore act like *filters*
- Most of the time you need *multiple* filters to achieve the desired transformation of your data.
- How would you achieve that?
- You need a notion to *connect* the stdout/stderr (either one or both) to the stdin of the following program
- The notion for this is the " | " character (Unix pipe)
- prog1 [args] | prog2 [args]



Pipes are extremely powerful and comprise a core component in the Unix philosophy.

This is a wonderful trip down memory lane: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tc4ROCJYbm0&t

Assume you have the following list of students:

<pre>\$ cat student_list.txt</pre>			
FirstName	LastName	Seniority	Major
Jane	Smith	Grad	CompSci
Joe	Bloggs	Undergrad	Bio
Ruth	Schmoe	Undergrad	Math
John	Doe	Grad	MechEng

You want to create a new list with grad students only and you would like them sorted by last name. **What filter steps are required to achieve this goal?**

Assume you have the following list of students:

<pre>\$ cat stud</pre>	ent_list.t	xt	
FirstName	LastName	Seniority	Major
Jane	Smith	Grad	CompSci
Joe	Bloggs	Undergrad	Bio
Ruth	Schmoe	Undergrad	Math
John	Doe	Grad	MechEng

Solution:

Print only lines which have seniority Grad
 Sort the second column of input alphabetically
 Redirect result to a file

\$ cat student_list.txt grep Grad sort -k2 >grad_student_list.txt				
\$ cat gra	ad_student_li	.st.txt		
John	Doe	Grad	MechEng	
Jane	Smith	Grad	CompSci	

Solution:

Print only lines which have seniority Grad
 Sort the second column of input alphabetically
 Redirect result to a file

\$ cat student_list.txt grep Grad sort -k2 >grad_student_list.txt				
\$ cat grad	d_student_li	ist.txt		
John	Doe	Grad	MechEng	
Jane	Smith	Grad	CompSci	

Question: Would it be a good idea to sort first and then filter Grad?

Answer: Sorting can be an expensive task. If your input data is Megabytes or even larger, reducing the input size for sort can be a more efficient approach.

MORE USEFUL COMMANDS

COUNTING WORDS, LINES OR CHARACTERS

If you need to count words, lines or characters in a document, you can use the wc utility:



- When counting words, be careful with markup languages like $I\!\!A\!T_E\!X$ (see detex)
- Note that wc -c counts bytes. (Also works with binary files.)

\$ ls -l grad_student_list.txt # check the file size -rw-r--r-- 1 fabs fabs 84 Aug 27 13:42 grad_student_list.txt

MORE USEFUL COMMANDS Finding Files

The find command is a powerful tool to search for files in your system. You will need it often, especially in scripts.

- Search for files or directories using the -type f or -type d options, respectively
- Use a search pattern to only match specific file names
- The " * " is called *wildcard*, your shell expands it to match anything
 Example: to match any python script use find . -name "*.py"
- You can execute commands on matches that find reports using the -exec option

MORE USEFUL COMMANDS

FINDING FILES

• Find directories in current directory:

• Same for files only:

\$ findtype f	# recursively, all files
<pre>\$ findtype f -name "*.py"</pre>	<pre># recursively, only files ending with .py</pre>
<pre>\$ findtype f -name "test*.py"</pre>	<pre># recursively, files starting with "test" followed by</pre>
	<pre># any char (zero or more times) and ending with ".py"</pre>
<pre>\$ findmaxdepth 1 -type f</pre>	# only current directory

• Execute a command on the returned match

\$ find . -type f -name "*.py" -exec wc -l {} \;

What does the above command do?

MORE USEFUL COMMANDS Finding Files

• Execute a command on the returned match

\$ find . -type f -name "*.py" -exec wc -l {} \;

What does the above command do?

- 1. Find files (-type f) using pattern (-name "*.py"), i.e. all python scripts
- 2. On a match execute (-exec) the command wc -1 (count lines)
 - The " {} " is a placeholder for the current match
 - The "; "terminates the inline command passed to -exec
 - It must be escaped because it belongs to the inline command, not to the find command itself
 - It is usually not needed for single commands or if you use the pipe | . You could have written this however:

```
find . -type f -name "*.py" -exec wc -l {} \;; # the second ";" terminates find
```

GREP

- grep is a historical tool for searching content in files
- It was written by Ken Thompson, where it was originally part of the ed text editor
- ed uses a text processing language to operate on single lines or globally. The command g/re/p searches globally for a regular expression pattern re and then prints (p) every line containing the pattern
- The command was so *useful* that the corresponding ed code was refactored into a standalone tool called grep
- grep is *absolutely* essential for searching code bases efficiently
- When your code base is really large a faster alternative could be ripgrep (I use it every day)

GREP

Note that grep is case-sensitive by default:

\$ grep Grad Jane John	student_lis Smith Doe	st.txt Grad Grad	CompSci MechEng
\$ grep grad Joe Ruth	student_lis Bloggs Schmoe	st.txt Undergrad Undergrad	Bio Math
\$ grep −i gr Jane Joe Ruth John	ad student Smith Bloggs Schmoe Doe	_list.txt Grad Undergrad Undergrad Grad	# use the -i option to ignore case CompSci Bio Math MechEng

- A regular expression (regex) is a notation for specifying a pattern of text
- Many commands make use of this powerful (but confusing) syntax. E.g. grep, awk, sed, perl, vim,...
- Any character is a match, but there are certain special characters that are interpreted differently if they are not *escaped*:
 - Matches any one character except a newline
 - * Matches zero or more occurrences of the preceding character
 - + Matches one or more occurrences of the preceding character
 - ? Matches exactly zero or one occurrences of the preceding character
- Potential confusion 1: your shell has a set of special characters too. Recall the shell wildcard *, it behaves not the same as the * in a regex!
 What is the regex equivalent of the shell wildcard? Answer: .* (more info on shell wildcards)

- Any character is a match, but there are certain special characters that are interpreted differently if they are not *escaped*:
 - Matches any one character except a newline
 - * Matches zero or more occurrences of the preceding character
 - + Matches one or more occurrences of the preceding character
 - ? Matches exactly zero or one occurrences of the preceding character
- To match a special character, you must escape it with the backslash $\$
 - a.c matches aac, abc, acc, ...
 - a\.c matches a.c literally

More special characters:

- () Capture group: (abc) matches " abc " where you can back-reference the match with \1 (does not work in all regex dialects)
- | Logical "OR": ab|cd matches ab or cd
- {} Numeral range of occurrences: a{5} match exactly five times, a{2,} match two or more times, a{1,3} between one and three times
- [] Character group: [abc] match any of a, b or c once, [abc]* same as before but many different combinations possible, [^abc] match anything except a, b or c, [a-g] match any character between a and g. The caret " ^ " after the opening [means negation. The hyphen " " specifies a range, e.g., [0-9] any number between 0 and 9 once

Convenience classes:

\d	Matches a digit [0-9]
\D	Matches a non-digit [^0-9]
\w	Matches a word including letters and digits
\W	Matches a non-word
\s	Matches whitespace including space, tab, carriage return, newline, vertical tab, form feed (Windows)
\S	Matches non-whitespace
٨	Matches the beginning of a line
\$	Matches the end of a line
\b	Matches a word boundary
∖B	Matches a non-word boundary

Character classes

Boundary classes

Going back to our earlier example:

\$ grep grad student_list.txt
Joe Bloggs Undergrad Bio
Ruth Schmoe Undergrad Math

...does match sub-words.

Adding word-boundaries:

\$ grep '\bgrad\b' student_list.txt

...does match nothing. (Because grep is case-sensitive by default, "Grad" is not a match.)

- Potential confusion 2: you must be mindful with escape sequences.
 The backslash \ in the shell acts as an escape sequence as well!
- This will not work:

\$ grep \bgrad\b student_list.txt

Why: \b will be escaped **before** it is passed as an argument to grep. grep will see this pattern: bgradb where your regex escape sequence has been eaten up by the shell.

• Solution 1: escape the escape (horror)

\$ grep \\bgrad\\b student_list.txt

• Solution 2: pass the pattern as a hard-quoted string (prefer this)

grep '\bgrad\b' student_list.txt

- Regular expressions can be exhausting...
- But they will do the job for you when you are confronted with complex search and replace tasks
- It will require *iterations* to get your pattern right, especially for complex stuff (at least I do)
- Watch out for different dialects, they behave slightly different regarding special characters, e.g. compare the REGULAR
 EXPRESSIONS section in man grep and vim -c ':h regexp | only'

Helpful References

- CWX CWX CWX owner group other

Files in Linux have useful attributes:

- There are *three* timestamps:
 - atime:last access time
 - mtime:last modification time (content changed)
 - ctime:last time file metadata changed (not content)
 - You can use them with find too!
- File size obviously
- Ownership and group access (because of time-sharing)
- File permissions (consequence of time-sharing again)

You get complete information for a file with stat (see man stat):

\$ stat r	my_file					
File:	my_file					
Size:	13	Blocks: 8	IO Block: 4096	regular	file	
Device:	10303h/66307d	Inode: 28969249	Links: 1			
Access:	(0644/-rw-rr-	-) Uid: (1000/	fabs) Gid: (1000/	fabs)	
Access:	2021-08-27 20:0	3:32.760407309 -040	0			
Modify:	2021-08-27 20:0	1:40.397072908 -040	0			
Change:	2021-08-27 20:0	1:40.403739575 -040	0			
Birth:	2021-08-27 20:0	1:40.397072908 -040	0			

You can also sort by time with the 1s command:

\$ ls -lt		mtime by d	efault [long	format	-l and sort	by time -	-t (newest	first)]
-rw-rr	1	fabs fabs	13 Aug 27 20	0:01 my_	file			
\$ ls -ltu		-u: atime						
-rw-rr	1	fabs fabs	13 Aug 27 20	0:03 my_	file			
<pre>\$ ls -ltc</pre>		-c: ctime						
-rw-rr	1	fabs fabs	13 Aug 27 20	0:01 my_	file			

Time to look at 1s -1 in more detail:



- Timestamp
- Filename

FILE PERMISSIONS

- Files (and directories) have a set of permissions that control who can access the data
- There are *three* permission categories:
 - r:read permission
 - w:write permission
 - x : execute permission
- There are *three types of people* you can trust (or not):
 - owner: this is you
 - group: this is a group name of other users that you set up
 - other:everybodyelse

FILE PERMISSIONS

- **CWX CWX CWX** owner group other

- The first entry specifies the type of file:
 - is a plain file
 - d is a directory
 - c is a character device. (The driver communicates with this device by characters, i.e. bytes. E.g. serial ports (Arduino), parallel ports, sound cards.)
 - b is a block device. (The driver communicates with entire blocks of data. E.g. hard disks, several USB devices.)
 - 1 is a symbolic link (see man ln)
- The following are permission categories for the three types of people (we distinguish between *files* and *directories*):

Permission category	Set for files	Set for directories
r	allowed to read	allowed to see the filenames
W	allowed to write	allowed to add and remove files
Х	allowed to execute	allowed to enter the directory

CHANGING FILE PERMISSIONS

• The chmod command is used to change file permissions (see man chmod):

CHMOD(1)	User Commands	CHMOD(1)
NAME chmod – change file mode bits		
SYNOPSIS chmod [OPTION] MODE[,MODE] chmod [OPTION] OCTAL-MODE FIL	FILE E	

• The mode can be specified in two ways:

1. Symbolic representation

2. Octal number (base-8 number system: 0 to 7)

- Sometimes one method is better suited than the other. You should know both of them.
- Multiple symbolic modes can be specified, separated by commas (MODE[,MODE]...)

SYMBOLIC MODE

- General form: [ugoa] [+-=] [rwxX]
- u:user, g:group, o:other, a:all
- +: add permission, -: remove permission, =: set permission
- r:read, w:write, x:execute
- X : set to execute only if the file is a directory or already has execute permission. This flag is useful with the -R option for recursion.
- There are a few more permissions not discussed here, see man chmod for all details.
- See also man umask for default file mode creation mask.

SYMBOLIC MODE EXAMPLE

Directory permissions:

	\$ ls -1
	total 4.0K
	d 2 fabs fabs 4.0K Aug 28 11:23 directory
	\$ ls directory/
	ls: cannot open directory 'directory/': Permission denied
	\$ chmod a+x directory/ && ls -l
	dxx 2 fabs fabs 4096 Aug 28 11:23 directory/
8	<pre>\$ cd directory/ && ls # && means execute second command only if first succeeded</pre>
	ls: cannot open directory '.': Permission denied
	<pre>\$ chmod a+r,u+w/directory/ && ls -ld . # the -d option only lists directories</pre>
	drwxr-xr-x 2 fabs fabs 4096 Aug 28 11:33 .
	\$ ls -1 # works because we set the a+r permission
	1 fabs fabs 0 Aug 28 11:23 file
14	\$ touch new_file && ls –l # works because we set the u+w permission
15	1 fabs fabs 0 Aug 28 11:23 file
16	-rw-rr 1 fabs fabs 0 Aug 28 11:33 new_file # new file default perm defined by umask

SYMBOLIC MODE EXAMPLE

File permissions:

1 \$ ls -l # works because we set the a+r permission for the directory before
2 ------ 1 fabs fabs 0 Aug 28 11:23 file
3 \$ cat file
4 cat: file: Permission denied
5 \$ chmod a+r file && cat file
6 Hello
7 \$ echo 'World!' >> file
8 bash: file: Permission denied
9 \$ chmod u+w file && echo 'World!' >> file && cat file
10 Hello
11 World!

OCTAL MODE

- Octal mode uses a single octal number for each of the three types of people (3 octal numbers, each can take values 0-7)
- While symbolic mode allows *relative* permission settings (+ and operators), octal mode is *absolute*
- Setting permissions relative can be convenient in some cases
- Base permissions are assigned the following octal values:
 - 4:read
 - 2:write
 - 1: execute
- Combinations of base permissions are obtained by *summing* their octal values

OCTAL MODE

- Base permissions are assigned the following octal values:
 - 4:read
 - 2:write
 - 1:execute
- Combinations of base permissions are obtained by *summing* their octal values

0: no permissions	4:read only
1 : execute only	5: read and execute (4+1)
2:write only	6: read and write (4+2)
3:write and execute (2+1)	7 : read, write and execute (4+2+1)

OCTAL MODE EXAMPLE

1 **\$ ls -l**

- 2 d----- 2 fabs fabs 4.0K Aug 28 11:23 directory
- 3 \$ ls -l directory/; touch directory/new_file
- 4 ls: cannot open directory 'directory/': Permission denied
- 5 touch: cannot touch 'directory/new_file': Permission denied
- 6 \$ chmod 755 directory/ && ls -1
- 7 drwxr-wr-w 2 fabs fabs 4.0K Aug 28 11:23 directory
- 8 \$ touch directory/new_file
- 9 \$ ls -l directory/
- 10 -rw-r--r-- 1 fabs fabs 0 Aug 28 12:23 new_file

FILE PERMISSIONS

• Assume you start with the following file

----- 1 fabs fabs 0 Aug 28 12:22 file

What is the octal mode equivalent of chmod a+r,u+w file?

• What does chmod 777 do? Discuss some of the repercussions.

TEXT EDITORS

TEXT EDITORS

- You can not get around the task of editing text files
- Because you spend the majority of time editing files, you need an editor you feel most comfortable with. The choice is personal.
- There are many text editor in Linux and you will meet them in the pair-programming sections:
 - pico and nano, easy to get started and minimal.
 - vim, powerful but steep learning curve.
 - emacs, powerful but also much more than just an editor.
 - ne, offers three user interfaces, one via menus.

HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF VI(M)

- We met ed before when talking about grep. Very first line based Unix editor written and used by Ken Thompson.
- ex is an extended version of ed.
- vi is a full screen version of ex (before that there were teleprinters not screens!)
- vim is an *improved* version of vi.
- vi or vim are tools that you will have at your disposal on any *nix type operating system.
- Because vi/vim are ancestors of ed/ex, they inherit similar syntax that is found in other tools such as sed or awk (learn one use by many).



- vim is a *modal* editor. It has 7 basic modes and 7 variations of the basic modes. The 3 most important ones are:
 - 1. Normal mode
 - 2. Insert mode
 - 3. Command-line mode
- Normal mode is the default and used for navigation and operations on text(-objects).
- Insert mode allows you to enter text with the keyboard (press i to enter insert mode and ESC to return to normal mode).
- Command-line mode allows to enter ex commands that operate on the file contents (e.g. pattern substitutions, writing the file or quitting the editor). Enter command-line by pressing : in normal mode.



USEFUL VIM COMMANDS

All of these commands are typed in normal mode:

:q!	Exit without saving the document. Your changes will be lost.
:wq	Save and quit
:wqa	Save all open files and quit
/pattern	Search for <code>pattern</code> . This can be a regex too. Type <code>n for the next forward match and N for the next backward match.</code>
dd	Delete the line where the cursor is on
уу	Copy (yank) the line where the cursor is on
I, i, a, A	Insert text: at beginning of line (I), before the cursor (i), after the cursor (a), at end of the line (A)
р	Paste the last yank/cut/deleted text
gg	Go to first line
G	Go to last line

VIM RESOURCES

- vim tutor: type vimtutor in your shell
- Practical Vim: Edit Text at the Speed of Thought 2nd Edition
- Cheat sheet
- Vimcasts.org
- git plugin for vim: vim-fugitive and screencasts

A NOTE ON IDE

- IDEs are *Integrated Development Environments*. They are graphical tools that combine many development tasks in the same graphical environment. (All of these tools exist in the shell as well.)
- They can be convenient and powerful but often require Gigabytes after installation and can take a while to start up. Examples are:
 - Spyder
 - Eclipse
 - Visual Studio
 - PyCharm
 - Jupyter (somewhat)

Assume you are a performance engineer at Netflix and an expert Eclipse user. Saturday 2AM the phone rings due to an emergency situation on an important Netflix server. You must fix the problem ASAP on the remote machine without Eclipse. Stay calm.

RECAP

- Linux man -pages
- The Unix philosophy and pipes
- Regular expressions (practice!)
- Linux file attributes and permissions
- Find an editor you are comfortable with and make it your own
- When you own it, get matching key caps...

