THE CSE COMPUTING ENVIRONMENT

A GUIDED TOUR FOR CSE1020 STUDENTS

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The objectives of this tour is to enable first-year CSE students to obtain an account and become familiar with the computing environment in the Prism Lab. Specifically, it provides an overview of the operating system and step-by-step instructions on creating, compiling, and editing Java programs.

OBTAINING AN ACCOUNT

The following tasks enable you to obtain an account through which you gain (direct and remote) access to the Department's computing facilities. Note that this ***cs*** account will remain yours throughout your studies and that it is different from your ***yorku*** account.

1. Go to the Prism lab, find a free workstation, and login as **newuser** (no password required).

2. You will be prompted for information required to create a new account (ID number, password, address, telephone, and your acceptance of certain Prism use conditions). Enter the information as requested. Make sure you memorise the password you chose, as you will need it to login to your account later.

3. Log out as follows: move the mouse to the desktop (away from any open window), press and hold the right button, highlight *Quit*, and then release the button. Confirm in the next window that you do want to quite the session.

4. Go to the Lab Monitor and present your York ID (or another photo ID) and sessional card (or proof of registration; e.g. a letter from the Registrar Office). The monitor normally sits at the desk in the Junior Prism Lab, but during the first week of classes, and to avoid congestion, an additional monitor is assigned to assist in new account creation.

5. The monitor will validate the information you entered and then ask you to sign a statement acknowledging that you have read, and do agree with, the *Prism Use Policy*. If you like, you can ask the monitor for a copy of the Policy so you can read it and come back after you do.

6. The monitor will create your account and give you a login ID (also known as a username). Note that it may take up to 30 minutes before your account becomes active.

CREATING A JAVA PROGRAM

Login to your cs account and open a terminal.

1. Type the following command:

   `pico First.java`

   It launches an editor named `pico` and specifies a file name.

2. Type the program shown below, exactly as shown, pressing the *Enter* key after each line. Replace `??` with your name:

```
public class First
{
   public static void main(String[] args)
   {
      System.out.put("My name is ??");
   }
}
```

3. When done, press ^*X* (to exit), followed by *y* (to confirm that you do want to save), followed by the *Enter* key (to confirm the filename). This should take you back to the operating system prompt.

4. Issue the command:

   `ls -l`

   This command lists all files in the current directory. It allows you to verify that `First.java` has indeed been created.

5. Issue the command:

   `cat First.java`

   This command displays the content of the specified file on the screen. It allows you to verify the content of `First.java`.

6. Issue the following command to compile your program:

   `javac First.java`

7. If you typed everything correctly, the compiler will report one error in line number 5. To correct the problem, re-launch the editor, go to the 5th line, and replace the word `put` with `println`.

8. Exit the editor and re-compile. No errors should be reported this time; otherwise, correct and re-compile. Issue the `ls` command and note that a new file (named `First.class`) has been created by the compiler.

9. Run the created `class` file by issuing the command:

   ```
   java First
   ```

   You should see the phrase *"My name is …"* on the screen.

CONFIGURING eCheck

Open a terminal and issue the following command:

```
java Options
```

It launches a window that allows you to set the parameters needed for communicating with the departmental `eCheck` server. Specifically, you must supply three parameters:

- **Login ID**
  This is the ID of the account you created at the beginning of this tour. It is typically made up of the letters `cs` followed by 6 digits.

- **Password**
  This is the password of your account.

- **eCheck URL**
  Enter the following string and pay attention to letter case:

  `http://www.cse.yorku.ca/~roumani/type/ec/ec.cgi`

  This is the URL of the departmental eCheck server. If you discover later (when you do section L1.3 of Lab 1) that your eCheck cannot communicate with the server, it means this URL was not entered correctly.

Click *Apply* when done.

Note:
The above options need to be entered only once. If you changed your account password, however, then remember to change these options accordingly.

Note:
The checkbox at the top of the Options window allows you to work offline. Make sure this box is *unchecked* or else you will not receive credits for eCheck exercises.

THE OPERATING SYSTEM

Unix is an industrial-strength, highly reliable operating system that is heavily used in industry and business for critical or high-volume operations like database servers and web services. Furthermore, it is the operating system of choice in almost all academic and research institutions. Unix runs on computers made by different vendors and that is why it has different flavours (*Solaris*, *AIX*, *UX*, *IRIS*, and *Linux*, among others); but all these flavours share the basic commands and utilities.

There are generally two ways to interact with an operating system: through the *console* or through a graphical user interface, *GUI*. In Microsoft Windows, for example, you can copy a file either by issuing a command at the command prompt console (also known as the DOS window), or by using the mouse. This guided tour introduces you to the console interface of Unix/Linux, which is often referred to as the *terminal* (or the *shell*).

When you first login to a machine in Prism, you will find yourself at the GUI interface. From there, you can open a terminal either by right-clicking the desktop and highlighting *Terminal* or by clicking the *Terminal* icon on the taskbar. Note that you can have several terminals open at the same time. You close a terminal by clicking the x at its top of by issuing the `exit` command in it.

SIMPLE COMMANDS

Unix commands are programs that perform actions. You issue a command by typing its name and pressing *Enter* or *Return* (note that Unix is case-sensitive and all its commands are in lower case). The action performed by a command may need one or more operands (known as ***arguments***), and you type them after the command name, separated from it by a space. Furthermore, some commands allow you to modify the actions they perform by supplying ***options*** or ***switches***. You specify an option by typing its name, preceded by a minus sign, in between the command name and its arguments (if any) with a space delimiter. The action, arguments, options, and syntax of a command are all specified in its ***reference*** (or ***man***) ***page***.

For example, you can change your password by typing:

```
passwd
```

When prompted, enter your old password and a new one (you will need to verify the new password). Your password is the only security you have to prevent other people from using your computer account, and copying or destroying your files. There are people who are willing to spend hours trying to guess your password. Therefore, choose a password that only you could guess, and change it often. Avoid using words in any language, names or license plate numbers. A good password involves digits, capitals, and lower-case letters.

Unix comes with on-line documentation. For example, to learn more about the **`passwd`** command, type:

```
man passwd
```

The *man-pages* are displayed one screen at a time. After a screen is displayed, press ***space*** to see the next, ***b*** to scroll **b**ackward, or ***q*** to **q**uit.

The man pages provide information on specific Unix commands. But what if you don't know the exact command name? In that case you use the **`-k`** option, which searches by keywords. For example, to find out which command(s) handles passwords, type:

```
man -k password
```

As an exercise:

1. Try the following two commands (no arguments, no options): **`date`**, which gives you today's date and time, and **`cal`**, which displays the calendar of the current month.

2. Look up the man-page of the **`cal`** command to find out how to produce a calendar for *any* month and year. Specifically, use it to determine on which day of the week you were born.

3. Look up the man-page of the **`ls`** command to find out how to produce a listing sorted by date.

Note that the terminal maintains a ***command history*** list of all the commands you issued and allows you to recall any of them by simply pressing the ***up-arrow***. Press it several times and observe. To reissue a command, go back in history until it appears and press *Enter*. To erase the command, use the delete key or type *Ctrl-U* (press U while holding down the control key).

STANDARD OUTPUT & REDIRECTION

Output produced by Unix commands, and indeed your own programs, normally appears on the screen, which is the default *Standard Output* unit. You can redirect this output to a disk file by simply following the command by a ***greater-than*** sign followed by a file name. Note that ">" is placed *after* options and arguments and that it applies to *any* command that produces output.

1. Redirect the output of the **`date`** command to a disk file. Since this is the first file we create, let us call it *foo1*. Issue the command:

   ```
   date > foo1
   ```

   To verify that the file was indeed created, and that it does contain the date, we will display its content using the command **`cat`** whose one-argument version is:

   ```
   cat foo1
   ```

2. Redirect the output of the **`cal`** command to the disk file *foo2:*

   ```
   cal > foo2
   ```

   then use **`cat`** to verify that the redirection worked.

3. The previous task created a file *foo2* and placed in it this month calendar. Suppose we want to ***append*** to it the current date and time; i.e. the output of the `date` command. If we write:

   ```
   date > foo2
   ```

   then this won't work because the new output will *overwrite* the previous content of the file rather than append it (in fact, the set-up in Prism prevents you from accidentally overwriting files this way). The proper way to achieve this is to use ***two*** greater-than signs. Issue the following command then use **`cat`** to verify that the date was indeed appended to `foo2`:

   ```
   date >> foo2
   ```

FILES

Data is stored on disk in logical units called *files*. Unix stores files as a series of bytes with no inherent structures *(flat files)*, and takes care of (and hides) all the physical details, so all we need to know in order to access a file is its ***file name***. Unix leaves it up to you to name files, placing minimal restrictions on the number and type of characters you use. For example, the *slash* character cannot be included in a filename, and the following characters have special meanings, and using them in a file name can lead to unpredictable results for some commands and, hence, should be avoided:

```
<  >  |  *  ?  [  ]  "  '
```

Moreover, avoid starting a file name with a minus sign (**`-`**) or with a dot (**`.`**). Generally, you choose a name that is descriptive of the content of the file, and since Unix is case-sensitive, you can capitalise the first letter of multiword names, or use a dot; e.g. a java program file that deals with stocks can be called `Stock.java`, and a data text file containing exam marks can be called `ExamMarks.data`.

1. The command:

   ```
   ls
   ```

   lists all the files in your current directory (except those starting with a dot). You should find the two files *foo1* and *foo2* (which we created earlier) included in the list.

2. The command:

   `cp foo2 foo3`

   copies the content of file *foo2* to a new file named *foo3*. Note that if *foo3* was already present, *it will be overwritten* so be careful! Use **`ls`** and **`cat`** to verify that *foo3* was indeed created and that it is a copy of *foo2*.

3. The command:

   `mv foo3 foo4`

   moves the content of file *foo3* to a new file named *foo4*. Unlike **`cp`**, which retains the original, source file, **`mv`** destroys it; i.e. it effectively ***renames*** the file. Use **`ls`** and **`cat`** to verify that *foo3* is no longer there and that its content is now in *foo4*.

4. The command:

   `rm foo4`

   removes (i.e. deletes, kills) the file *foo4* permanently. Since there is no easy way of un-deleting the file, this is a potentially dangerous command so the set-up in Prism will prompt you to confirm. Type **`y`** (for **y**es) and then use **`ls`** to verify that *foo4* is no longer there.

DISPLAYING AND PRINTING FILES

There are two types of files, *text* and *binary*. A text files (also known as plain or ASCII file) contains a sequence of keystrokes; i.e. each byte in it represents a keyboard key. If such a file is displayed on the screen, you can readily read its content. In a binary file, however, the characters do not represent lines of text and do not have to correspond to keystrokes. The source code of a program (a file with a `java` extension) is an example of a text file, whereas a compiled program (a file with a `class` extension) is an example of a binary file.

As shown in the tasks below, the `cat` and `more` commands are used to display text files on the screen, and the `enscript` command is used to print them on a printer. It should be noted, however, that some text files contain embedded commands that affect how the file's content should look like when displayed or printed. For example, if you use `cat` to display the file:

```
This is a <i>text</i> file. It contains text plus
some embedded commands that influence rendering.
```

you will see a display identical to the above. The tag `<i>` means that the word "`text`" should be shown in italics, but Unix does not look inside the file. If you like to see these commands properly executed, you should display and print the file using a program that

understands them. In the above example, the text file is actually an html file and, hence, a browser should be used.

As a rule, unless the file is 100% pure text, you should use a special program to display or print text files. This rule applies to all binary files as well. You must therefore learn how to associate a file (based on its extension) with a program, for example:

html, gif, jpg	associated with	*browser*
ps	associated with	*ghostview* or *gv*
pdf	associated with	*arcoread* or *xpdf*

1. We have already used the **`cat`** command to display the content of a pure text file, but if listing is long, it will scroll off the screen before we get a chance to examine it. For this reason, a more preferred command to view the content of a file is **`more`**:

   `more foo2`

   displays the content of file *foo2* one screen at a time, pausing in between until you press *space* to see the next screen, ***b*** to see the previous one, or ***q*** to quit.

2. To print a text file (on the printer), use the command:

   `enscript` ***`textFileName`***

3. This command has many options that give you control over the output layout. See its `man` page for full details. A particularly useful combination is:

   `enscript -2rG` ***`textFileName`***

   (2 = two columns; r = rotate by 90 degrees, i.e. landscape; and G for *fancy* headers.)

4. If you want to print a postscript file, identified by the *ps* extension, you can use the *gv* or *ghostview* programs to first view it (display it on screen) and then print it. Since the printers in the lab are postscript printers (i.e. their hardware understands the postscript commands embedded in *ps* files), you can print a *ps* file (without viewing first) using the **`lpr`** command: **`lpr`** ***`filename.ps`***

5. Internally, **`enscript`** works by first converting your text file to postscript and then printing it. Hence, you can also use it to *create* postscript files:

   `enscript -2rG -p`*`filename.ps textFileName`*
   `ghostview` ***`filename.ps`*** **`&`**

The first command uses the **p** option to save the converted file (rather than print it) under the same name as the original text file but with a **ps** extension. The second invokes *ghostview* and passes the file name to it.

6. When you print a file, its content is sent to a printing queue, and as long as your job is in this queue, you can use the following two commands:

   lpq and **lprm**

   The first shows you the status of the queue while the second allows you to remove a job you submitted; i.e. aborts it. This is useful when you print a file by mistake, and want to cancel printing. To use this pair, first issue `lpq` to determine the *job number* of your printing job, and then issue `lpr` and pass the job number to it.

7. Once the file is placed in the printing queue, it remains there until you release it. To do that, you go to a so-called *print release station* and swipe your card. A screen will display all jobs that belong to you and that are currently in the queue; and by pressing PRINT, you can print all the selected ones. At that point, the jobs will be sent to the printer, and whenever a job is successfully printed, it will be removed from the queue.

Note:
It is very important that you understand the association between files and programs. If you ignored this issue and used, for example, the enscript program to print non-text files, you would end up with a huge print job that wastes paper, delays the queue, and reduces your paper quota. It is best to always print from the program associated with the file rather than use a Unix printing command like enscript or lpr. Note, however, that these are all X programs, and hence, they cannot be executed through remote access.

WILD CARDS & FILENAMES

ls and similar command support ***wildcards*** as part of their filename argument. The following table illustrate some of the various pattern-matching features available:

command	Action
ls or ls *	List all files *(except those starting with a dot)*
ls foo	List the file *foo* if present or state that it is not present
ls foo*	List all files beginning with *foo,* like *foo, foo1, foo.dat*; i.e. * matches any number of characters, including none.

`ls *.java`	List all files ending with *.java (but not the file "`.java`", if present).*
`ls f??`	List all files beginning with *f* and followed by exactly two more characters, like *foo, fin,* and *far*
`ls [fkz]*`	List all files beginning with *f* **or** *k* **or** *z*, like *foo, kilo, zebra*
`ls [b-q]*`	List all files beginning with a letter in the range *b* to *q*, inclusive
`ls [fr]??[1-9]*`	List all files beginning with *f* **or** *r* followed by exactly two characters followed by a digit in [1,9] followed by anything; e.g. *raw8.txt*

UTILITY COMMANDS

The following commands perform ad-hoc functions and it is useful to know that they exist so you can look up their man pages and use them when needed:

`wc sort grep who which jobs kill fg bg ps script`

Given a file argument (or Standard Input if omitted), `wc` counts words, `sort` sorts the records, and `grep` finds patterns. `who` determines who is currently logged in and `which` determines the location of a program. The five commands that follow allow you to control multitasking. The very last command, **`script`**, is explained next.

LOG GENERATION

When you are handing in an assignment report, you will be asked to include your program and a ***log*** of its execution. This is a text file that shows how your program was invoked, its prompts, the input you provided, and the output it generated. The following command will create such a log by mirroring everything that appears on the screen in the file *log.txt* starting from when you entered this command and lasting until you type ***exit***:

```
script log.txt
...
...
...  (enter commands to launch your program)
...
...
exit
```

1. Enter a few commands in between the above two. For example, you may want to issue the `ls` command, followed by `cal`, followed by `date`.

2. After issuing `exit`, examine the content of the log by typing: `cat log.txt`.

DIRECTORIES

All the files we created thus far reside on the hard disk in an area that belongs to you, and is known as your ***home directory***. If you have only a few files, then keeping everything in the home directory is fine, but as the number of files increase, this approach will not scale: first of all, you will run out of meaningful file names and second, Unix will become slower as it now needs to search through hundreds, and perhaps thousands, of files in order to locate the one named in your command or program.

A better approach, adopted by *all* operating systems, is to divide your home directory into subdirectories. For example, you may decide to store all files related to this course in the directory *1020*, all your mail messages in the directory *mail*, and all your Web-related files in the directory *www*. Furthermore, you may want to push this strategy further and divide *1020* into two directories, one for labs and one for assignments. The figure below is a partial hierarchy tree that can be constructed to accommodate this scheme (Unix uses tilde ~ to denote your home directory).

Note that files need not reside only in the leaves (lowest level of the tree); any directory can contain files.

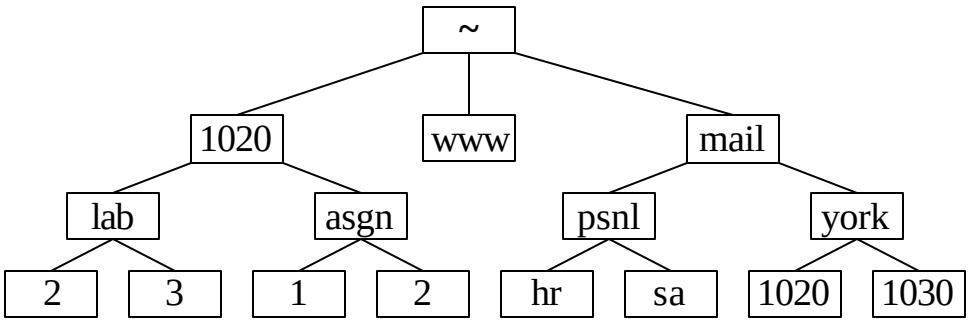
Unix provides the following commands to allow you to manage directories (they all have useful options and you are advised to consult their `man` pages):

`pwd`	*print working directory*	determines where you are
`cd`	*change directory*	changes where you are
`mkdir`	*make directory*	creates a new directory,
`rmdir`	*remove directory*	deletes a directory.

1. To create the first level of the shown tree, enter the following commands:

```
cd ~
mkdir 1020
mkdir mail
```

The first command ensures that we are at home (note that if you omit the ~ argument, the



shell *understands* that you mean home!). The next command creates the *1020* directory by providing its name as an argument, and similarly for *mail*. We did not create *www* because the set-up on Prism automatically creates it upon account creation.

2. There are two ways to create the *lab* directory: either **`mkdir 1020/lab`** or

   ```
   cd 1020
   mkdir lab
   ```

   The argument of **`mkdir`** thus depends on where you were prior to issuing the command.

3. Create the rest of directory structure. Note that a *forward* slash is used as a separator when referring to files and subdirectories. If you got confused as to where you are, simply use **`pwd`**.

4. Create the file *foo*, containing the text *"This is a test"*, in the *hr* directory. Again, you can do that in several ways depending on where your current directory is. Two examples:

   ```
   cd
   cat > mail/psnl/hr/foo
   This is a test
   ^D
   ```

   or

   ```
   cd mail/psnl/hr
   cat > foo
   This is a test
   ^D
   ```

5. Copy the file *foo* that was just created to another, named *data*, in the *psnl* directory. There are several ways to do this depending on where you put yourself prior to issuing the copy command. If you stick to *home*, this is what you type:

   ```
   cd
   cp mail/psnl/hr/foo mail/psnl/data
   ```

   A shorter way obtains if you first switch to either the source or the destination directory. This is shorter because Unix recognises the following two special symbols: **`.`** (a single dot) denotes the ***current*** directory, and **`..`** (two dots) denotes the ***parent*** of the current directory:

   ```
   cd
   cd mail/psnl/hr
   cp foo ../data
   ```

   Alternatively, we can start by switching to the target directory:

```
cd
cd mail/psnl
cp hr/foo ./data
```

Note:
When you copy files across directories you have the option of changing or keeping the filename. It is OK to have two files with the same name as long as they reside in different directories. What must be unique is the ***path*** leading to any file: the slash-delimited string of directory names, starting from your home directory and ending with the file's directory followed by the filename; e.g. **`~/mail/psnl/hr/foo`**

Note:
If you copy (or move) a file across directories *without* changing its name, you do not need to specify the filename in the second argument, just the destination directory. This is especially relevant if you have several files, specified by a wildcard. For example, to copy the file *foo* from `mail/psnl/hr` to `mail/psnl` (under the same name), you can write:

```
cd mail/psnl/hr
cp foo ..
```

6. Suppose you no longer need the hr directory. The command:

   ```
   cd
   rmdir mail/psnl/hr
   ```

   will refuse to delete it because *it is not empty.* You must first remove all the files in it and then remove it, viz.

   ```
   cd
   rm mail/psnl/hr/*
   rmdir mail/psnl/hr
   ```

USER'S DIRECTORY

We have thus far concentrated on your home directory but you are not the sole owner of the hard disk! Indeed, other users, common programs, and Unix itself all share the same hard disk (or array of disks) and each needs a home directory. In fact, your home directory is only a child in a bigger tree that spans the entire disk system. The root of the full tree is denoted in Unix by a **`/`** (a forward slash), and if your login ID is, say, `cs123456`, then your home directory will be located in **`/cs/ugrad`**n**`/cs123456`** (where n is a disk number).

You can find out the actual name of your home directory by typing the following two commands:

```
cd
pwd
```

The first takes you to your home directory and the second displays its name. In general, the home directory of a user whose login is ***login*** is denoted by **`~login`**; e.g. *~cs123456*.

A path that starts with the root (i.e. with /) is known as an ***absolute path*** because it is independent of the current working directory, while a path that doesn't begin with a slash is known as a ***relative*** one. As long as you stay within your home directory (including its subdirectories), you don't have to worry about the hierarchy above it, and you can thus always use relative paths. But if you want to copy files from elsewhere (e.g. other users or course-related files) or allow others to examine your files (e.g. publish on the web), then you will need to think in the context of the full hierarchy.

EDITORS

An editor is a program that allows you to create text files. It is like as a miniature word-processor that supports only the basic, text-based operations with no formatting. We use editors to create the source file of programs and it is important that you become comfortable with one of the powerful, platform-specific editors introduced in Lab 2.

As you might expect, most sophisticated editors use a GUI, and hence, cannot be executed remotely through a telnet session. It is therefore useful to be familiar with a text-based Unix editor to be used for ad-hoc editing. We recommend `pico` because it is easy to learn, but if you are already familiar with another text-based Unix editor (e.g. `vi` or `emacs`), then you can continue using it.

1. Launch the editor and specify the file to edit by entering:

   `pico` ***`filename`***

2. If the file does not exist, `pico` creates it and displays a blank screen for you to write in. Otherwise, `pico` opens it so that you can edit (i.e. modify) it.

3. You can type text, navigate using the four arrows, or enter one of the commands displayed at the bottom two lines of the screen. Of these, `^X` is the most important because it allows you to leave the editor with or without saving any changes you made to the file.

`pico` has many useful features including a spell checker (^T). Use its ^G command to get a help screen about all its commands.

FILE PROTECTION

The ability to set file permissions is an important part of a multi-user operating system. Although you will often not want other users to have access to your files, there are circumstances when this is useful. Unix recognises three *classes* of users: Class **u** includes only you, the file owner (**u** stands for **u**ser); class **g** includes members of your **g**roup; and class **o** which includes all **o**thers. You can also use the convenience class **a** (**a**ll), which includes all three classes (**u**, **g**, and **o**). For each class, you decide what *permissions* to grant, and there are three permission modes:

`r` *(read)*
Allows the file to be read (which means it can be copied). If this is a directory, then this allows its content to be read (using for example the `ls` command).

`w` *(write)*
Allows the file to be written to; i.e. to be edited. If this is a directory, then this allows creating and deleting files and subdirectories in it.

`x` *(execute)*
Allows the file to be executed (assuming it is an executable). If this is a directory, then this allows searching for specific files in it; e.g. using `cd` to switch to the directory (but it does not allow using the `ls` command).

To see the permission modes, create a file in your home directory and use the -l option of the `ls` command. You should see an output *similar* to the following:

```
cd
cal > sample
ls -l
drwx------   2 roumani  faculty      512 Jul  9 13:45 1020/
-rw-------   1 roumani  faculty      140 Jul  9 13:37 sample
drwxr-xr-x  33 roumani  faculty     1024 Mar  7 21:27 www/
```

What concern us here are the first 10 characters of each line:

- The first indicates the *file type*, with **`d`** indicating a directory and a dash **`-`** indicating a regular file.
- The next 9 characters are the three permission modes for the three classes of users, with **`-`** indicating that this permission is *not* granted.

In the above example, we see that the owner of the file *sample* has **`rw-`**, which means read, write and no execute permissions, while members of the **g**roup and **o**thers, have no permissions whatsoever (this is usually the default when you create a file). For the 1020 directory, the **u**ser has full permissions while others have none (the default when you create a directories). But for the www directory, **r**ead and e**x**ecute were granted to **g**roup members as well as to all **o**thers.

To change the permission modes for a file or a directory named *name*, use the command:

```
chmod class ± permission name
```

where *class* is either **u** or **g** or **o**, permission is either **r** or **w** or **x**, and where the plus sign is used to grant permission and the minus to withhold it. For example, to allow *others* to read the *sample* file, you would write:

```
chmod o+r sample
```

Note:
It is possible to provide a numeric argument, instead of a class / permission pair, by using the following mapping: r=**4**, w=**2**, x=**1** and no permission is **0**. To assign a particular set of permission, you simply add up the permission weights per class. For example, to set the permissions of a file *sample* to **`-rwxrw-r--`**, you add:

```
user    u+rwx     4 + 2 + 1 = 7
group   g+rw      4 + 2 + 0 = 6
other   o+r       4 + 0 + 0 = 4
```

Hence, all these permissions can be set in one shot via the command:

```
chmod 764 sample
```

FILE PERMISSIONS & WEB PUBLISHING

If you want to post a file on the Web, three conditions must be met:

1. The file must be in the *www* directory or one of its subdirectories. Only the tree rooted at *www* can be made visible to the Web community.

2. The file must be readable by all (`a+r`)

3. Every directory in its path, starting from *www*, must be searchable (`a+x`) and readable (`a+r`) by all.

For example, if you like to publish the file *Astronomy.html* from the directory *~/www/me*, you would issue the commends:

```
cd
chmod a+rx www
cd www
chmod a+rx me
cd me
chmod a+r Astronomy.html
```

The URL of the file is:

```
http://www.cse.yorku.ca/~cs123456/me/Astronomy.htm
```

Note that even though *www* is not mentioned in the URL, the Web server recognizes its existence and treats it as the root of the Web tree of *~cs123456*. Note also that if the file to be posted is named *index.htm* or *index.html* or *Welcome.html*, then it does not need to be named in the URL; the Web server will assume such a name by default.

STANDARD INPUT & REDIRECTION

To perform its action, the two-argument `cp` command takes its input from the file named in its first argument and writes to the second argument. Similarly, the one-argument `cat` command reads its input from its argument and writes to the screen. In these, and in many other Unix commands, the input comes from a file named in an argument. What if we did *not* supply that argument? Some commands would protest and issue a message like *"Insufficient arguments"*. Others would simply decide to take their input from ***Standard Input*** instead of a file. By default *Standard Input* is nothing but the keyboard, so these tolerant commands end up reading from the user. `cp` is an example of the former (producing an error if an argument is missing), while `cat` is of the latter group.

When a command takes input from the keyboard, it keeps reading, line-by- line, until you enter *Ctrl-D* as the first character on the last entered line (press D while holding down the Control key). Note that this key combination (sometimes written as ^*D*) is often used to exit a command that is waiting for input.

Just like *Standard Output*, you can redirect *Standard Input* to come from a disk file by simply following the command by a ***less-than*** sign followed by a file name. This is seldom used for commands because, as stated above, input originally came from a disk file and we coerced it to *Standard Input* by omitting the argument. It is very useful for utilities or our own programs, however, as it allows us to avoid tedious repetitive inputs.

1. Based on the above discussion, describe how the following command would work. What is it useful for in this form?

   `cat > foo`

2. If *command1* produces output on *Standard Output* and *command2* takes input from *Standard Input*, then the command:

   `command1 | command2`

   pipes the output of *command1* to the input of *command2*. For example, if the output of the first command is long and would normally scroll of the screen, we can pipe it

to the input of the `more` command. Try the following `ls` command (chosen to produce a long listing) with and without piping it:

```
ls .* | more
```

Note: pressing **b** (to scroll **b**ackward) doesn't work here.

REMOTE ACCESS

In order to develop and run Java programs, you can either work in a campus lab, using the lab's editing and running environment, or work at your home PC, using its editing and running environment. Hence, remote access (the ability to use the lab's environment from home) is not needed, nor recommended, for Java development. We are mentioning it here in the context of Unix (not Java) because it allows you to try Unix commands and inspect their `man` pages while at home. You can skip this section and come back to it when you need such access.

Your home PC can access a remote Unix server provided you have an Internet connection and a secure `telnet` program. You can download such a program from the Internet, for free. The site:

`http://www.freessh.org`

maintains links to three telnet programs:

`PuTTY` for Windows,
`Nifty` for MacOS, and
`OpenSSH` for Linux.

Download the one appropriate for your operating system, install it, and then launch it. To connect remotely, specify that the server (or host) name is:

`red.cse.yorku.ca`

and make sure you select the `SSH` (or Port 22) protocol. Once the connection is made, you will be prompted to enter your username (login) and password.

Afterwards, you will be at the Unix prompt in a so-called *telnet session*; and your computer will be in a so-called *terminal emulation* mode. The situation will be exactly as if you are in a campus laboratory except for one key difference: you cannot see or issue X commands. In particular, you cannot launch `ghostview`, `nedit`, or a browser. If you attempt to launch any X program, you will get an error message similar to:

```
display variable not set
```

This does not indicate an installation problem; you simply cannot communicate with X through a telnet session.

Your telnet session appears to your home operating system as a window. You can copy and paste in it using the mouse: if you highlight text in the window, you are effectively copying, and if you right-click while in the window, you are effectively pasting.

To end your telnet session and logout, type `exit`.

EMAIL

Once you have a Unix account, you automatically get an email address. If your login ID is *cs123456*, then your email address is:

```
cs123456@cse.yorku.ca
```

It is strongly recommended that you adopt this email address for all your correspondence because some professors may have filters that block other domains. If it is imperative that you use some other email address, then make sure you include your login ID in every email you send, and make sure you forward any received mail. In order to forward mail to some other address, create a text file named "`.forward` " in your home directory and type in it the other address as the very first line. Note that it is your responsibility to keep the forwarding information up-to-date.

You can check your Unix mail in many ways. The easiest is through the Web: launch a browser and visit the site:

```
www.cse.yorku.ca/mail
```

If you do not want to use the Web then **`pine`** is recommended because it has an address book and a message editor, and more importantly, it is text-based, which means it can be accessed from campus or through remote access.

FILE TRANSFER

We mentioned in the previous section that when you develop Java software, you typically either work at your home PC or in a campus lab. Occasionally, you need to transfer a file from one place to another, and this section covers this mechanism.

One approach is to use a diskette. Unix maps the content of any (formatted) diskette you insert to a virtual directory called **`/floppy/floppy0`**. Hence, you can use the normal Unix copy command (**`cp`**) to transfer files. In the following example, we copy all files from the diskette to the 1020 subdirectory of your home directory:

```
volcheck
cp /floppy/floppy0/* ~/1020
eject
```

The first command is needed whenever you insert a diskette in a workstation. The last command is needed in order to remove the diskette. Conversely, you can copy files from any directory to the diskette.

The above approach works only if the file is small. A better, and more general, approach uses `ftp` *(File Transfer Protocol)*. You can use the console-based `ftp` program bundled with your operating system or you can download a GUI one. As with everything else in this tour, we focus on console applications: The text-based ftp client bundled with most operating systems is called `ftp` and you can run it by typing its name. In Windows, you do this in the DOS console or by clicking *Start* | *Run* and typing *ftp*. Once you launch it, you will see its `ftp>` prompt at which you enter the following command to connect:

```
ftp>open ftp.cse.yorku.ca
```

Once you login, you can enter Unix commands (to operate on your remote Unix server) or commands preceded by `!` (to operate on your local machine). In addition, you can use the **put** and **get** commands to transfer files.

For example, to transfer the text file **Test.java** from the local directory **C:\1020** to the remote **1020** subdirectory of your home directory, you type:

```
ftp>lcd C:\1020
ftp>cd ~/1020/
ftp>put Test.java Test.java
```

To transfer the file the other way, use **get** instead of **put**. If the file is binary (e.g. a .class file), make sure you first enter the **binary** command (to switch back to text files, use the **ascii** command). You can type **?** at the `ftp` prompt to learn more; for example, the `mput` and `mget` commands allow you to transfer many files through a wildcard.

Note
Some ftp programs automatically set the permissions to `a+rx` for all files transferred! To ensure your privacy, always transfer files to a subdirectory of your home directory.