• Following permissions are required for file/directory level operations.

Permissions	Read	Write	Execute
File type			
File	Read file contents	Write/overwrite (touch,	Execute/run file (./file)
	(cat)	cat, edit)	Change permissions(chmod)
Directory	List files/sub-folders	Create files/subfolders	Change directory(cd)
	(ls)	(mkdir)	Delete (rmdir, rm -r)

- In file1 file1\_hard creates a hard-link of file1, and calls it file1\_hard.
- In -s file1 file1\_soft creates a soft-link of file1, and calls it file1\_soft.
- To see the *inode* numbers of files, use *Is -li*

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~/dir_2$ ls -li
total 8
22254 -rw-r--r- 1 anand anand 6 Sep 26 11:40 file1
13958 lrwxrwxrwx 1 anand anand 5 Sep 26 11:38 file1_soft -> file1
11199 -rw-r--r-- 1 anand anand 6 Sep 26 11:31 file2
19577 lrwxrwxrwx 1 anand anand 5 Sep 26 11:38 file2 soft -> file2
```

- Hard links to the same file have same inode. Modifying one affects the other, but deleting one doesn't delete the other.
- Soft links to the same file have different inodes. Modifying one affects the other, and deleting one renders the others dead.
- Once created, moving the location of a soft-link renders it dead, unless the soft-link was created with an absolute path. Thus, in order to create a soft link file\_soft to the absolute path to file, use In -s `pwd`/file file\_soft
- Copies of the same file have different inodes, and are entirely independent of each other. Modifying one doesn't affect the other, and deleting one doesn't delete the other.
- It's not possible to create hard links for directories, since it can lead to self-reference and thus infinite recursion.
- To display the type of the file (file/directory/link), use file command as follows anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~/dir 2\$ file \*

file1: ASCII text

file1\_soft: symbolic link to file1

file2: ASCII text

file2\_soft: symbolic link to file2

To see the file properties, use stat < file name >

- echo command accepts multiple parameters separated by a single space, and prints them.
- echo accepts multiline input by using quotes (single/doubt) around the input.
- To display shell variables, use command echo <variable>. Some shell variables include \$HOME, \$USER, \$HOSTNAME, \$PWD, \$PATH. You may use double quotes around the variables, but not single-quotes, in which case the variable is treated as a literal string.

```
gphani@icme:~$ echo "$USERNAME"
gphani
gphani@icme:~$ echo '$USERNAME'
$USERNAME
```

NOTE: Using double-quotes with a shell variable interpolates it inside a larger string, and escaping it using '\' treats it as a literal. It's a good idea to use braces around the variable while interpolating.

- *echo* prints the string/variable content, and terminates with a newline. *echo -n* doesn't print a newline at the end.
- whoami shows the current user of the terminal.
- whatis <command> displays a brief help on the command.
- man <command> shows the detailed help on the command. So does <command> --help and info <command>
- whereis <command> shows the location of the command executable.
- which <command> also shows the location of command executable, but has restricted scope of search in comparison to whereis.
- echo \$HOSTNAME displays the hostname of the local system, as stored in /etc/hostname
- echo \$SHELL displays the path of the current shell.
- Assuming that the above command displays /bin/bash, echo \${SHELL:5:4} displays bash (4 characters starting with the 5th character).
- printenv, env, set are commands that list the shell variables in the shell.
- Following are special shell variables used by the Linux bash shell, and their meanings.
  - $\circ$  \$0 name of the shell
  - o \$\$\frac{\\$\\$}{\}\$ process ID of the shell (same as what gets displayed in ps command)
  - o \$? return code of the previous run program
  - \$- flags set in bash shell
- Process control commands
  - ps list of current processes.
  - o & run a process in the background
  - fq bring the background process to foreground
  - coproc run processes in the simultaneously.
  - o jobs list jobs in shell
  - top list processes that hog memory
  - o **kill** kill processes.
- Program <u>exit codes</u> (between 0 and 255)

- 0 Success (evaluated as true by shell script)
- 1 Failure
- o 2 Misuse
- 126 Command cannot be executed
- 127 Command not found
- 130 Process killed using Ctrl + C
- 137 Process killed using kill -9 <pid>
- date -R prints the current system datetime in a format useful in email communications.
- alias date="date -R" creates an alias for date command and executes  $\frac{date R}{date}$  in turn. If you want to NOT use the alias, use escaping as in \date. To unset the alias, use  $\frac{alias date=date}{date}$
- ps ef lists all processes, along with details about parent pid (ppid) and other details.
- *echo \$BASH\_SUBSHELL* gives a number indicating the #subshell where execution is happening now. Consider the following execution, where inside each pair of parenthesis the \$BASH\_SUBSHELL increments.

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo $BASH_SUBSHELL;(echo $BASH_SUBSHELL;(echo $BASH_SUBSHELL;(echo $BASH_SUBSHELL)));
0
1
2
3
```

**NOTE**: To run multiple commands in a sequence, separate each by semi-colon.

- When && is used in between two commands, both commands are executed one after the other. However, if the first one fails, the second one is ignored.
- When // is used in between two commands, the second one is executed, only if the first one fails and is ignored, when the first one passes.

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls this_folder_does_not_exist;ls ls: cannot access 'this_folder_does_not_exist': No such file or directory check_sum.py client client.code-workspace dir_2 go push server anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls this_folder_does_not_exist && ls: cannot access 'this_folder_does_not_exist': No such file or directory anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls this_folder_does_not_exist || ls ls: cannot access 'this_folder_does_not_exist': No such file or directory check_sum.py client client.code-workspace dir_2 go push server anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls || ls check_sum.py client client.code-workspace dir_2 go push server
```

- Linux supports 3 file descriptors stdin (0), stdout(1) and stderr(2)
- To redirect stdout to out.txt, use >out.txt. In this case, the output will not be displayed on the screen. If you want the output to also appear on the screen (In addition to redirecting to out.txt, use | tee out.txt. For example, |s \$HOME | tee out.txt will create out.txt with the contents of the \$HOME directory, as well display it on the screen. Note that tee command can be used to redirect output to multiple files by providing file names separated by space.
- To redirect *stderr* to *err.txt*, use 2>*err.txt*. It's common to redirect *stderr* output to /dev/null 2>/dev/null.
- To redirect stderr to the same file where stdout is redirected, use 2>&1. For example, Is \$HOME /blah > file1 2>&1 will redirect stderr to stdout and list the files in the home directory and redirect stdout to file1. Thus, file1 will contain the error (about non-existing directory /blah) as well as the listing of files in \$HOME.
- less <file> displays the contents of <file> and allows scrolling line by line.
- more <file> displays the contents of <file> and allows scrolling page by page.

- Cat > file1 will accept the text typed by the user and stores in file1. Stop entering text by pressing
   Ctrl + D on keyboard.
- Variables can be assigned with a numeric or a string value. It can also be assigned with the result of a Linux command, by enclosing the command in backquotes (``). For example, to assign the number of files in the current directory to a variable, run <a href="mailto:num\_files">num\_files</a> is | wc -l \(`\). Now, echo</a> \$num\_files will print the number of files in the directory.
- Variable name can have alphanumeric characters and \_. Assigning values to variables can't have space around '='.
- In order to make a variable available on the shell and its sub-shells, use *export* command. Note that *export* will not affect the parent shell variables.
- To assign v to v1, use v1 = v.
- To unassign \$v, use unset v command or v=<empty> (leave RHS of '=' empty)
- [[-v v]] returns 0, if \$v is set, else returns 1.
- To echo a default value 'default' if the variable \$\( v \) is not set, say \( \frac{echo \( \frac{\lambda}{v} : -default \) \}
- To set a default value 'default' if the variable \$\( v \) is not set, say \( \frac{echo \( \frac{5}{v} := default \) \} \)
- To display a message 'msg' if the variable \$\(\forall v\) is not set, say \(\forall \cho \forall \left\{v:?msg\right\}\).
- To echo a default value 'default' if the variable \$\( v \) is set, say \( \frac{echo \\${v:+default}}{\} \)
- echo \${!H\*} gives the names of all shell variables that start with H
- $\frac{\text{echo } \$\{\#v\}}{\text{gives the number of characters in the shell variable } v}$ .
- echo\$v: start:2returns the 2 characters from \$v starting from start. start can be a negative number, in which case, it'll start counting from the end of \$v. Note the space before start. Thus,

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~/my_scripts/Mock1$ echo $a
17:24
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~/my_scripts/Mock1$ echo ${a: -4:2}
7:
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~/my_scripts/Mock1$ echo ${a: 1:2}
7:
```

• In order to extract part of a string that occurs at the start, use # after the variable. For example, in the last-but-one command below, characters after the first occurrence of ':' is extracted. In the last command, characters after the last occurrence of ':' is extracted.

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ mydate=`date`
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo $mydate
Fri, 29 Sep 2023 20:17:54 +0530
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo ${mydate#*:}
17:54 +0530
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo ${mydate#*:}
```

• In order to extract part of a string that occurs at the end, use % after the variable. For example, in the last-but-one command below, characters before the last occurrence of ':' is extracted. In the last command, characters before the first occurrence of ':' is extracted.

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ mydate=`date`
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo $mydate
Fri, 29 Sep 2023 20:29:04 +0530
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo ${mydate%:*}
Fri, 29 Sep 2023 20:29
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo ${mydate%:*}
Fri, 29 Sep 2023 20
```

**NOTE**: Essentially, a single # performs non-greedy matching and ## performs greedy matching. Similarly, for % and %%

- Some additional notes on this is here <a href="https://discourse.onlinedegree.iitm.ac.in/t/pattern-matching-doubt/107003/7">https://discourse.onlinedegree.iitm.ac.in/t/pattern-matching-doubt/107003/7</a>
- In order to perform replacement of characters once, use echo \${v/<find>/<replace>}
- In order to perform replacement of characters globally, use <a href="mailto:echo.specific">echo.\${v//<find>/<replace>}</a>
- To convert first character in the string to lowercase, use \$\(\frac{\\$\{string,\}}{\}\)
- To convert all characters in the string to lowercase, use \$\(\frac{\\$\{string,,\}}{\}\)

```
string="Hello World"
echo ${string,,} # Output: hello world
echo ${string,} # Output: hello World
```

- To convert first character in the string to uppercase, use \$\(\frac{\\$\{\string^\}}{\}\)

```
string="hello world"
echo ${string^^}  # Output: HELLO WORLD
echo ${string^}  # Output: Hello world
```

- To store only numbers in shell variables, declare it as an integer using declare -i <variable>. When a non-numeric value is stored in this variable, it gets initialized to 0.
- To store only small case characters in shell variables, declare it so using declare -l <variable>.
   When a non-lowercase value is stored in this variable, it gets initialized to all lower-case.
- To store only upper case characters in shell variables, declare it so using declare -u <variable>. When a non-uppercase value is stored in this variable, it gets initialized to all upper-case.
- To declare an array *arr*, use *declare -a arr*. Now, array elements can be accessed as *arr*[0], *arr*[1] etc. For example, *declare -a arr=(1 2 3 4 5)* declares array *arr* with 5 integer values 1..5
- To append value1 to the array, use arr+=(value1)
- To insert value to the array at location 100, use arr[100]=value2
- In order to find the number of array elements, use echo \${#arr[@]}
- In order to list all the elements (values) in the array, use echo \${arr[@]}
- In order to list elements starting with 1<sup>st</sup> index (slicing), use echo \${arr[@]:1}
- In order to list all the indices in the array, use echo \${!arr[@]}
- To remove array element use unset. For instance, to remove the second index of arr, use unset arr[2]
- To declare a hashed array hash, use declare -A hash. Now, array elements can be accessed as hash[<index>]. Note that the index could be a numeric value or a string.
- To automatically create an array *myfiles* (without explicit declaration) consisting of a list of files in the current folder, use *myfiles=(`ls`)*. It could also be stored as *myfiles=(\$(ls))*.
- To print the values stored in myfiles, use declare -p myfiles
- To declare variables as read-only, use declare -r < variable >. Once the variable has been declared as read-only, it's not possible to turn off the attribute.
- In the above declarations, To turn off the restriction, declare it using +, instead of -
- sleep <seconds> sleeps for a specified number of seconds.

- sleep 2 & runs in the background (with only output pipe open), and coproc sleep 2 runs asynchronously (and leaves input and output pipes open for communication)
- Ctrl+C kills the command, and Ctrl+Z suspends the command (and returns to the prompt)
- **jobs** lists background processes started using either methods
- To kill a job with process id <p\_id>, use kill -9 <p\_id>
- top will display all jobs active on the local system, ordered by decreasing order or CPU utilization.
- type <command> will show the type of <command>. Commands that don't have man pages available are typically shell built-ins. Help for such commands can be displayed using <command> --help.
- To start a new bash sub-shell and launch a set of commands, use bash -c <commands>.

To export variable myvar, use declare -x myvar="abc" or export myvar="abc"

- *Isb\_release -a* shows the Linux distribution used in the system.
- uname -a shows the kernel information
- RPM and DEBIAN are two most widely used Linux packaging systems. RPM uses yum, dnf or rpm package managers. DEB uses apt, which internally uses dpkg.
- apt-cache search < keyword > is used to search for packages that contain the specified keyword.
- To get all the packages installed, use *apt-cache pkgnames*. Pipe it to *sort* command to see the list in alphanumeric order.
- TO get a list of packages that start with wg, use apt-cache pkgnames wg
- To get more information of wget, use apt-cache show wget. Filename in the output shows the actual file name from where the package is installed. In the filename wget\_1.21.2-2ubuntu1\_amd64.deb, 1.21.2 is the version number, 2ubuntu1 is the revision number and amd64 is the architecture of the package.
- Packages have priorities as listed below required, important, standard, optional, extra.
- Only sudoers (super users) are allowed to install, update or remove packages. Thus, if a user is
  available on /etc/sudoers, then these operations are allowed for the user.
- tail -10 /var/logs/auth.log displays the last 10 lines of the auth.log, which displays the access information of protected files.
- /etc/apt/sources.list contains the web URLs from where packages can be downloaded.
- In order to upgrade the packages to the latest version/release, run the following commands.
  - sudo apt-get update
  - sudo apt-get upgrade

While the first command fetches the latest updates from the web locations as per *sources.list* to the cache, the second command applies these updates to the system.

Use sudo apt-get install <package> to install the package into the system, and sudo apt-get remove <package> to remove the package from the system

## Week4

- grep command can use regex, in order to create the pattern. Syntax is grep <pattern> <file>.
   Alternatively, grep can be used on the output of a command. Thus, in order to grep a <pattern> on the output of Is -I, use Is -I | grep <pattern>
- Non-greedy match is possible using grep -P.
- For extended grep, use egrep or grep -e
- Print only the matched part of the line using  $\frac{grep o}{0}$ . For example,  $\frac{|s l|}{grep eo} \frac{|h|}{1}$  will extract the permission bits only for files in the current folder.
- Ignore case sensitivity using grep -i
- In order to invert the matching by pattern, use grep -v. For example, |s | | egrep -o '\..{3}\$' will get a list of all 3-letter extensions of all files in the current folder. In order to get all files/folders that

- doesn't have 3-letter extensions use it as  $\frac{|s-l|}{eqrep-v} \cdot \sqrt{...\{3\}} \cdot S$ . Note that none of the entries in this output has a 3-letter extension.
- In order to print all the fields following field #5 of every line, where each field is separated by a comma, use cut -d','-f 5-. Note that the field number starts from 1 (not 0)
- In order to cut characters use *cut -c*. For example, to cut the permission bits of files/folders in the current folder, use Is -I | cut -c 2-10
- In order to show line numbers in the grep results, use **grep -n**
- In grep, use of | (pipe symbol) is treated literally. If it needs to be interpreted as an or operation, then escape it. Else, use egrep or grep -e
- To detect empty lines, use grep '^\$'. Thus, if you need to find the number of empty lines in a file called poem.txt, use cat poem.txt | egrep '^\$'|wc -l
- Use of backreference in regex needs the original pattern to be parenthesized.

- source <script> runs the script from the login shell. Thus, when the script is sourced, all environment variables created in the script will be available after the script has finished running.
- ./<script> runs it from within a child process. However, if the script is run as a child process, none of the changes made is available after the script finishes running.
- printf supports format specifiers like in C. For example, printf "My home is %s\n" SHOME.
- read var reads input from the user, and stores in var; now echo \$var prints the stored value.
- \$0 contains name of the shell program (including the invocation path), \$1..\$n contains the command line arguments.  $\frac{\$\#}{\$}$  contains the number of such arguments.  $\frac{\$*}{\$}$  (or  $\frac{\$**}{\$}$ ) contains all arguments as one string. "\$@" contains all arguments as separate strings.
- To store output of a command into var, use  $var=\frac{1}{2}(< command>)$  or  $var=\frac{1}{2}(< command>)$
- To store the var into array my arr, use my arr = (\$var).
- Thus, the following are equivalent. Both create arrays containing the files in the current directory. anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~\$ 1s

```
check_sum.py client go output.txt poem.txt push server test.sh
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls_arr=($(ls))
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ declare -p ls_arr
declare -a ls_arr=([0]="check_sum.py" [1]="client" [2]="go" [3]="output.txt" [4]="poem.txt" [5]="push"
[6]="server" [7]="test.sh")
```

#### Is equivalent to

```
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls_var=$(ls)
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ echo $1s_var
check_sum.py client go output.txt poem.txt push server test.sh
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ ls arr1=($ls var)
anand@DESKTOP-GG7GDNK:~$ declare -p ls_arr1
declare -a ls_arr1=([0]="check_sum.py" [1]="client" [2]="go" [3]="output.txt" [4]="poem.txt" [5]="push"
[6]="server" [7]="test.sh")
```

if test \$a - eq \$b compares the first operand with the second for equality, and returns 0 if both are equal and 1 otherwise. Alternatively, you can also use if  $\int Sa - eq Sb \int$ . Note that in both cases, if \$a or \$b is empty or contains spaces, then you must use them within double quotes as if [ \$a" - eq \$b" ]. If you want to avoid double-quotes around the variables, use double brackets as in if [ \$a - eq \$b ] ].

<u>NOTE</u>: Instead of -eq, a single equals sign (=) also can be used like in if  $[\$\alpha = \$b]$ .

- To compare strings, use > symbol; -gt will not work.
- C-style loop uses two pairs of parentheses as in for ((i=1; i<10; i++ ))</li>
- find . -maxdepth 1 -name '\*.sh' prints the names of all files in the current folder. If the maxdepth parameter is 2, then it prints the file names in the sub-folder also, but doesn't go further.
- Following are different ways to increment the variable c

```
    let c=c+1
    c=$(expr $c + 1)
    c=$((c+1)) or ((c=c+1))
    ((c++))
```

- Following are different ways to multiply the variable c with 2.
  - let c=c\*2
     c=\$(expr \$c \\* 2)
     c=\$((c\*2)) or ((c=c\*2))

<u>NOTE</u>:  $c = \frac{(expr \ \ c \ \ * \ 2)}{(expr \ \ c \ \ * \ 2)}$  wouldn't work, because \* has special meaning and hence needs to be escaped.

- Following are different ways to add two numbers from the terminal (without using a variable)
  - expr 1 + 2
     let c=1+2; echo \$c
     echo \$((1 + 2))

<u>NOTE</u>:  $\frac{expr 1 + 2}{expr 2}$  cannot be rewritten as  $\frac{expr 2 + 2}{expr 2}$  (without spaces)

- expr doesn't support exponentiation, so use a let command like let c=c\*\*2
- To work with bench calculator, use bc -l
- Following are some interesting options available with if statement:
  - o [ -z STRING ] checks if STRING is empty.
  - o [-n STRING] checks if STRING is not empty (same as [!-z STRING])
  - [ -d FILE ] Checks if FILE exists and is a directory.
  - o [ -e FILE ] Checks if FILE exists.
  - [ -f FILE] Checks if FILE exists and is a regular file.
  - [-x FILE] Checks if FILE exists and execute permission is granted.
  - o [-s FILE] Checks if FILE exists and it's size is greater than zero (i.e., it's not empty).
  - $\circ$  [[  $$string = $\sim $pattern ]$ ] Checks if the pattern is found in string.
  - Given a string <str>, you can replace a substring <sub> with <rep> using
     str=\${str/<sub>/<rep>}. However, regex patterns cannot be used here. For this, use sed