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# General

* 60 useful Linux commands: <https://www.freecodecamp.org/news/the-linux-commands-handbook/>

## Distributions

* Redhat – not free
* Ubuntu – receive consistent updates.
* Debian – known for its stability and therefore, its update cycle is much slower than in other distributions.

## Linux Information

* Get installed Linux version:

$ cat /proc/version

* Get OS kernel information:  
  $ uname -a
  + -n – prints the node network name
* On macOS, $ sw\_vers will return the OS version
* Get help on Linux (section) of specific command:

$ man [<section>|-a] <command>

* A simplified version of man with useful examples:  
  $ tldr <command>  
  Install from: [https://tldr.sh](https://tldr.sh/)
* Run administrator-level commands (Super User DO):

$ **sudo** <command>

* Find out which shell you have:  
  $ echo $SHELL

## Linux regular expressions:

* <http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/regular_expressions.html>

## Installations

* Get information on installed (Debian) packages:

Sudo dpkg –l <package name>

* Update the information on all the installed packages on your system:

sudo apt-get update

* Download and install packages (should run apt-get update before):

sudo apt-get install <package name>

* Upgrade installed packages to their latest version (should run apt-get update before):

sudo apt-get upgrade

* To install .rpm packages from the internet:
  + Download the package
  + >> sudo yum localinstall <packageName>.rpm

# Boot Process

The final phase of the boot process is when **init** forks away from the Kernel, making it the first process in the user-space, the mother of all other user-space processes.

Init seeks out its configuration file, **/etc/inittab**. This file is an array of records, in the following format:

<record id (ignored)>:<run level>:<directive (sysinit/initdefault/wait/ctr

## Reboot

To reboot your Linux system:

sudo reboot

# Users

* Create a new user account:

$ sudo adduser <username>

* Giving an existing user admin permissions:

$ sudo adduser <username> sudo

* $ sudo -i – start a shell as root
* whoami – will return the user name of the current user
  + who am i – will print additional info
* who – display all the users that are currently logged in. note: each shell opened will count as an access.
  + -aH – will display additional information
* $ su <username> - switch user
  + $su without parameters – will switch to super user
  + exit – will close the new user’s terminal and return to your regular user.

# Common Operators

There are a few principles that work on most commands:

* Multiple files: a lot of commands can work on multiple files. In order to use, add the files with spaces between them:  
  $cp file1 file2 file3 toDirectory
* Redirection **>** or **>>**  
  redirect the output to a file. > replaces previous content if exists, >> appends.  
  $ cat file1 file2 > new-file
* Pipe **|**  
  pipe the output from one command into the next command as its command-line arguments:  
  $ cat file1 | grep “search\_pattern”
* for any command - signify the end of command options, after which only positional parameters are accepted. For example: if we want to grep a file for the string “-v”, we can’t write grep -v file because then grep will view -v as a command option. However, if we’ll write: grep -- -v file , grep wil understand that ‘-v’ is the 1st positional parameter i.e. the string to look for and will do the right thing.
* Redirecting errors to file:

$ 2 > <file name>

* Redirecting errors to null (not displaying them):

$ 2 > /dev/null

* Background processing **&** - will start a program to run in the background:  
  $ top & - will start the program top in the background
  + fg [num] – will send the background program [num](if more than one) to the foreground
  + cmd-Z – will stop the foreground program. If you then want to keep it running in the background: $bg [num]
  + jobs -l – will print a list of all background jobs.
* xargs -p – run the next command multiple times, once for each of the previous command’s outputs:  
  $ ls files-to-delete.txt  
  << file1  
  << file2  
  $ cat files-to-delete.txt | xargs -p rm  
  << will run the rm command once for file1 and once for file2
  + -p – will print a confirmation prompt with the action it’s going to execute
  + -n<num> - will tell xargs to perform <num> operations at a time
* Moving:
  + - Move to the start of line. Ctrl + a
    - Move to the end of line. Ctrl + e
    - Move forward a word. Meta + f *(a word contains alphabets and digits, no symbols)*
    - Move backward a word. Meta + b
    - Clear the screen. Ctrl + l
* **What is Meta?** Meta is your Alt key, normally. For **Mac OSX user, you need to enable it yourself**. Open *Terminal > Preferences > Settings > Keyboard*, and enable *Use option as meta key*. Meta key, by convention, is used for operations on word.

# Files System

* Show disk free space:

$ df

* Current directory:

$ pwd

* The previous directory:

-

* refer to your root directory (per user):

~

* refer to a different user’s root directory:

~<user>

* list a directory:

ls [-l long format] [-a show hidden files] [-R recursive] <search expressions>  
for example:

$ ls -l

drwxr-xr-x 4 cliff user 1024 Jun 18 09:40 WAITRON\_EARNINGS

-rw-r--r-- 1 cliff user 767392 Jun 6 14:28 scanlib.tar.gz

^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^

| | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | owner group size date time name

| | | | number of links to file or directory contents

| | | permissions for world

| | permissions for members of group  
| |  
| permissions for owner of file: r = read, w = write, x = execute -=no | permission  
|  
type of file: - = normal file, d=directory, l = symbolic link, and others...

* list all hidden files:  
  ls -al
* create a directory:  
  -p : create all the directories in the path  
  mkdir -p fruits/apples
* create multiple directories at once:  
  mkdir dir1 dir2 dir3
* remove direcoties:  
  rmdir dir1 dir2 dir3
* delete directories and all the files in them:  
  rm -rf dir1 dir2

move files from only location to another:  
mv fromFileOrFolder toFileOrFolder  
mv file1 file2 file3 toFolder  
mv file1 newname move or rename a file  
mv file1 ~/AAA/ move file1 into sub-directory AAA in your home directory.

* du – return directory’s size:
  + $du -h – will return the directory’s size in human-readable size
  + $ du \* - will return the size of all files and folders
  + $du -ah – will return the size of all dirs and files in the path
  + $du <dir> | sort -nr – will sort the directories/files by size
* copy files/folders:  
  cp fromFile toFile  
  cp **-r** fromFolder toFolder
* open file/folder/application – folder will be opened with Finder app:  
  open . // will open the current folder in Finder
* Changing file permission:

**chmod** 755 file Changes the permissions of file to be rwx for the  
 owner, and rx for the group and the world.   
 (7 = rwx = 111 binary. 5 = r-x = 101 binary)

**chmod** [-r(recursive for dir)]<a(all)|u(user)|g(group)|o(others)>   
 <+(add)|-(remove)>  
 <r|w|x>  
 <file/directory name>

example: chmod og+r file1

**chgrp** user file Makes file belong to the group user.

**chown <owner> <file>** change the ownder of the file.

chown cliff file Makes cliff the owner of file.

**chown -R** cliff dir Makes cliff the owner of dir and everything in

its directory tree.

Chown <owner>:<group> <file> - change the owner and the group of the  
 file/directory

Note: You must be the owner of the file/directory or be root before you can do any of these things.

* Change the default permissions for new files:
  + $ umask -S – see human readable notation of the default permissions
  + $umask <a(all)|u(user)|g(group)|o(others)>   
     <+(add)|-(remove)>  
     <r|w|x>  
    - change the default permission (the same notation as in chmod)
  + NOTE: the numerical notation for umask is different than chmod so don’t use it to change the default.
* Important directories on Linux:
  + /home – where all the users’ directories
  + /etc – configuration files
  + /var – variable file. Files the you expect to grow over time. Usually for system and application logs.
  + /bin – where binaries that can be used by all users live (e.g. ls)
  + /sbin – where binaries that can be used only be the root user lives
  + /lib – where the libraries that service all the binaries in the system (both bin and sbin) lives
  + /usr – where all user application (binaries) live. These binaries, unlike the binaries in bin are not required by the system for bootup.
* Find which file is running the command:

$ which <cmd>

* Copy directory – will re-calculate all symbolic links and keep the attributes of all files:

$ cp –dpR <dir-to-copy> <name-of-new-dir>

* df – get disk usage information
* basename – will return the name of the file from a path:  
  $ basename /Users/sashri/my-file.txt  
  << my-file.txt
* dirname – will return the name of the directory from a path:  
  $ dirname /Users/sashri/my-file.txt  
  << /Users/sashri
* export – export a variable in the current shell (including bash file) to any forked child process. This is useful for adding environment variables and paths in scripts (e.g. .bashrc or .bash\_profile ):  
  export PATH=$PATH:/new/path
  + To remove a variable from the exported list, use -n: export -n TEST
  + To see all exported values in the system, use only $ export
* env – used to pass env variable to a different environment without setting them in the other environment
  + The process running on the new environment can access these variable through its process.env interface
* printenv – print the values of environment variables. Add the name of the variable if you want to print only it: $ printenv PATH

# Console

* Clear screen:

$ clear or Ctrl-L

* + clear-x – will clear the screen but will save the history in scrolling
* History of commands:  
  **$ history**
  + After ‘history’, you can execute specific command by: $ **!{the command num}**
  + You can also use $ history | grep ‘string’ to search for specific commands
* Search for command in history:

Ctrl+R +[enter string to search for]

* echo: echo text or the output of any command/environment variable:
  + $ echo ~
  + $ echo “$(ls -ls)” – note: you must include the “. Otherwise, the output will remove all whitespaces.
  + $ echo {1..5} – will generate a list of strings
* **cat**: Dump file contents to console:

$ cat <file-name> [<more files..>]

-n – will print the lines number.   
 With -b – will number only non-blank lines  
 -s – will remove multiple empty lines

* Print the 1st/last 10 lines of the file:

$ head/tail <file name>

Optional parameters:

-f : the command will loop forever, checking for new data again and again.

* View file and scroll in it:

less <file name>

The **less** command allows you to use these key-commands to move around within the log:

* + Press the up-arrow and down-arrow keys to scroll while viewing the log.
  + Type g/G to scroll to the top/end of the log.
  + Space bar / b – navigate page by page
  + Type /ERROR to search for text with the word ‘ERROR’. Replace it with any word you want to search. Use ? to search backward.
  + v – open the file for editing (with vim)
  + F – follow mode – will show changes to the file in real time. Ctrl-C to quit follow mode.
  + Use q to quit the **less** view.
* **wc** – print info about the file:  
  $ wc <file name>  
  << <num of lines> <num of words> <num of bytes>
* Print only strings from binary files – will print all the strings in the file and ignore all binary junk:

$ strings <file name>

* $sort file1 – will print the file sorted. Very useful to sort the output of a previous command (with pipe):  
  $ ls | sort
  + -r – reverse the order.
  + -u – remove duplicated line
  + -n – will sort using numeric and not alphabetic.
* uniq – output the unique lines from the input file/pipe. Since detects only adjusent repeated lines, need to sort the input first:  
  $ cat logfile.txt | sort | uniq
  + -d – will only display duplicated lines
  + -u – only display non-duplicated lines
  + -c. will show for each line, how many times it appeared
* diff – compare two files/directories:   
  $ diff file1 file2
  + -y – show the file side by side
  + -u – git-like compare
  + -r – compare directories recursively
  + -rq – will return only the names of the different files in the recursive comparison
* Command substitution:

You can use the output of one command as an input to another command in another way called command substitution. Command substitution is invoked when by enclosing the substituted command in backwards single quotes. For example:

cat `find . -name aaa.txt`

which will cat ( dump to the screen ) all the files named aaa.txt that exist in the current

directory or in any subdirectory tree.

# Files

## General

Some general useful commands:

* whereis <file name> - all the locations where is file exist
* which <program name> - which <program name> will be executed
* <program> --version
* <program> --help
* man <program/command>

## Find

Return all the files in the tree that satisfy the parameters:

$ find   
 [where to start searching from – location(s)]  
 [expression determines what to find – comparison creteria]   
 [-options]   
 [what to find – must be surrounded by “”]

Notes:

* <location(s)> - must end with “/“ in order to search the path
* <search-term> - must have “” around the search term.

Search Creteria:

* <search criteria> <nothing == AND / -o == OR> <search criteria> :   
   example: find –name ‘\*.php’ –o –name ‘\*.txt’ –not –name  
   ‘\*info.txt’  
   will find all the files that ends with ‘.php’ or  
   with ‘.txt’ but not the files that ends with   
   ‘info.txt’
* -name “<file-name wildcards expression>”
* -name “name1” -or -name “name2”
* -iname “<file name with wilcards + ignore case>”
* -path “\*\*/lib/\*\*/\*.ext” – all files that match this path
* find root\_path -name '\*.py' **-not -path** '\*/site-packages/\*` - find all files but exclude specific paths from the search
* -maxdepth <num. if 1 – will only search location>
* -not <search criteria> - will return all the files that don’t match.  
   can also use ! instead of –not
* -type <f: files / d: dirs. ‘ l: symbolic links> : will find only files/dirs.
* -perm <permissions> : find files with specific premissions. Can use   
   all the same permission flags like in ‘chmod’ command  
   example: find –perm /u=r :will return all read-only files  
   find –perm /a=x : all executable files
* -user <user name> : search in user root directory
* -group <group name> : search files belonging to a specific group
* -mtime -/+<days> : will find files modified less/more than x days ago.
* -atime <days> : will find files that were accessed in the last x days
* -mtime +<x days> -<y days> : will find files that were modified  
   more than x days ago and less than y days ago.   
   Can also use only x or y e.g. ‘-mtime +x’
* -cmin -<x minutes> : find files that were modified within the last   
   x minutes
* -amin -<x minutes> : files that were accessed in the last x minutes
* -[a|c]newer <file> : files that were modified/accessed(a)/changed(c)   
   more recently than <file> was modified.
* -size <exact size: files in this size. E.g.-size 50MB
* -size +<larger than size e.g. 50MB> -<smaller than size e.g. 100MB>
* -empty : find empty files/directories
* -exec <command> {} \; : execute Linux command on all the files that   
   you found in this find command:  
  find . -type f -exec cat {} \;

### examples:

* Find a directory with name (and wildcards):  
  sudo find / -type d -name "Xcode\*"
* remove all .txt files in /tmp (and sub-directories):   
  find /tmp -type f -name "\*.txt" -exec rm -f {} \;
* Run ls on all files in the current directory and then pipe the result to sort them in reverse order (from large to small) and display the first 5 (largest files)  
  $ find . -type f -exec ls -s {} \; | sort -n -r | head -5

## Grep

<https://linuxize.com/post/regular-expressions-in-grep/>

search text in files and return all the lines that contains them:

$ grep [opt] “<pattern to search for>” <filenames…>

<pattern to search for> - simple regular expression. For more complex  
 regular expression, use egrep instead.

<-n> - print line numbers

<-v> - show all the lines that DON’T contain the text

<-A|B|C> <n> - show <n> lines after (A)/before(B)/both before and  
 after (C) the match

<-c> - count only – return the number of matching lines

<-i> - ignore case

<-w> - whole word only. Won’t match partial words.

<-x> - eXact match only – will return only line that are exact match

<-f> <pattern\_file> - allow you to specify a pattern\_file that  
 contains the pattern to search for.

<-r> - recursive in complete path

* **Egrep** – extended grep with additional support for complex regular expression  
  [**http://ryanstutorials.net/linuxtutorial/grep.php**](http://ryanstutorials.net/linuxtutorial/grep.php)
* **Fgrep** – fast grep. Does not support any regular expressions and therefore faster.
* ***Zgrep*** - invokes *grep* on compressed or gzipped files. All options specified will be passed directly to grep
* Grep with pipe: In order to search with grep on the output of a command:

$ <command> | <grep> <pattern to search for>

For example:

**$ grep “hello” \*** ; will search all the files in the current directory for the string “hello”

**find . | xargs grep "hello"** ; will search the lines containing the   
; word ‘hello’ in all the files in the   
; current tree

Note: this can also be used to search on the results of a previous grep search. Example:

$ grep “result:” <on file> | grep “errors”

## Links

* Soft Links:
  + Can be used to link to other filesystems and to directories
  + When the original file is removed, the link to it will break.
  + ln -s <original> <link>
* Symbolic Links:
* Hard links:
  + rarely used because of the following limitations:
    - You can’t hard-link directories
    - You can link to external files
  + A hard link is undisguisable from the actual file
  + A file will not be deleted as long as there is at least one pointer (either the file/hard link) pointing at it.
  + ln <original> <link-name>

# Archives

* gzip:

$ gzip <file name> - this will compress the file and delete the original file.

$ gzip **-c** filename **>** filename.gz – will not delete the original file

* compress all files in the directory:  
  gzip -r <folder-path>
* decompress a file: gzip -d compress-file.gz
* slower but more efficient zip:

$ bzip2 <file name>

* Create archive for backing up a complete directory:

$tar –cvf <filename.tar> <directory to archive>  
$tar -cvf <filename.tar> <file1 to archive> <file2 to archive>…

* Create a compressed archive:  
  tar -cv**z**f archive.tar.gz file1 file2
* Restore directory from archive. If the archive is compress, it will automatically decompress it:

$tar –xvf <filename.tar> [-C <into directory>]

# Processes

* See all the running processes on the system:

$ ps aux

* + a – show all processes (not just your own)
  + x – show processes that were not initiated by a terminal
  + ww – show the full command string
* Returned values:  
  <PID (process ID)>  
  <TT: The terminal ID used>  
  <STAT: the state of the process:  
   I: a process that is idle (sleeping for longer than about 20 seconds)  
   R: a runnable process  
   S: a process that is sleeping for less than about 20 seconds  
   T: a stopped process  
   U: a process in uninterruptible wait  
   Z: a dead process (a *zombie*)  
   +: the process is in the foreground in its terminal  
   s: the process is a session leader  
  <TIME: how long is it running>
* See specific process:

ps aux | grep “<proc name>”

* top: display dynamic real-time info about running processes:
  + -o <cpu|mem|state etc> - sort according to column
* Kill a process:

$ kill <PID of process to kill>

$ kill [-9 : kill immediately] <PID>’

* killall – will terminate all instances of the given program:  
  $ killall top – will kill all the instances of the ‘top’ program.
* type – will return what type is the command:
  + an executable
  + a shell built-in program
  + a shell function
  + an alias
* which – will tell you which file is being executed for a command

## Cron Jobs

Jobs that are scheduled to run at specific intervals (e.g. every hour, every two weeks etc).

They are very powerful, especially when used on servers to perform maintenance and automations.

* $ crontab -l – return the list of cron jobs you have defined
* $ crontab -e – will open your defult editor to add cron jobs
  + Defining cron jobs can be error prone, so it’s recommended to use a crontab generator to create it: <https://crontab-generator.org/>

## Priorities

All user-processes on Linux starts with the same priority.

Linux Kernel schedules the process and allocates CPU time accordingly for each of them. But, when one of your process requires higher priority to get more CPU time, you can use nice and renice commands  
  
The process scheduling priority range is from -20 to 19. We call this as nice value.

A nice value of **-20 represents highest priority**, and a nice value of **s** for a process.

By default when a process starts, it gets the default priority of 0.

# Network

* See your network interfaces:

$ ifconfig

* Change the IP address of a network card:

$ sudo ifconfig <network interface name e.g. eth0 or enp0s3 or lo> <new IP address> netmask 255.255.255.0

* ping:
  + $ ping <host: domain name|IP>
  + Ping work using ICMP protocol (Internet Control Message Protocol), a network layer protocol just like TCP or UDP.  
    The request sends a packet to the server with the ECHO\_REQUEST message, and the server returns a ECHO\_REPLY message.
* traceroute

$ traceroute <host>

* + routers that don’t return data will appear as ‘\* \* \*’

# SSH

Secure Socket Shell, is a UNIX-based command interface and protocol for securely getting access to a remote computer.

* To find your external IP address: in google search for ‘what is my ip address’

**SSH to remote computer:**

$ ssh <user name of remote>@<remote ip/address>

**Copy files to remote computer:**

scp /path/to/file <user on remote>@<remote IP>:/path/to/destination

**Copy files from remote computer:**

scp -r <user on remote>@<remote IP>:/path/to/file /path/to/destination

**Let commands continue running if/when you disconnect**

nohup <command>

**Set up transfer directory between the two computers – on Linux:**

1. Install sshfs:

sudo apt-get install sshfs

1. create a empty dir

mkdir /home/user/testdir

1. "link" or "mount" the two directories

sshfs user@server.com:/remote/dir /home/user/test

1. When you’re done - "unlink" the dirs

fusermount -u /home/youruser/remotecomp

**Set up transfer directory between the two computers – on Windows:**

# Samba

Another convenient way to share file between Linux and windows machines is through Samba.

<http://www.howtogeek.com/176471/how-to-share-files-between-windows-and-linux/>

To set it up:

* + - 1. On the windows machine:
         1. Create a folder and make sure it’s shared and has read/write permissions to everyone.
         2. Under folder->properties, check the network path – this is the ‘windows-share-folder-path’ you’ll need to use in the mount.cifs command on Linux (see below).
      2. On the Linux machine:

$ sudo apt-get install cifs-utils

$ mkdir ~/<share-dir>

$ sudo mount.cifs <windows-share-folder-path> /home/<linux-user>/<share-dir> -o user=<windows-user-name>

* + - 1. You should now be able to copy files into/from the share folder.  
         NOTE: you must have administrator permissions to copy/access the folder. Therefore, use sudo for the linux commands.

# VIM

<https://vimhelp.org/vim_faq.txt.html>

## Commands Modes

i – go into insert mode

: - go into last line mode (to enter commands)

esc – go into commands mode

## Commands

You may have noticed that several commands combine a text operation and movement key. gg takes you to the end of a file, and d is used to delete. Combining them gives you something more powerful. Vim's like that. If you're working in Vim and think "hey, I wonder if I can combine two things I know to make something easier," the answer is often (but not always) yes.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| u | Undo |  |  |
| Ctrl-r | Redo |  |  |
| d | Delete:   * d starts the delete operation. * dw will delete a word. * d0 will delete to the beginning of a line. * d$ will delete to the end of a line. * dgg will delete to the beginning of the file. * dG will delete to the end of the file. | p | Paste after current line:  Will paste the word/line/part that was previously either   * deleted or * selected (v/V) * P – paste on current line. |
| /  (enter to search) | Search for text.   * n – search again * N – search again in reverse direction * ? – search from bottom to top. | v | Select text   * V – select lines * Ctrl-V – select columns * y – copy selected text to clipboard |
| :%s/text/replacement text/g | search through the entire document for text and replace it with replacement text. |  |  |
| :%s/text/replacement text/gc | search through the entire document and confirm before replacing text. | :w <filename> | Write (save) file (optional: to different filename). |
| G | Goto end of file |  |  |
| gg | Goto start of file |  |  |
| <num>G | Goto line number <num> | :q | Quit vim |
|  |  | :sq | Save and quit vim |

# Shell Scripts

<https://devhints.io/bash>

## Alias Commands

Open ~/.bash\_profile

For every command to alias, add a line:

alias <new\_alias>=’<full command>’

for example:

alias ll='ls -lah'

* + - $ alias by itself will show a list of all defined aliases
    - Be careful with quotes if you have variables in the command: if you use double quotes, the variable is resolved at definition time. If you use **single quotes**, it's **resolved at invocation time.**

## Execute

In order to write and execute a shell-script:

* The first line of the script should be:  
  #!/bin/bash

This tells Ubuntu what program to use to run the file.

* Save the script as <name>.sh
* Mark the file as executable: chmod +x <file>
* To execute: $ sh <name>.sh

Some additional comments:

* In Ubuntu, the current directory is not the program search path, so you need to run ./<filename>, not <filename>
* Variable names are $<varname>, not %<varname>%
* Commands in a shell script are not printed by default, as in a batch file. I you need to debug a script, run it as:  
  bash –x script\_file.sh
* Comments start with #, not rem.

To re-load the shell script:  
>> exec $SHELL -l

## Commands

NOTE: It’s very important to note the spaces, otherwise the commands won’t work!!

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| set -e : Break the execution if any stage fails.  set -x : echo commands | Script attributes: usefull for controlling how the script behaves on errors, echoing commands etc  <https://wiki.bash-hackers.org/commands/builtin/set#attributes> |
| Export MY\_ENV\_VAR=<command or string> | Set MY\_ENV\_VAR environment variable to the value after the ‘=’.  To use:  $MY\_ENV\_VAR |
| $<number>: | Value of parameter <number> where $0 is the script’s name:  ./script.sh Hello World  Will make  $0 = script.sh  $1 = Hello  $2 = World |
| echo “Do you want to do X (y/n)?” read answer  echo This was your answer: $answer  or:  read -p “Do you want to do X (y/n)?” answer | Get input from the user: |
| INTEGER1 -eq/-ne INTEGER2  STRING =/!= STRING | **Comparisons**  For integers: -eq, -ne , -gt (greater then) , -ge (greater or equal), -le (less or equal), -lt (less then)  For strings: = , != , < , > , -n (length>0) , -z (length==0)  For files: -d (exist and is a directory), -f (exist and is a file), -e (exist on the system) ,  -w (exist and writable) , -r (exist & readable), -s (exist and not empty), -O (exist and is owned by current user), -x (exist and is executable), file A -nt file B (A is newer than B), file A -ot file B (A is older than B) |
| [ <condition> ] && <command>|| <another command>  Note:   * || only runs the second half if the first half is FALSE. * && only run the second half if the first half is TRUE. | Short form for:  If [ <condition> ] then  <command> else  <another command> fi |
| My\_func() {….}  ….  My\_func <args> | Define a function that can later be called from within the script. |
| $@ | All of the input positional parameters as a string (used to pass them into internal functions or other scripts). |
| *#!/bin/bash*  FILES=**/**path**/**to**/\***  **for f in $FILES**  **do**  **echo** "Processing $f file..."  *# take action on each file. $f store current file name*  **cat** $f  **done** | Loop over all the files and execute the commands to each of them. |
| -- | If you need to pass parameters in the format –x to a command in the script (e.g. set –x), you need to write ‘--‘ before the parameter (end of options): set -- -x  So that the shell will treat the ‘-‘ as a parameter and not as a script option. |
|  |  |
|  |  |

# Utils

## Curl

A tool to transfer data from or to a server, using one of the supported protocols (DICT, FILE, FTP, FTPS, GOPHER, HTTP, HTTPS, IMAP, IMAPS, LDAP, LDAPS, MQTT, POP3, POP3S, RTMP, RTMPS, RTSP, SCP, SFTP, SMB, SMBS, SMTP, SMTPS, TELNET and TFTP). The command is designed to work without user interaction.

$ curl [options /URLs]

# Scheduling

## Cron

The software utility **Cron** is a time-based [job scheduler](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job_scheduler) in [Unix-like](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unix-like) computer [operating systems](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Operating_system). People who set up and maintain software environments use cron to schedule jobs (commands or [shell scripts](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shell_script)) to run periodically at fixed times, dates, or intervals. It typically automates system maintenance or administration—though its general-purpose nature makes it useful for things like downloading files from the [Internet](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet) and downloading [email](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Email) at regular intervals.

*cron* is most suitable for scheduling repetitive tasks. Scheduling one-time tasks is often more easily accomplished using the associated [*at*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/At_%28Unix%29) utility.

# Tools

## Netcat (nc)

I very powerful tool for utility is used for just about anything under the sun involving TCP, UDP, or UNIX-domain sockets. It can open TCP connections, send UDP packets, listen on arbitrary TCP and UDP ports, do port scanning, and deal with both IPv4 and IPv6. Unlike Telnet, nc scripts nicely, and separates error messages onto standard error instead of sending them to standard output, as telnet(1) does with some.

# Coding

C/C++ compiler: gcc

Binutils: ld

## Compile

gcc -o <output file> <input source files>

for example:

gcc -o hello hello.c

# Windows Subsystem for Linux

<https://github.com/michaeltreat/Windows-Subsystem-For-Linux-Setup-Guide>

<http://wsl-guide.org/en/latest/index.html>

<https://www.hanselman.com/blog/TheYearOfLinuxOnTheWindowsDesktopWSLTipsAndTricks.aspx>

<https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/windows/wsl>

## Installation

1. Make sure you have 64 bit windows 10
2. Start->’turn windows features on/off’->turn on ‘windows subsystem for Linux’  
   After windows will download and install the necessary files, you will need to restart windows
3. Open windows store tab and download the required Linux distribution
4. Start the WSL like any other program from the windows start menu.

# Embedded Linux

## Cross Compiling

UBoot

Compiling Linux

Building File system

Cross compiling applications

## License

# Embedded Linux and Copyright Law

## The Bottom Line: Use but don’t Link

GPL license means that if you link with a GPL code either statically or dynamically – all your code becomes GPL as well and you must give it on request!!

However, using GPL code through it’s user interface (e.g. command line interface) does not count as linking and therefore, you may use a vanilla or modified Linux kernel without risking your proprietary source code, as long as you don’t link to it (via compiler)!

## The details

Thu, 2002-08-01 00:00 - Michael Barr

by [Michael Barr](http://www.barrgroup.com/Embedded-Systems/Experts/Barr)

The rising popularity of Linux has spurred many embedded developers to consider it as an RTOS alternative. Here's the straight scoop on the legal implications for the proprietary parts of your firmware.

One of the more confusing aspects of the open source phenomenon has been the proliferation of different [source code licensing schemes](http://www.barrgroup.com/Embedded-Systems/How-To/Embedded-Linux-Open-Source).

There are so many different licensing terms, in fact, that if you are considering using multiple pieces of software developed by others in your products, you'll probably want to have an intellectual property lawyer read the license agreement for each such component and advise you how best to proceed.

Fortunately, if you only want to use Linux, the situation is much more straightforward.

## Copyleft – GPL the Viral License

A common myth is that the use of any piece of open source code, including Linux, requires the user to give away the source code to their own proprietary application. In truth, most open source licenses protect only the borrowed code and do not place any restrictions on other software you might develop for use alongside it.

The specific license accompanying the Linux kernel is called the GNU [General Public License (link is external)](http://www.fsf.org/licensing/licenses/gpl.html) (GPL). The GPL defines rules that apply when you are leveraging software you would not have had access to if the code were proprietary. Under these rules, anyone is entitled to improve or modify the Linux kernel and its device drivers, applications, and services. But because these modifications create a derivative of the existing code, they must be made public under the same licensing terms.

If you don't modify the operating system, the GPL requires only that you give credit where credit is due, do not impose any further licensing or distribution conditions upon your customers, and provide the Linux source code you used to your customers, if they request it. Those are pretty reasonable terms, by any measure.

## Rules to code by

Of course, there are many situations in which an engineering organization might want to keep its own code proprietary even when that code is surrounded by Linux's open source code. This is easily accomplished provided three rules of thumb are followed during development:

#### 1. Start proprietary software from a clean code base

By ensuring that your proprietary code does not build directly upon any open source code, you remain clear of the "derivative work" clause found in the GPL. Derivative works are the source of most legal confusion; they must typically be made open source under the same terms as the original code from which they are derived. But proprietary code that merely interfaces to open-source code is not derivative.

#### 2. Use only LGPL libraries

The GPL requires **any code that links to a GPL library--statically or dynamically--to also be released under the GPL**. However, a less protective license called the GNU [Lesser General Public License (link is external)](http://www.fsf.org/licensing/licenses/lgpl.html) (LGPL) was created so that developers could link to these open source libraries **dynamically** without being bound to release their application's source code. Most key Linux libraries are licensed under the LGPL.   
\* In LGPL, if the application is linked statically, the developer will have to supply their code in an object format (not source code) so that users can modify the library and re-link it with the application’s objects.

#### 3. Don't modify the interface to the Linux kernel

Under the GPL terms, any modification made to the monolithic portion of the Linux kernel must be released as open source software. Note, however, that if your application requires that you make changes to the kernel, only those kernel changes must be made public. You can still keep your application code (and even loadable kernel modules) proprietary, provided that they simply interface with the kernel via Linux's standard system calls.

If you observe these simple rules, you should be able to distinguish between Linux and your proprietary code for all intents and legal purposes. Of course, it may still be prudent to talk with an intellectual property lawyer.