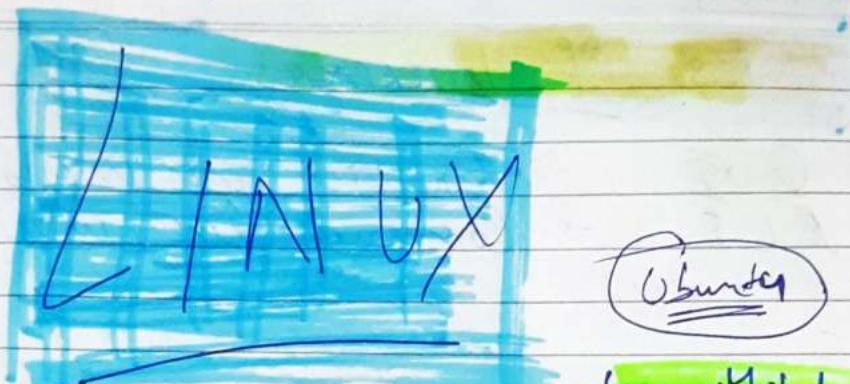


↗ → this means control  
↙ → ctrl. button



→ To open terminal. click on activities  
and search terminal.

\* Terminal :- its where all the  
commands are given

### Commands

#### COMMANDS

↗ directory ↗ list ↗ contexts

(i) ls → ls is used to list file  
and directories within  
file system and shows

↳ deleted info about them

↳ eg. ls Downloads/ to list contents of Downloads

(ii) Pwd → Print working directory

↳ To check is root at end of path  
directory mein hai

↳ To see absolute path of directory

# linux has tree structure instead of  
drives and folders.

Cd \*enter\* → to get to home

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#

## Types of Interfaces

- (i) → **GUI** → Graphical user interface
- (ii) → **CLI** → Command line interface.

(iii)

/ (slash)

→ root node.

iv)

**cd**

→ change directory (full form)

it will take you to  
sub directory

e.g. →

**cd /**

→ see it will ~~take us~~ ~~directories of~~ to '/'

**cd ~** → it will take us to home user

#

## Important directories in system

PROGRAMMING

etc, bin, usr., tmp & dev  
will be present in all distribution

v)

use 'Tab' to auto complete a command.

vi)

**cd ..** → back or backspace to get back to a directory

\* Linux is Case sensitive

- (vii) **mkdir** → to make new folder or directory
- (viii) **touch** → touch name.txt or any other type file
  - used to make new file
- cat** → cat name.txt to read one file
- ix) **mv** → move command
  - ↳ eg. mv name.txt (folder)  
to folder  
where it  
needs to move.
- x) **cp** → copy command
  - ↳ eg. same as mv
  - cp -r dir1 dir2 → copy dir1 to dir2; create dir2 if not present

## # **Users in Linux**

- ① **Regular User** → can do all work in its home directory
  - ↳ will have all permission, make any folder etc, read, write file in its own directory
  - ↳ cannot enter into other user's directory
- ② **Root User** → has full access
  - ↳ Super User
    - ↳ id can do anything in any directory
    - ↳ aka Admin

xi)

## Sudo 'any command'

If a normal user gets full access and becomes admin or root user then we can give command using sudo before every command in directory / area where we didn't had access before.

xii)

## Sudo su

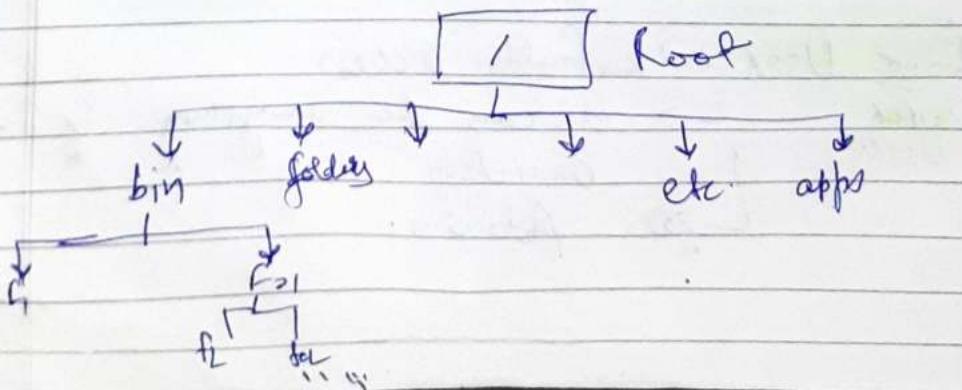
If we use this, then system always recognize us as super user

But its not recommended.  
will convert \$ to # or % means now we are super user

(3)

## Service User → services / servers accounts

# ABSOLUTE VS RELATIVE PATH



If I am in 'apps' and i want to go to some different folder for then we will use absolute path

e.g. `cd /bin/for` → absolute path  
starts with '/'

Relative path is used when we have to go in subdirectory of Prod.

x. \$ → means regular user

(xi) apt → used to install software

(xii) apt update → to get list of software that can be installed

(xiii) apt upgrade → it will actually install new software

(xiv) ls -R → will list all the content and ~~direct~~ subdirectories in a directory  
↳ R means recursive.

ls -1 → to list in vertical view

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(Xvi) **file** → file starting with '.'  
↳ a hidden file.

(Xvii) **ls -a** → to list all files  
including hidden files  
in a directory

(Xviii) ~~ls -l~~ → long list format  
**ls -l** → long list format  
**ls -a** → list all files including hidden files  
**ls -r** → sort in reverse order  
**ls -t** → sort according to modification time.  
**ls -h** → human readable  
~~ls -a -h~~ → long list all in human readable  
(Xix) **clear** → to get clear terminal  
→ scroll up to see old command again

(xx) **history** → to get command history

(xxi) **echo** → it is used to print something on terminal only  
↳ eg. ~~echo~~ **immy**  
immy will be written/printed by terminal.

(xxii) ~~Printf~~ **printf** → same work as echo  
↳ eg. **printf "immy is my name"**  
immy is my name will be printed

→ **printf "immy is my name \n"**

new command new line  
after printing ↗ new line  
↓ first connector

Ctrl shift + t → to zoom in on terminal

(xxiii) sudo apt install [any software name]

↳ used to install any software

\* In desktop GUI

click on activities → search software  
all software ← Ubuntu software-store

## # User Group & permission

(xxiv) ls -l → list all permissions

there will be in format of

~~drwxrwxrwx~~ drwxrwxrwx  
owner user group other

where d → directory

r → read

w → write

x → execute

If any letter is replaced with -  
means that permission not granted

## ~~Types of permission~~

for eg.

- $\boxed{d} \boxed{rwxr-xr-x}$

A folder which has read, write and execute permission for owner, but only read and execute permissions for group and others.

- $\boxed{-rwx-rw-rw-}$

A file that can be read and written by anyone but not executed at all.

- $\boxed{-rwx-r--r--}$

A file that can be read and written by the user but only read by the group and everyone else.



To change or set permission we use chmod command and chmod calculator

Search chmod calculator on google.

cd ... / → 2 directories back  
cd .. / → 1 directory back

(xxv) **chmod** → means change mode  
↳ used to change mode or permissions

eg. chmod Permission no. [file/group]  
from chmod calc  
7 - execute, read, write  
4 - read  
2 - write  
1 - execute  
eg. 742

(xxvi) **top** → will tell about the processes which are taking most resources.  
Ctrl+C to exit top command.

(xxvii) **ps** → will list all the running process

(xxviii) **ps -a** → will list all the processes including background processes

(xxix) ~~ps~~ **kill** [Process ID]  
↳ its the number under PID in top command.  
↳ To kill or close any process.

(xxx) **vim** → It is a text editor.  
↳ eg. Vim my.txt

first we use sudo su  
then after becoming super user.

→ apt install vim

if will install vim editor  
then we can use vim editor from commands



## How to use Vim

→ first type ~~vim editor~~ ~~as~~ vim file name  
Vim immy.txt

it will open file in vim editor

To type first press 'i' button  
it will show insert, then  
we can type anything  
 $i \rightarrow$  enter insert mode

$Esc \rightarrow$  to exit insert mode

then,

$:q \rightarrow$  exit without saving

$:wq \rightarrow$  exit with saving

(xxxi)

$rm \rightarrow$  remove command

↳ used to remove any file or directory

↳ g. rm filename.

(xxxii)

$rmdir \rightarrow$  used to remove a directory

↳ eg. rmdir directory name

↳ only used to delete empty directory

~~rm -rf~~ / → to delete and destroy anything  
never use sudo!.

(xxxiii) **rm -r** → used to remove a directory and files inside it.

↳ eg. rm -r directory/.

**rm -d** → remove empty directories

(xxxiv) **man** → manual  
↳ to know how a command is used  
↳ eg. man command.

(xxxv) **w** → to know who is on machine  
↳ will show uptime, no. of users, current time, CPU load, etc.  
↳ :0 means sitting on local host

**who** → same as 'w' but shows less info.

(xxxvi) **netstat** → to know what happening on the network

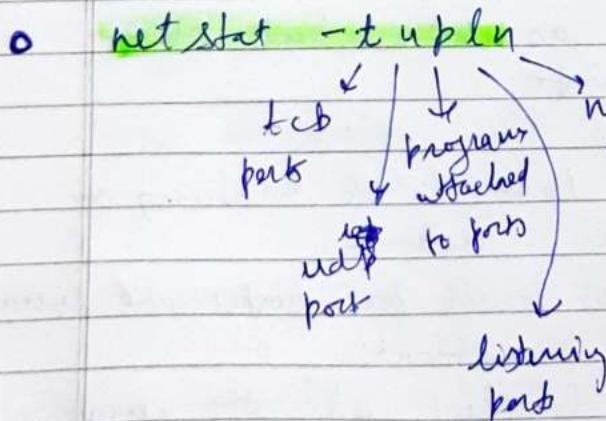
or  
↳ to list all port, socket and everything on network

• **netstat -a** → to list all the current connections

• **netstat -at** → to list only tcp connections

• **netstat -au** → to list only udp connections

- `netstat -ant` → to disable reverse dns lookup for faster output
  - `netstat -tnl` → to check for listening tcp ports
    - l → to check all open ports
    - n → to see udp open port
  - `sudo netstat -nlpnt` → to get process name/ pid and user id.
- ~~net~~ `sudo netstat -nlpntc` → to get process id along with username



- netstat -s → to list statistics for all port
  - netstat -rn → used to display Kernel routing info
  - netstat -i → used to print network interfaces
    - ↳ this will provide very raw data.
- for more human friendly version

netstat -icj

- netstat -ct → output tcp connections continuously

DAEMON Process → It is a linux OS program that runs in the background. Almost all daemons have names that end with letter "d". For e.g.,

httpd the daemon that handles apache server.

or  
sshd which handles SSH remote access connection.

A

## Zombie Process

It is a process whose execution is completed but it still has an entry in the process table. Zombie process usually occurs for child processes, as the parent process still needs to read from the process table its child's exit status.

Once this is done using the wait system call, the Zombie process is eliminated from the process table. This is known as reaping the zombie process.

A

## Getting The Size Of

### Directory

(xxxvii) **du** → command used to know the space used by directories

(xxxviii) **du -h** → will show size of specified directory with subdirectories in human readable version.

• → short form of the directory  
we are in

Free → to check ram usage

(xxxix) **du -sh** → to show size of files  
~~per file~~ size of  
specified directory only  
without the subdirectories.

(XL) **du -ch** → ~~with -c~~ used to find  
grand total of files  
space.

## # Text Editors

- **nano** → simple to use.
- **vim** → advanced.

## # SHELL FEATURES

**SHELL** → it is type of user, distribution  
e.g. Linux is a shell.

# **Pipes**  
Input and output Redirection

**A**

## Pipes & Redirection

the pipe command lets you send the output of one command to another.

It can redirect the standard output, input or error of one process to another for further processing.

Piping connects → | → between two command  
con

e.g. command 1 | command 2 | ... | command N

> → output redirection  
< → input redirection

**B.1**

All applications have three unique files that connect them to the outside world. These are -

Standard Input , Stdin = 0

Standard Output , Stdout = 1

Standard Error , Stderr = 2

Default values

(will be used in specification of stream for redirection)

## Standard Input

Standard input is the default mechanism for getting into an interactive program. This is typically direct link to the keyboard in a terminal.

## Standard Output

Standard output is the default for writing output from a program. This is typically a link to the output terminal but is often buffered for performance reasons. This can be especially important when the program is running over a slow network link.

## Standard Error

It is an alternative mechanism for writing output from a program. This is typically a different link to the same output terminal but is unbuffered so that we can write errors immediately while the normal output can be written one line at a time.

\* → all files in current directory  
ls \*a → will list all files starting with a

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## A.2 Redirecting into files

This is typically done with > operator between the application to run and the file to write the output into.

for eg. we can send the output of the ls command into a file called files as follows.

ls > files.

We can do this after any command, including needed arguments

ls -l \*.txt > text -files

## A.3 Appending into files

When we use >, then we are writing the output to the file, replacing all of its contents. If needed we can also append/add to the file using >> instead

echo → used to display text / string

↳ just one output

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ls -1 \*.\*.txt > files

ls -1 \*.text >> files

ls -1 \*.log >> files

we can use this to build up files <sup>using</sup> & all many  
of output if we need to including echo  
to exact output line.

@n echo test files > files

ls -1 \*.\*.txt >> files

echo log files >> files

ls -1 \*.log >> files

#### Q.4 Redirecting Standard Error.

On occasion we need to redirect standard error instead of standard output

When we use .Redirect operators, by default this applies to standard output. We can specify the stream to redirect by prefixing it with the stream ID ie 0,1,2.

F1 Eg:-

to redirect standard error, from that cat command we would use 2>

cat does-not-exists 2> log.

We can also use  $&>$  to redirect standard output and standard error at the same time

### \*.5 Redirecting into streams

Sometimes we want to redirect into a stream instead of a file. We can achieve this by using the stream ID (0, 1, 2), prefixed by & in place of the filenames. For e.g.

We can redirect into standard error by using  $\>&2$ .

echo standard output  $>&1$   
echo standard error  $>&2$

We can combine this with above to combine streams, by redirecting from one stream into another.

A common construct is to combine standard error into standard output so they can be used together. We achieve this using ~~redirection~~.

$2>&1$  - literally redirecting

stream 2 into stream 1

ls -l 2>&1

### A.6 Redirecting Multiple Streams

We can easily combine the above to redirect both standard output and standard error at the same time. We simply combine two different redirects on the same command.

ls -l > stdout.log 2> stderr.log

This won't work as desired if we try to redirect both streams into the same file. What happens here is that both streams are redirected individually, and whichever comes second wins.

If we want to redirect both into the same file, then we can use &> as above

ls -l > log 2>&1

### A.7 Reading from files

Sometimes we want to achieve the opposite - redirecting a file into an application. We do this using < operator and the contents of the file will replace

the standard input of the application

we < user/share/dirt/words

When we do this, the only input that the application can receive comes from this source and it will all happen immediately

A.8

## Piping between Applications

The final action that we can perform is to direct the output of one application into another one. This is commonly referred to as piping, and uses the | operator instead.

ls | wc

This directly connects the standard output of the first command application into the standard input of the second one and then lets the data directly flow between them.

## A.9 Handling Standard Error

The standard error isn't connected by default, so we'll get anything written to that stream appearing in the console.

If we want to redirect standard error as well then we can use the techniques from above to first redirect it into standard output and then pipe into the next application.

```
$ ls i-dont-exist | wc
```

ls : i-dont-exist : No such file or directory  
0 0 0

```
$ ls i-dont-exist 2>&1 | wc
```

1 7 44.

## A.10 Combining Pipes

When piping between applications, we can also build an arbitrary chain where we are piping between many applications to achieve a result.

`docker images | cut -d ' ' -f 1 | tail -n +2`

`docker images` → Get a list of all dock images  
`cut -d ' ' -f 1` → cut this output to  
 only return the first  
 column, when column are  
 space separated

`tail -n +2` → Limit this to start from  
 line 2.

`Sort -u` → Sort the list, only returning  
 unique entries

`wc -l` → count the number of lines

#

Echo

Echo command in Linux is used  
 to display a line of text/string.

Example: `echo "Geeks for Geeks"`  
 Geeks for Geeks

`-e` → enables interpretation of backslash  
 chars

`\b` → It removes all spaces b/w  
 text

Eg. echo -e "Geeks \b for \b Geeks"  
Geeks for Geeks

\n → this option creates new line from where it is used.

Eg. echo -e "Geeks \n for \n Geeks"  
Geeks  
for  
Geeks

\t → used to create horizontal tab spaces

Eg. echo -e "Geeks \t for \t Geeks"  
Geeks for Geeks

\v → used to create vertical tab spaces

Eg. echo -e "Geeks \v for \v Geeks"  
Geeks  
for  
Geeks

Echo \* → will print all files, similar to ls

\a → alert return with backspace interpretation '-e' to have sound alert

e.g. echo -e "\a Guts for Geek"

when this executed, it will produce an alert sound or bell.

#

## Useful CHAINING OPERATORS In Linux

& → The function of '&' & to make the command run in background.

e.g. to run one command in background

ping c5 www.teenvi-w.com &

to run two commands in background

apt-get update & apt-get upgrade &

; → The semi-colon operator makes it possible to run several commands in a single go and execution occurs sequentially.

g. `apt-get update ; apt-get upgrade ; mcdin-test`

**&&** → The **AND** operator would execute the second command only, if the execution of first command succeeds. This command is very useful in checking the execution status of last command i.e exit status is 0.

For eg. I want to visit website tecmint.com using links command in terminal but before that I need to check if the host is live or not-

`ping -c 3 www.tecmint.com && links www.tecmint.com`

**||** → The **OR** operator is like else statement. It allows you to execute second command only if the execution of first command fails i.e. exit status of first command is 1

eg. `apt-get update || links tecmint.com`

what if the first command is executed successfully with exit status 0? , obviously second command won't work.

! → The NOT operator is much like an except statement. The command will execute all except conditions provided.

To understand

Create a directory 'immy' in your home directory and 'cd' to it

```
$ mkdir immy  
$ cd immy
```

Now, create several types of files in 'immy'.

```
$ touch a.doc b.doc a.pdf b.pdf a.html
```

See we've created all the files in 'immy'

```
$ ls  
a.doc b.doc a.pdf b.pdf a.html
```

Now delete all the files except 'html' at once.

```
$ rm -r !(*.html)
```

## 88-11 → AND-OR operator

The above operator is actually a combination of AND 'and OR' operator. It is much like an 'if-else' statement.

for eg. let's do ping to youtube.com, if success  
echo 'verified' else echo 'Host Down'

```
$ ping -C3 www.youtube.com && echo "verified" || echo  
"Host down"
```

1 → The Pipe operator is useful when the output of first command act as input of second command.

eg. ls -l | less

## { } → Command Combination Operator

combines two or more commands, the second command depends upon the execution of first command.

for eg. check if a directory 'bin' is available or not, and output corresponding output

```
[ -d bin ] || { echo directory does not exist, creating directory now;  
mkdir bin; } && echo Directory exists
```

### (+) → PRECEDENCE OPERATOR

This operator makes it possible to execute command in precedence order

Command -x1 && Command -x2 || Command -x3 && Command -x4

In above pseudo command, what if command -x1 fails? Neither of the command -x2, command -x3, command -x4 would be executed. For this we use precedence operator - , or!

(Command -x1 && Command -x2) || (Command -x3 && Command -x4)

#

### FILTERING Output and Finding Thing

#-1

#### CUT

The CUT command is used for cutting out the sections from each line of file and writing the result to standard output.

Let us consider file having name state.txt  
contains 5 names of the Indian states.

```
$ cat state.txt
Andhra Pradesh
Arunachal Pradesh
Assam
Bihar
Chhattisgarh
```

**-b (byte)** : To extract the specific bytes,  
you need to follow -b option  
with the list of byte numbers  
separated by comma. Range  
of bytes can also be specified  
using the hyphen (-).

Tab and back spaces are treated  
like as a character of 1 byte.

List without ranges.

```
$ cut -b 1,2,3 state.txt
And
Ary
Ass
Bih
chh.
```

## List with ranges

\$ `cut -b 1-3,5-7 state.txt`

Andhra  
Arunach  
Assam  
Bihar  
Chhatti

It uses a special form for selecting bytes from beginning upto the end of the line.

In this, `-1` indicates from 1st byte to end byte of a line

\$ `cut -b 1- state.txt`

Andhra Pradesh  
Arunachal Pradesh  
Assam  
Bihar  
Chhattisgarh

In this, `-3` indicates from 1<sup>st</sup> byte to 3<sup>rd</sup> byte of a line.

\$ `cut -b -3 state.txt`

And  
Aru  
Ass  
Bih  
chh.

**-c (column)** : To cut by character  
use -c option.

This selects the character given to -c option. This can be a list of numbers separated by comma or a range of numbers separated by hyphen (-). Tabs and backspaces are treated as a character.

\$ cut -c 2,5,7 state.txt

nh

rah

sm

il

hti

ba-

\$ cut -c 1-7 state.txt

Andhra

Arunach

Assam

Bihar

Chhattisgarh

\$ cut -c 5 state.txt

Andhra

Arunach

Assam

Bihar

Chhat

\$ cut -c 1- state.txt

Andhra Pradesh

Arunachal Pradesh

Assam

Bihar

Chhattisgarh

**-f (field)** : -c option is used for fixed length lines. Most unix files doesn't have fixed length lines. To extract the useful information you need to cut by fields rather than columns. List of the fields number specified must be separated by comma. Range are described with -f option. **cut** uses Tab as a default field delimiter but can also work with other delimiter by using **-d** option.

Like in file state.txt fields are separated by space if -d is not used then it prints the whole line.

```
$ cut -f 1 state.txt  
Andhra Pradesh  
Arunachal Pradesh  
Assam  
Bihar  
Chhattisgarh
```

if -d option is used then it considers space as a field separator or delimiter

\$ cut -d ":" -f 1 stat.txt

Andhra

Arunachal

Assam

Bihar

Chhattisgarh

#2

 SORT

Sort command is used to sort a file, arranging the records in a particular order.

The sort command follows these features as stated below:

- Lines starting with a number will appear before lines starting with a letter.
- Lines starting with a letter that appears earlier in the alphabet will appear before lines starting with a letter that appears later in the alphabet.
- Lines starting with a lowercase letter will appear before lines starting with the same letter in uppercase.

**-o** : Unix also provides us with special facilities like if you want to write the output to a new file, output.txt, redirect the output like this or you can also use the built in sort option -o, which allows you to specify an output file.

Eg.

\$ sort inputfile.txt > filename.txt } both does  
\$ sort -o filename.txt inputfile.txt } the same work

**-r** : Sorting in reverse Order.  
you can perform a reverse order sort using the -r flag. the -r flag is an option of the sort command which sorts the input file in reverse order i.e. descending order by default

Eg,

\$ sort -r inputfile.txt

**-n** : To sort a file numerically  
**-n** option is used. This option is used to sort the file with numeric data present inside. The output will be in ascending order.

Eg.

\$ Sort -n file1.txt

**-nr** : To sort a file with numeric data in reverse order we use the combination **-n & -r**.

Eg.

\$ Sort -nr file1.txt

**-k** : Unix also provides the feature of sorting a table on the basis of any column number by using **-k** option.

Use the **-k** option to sort on a certain column. For eg. use "**-k 2**" to sort on the **second** column.

Eg.

\$ Sort -k 2n employe.txt

**-c** : This is used to check if the file given is already sorted or not and if a file is already sorted pass the -c option to ~~start~~ sort. This will write to standard output if there are lines that are out of order.

This tool can be used to understand if this file is sorted and which lines are out of order.

\$ Eg. Sort -c filename.txt

**-u** : To sort and remove duplicates. This will write a sorted list to standard output and remove duplicates.

\$ Eg. Sort -u filename.txt

**-M** : To sort by Month. This will write a sorted list to standard output ordered by month name.

\$ Eg. Sort -M filename.txt

H.3

## UNIQ

Date \_\_\_\_\_  
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b-

Uniq is the tool that helps to detect the adjacent duplicate line and also deletes the duplicate lines.

Uniq filters out the adjacent matching lines from the input file and writes the filtered data as to the output file.

// displaying the content of kt.txt //

\$ cat kt.txt

I love music  
I love music  
I love music

I love music of Kartik  
I love music of Kartik

Eg.

\$ Uniq kt.txt

I love music

I love music of Kartik

**-c** : It tells how many times a line was repeated by displaying a number as a prefix with the line.

Eg.

\$ unig -c kt.txt

I love music

+

I love music of Kantik

**-d** : It only prints the repeated lines and not the lines which aren't repeated.

Eg.

\$ unig -d kt.txt

I love music

I love music of Kantik

**-u** : It allows you to print only unique lines.

Eg.

\$ unig -u kt.txt

## #4 wc

wc stands for word count. As the name implies it is mainly used for counting purpose.

- It is used to find out number of lines, word count, byte and character count in the files specified in the file argument.
- By default it displays four-column output.
- First column shows number of lines present in a file specified, second column shows number of words present in the file, third column shows number of characters present in file and fourth column itself is the file name which are given as argument.

\$ cat state.txt  
Andhra Pradesh  
Arunachal Pradesh  
Assam  
Bihar  
Chhattisgarh

\$ cat tel.txt  
Hyderabad  
Tirangal

Display

Pattern

Replacer.

W C

\$ WC state.txt

5 7 63 state.txt

\$ WC Capital.txt

5 5 45 Capital.txt

\$ WC state.txt Capital.txt

5 7 63 state.txt

5 5 45 Capital.txt

10 12 107 later

= W : This option prints the number of words present in a file. When this option we command displays two - column output, 1st column shows number of words present in a file and 2nd is the file name.

Eg.

With one file name

\$ WC -w state.txt  
7 state.txt

With more than one file name

\$ WC -w state.txt Capital.txt

7 state.txt  
 5 capital.txt  
 12 total

-l : This option prints present number of lines present in a file.

Eg.

\$ wc -l state.txt  
 5 state.txt

\$ wc -l state.txt capital.txt  
 5 state.txt  
 5 capital.txt  
 10 total

-c : This option displays count of bytes present in a file.

Eg.

\$ wc -c state.txt  
 63 state.txt

\$ wc -c state.txt capital.txt  
 63 state.txt  
 45 capital.txt  
 108 total

**-m**: This option displays count of characters from a file.

\$ **Eg.**  
wc -m stat.txt  
63 stat.txt

\$ wc -m state.txt capital.txt  
63 stat.txt  
45 capital.txt  
108 total

**-L**: It can be used to print out the length of longest (no. of characters) line in a file.

## #5 **GREP**

The grep filter searches a file for a particular pattern of characters and displays all lines that contains that pattern. The pattern that is searched in the file is referred to as the regular expression (grep stands for global search for regular expression and print out).

**-i** : the option enables to search for a string case insensitively in the given file.

Eg.

```
$ grep -i "UNIX" geekfile.txt
```

**-c** : This print only a count of the lines that matches a pattern

Eg.

```
$ grep -c "unix" geekfile.txt
```

**-l** : This display the file names that contains the given string/pattern

Eg.

```
$ grep -l "unix" *
```

**-w** : This option to grep makes it matches only the whole word.

Eg.

```
$ grep -w "unix" geekfile.txt
```

**-o** : By default, grep displays the entire line which has the matched string. we can make the grep to display only the matched string by using the -o option.

Eg.  
\$ grep -o "unix" geekfile.txt

**-n** : To show the line number of file with the line matched.

Eg.  
\$ grep -n "unix" geekfile.txt

**-v** : you can display the lines that are not matched with the specified search string pattern.

Eg.

\$ grep -v "unix" geekfile.txt

**\^** : the "regular expression pattern" specifies the start of a line this can be used in grep to match the lines which start with the given string or pattern.

Eg

\$ grep " unix" geekfile.txt

Output

\$ : the \$ regular expression pattern specifies the end of a line. This can be used in grep to match the lines which end with the given string or pattern.

Eg

\$ grep " os \$" geekfile.txt

Output

-e : specifies expression with -e option. Can use multiple times

Eg

\$ grep -e "Agarwal" -e "Aggarwal" geekfile.txt

## # PACKAGE MANAGEMENT (L1) apt-get

#1 apt-get : It is a command line tool which helps in handling packages in Linux. Its main task is to retrieve the information and packages from the authenticated sources for installing, upgrade or removal of packages along with their dependencies. Here APT stands for advanced packaging tool.

## Most used command

**Update** : This command is used to synchronize the package index files from their sources again. You need to perform an update before you upgrade or dist-upgrade.

Eg.

apt - get update

**Upgrade** : This command is used to install the latest versions of the packages currently installed on the user's system from the sources.

Eg.

apt - get upgrade

**dselect-upgrade** : This is used along with the Debian packaging tool, dselect. It follows the changes made by dselect to the status field of available packages, and performs any actions necessary to realize that state.

Eg.

apt - get dselect - upgrade

**dist-upgrade** : This command performs the function of upgrade, and also handles changing dependencies with new versions of packages. If necessary, the apt-get command will try to upgrade important packages at the expense of less important ones. It may also remove some packages in this process.

Eg.

apt-get dist-upgrade

(

**Install** : This command is used to install or upgrade packages. It is followed by one or more package names the user wishes to install.

Eg.

apt-get install [..... packages]

**Remove** : This is similar to install, with the difference being that it removes the packages instead of installing. It does not remove any configuration files created by the package.

Eg.

apt-get remove [..... packages]

**Purge** : This command removes the package and also removes any configuration files related to the package.

Eg.

apt - get purge [.... packages].

**Check** : This command is used to update the package cache and checks for broken dependencies.

Eg.

apt - get check

**download** : This command is used to download the given binary package in the current directory.

Eg.

apt - get download [.... packages]

(~~check~~)

**Clean** : This command is used to clear out the local repository of retrieved package files.

Eg.

apt - get clean

**autoremove** : Sometimes the packages which are automatically installed to satisfy the dependencies of other packages, are no longer needed then autoremove command is used to remove these kind of packages.

Eg.

apt-get autoremove

## # User Account Management

### #1 Useradd

**Useradd** : It is a command in Linux that is used to add user accounts to your system. It is just a symbolic link to adduser command in Linux and the difference between both of them is that useradd is a native binary compiled with system whereas adduser is a Perl script which uses useradd in background. It makes changes to the following files

- /etc/passwd
- /etc/shadow
- /etc/group
- /etc/gshadow
- creates a directory for new user in /home.

→ our new user are ultimately stored in /etc/passwd

→ To add a simple user

Eg.

\$ Sudo useradd test-user

This command will add the user named "test-user"

→ To give a <sup>different home</sup> directory path for new user.

\$ Sudo useradd -d /home/test-user test-user

→ To create a user with specific user id

\$ sudo useradd -u 1234 test-user

This will create a new user with the user id "1234" and the name "test-user".

→ To create a user with specific group id.

\$ Sudo useradd -g 1000 test-user.

This will create a new user with groupid "1000" and name "test-user".

→ To create a user without home directory

\$ Sudo useradd -M test-user

→ To create a user with expiry date

\$ Sudo useradd -e 2020-05-30 test-user

→ To create a user with a comment or short description

\$ Sudo useradd -c "This is a test user" test-user

→ To create a user with changed login shell

\$ Sudo useradd -s /bin/sh test-user

This will create a user named "test-user" with the default shell /bin/sh

To set

→ To set an unencrypted password for the user

\$ Sudo useradd -p test-password test-user

#2 **passwd**: To set a password for a new created user.

\$ passwd test-user

#3 **Usermod**: It is a command in Linux that is used to change the properties of a user in Linux through the command line.

→ To add a comment for a user.

\$ sudo usermod -c "This is test user" test-user

→ To change home directory of a user

\$ sudo usermod -d /home/manav test-user

→ To change the expiry date of a user.

\$ sudo usermod -e 2020-05-29 test-user

→ To change the group of a user

\$ sudo usermod -g manav test-user

→ To change user login name

\$ sudo usermod -l test-account test-user

→ To lock a user

\$ sudo usermod -L test-user

→ To unlock a user

\$ sudo usermod -U test-user

→ To set an unencrypted password

\$ sudo usermod -P test-password test-user

→ To create a shell for the user

\$ sudo usermod -s /bin/sh test-user

→ To change user id of a user

\$ sudo usermod -u 1239 test-user

## # PROCESSES Overview

init is the mother of all processes

all processes have parent processes

PID of init is always 1.

## # PROCESS SIGNALS

eg -

\$ Kill -l

It will show the list of all the signals which can be used with it.

\$

Kill [Signal number, PID]

to kill a process or to send a signal to a process

\$

Sudo Killall [Process name]

It will kill all the processes by names.

\$

Sudo pkill [User name]

It will kill all the processes of the specific user.

## # STATE, Niceness, & How To Manage Processes

Ques In what is proc filesystem?

Ans It is process filesystem.

- virtual filesystem the Linux kernel mounts to host information about its processes so that applications have easy access to them.

Ques Every process wants what?

CPU time

Ques In what is responsible for: scheduling what process get CPU time when?

The Kernel

- Determines this based on what state the process is in.

Ques In what are the 3 states a process can be in?

- i) Run-able - eligible to be scheduled for CPU time, has all the info it needs.
- ii) Sleeping - waiting for something
- iii) Zombie - finished with what it was doing, waiting to give back info it has come up with and be killed by kernel.

iv) **Stopped** - May have been in middle of doing something but received stop signal and is now waiting for the continue signal to resume.

Ques

If you have a lot of zombie processes causing an issue, what would be useful to check for?

Parent PID (PPID)

- the issue could be that the parent hasn't collected finished output of the processes and the children can't die.

Ques

The most common tool/command to monitor processes is.....

~~top  
htop (better version)~~

(Command: automatically sort % of cpu use, # of things running, states of processes, etc)

Ques

Besides top 'top' command, what command can show you more detailed and granular info about processes, resources use and process states?

(hint: feature scrolling)

## htop

(command, you may need to install)

- nice interface
- allows you to scroll
- can scroll to a process and send a signal to it directly
- more features, read man page.

Ques What should be your first step in exploring any new program?

Look at the man page

- familiarize yourself with the options available
- see if there are any examples at the end.

Ques What is Niceness (NI)?

A value that determines how 'nice' a process is to other processes  
(the priority of the process)



Ques What is Niceness, the HIGHER the number...

the LOWER the priority

(the #s go from -20 [SUPER HIGH] to 19 [lowest priority])

Eg.

Low priority command:

nice -n 15 /backup/not/important/at/all/task

A Niceness and customer facing systems: with anything like this, you want to be careful not to run things that will sum things that will grind everything else to a halt. (because you might want to set a lower nice ness level)

- too great a level might make your system feel feel ~~like~~ like it's freezing up.
- generally, you don't want to set anything to the minimum nice ness / highest priority because it will block other stuff:

Ques How do you renice (change priority) of a task?

Renice  $\underline{-5}$ ,  $\underline{2744}$   
 $\downarrow$        $\uparrow$   
 new Process ID  
 nice ness

(make sure that you have appropriate privileges)

- you can also change it with htop with F7 or F8

Ques Example problem: you are on a new system and it has slowed to a crawl.  
 What do you do?

ii) Open up top (or htop)

# THE /PROC FILESYSTEM

# FILESYSTEM & ABSOLUTE/RELATIVE PATHNAMES

Ques What is an API?

Application Programming Interface

- The language you use to deal with the underlying filesystem.

Ques True or False: In Linux the only thing run through the filesystem are just files?

False.

Linux runs almost everything through the filesystem.

Eg.

- all of your hardware (serial through memory through cd-rom).
- (you have 2 files each: where device is mounted & device drivers).

Sockets (internal traffic, inter-process communication channels)

Ques What is: udev?

Set up drivers and mount locations for new devices

- it is a system daemon (process that runs in background, listening)
- allows for automatic management of devices

Ques What will this command do?  
df -ah?

It will list what is mounted  
(sys filesystem, proc filesystem, etc)

Syntax:  
df -ah

Ques What are absolute paths?

The actual address of the file/directory /etc,  
the same no matter where you are (as opposed to relative path)

Syntax example:

ls /home/dave/Desktop/

Ques When would it be useful to utilize absolute paths?

- for scripting (static location)
- when you can't leave your directory/not efficient to
- for security (don't wanna give pw via an argument in a relative path)

## # Filesystem Layout

### /etc

a place for all of the configuration data of all our applications. When you install an application, ~~you~~ it will create a directory and all the configuration will be saved there.

Ques Everything begins at?

Root (/)

top of the filesystem tree

Ques

What is /bin?

It is where your base operating commands are.

UNIX = Just base commands (i.e. in freeBSD)

LINUX = Links added <sup>by</sup> when you install programs

dLINUX - base system put together from disparate sources.

in UNIX - ~~Rather~~ Tightly integrated system  
(at least when it comes to /bin).

Ques

What is /boot?

Here you have kernel, kernel files,  
& boot loader (i.e. grub)  
- this is Linux (its beautiful!)

Ques

What is /dev?

All of your devices

HDD is here (under 'sd' moniker)

CD-ROM, etc.

Ques

What is /etc?

i) System Configuration

ii) all the extra stuff you have installed with  
your package manager.

Ques What is /home?

The home for all users that are not root.  
(have all their files here)

Ques What is /lib?

(and is /lib64)

Houses libraries that programs on your system use.

(they are called DLL on windows, code that any software can use)

each can be used by multiple programs

Ques What is /media?

(on ubuntu)

Mount directory where automounted items go  
(on Ubuntu)

- Usually only root can mount things,  
but can mount a CD-Rom with this  
without root privileges.

Ques What is /mnt?

Mount directory where non-mounted items go.

(Used to mount items like CD-Roms, USB,  
HDD on most systems)

Ques What is /opt? Private note

Optional software

(you can throw extra software here if you aren't installing through the package manager)

- not used too much.

Ques What is /proc?

Has directory and configuration files for every program on your system.

(virtual filesystem that the kernel uses to communicate with you and any other program on your machine about the state of processes that are running)

Ques What is /root?

Root's home

Ques What is /sbin?

Critical files that your machine needs to get up and running

- Do NOT touch.

Ques What is /tmp?

Temporary files here, temporary space  
for holding stuff.  
(emptied upon reboot)

Ques What is /usr?

A subdivided list of non-super-essential  
files and commands

includes

(under /usr)

File headers, for writing/combining code  
i.e. like <include> in C++.

Ques What would you put in the /usr/share?

Software programs that you would want  
when you re-imaged.

Ques What is /var/log?

This has all of your system logs in it

#

## LINUX FILE TYPES

-rwx

means that this is a regular text file.

drwx

'l' means that this is a link.

drwx

'd' means that this is a directory

- contain references to other directories  
and files.

brwrx

'b' means that these are block device files.

(block device = anything that can store information  
IE : hard disk)

crwx

'c' means character device files.

(character device = mouse or keyboard)

## Symbolic link (soft link)

(it is not a reference, that would be a hard link)

like the way a parent directory looks at a file.)

## Ques What is a device file?

The intersection point between the kernel/drivers and the firmware for the device (ex: /dev/sda1 is the place where the driver communicates with the hdd)

## Sockets

(Quick description)

A communication channel that opens only visible to the two processes using it (a private file).

Ques Which are used more:

Named Pipes vs Network Sockets

Network Sockets - open a high level port (like TCP port) and do their thing there  
(Very Seldom use named pipes)

Ques

Officially, How many filetypes are there?

Ans

- (i) Normal files
- (ii) directories
- (iii) references to files
- (iv) character device files
- (v) block device files
- (vi) symbolic links
- (vii) local domain sockets / named pipes)

#

SCHEDULING TASKS WITH CRON

Ques

What is Cron used for?

Scheduling Tasks

Ques

What is a Cron Table?

A table of scheduled processes that you want to schedule in the future

Ques

How do you list your cron tab?

Crontab -l

Ques In what does this syntax allow you to do to a crontab:

Crontab -e

It lets you edit a crontab

Ans There are 6 fields in a crontab:

Eg. #15 23 \* \* echo "\$date": checking in >> /var/log/  
mycheckin  
3-5  
(m) (h) (dom)(moy)(wd) (command)

1) (m)(h) - the minute and hour that a job should run at (minute 15 of hour 23)

2) day of the month (dom) -( \* = every day of the month)

3) month of the year (moy) - ( \* = every month of the year)

4) Weekday (wd) - ( 1=monday, 7=sunday, 3-5 means wed,fri )  
& fri

5) Command - ( interpreted by sh shell, you can specify shell to run )

# comments this out - you would have to be root to run this

Ques. True or False: user cron tabs are kept in /var/spool/cron/crontabs?

True

they are kept in /var/spool/cron/crontabs  
but

there is another place:

~~/etc/cron~~ /etc/cron.d

Ques

In addition to being another spot where cron tabs are kept, what else is housed in /etc/cron.d

for packages to install package specific scheduled jobs-

(so that they don't contaminate user's files & keep it together)

Ques

The system wide cron tab is in:

/etc/crontab

Ques

The system wide crontab has an extra field (7th field) i.e. ~

User

Allows us to create jobs that run as specific users

(useful when certain users own certain files and directory)

## Ques Advanced Syntax Breakdown

15 10 1-10/2 \* 5 root echo "\$date" - everything looking good  
"/> /var/log/croncheck.log

15 = minutes

10 = hour

1-10/2 \* 5 = Range (Days) of the month 1 through 10 every 2 days AND on Fridays)

root = run as root, enables us to write into /var/log

echo --- = command (echo)

/ implies a recurring string

Day of the month and Day of the week go together, when one of them is there it activates test.

## Ques Can you have lists in Cron?

Yes

15 10 1,2,3,4 \* 5 root echo ---  
will run on 1,2,3,4 days of my month (and on Friday)

Ques

What is this?  
`/etc/cron.allow`

Cron whitelist

(if users ~~are~~ aren't in here, they won't be able to create a crontab)

This is not the default, used to lock down servers.

Ques

If you want to edit a specific user's crontab, what can you do?

Syntax (you need to be root to do this):  
`crontab -e -u user`

This allows you to go in and edit other user's crontabs.

#

8 BASIC SHORTCUTS EVERY Linux User Should Know

Ques

What does `ctrl-c` do?

Terminate <sup>running</sup> command that's attached to your shell session.

Ques what does ctrl-d do?

Exit shell session

Ques what is Tab completion?

Using tab to complete your command.  
(auto-completion)

Ques what does ctrl-l do?

Clear your Terminal

Ques what do ctrl-a and ctrl-e do?

move to start beginning or end of line  
(respectively)

Ques what do alt-f and alt-b do?  
(or ctrl+arrows left/right)

Move forward or backward one word  
(respectively)

Ques how do you search through shell history  
(key comb.)

ctrl-r

Ques

What do `ctrl-h` and `ctrl-k` do?

Delete everything to the left of the cursor  
and delete everything to the right of the  
cursor (respectively)

#

## TMUX (Terminal Multiplexer)

#-1)

Windows, Panes And Sessions Over SSH

Ques

What does tmux allow you to do?

- share shell sessions
- multiple tabs/panes open (lets you work on many sessions)
- lets you work on remote machines
- can detach/re-attach from sessions  
(won't kill process when you exit)

Ques

When you start tmux and type  
`ctrl-b < command >`, what does  
that tell the shell?

This command is not for the shell,  
it is for tmux.  
`ctrl-b` is the prefix

Eg. `ctrl-b c` means to open a new window

Ques

What does this do in tmux?

ctrl-b,

RENAME CURRENT

This will allow you to rename the window

Ques

In tmux, how do you switch from one window to the next/previous?

ctrl-b n for our next window

ctrl-b p " " previous window

Ques How do you create a window in tmux?

ctrl-b c creates a new window

Ques

How do you list the open windows in tmux?

ctrl-b b list the open windows

(sendable selectable list)

Ques

What are panes in tmux?

You can split each window that you are in vertically or horizontally

Ques What is the default tmux command to split a window vertically?

ctrl-b % will let you split the window vertically.

Ques What do you do to horizontally split the window you are in?

Ctrl-b :

then type  
split-window

Ques How do you create a named tmux session?

tmux new -s sessionname  
(that is how you create a new session called sessionname)

Ques How do you detach from a session?

ctrl-b d  
this will detach you and keep the session running

Ques What will this command do on tmux?  
tmux list-sessions

It will show you open sessions on a server.

Ques In that what would this command do?  
 tmux attach -t session name.

It would re-attach you to a running session in tmux (on a server)

## # ARCHIVING & COMPRESSION ON LINUX

- BASIC TAR COMMANDS

Ques What is the tar command?

It stands for tar archive. (It is an archiving utility)

- from the 1970s, like disco.

Ques In that is archiving?

The process of taking all the files & directories on a system and making a single file that contains them all.

- creating one logical file out of all.

Ques The process of taking all the files

Ques What is compression?

using algorithms to look for repeating patterns inside files & save the space

- can be then expanded back to those files on other side

- making files smaller.

(more simple a pattern, the more than you can save)

Ques In that would this command do?  
**tmux attach -t sessionname**

It would re-attach you to a running session in tmux (on a server)

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(more simple a pattern, the more space you can save)

Ques What is this command doing?  
`tar -z cvf docs.tar.gz Documents/`

Archiving and compressing with tar  
 'f' will specify the filename for the directory  
 ('docs.tar.gz' in this case)

'v' is verbose, means that we will get one line of output for each file we are compressing

'c' is for create, we are creating a new archive

'z' is for zipping (we are using the gzip program), used to compress archive as well as archiving it

Ques What is this command doing?  
`tar -zxf docs.tar.gz`

Unzips a tar directory here (in this directory)

'z' shows that it is zipped

'x' means to extract it

'f' defines the archive filename (in this case)  
 ('docs.tar.gz')

Ques. What is a tar bomb?

Nothing is contained  
A directory that is compressed as if you  
were sitting in the directory. It blows  
up in your face and scatters files/  
directories all over.

Try to compress files from outside a  
directory (one directory above)

Ques. When should you create a tar bomb?

Never ever ever ever ever create a tar  
bomb.

(or when you don't like your new junior  
sysadmin)

Ques. When you extract a directory, what  
should you do before you extract it?

Create a new directory and move  
inside that before extraction.

(if you extract a tar bomb, it will be  
contained inside tar folder)

# BASH SCRIPTING

Ques Where does Bash scripting shine?

Light task automation.

#1 VARIABLES & QUOTING

Ques What is this?

\$varname

A Variable

Ques Why is it standard practice to put environment variables in all caps?

they are outside the program  
(so you know not to mess with them)  
ie: \$HOME (home directory)

Ques What is this doing?  
myvar="This is so wonderful"

Setting a variable  
(remember no space)

Ques What is this doing with the variable:  
echo "This is my \${some-number}th best"

Delimiting it

(so that it can be inserted into a string)

Ques What is this doing with the information  
inside `` characters?

echo "there are `wc -l < /etc/group` lines in the  
/etc/shadow file"

It is telling the shell that there is a  
command inside this string  
(and running it)

- after, results are subbed in

## #2 How Bash Scripts Work

Ques What command do you use to find out  
where the Bash binary is?  
(hint: the first thing you declare in every  
script)

which bash

(will output bin/bash or other location if  
it's stored in)

Ques Whether you create a script, why should you use the file ending .sh?

(even though the file endings won't matter to the shell!)

Because then it will be easier for the people who come after you to understand what it is.

A Return values can be anywhere between 0 through 255

Ques Whether you use 'exit' at the end by itself, what will the shell do?

It will look for the last item that was called and will return that as the program's return value  
(as long as it returns 0/has no errors)

Ques Whether you use 'exit \$?' , what are you doing in your program?

You are showing that you are intentionally exiting and telling the program to output the last item that was called as the output.

Ques In Linux you execute a file, what permissions do you need to make sure that you have?

execute

(use chmod on the file to allow execution of it)

Ques Running a program in the shell?  
Why should you use 'source helloworld.sh' rather than 'bash helloworld.sh'?

Because you will have access to the variables and information stored inside the script in your current bash session (makes it easier because you won't have to run things over and over again to modify certain elements.)

Ques What is the difference between these two:  
source helloworld.sh  
-helloworld.sh

There is no difference, both are interchangeable.

#3

## ~~QUESTIONINGS~~

## ARGUMENTS

Ques When the program is started, the filename is in what variable?  
(bash Scripting)

The \$0 variable

(that will be the name of our script)

Ques If you try to echo an argument that does not exist, the terminal will give you ---  
(bash Scripting)

a blank line back  
(bash will forgive and not throw an error)

Ques Does bash use zero-indexing?  
(Does it start counting from 0, 1, 2... or does it start from 1, 1, 3?)

It does not use zero-indexing, it starts from 1, 2, 3

Eg: ./helloworld.sh Argument,  
          +  
          name, anything, etc.

Q \$1 means first argument

Date: / /

Page No.

#4

## IF ELSE STATEMENT

Eg. if [ "\$1" = "like" ]  
then

echo "Hey Please like this video"

else

echo "Okay, then Please subscribe :)"

fi

#5

## IF ELIF

'→ IF ELSE IF

This is one level advance of If Else Statement and is used there is multiple conditions and we have to get outcome from multiple conditions

Eg. #!/bin/bash

a = 100

b = 200

c = 300

\* whenever we use things like &&, greater than

etc., we have to use [CJ]

\* -gt means greater than

\* spacing is important as it brackets

if [[ \$a -gt \$b && \$a -gt \$c ]]  
then

# a is greater than b and c

echo "A is biggest"

elif [[ \$b -gt \$a && \$b -gt \$c ]]

# b is greater than a and c  
echo " B is biggest"

```
else
    echo " C is biggest"
fi
```

#6

## LOOPS

There are total 3 looping statements  
which can be used in bash scripting

- (i) for statement
- (ii) while statement
- (iii) Until statement.

To alter the flow of loop statements,  
two commands are used they are

- i) break
- ii) Continue.

## FOR LOOP

The for loop operates on lists of items.  
It repeats a set of commands for every  
item in a list. Here var is the name  
of a variable and word 1 to word N  
are sequences of characters separated by  
spaces. Each time the for loop executes,  
the value of the variable var is set to the  
next word in the list of words, word 1 to word N

Eg. #!/bin/bash

```
for (( i=0; i<10; i++ ))
do
echo "$i"
done
```

It will print  
all numbers from  
0 to 9.

Now we will use loop to iterate files

for that we will create 10 files

# advanc touch command to create multiple  
files at the same time

~~touch file{1..10}~~

touch file-{1..10}.txt

It will create 10 files.

file-1.txt, file-2.txt --- till file-10.txt

Eg. #!/bin/bash

```
for FILE in *
do
echo $FILE
done
```

\* means all files in  
this folder.

eg. #!/bin/bash

```
for FILE in *.txt
do
echo $FILE
done
```

This will only  
show txt files

#7

## FUNCTIONS

Eg. Function for adding user in the system

#!/bin/bash

```
add-user ()
```

```
{
```

USER = \$1

PASS = \$2

useradd -m -p \$PASS \$USER && echo "User successfully added"

}

# MAIN

add-user ImanTayy test@123

## #8 Automate Script

### AUTOMATING BACKUPS WITH BASH SCRIPTS

first we make a directory for all backups.

```
$ mkdir backups
```

```
$ nano backup.sh
```

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
src_dir=/home/ubuntu/scripts  
tgt_dir=/home/ubuntu/backups
```

```
curr_timestamp=$(date "+%Y-%m-%d-%H-%M-%S")
```

```
backup_file=$tgt_dir/$curr_timestamp.tgz
```

```
echo "Taking backup on $curr_timestamp"
```

```
tar czf $backup_file --absolute-names $src_dir
```

```
echo "Backup complete" *
```

# 6(vi)

WHILE Loop

Here command is evaluated and based on the result loop will be executed, if command raise to false then loop will be terminated.

Eg,

```
#!/bin/bash
alert=70
df -H | awk '{print $5 " " $7}' | while read output;
do
    #echo "Disk Detail : $output"
    usage=$(echo $output | awk '{print $1}' | cut -d'.' -f1)
    file-sys=$(echo $output | awk '{print $2}')
    H=$(echo $usage)
    if [ $usage -ge $alert ]
    then
        echo "CRITICAL for $file-sys"
    fi
done
```

## # 8 Basic ls of Commands Every System Should Know

**lsof** → It stands for list open files  
 ↳ This command lists out all the files that are opened by any process in the system.

Here, you observe there are details of file which are opened. ProcessId, the user associated with the process, FD, user, its size etc

- FD represents file descriptor
- cwd : current working directory
- txt : text file
- mem : Memory file
- mmap : Memory mapped device

### (ii) lsof -u username

List of all files opened by a user.

- There are several users of a system and each user have different requirements and accordingly they use files and devices. To find a list of files that are opened by a specific user this command is useful.

Along with that we can see the type of files here and they are :-

- DIR : Directory
- REG : Regular file
- CHR : Character special file

(iii) lsof -u username

List all files which are opened by everyone except a specific user

(iv) lsof -c processname

List all open files by a particular process.

Eg. lsof -c Mysql

(v) lsof -P process ID

List all open files that are opened by a particular process using process ID.

(vi) lsof -P ^process ID

List all files open by all other PIDs.

(vii) lsof -R

List parent process IDs

(viii) lsof -D directory path

List files opened by a directory

## Viii) lsof -i

List all files opened by network connections-

Eg. lsof -i tcp

## # MONITORING WITH MONIT

Configured in /etc/monitrc  
States to be monitored

- CPU
- Port 80 http
- Port 3306 mysql → it is TCP port.
  - memory usage
- PHP-fpm and nginx processes
- Site-specific monitoring config file in /etc/monit.d/sitename.cfg
- Web interface (port forwarding with SSL)
- Email alerts

Monit is a utility tool for monitoring & managing processes, files, directories, and filesystems on a unix system. It has superpowers or a super ability to start a process if it's not running, restart a process if it isn't responding, and stop a process if it uses high resources. That's what Monit does in layman terms.

This open-source tool can be downloaded with simple apt-get command.

\$ Sudo apt-get install monit

(i) **monit - version**

To check the version of monit

(ii) **Sudo apt-get install monit**

To install monit on system

(iii) **Systemctl start monit**

**Systemctl enable monit**

We can start and enable the monit services with these commands

(iv) **Systemctl status monit**

To check the status of the Monit

## #2 Configuration For Web-Interface

Monit has its own user-friendly web-interface. By default, it is disabled to enable it to follow the following section. Within it, you can view the system status & manage its properties through the web-browser.

\* monitrc → configuration file

Date: / /

Page No.

We will start by editing its configuration file /etc/monit/monitrc

sudo nano /etc/monit/monitrc

Un-comment the lines of http localhost from monit - This will allow the interface to run on localhost port 2812.

Save and restart the Monit service

systemctl restart monit

Go to localhost : 2812 in browser and when prompted type Username as "admin" and password as "monit".

v) sudo tail -f /var/log/monit.log

To verify Monit logs

#2.

CONFIGURE MONIT FOR APACHE, SSH & FTP

Install Apache and vsftpd to the system

Install Apache and Vsftpd to the system

sudo apt-get install apache2 vsftpd

Now, create a configuration file for vsftpd.

sudo nano /etc/monit/conf-available/vsftpd

Add these lines to vsftpd!

check process vsftpd with pidfile /var/run/vsftpd/vsftpd.pid  
 Start program = "/etc/init.d/vsftpd start"  
 Stop program = "/etc/init.d/vsftpd stop"  
 If failed port 21 protocol ftp then restart

Save and close nano and enable the configuration file by creating a symbolic link

sudo ln -s /etc/monit/conf-available/vsftpd /etc/monit/conf-enabled

Also, enable Apache and SSH configuration files in similar way-

sudo ln -s /etc/monit/conf-available/apache2 /etc/monit/conf-enabled  
sudo ln -s /etc/monit/conf-available/openssh-server /etc/monit/conf-enabled

and verify monit status

monit -t

then restart monit

systemctl reload monit

To check the status of services like CPU, file system and Network

`sudo monit status`

#

## MANAGING SERVICES : SYSTEMD

Systemd is a system that is designed specifically for the Linux kernel. It replaces the `sysvinit` process to become the first process with PID = 1, which gets executed in user space during the Linux start-up process.

We'll mostly use two utility programs to manage services with Systemd!

# 1 `Systemctl` : manages services

# 2 `journalctl` : manages logs

### SYSTEMCTL COMMANDS

i) `Systemctl enable service name`

It enables the service and makes the service always start at boot

Eg. `systemctl enable mysql nginx php-fpm monit`  
different services

### iii) Systemctl disable service name

It does opposite of enable

### iv) Systemctl start service name

It starts the service now (will not automatically start at boot)

Eg.

Systemctl start nginx ph5-fpm mont

### v) Systemctl stop service name

It stops the service now (will not prevent starting at boot, if enabled)

### (v) Systemctl reload service name

Re-read the program configuration files  
(config updates)

### vi) Systemctl restart service name

kill the process and start it again, re-reading configuration files

(vii)

### Systemctl status services

Check the status of service, shows last few lines of log output

Eg.

systemctl status mysql

(viii)

### Systemctl halt

Systemctl poweroffSystemctl reboot

To reboot the system, these commands are used.

#

### TEE Command in Linux

Tee command reads the standard input and writes it to both the standard output and one or more files. The command is named after the T-splitter used in plumbing.

Eg. date | tee -a mylog.log  
[ ] file name

-a → It basically do not overwrite the file but append to the given file.

## # How To Backup And Restore A MySQL/MARINDB Database

### Database Backups

Show mysql root password in /root/.my.cnf  
so our script (running as root) can access it. Chmod 600.

[client]

user = root

password = yourmysqlrootpass

### Backup One User Database

```
mysqldump --add-drop-table --databases yourdatabase > /home/<username>/backups/db/$(/bin/date +\%Y-\%m-\%d).sql.bak
```

### Backup All Databases

```
mysqldump --all-databases --all-routines > /home/to/fulldump.sql
```

### Restoring a Database Backup

Creating post, backup, delete post, restore  
deleter.

To restore a single Database -

`mysql -u root -p [database name] < backupname.sql`

To restore all databases (Tables need to exist, or  
backup needs to contain (CREATE TABLE  
statements)):

`mysql -u root -p < alldatabases.sql`

A Schedule this backup command with  
the help of crontab

## # VI/VIM BASICS

i) :q

to quit out of the file

ii) :w!

Write the current state to the file  
or save the file.

iii) :wq

to save and exit/quit the file

(iv)

**q!**

to exit / quit without saving

(v)

**i**

hit i to enter into insert mode

(vi)

**Esc**to get out of the insert mode back  
to command mode.

(vii)

**dd** (in command mode)

it will delete the line

(viii)

**any no. dd** (in command mode)

it will delete that no. of lines.

(ix)

**u** (in command mode)

to undo the last action.

(X)

**ctrl r** (in cmd mode)

to redo the last action

(xi) /yourtext (in cmd mode)

it is used to search in file

→ n to go <sup>word</sup> forward

→ shift+n to go backward

(xii) :%s/yourtext/replacedtext/gc (in cmd file)

to search and replace text in file

## # 10 Linux Job Interview Questions

Ques How can you see which kernel version a system is currently running?

Ans →

uname -a

Everything it got, every info about the system

uname -v

for kernel version

uname -r

for kernel release

Ques How can you check a system's current IP address?

Aus

ifconfig

will show everything

ip addr show

will give IP address of all devices

ip addr show specific device

To show IP address of specific device.

Ques How do you check for free disk space?

Aus

df -h

To check free space for all filesystem in human readable form.

Ques How do you manage services on a system?

~~Ans~~

systemctl status servicename

Ques How would you check the size of a directory's contents on disk?

`du -sh directory name`

Ques How would you check for open ports / ~~on~~ listening sockets on a Linux system?

`sudo netstat -tuln`

using `netstat` will show PID / program name as well

Ques How do you check CPU usage for a process?

`ps aux | grep [process name]`

or

`top`

or

`htop`

Ques How do you mount a new volume/drive in a system?

ls /mnt → mount directory on root

mount /dev/sda2 /mnt

absolute path  
→ our volumes

command to mount the drive

mount → to check for existing mount

less /etc/fstab → to mount the file at boot

## # How To Safely Delete Linux System Logs

journctl --vacuum-time = 2d or 2h or 2m  
can be anything

It will delete the logs older than the specified time.

journctl --vacuum-size = 100M

It will delete the logs larger than the specified size.

## # How To Tail (Follow) Linux Service Logs

journald -fu process/unit name

Eg: journald -fu nginx

u = unit

f = follow

