

# ***Linux Fundamentals***

*Version :1.0*



*A World of Difference*

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*Confidential*

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- II. Installing Linux (CentOS 7)
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- VIII. Local user management
- IX. File security
- X. System management
- XI. Network management

# I. Introduction to Linux

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1. Linux history
2. Distributions

# 1. Linux history

---

- 1969
  - ✓ All modern operating systems have their roots in 1969 when the C language and the Unix operating system were developed.
- 1980s
  - ✓ Many companies started developing their own Unix:
    - IBM created AIX
    - Sun SunOS (later Solaris)
    - HP HP-UX and about a dozen other companies did the same.

# 1. Linux history (cont)

---

- 1990s
  - ✓ Linus Torvalds, buying a 386 computer and writing a brand new POSIX (Portable Operating System Interface) compliant kernel.
- 2015
  - ✓ More than 97 percent of the world's supercomputers,
  - ✓ More than 80 percent of all smartphones,
  - ✓ Many millions of desktop computers,
  - ✓ Around 70 percent of all web servers,
  - ✓ A large chunk of tablet computers,
  - ✓ And several appliances (dvd-players, washing machines, dsl modems, routers, self-driving cars, space station laptops...) run Linux.

## 2. Distributions

- Which to choose?

Distribution name	Reason(s) for using
Red Hat Enterprise (RHEL)	You are a manager and you want a good support contract.
CentOS	You want Red Hat without the support contract from Red Hat.
Fedora	You want Red Hat on your laptop/desktop.
Linux Mint	You want a personal graphical desktop to play movies, music and games.
Debian	Favorite for servers, laptops, and any other device.
Ubuntu	Very popular, based on Debian.
Kali	You want a pointy-clicky hacking interface.
Others	Advanced users may prefer Arch, Gentoo, OpenSUSE, Scientific, ...

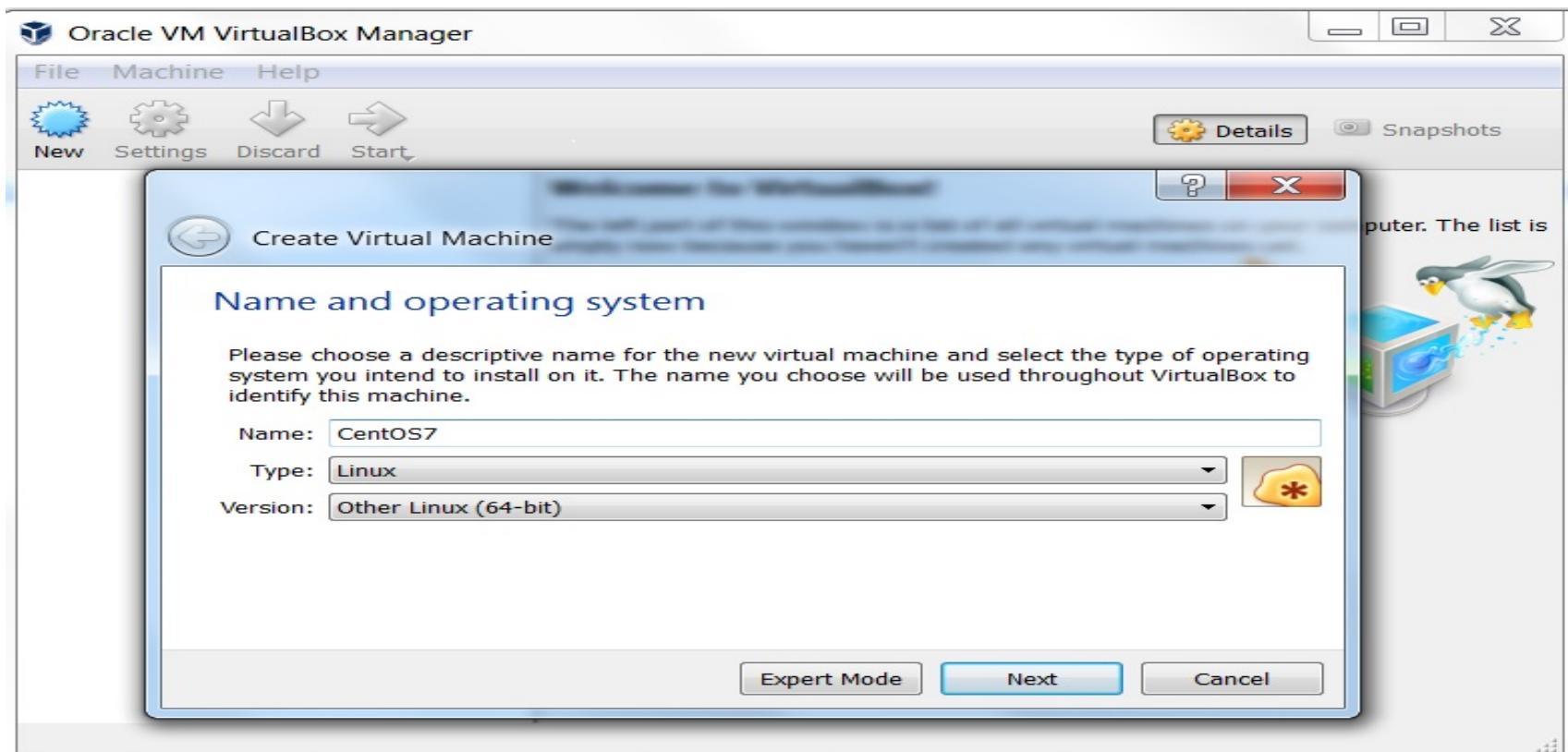
## II. Installing Linux

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1. Virtualbox
2. Installing CentOS 7

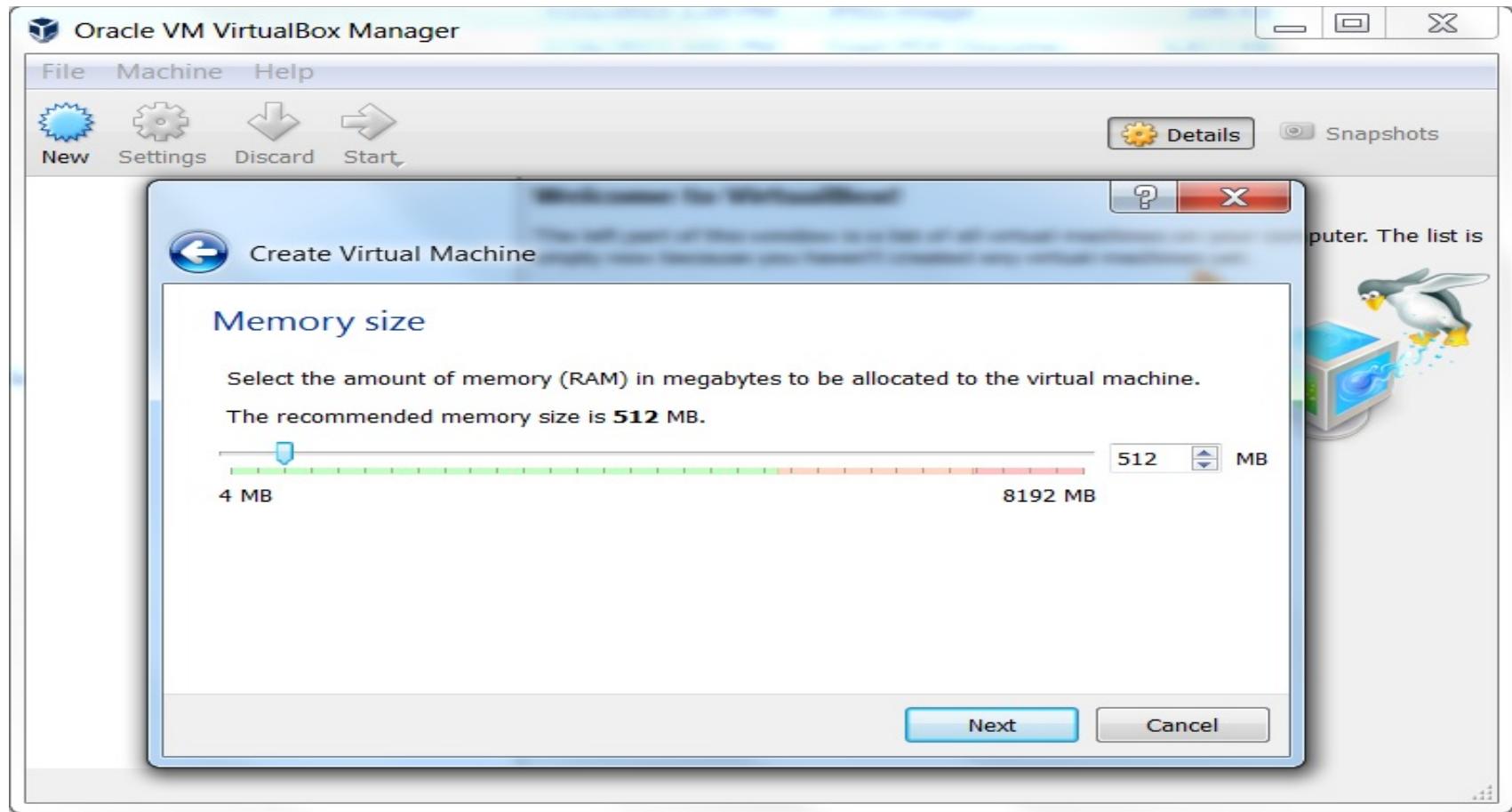
# 1. Virtualbox

- The Virtualbox website <https://www.virtualbox.org/>
- Start by clicking New and give a name (CentOS7). Click Next



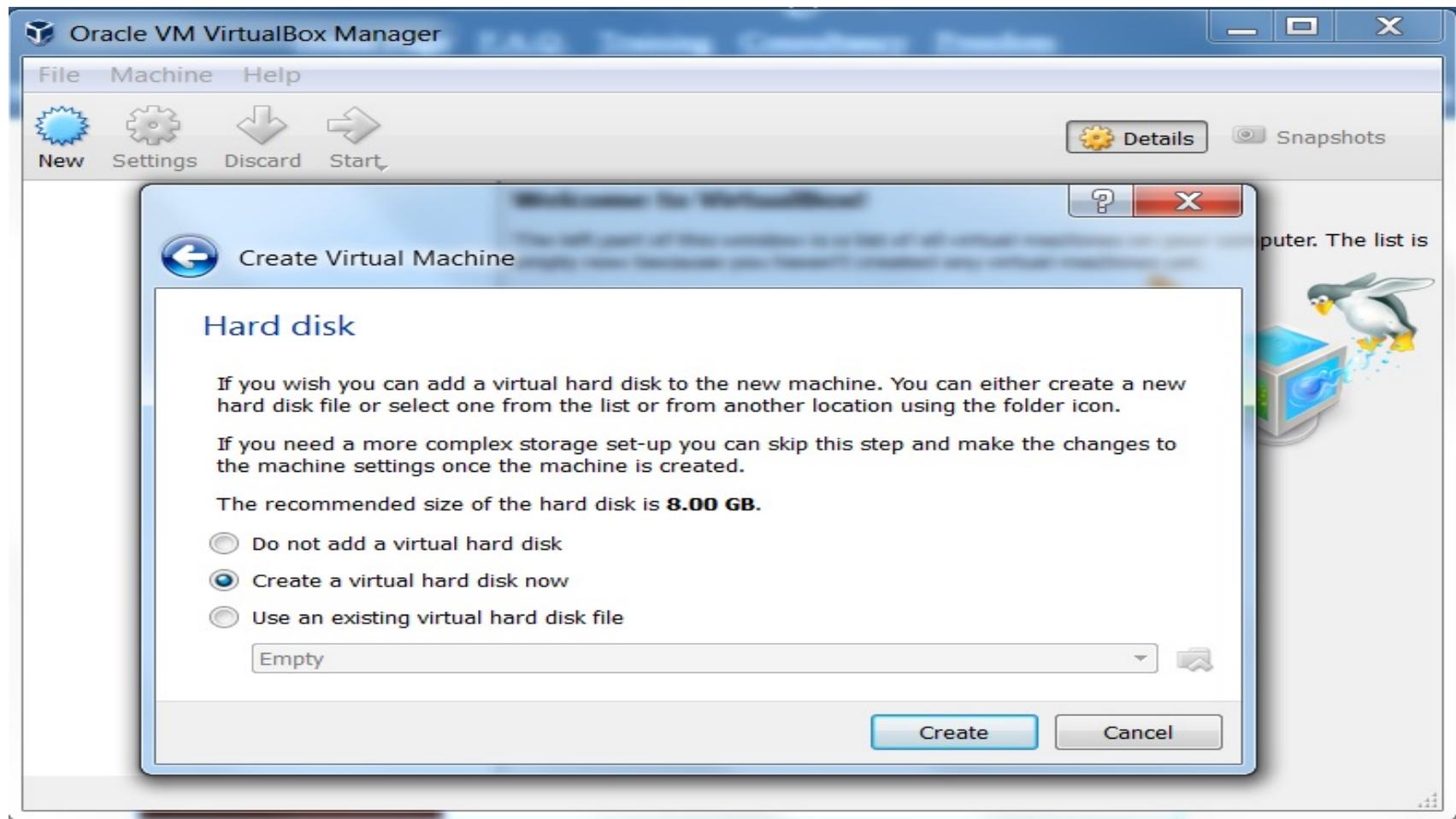
## 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- Linux without graphical interface will run fine on half a gigabyte of RAM.



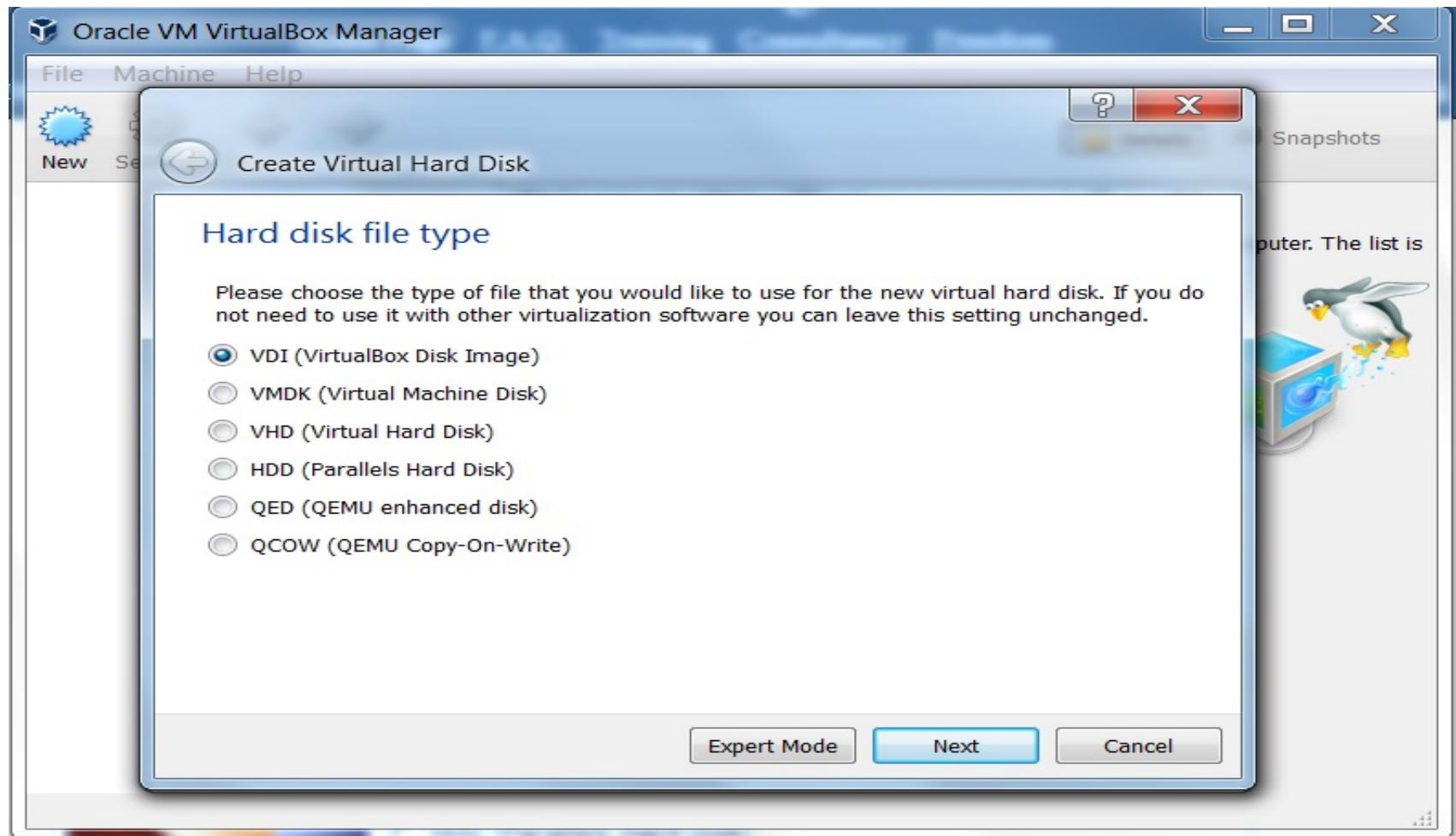
# 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- A Linux virtual machine will need a virtual hard drive.



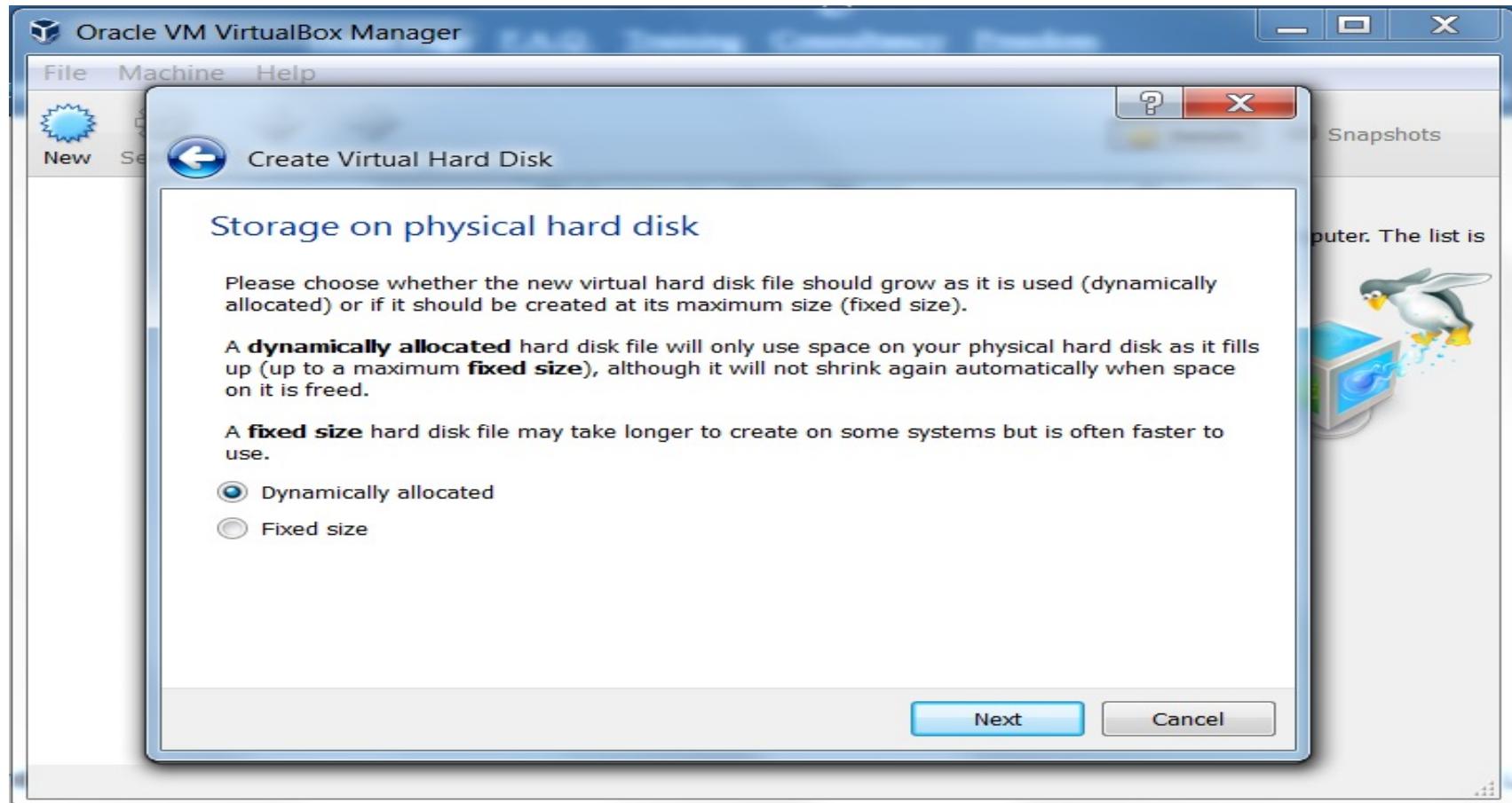
# 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- Left the default vdi for Hard disk file type.



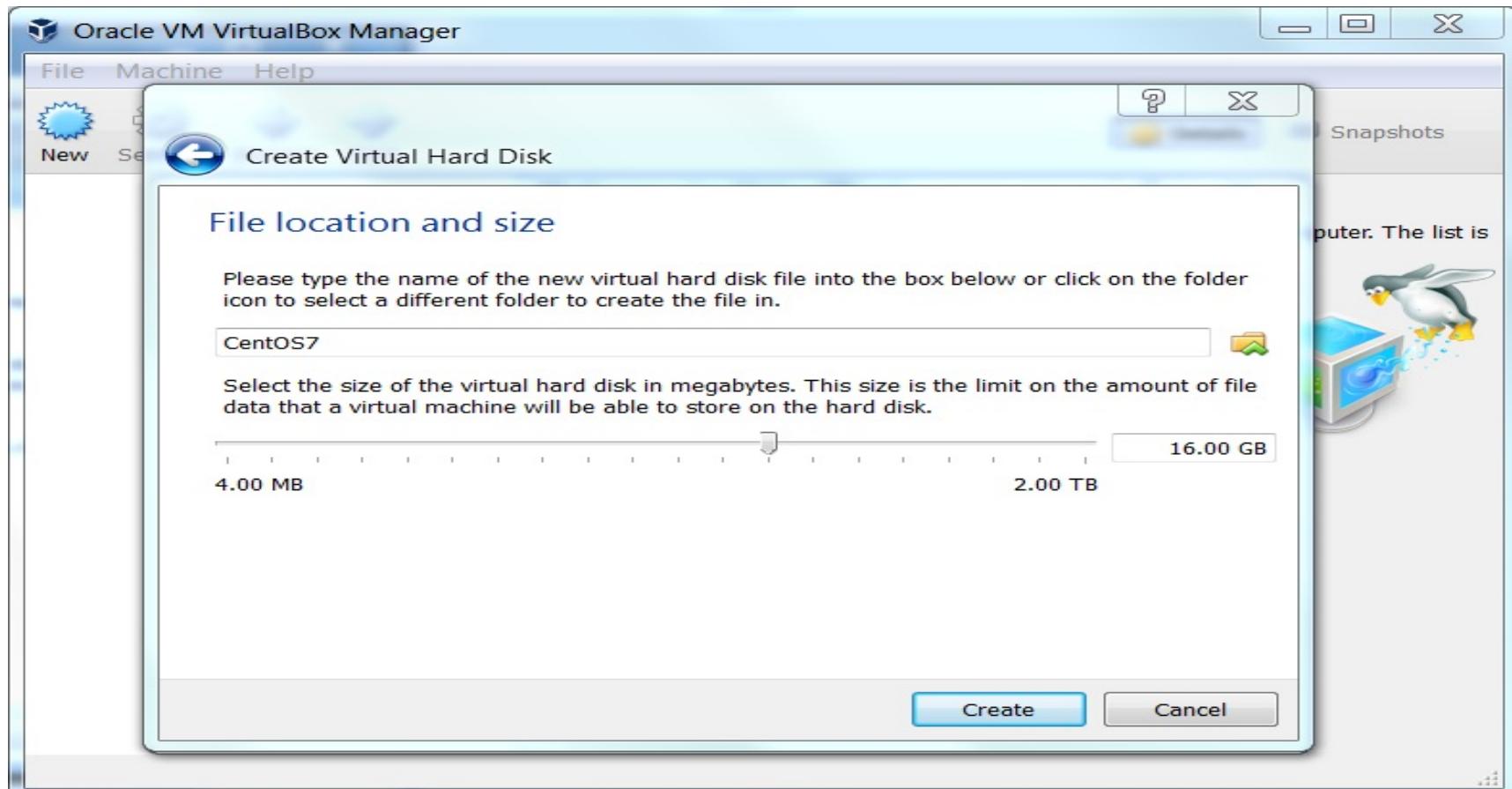
# 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- The default dynamically allocated type will save disk space.



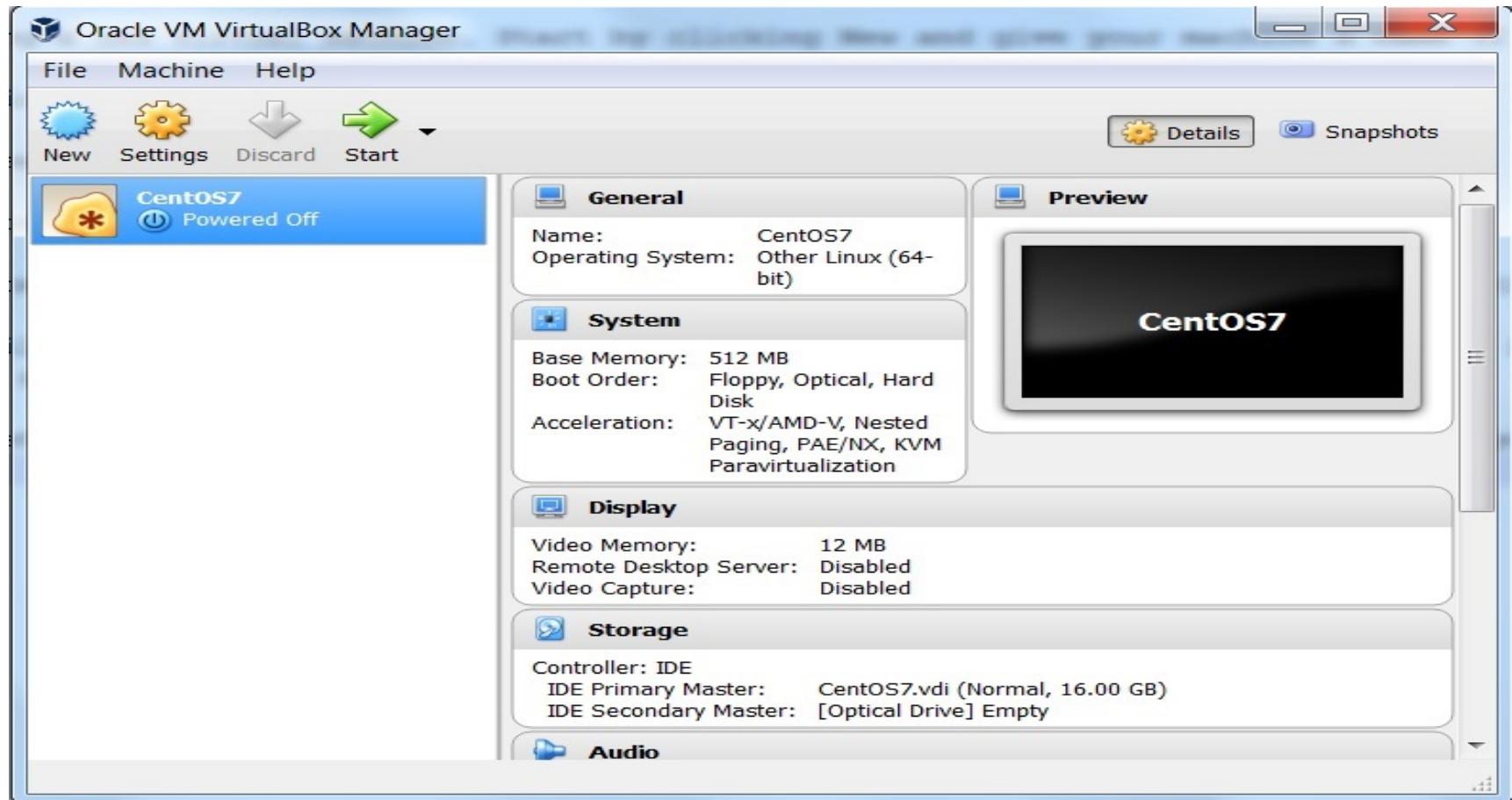
## 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- The name of the virtual disk file will be CentOS7.vdi.
- Also 16 GB should be enough to practice Linux.



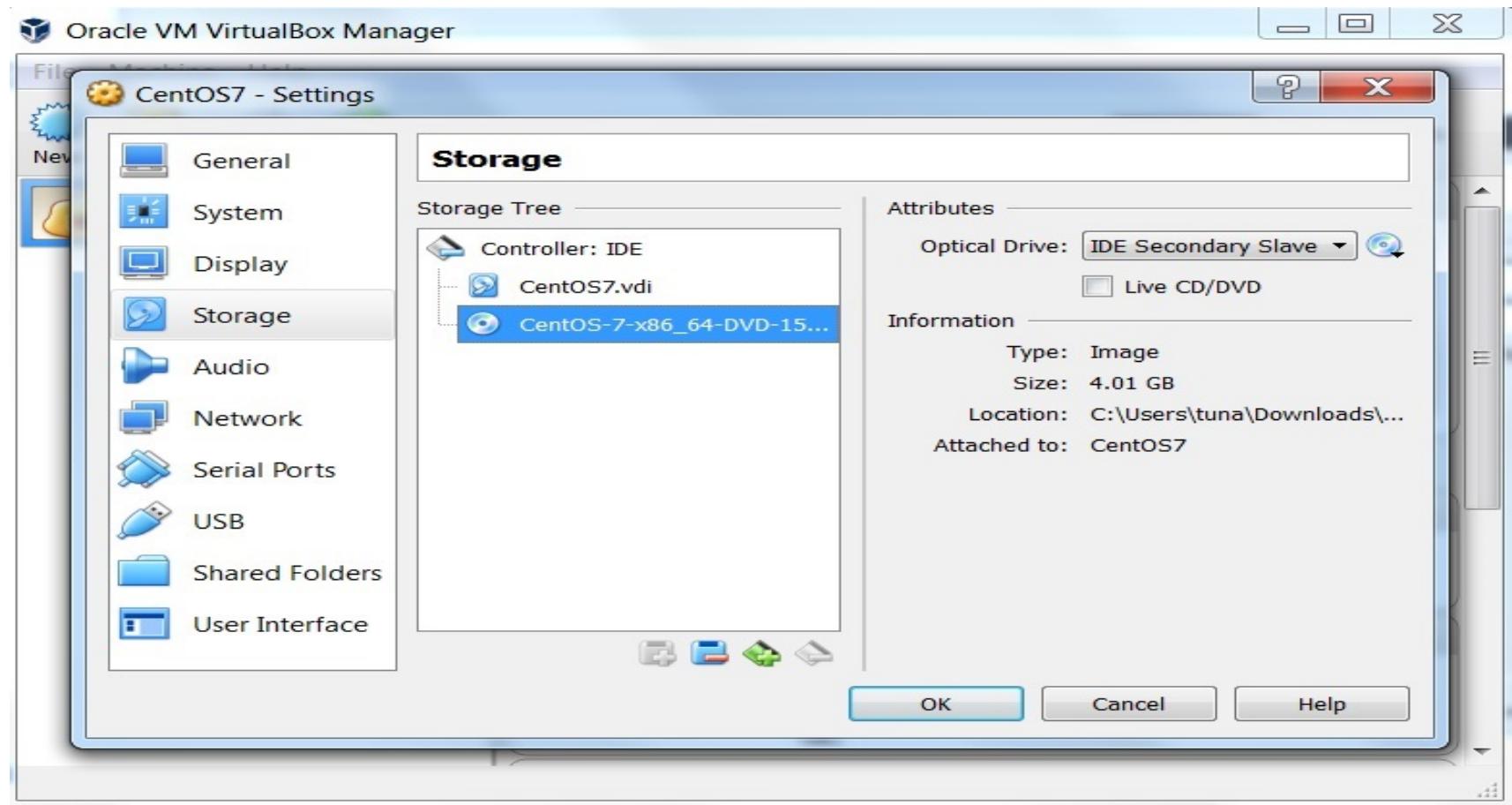
# 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- If all went well, then should see the machine just created in the list.



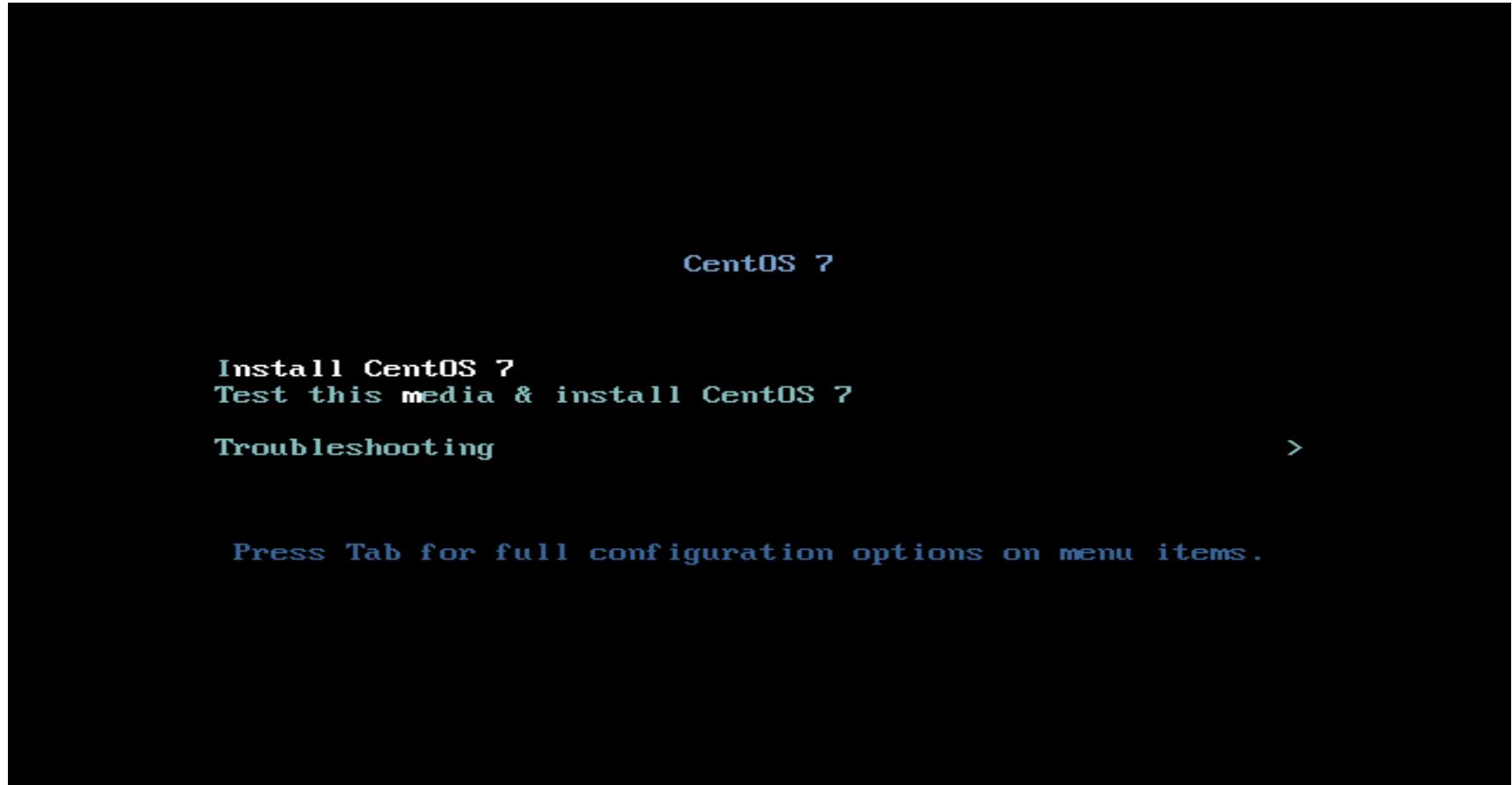
## 1. Virtualbox (cont)

- After finishing the setup, go into the Settings of the virtual machine and attach the .iso file.



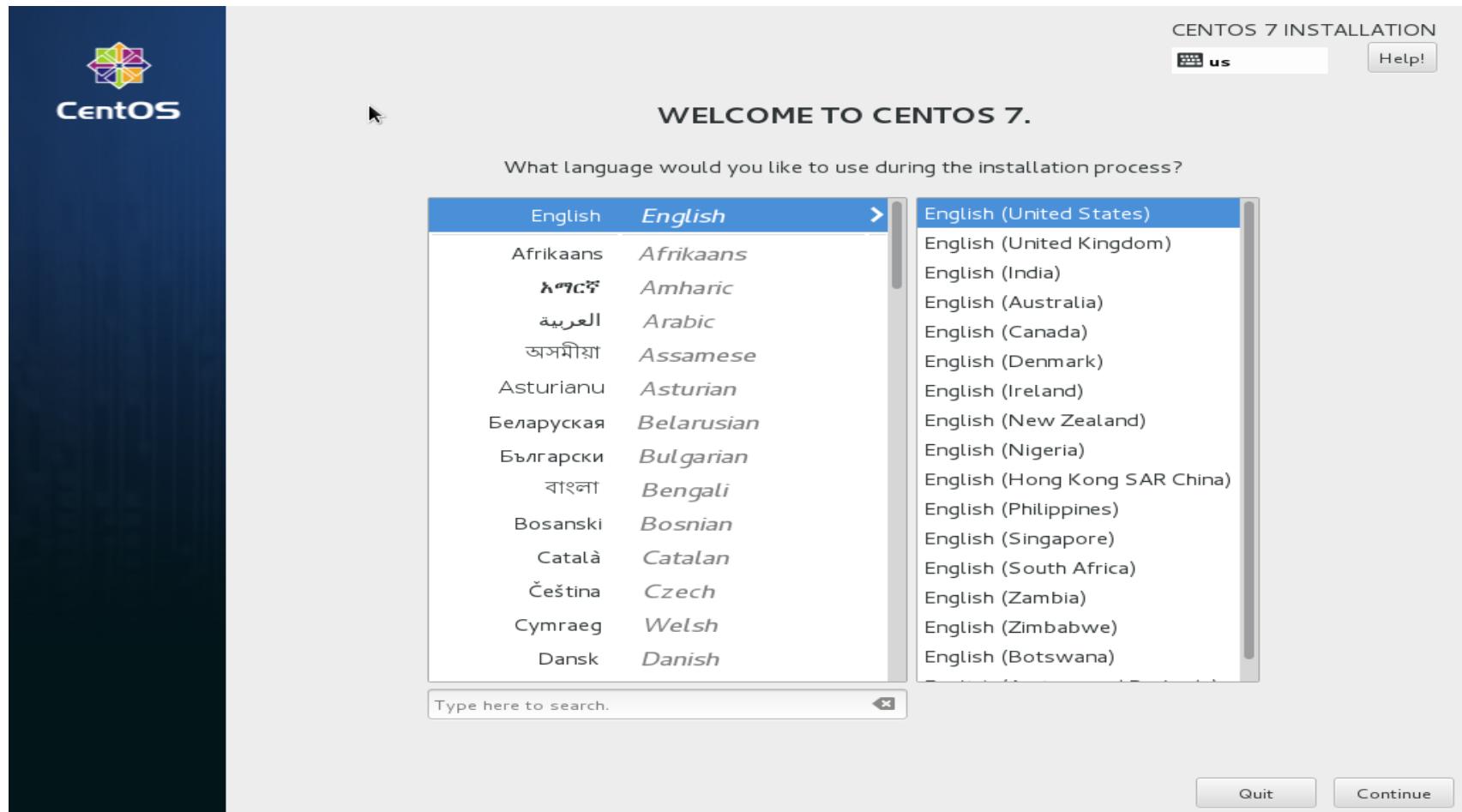
## 2. CentOS 7 installing

- The CentOS 7 website: <http://www.centos.org/>
- Starting the virtual machine for the first time.



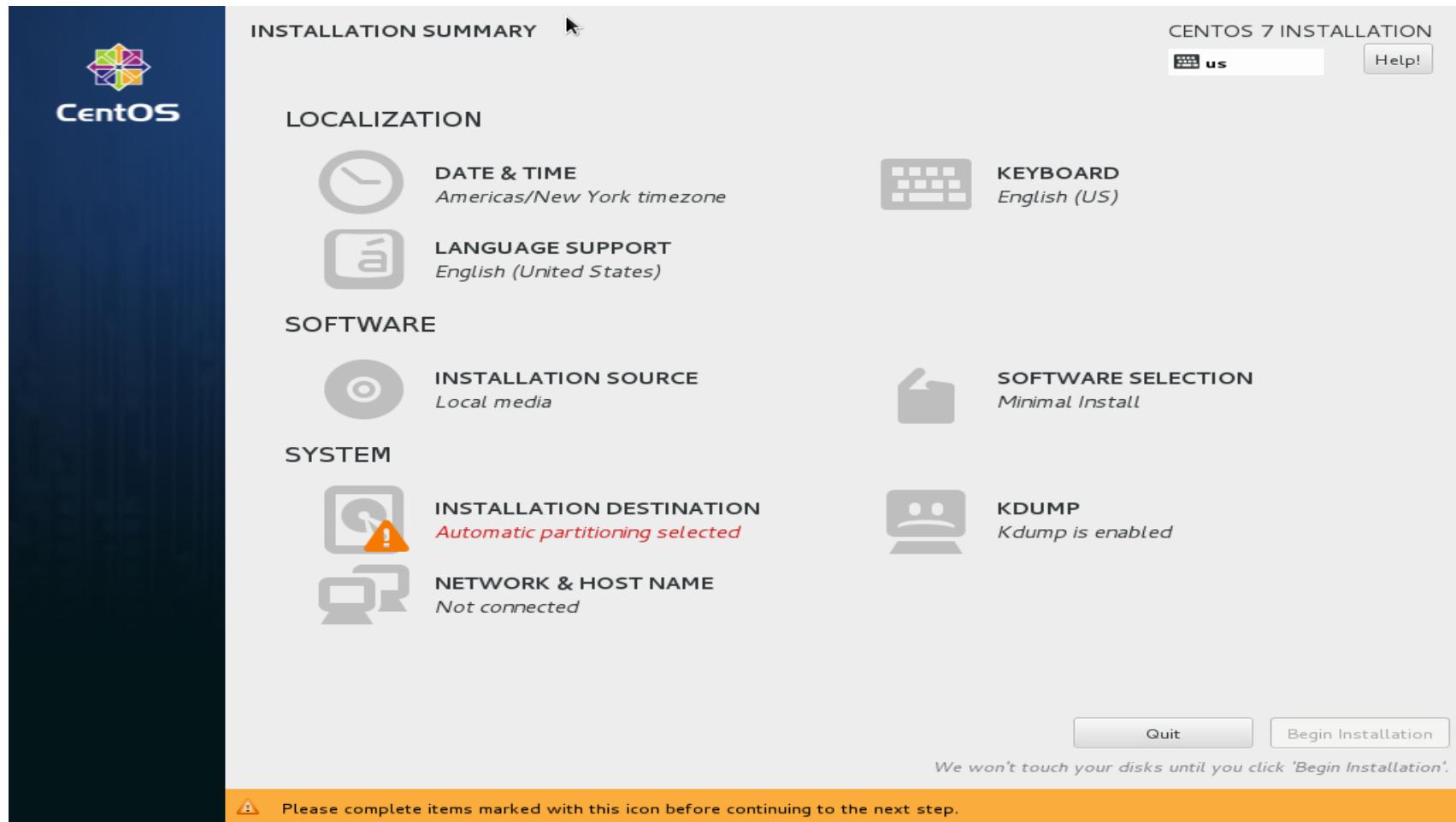
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Select the language and also select the keyboard.



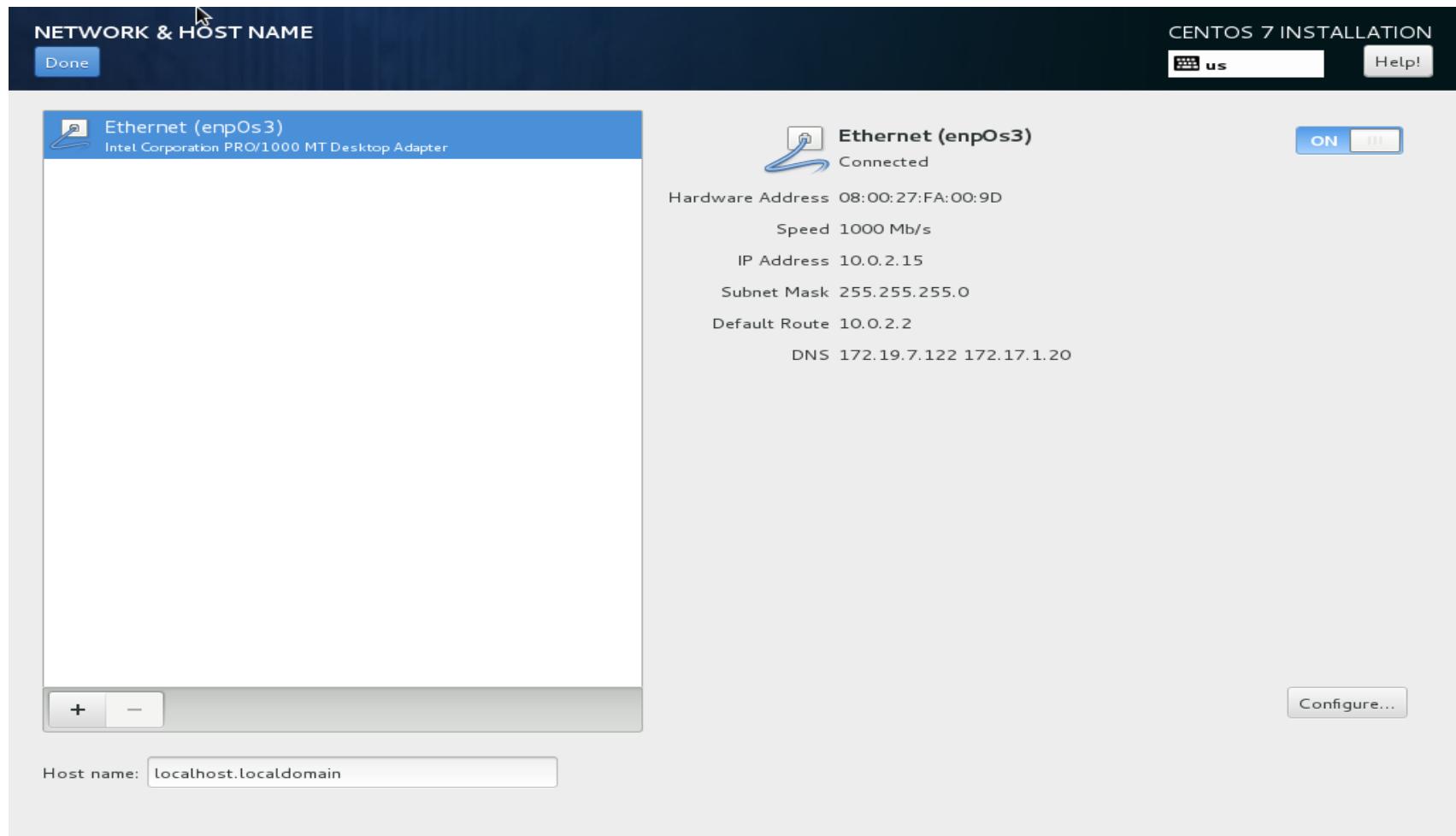
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- At a summary page (with one or more warnings).



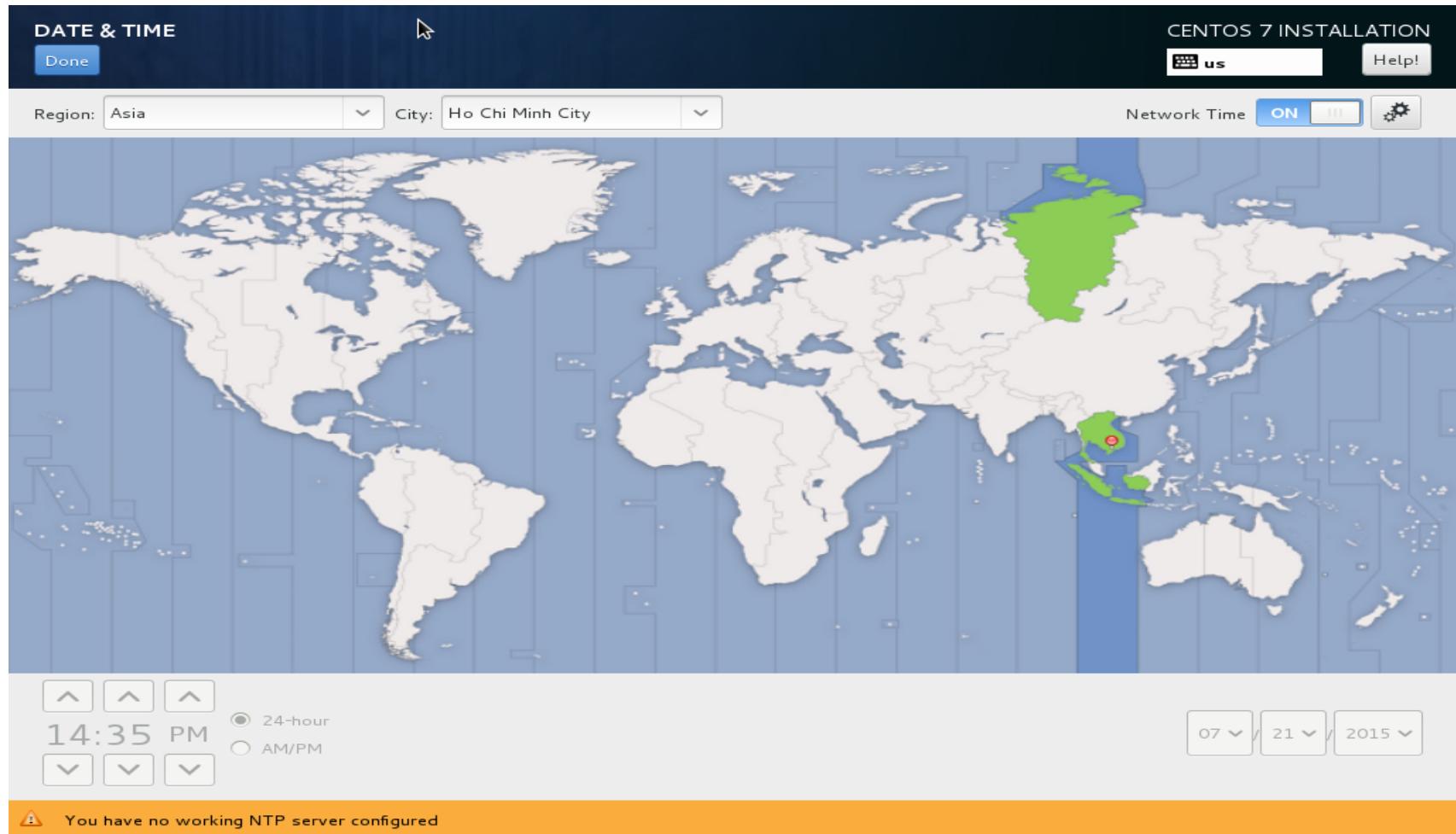
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Start by configuring the network.



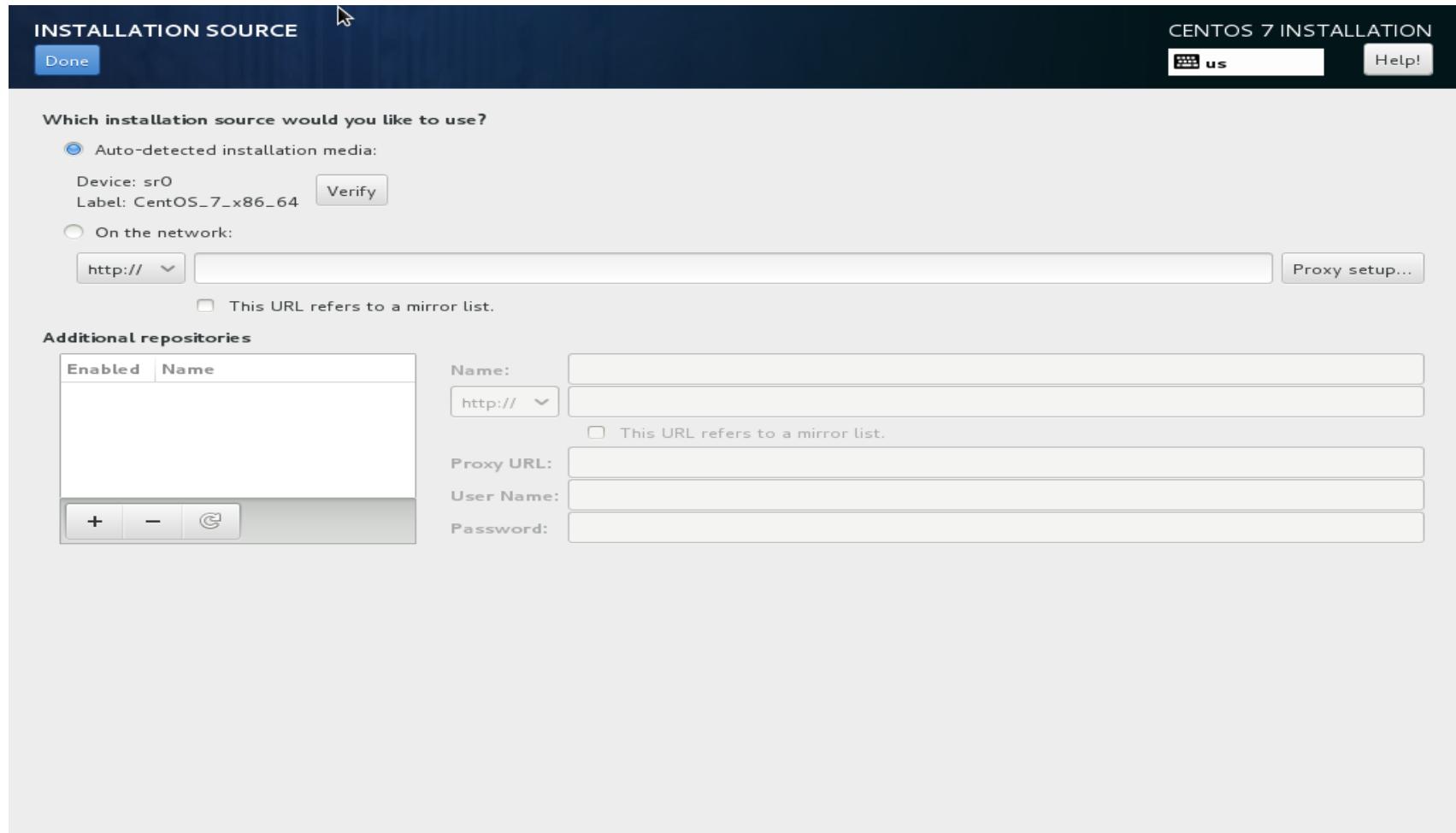
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Select your time zone, and activate ntp.



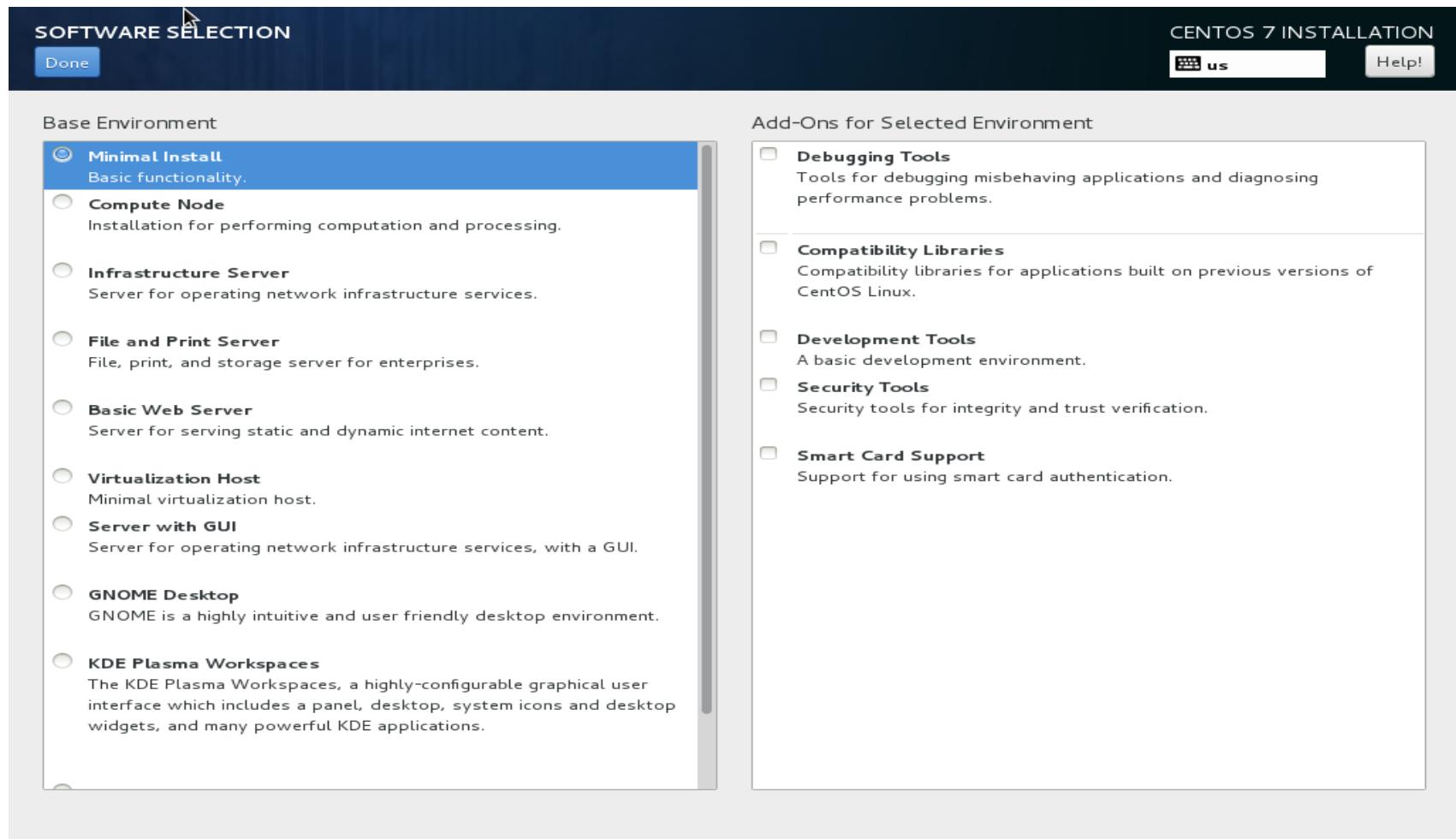
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Choose a mirror that is close to you.



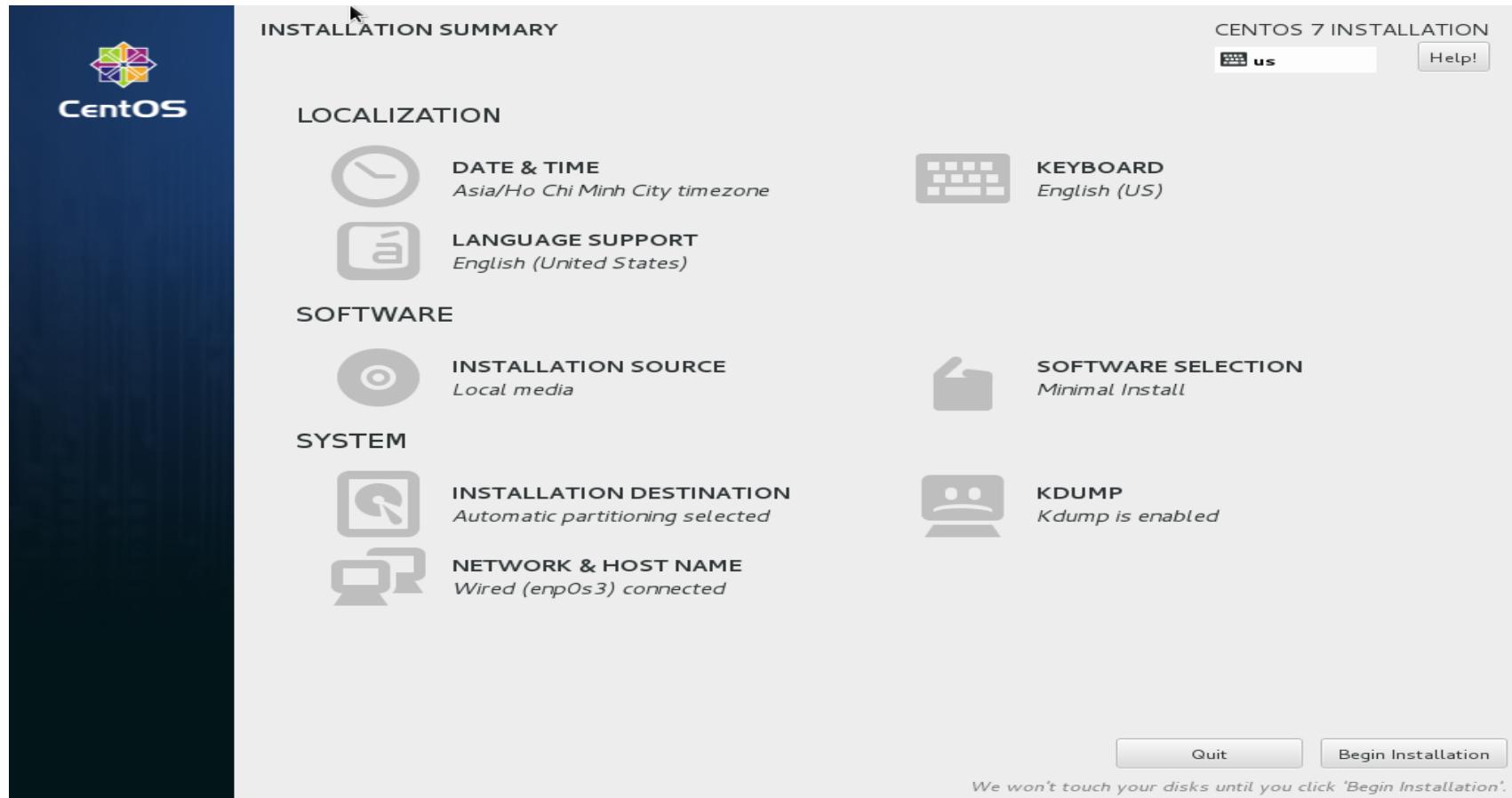
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Select softwares.



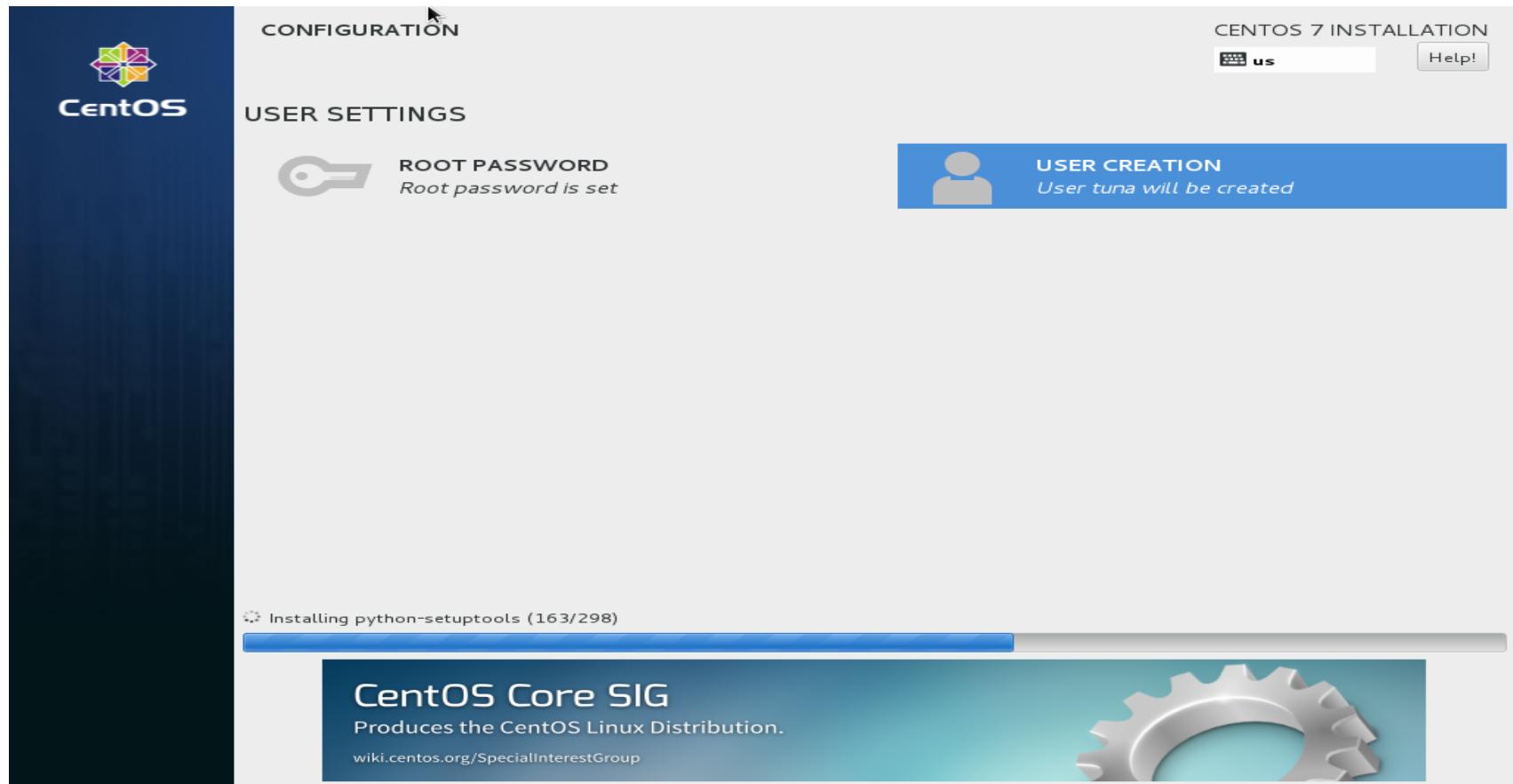
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- After configuring network, location, software and all, should be back on this page.



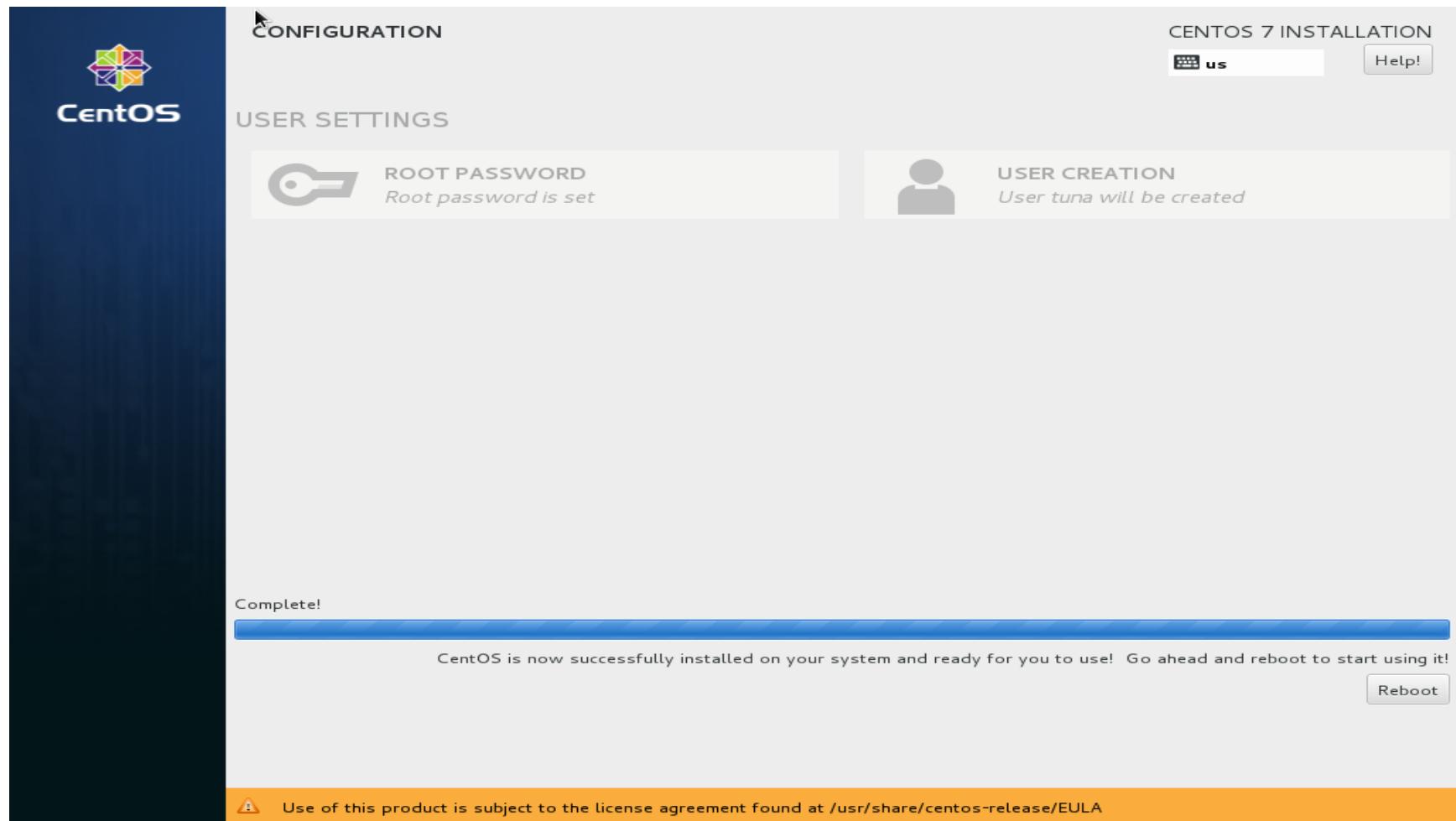
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Can enter a root password and create a user account while starting package installation process.



## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- The installation was successful.



## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

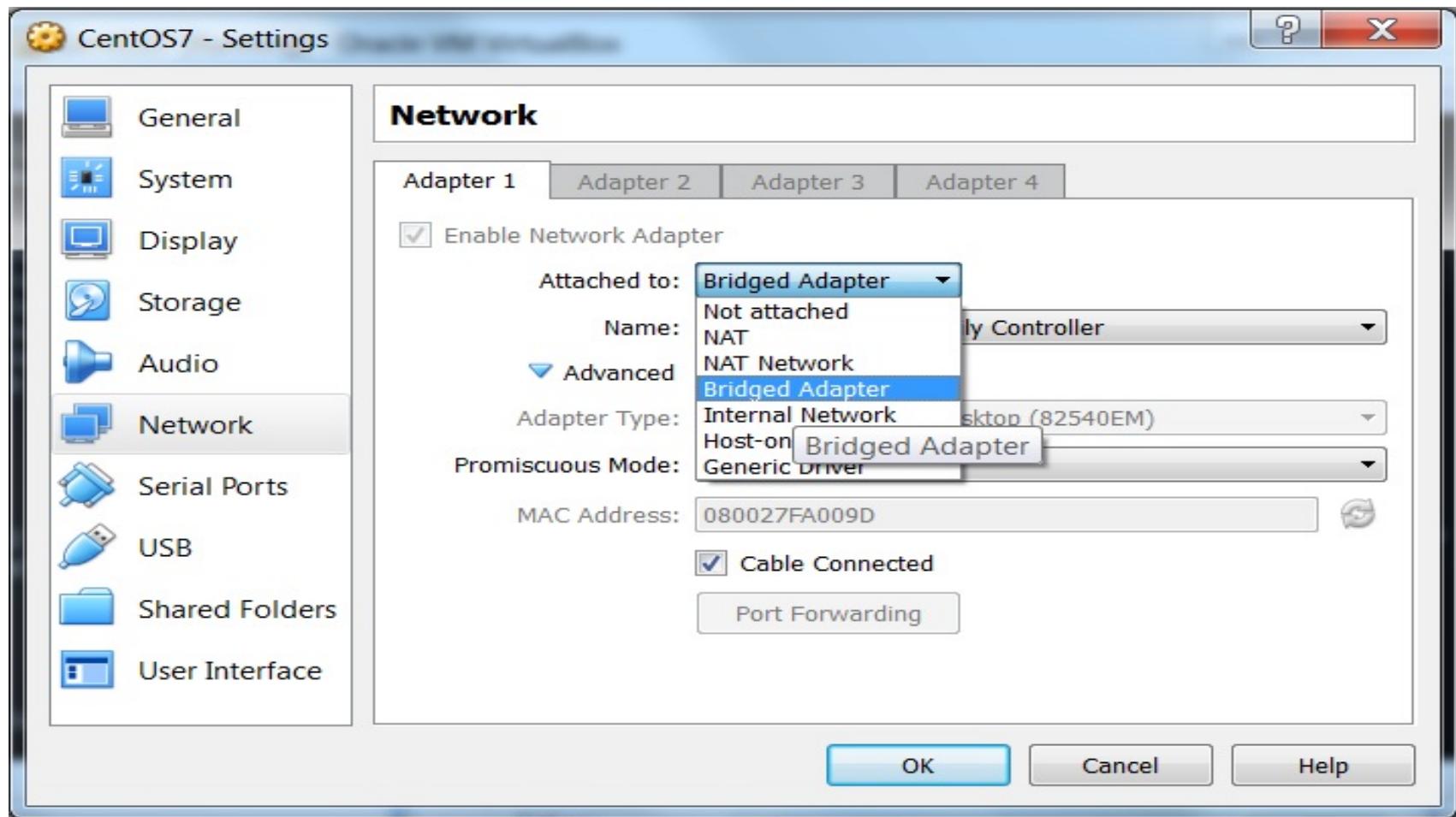
- CentOS 7 first logon.

```
CentOS Linux 7 (Core)
Kernel 3.10.0-229.el7.x86_64 on an x86_64

localhost login: _
```

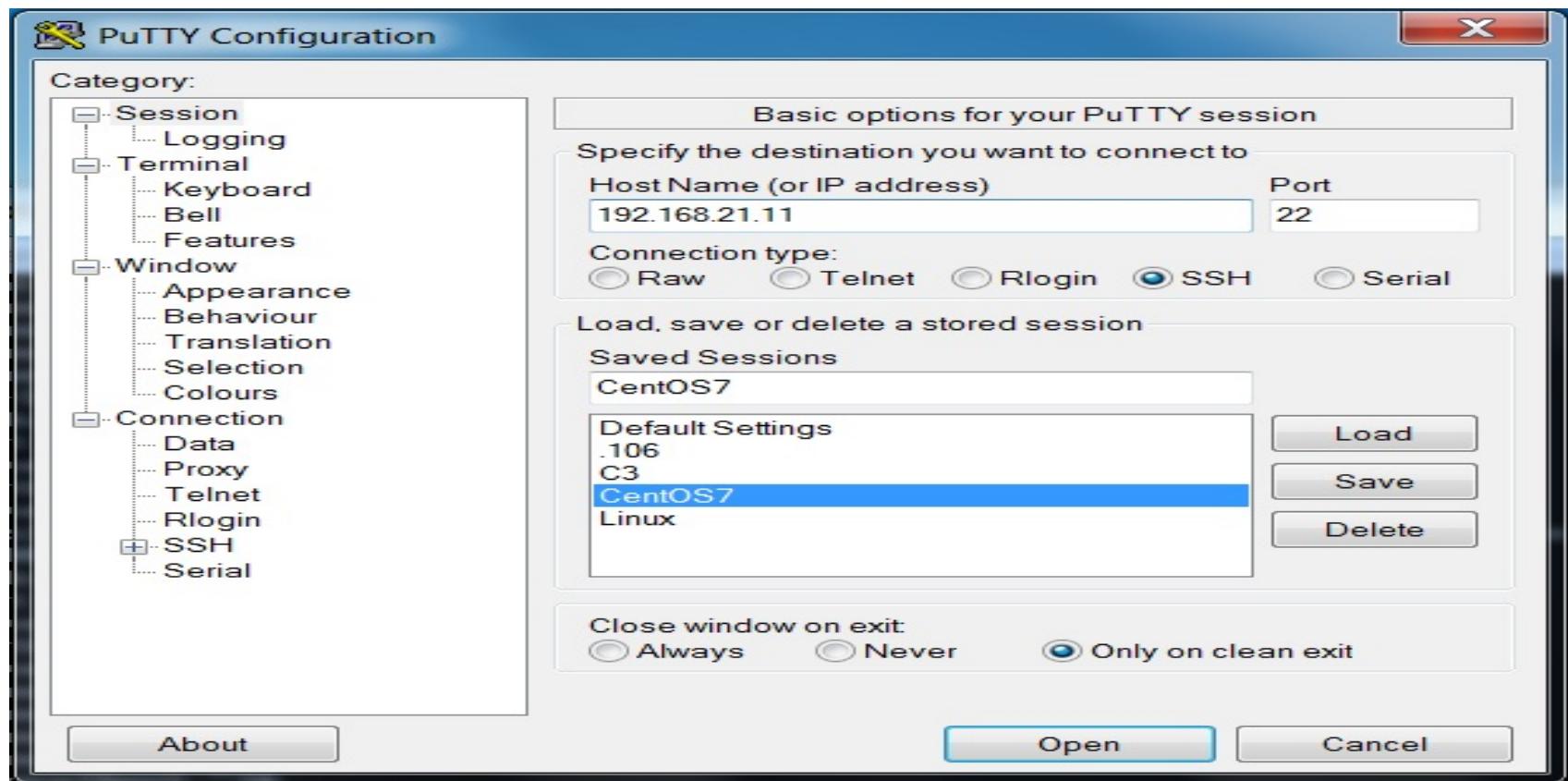
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Change Virtualbox network interface to bridge.



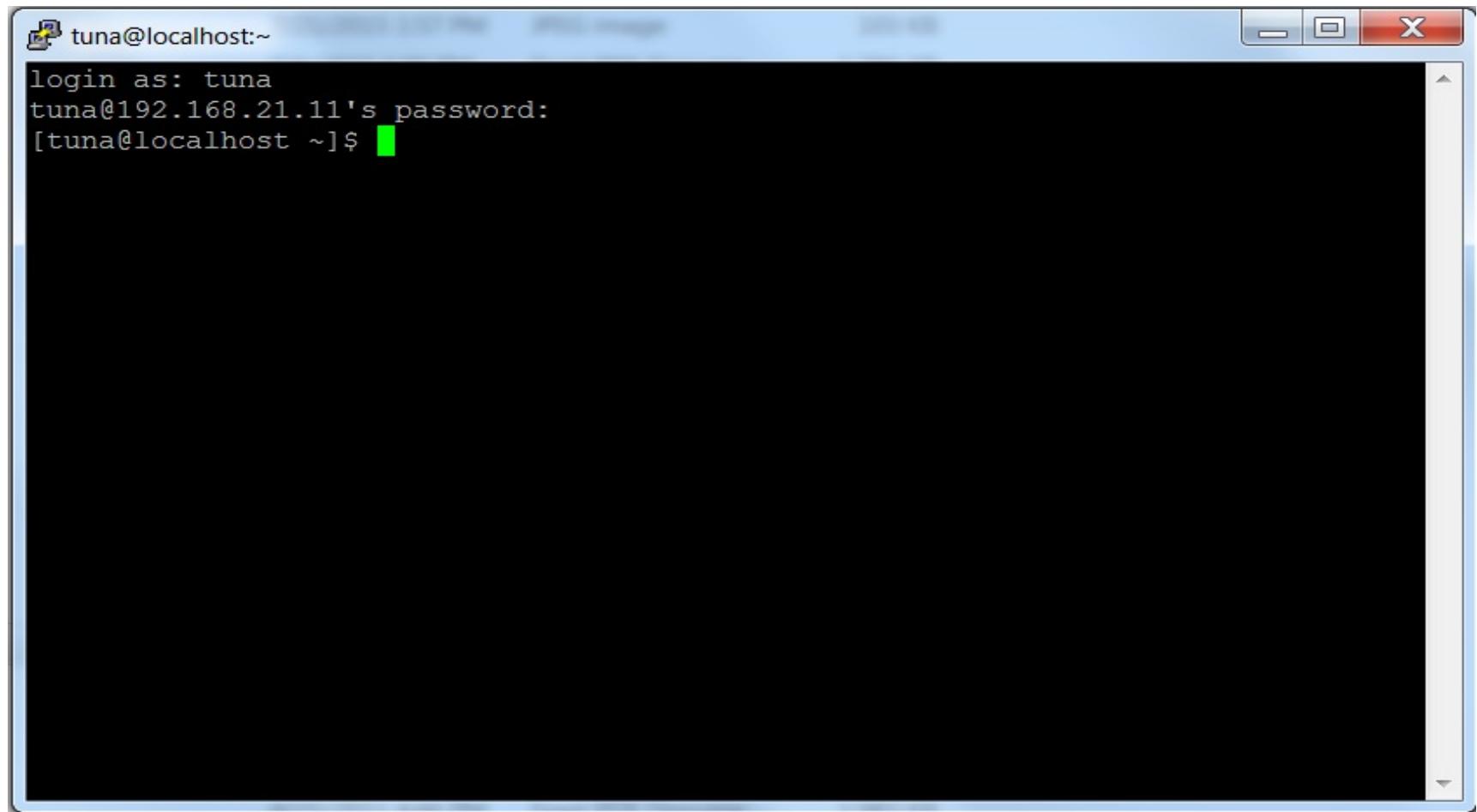
## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Logon from MS Windows
  - Download putty.exe from <http://www.putty.org/>



## 2. CentOS 7 installing (cont)

- Enter your userid (or root) and the correct password.



A screenshot of a terminal window titled "tuna@localhost:~". The window shows a login prompt:

```
login as: tuna
tuna@192.168.21.11's password:
[tuna@localhost ~]$
```

The password input field is highlighted with a green rectangular selection.

## III. First steps on the command line

---

1. man pages
2. Working with directories
3. Working with files
4. Working with file contents
5. The Linux file tree

# 1. man pages (also called manual pages)

---

- man \$command 
  - ✓ Type man followed by a command (for which you want to help) and start reading.
  - ✓ Press q to quit the manpage.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ man ls*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ man pwd*

- man \$configfile 
  - ✓ Most configuration files have their own manual.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ man yum.conf*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ man rsyslog.conf*

# 1. man pages (cont)

---

- **whatis**
  - ✓ To see just the description of a manual page, use whatis followed by a string.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ whatis route**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ whatis ps**

- **whereis**
  - ✓ The location of a manpage can be revealed with whereis.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ whereis ps**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ whereis ls**

## 2. Working with directories

---

- pwd
  - ✓ The “you are here sign” can be displayed with the pwd command (Print Working Directory).

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ pwd*

- cd
  - ✓ Can change the current directory with the cd command (Change Directory).

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cd /var/log/*

- ✓ cd ~
  - The cd is also a shortcut to get back into your home directory, typing cd ~ has the same effect.

## 2. Working with directories (cont)

---

- cd (cont)

- ✓ cd ..

To go to the parent directory, type cd ..

```
[tuna@localhost var]$ cd /var/log/
```

```
[tuna@localhost log]$ pwd
```

```
[tuna@localhost log]$ cd ..
```

```
[tuna@localhost var]$ pwd
```

- ✓ cd –

Another useful shortcut with cd is to just type cd - to go to the previous directory.

```
[tuna@localhost var]$ cd -
```

## 2. Working with directories (cont)

---

- Absolute and relative paths
  - ✓ When typing a path starting with a slash (/), then the root of the file tree is assumed.
  - ✓ If not start the path with a slash, then the current directory is the assumed starting point.

*[tuna@localhost log]\$ pwd*

*[tuna@localhost log]\$ cd home*

*[tuna@localhost log]\$ cd /home/*

*[tuna@localhost home]\$ pwd*

- path completion
  - ✓ The tab key can help typing a path without errors.

## 2. Working with directories (cont)

---

- **ls**

- ✓ List the contents of a directory with ls.

- ✓ ls -a

A frequently used option with ls is -a to show all files.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -a**

- ✓ ls -l

Typing ls -l gives you a long listing.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -l**

- ✓ ls -lh

It shows the numbers (file sizes) in a more human readable format.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -lh**

## 2. Working with directories (cont)

---

- **mkdir**

- ✓ Create your own directories with mkdir.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mkdir mydir**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cd mydir/**

- ✓ **mkdir –p**

- The following command will fail, because the parent directory of threedirsdeep does not exist.

***mkdir mydir2/mysubdir2/threedirsdeep***

- *When given the option -p, then mkdir will create parent directories as needed.*

***mkdir -p mydir2/mysubdir2/threedirsdeep***

## 2. Working with directories (cont)

---

- **rmdir**

- ✓ When a directory is empty, can use rmdir to remove the directory.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ rmdir mydir**

- ✓ **rmdir –p**

- And similar to the mkdir -p option, can also use rmdir to recursively remove directories.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mkdir -p test/subdir**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ rmdir -p test/subdir**

### 3. Working with files

---

- All files are case sensitive

- ✓ Files on Linux (or any Unix) are case sensitive

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat summer.txt**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat Summer.txt**

- Everything is a file

- ✓ A directory is a special kind of file, but it is still a (case sensitive!) file.
  - ✓ Each terminal window (for example /dev/pts/4), any hard disk or partition (for example /dev/sdb1) and any process are all represented somewhere in the file system as a file.

### 3. Working with files (cont)

---

- File

- ✓ Linux does not use extensions to determine the file type. The file utility determines the file type.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ file Downloads/3420.pdf**

- ✓ It is interesting to point out file -s for special files like those in /dev and /proc.

**[root@localhost ~]# file /dev/sda**

**[root@localhost ~]# file -s /dev/sda**

### 3. Working with files (cont)

---

- touch

- ✓ Create an empty file.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ touch test.txt temp.txt
```

- ✓ touch –t

- The touch command can set some properties while creating empty files.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ touch -t 200505051200 oldfile.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ll
```

### 3. Working with files (cont)

---

- rm

- ✓ Remove forever

- When no longer need a file, use rm to remove it.

- ✓ rm -i

- To prevent yourself from accidentally removing a file, type rm -i.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ rm -i temp.txt*

- ✓ rm -rf

- By default, rm -r will not remove non-empty directories.
    - The rm -rf statement is famous because it will erase anything.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ rm -rf test*

### 3. Working with files (cont)

---

- cp

- ✓ To copy a file, use cp with a source and a target argument.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cp temp.txt cptemp.txt**

- ✓ cp -r

To copy complete directories, use *cp -r*.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cp Downloads/ newdir**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cp -r Downloads/ newdir**

- ✓ Can also use cp to copy multiple files into a directory.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cp oldfile.txt temp.txt Summer.txt newdir/**

- ✓ cp -i

To prevent cp from overwriting existing files, use the *-i* option.

### 3. Working with files (cont)

---

- mv

- ✓ Rename files with mv

Use mv to rename a file or to move the file to another directory.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mv oldfile.txt newfile.txt**

- ✓ Rename directories with mv

The same mv command can be used to rename directories.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mv newdir olddir**

- ✓ mv -i

The mv also has a -i switch similar to cp and rm.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mv -i temp.txt Summer.txt**

## 4. Working with file contents

---

- head

- ✓ Use head to display the first ten lines of a file.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ head /etc/passwd**

- ✓ The head command can also display the first n lines of a file.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ head -5 /etc/passwd**

- ✓ And head can also display the first n bytes.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ head -c10 /etc/passwd**

- tail

- ✓ Similar to head, the tail command will display the last ten lines of a file.
  - ✓ And can give tail the number of lines that want to see.

## 4. Working with file contents (cont)

---

- cat

- ✓ The cat command is one of the most universal tools, yet all it does is copy standard input to standard output.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat /etc/resolv.conf
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# cat /var/log/messages
```

- ✓ Concatenate

One of the basic uses of cat is to concatenate files into a bigger (or complete) file.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat part1 part2 part3 > all
```

- ✓ Create files

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat > winter.txt
```

- *The Ctrl d key combination will send an EOF to the running process ending the cat command.*

## 4. Working with file contents (cont)

---

- cat (cont)

- ✓ Custom end marker

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat > hot.txt <<stop
```

- ✓ Copy files

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat hot.txt > summer.txt
```

- tac

- ✓ tac (cat backwards)

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat count
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ tac count
```

- more and less

- ✓ Displaying files that more than one screen.

## 5. The Linux file tree

- The root directory /
  - ✓ All Linux systems have a directory structure that starts at the root directory.
  - ✓ The root directory is represented by a forward slash, like this: /.
- [tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls /  
**bin dev home lib64 mnt proc run srv tmp var  
boot etc lib media opt root sbin sys usr**
- Binary directories
  - ✓ Binaries are files that contain compiled source code (or machine code)
  - ✓ Binaries can be executed on the computer
  - ✓ Sometimes binaries are called executables.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- Binary directories (cont)
  - ✓ /bin
    - The /bin directory contains binaries for use by all users  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls /bin*
  - ✓ Other /bin directories
    - Can find a /bin subdirectory in many other directories. A user named tuna could put his own programs in /home/tuna/bin.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- Binary directories (cont)

- ✓ /sbin
  - /sbin contains binaries to configure the operating system

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -l /sbin/ifconfig /sbin/fdisk**

- ✓ /lib
  - Binaries found in /bin and /sbin often use shared libraries located in /lib

- ✓ /lib32 and /lib64
  - We are currently in a transition between 32-bit and 64-bit.

- ✓ /opt
  - The purpose of /opt is to store optional software.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- Configuration directories
  - ✓ /boot
    - The /boot directory contains all files needed to boot the computer.
  - ✓ /etc
    - All of the machine-specific configuration files should be located in /etc ( Editable Text Configuration).
  - ✓ /etc/init.d/
    - A lot of Unix/Linux distributions have an /etc/init.d directory that contains scripts to start and stop daemons.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- Configuration directories (cont)
  - ✓ /etc/X11/
    - The graphical display (aka X Window System or just X) is driven by software from the X.org foundation.
  - ✓ /etc/skel/
    - The skeleton directory /etc/skel is copied to the home directory of a newly created user. It usually contains hidden files like a .bashrc script.
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/
    - This directory contains a lot of Red Hat Enterprise Linux configuration files.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- Data directories

- ✓ /home

- Users can store personal or project data under /home.

- ✓ /root

- On many systems /root is the default location for personal data and profile of the root user.

- ✓ /srv

- You may use /srv for data that is served by your system.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- Data directories (cont)
  - ✓ /media
    - The /media directory serves as a mount point for removable media devices such as CD-ROM's, digital cameras, and various usb-attached devices.
  - ✓ /mnt
    - The /mnt directory should be empty and should only be used for temporary mount points.
  - ✓ /tmp
    - Applications and users should use /tmp to store temporary data when needed.
    - Data stored in /tmp may use either disk space or RAM. Both of which are managed by the operating system.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- In memory directories
  - ✓ /dev
    - The /dev directory is populated with files as the kernel is recognizing hardware.
  - ✓ /proc conversation with the kernel
    - /proc is another special directory, appearing to be ordinary files, but not taking up disk space. It is actually a view of the kernel, or better, what the kernel manages, and is a means to interact with it directly. /proc is a proc filesystem.
  - ✓ /sys Linux 2.6 hot plugging
    - Linux uses sysfs to support usb and IEEE 1394 (FireWire) hot plug devices.
    - Basically the /sys directory contains kernel information about hardware.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- /usr Unix System Resources

- ✓ The /usr hierarchy should contain shareable, read only data.

- ✓ /usr/bin

- The /usr/bin directory contains a lot of commands.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls /usr/bin | wc -l*

- ✓ /usr/include

- The /usr/include directory contains general use include files for C.

- ✓ /usr/lib

- The /usr/lib directory contains libraries that are not directly executed by users or scripts.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- /usr Unix System Resources (cont)
  - ✓ /usr/local
    - The /usr/local directory can be used by an administrator to install software locally.
  - ✓ /usr/share
    - The /usr/share directory contains architecture independent data. As you can see, this is a fairly large directory.
  - ✓ /usr/src
    - The /usr/src directory is the recommended location for kernel source files.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- /var variable data
  - ✓ /var/log
    - The /var/log directory serves as a central point to contain all log files.
  - ✓ /var/log/messages
    - A typical first file to check when troubleshooting on Red Hat (and derivatives) is the /var/log/messages file. By default this file will contain information on what just happened to the system.
    - The file is called /var/log/syslog on Debian and Ubuntu.

## 5. The Linux file tree (cont)

---

- /var variable data (cont)
  - ✓ /var/cache
    - The /var/cache directory can contain cache data for several applications.
  - ✓ /var/spool
    - The /var/spool directory typically contains spool directories for mail and cron, but also serves as a parent directory for other spool files (for example print spool files).
  - ✓ /var/lib
    - The /var/lib directory contains application state information.

## IV. Shell expansion

---

1. Commands and arguments
2. Control operators
3. Shell variables
4. Shell history
5. File globing

# 1. Commands and arguments

---

- Arguments
  - ✓ One of the primary features of a shell is to perform a command line scan, cutting it up in arguments.
- White space removal
  - ✓ Parts that are separated by one or more consecutive white spaces (or tabs) are considered separate arguments
  - ✓ Any white space is removed.  
`[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo Hello World`  
`[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo Hello World`
- Single quotes
  - ✓ Prevent the removal of white spaces by quoting the spaces.

# 1. Commands and arguments (cont)

---

- Double quotes
  - ✓ Prevent the removal of white spaces by double quoting the spaces.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo 'A line with single quotes'**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo "A line with double quotes"**

- echo and quotes
  - ✓ Quoted lines can include special escaped characters recognised by the echo command (when using echo -e).

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo -e 'A line with \n a newline'**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo -e "A line with \t a tab"**

# 1. Commands and arguments (cont)

---

- Commands
  - ✓ External or built-in commands?
    - Not all commands are external to the shell, some are builtin.
  - ✓ type
    - To find out whether an external command or a built-in command.  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ type cd ps ls*
  - ✓ which
    - The which command will search for binaries in the \$PATH environment variable.  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ which cp ls cd mkdir pwd*

# 1. Commands and arguments (cont)

---

- Aliases

- ✓ Used to create an easier to remember name for an existing command or to easily supply parameters.
- ✓ Create an alias

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ alias dog=tac  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ dog count.txt
```

- ✓ Default options

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ alias rm='rm -i'  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ rm winter.txt
```

- ✓ Viewing aliases

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ alias  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ alias dog rm
```

# 1. Commands and arguments (cont)

---

- Unalias
  - ✓ Undo an alias with the unalias command.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ type rm
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ unalias rm
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ type rm
```

## 2. Control operators

---

- ; semicolon
  - ✓ Put two or more commands on the same line separated by a semicolon ;  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo Hello ; echo World*
- & ampersand
  - ✓ When a line ends with an ampersand &, the command is executed in background  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ sleep 20 &*

## 2. Control operators (cont)

---

- \$? dollar question mark
  - ✓ The exit code of the previous command is stored in the shell variable \$.  
\$?.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ touch file
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo $?
```

```
0
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ rm file
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo $?
```

```
0
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ rm file
```

```
rm: cannot remove ‘file’: No such file or directory
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo $?
```

```
1
```

## 2. Control operators (cont)

---

- && double ampersand
  - ✓ The shell will interpret && as a logical AND
  - ✓ When using && the second command is executed only if the first one succeeds.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo first && echo second**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ zecho first && echo second**

- || double vertical bar
  - ✓ The || represents a logical OR
  - ✓ The second command is executed only when the first command fails

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo first || echo second ; echo third**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ zecho first || echo second ; echo third**

## 2. Control operators (cont)

---

- combining && and ||
  - ✓ Use this logical AND and logical OR to write an if-then-else structure on the command line.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ touch file*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ rm file && echo It worked! || echo It failed!*  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ rm file && echo It worked! || echo It failed!*

- # pound sign

Everything written after a pound sign (#) is ignored by the shell.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mkdir test # we create a directory*

## 2. Control operators (cont)

---

- \ escaping special characters
  - ✓ The backslash \ character enables the use of control characters, but without the shell interpreting it, this is called escaping characters.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo escaping \\#\\&\\\"\\'*

- End of line backslash
  - ✓ Lines ending in a backslash are continued on the next line.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo This command line \  
> is splitted in three \  
> parts*

### 3. shell variables

---

- \$ dollar sign
  - ✓ Another important character interpreted by the shell is the dollar sign \$.
  - ✓ The shell will look for an environment variable named like the string following the dollar sign and replace it with the value of the variable.
  - ✓ Some examples using \$HOSTNAME, \$USER, \$UID, \$SHELL, and \$HOME.

*[tuna@localhost~]\$ echo This is \$SHELL on computer \$HOSTNAME*

#### Creating variables

- ✓ This example creates the variable \$MyVar and sets its value.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ MyVar=555*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \$MyVar*

### 3. Shell variables (cont)

---

- Quotes
  - ✓ Notice that double quotes still allow the parsing of variables, whereas single quotes prevent this.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ **city=Hochimin**

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo "I live in \$city now"

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo 'I live in \$city now'

- set
  - ✓ Use the set command to display a list of environment variables.
- unset
  - ✓ Use the unset command to remove a variable from your shell environment.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ **unset MyVar**

### 3. Shell variables (cont)

---

- \$PATH

- ✓ The \$PATH variable is determines where the shell is looking for commands to execute (unless the command is builtin or aliased).
- ✓ This variable contains a list of directories, separated by colons.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \$PATH*

- ✓ The shell will not look in the current directory for commands to execute!
- ✓ If you want the shell to look in the current directory, then add a . at the end of your \$PATH.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ PATH=\$PATH:.*

## 4. Shell history

---

- Repeating the last command
  - ✓ To repeat the last command in bash, type !!. This is pronounced as bang bang.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -a

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ !!

- Repeating other commands

- ✓ You can repeat other commands using one bang followed by one or more characters.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ !!

ls -a

## 4. Shell history (cont)

---

- History
  - ✓ To see older commands, use history to display the shell command history (or use history n to see the last n commands).  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ history 10*
- !n
  - ✓ When typing ! followed by the number preceding the command you want repeated, then the shell will echo the command and execute it.  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ !15*
- Ctrl-r
  - ✓ Another option is to use ctrl-r to search in the history.

## 4. Shell history (cont)

---

- **\$HISTSIZE**

- ✓ The \$HISTSIZE variable determines the number of commands that will be remembered in your current environment.
- ✓ Most distributions default this variable to 500 or 1000.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \$HISTSIZE*

- ✓ You can change it to any value you like.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ HISTSIZE=15000*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \$HISTSIZE*

## 5. File globing

---

- \* asterisk
  - ✓ The asterisk \* is interpreted by the shell as a sign to generate filenames, matching the asterisk to any combination of characters (even none).
  - ✓ When no path is given, the shell will use filenames in the current directory.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ touch fileA fileB fileC fileD fileE fileAB**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls file\***

- ? question mark
  - ✓ Similar to the asterisk, the question mark ? is interpreted by the shell as a sign to generate filenames, matching the question mark with exactly one character.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls file?**

## 5. File globing (cont)

- [] square brackets

- ✓ The [] is interpreted by the shell as a sign to generate filenames, matching any of the characters between [ and the first subsequent ]
- ✓ The order in this list between the brackets is not important
- ✓ Each pair of brackets is replaced by exactly one character.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ touch file1 file2 file3 File4 File55 FileA  
fileab Fileab FileAB fileabc
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls File[5A]
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls File[A5]
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls File[A5][5b]
```

- ✓ Can also exclude characters from a list between square brackets with the exclamation mark !. And you are allowed to make combinations of these wild cards.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls file[!5]*
```

## 5. File globing (cont)

---

- a-z and 0-9 ranges
  - ✓ The bash shell will also understand ranges of characters between brackets.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls file[a-z]\*

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls file[0-9]

- preventing file globing
  - ✓ Globbing can be prevented using quotes or by escaping the special characters

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \*

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \\*

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \"\*\"

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ echo \"\*\""

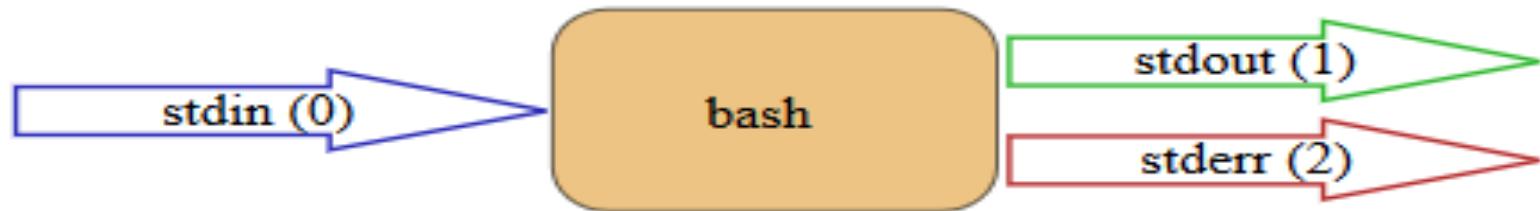
## V. Pipes and commands

---

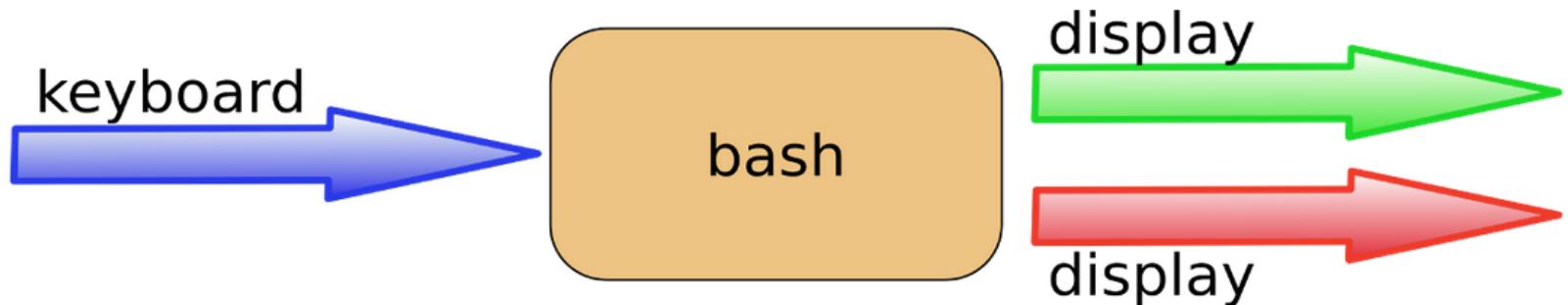
1. I/O redirection
2. Filters
3. Basic Unix tools
4. Regular expressions

# 1. I/O redirection

- `stdin`, `stdout`, and `stderr`
  - ✓ The bash shell has three basic streams; it takes input from `stdin` (stream 0), it sends output to `stdout` (stream 1) and it sends error messages to `stderr` (stream 2).



- ✓ The keyboard often serves as `stdin`, whereas `stdout` and `stderr` both go to the display.

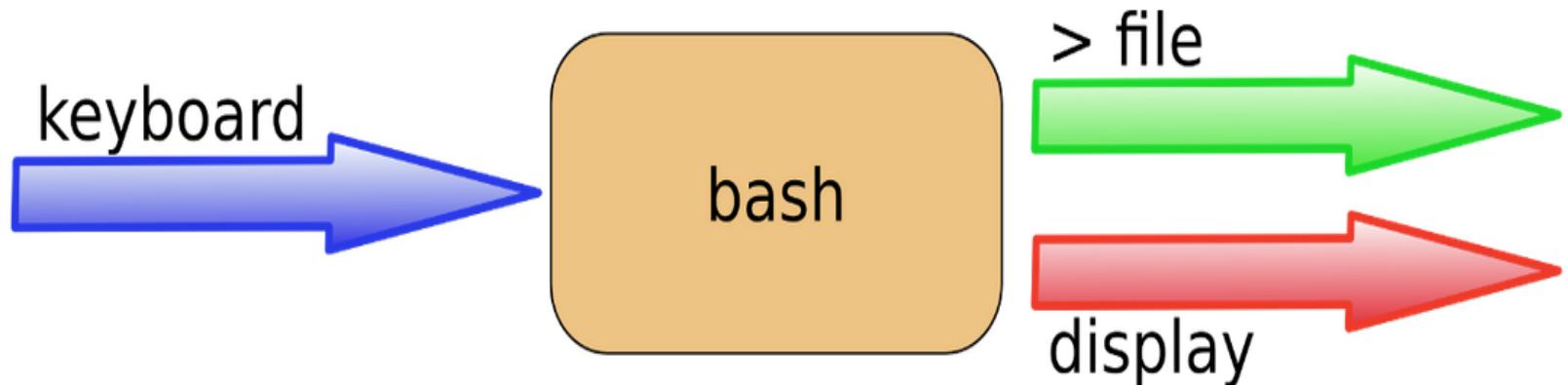


# 1. I/O redirection (cont)

- Output redirection

- ✓ > stdout

- stdout can be redirected with a greater than sign.



- The > notation is in fact the abbreviation of 1> (stdout being referred to as stream 1).

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo It is hot today > summer.txt
```

# 1. I/O redirection (cont)

- Output redirection (cont)
  - ✓ Output file is erased
    - While scanning the line, the shell will see the > sign and will clear the file!

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat summer.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ zecho It is hot today > summer.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat summer.txt
```

- ✓ noclobber
  - Erasing a file while using > can be prevented by setting the noclobber option.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ set -o noclobber
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo It is hot today > summer.txt
```

- The noclobber can be overruled with >|.

# 1. I/O redirection (cont)

- Output redirection (cont)

- ✓ >> append

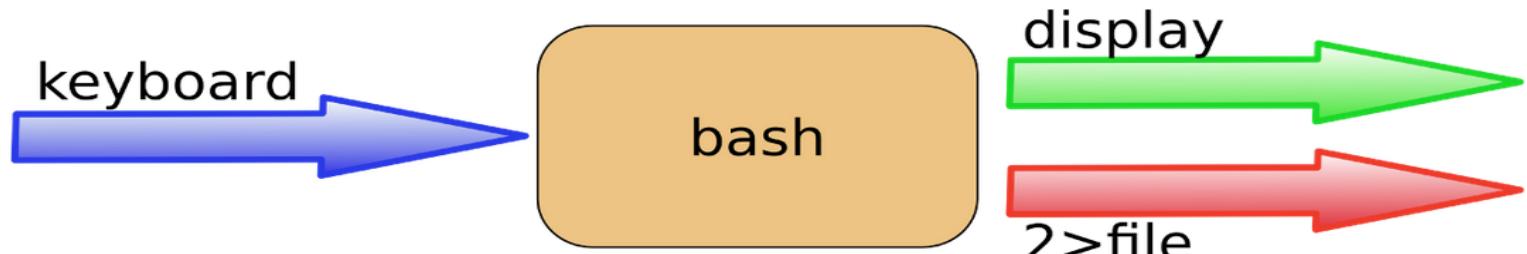
- Use >> to append output to a file.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo Where is the autumn? >> summer.txt
```

- Error redirection

- ✓ 2> stderr

- Redirecting stderr is done with 2>



```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ zecho error >> summer.txt 2> error.txt
```

## 2. Filters

---

- grep
  - ✓ The grep filter is famous among Unix users.
  - ✓ The most common use of grep is to filter lines of text containing (or not containing) a certain string.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat tennis.txt**

*Amelie Mauresmo, Fra*

*Kim Clijsters, BEL*

*Justine Henin, bel*

*Serena Williams, usa*

*Venus Williams, USA*

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat tennis.txt | grep Williams**

- ✓ You can write this without the cat.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep Williams tennis.txt**

## 2. Filters (cont)

---

- grep (cont)

- ✓ One of the most useful options of grep is grep -i which filters in a case insensitive way.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep usa tennis.txt

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep -i usa tennis.txt

- ✓ Another very useful option is grep -v which outputs lines not matching the string.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep -v Fra tennis.txt

- ✓ And of course, both options can be combined to filter all lines not containing a case insensitive string.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep -vi usa tennis.txt

## 2. Filters (cont)

---

- cut

- ✓ The cut filter can select columns from files, depending on a delimiter or a count of bytes.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cut -d: -f1,3 /etc/passwd | tail -5
```

- ✓ This example uses cut to display the second to the seventh character of /etc/passwd.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cut -c2-7 /etc/passwd | tail -5
```

- tr

- ✓ You can translate characters with tr.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat tennis.txt | tr 'e' 'E'
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat tennis.txt | tr 'a-z' 'A-Z'
```

## 2. Filters (cont)

---

- WC

- ✓ Counting lines, words and characters is easy with wc.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ wc tennis.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ wc -l tennis.txt
```

- sort

- ✓ The sort filter will default to an alphabetical sort.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat music.txt
```

Queen

Brel

Queen

Abba

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ sort music.txt
```

- ✓ With uniq you can remove duplicates from a sorted list.

### 3. Basic Unix tools

---

- find

- ✓ The find command can be very useful at the start of a pipe to search for files. Here are some examples.

- Find all files in /etc and put the list in etcfiles.txt

**[root@localhost ~]# find /etc > etcfiles.txt**

- Find all files of the entire system and put the list in allfiles.txt

**[root@localhost ~]# find / > allfiles.txt**

- Find files that end in .conf in the current and subdirs.

**[root@localhost etc]# find . -name "\*.conf"**

- Find files that are newer than file42.txt

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ find . -newer File55**

### 3. Basic Unix tools (cont)

---

- locate

- ✓ The locate tool is very different from find in that it uses an index to locate files.
- ✓ This is a lot faster than traversing all the directories, but it also means that it is always outdated.
- ✓ If the index does not exist yet, then have to create it (as root) with the updatedb command.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ locate test_locate
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# updatedb
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ locate test_locate
```

- date

- ✓ The date command can display the date, time, time zone and more.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ date
```

### 3. Basic Unix tools (cont)

---

- cal

- ✓ The cal command displays the current month, with the current day highlighted.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cal*

- ✓ can select any month in the past or the future.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cal 1 1900*

- sleep

- ✓ The sleep command is sometimes used in scripts to wait a number of seconds.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ sleep 5*

### 3. Basic Unix tools (cont)

---

- gzip – gunzip
  - The gzip command can make files take up less space.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls -lh tennis.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ gzip tennis.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls -lh tennis.txt.gz
```

- You can get the original back with gunzip.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ gunzip tennis.txt.gz
```

- zcat – zmore
  - Text files that are compressed with gzip can be viewed with zcat and zmore.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ head -3 tennis.txt
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ zcat tennis.txt.gz | head -3
```

### 3. Basic Unix tools (cont)

---

- bzip2 - bunzip2
  - Files can also be compressed with bzip2 (better than gzip)

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -lh tennis.txt*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ bzip2 tennis.txt*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -lh tennis.txt.bz2*

- Files can be uncompressed again with bunzip2.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ bunzip2 tennis.txt.bz2*

- bzcat - bzmore
  - And in the same way bzcat and bzmore can display files compressed with bzip2.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ bzcat tennis.txt.bz2 | head -3*

## 4. Regular expressions

---

- Regular expressions are a very powerful tool in Linux.
- They can be used with a variety of programs like bash, vi, rename, grep, sed, and more.
- grep
  - ✓ grep is a popular Linux tool to search for lines that match a certain pattern.
  - ✓ Print lines matching a pattern

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat names**

*Tania*

*Laura*

*Valentina*

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep u names**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep e names**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep i names**

## 4. Regular expressions (cont)

- grep (cont)
  - ✓ Concatenating characters
    - Two concatenated characters will have to be concatenated in the same way to have a match.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep ia names*  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep in names*

- ✓ Match the end of a string
  - Use the dollar character to match the end of a string.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep ra\$ names*

- ✓ Match the start of a string
  - The caret character (^) to match the start of a line.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep ^T names*

## 4. Regular expressions (cont)

---

- Separating words

- ✓ Regular expressions use a \b sequence to reference a word separator.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat text**

*The governer is governing.*

*The winter is over.*

*Can you get over there?*

- ✓ Simply grepping for over will give too many results.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep over text**

- ✓ Use \b to find only the searched word:

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ grep '\bover\b' text**

- ✓ grep also has a -w option to grep for words.

## **VI. vi**

---

### Introduction to vi(m)

# Introduction to vi(m)

- Command mode and insert mode
  - ✓ The vi editor starts in command mode. In command mode, can type commands. Some commands will bring us into insert mode.
  - ✓ In insert mode, can type text. The escape key will return you to command mode.

Key	Action
Esc	set vi(m) in command mode.

## Introduction to vi (cont)

- Start typing (a A i l o O)
  - ✓ The difference between a A i l o and O is the location where you can start typing.

Command	Action
a	start typing after the current character
A	start typing at the end of the current line
i	start typing before the current character
I	start typing at the start of the current line
o	start typing on a new line after the current line
O	start typing on a new line before the current line

## Introduction to vi (cont)

---

- Replace and delete a character (r x X)

Command	Action
x	delete the character below the cursor
X	delete the character before the cursor
r	replace the character below the cursor
p	paste after the cursor (here the last deleted character)
xp	switch two characters

- Undo and repeat (u .)

Command	Action
u	undo the last action
.	repeat the last action

## Introduction to vi (cont)

- Cut, copy and paste a line (dd yy p P)

Command	Action
dd	cut the current line
yy	(yank yank) copy the current line
p	paste after the current line
P	paste before the current line

- cut, copy and paste lines (3dd 2yy)

Command	Action
3dd	cut three lines
2yy	copy four lines

## Introduction to vi (cont)

---

- Start and end of a line (0 or ^ and \$)

Command	Action
0	jump to start of current line
^	jump to start of current line
\$	jump to end of current line
d0	delete until start of line
d\$	delete until end of line

- Join two lines (J) and more

Command	Action
J	join two lines
yyp	duplicate a line
ddp	switch two lines

## Introduction to vi (cont)

- Words (w b)

Command	Action
w	forward one word
b	back one word
3w	forward three words
dw	delete one word
yw	yank (copy) one word
5yb	yank five words back
7dw	delete seven words

## Introduction to vi (cont)

- Save (or not) and exit (:w :q :q! )

command	action
:w	save (write)
:w fname	save as fname
:q	quit
:wq	save and quit
ZZ	save and quit
:q!	quit (discarding your changes)
:w!	save (and write to non-writable file!)

## Introduction to vi (cont)

- Searching (/ ?)

Command	Action
/string	forward search for string
?string	backward search for string
n	go to next occurrence of search string
/^string	forward search string at beginning of line
/string\$	forward search string at end of line
/br[aeio]l	search for bral brel bril and brol
\<he\>	search for the word he (and not for here or the)

## Introduction to vi (cont)

---

- Replace all ( :1,\$ s/foo/bar/g )

Command	Action
:4,8 s/foo/bar/g	replace foo with bar on lines 4 to 8
:1,\$ s/foo/bar/g	replace foo with bar on all lines

- Reading files (:r :r !cmd)

Command	Action
:r fname	(read) file fname and paste contents
:r !cmd	execute cmd and paste its output

- Text buffers

Command	Action
"add	delete current line and put text in buffer a
"g7yy	copy seven lines into buffer g
"ap	paste from buffer a

# Introduction to vi (cont)

---

- Multiple files

Command	Action
vi file1 file2 file3	start editing three files
:args	lists files and marks active file
:n	start editing the next file
:e	toggle with last edited file
:rew	rewind file pointer to first file

- Abbreviations

Command	Action
:ab str long string	abbreviate str to be 'long string'
:una str	un-abbreviate str

## Introduction to vi (cont)

---

- Setting options

- ✓ Some options that you can set in vim.

`:set number ( also try :se nu )`

`:set nonumber`

`:syntax on`

`:syntax off`

`:set all (list all options)`

`:set tabstop=8`

`:set tx (CR/LF style endings)`

`:set notx`

- ✓ You can set these options (and much more) in `~/.vimrc` for vim or in `~/.exrc` for standard vi.

## VII. Scripting

---

1. Scripting introduction
2. Scripting loops

# 1. Scripting introduction

---

- Hello World
  - ✓ Just like in every programming course, we start with a simple `hello_world` script.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo echo Hello World > hello_world
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ chmod +x hello_world
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ./hello_world
```

- she-bang
  - ✓ A script that works flawlessly in bash might not work in ksh, csh, or dash.
  - ✓ To run the script in a certain shell, start with a she-bang.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat hello_world
```

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

```
echo Hello World
```

# 1. Scripting introduction (cont)

---

- Comment

- Comment
  - ✓ Let's expand our example a little further by adding comment lines.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat hello_world
```

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

```
#
```

```
# Hello World Script
```

```
#
```

```
echo Hello World
```

# 1. Scripting introduction (cont)

---

- Variables

- ✓ Scripts can contain variables, but since scripts are run in their own shell, the variables do not survive the end of the script.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat var
```

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

```
#
```

```
#simple variable in script
```

```
#
```

```
var1=5
```

```
echo var1 = $var1
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ./var
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ echo $var1
```

# 1. Scripting introduction (cont)

---

- Troubleshooting a script

- ✓ Another way to run a script in a separate shell is by typing bash with the name of the script as a parameter.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ bash var**

- ✓ Expanding this to bash -x allows you to see the commands that the shell is executing (after shell expansion).

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ bash -x var**

+ var1=5

+ echo var1 = 5

var1 = 5

## 2. Scripting loops

---

- test [ ]

- ✓ The test command can test whether something is true or false.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ test 10 -gt 55 ; echo $?  
1
```

- ✓ The test command returns 1 if the test fails. Test returns 0 when a test succeeds.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ test 56 -gt 55 ; echo $?  
0
```

- ✓ If prefer true and false, then write the test like this.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ test 56 -gt 55 && echo true || echo false  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ test 6 -gt 55 && echo true || echo false
```

## 2. Scripting loops (cont)

---

- test [ ] (cont)

- ✓ The test command can also be written as square brackets.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ [ 56 -gt 55 ] && echo true || echo false  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ [ 6 -gt 55 ] && echo true || echo false
```

- ✓ Tests can be combined with logical AND and OR.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ [ 66 -gt 55 -a 66 -lt 500 ] && echo true ||  
echo false  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ [ 66 -gt 55 -a 660 -lt 500 ] && echo true ||  
echo false  
[tuna@localhost ~]$ [ 66 -gt 55 -o 660 -lt 500 ] && echo true ||  
echo false
```

## 2. Scripting loops (cont)

---

- if then else

- ✓ The if then else construction is about choice. If a certain condition is met, then execute something, else execute something else.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat choice**

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

```
if [ -f tennis.txt ]
```

```
then echo tennis.txt exists!
```

```
else echo tennis.txt not found!
```

```
fi
```

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ./choice**

## 2. Scripting loops (cont)

---

- if then elif
  - ✓ Can nest a new if inside an else with elif.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat elif
```

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

```
count=10
```

```
if [ $count -eq 20 ]
```

```
then
```

```
echo "$count is correct."
```

```
elif [ $count -gt 20 ]
```

```
then
```

```
echo "Too much."
```

```
else
```

```
echo "Not enough."
```

```
fi
```

## 2. Scripting loops (cont)

---

- for loop
  - ✓ An example using the bash {from..to} shorthand.

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cat forloop

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

```
for counter in {1..20}
```

```
do
```

```
echo counting from 1 to 20, now at $counter
```

```
sleep 1
```

```
done
```

[tuna@localhost ~]\$

## 2. Scripting loops (cont)

---

- while loop
  - ✓ Below is a simple example of a while loop.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat whileloop
#!/bin/bash
i=10;
while [ $i -ge 0 ];
do
echo Counting down, from 10 to 0, now at $i;
let i--;
sleep 1
done
[tuna@localhost ~]$
```

- ✓ Endless loops can be made with while true or while :

## 2. Scripting loops (cont)

---

- until loop

- ✓ Below is a simple example of an until loop.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ cat untilloop
#!/bin/bash
let i=10;
until [ $i -le 0 ];
do
echo Counting down, from 10 to 1, now at $i;
let i--;
sleep 1
done
[tuna@localhost ~]$
```

## VIII. Local user management

---

1. Introduction to users
2. User management
3. User passwords
4. Groups

# 1. Introduction to users

---

- whoami

- ✓ The whoami command tells your username.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ whoami**

- who

- ✓ The who command will give you information about who is logged on the system.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ who**

- who am i

- ✓ With who am i the who command will display only the line pointing to your current session.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ who am i**

# 1. Introduction to users (cont)

---

- w
  - ✓ The w command shows you who is logged on and what they are doing.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ w*

- id
  - ✓ The id command will give you your user id, primary group id, and a list of the groups that you belong to.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ id*

- su to another user
  - ✓ The su command allows a user to run a shell as another user.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ su tania*

# 1. Introduction to users (cont)

---

- su to root
  - ✓ Yes you can also su to become root, when you know the root password.
- su as root
  - ✓ The root user can become any existing user without knowing that user's password.
- su - \$username
  - ✓ To become another user and also get the target user's environment, issue the su - command followed by the target username.

# 1. Introduction to users (cont)

---

- SU –

- ✓ When no username is provided to su or su -, the command will assume root is the target.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ su -**

- Run a program as another user

- ✓ The sudo program allows a user to start a program with the credentials of another user. This can be useful to delegate administrative tasks to another user (without giving the root password).

- First the command fails for tuna

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ useradd -m valentina**

- But with sudo it works.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ sudo useradd -m valentina**

## 2. User management

---

- /etc/passwd
  - The local user database on Linux (and on most Unixes) is /etc/passwd.  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ tail /etc/passwd*  
*tuna:x:1000:1000:tuna:/home/tuna:/bin/bash*
  - The columns contain the username, an x, the user id, the primary group id, a description, the name of the home directory, and the login shell.
- root
  - The root user also called the superuser is the most powerful account.  
*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ head -1 /etc/passwd*

## 2. User management (cont)

---

- useradd

- You can add users with the useradd command.

```
[root@localhost ~]# useradd -m -d /home/yanina -c "yanina  
wickmayer" yanina
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# tail -1 /etc/passwd
```

- userdel

- You can delete the user yanina with userdel. The -r option of userdel will also remove the home directory.

```
[root@localhost ~]# userdel -r yanina
```

## 2. User management (cont)

- Usermod

- ✓ You can modify the properties of a user with the usermod command.

```
[root@localhost ~]# usermod -c 'Nguyen Anh Tu' tuna
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# tail /etc/passwd | grep tuna
```

```
tuna:x:1000:1000:Nguyen Anh Tu:/home/tuna:/bin/bash
```

- /etc/skel/ 

- ✓ The /etc/skel/ directory contains some (usually hidden) files that contain profile settings and default values for applications. In this way /etc/skel/ serves as a default home directory and as a default user profile.

- ```
[root@localhost ~]# ls -la /etc/skel/
```

### 3. User passwords

---

- passwd

- ✓ Passwords of users can be set with the passwd command.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ passwd**

- ✓ The passwd tool will do some basic verification to prevent users from using too simple passwords.
  - ✓ The root user does not have to follow these rules.

- shadow file

- ✓ User passwords are encrypted and kept in /etc/shadow, the /etc/shadow file is read only and can only be read by root.

**[root@localhost ~]# tail -5 /etc/shadow**

### 3. User passwords (cont)

- chage

- ✓ The chage command can be used to set an expiration date for a user account (-E), set a minimum (-m) and maximum (-M) password age, a password expiration date, and set the number of warning days before the password expiration date.

```
[root@localhost ~]# chage -I tuna
```

- disabling a password

- ✓ When the second field in /etc/passwd starts with an exclamation mark, then the password can not be used.

```
[root@localhost ~]# grep kelly /etc/shadow | cut -c1-70
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# usermod -L kelly
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# grep kelly /etc/shadow | cut -c1-70
```

- ✓ You can unlock the account again with usermod -U.

## 4. Groups

---

- groupadd

- ✓ Groups can be created with the groupadd command.

```
[root@localhost ~]# groupadd tennis
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# groupadd football
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# groupadd snooker
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# groupadd formula1
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# groupadd salsa
```

- group file

- ✓ Users can be a member of several groups. Group membership is defined by the /etc/group file.

```
[root@localhost ~]# tail -5 /etc/group
```

## 4. Groups (cont)

---

- groups
  - ✓ A user can type the groups command to see a list of groups where the user belongs to.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ groups**

- usermod
  - ✓ Group membership can be modified with the useradd or usermod command.

**[root@localhost ~]# usermod -a -G tennis tuna**

**[root@localhost ~]# tail /etc/group | grep tennis**

- groupmod
  - ✓ Change the group name with the groupmod command.

**[root@localhost ~]# groupmod -n cafe snooker**

## 4. Groups (cont)

---

- groupdel
  - ✓ You can permanently remove a group with the groupdel command.

```
[root@localhost ~]# groupdel salsa
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# tail -5 /etc/group
```

- gpasswd
  - ✓ You can delegate control of group membership to another user with the gpasswd command.

```
[root@localhost ~]# gpasswd -A tuna tennis
```

```
[root@localhost ~]# su - tuna
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ gpasswd -a kelly tennis
```

## IX. File security

---

1. Standard file permissions
2. File links

# 1. Standard file permissions

---

- file ownership
  - ✓ User owner and group owner
    - The users and groups can own files. Actually, every file has a user owner and a group owner

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -lh**

- ✓ Listing user accounts
  - Use the following command to list all local user accounts.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ cut -d: -f1 /etc/passwd | column**

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

- file ownership (cont)

- ✓ chgrp

- You can change the group owner of a file using the chgrp command.

```
[root@localhost ~]# chgrp cafe /home/tuna/tennis.txt  
[root@localhost ~]# ls -l /home/tuna/ | grep tennis
```

- ✓ chown

- You can also use chown to change both the user owner and the group owner.

```
[root@localhost ~]# chown root:tennis /home/tuna/tennis.txt  
[root@localhost ~]# ls -l /home/tuna/ | grep tennis
```

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

---

- List of special files

- ✓ When you use **ls -l**, for each file you can see ten characters before the user and group owner.
- ✓ The first character tells us the type of file.

| First character | File type        |
|-----------------|------------------|
| -               | normal file      |
| d               | directory        |
| l               | symbolic link    |
| p               | named pipe       |
| b               | block device     |
| c               | character device |
| s               | socket           |

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -ld /dev/console /dev/sda

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

- Permissions

- ✓ rwx

- The nine characters following the file type denote the permissions in three triplets.

| Permission  | On a file                 | On a directory               |
|-------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| r (read)    | read file contents (cat)  | read directory contents (ls) |
| w (write)   | change file contents (vi) | create files in (touch)      |
| x (execute) | execute the file          | enter the directory (cd)     |

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

- Permissions (cont)

- ✓ Three sets of rwx

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -l temp.txt*

*-rw-rw-r--. 1 tuna tuna 0 Jul 31 10:21 temp.txt*

| Position | Characters | Function                        |
|----------|------------|---------------------------------|
| 1        | -          | This is a regular file          |
| 2-4      | rw-        | permissions for the user owner  |
| 5-7      | rw-        | permissions for the group owner |
| 8-10     | r--        | permissions for others          |

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

---

- Permissions (cont)

- ✓ Setting permissions (chmod)

- Permissions can be changed with chmod.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ touch permissions.txt**

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -l permissions.txt**

- Give the user owner execute permission

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod u+x permissions.txt**

- Remove the group owners read permission

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod g-r permissions.txt**

- Removes the others read permission.

**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod o-r permissions.txt**

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

---

- Permissions (cont)

- ✓ Setting permissions (chmod)

- Give all of them the write permission.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod a+w permissions.txt*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod +w permissions.txt*

- Set explicit permission.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod u=rw permissions.txt*

- Make any kind of combination.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod u=rw,g=rw,o=r permissions.txt*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ chmod u=rwx,ug+rw,o=r permissions.txt*

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

- Setting octal permissions

| Binary | Octal | Permission |
|--------|-------|------------|
| 000    | 0     | -          |
| 001    | 1     | --x        |
| 010    | 2     | -w-        |
| 011    | 3     | -wx        |
| 100    | 4     | r--        |
| 101    | 5     | r-x        |
| 110    | 6     | rw-        |
| 111    | 7     | rwx        |

# 1. Standard file permissions (cont)

---

- umask
  - ✓ When creating a file or directory, a set of default permissions are applied.
  - ✓ These default permissions are determined by the umask.

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ umask*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ touch test.txt*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -l test.txt*

- mkdir –m
  - ✓ When creating directories with mkdir you can use the -m option to set the mode

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mkdir -m 700 MyDir*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ mkdir -m 777 Public*

*[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -dl MyDir/ Public/*

## 2. File links

---

- Hard links
  - ✓ Creating hard links
    - When creating a hard link to a file with ln, a new file name is mapped to an existing inode.  
**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -li bin/choise**  
**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ln bin/choise hardln\_choise**  
**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ ls -li hardln\_choise**
  - ✓ Finding hard links
    - Can use the find command to look for files with a certain inode.  
**[tuna@localhost ~]\$ find / -inum 401951 2> /dev/null**

## 2. File links (cont)

---

- Symbolic links

- ✓ Symbolic links (soft links) do not link to inodes, but create a name to name mapping

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ln -s bin/choise symln_choice
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls -li symln_choice
```

- Removing links

- ✓ Links can be removed with rm.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ rm hardln_choice
```

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ rm symln_choice
```

## X. System management

---

### 1. Package management

# 1. Package management

---

- Package terminology
  - ✓ Repository
    - A lot of software and documentation for the Linux distribution is available as packages in one or more centrally distributed repositories.
    - These packages in such a repository are tested and very easy to install (or remove) with a graphical or command line installer.
  - ✓ .deb packages
    - Debian, Ubuntu, Mint and all derivatives from Debian and Ubuntu use .deb packages.
    - To manage software on these systems, you can use aptitude or apt-get, both these tools are a front end for dpkg.

# 1. Package management (cont)

---

- Package terminology (cont)
  - ✓ .rpm packages
    - Red Hat, Fedora, CentOS, OpenSUSE, Mandriva, Red Flag and others use .rpm packages.
    - The tools to manage software packages on these systems are yum and rpm.
  - ✓ Dependency
    - Some packages need other packages to function.
    - Tools like apt-get, aptitude and yum will install all dependencies you need.
    - When using dpkg or rpm, or when building from source, you will need to install dependencies yourself.

# 1. Package management (cont)

---

- rpm
  - ✓ About rpm
    - The Yellowdog Updater, Modified (yum) is an easier command to work with rpm packages.
    - It is installed by default on Fedora and Red Hat Enterprise Linux since version 5.2.
  - ✓ yum list
    - Issue yum list available to see a list of available packages. The available parameter is optional.  
**[root@localhost ~]# yum list | wc -l**
    - Issue yum list \$package to get all versions (in different repositories) of one package.  
**[root@localhost ~]# yum list firefox**

# 1. Package management (cont)

---

- rpm (cont)
  - ✓ yum search
    - To search for a package containing a certain string in the description or name use yum search \$string.  
**[root@localhost ~]# yum search ifconfig**
  - ✓ yum install
    - To install an application, use yum install \$package. Naturally yum will install all the necessary dependencies.  
**[root@localhost ~]# yum install firefox**
    - You can add more than one parameter here.  
**[root@localhost ~]# yum install mlocate net-tools**

# 1. Package management (cont)

---

- rpm (cont)
  - ✓ yum update
    - To bring all applications up to date, by downloading and installing them, issue yum update.
    - [root@localhost ~]# yum update**
    - If you only want to update one package, use yum update \$package.
    - [root@localhost ~]# yum update firefox**
  - ✓ yum remove/erase
    - You can remove one or more applications by appending their name. behind yum remove/erase
    - [root@localhost ~]# yum remove firefox**

## XI. Network management

---

1. Interface configuration
2. ssh client and server

# 1. Interface configuration

---

- RHEL nic configuration
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/network
    - The /etc/sysconfig/network file is a global configuration file. It allows us to define whether we want networking (NETWORKING=yes|no), what the hostname should be (HOSTNAME=) and which gateway to use (GATEWAY=).
    - There are a dozen more options settable in this file, details can be found in /usr/share/doc/initscripts-\*/\*sysconfig.txt.
    - Note that this file contains no settings at all in a default RHEL7 install (with networking enabled).

**[root@localhost ~]# cat /etc/sysconfig/network  
# Created by anaconda**

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

- RHEL nic configuration (cont)
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-
    - Each network card can be configured individually using the /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-\* files.
    - dhcp client
      - Below is an example of ifcfg-eth0 configured for dhcp

```
[tuna@els-e82050 ~]$ cat /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-eth0
```

*DEVICE=eth0*

*HWADDR=b8:ac:6f:7d:13:88*

*NM\_CONTROLLED=no*

***BOOTPROTO="dhcp"***

*ONBOOT=yes*

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

- RHEL nic configuration (cont)
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-

- dhcp client

- RHEL7 adds ipv6 variables to this file.

```
root@localhost ~# cat /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-enp0s3
```

```
IPV6INIT="yes"
```

```
IPV6_AUTOCONF="yes"
```

```
IPV6_DEFROUTE="yes"
```

```
IPV6_PEERDNS="yes"
```

```
IPV6_PEERROUTES="yes"
```

```
IPV6_FAILURE_FATAL="no"
```

```
NAME="enp0s3"
```

```
UUID="ec9f675f-ad1d-4754-8983-9080f3880f76"
```

```
DEVICE="enp0s3"
```

A World of Difference

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

- RHEL nic configuration (cont)
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-
    - fixed ip
      - Below an example of a fixed ip configuration in /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-eth0.

```
tuna@els-e82050 ~]$ cat /etc/sysconfig/network-
scripts/ifcfg-eth0
HWADDR=00:1b:21:58:c5:17
BOOTPROTO=none
IPADDR=192.168.21.2
NETMASK=255.255.255.0
GATEWAY=192.168.21.254
DNS1=172.19.7.122
DNS2=172.17.1.20
```

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

- RHEL nic configuration (cont)
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-
    - nmcli
      - On RHEL7 you should run nmcli connection reload if you changed configuration files in /etc/sysconfig/ to enable your changes.
      - The nmcli tool has many options to configure networking on the command line in RHEL7/CentOS7
    - [root@localhost ~]# man nmcli**
  - nmtui
    - Another recommendation for RHEL7/CentOS7 is to use nmtui. This tool will use a 'windowed' interface in command line to manage network interfaces.
    - [root@localhost ~]# man nmtui**

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

---

- RHEL nic configuration (cont)
  - ✓ /etc/sysconfig/network-scripts/ifcfg-
    - /sbin/ifup and /sbin/ifdown
      - The ifup and ifdown commands will set an interface up or down, using the configuration discussed above.

```
[root@localhost ~]# ifdown enp0s3 && ifup enp0s3
Device 'enp0s3' successfully disconnected.
```

*Connection successfully activated (D-Bus active path: /org/freedesktop/NetworkManager/ActiveConnection/2)*

```
[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig
```

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

---

- ifconfig

- ✓ The use of /sbin/ifconfig without any arguments will present you with a list of all active network interface cards, including wireless and the loopback interface.

*[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig*

- ✓ You can also use ifconfig to obtain information about just one network card.

*[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig lo*

*[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig enp0s3*

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

- Ifconfig (cont)
  - ✓ up and down
  - You can also use ifconfig to bring an interface up or down.

**[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig enp0s3 down**

**[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig enp0s3 up**

**[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig enp0s3**

- ✓ Setting ip address
  - You can temporary set an ip address with ifconfig.
  - This ip address is only valid until the next ifup/ifdown cycle or until the next reboot.

**[root@localhost ~]# ifconfig enp0s3 192.168.21.15**

**netmask 255.255.255.0 broadcast 192.168.21.255**

**[root@localhost ~]# ifdown enp0s3 && ifup enp0s3**

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

---

- ip
  - ✓ The ifconfig tool is deprecated on some systems. Use the ip tool instead.
  - ✓ To see ip addresses on RHEL7 for example, use this command:  
**[root@localhost ~]# ip a**
- dhclient
  - ✓ Home and client Linux desktops often have **/sbin/dhclient** running.
  - ✓ This is a daemon that enables a network interface to lease an ip configuration from a dhcp server.
  - ✓ When your adapter is configured for dhcp or bootp, then **/sbin/ifup** will start the dhclient daemon.

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

- route
  - ✓ You can see the computer's local routing table with the /sbin/route command (and also with netstat -r).  
**[root@#localhost ~]# netstat -r**
  - ✓ If the computer does not have a gateway configured, so we use route add default gw to add a default gateway  
**[root@#localhost ~]# route add default gw 192.168.21.254**
- ping
  - ✓ If you can ping to another host, then tcp/ip is configured.  
**[root@#localhost ~]# ping 42.117.10.84**

# 1. Interface configuration (cont)

---

- ethtool
  - ✓ To display or change network card settings, use ethtool.
  - ✓ The results depend on the capabilities of your network card.
  - ✓ The example shows a network that auto-negotiates its bandwidth.

**[root@#localhost ~]# ethtool enp0s3**

## 2. ssh client and server

---

- About ssh
  - ✓ secure shell
    - The secure shell or ssh is a collection of tools using a secure protocol for communications with remote Linux computers.
  - ✓ Log on to a remote server
    - The following example shows how to use ssh to log on to a remote computer running Linux.  
**[root@#localhost ~]# ssh tuna@192.168.21.2**
    - The user can log out of the remote server by typing exit or by using Ctrl-d.

## 2. ssh client and server (cont)

---

- scp
  - ✓ The scp command works just like cp, but allows the source and destination of the copy to be behind ssh.
  - ✓ Here is an example where we copy the CAPTURE.sh file from the remote server to the /home/tuna/Downloads/ directory of user tuna.  
**[root@#localhost ~]# scp tuna@192.168.21.2:CAPTURE.sh /home/tuna/Downloads/**

- ✓ Here is an example of the reverse, copying a local file to a remote server.

**[root@#localhost ~]# scp firefox-38.1.0-1.el7.centos.x86\_64.rpm tuna@192.168.21.2:Downloads**

## 2. ssh client and server (cont)

---

- Setting up passwordless ssh
  - ✓ ssh authentication through public/private keys, use **ssh-keygen** to generate a key pair without a passphrase, and then copy the public key to the destination server.
  - ✓ Let's do this step by step.
    - We will set up ssh without password between tuna and tania.

### 1. ssh-keygen

[tuna@localhost ~]\$ **ssh-keygen -t rsa**

*Enter file in which to save the key (/home/tuna/.ssh/id\_rsa):*

*Enter passphrase (empty for no passphrase):*

*Enter same passphrase again:*

## 2. ssh client and server (cont)

---

- Setting up passwordless ssh (cont)

1. `~/.ssh`

- While `ssh-keygen` generates a public and a private key, it will also create a hidden `.ssh` directory with proper permissions.
- If you create the `.ssh` directory manually, then you need to `chmod 700` it! Otherwise ssh will refuse to use the keys.
- As you can see, the `.ssh` directory is secure in tuna's home directory.

```
[tuna@localhost ~]$ ls -ld .ssh/  
drwx-----. 2 tuna tuna 66 Aug  9 11:34 .ssh/
```

## 2. ssh client and server (cont)

---

- Setting up passwordless ssh (cont)

1. `~/.ssh` (cont)

- Manually create the `.ssh` directory for tania, so it needs to be manually secured.

```
[tania@localhost ~]$ mkdir .ssh
```

```
[tania@localhost ~]$ ls -ld .ssh
```

```
drwxrwxr-x. 2 tania tania 6 Aug 9 11:57 .ssh
```

```
[tania@localhost ~]$ chmod 700 .ssh/
```

```
[tania@localhost ~]$ ls -ld .ssh
```

```
drwx----- 2 tania tania 6 Aug 9 11:57 .ssh
```

## 2. ssh client and server (cont)

---

- Setting up passwordless ssh (cont)
  1. Copy the public key to the other computer
    - **[tuna@localhost ~]\$ scp .ssh/id\_rsa.pub**  
*tania@192.168.0.111:~/.ssh/authorized\_keys*
    - Tania could also have used **ssh-copy-id** like in this example.
    - **[tania@localhost ~]\$ ssh-copy-id .ssh/id\_rsa.pub**  
*tuna@192.168.0.109*
- ✓ Now try logging into the machine, with:  
**"ssh 'tuna@192.168.0.109'"**

## Q&A

---



# Thank you !