

Brief History of UNIX:

UNIX is an operating system.

Origin - Invented at AT & T Bell research lab by Dennis Ritchie.

Initially it was open source, but later it was commercialized.

Interaction - To interact with UNIX user has to use the "commands".

Medium : A command line interpreter, called "shell".

Translates a command into a particular action.

Linux and Unix:

Linux is not same as Unix.

Free source (Linus Torvalds) Commercial source.

- Rewritten all features using.

c). Initially called GNU.

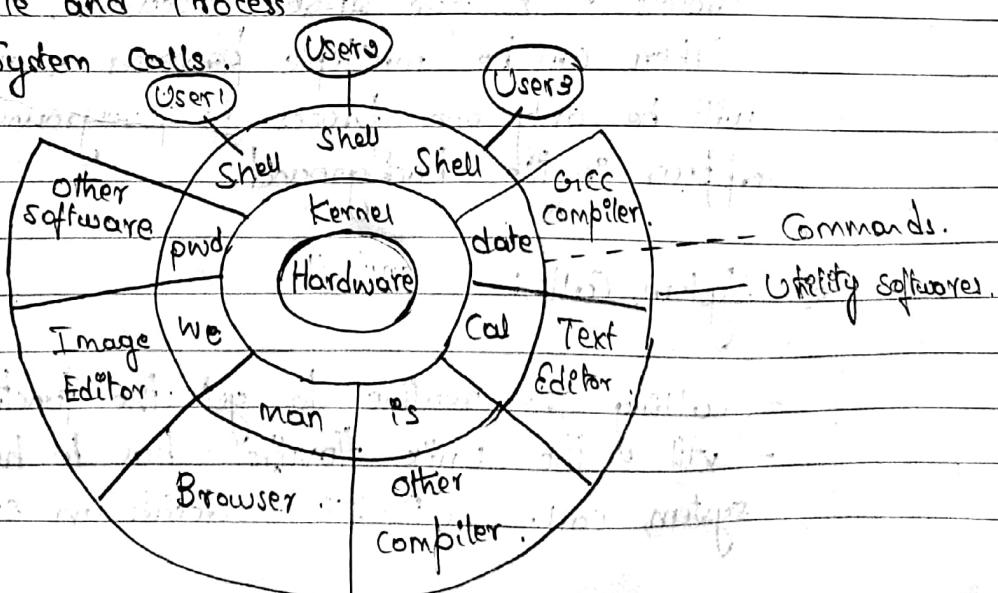
Unix Architecture

Architecture is based on three fundamental concepts.

1. Division of labor : Kernel and Shell.

2. File and Process

3. System Calls.



1. Division of Labor : Kernel and Shell.

- "Kernel" is the core of unix operating system that can interact with the hardware of the system directly to offer the services.
 - Kernel has only the routines that are written in 'c' language . and these routines are meant to offer one or more services.
 - To get the services from the hardware , user will make use of c routines through the "system call".
 - Apart from offering user services it also controls all the activities of the system.
- "Shell" is a command line interpreter that acts as an interface between user and Kernel. (\$date)
One kernel can have many shells.

2. File and Process

- "File"- Anything that exists under unix os is treated as file.
- It contains only an array of bytes that represent some kind of information.

"Process" - A file under execution.

- There can be multiple processes running. But there will be only one process in foreground rest all appear in the background.

3. System Calls:

- Calling the routine to get the function executed.
- All the unix flavours has to have a common system call. (POSIX - decide on standards).

Salient features of Unix OS

1. Multitasking system
2. Multiuser system
3. Building block approach
4. Unix Toolkit
5. Pattern Matching
6. Documentation
7. Programming facility

1. Multitasking system:

A single user can accomplish multiple jobs at a time.

But single job will be in foreground; all other jobs will be in background.

2. Multiuser system

Multiple users can perform multiple jobs on a single system.

3. Building block approach

Multiple commands can be combined together to perform a task.

It facilitates the usage of ' | ' (pipe) to combine tasks of multiple commands.

Eg: command1 | command2

Output of command1 is fetched as input by command2.

4. Unix Toolkit:

All the flavours of unix operating system come with the essential utility tools that is required to work on the system.

5. Pattern matching

Shell has some special characters that are used to match the pattern for command execution.

Eg: * (metacharacters)

If chap, chap1, chap2 are files in current directory.

\$ ls chap* displays all files chap, chap1, chap2.

Special characters used to match patterns are called as meta characters.

6. Documentation

Unix operating system comes with a manual page for all the commands it has.

'man' is the command that gives documentation part.

7. Programming facility:

Shell itself is a programming language. Like any other languages it provides all the features a programming language is expected to have.

Command structure

\$ command-name [optionlist] [argumentlist]
start with -

Example:

- echo - displays the message or values

echo "Hello"

→ Hello

a=10
echo "\$a"

echo "\$a"

2. date - displays current time and date.
has predefined arguments start with %.
3. echo> creates a file.
Eg: echo abc.txt
4. cat - displays or reads a file.
cat>abc.txt - writes into the file.
Hello. will be written to abc.txt.
A section
→ ctrl D. (Terminate).
If the file exists it writes into file otherwise it creates and writes. If file already has some contents, it overwrites.
6. clear or cls used to clear the screen.
7. wc count.txt. - word counting
output → no.of lines no.of.words no.of.chars filename
wc -l → no. of lines
wc -w → no. of words
wc -c → no. of characters.
wc -l -c → no. of lines and characters.

Eg: wc .

Hello

Hi

→ ctrl D.

Output: lines, words, chars etc. from file

8. ls - displays all files, directory, subdirectory etc.

Eg: ls | wc

Output of ls is input to wc.

Locating commands.

Unix has a list of predefined commands that has a predetermined location and - commands existing as an executable file.

type - command that gives the location of a command file.

\$ type command-name

Eg : \$ type date

⇒ date is hashed (/bin/date)

/ → root directory.

\$ type echo.

⇒ echo is a shell builtin.

PATH

It is a shell builtin variable that has the name of a sequence of directories a shell has to search for executing the command.

echo "\$PATH"

⇒ /usr/local:/usr/bin:/usr/sbin

Internal and External commands.

External commands : Commands that exist as a separate file in the unix

Ex: date is found in the location /bin/date

Internal commands : Some commands exist within a shell and they don't have a separate file. Such commands are also called as shell builtin commands.

Ex: echo.

Flexibility of command usage:

1. Combining commands : two or more commands can be executed on a single command line. Each command is separated by a ;
Ex: date; echo "Hello".
2. A command line can overflow: For few commands, they can be written in multiple lines.
Ex: echo "hi
 hello
 how".
3. Entering a command before the finish of previous command :

/9 man :

man is a command that is used to browse unix manual (documentation) page. Manual page has detailed description on all predefined commands present in unix.

Syntax: man [options] command-name

Navigation commands:
f -> next page
b - previous
q - quit.

Using man sectionwise.

Ex: man 2 mkdir, or man -s2 mkdir.
It goes to section 2.

Using man to understand man.

man man.

man with -k option - used to search the pattern

in different sections.
syntax: man -k pattern.

10. whatis : command is used to know the sections containing a particular command.
whatis command name.

Ex: whatis mkdir →

mkdir (1) → make directories
mkdir (2) → created directory.

11. apropos : is an alternative to man -k.
Syntax: apropos pattern.

The File System.

File is an array of bytes which is used to store certain information.

If each file in unix is associated with its own set of properties called as file attributes and these file attributes are found in the secondary storage, which is not accessible directly to the user.

Three categories of file.

1. Ordinary file (Regular)
2. Directory file.
3. Device file.

1. Ordinary files:

Ordinary files are also called as regular files which store some data inside it.

2 types:

1. Text file : Any file consisting of only printable characters

Ex: C program, text file.

2. Binary file : File consisting of both printable and unprintable characters.

Eg: multimedia files, executed object code.

2. Directory files:

A file that contains the information of other files and subdirectories of houses.

Every directory file maintains two information for each file: file name, Inode number (An unique identification number)

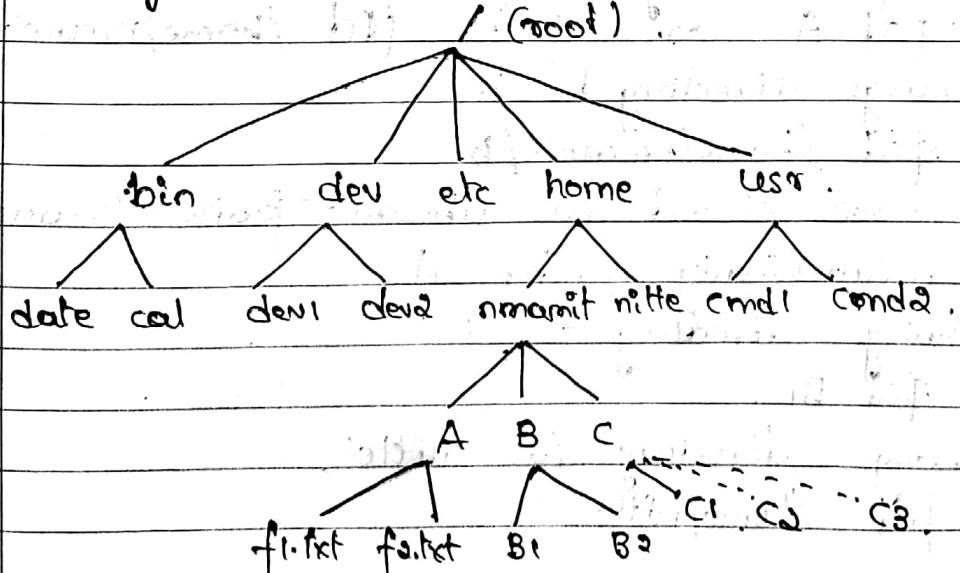
Inode table contains all attributes of a file.

3. Device files:

Each device is associated with a file called a device file. This file is meant for performing all I/O operations and for maintaining some information corresponding to the device. All the device files are found in a special directory called '/dev'.

Parent child relationship in unix file system:

File system in unix.



HOME variable:

(Home) HOME variable is a shell builtin variable that stores the location of home directory of a user

Eg: \$ echo "\$HOME"

\$ /home/nmamit.

Absolute path name — path starting with root directory

112 pwd : It is a command that prints the current working directory of a user who has logged in

Eg: \$pwd \$0

\$ /home/nmamit/A. or. \$ ~ /A.

↳ "\$HOME"

13. cd : It is a command that is used to change the current working directory of a user.

cd [directory path]

directory path is either absolute or relative path which is legal.

Eg: Consider current working directory /home/nmamit

1. change directory to A.

\$ cd A. or \$./A. \$ cd /home/nmamit/A.

2. change directory to B.

\$ cd /home/nmamit/B

- we should use absolute path because B is not hierarchically under A.

3. change directory to Bi

\$ cd Bi

4. change directory to initte.

\$ cd /home/initte

cd command without any argument takes to home directory.

14. **mkdir :** It is a command for creating new directories.
 $\$ \text{mkdir} [\text{arg}_1 \text{arg}_2 \dots \text{arg}_n]$.

Ex: Consider current working directory /home/nmamit

1. Create a directory C1 under C.

$\$ \text{mkdir} C/C1$.

2. Create directories C2 & C3 under C.

$\$ \text{mkdir} C/C2 C/C3$.

3. Create a directory tree 'D/D1/D11'.

$\$ \text{mkdir} (D) D/D1/D11$.

4. Create a directory N1 under nitte.

$\$ \text{mkdir} /home/nitte/N1$.

Conditions when mkdir command fails to execute.

1. When there is an ordinary file existing with the same name of directory to be created.
2. When there is a directory existing with the same name of directory to be created.
3. When there is a permission denied.

Ex: if we try to create a directory under home.

15. **rmdir:** It is a command used to remove the existing directory.

$\$ \text{rmdir} [\text{arg}_1 \text{arg}_2 \dots \text{arg}_n]$

Ex: consider current working directory /home/nmamit

1. Remove directory A.

$\$ \text{rmdir} A/f1.txt A/f2.txt$. (failed).

$\$ \text{rmdir} A$.

2. Remove directory C1 & C2 from C.

$\$ \text{rmdir} C/C1 C/C2$.

3. Remove directory C.

$\$ \text{rmdir} C/C3 C$.

4. Remove directory tree D/D1/D11.

$\$ \text{rmdir} D/D1/D11 D/D1 D$.

- conditions when rmdir command fails to execute.
1. When there is no directory exist
 2. When the directory permission is denied
 3. When directory is not empty.
 4. You cannot remove a current directory or a directory placed above it in the hierarchy.

Absolute pathnames:

Pathname that starts from the root (\) are termed as absolute pathname.

Eg: /home/nmamit

When the path of the file is not hierarchically found under current directory.

Relative pathnames:

Any pathname that does not start from (\) is termed as relative pathname.

Eg: A/a1.txt

When the path of the file is hierarchically found under the current directory.

- .. and
- . (single dot): refers to current directory.
- .. (double dot): refers to parent directory of the current directory.

Ex: cd ..

cd ../../

\$pwd

/home/nmamit/A/A1

cd ..

pwd

/home/nmamit/A

cd

4.16. cat : command used to display the contents of a file or to create a file.

cat for displaying a file.

Syntax : cat [options] file1 [file2, ..., file n].

Example :

1. \$ cat hell.txt. - displays contents of hell.txt.
2. \$ cat hell.txt well.txt.

Options : 1. -v : displays even the unprintable characters. Ex: \$ cat /bin/date

2. -n : displays the line numbers along with text. the contents.

\$ cat -n hell.txt.

Example : \$ cat -nv hell.txt (/bin/date)

cat for creating a file.

cat > filename → redirection symbol

If creates the 'filename' if it is not existing.

If exists, contents will be overwritten.

16. cp : cp command is used to copy the contents of one file into another file.

cp [options] sourcefile destinationfile .

sourcefile : an ordinary file & has to exist.

destinationfile : an ordinary file that may exist or not. If exist it will be overwritten else it creates a new file.

\$ cp . hell.txt fr.txt .

\$ cp . fi.txt . f/fd.txt .

Copying the contents of multiple files into destination directory :

Syntax: `cp s1, s2 ... sn target_directory`
Here, `target_directory` should exist.
`s1, s2, ..., sn` must be ordinary files.

`cp` command to copy a file into current directory.
`cp A/f1.txt .` indicates current directory

`cp options:`

1. `-i` : invokes an interactive copying if there is
a overwriting of destination file.

`cp -i f1.txt f2.txt`

if `f2.txt` exists \Rightarrow It displays

over write `f2.txt` ?

Press y-yes n-no.

2. `-R` : performs recursive copying of files from
one directory into another directory.

`cp -R [source-directory] [Dest-directory]`.

source directory - should exist.

Dest. directory - may not exist. If does not
exist, a new directory will be
created.

Ex: `cp -R A B.`

If B exists, B contains A.

If B does not exist,

B contains - B \rightarrow files inside A
(not A directory)

`rm` : this command is used to remove the ordinary
files or files from the directory.

`rm [option] file [file1 ... filen]`.

Example:

`rm chap1.`

`rm chap1 shape.`

`rm *.` (removes all files)

options:

'-i': interactive deletion of a file.

'-R': recursive deletion of all the files from a directory including that directory.

'-f': forces the removal of write protected file.

syntax: rm -R directorypath.

Ex: rm -R

mv : is used for renaming & moving.

1. Renaming a file or directory.

2. to move a file or files into different

directory.

renaming a file.

mv sourcefile destfile

sourcefile should exist.

destfile - may exist or not.

If it exists, it will be overwritten.

After renaming sourcefile doesn't exist.

renaming a directory:

mv sourcedirectory targetdirectory

should exist.

may exist.

Ex: mv D DEE

If DEE does not exist, D will be named as DEE.

If DEE exist, it will copy D into DEE.

To move multiple files into directory:

mv file1 file2 .. filen targetdirectory

sourcefile & targetdirectory should exist.

if file1 & file2 contains subfiles, just

files 'copy' will not work. To copy subfiles

use cp -r

The Shell.

Shell Interpretive Cycle :

- Shell is an interface between a kernel and the user.
- Shell interprets a command and converts it into an activity (command line interpreter).

Activities performed in Shell interpretive cycle:

1. Shell basically puts a listener in the command line interpreter specifying that it is expecting a command to be entered.
2. On entering a command shell scans an entire command line for the meta character and expands the meaning of meta character to recreate a simplified version of command.
3. It then sends the command for execution to the kernel.
4. Shell then waits for the command to complete the execution and,
5. On executing the command reissues a prompt specifying that it is ready to accept next command.

Wild Cards :

Shell uses metacharacters for matching the filenames and these characters are called wild cards.

Wild Cards example:

1. The * : Matches zero or more any number of characters.

chap ep chap01 chap02 chapx chapy cap3
abc.txt pqr.txt hell.java well.java chap03
chap04 chap05

1. A command to list the names of files beginning with cfo chap. only.

`$ ls chap*`

2. List out all the files with extension .txt.

`$ ls *.txt`

3. Remove the files that has extension .java.

`$ rm *.java`

4. To Write the command which lists only files chap01, chap02. Use wild cards.

`$ ls chap0*`

5. The ? : Matches a single character with any symbol but not Null.

1. List the names of files with five chars in which first four are 'chap'.

`$ ls chap??`

2. Remove all the files from the directory having the length of four chars.

`$ ls ???`

3. What is the output of:

`$ ls chap??`

4. The [] (Character class) : It matches a single character that is specified within the pair of braces.

1. List out the filenames with ^{sex} five chars in which first four chars are 'chap0' & sixth char should not exceed the no. 3.

`$ ls chap0[1-3]`

`$ ls chap0[1-3]`

`$ ls chap0[!-4-5]`

2. List out the filenames with names chapx, chapy & chapt.

`$ ls chap[x-y-z]`

3. List the filenames with capital letters.

`$ ls [A-Z]*`

4. List the files with name which does not begin with numbers.

`$ ls [!0-9]*`

4. The {} : Matches the patterns specified within the braces.

Syntax: `ls {path, path1, path2}`

1. List the files with an extension .java

or .c or .txt

`$ ls *.{java,txt,c}`

or `$ ls *.{java,txt,c}`

Escaping and Quoting

Escaping and quoting are the techniques used to suppress the meaning of meta characters.

Escaping : Adding a back slash (\) just before a meta character to suppress the meaning.

To remove file "chapx"

`$ rm chap*`

To remove "chap[1-3]"

`$ rm chap\[1-3\]`

Quoting : Enclosing a meta character or command argument with a single set of quotes is called as quoting.

`$ rm chap'*` or `$ rm 'chap'`

`$ rm chap'[1-3]'` or `$ rm 'chap[1-3]'`

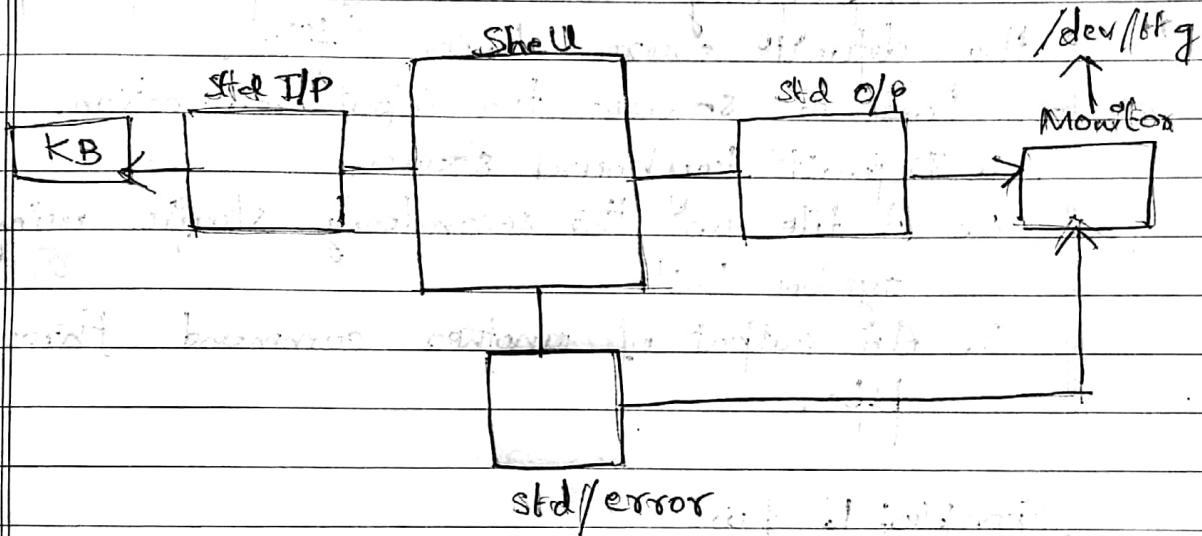
Write a command to print the message value of \$1 = 60 RS.

echo "Value of \$1=60 RS" -X. \$1 is considered as variable.

echo "Value of \\$1=60 RS".

echo 'Value of \$1=60 RS'

Redirection : The three standard files



1. **Standard input file** : It is a file / stream representing the input operations. Default source is keyboard. File descriptor number of this is 0.
2. **Standard output file** : It is a file / stream representing the output operations. Default destination is display system. File descriptor number is 1.
3. **Standard error file** : It is a file / stream representing the error messages thrown by the shell. Default destination is display system. File descriptor number is 2.

Redirection

It is the process of unplugging the standard file from its default source/destination and connecting it with a file present on the secondary storage.

1. < represents input redirection.
2. > an output redirection for writing.
» an output redirection for appending.

Input redirection:

Unplugging the standard input file from the default source device / file.

Possible sources for input redirection.

1. Default keyboard source.
2. A file on the secondary storage using the symbol '<'.
3. An output of another command through the pipe.

Examples:

1. \$ wc

Hi,

(wc reads from keyboard, i.e., abc.txt is not formed)

2. \$ wc abc.txt >

abc.txt

(wc reads from abc.txt)

3. \$ wc < abc.txt . or \$ wc < abc.txt

(input redirection takes place)

Activities performed by the shell are:

1. On scanning '<' symbol, shell opens the file abc.txt for reading.

2. It unplugs the standard input from the default source and connects it to abc.txt.
3. we finally reads the content from the standard input.

Output redirection:

Unplugging standard output from the default destination.

The possible destinations

1. Default display.
2. A file on secondary storage using '>' or '>>'
3. An output of another command through the pipe.

Example: 1. \$wc hell.txt

1 1 3 hell.txt (Default display system)

(a) \$wc hell.txt >out.txt.

(Output redirection takes place).

Activities performed by the shell are

1. On scanning '>', shell opens out.txt for writing.
2. Shell then unplugs standard output from default device and connects it to out.txt.
3. ~~\$~~ "wc" then opens hell.txt for reading.
4. "wc" finally writes output onto standard file which is redirected onto out.txt.

(b) can also be written as

\$wc hell.txt >out.txt or \$wc hell.txt

>>out.txt
(appends).

Error redirection:

Unplugging error file from the default device.

Example: Current directory contains only hell.txt.

1. \$ cat & well.txt &

[Hi]

cat : well.txt : file not existing.

2. \$ cat well.txt > err.txt.

(Output redirection)

cat : well.txt : file not existing

3. \$ cat well.txt >> err.txt. →

err.txt

(error redirection)

cat : well.txt : file
not : existing

4. \$ cat hell.txt >> err.txt &

[Hi]

5. Execute the cat command for the file bin.txt in which case output has to be redirected onto out.txt and errors onto err.txt.

\$ cat bin.txt | > out.txt >> err.txt

Filters:

Four categories of commands based on standard files:

1. Set of commands that neither reads from std input source nor writes onto std o/p file.

Ex: mkdir, cd,

2. Set of commands that reads from std input source but do not write onto std output.

Ex: lp

3. Set of Commands that do not read from std input but write onto std output.

Ex: pwd, ls

4. Set of commands that read from std input and writes onto std output.

Ex: wc, cat

are called as filters.

Two special files : /dev/null and /dev/tty.

1. /dev/null :- is a file.

null is a file inside the directory /dev that is having the size of '0' bytes.

It never grows in size even after writing the contents.

Ex: \$ls a.txt >/dev/null

2. /dev/tty :-

tty is a file present inside the directory /dev.

- This file represents the terminal of the user who has logged in.

Ex: \$ls >/dev/tty

Pipe :

A pipe is a special operator that is used to connect the output stream with an input stream.

Symbol : |

Pipe redirects output of one command as an input to the other command.

Syntax : command1 | command2

Ex: To count number of files in current directory

\$ls | wc -l

tee :

tee is a command that is used to create duplicate form of an input and one copy of input is stored in the file and another copy of input is written on to the std output.

Syntax : \$tee filename.extension

\$tee 01.txt

hello
ctrlD

01.txt

hello

std.output

hello

i. An example to display the files in the current directory and to ~~co~~ ~~gi~~ display the count of files in the current directory.

`$ ls | tee dev/tty | wc -l.`

ii. List all the files in the current directory and display the list as well as store it in a file list.txt

`$ ls | tee list.txt.`

iii. `$ ls | tee list.txt | wc -l.`

→ no. of files present in current directory.

Command Substitution:

If is the process of executing one command inside another command.

A command is executed and its output is taken as an argument to another command.

Command substitution is performed using

→ [Back quotes]

Ex: Display current date.

`echo "Todays date is `date`".`

Basic file Attributes.

classmate

Date _____

Page _____

There are 7 attributes \rightarrow basic attributes.

Listing of file attributes:

Command : `ls -l`

Lists 7 attributes of a file and lists the names of the file in alphabetical order.

Syntax: `ls -l` : ↑
or, `ls -l filename(s)`.

Consider \rightarrow the current directory has chap - ordinary file and dir - directory.

`ls -l`.

total : 8 \rightarrow it occupies 8 blocks in hard disk.

-rwxrwxr--	1	nitte	nitte	0	Aug 24	16:15	chap
drwxrwxr--	2	nitte	nitte	1096	Aug 24	16:15	dir
①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧

① File type and Permissions:

File type:

first character : - : ordinary file
d : directory file.

File Permissions: (3-10)

1-4 : owner permission

5-7 : Group permission

8-10 : Other permission.

3 characters for each type of permission.

1 \rightarrow Read permission. r : read & - : no read

2 - Write permission w : write & - : no write

3 - Execute permission x : execute & - : no execute

⑤ Links: different names for a single file. Chord (inbr)
when created, directory has 'd' as link value
if has its own name and '+'.

③ owner name : Name of user, who has created the file.

④ group name : Name of group to which user belongs to. If user does not belong to any group, user itself be a group.

⑤ size of file in byte.

⑥ date and time of last modification.

⑦ Name of the file.

Listing only directory attributes :

Command : ls -ld.

Syntax : ls -ld → without argument.

If lists all the directory attributes of current directory.

7th attribute here is . indicating current directory.

ls -ld directoryname(s)

Ex : ls -ld A B C.

ls -ld * → all the attributes of all directories in current directory.

chmod :

It is a command that is used to change the permissions of the file.

There are two types of permissions in chmod.

① Relative permission.

change the permission of a file relative to the current permission.

② Absolute permission

- change the permission of a file from the scratch without the knowledge of current permissions.
- This command can be executed only by the owner of the file and the super user.

1. Relative permission:

If changes the permission of only the required set leaving behind the old permission as it is.

Syntax: `$ chmod categoryoperationpermission . filename(s)`

(Owner) user - u

+ → Add. read - r

group - g

- → Remove. write - w

others - o

execute - x

all - a

Assume that test. is file with permission

`rwx-r--r--`

Example:

1. To add execute permission for user and group
 - `chmod ug+x test` (`rwxr-xr--`)
 2. To remove write permission from user and read permission from group.
`chmod u-w, g-r test`. (`r-x--xr--`)
 3. To add write permission for all categories of user.
`chmod a+w test`. (`rwxrwxrwx-`)
2. Absolute permission:

This changes the entire set of the permission without having to know the current permission.

Syntax: `chmod octalnumbers filename(s)`.

Octal numbers

01 - octal for user (owner)

02 - octal for group.

03 - octal for others.

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

1. For a file test set the owner permission with all the permission , for group set only read and write and for others deny all the permissions.

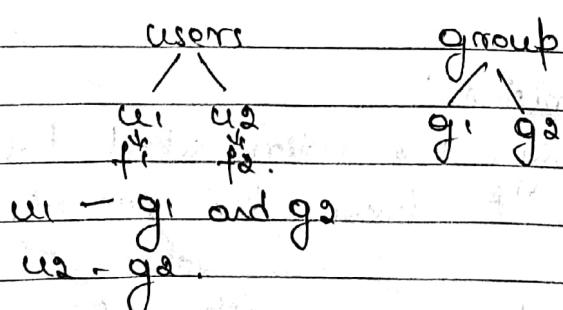
\$ chmod 760 test .

Changing the file ownership:

A file has two owners :

1. Owner of the file → creator or user

2. Group owner → A group to which an user belongs to.



Two commands: chown , chgrp

1. chown : Can change both, the owner of the file and group owner of the file.

2. chgrp : Can change only group owner.

chown : This command should be executed by the super user only.

Syntax : #chown owner[:group] filename(s)

\$ su -

password :- ***

#chown us fl .

fl → us

group → g1 .

#chown [us:g1] fl .

us:g1 fl .

fl → us

group → g1 .

exit -

chgrp : Command can be executed by the super user and some systems allow the execution to be done by the own owner of the file.

- When changing the group, the user has to be added to the existing group to which a change is required.

Syntax : chgrp group-name filename(s) .

u1 → g1 & g2

u2 → g2 .

u1 → f3 → g1

f4 → u2 → g2 .

- change the group ^{owner} file f3 to g2 .

chgrp g2 f3

change the group owner of file f1 or g1
 - Not possible as u is not under g1.

File System and inode:

- Each and every file is associated with a table called inode table.

An inode table has a unique id called as inode number.

An inode number of a file can be displayed using "ls -i" command.

Entries inside the inode table:

1. File type.
2. File permission
3. Number of links. (Hard links)
4. User id (uid)
5. Group id (gid)
6. Size in bytes.
7. time of last modification.
8. time of last access.
9. time of last inode change.
10. Array of pointers pointing to the file blocks.

Links:

Links are the names associated to a particular file.

Links are of two types.

1. Hard links.
2. Symbolic links (Soft links).

1. Hard links:

Hard links are the aliases created for a single

copy of file that is existing.

All those aliases can be used to access a same copy of existing file and those aliases are called as Hard links.

If an original copy is deleted, the aliases will restore the contents of the file.

Creation of hard link:

Syntax:

1. In filename1 filename2

↓ ↓
Existing file . Should not exist.
 Hard link file .

filename1 and filename2 have some attributes,
They are two names for a single file.

Ex: ln f1 f2

2. To link multiple files into directory :

In filename1 filename2 ... filenamen

↓
Existing ordinary file .

Ex: ln f2 f3 ldir.

↓
directory name
existing .

⇒ ldir

f2 f3 → Links to original
file f2 and f3.

Applications of hard links:

1. To reorganize the directory structure.

2. Provides a protection against the accidental ~~deletion~~ deletion of the file.

3. Two files with different extension but ~~not~~ some contents can act as link files.

Disadvantages of hard links:

1. It can not link two directories.
2. It can not link the files existing in different file systems.

3. Symbolic links (Soft links) :

Symbolic link is basically a separate file that is pointing the file it is linked to. (pointer)

A symbolic link file is a separate type of file denoted by 'l'.

When an original file of the symbolic link file is deleted, the symbolic link becomes a dangling link.

Creation of symbolic links:

Syntax: ln -s filename1 filename2 (file type \rightarrow l)

1. ln -s filename1 filename2 (file type \rightarrow l)
 - ↓
should be
existing
 - ↓
non-existing
 - ↓
ordinary file.

filename2 will be filename2 \rightarrow filename1 (attribute)

2. Symbolic link to link directory.

ln -s directoryA directoryB

↓ ↓
Existing May or maynot exist.

Ex: A. ln -s A B \rightarrow B \rightarrow A.
 f1 f2

A \rightarrow B ls -s A B \rightarrow



Modification and Access time:

Listing time parameters:

1. To list the last modification time : ls -l.
2. To list the last access time : ls -lu.
3. To list the last inode change time : ls -lc.

To list the parameters in a sorted fashion.

1. To sort the list based on the modification time
ls -lt.
2. To sort the list based on access time.
ls -lut.
3. To sort the list based on inode change time.
ls -lct.

Changing the time stamps:

- touch is the command used to change the time stamp value of last modification time and last access time.

Syntax: touch options expression filename(s)

→ Options : -m : to change modification time
-a : to change access time.

→ Expression : [yy[yy]] MM DD hh mm

24 hr format.

1. 'Touch' without options and expressions.

- touch filename(s).

- When used this way, touch alters both modification and access time and sets it to current date and time.

- Filename may or may not exist.

Ex: 1. Consider a file f1 not existing
\$ touch f1.

2. Consider file `f2`, created last year.
`$ touch f2.`

3. 'touch' without option and with expression.

When used without option and with expression it will change both modification time and last access time to the time specified in expression.

Ex: `touch 2016 03 03 0830 f1.` → 03-03-2016
on 8:30.

`touch 1603030830 f1`
↳ (-t) - to execute.

3. 'touch' to change only modification time.

Ex: Change the modification time of the file `f2` to Feb 02 - 2022 around 4 AM.

`touch -m 2022 02 02 0400 f2.`

4. 'touch' to change the access time.

Ex: 1. `touch -a f3.`

To change the access time of the file `f3` to the current date and time.

2. `touch -a 12211630 f4.`

To change the access time of the file `f4` to Dec 21, 1630 in the evening.

umask (user mask)

umask is a variable that holds the octal value of the permissions which defines the default permission for the files when created.

By default for any unix system, the permissions are:

1. file : 666 → rw-rw-rw-

2. directory : 777 → rwxrwxrwx

Whenever a file or directory is created the permission is assigned after subtracting umask value from default permission.

Ex: If umask=002.

$$\begin{array}{r} 666 \\ -002 \\ \hline 664 \end{array}$$

→ new file will have 664 permission

Setting the umask value:

Syntax: umask 010203

Ex1: umask 022.

$$\begin{array}{r} 666 \\ -022 \\ \hline 644 \end{array}$$

x1 → rw-r--r--

\$ mkdir x → rwxr-xr-x

Ex2: umask 001

$$\begin{array}{r} 666 \\ -001 \\ \hline 665 \end{array}$$

\$ touch off → This sets x for others.

Umask value can not result in setting any permission, removing any permission is possible.

If it results in setting any of the permission, system assigns the default permission to the file.

Command to save sessions:

\$ script --timing=classmate.txt class

\$ exit

\$ scriptreplay --timing classmate.txt class

find

find is a command that is used to recursively search a given path based on a particular criteria and carries out the required action on the located files.

General syntax:

find pathlist selection-criteria action.

Selection criteria:

Ex: -name filename

Action: -print (print the location of the file from the specified path list.)

Ex: * .find . -name abc -print

Selection-criteria Action

⇒ • /A/abc → There are two files with name
• /B/abc : 'abc', one inside directory A and
other inside 'B'.

* To locate and print all the files inside the current directory with the extension .c.

→ need to identify wildcard
find -name "*.c" -print

Selection criteria:

1. -name

2. -inum inode-number :

-Selects the file based on the inode number.

3. -type x.

can be f, d, l. (ordinary-f, directory-d,

- Selects the files of specified type.

4. -perm. 010903

octal values.

- Selects the files based on the permission.

5. -mtime +int -①

-mtime -int -②

If locates the file based on the modification time.

i) locates files which is more than 'int' days.

ii) locates files which is less than 'int' days.

Ex: 1. find . -mtime +2 -print

2. To locate all the files which are more than 5 days and less than 10 days

find . -mtime +5 -mtime -10 -print

6. -atime : locates the file based on the access time.

-atime +int → locates files more than 'int' days.

-atime -int → locates files less than 'int' days.

→ i. Write a command to find all the ordinary files.

in the current directory with the permission 'rwx' and which is being not accessed for more than 365 days.

find . -type f -perm 777 -atime +365 -print

Action commands

1. -print

2. -ls : lists out all the attributes of the located file along with the inode number.

3. -exec : syntax: -exec cmd {} \;

Executes a particular command 'cmd' taking located file as an argument.

Ex: Write a command to find all the symbolic link files in the current directory and on locating each file, remove all the files.

find . -type l -exec rm {} \;

-ok cmd & {} \;

Syntax: -ok cmd & {} \;

Executes a particular command on the located file interactively.

find . -exec cmd {} \;

n/N - does not execute the command.

Ex: cd /tmp; find . -type l -ok rm {} \;

Ex: Find all the files with an extension .java and print their path list along with the display of all the attributes.

find . -name "*.java" -ls -print

Print all the files in the current directory that is not having the extension .c.

! - operator can be used with any selection criteria.

find . ! -name "*.c" -print

Locate all the files with the extension .c or .txt inside current directory.

multiple selection criterias separated by spaces will be by default 'and'.

find . \(-name *.c -o -name *.txt\)) -print
or.

Shell Variables :

Initialize a variable

variable-name = value $x = 10$

Scope of the variable remains till the shell is terminated.

Initialize a variable with another variable!

$$y = f(x)$$

Unsetting the variable

If : will unset the value of set variable.

Syntax: unset variable-name

$$\text{Ex: } a = 5$$

echo \$a.

-5. Answer the following questions briefly.

unset a

echo -f

(does not print anything).

readonly :

If is a keyword that will not allow the variable to be rewritten or reinitialized.

Ex! b=20
echo \$b
20
b=30
echo \$b
30

readonly b

```
echo $b
```

-80

$b \in H_0$

→ error message .