

CAROTUL

# Basic Linux Commands

ZeroToLinux

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## Command: pwd

**Description:** The `pwd` command stands for "print working directory" and is used to display the current working directory in a Linux or Unix-like operating system. It provides the absolute path to the directory where the user is currently located within the file system.

**Syntax:** `pwd [OPTION]`

### Some Important Options:

- `-L, --logical`: Display the logical path of the current directory. This is the default behavior.
- `-P, --physical`: Display the physical path of the current directory, which may contain symbolic links.

### Examples:

1. Display the logical current directory:

```
pwd
```

2. Display the physical current directory:

```
pwd -P
```

## Command: cd

**Description:** The `cd` command, short for "change directory," is used to change the current working directory in a Linux or Unix-like operating system. It allows you to navigate the file system by moving from one directory to another.

**Syntax:** `cd [OPTIONS] [DIRECTORY]`

### Some Important Options:

- `-P`: Use the physical directory structure for navigation, resolving symbolic links to their target paths. This is the default behavior.
- `-L`: Use the logical directory structure for navigation, not following symbolic links.
- `--`: Treat subsequent arguments as directories, even if they start with hyphens.

### Examples:

1. Change to the user's home directory:

```
cd
```

2. Change to a specific directory (e.g., `/var/www/html`):

```
cd /var/www/html
```

3. Navigate one level up in the directory tree:

```
cd ..
```

4. Change to the previous directory (equivalent to `cd -`):

```
cd -
```

5. Use the logical directory structure for navigation:

```
cd -L /path/to/symlinked-dir
```

6. Use the physical directory structure for navigation:

```
cd -P /path/to/symlinked-dir
```

## Command: mkdir

**Description:** The `mkdir` command, short for "make directory," is used to create one or more directories (folders) within a Linux or Unix-like file system. It allows users to specify the names of the directories they want to create.

**Syntax:** `mkdir [OPTIONS] DIRECTORY...`

### Some Important Options:

- **-p, --parents:** Create parent directories as needed. If a directory's parent does not exist, it will be created as well.
- **-m, --mode=MODE:** Set the permissions (mode) for the created directories. You can specify the mode in octal format, such as 755.
- **-v, --verbose:** Display a message for each directory created, showing the name of the directory.

### Examples:

1. Create a single directory named "my\_directory":

```
mkdir my_directory
```

2. Create multiple directories in one command:

```
mkdir dir1 dir2 dir3
```

3. Create a directory and its parent directories as needed:

```
mkdir -p path/to/parent/child
```

4. Create a directory with specific permissions (e.g., read-write-execute for the owner and read-execute for others):

```
mkdir -m 755 my_directory
```

5. Create directories with verbose output (shows the names of directories as they are created):

```
mkdir -v dir1 dir2 dir3
```

## Command: rmdir

**Description:** The `rmdir` command is used to remove empty directories in a Linux or Unix-like operating system. It allows you to delete directories that contain no files or subdirectories. If a directory is not empty, `rmdir` will not remove it, and you need to use `rm -r` to delete non-empty directories.

**Syntax:** `rmdir [OPTIONS] DIRECTORY...`

### Some Important Options:

- `-p, --parents`: Remove parent directories if they become empty after removing the specified directory.
- `--ignore-fail-on-non-empty`: Ignore the error if the specified directory is not empty and continue removing other directories.

### Examples:

1. Remove an empty directory named "my\_directory":

```
rmdir my_directory
```

2. Remove multiple empty directories in one command:

```
rmdir dir1 dir2 dir3
```

3. Remove a directory and its parent directories if they become empty:

```
rmdir -p path/to/parent/child
```

## Command: rm

**Description:** The `rm` command, short for "remove," is used to delete files and directories in a Linux or Unix-like operating system. It allows users to remove one or more files or directories from the file system.

**Syntax:** `rm [OPTIONS] FILE...`

### Some Important Options:

- `-i, --interactive`: Prompt the user for confirmation before removing each file.
- `-r, -R, --recursive`: Remove directories and their contents recursively.
- `-f, --force`: Forcefully remove files and directories without prompting for confirmation, even if they are write-protected.
- `--no-preserve-root`: Do not treat the root directory ("/") specially when removing recursively. Use with caution.

### Examples:

1. Remove a single file named "file.txt":

```
rm file.txt
```

2. Remove multiple files in one command:

```
rm file1.txt file2.txt
```

3. Remove a directory and its contents (recursively):

```
rm -r directory_name
```

4. Remove a directory and its contents without being prompted for confirmation:

```
rm -rf directory_name
```

5. Interactively remove a file and get a confirmation prompt:

```
rm -i sensitive_file.txt
```

6. Remove a file with a space in its name:

```
rm "file with spaces.txt"
```



## Command: clear

**Description:** The `clear` command is used to clear the contents of the terminal screen, providing a clean slate for new commands and output.

**Syntax:** `clear`

## Command: man

**Description:** The `man` command is used to display the manual pages (documentation) of commands, utilities, and other topics on a Linux or Unix-like operating system.

**Syntax:** `man [OPTIONS] [COMMAND/SECTION]`

### Some Important Options:

- **-k, --apropos:** Search for keywords in the manual page names and descriptions, providing a list of matching pages.
- **-f, --whatis:** Display a concise description of the specified command or topic.

### Examples:

1. Display the manual page for a specific command (e.g., "ls"):

- `man ls`

2. Search for manual pages related to a keyword (e.g., "file permissions"):

- `man -k "file permissions"`

3. Display a concise description of a command (e.g., "grep"):

- `man -f grep`

## Command: which

**Description:** The `which` command is used to locate and display the absolute path of an executable file associated with a specified command or program in a Linux or Unix-like operating system. It helps you find the location of the binary that will be executed when you run a particular command.

**Syntax:** `which [OPTIONS] COMMAND`

### Some Important Options:

- `-a, --all`: Display all instances of the specified command in the system's PATH, if there are multiple matches.

### Examples:

1. Find the location of the `ls` command:

```
which ls
```

2. Locate the absolute path of the `python` interpreter:

```
which python
```

3. Check for the locations of multiple commands (e.g., `ls` and `gcc`):

```
which ls gcc
```

4. Display all instances of a command in the PATH (e.g., if there are multiple matches for `gcc`):

```
which -a gcc
```

## Command: echo

**Description:** The `echo` command is used to print text or messages to the terminal or standard output (usually the screen).

**Syntax:** `echo [OPTIONS] [TEXT]`

### Some Important Options:

- `-e`: Interpret escape sequences in the text. This allows you to use backslashes to represent special characters, such as newline ("`\n`") or tab ("`\t`").
- `-n`: Do not output the trailing newline character. By default, `echo` adds a newline after the text it prints.

### Examples:

1. Print a simple message to the terminal:

```
echo "Hello, World!"
```

2. Print the content of a variable (e.g., `variable_name`):

```
echo $variable_name
```

3. Use escape sequences to print a new line and a tab:

```
echo -e "This is the first line\nThis is the second line\tIndented"
```

4. Print text without a trailing newline character (useful for inline text):

```
echo -n "This will not have a newline at the end."
```

## Command: ls

**Description:** The `ls` command is used to list the files and directories in a specified directory.

**Syntax:** `ls [OPTIONS] [DIRECTORY]`

### Some Important Options:

- `-l`: Use the long format to display detailed information about files, including permissions, owner, group, file size, modification time, and file name.
- `-a`, `--all`: List all files, including hidden files (those whose names start with a dot).
- `-h`, `--human-readable`: Print file sizes in a human-readable format (e.g., using "K" for kilobytes, "M" for megabytes).
- `-t`: Sort files by modification time, with the most recently modified files displayed first.
- `-r`, `--reverse`: Display the list of files in reverse order, such as from Z to A.

### Examples:

1. List the files and directories in the current directory:

```
ls
```

2. List files and directories in a specific directory (e.g., `/home/user/documents`):

```
ls /home/user/documents
```

3. Display a detailed list of files with permissions, owner, and file sizes:

```
ls -l
```

4. List all files, including hidden ones:

```
ls -a
```

5. List files in reverse order of their names:

```
ls -r
```

6. List files in the current directory sorted by modification time (newest first):

```
ls -t
```

7. List files with human-readable file sizes:

```
ls -h
```

## Command: cat

**Description:** The `cat` command, short for "concatenate," is used to display the content of text files, concatenate files, or create new ones.

**Syntax:** `cat [OPTIONS] [FILE...]`

### Some Important Options:

- `-n`: Number all the output lines, providing line numbers for each line of text.
- `-E`: Display a `$` character at the end of each line, indicating the line's end.
- `-T`: Display tabs as `^I` and end-of-line characters as `$`.
- `-A`: Equivalent to using both `-E` and `-T`, displaying tabs and end-of-line characters.

### Examples:

1. Display the content of a text file (e.g., "file.txt"):

```
cat file.txt
```

2. Display the content of multiple text files in sequence:

```
cat file1.txt file2.txt
```

3. Number the lines of a text file while displaying the content:

```
cat -n file.txt
```

4. Display the content of a file, showing end-of-line characters with `$`:

```
cat -E file.txt
```

5. Join two files and store output in a new file (file3)

```
cat file1 file2 > file3
```

6. Create a file:

```
cat > filename
```

7. Append something to already existing file:

```
cat >> filename
```

## Command: mv

**Description:** The `mv` command, short for "move," is used to rename or move files and directories in a Linux or Unix-like operating system.

**Syntax:** `mv [OPTIONS] SOURCE DESTINATION`

### Some Important Options:

- **-i, --interactive:** Prompt for confirmation if the destination file already exists or if you are overwriting an existing file.
- **-u, --update:** Move the source to the destination only if the source is newer or the destination does not exist.
- **-b, --backup:** Create backups of files that would otherwise be overwritten during the move.

### Examples:

1. Rename a file, changing its name from "file.txt" to "newfile.txt":

```
mv file.txt newfile.txt
```

2. Move a file to a different directory (e.g., from the current directory to `/home/user/documents/`):

```
mv file.txt /home/user/documents/
```

3. Rename a directory, changing its name from "old\_directory" to "new\_directory":

```
mv old_directory new_directory
```

4. Move a directory and its contents to a different location:

```
mv directory_to_move /home/user/new_location/
```

5. Prompt for confirmation before overwriting an existing file during a move:

```
mv -i file.txt /destination/
```

6. Update the destination file only if the source is newer:

```
mv -u source.txt /destination/
```

7. Create backups of files when overwriting during a move:

```
mv -b file.txt /destination/
```

## Command: more

**Description:** The `more` command is a text file viewer in Unix and Unix-like operating systems, including Linux. It allows you to view the contents of a file one screen at a time.

### Syntax:

```
more [options] [filename]
```

### Important Options:

- `-d`: Display help screen.
- `-p`: Disable scrolling, instead use only Enter or Spacebar to advance a screen.
- `-c`: Clear the screen before displaying the next page.
- `-s`: Squeeze multiple blank lines into one.

### Examples:

1. View a file using `more`:

```
more filename.txt
```

2. View a file with line numbers displayed:

```
more -d filename.txt
```

3. Disable scrolling and use only Enter key to navigate:

```
more -p filename.txt
```

4. Clear the screen before displaying each page:

```
r  
more -c filename.txt
```

5. Squeeze multiple blank lines into one:

```
more -s filename.txt
```

## Command: less

**Description:** The **less** command is a terminal-based text file viewer in Unix and Unix-like operating systems, including Linux. It allows you to view the contents of a file one screen at a time, similar to **more**, but it provides more advanced features for navigating and searching through the text.

### Syntax:

```
less [options] [filename]
```

### Important Options:

- **-N**: Display line numbers.
- **-i**: Ignore case when searching.
- **/pattern**: Search for a specific pattern within the file.
- **?pattern**: Reverse search for a specific pattern.
- **q**: Quit **less**.

### Examples:

1. View a file using **less**:

```
less filename.txt
```

2. View a file with line numbers displayed:

```
less -N filename.txt
```

3. Ignore case when searching for a pattern:

```
less -i filename.txt
```

4. Search for a specific pattern within the file (press **/** and type the pattern):

```
less filename.txt /search_pattern
```

5. Reverse search for a specific pattern (press **?** and type the pattern):

```
less filename.txt ?search_pattern
```

6. Quit **less** (press **q**):

```
less filename.txt
```



## Command: head

**Description:** The **head** command in Linux is used to display the beginning or the first few lines of a text file

### Syntax:

```
head [options] [filename]
```

### Important Options:

- **-n NUM** or **--lines=NUM**: Specify the number of lines to display from the beginning of the file. By default, it shows the first 10 lines.
- **-c NUM** or **--bytes=NUM**: Display the first NUM bytes of the file.
- **-q** or **--quiet**: Suppress the display of file headers when multiple files are provided.
- **-v** or **--verbose**: Always display file headers when multiple files are provided.

### Examples:

1. Display the first 10 lines of a file:

```
head filename.txt
```

2. Display the first 5 lines of a file:

```
head -n 5 filename.txt
```

3. Display the first 100 bytes of a file:

```
head -c 100 filename.txt
```

4. Display the first 10 lines of multiple files with file headers:

```
head -v file1.txt file2.txt file3.txt
```

5. Display the first 15 lines of multiple files without file headers:

```
head -q -n 15 file1.txt file2.txt file3.txt
```

## Command: tail

**Description:** The `tail` command in Linux is used to display the end or the last few lines of a text file.

### Syntax:

```
tail [options] [filename]
```

### Important Options:

- `-n NUM` or `--lines=NUM`: Specify the number of lines to display from the end of the file. By default, it shows the last 10 lines.
- `-c NUM` or `--bytes=NUM`: Display the last NUM bytes of the file.
- `-f` or `--follow`: Continuously display new lines added to the file in real-time (useful for log files).
- `-q` or `--quiet`: Suppress the display of file headers when multiple files are provided.
- `-v` or `--verbose`: Always display file headers when multiple files are provided.

### Examples:

1. Display the last 10 lines of a file:

```
tail filename.txt
```

2. Display the last 5 lines of a file:

```
tail -n 5 filename.txt
```

3. Display the last 100 bytes of a file:

```
tail -c 100 filename.txt
```

4. Continuously monitor and display new lines added to a log file in real-time:

```
tail -f logfile.txt
```

5. Display the last 10 lines of multiple files with file headers:

```
tail -v file1.txt file2.txt file3.txt
```

6. Display the last 15 lines of multiple files without file headers:

```
tail -q -n 15 file1.txt file2.txt file3.txt
```

## Command: find

**Description:** The `find` command in Linux is a powerful utility for searching and locating files and directories within a specified directory hierarchy.

### Syntax:

```
find [directory] [options] [expression]
```

### Important Options:

- **-name PATTERN:** Search for files and directories with a specific name pattern.
- **-type TYPE:** Search for files of a specific type (e.g., `f` for regular files, `d` for directories).
- **-size SIZE:** Search for files of a specific size (e.g., `+10M` for files larger than 10 megabytes).
- **-mtime DAYS:** Search for files modified within a certain number of days.
- **-exec COMMAND:** Execute a command on each found file or directory.
- **-print:** Print the file paths of the found items (the default action).

### Examples:

1. Search for a file named "example.txt" in the current directory and its subdirectories:

```
find . -name "example.txt"
```

2. Search for all directories within the `/var` directory:

```
find /var -type d
```

3. Search for files larger than 100MB in the home directory

```
find ~/ -type f -size +100M
```

4. Find files modified in the last 7 days in the `/tmp` directory:

```
find /tmp -type f -mtime -7
```

5. Delete all `.log` files in the `/var/logs` directory:

```
find /var/logs -type f -name "*.log" -exec rm {} \;
```

6. Search for all files and directories in the current directory and its subdirectories and print their paths:

```
find . -print
```

## Command: diff

**Description:** The **diff** command in Linux is used to compare and display the differences between two text files. It provides a line-by-line comparison of the files and highlights the lines that differ.

### Syntax:

```
diff [options] file1 file2
```

### Important Options:

- **-u** or **--unified**: Generate unified diff output.
- **-q** or **--brief**: Display only whether the files differ or not.
- **-r** or **--recursive**: Recursively compare directories.
- **-c** or **--context**: Generate context diff output.
- **-i** or **--ignore-case**: Ignore case when comparing.

### Examples:

1. Compare two files and display the differences:

```
diff file1.txt file2.txt
```

2. Generate a unified diff between two files:

```
diff -u file1.txt file2.txt
```

3. Check if two files are different using a brief output (returns exit status 1 if different):

```
diff -q file1.txt file2.txt
```

4. Recursively compare two directories and their contents:

```
diff -r dir1 dir2
```

5. Generate a context diff with 3 lines of context:

```
diff -c3 file1.txt file2.txt
```

## Command: sdiff

**Description:** The **sdiff** command is used to view and compare two text files side by side, highlighting the differences. It can be a helpful tool for visualizing and merging differences between two files.

### Syntax:

```
sdiff [options] file1 file2
```

### Important Options:

- **-o** or **--output=FILE**: Specify an output file for merging differences.
- **-s** or **--suppress-common-lines**: Suppress lines that are identical in both files.
- **-w** or **--width=NUM**: Set the width of the output columns.

### Examples:

1. Compare two files side by side:

```
sdiff file1.txt file2.txt
```

2. Suppress common lines and display only differences:

```
sdiff -s file1.txt file2.txt
```

3. Merge differences between two files and save the result to a new file:

```
sdiff -o merged.txt file1.txt file2.txt
```

4. Set the output column width to 80 characters:

```
sdiff -w 80 file1.txt file2.txt
```

## Command: vimdiff

**Description:** `vimdiff` is a command that launches the Vim text editor in a side-by-side mode, allowing you to compare and edit two or three files simultaneously. It is particularly useful for code comparisons, merging changes, and resolving conflicts.

### Syntax:

```
vimdiff file1 file2
```

**Important Options:** No specific options are needed to use `vimdiff`. Vim will automatically open in diff mode.

### Examples:

1. Compare and edit two files side by side using `vimdiff`:

```
vimdiff file1.txt file2.txt
```

2. Resolve merge conflicts in Git using `vimdiff` as the merge tool:

```
git mergetool -t vimdiff
```

3. Use `vimdiff` with three files (common ancestor, current, and incoming changes):

```
vimdiff ancestor.txt current.txt incoming.txt
```

## Command: sort

**Description:** The **sort** command in Linux is used to sort lines of text files or standard input. It arranges lines in ascending or descending order based on the specified criteria.

**Syntax:** `sort [options] [file]`

### Important Options:

- **-r** or **--reverse**: Sort in reverse order (descending).
- **-n** or **--numeric-sort**: Sort numerically rather than lexicographically.
- **-k FIELD** or **--key=FIELD[.CHAR][OPTS]**: Specify a field to use for sorting (field starts at 1).
- **-t CHAR** or **--field-separator=CHAR**: Set the field separator character (default is whitespace).
- **-u** or **--unique**: Remove duplicate lines.
- **-o OUTPUT** or **--output=OUTPUT**: Write the sorted output to a file.

### Examples:

1. Sort lines in a file in lexicographical (default) order:

```
sort file.txt
```

2. Sort lines in reverse order (descending):

```
sort -r file.txt
```

3. Sort lines as numbers rather than text:

```
sort -n numbers.txt
```

4. Sort a CSV file based on the second field (comma-separated):

```
sort -t ',' -k 2,2 data.csv
```

5. Sort a tab-separated file based on the third field in reverse order:

```
sort -t '$\t' -k 3,3r data.tsv
```

6. Remove duplicate lines from a file:

```
sort -u file.txt
```

7. Sort a file and save the sorted output to another file:

```
sort -o sorted.txt unsorted.txt
```

## Command: tar

**Description:** The `tar` command in Linux is used for creating and manipulating compressed archive files. It is a versatile utility that can bundle multiple files and directories into a single archive, often compressed with gzip, bzip2, or other compression formats. `tar` is commonly used for data backup, distributing files, and packaging software.

### Syntax:

```
tar [options] [archive-filename] [files or directories to be archived]
```

### Important Options:

- `-c` or `--create`: Create a new archive.
- `-x` or `--extract`: Extract files from an archive.
- `-t` or `--list`: List the contents of an archive.
- `-v` or `--verbose`: Display verbose output.
- `-f FILE` or `--file=FILE`: Specify the archive file name.
- `-z` or `--gzip`: Compress the archive using gzip.
- `-j` or `--bzip2`: Compress the archive using bzip2.
- `-r` or `--append`: Append files to an existing archive.
- `-u` or `--update`: Add files to an archive only if they are newer than the archive.
- `-A` or `--catenate`: Concatenate multiple archives.
- `-d` or `--diff`: Find differences between an archive and the file system.

### Examples:

1. Create a compressed tar archive of a directory:

```
tar -czvf archive.tar.gz directory/
```

2. Extract files from a compressed archive:

```
tar -xzvf archive.tar.gz
```

3. List the contents of an archive without extracting:

```
tar -tvf archive.tar
```

4. Append files to an existing archive:

```
tar -rvf archive.tar newfile.txt
```



5. Update an archive with files only if they are newer:

```
tar -uvf archive.tar newerfile.txt
```

6. Concatenate two or more archives into one:

```
tar -A -f combined.tar archive1.tar archive2.tar
```

7. Find differences between an archive and the file system:

```
tar -df archive.tar
```

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## Command: grep

**Description:** The **grep** command in Linux is used to search text for patterns or regular expressions within files or standard input.

### Syntax:

```
grep [options] pattern [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- **-i** or **--ignore-case**: Ignore case when matching patterns.
- **-v** or **--invert-match**: Select non-matching lines.
- **-r** or **--recursive**: Recursively search in directories.
- **-n** or **--line-number**: Prefix lines with line numbers.
- **-w** or **--word-regexp**: Match whole words only.
- **-l** or **--files-with-matches**: List only the filenames with matches.

### Examples:

1. Search for the word "example" in a file:

```
grep "example" file.txt
```

2. Search for "pattern" in all text files in a directory:

```
grep "pattern" *.txt
```

3. Perform a case-insensitive search for "key" in a file:

```
grep -i "key" file.txt
```

4. List files containing the pattern "error" in a directory:

```
grep -rl "error" /path/to/directory/
```

5. Display line numbers for matches in a file:

```
grep -n "pattern" file.txt
```

## Command: egrep

**Description:** The **egrep** command is essentially an extended version of **grep** (Global Regular Expression Print). It allows the use of extended regular expressions, which include features like the **+** (one or more), **?** (zero or one), and **|** (alternation). This can make complex pattern matching easier.

### Syntax:

```
egrep [options] pattern [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- **-i**, **-v**, **-r**, **-n**, **-w**, **-l**, and other options similar to **grep** can be used with **egrep** as well.

### Examples:

1. Search for lines containing "word1" or "word2" in a file:  

```
egrep "word1|word2" file.txt
```
2. Search for lines containing "one or more" in a file using the **+** quantifier:  

```
egrep "one or more" file.txt
```
3. List files with lines that match either "pattern1" or "pattern2" in a directory:  

```
egrep -rl "pattern1|pattern2" /path/to/directory/
```

## Command: fgrep (or grep -F)

**Description:** The **fgrep** command (or **grep -F**) is used to perform fixed string searches instead of regular expression searches. It's useful when you want to search for a literal string without any special character interpretation.

**Syntax:** `fgrep [options] pattern [file(s)]`

### Important Options:

- **-i**, **-v**, **-r**, **-n**, **-w**, **-l**, and other options similar to **grep** can be used with **fgrep** as well.

### Examples:

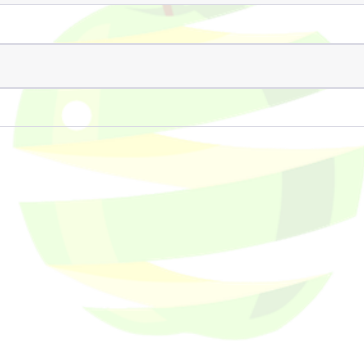
1. Search for the string "exact match" in a file without interpreting special characters:

```
fgrep "exact match" file.txt
```

2. Search for a list of words stored in a file:

```
fgrep -f words.txt textfile.txt
```

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## Command: gzip

**Description:** The **gzip** command in Linux is used for file compression. It reduces the size of files by compressing them using the DEFLATE algorithm. Compressed files have a **.gz** extension and can be decompressed using **gunzip**.

### Syntax:

```
gzip [options] [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- **-d** or **--decompress**: Decompress a compressed file.
- **-k** or **--keep**: Keep the original file (default is to remove it).
- **-c** or **--stdout**: Write compressed data to standard output.
- **-r** or **--recursive**: Recursively compress directories.

### Examples:

1. Compress a file (creates a compressed file with the **.gz** extension):

```
gzip file.txt
```

2. Compress multiple files and keep the original files:

```
gzip -k file1.txt file2.txt
```

3. Decompress a compressed file:

```
gzip -d compressed_file.gz
```

4. Compress a directory and its contents recursively:

```
gzip -r directory/
```

## Command: gunzip

**Description:** The `gunzip` command is used to decompress files compressed with `gzip`. It restores the original file to its uncompressed state.

### Syntax:

```
gunzip [options] [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- `-k` or `--keep`: Keep the original compressed file.
- `-c` or `--stdout`: Write decompressed data to standard output.

### Examples:

1. Decompress a file compressed with `gzip`:

```
gunzip compressed_file.gz
```

2. Decompress multiple files and keep the original compressed files:

```
gunzip -k file1.gz file2.gz
```

3. Decompress a file and display the decompressed data in the terminal:

```
gunzip -c compressed_file.gz
```

## Command: zcat

**Description:** The `zcat` command is used to view the contents of compressed files without decompressing them. It is essentially a combination of `cat` and `gunzip` that allows you to read the content of compressed files directly in the terminal.

### Syntax:

```
zcat [file(s)]
```

**Important Options:** No specific options are commonly used with `zcat`.

### Examples:

1. View the contents of a compressed file without decompressing it:

```
zcat compressed_file.gz
```

2. Concatenate and view multiple compressed files:

```
zcat file1.gz file2.gz
```

## Command: strings

**Description:** The **strings** command in Linux is used to extract human-readable text strings from binary files.

### Syntax:

```
strings [options] [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- **-n NUM** or **--bytes=NUM**: Set the minimum string length to extract (default is 4).
- **-a** or **--all**: Display all strings, including very short ones.
- **-t FORMAT** or **--radix=FORMAT**: Display the offsets as specified in the format (o for octal, x for hexadecimal, d for decimal).

### Examples:

1. Extract and display printable strings from an executable file:  
`strings /path/to/binaryfile`
2. Display all strings from a binary file, including very short ones:  
`strings -a binaryfile`
3. Extract and display strings with a minimum length of 8 characters:  
`strings -n 8 binaryfile`
4. Display strings along with their offsets in hexadecimal format:  
`strings -t x binaryfile`



## Command: file

**Description:** The `file` command in Linux is used to determine the file type and provide information about the format and content of a file.

### Syntax:

```
file [options] [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- `-b` or `--brief`: Display output in a brief format.
- `-i` or `--mime`: Display MIME type (e.g., text/plain, image/jpeg).
- `-z` or `--uncompress`: Attempt to uncompress files before determining the type.

### Examples:

1. Determine the file type of a single file:

```
file myfile.txt
```

2. Identify the MIME type of a file:

```
file -i image.jpg
```

3. Display brief information about a file:

```
file -b document.pdf
```

4. Attempt to uncompress a compressed file and determine its type:

```
file -z archive.tar.gz
```

## Command: cut

**Description:** The `cut` command in Linux is used to extract and display specific columns or fields from a line of text or data. It is commonly used to split text files into smaller parts based on a delimiter (usually a tab or space).

### Syntax:

```
cut [options] [file(s)]
```

### Important Options:

- `-d DELIMITER` or `--delimiter=DELIMITER`: Set the delimiter character (default is a tab).
- `-f FIELDS` or `--fields=FIELDS`: Select specific fields or columns (e.g., 1,2,3).
- `-c CHARACTERS` or `--characters=CHARACTERS`: Select specific character positions.

### Examples:

1. Extract the first two columns from a tab-separated file:

```
cut -f 1,2 data.txt
```

2. Split a comma-separated CSV file and display the first and third fields:

```
cut -d ',' -f 1,3 file.csv
```

3. Select specific characters from each line:

```
cut -c 1-5,10-15 data.txt
```

4. Extract usernames from a list of email addresses (assuming usernames are before '@'):

```
cut -d '@' -f 1 emails.txt
```

## Command: tr

**Description:** The `tr` (translate) command in Linux is used for character-level text manipulation. It can perform operations like character replacement, deletion, squeezing (compressing multiple characters into one), and character set translation.

### Syntax:

```
tr [options] SET1 [SET2]
```

### Important Options:

- `-d` or `--delete`: Delete characters in SET1.
- `-s` or `--squeeze-repeats`: Squeeze consecutive identical characters in SET1 into one.
- `-c` or `--complement`: Use the complement of SET1.
- `-t` or `--truncate-set1`: Truncate SET1.

### Examples:

1. Translate all uppercase characters to lowercase in a file:

```
tr 'A-Z' 'a-z' < input.txt > output.txt
```

2. Delete all spaces from a text file:

```
tr -d ' ' < input.txt > output.txt
```

3. Squeeze consecutive whitespace characters into a single space:

```
tr -s ' ' < input.txt > output.txt
```

4. Complement a character set (e.g., convert all non-digits to spaces):

```
tr -c '0-9' ' ' < input.txt > output.txt
```

# I/O (Input/Output) streams

**Stdin**, **Stdout**, and **Stderr** are fundamental I/O (Input/Output) streams in Linux and other Unix-like operating systems. These streams are crucial for communicating with processes and handling data in the terminal.

## 1. **Stdin** (Standard Input):

- **Description:** Stdin represents the input stream, which is typically the keyboard by default. It allows you to provide data to a program by typing it in or by reading data from a file. In Unix-based systems, stdin is associated with the file descriptor `0`.
- **Syntax:** Stdin is not a command or utility itself but rather a fundamental concept in command-line interaction. You can redirect stdin using the `<` operator or pipe data into a command.
- **Examples:**

- Redirect stdin from a file:

```
cat < input.txt
```

- Pipe the output of one command as stdin to another:

```
cat file.txt | grep "pattern"
```

## 2. **Stdout** (Standard Output):

- **Description:** Stdout is the output stream where a program writes its normal output. It is typically the terminal screen, but it can also be redirected to a file. In Unix-based systems, stdout is associated with the file descriptor `1`.
- **Syntax:** Stdout is not a command, but you can redirect it using the `>` operator or append output to an existing file using `>>`.
- **Examples:**

- Redirect stdout to a file (creates or overwrites the file):

```
ls > output.txt
```

- Append output to an existing file:

```
echo "New data" >> existing_file.txt
```

## 3. **Stderr** (Standard Error):

- **Description:** Stderr is the output stream for error messages and diagnostics. It is also usually displayed on the terminal screen but can be redirected separately from stdout. In Unix-based systems, stderr is associated with the file descriptor `2`.

- **Syntax:** Stderr is not a command, but you can redirect it to a file using `2>` or append to an existing file with `2>>`.

- **Examples:**

- Redirect stderr to a separate error log file:

```
myprogram 2> error.log
```

- Append error messages to an existing error log file:

```
myprogram 2>> existing_error.log
```

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## Command: scp (Secure Copy)

**Description:** The `scp` command is used to securely copy files or directories between a local system and a remote system or between two remote systems. It operates over SSH (Secure Shell) and provides encryption and authentication, making it a secure method for transferring data.

### Syntax:

```
scp [options] [source] [destination]
```

### Important Options:

- `-P PORT` or `--port=PORT`: Specify the SSH port on the remote system.
- `-r` or `--recursive`: Copy directories and their contents recursively.
- `-i IDENTITY_FILE` or `--identity-file=IDENTITY_FILE`: Use a specific private key for authentication.
- `-q` or `--quiet`: Suppress progress information.

### Examples:

1. Copy a local file to a remote server:

```
scp localfile.txt user@remote:/path/to/destination/
```

2. Copy a remote file to the local system:

```
scp user@remote:/path/to/remote/file.txt localfile.txt
```

3. Copy a local directory and its contents to a remote server:

```
scp -r local_directory user@remote:/path/to/destination/
```

4. Copy a remote directory and its contents to the local system:

```
scp -r user@remote:/path/to/remote/directory local_directory
```

## Command: sftp (Secure File Transfer Protocol)

**Description:** The **sftp** command is an interactive file transfer program that provides a secure way to transfer files between a local system and a remote system over SSH. It is similar to using an FTP client but with the added benefit of encryption and security.

### Syntax:

```
sftp [user@] host
```

**Important Options:** Once you're in the **sftp** interactive session, you don't need specific options. You can use a variety of commands for file and directory operations.

### Examples:

1. Start an **sftp** session with a remote server:

```
sftp user@remote_server
```

2. Upload a local file to the remote server within the **sftp** session:

```
put localfile.txt
```

3. Download a remote file to the local system within the **sftp** session:

```
get remote_file.txt
```

4. Change the current remote directory:

```
cd remote_directory
```

5. List files and directories in the current remote directory:

```
ls
```

## Command: ftp (File Transfer Protocol)

**Description:** The `ftp` command in Linux is a client program used for transferring files to and from remote servers via the FTP protocol. It provides a simple command-line interface for interacting with FTP servers and performing file transfers.

**Syntax:** `ftp [options] [hostname]`

### Important Options:

- `-n`: Suppress auto-login.
- `-v`: Enable verbose output.
- `-d`: Debug mode (show debugging messages).
- `-p`: Enable passive mode (for connections through firewalls).
- `-i`: Disable interactive prompting.
- `-s:FILE`: Read commands from a specified script file.

### Examples:

1. Start an FTP session with a remote server:

```
ftp example.com
```

2. Start an FTP session in passive mode (useful for connections through firewalls):

```
ftp -p example.com
```

3. Disable interactive prompting for multiple file transfers:

```
ftp -i example.com
```

4. Run FTP commands from a script file (e.g., `ftp_commands.txt`):

```
ftp -s:ftp_commands.txt example.com
```

5. Upload a local file to the remote server within the FTP session:

```
put localfile.txt
```

6. Download a remote file from the remote server within the FTP session:

```
get remotefile.txt
```

7. Change the current remote directory within the FTP session:

```
cd remote_directory
```

8. List files and directories on the remote server within the FTP session:

```
ls
```



## Command: nano (Text Editor)

**Description:** Nano is a user-friendly text editor for Unix and Linux systems. It is known for its simplicity and ease of use, making it a popular choice for users who may not be familiar with more complex text editors like Vim or Emacs. Nano provides a basic set of commands and features for editing text files from within the command line.

**Syntax:** Once you've opened a file with `nano`, you can use various commands to edit the text. Here are some common commands and their functions:

### 1. Basic Navigation:

- **Arrow Keys:** Navigate the cursor.
- `Ctrl + F`: Move forward one page.
- `Ctrl + B`: Move backward one page.
- `Ctrl + A`: Move to the beginning of the line.
- `Ctrl + E`: Move to the end of the line.

### 2. Editing Text:

- `Ctrl + K`: Cut (delete) the current line.
- `Ctrl + U`: Uncut (paste) the previously cut text.
- `Ctrl + O`: Save the current file (Write Out).
- `Ctrl + X`: Exit the editor (if changes are made, it will prompt to save).

### 3. Search and Replace:

- `Ctrl + W`: Search for text within the file.
- `Ctrl + R`: Replace text within the file.

### 4. Copy and Paste:

- `Alt + ^` (Shift + 6): Mark text for copying.
- `Ctrl + K`: Cut the marked text.
- `Ctrl + U`: Uncut (paste) the previously cut text.

### 5. Indentation:

- `Ctrl + ]`: Indent the current line.
- `Ctrl + [`: Unindent the current line.

### 6. Other Commands:

- `Ctrl + G`: Show help menu with a list of commands.
- `Ctrl + C`: Display the current cursor position.
- `Ctrl + T`: Check spelling of the text (if enabled).

### 7. Exiting Nano:

- `Ctrl + X`: If changes were made, it will prompt to save before exiting.
- `Ctrl + C`: Abort the current operation.
- `Ctrl + D`: Exit the editor without saving changes.

## Command: vi (Visual Editor)

**Description:** Vi, often referred to as the "visual editor," is a powerful and highly efficient text editor that is available on Unix and Linux systems.

**Syntax:** When you open a file in `vi`, you enter different modes to navigate, edit, and manipulate text. Here are the primary modes and some common commands associated with each:

### 1. Normal Mode:

- `Esc`: Return to normal mode from other modes.
- `h`, `j`, `k`, `l`: Navigate left, down, up, and right, respectively.
- `0` (zero), `$`: Move to the beginning and end of a line.
- `G`: Go to the end of the file.
- `:n` or `:n<m>`: Move to line number "n" or the middle of the screen.
- `u`: Undo the last action.
- `Ctrl + r`: Redo the last undone action.
- `yy` or `y`: Yank (copy) a line.
- `dd`: Delete (cut) a line.
- `p`: Paste the last yanked or deleted text.
- `:q`: Quit vi.
- `:q!`: Quit vi without saving changes.
- `:w`: Write (save) the file.
- `:wq` or `:x`: Write and quit vi.

### 2. Insert Mode:

- `i`: Enter insert mode before the cursor position.
- `I`: Enter insert mode at the beginning of the line.
- `a`: Enter insert mode after the cursor position.
- `A`: Enter insert mode at the end of the line.
- `o`: Open a new line below the current line and enter insert mode.
- `O`: Open a new line above the current line and enter insert mode.

### 3. Visual Mode:

- `v`: Enter visual mode to select text.
- `V`: Enter visual line mode to select entire lines.
- `Ctrl + v`: Enter visual block mode to select rectangular areas.

### 4. Command Mode:

- `:`: Enter command-line mode to issue advanced commands.
- `:s/old/new/g`: Replace "old" with "new" throughout the file.

- `:%s/old/new/g`: Replace "old" with "new" throughout the file, with a confirmation for each occurrence.
- `:w filename`: Save the current file as "filename."
- `:e filename`: Open a different file while in vi.

#### 5. Search Mode:

- `/pattern`: Search for "pattern" forward in the file.
- `?pattern`: Search for "pattern" backward in the file.
- `n`: Find the next occurrence of the search pattern.
- `N`: Find the previous occurrence of the search pattern.

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## Command: `emacs` (Extensible Text Editor)

**Description:** Emacs is a highly customizable and extensible text editor that offers an extensive set of features beyond basic text editing

**Syntax:** In Emacs, you use a combination of keys and key sequences to issue commands and navigate through the interface. Here are some common commands and key sequences:

### 1. Basic Navigation:

- `Ctrl + N`, `Ctrl + P`: Move the cursor down and up, respectively.
- `Ctrl + F`, `Ctrl + B`: Move the cursor forward and backward, respectively.
- `Ctrl + A`, `Ctrl + E`: Move to the beginning and end of a line, respectively.
- `Meta + <`, `Meta + >`: Move to the beginning and end of the document, respectively.

### 2. Editing Text:

- `Ctrl + D`: Delete the character under the cursor.
- `Ctrl + K`: Delete from the cursor position to the end of the line.
- `Ctrl + Y`: Yank (paste) previously deleted or cut text.
- `Ctrl + Space`: Set the mark to start selecting text.
- `Ctrl + W`: Cut the selected text.
- `Ctrl + X`, `Ctrl + S`: Save the current buffer to a file.
- `Ctrl + X`, `Ctrl + C`: Quit Emacs.

### 3. Search and Replace:

- `Ctrl + S`: Search forward for text.
- `Ctrl + R`: Search backward for text.
- `Meta + %`: Replace text in the buffer.

### 4. Copy and Paste:

- `Meta + W`: Copy (kill) the selected text.
- `Ctrl + Y`: Yank (paste) the copied or killed text.
- `Meta + W` followed by `Ctrl + Y`: Copy and paste.

### 5. Multiple Buffers:

- `Ctrl + X`, `Ctrl + B`: List and switch between open buffers.

### 6. File Operations:

- `Ctrl + X`, `Ctrl + F`: Open a file.
- `Ctrl + X`, `Ctrl + W`: Save the current buffer to a different file.

### 7. Command Execution:

- `Meta + x`: Execute a command by entering its name.

### 8. Customization:

- **Meta** + **:**: Enter the Emacs command prompt.
- **Meta** + **x**, **customize**: Customize Emacs settings.

#### 9. **Help:**

- **Ctrl** + **H**, **Ctrl** + **?**: Access the built-in help system.

#### 10. **Undo and Redo:**

- **Ctrl** + **/**: Undo the last action.
- **Ctrl** + **x**, **u** (Ctrl + x followed by u): Undo multiple actions.

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