

OPEN-SOURCE EBOOK

++101 LINUX COMMANDS

BOBBY ILIEV

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101 Linux commands Open-source eBook

This is an open-source eBook with 101 Linux commands that everyone should know. No matter if you are a DevOps/SysOps engineer, developer, or just a Linux enthusiast, you will most likely have to use the terminal at some point in your career.

Hacktoberfest

This eBook is made possible thanks to [Hacktoberfest](#) and the open source community!

About me

My name is Bobby Iliev, and I have been working as a Linux DevOps Engineer since 2014. I am an avid Linux lover and supporter of the open-source movement philosophy. I am always doing that which I cannot do in order that I may learn how to do it, and I believe in sharing knowledge.

I think it's essential always to keep professional and surround yourself with good people, work hard, and be nice to everyone. You have to perform at a consistently higher level than others. That's the mark of a true professional.

For more information, please visit my blog at <https://bobbyiliev.com>, follow me on Twitter [@bobbyiliev_](#) and [YouTube](#).

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The `ls` command

The `ls` command lets you see the files and directories inside a Specific directory (*current working directoy by default*). It Normally Lists the files and directories in ascending alphabetical order.

Examples:

1. To Show the files inside your current working directory:

```
ls
```

2. To Show the files and directory inside a specfic Directory:

```
ls {Directory_Path}
```

Syntax:

```
ls [-OPTION] [DIRECTORY_PATH]
```

Interactive training

In this interactive tutorial, you will learn the different ways to use the `ls` command:

[The ls command by Tony](#)

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
------------	-----------	-------------

-

		Show Results in long format
--	--	-----------------------------

-

		Sort Results by file size
--	--	---------------------------

-

		Sort Results by modification time
		-r --reverse Show files and directories in reverse order (<i>descending Alphabetical order</i>)
		-a --all Show all files, Including hidden files (<i>file names which begin with period .</i>)
		-A --almost-all Shows all like -a but without Showing . (Current Working Directory) and .. (Parent Directory)
		-d --directory Instead of listing the files and directories inside the directory, It Shows an information about the directory itself, Can be used with -l to show long formatted information
		-F --classify Appends an indicator character to the end of each listed name, as an example: / character is appended after each directory name listed
		-h --human-readable like -l but displays file size in human-readable unit not in bytes

The `cd` command

The `cd` command is used to change the current working directory (*i.e., in which the current user is working*). The "cd" stands for 'change directory.' and it is one of the most frequently used commands in the Linux terminal.

The `cd` command stands for `chdir` (**C**hange **D**irectory), Often combined with the `ls` command that shows files and folders, `cd` allows you to navigate through folders/directories, Much like navigating through chapters and pages in a book.

It Normally Lists the files and directories in ascending alphabetical order after typing `cd` and pressing `TAB` 2 times.

Examples of uses:

1. To change our current working directory, execute the command as follows:

```
cd <specified_directory_path>
```

2. To change the directory to home directory from the current working directory, execute the command as follows:

```
cd ~
```

or simply

```
cd
```

3. To change to the previous directory from the current working directory, we can execute this command:

```
cd -
```

It will also show you the absolute path of your previous working directory

4. To navigate to the system's root directory from current working directory, execute the command as follows:

```
cd /
```

5. To navigate through multiple folders:

```
cd {Directory_Path}  
cd /home/user/101-linux-commands-ebook/ebook/en/content/
```

Quick Tips

Adding a `..` as a directory will allow you to move "up" from a folder, this can be done multiple times too! eg. `cd ..` to move up one folder or `cd ../../../../` to move up 3!

Syntax:

```
cd [OPTIONS] directory
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
------------	-----------	-------------

-

|Follow symbolic links. By default, **cd** behaves as if the **-L** option is specified.| **-P**|

-

|Don't follow symbolic links.|

The `cat` command

The `cat` command allows us to create single or multiple files, view content of a file, concatenate files and redirect output in terminal or files.

The "cat" stands for 'concatenate.' and it is one of the most frequently used commands in the Linux terminal.

Examples of uses:

1. To display content of a file in terminal:

```
cd <specified_file_name>
```

2. To display content of multiple files in terminal:

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

3. To create a file with cat command:

```
cat > filename
```

5. To display all the files in current directory:

```
cat *
```


6. To redirect a file to the other file:

```
cat oldfile > newfile
```

7. Use cat command with more and less options:

```
cat filename | more
cat filename | less
```

Syntax:

```
cat [OPTION] [FILE]...
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
------------	-----------	-------------

-

		Display tab separated lines in file opened with <code>cat</code> command.
--	--	---

-

		To show \$ at the end of each file.
--	--	-------------------------------------

-

		Display file with line numbers.
--	--	---------------------------------

The `head` command

The `head` command prints the first 10 lines by default of a file.

Example:

```
head filename.txt
```

Syntax:

```
head [OPTION] [FILENAME]
```

Get a specific number of lines:

Use the `-n` option with a number(should be an integer) of lines to display.

Example:

```
head -n 10 foo.txt
```

This command will display the first 10 lines of file `foo.txt` .

Syntax:

```
head -n <~number> foo.txt
```

The `tail` command

The `tail` command prints the last 10 lines by default of a file.

Example:

```
tail filename.txt
```

Syntax:

```
tail [OPTION] [FILENAME]
```

Get a specific number of lines with `tail`:

Use the `-n` option with a number(should be an integer) of lines to display.

Example:

```
tail -n 10 foo.txt
```

This command will display the first 10 lines of file `foo.txt`.

You can also omit the `n` flag, this example will also give same result as above command:

```
tail -10 foo.txt
```

Refresh the output on any new entry in a file

It is possible to let tail output any new line added to the file you are looking into. So if a new log entry is written to the file, it will immediately be shown in your output. This can be done via `--follow` or `-f` as an option.

Example:

```
tail -f foo.txt
```

Syntax:

```
tail -n <~number> foo.txt
```

The `pwd` command

The `pwd` stands for Print Working Directory. It prints the path of the working directory, starting from the root.

Example:

```
pwd
```

The output would be your current directory:

```
/home/your_user/some_directory
```

Syntax:

```
pwd [OPTION]
```

Tip:

You can also check this by printing out the `$PWD` variable:

```
echo $PWD
```

The output would be the same as of the `pwd` command.

Options:

-L	print the value of \$PWD if it names the current
working	directory
-P	print the physical directory, without any symbolic
links	

Logical:

Use the **-L** option after the pwd command.

Syntax:

```
pwd -L
```

Physical:

If environment includes symlinks, use pwd with **-P**

Syntax:

```
pwd -P
```

By default, **pwd** behaves as if **-L** were specified.

The `touch` Command.

Using `touch` Command A FILE argument that does not exist is created empty, unless `-c` or `-h` is supplied.

Examples

1. To make a new text file use the following command, and if it does not already exist a new file will be created or overwritten otherwise.

```
touch file.txt
```

2. Touch command to create multiple files: Touch command can be used to create the multiple numbers of files at the same time. These files would be empty while creation.

```
touch File1_name File2_name File3_name
```

A FILE argument string of `-` is handled specially and causes `touch` to change the times of the file associated with standard output.

Mandatory arguments to long options are mandatory for short options too.

1. -a

change only the access time

2. -c, --no-create

do not create any files

3. -d, --date=STRING

parse STRING and use it instead of current time

4. -f

(ignored)

5. -h, --no-dereference

affect each symbolic link instead of any referenced file (useful only on systems that can change the timestamps of a symlink)

6. -m

change only the modification time

7. -r, --reference=FILE

use this file's times instead of current time

8. -t STAMP

use [[CC]YY]MMDDhhmm[.ss] instead of current time

9. --time=WORD

change the specified time: WORD is access, atime, or use: equivalent to -a WORD is modify or mtime: equivalent to -m

10. --help

display this help and exit

11. --version

output version information and exit

Note that the -d and -t options accept different time-date formats.

The `cal` Command

the `cal` command is used to show the calendar

Syntax:

```
cal [OPTION] [MONTH] [YEAR]
```

Example and Explanation:

this command will show the calendar of July 2018:

```
cal 08 2018
```

this command will show the whole calendar of the year 2018:

```
cal 2018
```

Flags and their Functionalities:

|Flag|Description| |:---|:---| |`-1`|Displays the calendar of one month (Default without using the flag)| |`-3`|Displays the calendar of the previous month, the current month and the next month| |`-j`|Displays the calendar in Julian format, which uses Day-of-Year numbering| |`-y`|Displays the calendar of the whole year|

The `bc` command

The `bc` command provides the functionality of being able to perform mathematical calculations through the command line.

Examples:

1 . Arithmetic:

```
Input : $ echo "11+5" | bc
Output : 16
```

2 . Increment:

- `var --` : Post decrement operator, result of the variable is used first and then variable is decremented.
- `--var` : Pre decrement operator, variable is decreased first and then result of variable is stored.

```
Input: $ echo "var=3;--var" | bc
Output: 4
```

3 . Decrement:

- `var --` : Post decrement operator, result of the variable is used first and then variable is decremented.
- `--var` : Pre decrement operator, variable is decreased first and then result of variable is stored.

```
Input: $ echo "var=3;--var" | bc
Output: 2
```

4 . Assignment:

- `var = value` : Assign the value to the variable
- `var += value` : similar to `var = var + value`
- `var -= value` : similar to `var = var - value`
- `var *= value` : similar to `var = var * value`
- `var /= value` : similar to `var = var / value`
- `var ^= value` : similar to `var = var ^ value`
- `var %= value` : similar to `var = var % value`

```
Input: $ echo "var=4;var" | bc
Output: 4
```

5 . Comparison or Relational:

- If the comparison is true, then result is 1. Otherwise(false), returns 0
- `expr1<expr2` : Result is 1, if expr1 is strictly less than expr2.
- `expr1<=expr2` : Result is 1, if expr1 is less than or equal to expr2.
- `expr1>expr2` : Result is 1, if expr1 is strictly greater than expr2.
- `expr1>=expr2` : Result is 1, if expr1 is greater than or equal to expr2.
- `expr1==expr2` : Result is 1, if expr1 is equal to expr2.
- `expr1!=expr2` : Result is 1, if expr1 is not equal to expr2.

```
Input: $ echo "6<4" | bc
Output: 0
```

```
Input: $ echo "2==2" | bc
Output: 1
```

6 . Logical or Boolean:

- `expr1 && expr2` : Result is 1, if both expressions are non-zero.
- `expr1 || expr2` : Result is 1, if either expression is non-zero.
- `! expr` : Result is 1, if `expr` is 0.

```
Input: $ echo "! 1" | bc
Output: 0
```

```
Input: $ echo "10 && 5" | bc
Output: 1
```

Syntax:

```
bc [ -hlwsqv ] [long-options] [ file ... ]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Note: This does not include an exhaustive list of options.

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
<code>-i</code>	<code>--interactive</code>	Force interactive mode
<code>-l</code>	<code>--mathlib</code>	Use the predefined math routines
<code>-q</code>	<code>--quiet</code>	Opens the interactive mode for bc without printing the header
<code>-s</code>	<code>--standard</code>	Treat non-standard bc constructs as errors
<code>-w</code>	<code>--warn</code>	Provides a warning if non-standard bc constructs are used

Notes:

1. The capabilities of `bc` can be further appreciated if used within a script. Aside from basic arithmetic operations, `bc` supports increments/decrements, complex calculations, logical comparisons, etc.
2. Two of the flags in `bc` refer to non-standard constructs. If you evaluate `100>50 | bc` for example, you will get a strange warning. According to the POSIX page for `bc`, relational operators are only valid if used within an `if`, `while`, or `for` statement.

The `df` command

The `df` command in Linux/Unix is used to show the disk usage & information. `df` is an abbreviation for "disk free".

Usage

Show available disk space

Action: --- Output the available disk space and where the directory is mounted

Details: --- Outputted values are not human-readable (are in bytes)

Command:

```
df
```

Show available disk space in human readable form

Action: --- Output the available disk space and where the directory is mounted

Details: --- Outputted values ARE human-readable (are in GBs/MBs)

Command:

```
df -h
```

Show available disk space for specific file system

Action: --- Output the available disk space and where the directory is mounted

Details: --- Outputted values are only for the selected file system

Command:

```
df -hT file_system_name
```

Show available inodes

Action: --- Output the available inodes for all file systems

Details: --- Outputted values are for inodes and not available space

Command:

```
df -i
```

Show file system type

Action: --- Output the file system types

Details: --- Outputted values are for all file systems

Command:

```
df -T
```

Exclude file system type from the output

Action: --- Output the information while excluding the chosen file system type

Details: --- Outputted values are for all file systems EXCEPT the chosen file system type

Command:

```
df -x file_system_type
```

Syntax:

```
df [-OPTION] [FILE]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:


Additional options are OS dependant.

|**Short Flag** |**Description** | |---|---| |**-h**|human readable sizes to power of 1024 (base of 2 for sizes)| |**-H**|human readable sizes to power of 1000 (base of 10 for sizes)| |**-i**|show inode information instead of block usage| |**-l**|limit output to local file systems| |**-L**|limit output to local file systems|

The `help` command

In linux, `help` command displays information about the builtin commands.

Example



```
$ help ls
```


The syntax of `help` command is :

```
$ help [-dms] [pattern...]
```

Options :

```
-d      -->  output short description for each topic
-m      -->  displays usage in pseudo-manpage format
-s      -->  output only a short usage synopsis for each
topic matching PATTERN
```

Arguments :

```
PATTERN      Pattern specifying a help topic
```

The `factor` command

The `factor` command prints the prime numbers of a given number.

Examples

1. Print prime factors of a prime number

```
factor 50
```

2. Print prime factors of a non-prime number

```
factor 75
```

Syntax:

```
factor [NUMBER]
```

The `uname` command

The `uname` command lets you print out system information and defaults to outputting the kernel name.

Examples

1. Print out all system information

```
uname -a
```

2. Print out the kernel version

```
uname -v
```

Syntax:

```
uname [OPTION]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
<code>-a</code>	<code>--all</code>	print all information, except omit processor and hardware platform if unknown
<code>-s</code>	<code>--kernel-name</code>	print the kernel name
<code>-n</code>	<code>--nodename</code>	print the network node hostname
<code>-r</code>	<code>--kernel-release</code>	print the kernel release
<code>-v</code>	<code>--kernel-version</code>	print the kernel version
<code>-m</code>	<code>--machine</code>	print the machine hardware name
<code>-p</code>	<code>--processor</code>	print the

processor type (non-portable)| `|-i|--hardware-platform|`print the
hardware platform (non-portable)| `|-o|--operating-system|`print the
operating system|

The `mkdir` command

The `mkdir` command in Linux/Unix is used to make a directory.

For example:

```
mkdir name_of_directory
```

If you want to create a directory in a directory use path for that directory.

For example:

```
mkdir /home/test
```

You can also create sub-directories of a directory. It will create parent directory first, if it doesn't exist. But if it already exists, then it will not print an error message and will move further to create sub-directories.

For example:

```
mkdir -p /home/test/src/python
```

015-the-gzip-command.md

The `gzip` command

The `gzip` command in Linux/Unix is used to compress / decompress data.

Usage

Compress a file

Action: --- Compressing a file

Details: --- Reduce the size of the file by applying compression

Command:

```
gzip file_name
```

Decompress a file

Action: --- Decompressing a file

Details: --- Restore the file's original form in terms of data and size

Command:

```
gzip -d archive_01.gz
```

Compress multiple files:

Action: --- Compress multiple files

Details: --- Compress multiple files into multiple archives

Command:

```
gzip file_name_01 file_name_02 file_name_03
```

Decompress multiple files:

Action: --- Decompress multiple files

Details: --- Decompress multiple files from multiple archives

Command:

```
gzip -d archive_01.gz archive_02.gz archive_03.gz
```

Compress a directory:

Action: --- Compress all of the files in a directory

Details: --- Compress multiple files under a directory in one single archive

Command:

```
gzip -r directory_name
```

Decompress a directory:

Action: --- Decompress all of the files in a directory

Details: --- Decompress multiple files under a directory from one single archive

Command:

```
gzip -dr directory_name
```

Verbose (detailed) output while compressing:

Action: --- Compress a file in a more verbose manner

Details: --- Output more information about the action of the command

Command:

```
gzip -v file_name
```

The `whatis` command

The `whatis` command is used to display one-line manual page descriptions for commands. It can be used to get a basic understanding of what a (unknown) command is used for.

Examples of uses:

1. To display what `ls` is used for:

```
whatis ls
```

2. To display the use of all commands which start with `make`, execute the following:

```
whatis -w make*
```

Syntax:

```
whatis [-OPTION] [KEYWORD]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
<code>-d</code>	<code>--debug</code>	Show debugging messages
<code>-r</code>	<code>--regex</code>	Interpret each keyword as a regex
<code>-w</code>	<code>--wildcard</code>	The keyword(s) contain wildcards

The `who` command

The `who` command lets you print out list of logged in users, current run level of the system and time of last system boot.

Examples

1. Print out all details of currently logged in users

```
who -a
```

2. Print out the list of all dead processes

```
who -d -H
```

Syntax:

```
who [options] [filename]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities

|Short Flag |Description | `--` `--` | `-r` |prints all the current runlevel | `-d` |print all the dead processes | `-q` |print all the login names and total number of logged on users | `-h` |print the heading of the columns displayed | `-b` |print the time of last system boot |

018-the-free-command.md

The `free` command

The `free` command in Linux/Unix is used to show memory (RAM/SWAP) information.

Usage

Show memory usage

Action: --- Output the memory usage - available and used, as well as swap

Details: --- Outputted values are not human-readable (are in bytes)

Command:

```
free
```

Show memory usage in human-readable form

Action: --- Output the memory usage - available and used, as well as swap

Details: --- Outputted values ARE human-readable (are in GB / MB)

Command:

```
free -h
```

The `top/htop` command

`top` is the default command-line utility that comes pre-installed on Linux distributions and Unix-like operating systems. It is used for displaying information about the system and its top CPU-consuming processes as well as RAM usage.

`htop` is interactive process-viewer and process-manager for Linux and Unix-like operating system based on ncurses. If you take `top` and put it on steroids, you get `htop`.

Comparison between top and htop:

Feature	top	htop
Type	Interactive system-monitor, process-viewer and process-manager	Interactive system-monitor, process-viewer and process-manager
Operating System	Linux distributions, macOS	Linux distributions, macOS
Installation	Built-in and is always there. Also has more adoption due to this fact.	Doesn't come preinstalled on most Linux distros. Manual installation is needed
User Interface	Basic text only	Colorful and nicer text-graphics interface
Scrolling Support	No	Yes, supports horizontal and vertical scrolling
Mouse Support	No	Yes
Process utilization	Displays processes but not in tree format	Yes, including user and kernel threads
Scrolling Support	No	Yes, supports horizontal and vertical scrolling
Mouse Support	No	Yes
Process utilization	Displays processes but not in tree format	Yes, including user and kernel threads
Network Utilization	No	No
Disk Utilization	No	No
Comments	Has a learning curve for some advanced options like searching, sending messages to processes, etc. It is good to have some knowledge of top because it is the default process viewer on many systems.	Easier to use and supports vi like searching with <code>/</code> . Sending messages to processes (kill, renice) is easier and doesn't require typing in the process number like top.

Examples:

top

1. To display dynamic real-time information about running processes:

```
top
```

2. Sorting processes by internal memory size (default order - process ID):

```
top -o mem
```

3. Sorting processes first by CPU, then by running time:

```
top -o cpu -0 time
```

4. Display only processes owned by given user:

```
top -user {user_name}
```

htop

1. Display dynamic real-time information about running processes. An enhanced version of **top**.

```
htop
```


2. displaying processes owned by a specific user:


```
htop --user {user_name}
```


- Sort processes by a specified `sort_item` (use `htop --sort help` for available options):

```
htop --sort {sort_item}
```

Syntax:



```
top [OPTIONS]
```



```
htop [OPTIONS]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-a		

-

	-b	Sort by memory usage.
--	----	-----------------------

-

		Batch mode operation. Starts top in 'Batch mode', which could be useful for sending output from top to other programs or to a file. In this mode, top will not accept input and runs until the iterations limit you've set with the '-n' command-line option or until killed.
--	--	---

-

top	--user {user_name}	Only display processes owned by user.
-----	--------------------	---------------------------------------

-user

	-u	Help.
--	----	-------

-

		This is an alias equivalent to: -o cpu -O time.
--	--	---

The `sl` command

The `sl` command in Linux is a humorous program that runs a steam locomotive(sl) across your terminal.

Installation

Install the package before running.

```
sudo apt install sl
```

Syntax

```
sl
```

The `echo` command

The `echo` command lets you display the line of text/string that are passed as an argument

Examples:

1. To Show the line of text or string passed as an argument:

```
echo Hello There
```

2. To show all files/ folders similar to the `ls` command:

```
echo *
```

Syntax:

```
echo [option] [string]
```

It is usually used in shell scripts and batch files to output status text to the screen or a file. The `-e` used with it enables the interpretation of backslash escapes

Additional Options and their Functionalities:

|Option |Description | `|:---|:---|` `| \b |` removes all the spaces in between the text `| \c |` suppress trailing new line with backspace interpreter `'-e'` to

continue without emitting new line. | `\n` | creates new line from where it is used | `\t` | creates horizontal tab spaces | `\r` | carriage returns with backspace interpreter '-e' to have specified carriage return in output | `\v` | creates vertical tab spaces | `\a` | alert returns with a backspace interpreter '-e' to have sound alert | `-n` | omits echoing trailing newline . |

The `finger` command

The `finger` displays information about the system users.

Examples:

1. View detail about a particular user.

```
finger abc
```

Output

```
Login: abc                               Name: (null)
Directory: /home/abc                     Shell: /bin/bash
On since Mon Nov  1 18:45 (IST) on :0 (messages off)
On since Mon Nov  1 18:46 (IST) on pts/0 from :0.0
New mail received Fri May  7 10:33 2013 (IST)
Unread since Sat Jun  7 12:59 2003 (IST)
No Plan.
```

2. View login details and Idle status about an user

```
finger -s root
```

Output

Login	Name		Tty	Idle	Login Time
Office	Office	Phone			
root	root	*1	19d Wed	17:45	
root	root	*2	3d Fri	16:53	
root	root	*3	Mon	20:20	
root	root	*ta	2 Tue	15:43	
root	root	*tb	2 Tue	15:44	

Syntax:

```
finger [-l] [-m] [-p] [-s] [username]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

[Flag |Description | :---|:---| **| -l**|Force long output format.| **| -m**|Match arguments only on user name (not first or last name).| **| -p**|Suppress printing of the .plan file in a long format printout.| **| -s**|Force short output format.|

Additional Information

Default Format

The default format includes the following items:

Login name

Full user name

Terminal name

Write status (an * (asterisk) before the terminal name indicates that write permission is denied)

For each user on the host, the default information list also includes, if known, the following items:

Idle time (Idle time is minutes if it is a single integer, hours and minutes if a : (colon) is present, or days and hours if a “d” is present.)

Login time

Site-specific information

Longer Format

A longer format is used by the finger command whenever a list of user's names is given. (Account names as well as first and last names of users are accepted.) This format is multiline, and includes all the information described above along with the following:

User's \$HOME directory

User's login shell

Contents of the .plan file in the user's \$HOME directory

Contents of the .project file in the user's \$HOME directory

The **groups** command

In linux, there can be multiple users(those who use/operate the system), and groups are nothing but the collection of users. Groups make it easy to manage users with the same security and access privileges. A user can be part of different groups.

Important Points:

Groups command prints the names of the primary and any supplementary groups for each given username, or the current process if no names are given. If more than one name is given, the name of each user is printed before the list of that user's groups and the username is separated from the group list by a colon.

Syntax:

```
groups [username]
```

Example 1

Provided with a user name

```
groups demon
```

In this example, username demon is passed with groups command and the output shows the groups in which the user demon is present, separated by a colon.

Example 2

No username is passed then this will display group membership for the current user:

```
groups
```

Here the current user is demon . So when we give “groups” command only we get groups in which demon is a user.

Example 3

Passing root with groups command:

```
$demon# groups
```

Note: Primary and supplementary groups for a process are normally inherited from its parent and are usually unchanged since login. This means that if you change the group database after logging in, groups will not reflect your changes within your existing login session. The only options are -help and -version.

The **man** command

The `man` command is used to display the manual of any command that we can run on the terminal. It provides information like: DESCRIPTION, OPTIONS, AUTHORS and more.

Examples:

- ## 1. Man page for printf:

```
man printf
```

- ## 2. Man page section 2 for intro:

```
man 2 intro
```

Syntax:

```
man [SECTION-NUM] [COMMAND NAME]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description	:--- :--- :---	-f
------------	-----------	-------------	----------------	----

1000

|Return the sections of an command| **-a**

|Display all the manual pages of an command| **-k**|

-

|Searches the given command with RegEx in all man pages| **-w**|

-

|Returns the location of a given command man page| **-I**|


-

|Searches the command manual case sensitive|

The `passwd` command

In linux, `passwd` command changes passwords for user accounts. A normal user may only change the password for their own account, but a superuser may change the password for any account. `passwd` also changes the account or associated password validity period.

Example



```
$ passwd
```

The syntax of the `passwd` command is :

```
$ passwd [options] [LOGIN]
```


options

-a, --all

This option can be used only with -S and causes show status **for** all users.

-d, --delete

Delete a user's **password**.

-e, --expire

Immediately expire an account's **password**.

-h, --help

Display help message and exit.

-i, --inactive

This option is used to disable an account after the password has been expired **for** a number of days.

-k, --keep-tokens

Indicate password change should be performed only **for** expired authentication tokens (passwords).

-l, --lock

Lock the password of the named account.

-q, --quiet

Quiet mode.

-r, --repository

change password **in** repository.

-S, --status

Display account status information.

The **w** command

The **w** command displays information about the users currently on the machine and their processes.

Examples:

1. Running the **w** command with no arguments shows a list of logged on users and their processes.

```
w
```

2. Show information for the user named *hope*.

```
w hope
```

Syntax:

```
finger [-l] [-m] [-p] [-s] [username]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
	:--- :--- :---	-h --no-header Don't print the header.
	-u --no-current	Ignores the username while figuring out the current process and cpu times. (To see an example of this, switch to the root user with su and then run both w and w -u .)
	-s --short	Display abbreviated output (don't print the login

time, JCPU or PCPU times).| `|-f|--from`|Toggle printing the *from* (*remote hostname*) field. The default as released is for the *from* field to not be printed, although your system administrator or distribution maintainer may have compiled a version where the *from* field is shown by default.| `|--help`|

-

|Display a help message, and exit.| `|-V|--version`|Display version information, and exit.| `|-o|--old-style`|Old style output (*prints blank space for idle times less than one minute*).| `|user`|

-

|Show information about the specified the user only.|

Additional Information

The header of the output shows (in this order): the current time, how long the system has been running, how many users are currently logged on, and the system load averages for the past 1, 5, and 15 minutes.

The following entries are displayed for each user:

- login name the tty
- name the remote
- host they are
- logged in from the amount of time they are logged in their
- idle time JCPU
- PCPU
- command line of their current process

The JCPU time is the time used by all processes attached to the tty. It does not include past background jobs, but does include currently running background jobs.

The PCPU time is the time used by the current process, named in the

The `whoami` command

The `whoami` command displays the username of the current effective user. In other words it just prints the username of the currently logged in user when executed.

To display your effective user id just type `whoami` in your terminal:

```
manish@godsmack:~$ whoami
# Output:
manish
```

Syntax:

```
whoami [-OPTION]
```

There are only two options which can be passed to it :

- `--help`: Used to display the help and exit

Example:

```
whoami --help
```

Output:

Usage: whoami [OPTION]...

Print the user name associated with the current effective user ID.

Same **as** `id -un`.

`--help` display this help **and exit**

`--version` output version information **and exit**

- **--version**: Output version information and exit

Example:

```
whoami --version
```

Output:

```
whoami (GNU coreutils) 8.32
```

```
Copyright (C) 2020 Free Software Foundation, Inc.
```

```
License GPLv3+: GNU GPL version 3 or later
```

```
<https://gnu.org/licenses/gpl.html>.
```

```
This is free software: you are free to change and redistribute  
it.
```

```
There is NO WARRANTY, to the extent permitted by law.
```

```
Written by Richard Mlynarik.
```

The `history` command

If you type `history` you will get a list of the last 500 commands used. This gives you the possibility to copy paste commands that you executed in the past.

This is powerful in combination with `grep`. So you can search for a command in your command history.

Examples:

1. If you want to search in your history for artisan commands you ran in the past.

```
history | grep artisan
```

2. If you only want to show the last 10 commands you can.

```
history 10
```

The `login` Command

The `login` command initiates a user session.

Syntax

```
$ login [-p] [-h host] [-H] [-f username|username]
```

Flags and their functionalities

Short Flag | **Description** | |--|--| | -f | Used to skip a login authentication. This option is usually used by the getty(8) autologin feature. | | -h | Used by other servers (such as telnetd(8)) to pass the name of the remote host to login so that it can be placed in utmp and wtmp. Only the superuser is allowed use this option. | | -p | Used by getty(8) to tell login to preserve the environment. | | -H | Used by other servers (for example, telnetd(8)) to tell login that printing the hostname should be suppressed in the login: prompt. | | -help | Display help text and exit. | | -V | Display version information and exit. |

Examples

To log in to the system as user abhishek, enter the following at the login prompt:

```
$ login: abhishek
```

If a password is defined, the password prompt appears. Enter your password at this prompt.

lscpu command

- `lscpu` in Linux/Unix is used to display CPU Architecture info. `lscpu` gathers CPU architecture information from `sysfs` and `/proc/cpuinfo` files. For example :

```
manish@godsmack:~$ lscpu
Architecture:          x86_64
CPU op-mode(s):        32-bit, 64-bit
Byte Order:            Little Endian
CPU(s):                 4
On-line CPU(s) list:   0-3
Thread(s) per core:    2
Core(s) per socket:    2
Socket(s):              1
NUMA node(s):          1
Vendor ID:              GenuineIntel
CPU family:             6
Model:                  142
Model name:             Intel(R) Core(TM) i5-7200U
CPU @ 2.50GHz
Stepping:               9
CPU MHz:                700.024
CPU max MHz:            3100.0000
CPU min MHz:            400.0000
BogoMIPS:               5399.81
Virtualization:         VT-x
L1d cache:              32K
L1i cache:              32K
L2 cache:               256K
L3 cache:               3072K
NUMA node0 CPU(s):     0-3
```

Option

-a, --all Include lines for online and offline CPUs in the output (default for -e). This option may only be specified together with option -e or -p. For example: `lsop -a -b, --online` Limit the output to online CPUs (default for -p). This option may only be specified together with option -e or -p. For example: `lscpu -b -c, --offline` Limit the output to offline CPUs. This option may only be specified together with option -e or -p. **-e, --extended [=list]** Display the CPU information in human readable format. For example: `lsop -e`

For more info: use `man lscpu` or `lscpu --help`

The `cp` command

The `cp` is a command-line utility for copying files and directory. `cp` stands for copy. This command is used to copy files or group of files or directory. It creates an exact image of a file on a disk with different file name. `cp` command require at least two filenames in its arguments.

Examples:

1. To copy the contents of the source file to the destination file.

```
cp sourceFile destFile
```

If the destination file doesn't exist then the file is created and then the content is copied to it. If it exists then the file is overwritten. 2. To copy a file to another directory Specify the absolute or the relative path to the destination directory.

```
cp sourceFile /folderName/destFile
```

3. To copy a directory, including all its files and subdirectories

```
cp -R folderName1 folderName2
```

The command above creates the destination directory and recursively copy all files and subdirectories from the source to the destination directory.

If the destination directory already exists, the source directory itself and its content are copied inside the destination directory.

4. To copy only the files and subdirectories but not the source directory

```
cp -RT folderName1 folderName2
```

Syntax:

The general syntax for the cp command is as follows:

```
cp [OPTION] SOURCE DESTINATION
cp [OPTION] SOURCE DIRECTORY
cp [OPTION] SOURCE-1 SOURCE-2 SOURCE-3 SOURCE-n DIRECTORY
```

The first and second syntax is used to copy Source file to Destination file or Directory. The third syntax is used to copy multiple Sources(files) to Directory.

Some useful options

1. **-i** (interactive) **i** stands for Interactive copying. With this option system first warns the user before overwriting the destination file. cp prompts for a response, if you press y then it overwrites the file and with any other option leave it uncopied.

```
$ cp -i file1.txt fileName2.txt
cp: overwrite 'file2.txt'? y
```

2. **-b**(backup) **-b**(backup): With this option cp command creates the backup of the destination file in the same folder with the different name and in different format.

```
$ ls
a.txt b.txt

$ cp -b a.txt b.txt

$ ls
a.txt b.txt b.txt~
```

3. **-f**(force) If the system is unable to open destination file for writing operation because the user doesn't have writing permission for this file then by using **-f** option with **cp** command, destination file is deleted first and then copying of content is done from source to destination file.

```
$ ls -l b.txt
-r-xr-xr-x+ 1 User User 3 Nov 24 08:45 b.txt
```

User, group and others doesn't have writing permission.

Without **-f** option, command not executed

```
$ cp a.txt b.txt
cp: cannot create regular file 'b.txt': Permission denied
```

With **-f** option, command executed successfully

```
$ cp -f a.txt b.txt
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
		-i

--interactive

|prompt before overwrite| **| -f |**

--force

|If an existing destination file cannot be opened, remove it and try again| **| -b |**

-

|Creates the backup of the destination file in the same folder with the different name and in different format.| **| -r or -R | --recursive | cp** command shows its recursive behavior by copying the entire directory structure recursively.| **| -n | --no-clobber |**do not overwrite an existing file (overrides a previous -i option)| **| -p |**

-

|preserve the specified attributes (default: mode,ownership,timestamps), if possible additional attributes: context, links, xattr, all|

The `mv` command

The `mv` command lets you **move one or more files or directories** from one place to another in a file system like UNIX. It can be used for two distinct functions:

- To rename a file or folder.
- To move a group of files to a different directory.

Note: *No additional space is consumed on a disk during renaming, and the `mv` command doesn't provide a prompt for confirmation*

Syntax:

```
mv [options] source (file or directory) destination
```

Examples:

1. To rename a file called `old_name.txt`:

```
mv old_name.txt new_name.txt
```

2. To move a file called `essay.txt` from current directory to a directory called `assignments` and rename it `essay1.txt`:

```
mv essay.txt assignments/essay1.txt
```

3. To move a file called `essay.txt` from current directory to a directory

called *assignments* without renaming it

```
mv essay.txt assignments
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-f	--force	Force move by overwriting destination file without prompt
-i	--interactive	Interactive prompt before overwrite
-u	--update	Move only when the source file is newer than the destination file or when the destination file is missing
-n	--no-clobber	Do not overwrite an existing file
-v	--verbose	Print source and destination files
-b	--backup	Create a Backup of Existing Destination File

The `ps` command

The `ps` command is used to identify programs and processes that are running on the system and the resources they are using. It is frequently pipelined with other commands like `grep` to search for a program/process or `less` so that the user can analyze the output one page at a time.

Lets say you have a program like openshot which is notorious for hogging system resources when exporting a video and you want to close it, but the GUI has become unresponsive.

Example

1. You want to find the PID of openshot and kill it.

```
ps aux | grep openshot  
kill - <openshot PID>
```

2. To Show all the running processes:

```
ps -A
```

Syntax

```
ps [options]
```

When run without any options, it's useless and will print: `CMD` - the executable processes/(program) running, their `PID` - process ID, `TTY` -

terminal type and **Time** - How long the process has utilized the CPU or thread.

Common Option

If you are going to remember only one thing from this page let it be these three letter **aux**: **a** - which displays all processes running, including those being run by other users. **u** - which shows the effective user of a process, i.e the person whose file access permissions are used by the process. **x** - which shows processes that do not have a **TTY** associated with them.

Additional Options:

|Option |Description | |:---|:---| **|a|**Shows list all processes with a terminal (tty) **| -A|**Lists all processes. Identical to **-e** **| -a|**Shows all processes except both session leaders and processes not associated with a terminal **| -d|**Select all processes except session leaders **| - -deselect|**Shows all processes except those that fulfill the specified conditions. Identical to **-N** **| -e|**Lists all processes. Identical to **-A** **| -N|**Shows all processes except those that fulfill the specified conditions. Identical to **-deselect** **|T|**Select all processes associated with this terminal. Identical to the **-t** option without any argument **|r|**Restrict the selection to only running processes **| - -help simple|**Shows all the basic options **| - -help all|**Shows every available options

Another useful command which give a realtime snapshot of the processes and the resources they are using about every ten seconds is **top**.

The `kill` command

`kill` command in Linux (located in `/bin/kill`), is a built-in command which is used to terminate processes manually. `kill` command sends a signal to a process which terminates the process. If the user doesn't specify any signal which is to be sent along with `kill` command then default `TERM` signal is sent that terminates the process.

Signals can be specified in three ways:

- **By number (e.g. -5)**
- **With SIG prefix (e.g. -SIGkill)**
- **Without SIG prefix (e.g. -kill)**

Syntax

```
kill [OPTIONS] [PID]...
```

Examples:

1. To display all the available signals you can use below command option:

```
kill -l
```

2. To show how to use a *PID* with the `kill` command.

```
$kill pid
```

3. To show how to send signal to processes.

```
kill {-signal | -s signal} pid
```

4. Specify Signal:

- using numbers as signals

```
kill -9 pid
```

- using SIG prefix in signals

```
kill -SIGHUP pid
```

- without SIG prefix in signals

```
kill -HUP pid
```

Arguments:

The list of processes to be signaled can be a mixture of names and PIDs.

pid Each pid can be expressed in one of the following ways:

 n where n is larger than 0. The process with PID n is signaled.

 0 All processes in the current process group are signaled.

 -1 All processes with a PID larger than 1 are signaled.

 -n where n is larger than 1. All processes in process group n are signaled.

 When an argument of the form '-n' is given, and it is meant to denote a process group, either a signal must be specified first, or the argument must be preceded by a '--' option, otherwise it will be taken as the signal to send.

 name All processes invoked using this name will be signaled.

Options:

`-s, --signal signal`
The signal to send. It may be given as a name or a number.

`-l, --list [number]`
Print a list of signal names, or convert the given signal number to a name. The signals can be found in `/usr/include/linux/signal.h`.

`-L, --table`
Similar to `-l`, but it will print signal names and their corresponding numbers.

`-a, --all`
Do not restrict the command-name-to-PID conversion to processes with the same UID as the present process.

`-p, --pid`
Only print the process ID (PID) of the named processes, do not send any signals.

`--verbose`
Print PID(s) that will be signaled with kill along with the signal.

The `killall` command

`killall` sends a signal to **all** processes running any of the specified commands. If no signal name is specified, `SIGTERM` is sent. In general, `killall` command kills all processes by knowing the name of the process.

Signals can be specified either by name (e.g. `-HUP` or `-SIGHUP`) or by number (e.g. `-1`) or by option `-s`.

If the command name is not regular expression (option `-r`) and contains a slash (/), processes executing that particular file will be selected for killing, independent of their name.

`killall` returns a zero return code if at least one process has been killed for each listed command, or no commands were listed and at least one process matched the `-u` and `-Z` search criteria. `killall` returns non-zero otherwise.

A `killall` process never kills itself (but may kill other `killall` processes).

Examples:

1. Kill all processes matching the name `conky` with `SIGTERM`:

```
killall conky
# OR
killall -SIGTERM conky
# OR
killall -15 conky
```

I was able to kill Wine applications this way too.

```
killall TQ.exe
```

2. List all the supported signals:

```
$ killall -l  
HUP INT QUIT ILL TRAP ABRT BUS FPE KILL USR1 SEGV USR2 PIPE  
ALRM TERM STKFLT  
CHLD CONT STOP TSTP TTIN TTOU URG XCPU XFSZ VTALRM PROF WINCH  
POLL PWR SYS
```

As for the numbers.

```
$ for s in $(killall -l); do echo -n "$s " && kill -l $s; done
HUP 1
INT 2
QUIT 3
ILL 4
TRAP 5
ABRT 6
BUS 7
FPE 8
KILL 9
USR1 10
SEGV 11
USR2 12
PIPE 13
ALRM 14
TERM 15
STKFLT 16
CHLD 17
CONT 18
STOP 19
TSTP 20
TTIN 21
TTOU 22
URG 23
XCPU 24
XFSZ 25
VTALRM 26
PROF 27
WINCH 28
POLL 29
PWR 30
SYS 31
```

3. Ask before killing, to prevent unwanted kills:

```
$ killall -i conky
Kill conky(1685) ? (y/N)
```

4. Kill all processes and wait until the processes die.

```
killall -w conky
```

5. Kill based on time:

```
# Kill all firefox younger than 2 minutes
killall -y 2m firefox

# Kill all firefox older than 2 hours
killall -o 2h firefox
```

Syntax:

```
killall [OPTION]... [--] NAME...
killall -l, --list
killall -V, --version
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

[Short Flag |Long Flag |Description | :---|:---|:---| **|-e|** **--exact**|require an exact match for very long names| **|-I|** **--ignore-case**|case insensitive process name match| **|-g|** **--process-group**|kill process group instead of process| **|-y|** **--younger-than**|kill processes younger than TIME| **|-o|** **--older-than**|kill processes older than TIME| **|-i|** **--interactive**|ask for confirmation before killing| **|-l|** **--list**|list all known signal names| **|-q|** **--quiet**|don't print complaints| **|-r|** **--regexp**|interpret NAME as an extended regular expression| **|-s|** **--signal SIGNAL**|send this signal instead of SIGTERM| **|-u|** **--user USER**|kill only process(es) running as USER| **|-v|** **--verbose**|report if the signal was successfully sent| **|-w|** **--wait**|wait for processes to die| **|-n|** **--ns PID**|match processes that belong to the same namespaces as PID| **|-Z|** **--context**|REGEXP kill only process(es) having context (must precede other arguments)

Related commands

kill, `pidof`

The `env` command

The `env` command in Linux/Unix is used to either print a list of the current environment variables or to run a program in a custom environment without changing the current one.

Syntax

```
env [OPTION]... [-] [NAME=VALUE]... [COMMAND [ARG]...]
```


Usage

1. Print out the set of current environment variables

```
env
```

2. Run a command with an empty environment

```
env -i command_name
```

3. Remove variable from the environment

```
env -u variable_name
```

4. End each output with NULL

```
env -0
```

Full List of Options

|Short Flag |Long Flag |Description | |:---|:---|:---| |**-i**|**--ignore-environment**|Start with an empty environment| |**-0**|**--null**|End each output line with NUL, not newline| |**-u**|**--unset=NAME** |Remove variable from the environment| |**-C**|**--chdir=DIR**|Change working directory to DIR| |**-S**|**--split-string=S**|Process and split S into separate arguments. It's used to pass multiple arguments on shebang lines| |**-v**|**-debug**|Print verbose information for each processing step| |**-**|**-help**|Print a help message| |**-**|**--version**|Print the version information|

The `printenv` command

The `printenv` prints the values of the specified environment VARIABLE(s). If no VARIABLE is specified, print name and value pairs for them all.

Examples:

1. Display the values of all environment variables.

```
printenv
```

2. Display the location of the current user's home directory.

```
printenv HOME
```

3. To use the `--null` command line option as the terminating character between output entries.

```
printenv --null SHELL HOME
```

NOTE: By default, the `printenv` command uses newline as the terminating character between output entries.

Syntax:

```
printenv [OPTION]... PATTERN...
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag |Long Flag |Description | |:---|:---|:---| **| -0|--null|**End
each output line with **0** byte rather than newline. **| - -help|**

-

|Display a help message, and exit.|

The `hostname` command

`hostname` is used to display the system's DNS name, and to display or set its hostname or NIS domain name.

Syntax:

```
hostname [-a|--alias] [-d|--domain] [-f|--fqdn|--long] [-A|--all-fqdns] [-i|--ip-address] [-I|--all-ip-addresses] [-s|--short] [-y|--yp|--nis]
```


Examples:

1. `hostname -a`, `hostname --alias` Display the alias name of the host (if used). This option is deprecated and should not be used anymore.
2. `hostname -s`, `hostname --short` Display the short host name. This is the host name cut at the first dot.
3. `hostname -V`, `hostname --version` Print version information on standard output and exit successfully.

Help Command

Run below command to view the complete guide to `hostname`

command.



```
man hostname
```

The **nano** command

The **nano** command lets you create/edit text files.

Installation:

Nano text editor is pre-installed on macOS and most Linux distros. To check if it is installed on your system type:

```
nano --version
```

If you don't have **nano** installed you can do it by using the package manager:

Ubuntu or Debian:

```
sudo apt install nano
```

Examples:

1. Open an existing file, type **nano** followed by the path to the file:

```
nano /path/to/filename
```

2. Create a new file, type **nano** followed by the filename:

```
nano filename
```

3. Open a file with the cursor on a specific line and character use the following syntax:

```
nano +line_number,character_number filename
```

Overview of some Shortcuts and their Functionalities:

Shortcut	Description
:--- :--- Ctrl + S	Save current file
Ctrl + 0	Offer to write file ("Save as")
Ctrl + X	Close buffer, exit from nano
Ctrl + K	Cut current line into cutbuffer
Ctrl + U	Paste contents of cutbuffer
Alt + 6	Copy current line into cutbuffer
Alt + U	Undo last action
Alt + E	Redo last undone action

The `rm` command

`rm` which stands for "remove" is a command used to remove (*delete*) specific files. It can also be used to remove directories by using the appropriate flag.

Example:

```
rm filename.txt
```

Syntax

```
rm [OPTION] [FILE|DIRECTORY]
```

Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag|Long Flag|Description| |:---|:---|:---| |`-f`|`--force`|Ignore nonexistence of files or directories, never prompt| |`-i`|

-

|Prompt before every removal| |`-I`|

-

|Prompt once before removal of more than 3 files, or when removing recursively| |`-d`|`--dir`|remove empty directories| |`-v`|`--verbose`|explain what is being done| |`-r` or `-R`|`--recursive`|remove directories and their contents recursively| |

-

| **--help**|Display help then exit| |
-
| **--version**|First, Print version Information, Then exit| |
-
| **--no-preserve-root**|do not treat / specially| |
-
| **-preserve-root[=all]**|do not remove / (default)
with 'all', reject any command line argument on a separate device from
its parent| |
-
| **--interactive[=WHEN]**|prompt according to WHEN, never, once **-I**, or
always **-i**, whithon WHEN, prompt always| |
-
| **--one-file-system**|when removing a hierarchy recursively, skip any
directory that is on a file system different from that of the
corresponding command line argument0|

IMPORTANT NOTICE:

1. **rm** doesn't remove directories by default, so use **-r**, **-R**, **--recursive** options to remove each listed directory, along with all of its contents.
2. To remove a file whose name starts with **-** such as **-foo**, use one of the following commands:
 - **rm -- -foo**
 - **rm ./-foo**
3. To ensure that files/directories being deleted are truly unrecoverable, consider using the **shred** command.

The `ifconfig` command

`ifconfig` is used to configure the kernel-resident network interfaces. It is used at boot time to set up interfaces as necessary. After that, it is usually only needed when debugging or when system tuning is needed.

If no arguments are given, `ifconfig` displays the status of the currently active interfaces. If a single interface argument is given, it displays the status of the given interface only; if a single `-a` argument is given, it displays the status of all interfaces, even those that are down. Otherwise, it configures an interface.

Syntax:

```
ifconfig [-v] [-a] [-s] [interface]
```

Examples:

1. To display the currently active interfaces:

```
ifconfig
```

2. To show all the active interface:

```
ifconfig -a
```

3. To show all the error conditions:

```
ifconfig -v
```

4. To show a shortlist:

```
ifconfig -s
```

Help Command

Run below command to view the complete guide to `ifconfig` command.

```
man ifconfig
```

The `ip` command

The `ip` command is present in the net-tools which is used for performing several network administration tasks. IP stands for Internet Protocol. This command is used to show or manipulate routing, devices, and tunnels. It can perform tasks like configuring and modifying the default and static routing, setting up tunnel over IP, listing IP addresses and property information, modifying the status of the interface, assigning, deleting and setting up IP addresses and routes.

Examples:

1. To assign an IP Address to a specific interface (eth1) :

```
ip addr add 192.168.50.5 dev eth1
```

2. To show detailed information about network interfaces like IP Address, MAC Address information etc. :

```
ip addr show
```

Syntax:

```
ip [ OPTIONS ] OBJECT { COMMAND | help }
```


Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

| **Flag** | **Description** | | :--- | :--- | | **-a** | Display and modify IP Addresses | | **-l** | Display and modify network interfaces | | **-r** | Display and alter the routing table | | **-n** | Display and manipulate neighbor objects (ARP table) | | **-ru** | Rule in routing policy database. | | **-s** | Output more information. If the option appears twice or more, the amount of information increases | | **-f** | Specifies the protocol family to use | | **-r** | Use the system's name resolver to print DNS names instead of host addresses | | **-c** | To configure color output |

The `clear` command


In linux, clear command is used to clear terminal screen.

Example



```
$ clear
```


Before:



```
$ echo Hello World  
Hello World  
  
$ clear
```

After executing clear command:

\$

Screenshot:

```
devdojo@bobbyiliev:~/101-linux-commands-ebook$ ls -l
total 20
-rw-r--r-- 1 devdojo devdojo 1068 Oct  1 13:31 LICENSE
-rw-r--r-- 1 devdojo devdojo 9806 Oct  1 13:31 README.md
drwxr-xr-x 3 devdojo devdojo 4096 Oct  1 13:31 ebook
devdojo@bobbyiliev:~/101-linux-commands-ebook$ clear
```

After running the command your terminal screen will be clear:

```
devdojo@bobbyiliev:~/101-linux-commands-ebook$
```

The `su` command

In linux, `su` allows to run commands with a substitute user and group ID.

When called without arguments, `su` defaults to running an interactive shell as root.

Example :

```
$ su
```

In case that you wanted to switch to a user called **devdojo**, you could do that by running the following command:

```
$ su devdojo
```

The syntax of the `su` command is :

```
$ su [options] [-] [<user>[<argument>...]]
```

Options :

-m, -p	--> do not reset environment variables
-w	--> do not reset specified variables
-g	--> specify the primary group
-G	--> specify a supplemental group
-l	--> make the shell a login shell
-f	--> pass -f to the shell (for csh or tcsh)
-s	--> run <shell> if /etc/shell allows it
-p	--> create a new pseudo terminal
-h	--> display this help
-v	--> display version

The `wget` command

The `wget` command is used for downloading files from the Internet. It supports downloading files using HTTP, HTTPS and FTP protocols. It allows you to download several files at once, download in the background, resume downloads, limit the bandwidth, mirror a website, and much more.

Syntax

The `wget` syntax requires you to define the downloading options and the URL the to be downloaded file is coming from.

```
$ wget [options] [URL]
```

Examples

In this example we will download the Ubuntu 20.04 desktop iso file from different sources. Go over to your terminal or open a new one and type in the below `wget`. This will start the download. The download may take a few minutes to complete.

1. Starting a regular download

```
wget  
https://releases.ubuntu.com/20.04/ubuntu-20.04.3-desktop-amd64  
.iso
```

2. You can resume a download using the `-c` option

```
wget -c  
https://mirrors.piconets.webwerks.in/ubuntu-mirror/ubuntu-rele  
ases/20.04.3/ubuntu-20.04.3-desktop-amd64.iso
```

3. To download in the background, use the `-b` option


```
wget -b  
https://mirrors.piconets.webwerks.in/ubuntu-mirror/ubuntu-rele  
ases/20.04.3/ubuntu-20.04.3-desktop-amd64.iso
```

More options

On top of downloading, `wget` provides many more features, such as downloading multiple files, downloading in the background, limiting download bandwidth and resuming stopped downloads. View all `wget` options in its man page.

```
man wget
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities

Short Flag	Description
<code>-v</code>	prints version of the wget available on your system
<code>-h</code>	print help message displaying all the possible options
<code>-b</code>	This option is used to send a process to the background as soon as it starts.
<code>-t</code>	This option is used to set number of retries to a specified number of times
<code>-c</code>	This option is used to resume a partially downloaded file

The `curl` command

In linux, curl is a tool to transfer data from or to a server, using one of the supported protocols(DICT, FILE ,FTP, FTPS, GOPHER, HTTP, HTTPS, IMAP, IMAPS, LDAP, LDAPS, POP3, POP3S, RTMP, RTSP, SCP, SFTP, SMB, SMBS, SMTP, SMTPS, TELNET and TFTP).

Example :

```
$ curl example.com
```

The command will print the source code of the `example.com` homepage in the terminal window.

The syntax of the `curl` command is :

```
$ curl [options...] <url>
```

Options :

Options start with one or two dashes. Many of the options require an additional value next to them.

***To know more about options and their specific usage open the terminal and type the following command :

```
$ curl --help
```

The `yes` command

The `yes` command in linux is used to print a continuous output stream of given *STRING*. If *STRING* is not mentioned then it prints 'y'. It outputs a string repeatedly until killed (using something like ctrl + c).

Examples :

1. Prints hello world infinitely in the terminal until killed :

```
yes hello world
```

2. A more generalized command:

```
yes [STRING]
```

Options

It accepts the following options:

1. `--help`
display this help and exit
 2. `--version`
output version information and exit
-

The `last` command

This command shows you a list of all the users that have logged in and out since the creation of the `var/log/wtmp` file. There are also some parameters you can add which will show you for example when a certain user has logged in and how long he was logged in for.

If you want to see the last 5 logs, just add `-5` to the command like this:

```
last -5
```

And if you want to see the last 10, add `-10`.

Another cool thing you can do is if you add `-F` you can see the login and logout time including the dates.

```
last -F
```

There are quite a lot of stuff you can view with this command. If you need to find out more about this command you can run:

```
last --help
```

The `locate` command

The `locate` command searches the file system for files and directories whose name matches a given pattern through a database file that is generated by the `updatedb` command.

Examples:

1. Running the `locate` command to search for a file named `.bashrc`.

```
locate .bashrc
```

Output

```
/etc/bash.bashrc
/etc/skel/.bashrc
/home/linuxize/.bashrc
/usr/share/base-files/dot.bashrc
/usr/share/doc/adduser/examples/adduser.local.conf.examples/ba
sh.bashrc
/usr/share/doc/adduser/examples/adduser.local.conf.examples/sk
el/dot.bashrc
```

The `/root/.bashrc` file will not be shown because we ran the command as a normal user that doesn't have access permissions to the `/root` directory.

If the result list is long, for better readability, you can pipe the output to the `less` command:

```
locate .bashrc | less
```

2. To search for all `.md` files on the system

```
locate *.md
```

3. To search all `.py` files and display only 10 results

```
locate -n 10 *.py
```

4. To performs case-insensitive search.

```
locate -i readme.md
```

Output

```
/home/linuxize/p1/readme.md  
/home/linuxize/p2/README.md  
/home/linuxize/p3/ReadMe.md
```

5. To return the number of all files containing `.bashrc` in their name.

```
locate -c .bashrc
```

Output

```
6
```

6. The following would return only the existing `.json` files on the file

system.

```
locate -e *.json
```

7. To run a more complex search the `-r (--regex)` option is used. To search for all `.mp4` and `.avi` files on your system and ignore case.

```
locate --regex -i "(\\.mp4|\\.avi)"
```

Syntax:

```
1. locate [OPTION]... PATTERN...
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
<code>-A</code>	<code>--all</code>	It is used to display only entries that match all PATTERNS instead of requiring only one of them to match.
<code>-b</code>	<code>--basename</code>	It is used to match only the base name against the specified patterns.
<code>-c</code>	<code>--count</code>	It is used for writing the number matching entries instead of writing file names on standard output.
<code>-d</code>	<code>--database DBPATH</code>	It is used to replace the default database with DBPATH.
<code>-e</code>	<code>--existing</code>	It is used to display only entries that refer to existing files during the command is executed.
<code>-L</code>	<code>--follow</code>	If the <code>--existing</code> option is specified, It is used for checking whether files exist and follow trailing symbolic links. It will omit the broken symbolic links to the output. This is the default behavior. The opposite behavior can be specified using the <code>--nofollow</code> option.
<code>-h</code>	<code>--help</code>	It is used to display the help documentation that contains a summary of the available options.
<code>-i</code>	<code>--ignore-case</code>	It is used to ignore case sensitivity of the specified patterns.
<code>-p</code>	<code>--ignore-</code>	

spaces|It is used to ignore punctuation and spaces when matching patterns.| **-t|--transliterate**|It is used to ignore accents using iconv transliteration when matching patterns.| **-l|--limit, -n LIMIT**|If this option is specified, the command exit successfully after finding LIMIT entries.| **-m|--mmap**|It is used to ignore the compatibility with BSD, and GNU locate.| **-0|--null**|It is used to separate the entries on output using the ASCII NUL character instead of writing each entry on a separate line.| **-S|--statistics**|It is used to write statistics about each read database to standard output instead of searching for files.| **-r|--regexp REGEXP**|It is used for searching a basic regexp REGEXP.| **- -regex**|

-

|It is used to describe all PATTERNS as extended regular expressions.| **-V|--version**|It is used to display the version and license information.| **-w|--wholename**|It is used for matching only the whole path name in specified patterns.|

The `iostat` command

The `iostat` command in Linux is used for monitoring system input/output statistics for devices and partitions. It monitors system input/output by observing the time the devices are active in relation to their average transfer rates. The `iostat` produce reports may be used to change the system configuration to raised balance the input/output between the physical disks. `iostat` is being included in `sysstat` package. If you don't have it, you need to install first.

Syntax:

```
iostat [ -c ] [ -d ] [ -h ] [ -N ] [ -k | -m ] [ -t ] [ -V ] [
-x ]
      [ -z ] [ [ [ -T ] -g group_name ] { device [...] | ALL
} ]
      [ -p [ device [,...] | ALL ] ] [ interval [ count ] ]
```

Examples:

1. Display a single history-since-boot report for all CPU and Devices:

```
iostat -d 2
```

2. Display a continuous device report at two-second intervals:

```
iostat -d 2 6
```

3.Display, for all devices, six reports at two-second intervals:

```
iostat -x sda sdb 2 6
```

4.Display, for devices sda and sdb, six extended reports at two-second intervals:

```
iostat -p sda 2 6
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Description
x	Show more details statistics information.
-c	Show only the cpu statistic.
-d	Display only the device report
-xd	Show extended I/O statistic for device only.
-k	Capture the statistics in kilobytes or megabytes.
-k23	Display cpu and device statistics with delay.
-j ID mmcbkl0 sda6 -x -m 2 2	Display persistent device name statistics.
-p	Display statistics for block devices.
-N`	Display lvm2 statistic information.

The `sudo` command

The `sudo` ("switch user, do") command allows a user with proper permissions to execute a command as another user. By default, `sudo` executes commands as root.

Syntax:

```
sudo [-OPTION] command
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Flag |Description | |:---|:---| |**-V**|The -V (version) option causes `sudo` to print the version number and exit. If the invoking user is already root, the -V option prints out a list of the defaults `sudo` was compiled with and the machine's local network addresses| |**-l**|The -l (list) option prints out the commands allowed (and forbidden) the user on the current host.| |**-L**|The -L (list defaults) option lists out the parameters set in a Defaults line with a short description for each. This option is useful in conjunction with `grep`.| |**-h**|The -h (help) option causes `sudo` to print a usage message and exit.| |**-v**|If given the -v (validate) option, `sudo` updates the user's timestamp, prompting for the user's password if necessary. This extends the `sudo` timeout for another 5 minutes (or whatever the timeout is set to in `sudoers`) but does not run a command.| |**-K**|The -K (sure kill) option to `sudo` removes the user's timestamp entirely. Likewise, this option does not require a password.| |**-u**|The -u (user) option causes `sudo` to run the specified command as a user other than root. To specify a uid instead of a username, use `#uid`.|

| -s | The -s (shell) option runs the shell specified by the SHELL environment variable if it's set or the shell as specified in the file passwd. | | - - | The -- flag indicates that sudo should stop processing command line arguments. It is most useful in conjunction with the -s flag. |

The `apt` command

`apt`(Advantage package system) command is used for interacting with `dpkg`(packaging system used by debian). There is already `dpkg` command to manage `.deb` packages. But `apt` is more user-friendly and efficient way.

In simple terms `apt` is a command used for installing, deleting and other operations on debian based Linux.

You will be using `apt` command mostly with `sudo` privileges.

Installing packages:

`install` followed by `package_name` is used with `apt` to install new package.

Syntax:

```
sudo apt install package_name
```

Example:

```
sudo apt-get install g++
```

This command will install `g++` on your system.

Removing packages:

`remove` followed by `package_name` is used with `apt` to remove specific package.

Syntax:

```
sudo apt remove package_name
```

Example:

```
sudo apt-get remove g++
```

This command will remove g++ from your system.

Removing unused packages:

Whenever a new package that depends on other packages is installed on the system, the package dependencies will be installed too. When the package is removed, the dependencies will stay on the system. This leftover packages are no longer used by anything else and can be removed.

Syntax:

```
sudo apt autoremove
```

This command will remove all unused from your system.

Updating package index:

`apt` package index is nothing but a database that stores record of

available packages that are enabled on your system.

Syntax:

```
sudo apt update
```

This command will package index on your system.

Upgrading packages:

If you want to install latest update for your install packages you may wanna run this command.

Syntax:

```
sudo apt upgrade
```

The command doesn't upgrade packages that require removal of installed packages.

If you want to upgrade a single package, pass the package name:

Syntax:

```
sudo apt upgrade package_name
```

This command will upgrade your packages to latest version.

The `yum` command

The `yum` command is the primary package management tool for installing, updating, removing, and managing software packages in Red Hat Enterprise Linux. It is an acronym for *Yellow Dog Updater, Modified*.

`yum` performs dependency resolution when installing, updating, and removing software packages. It can manage packages from installed repositories in the system or from `.rpm` packages.

Syntax:

```
yum -option command
```

Examples:

1. To see an overview of what happened in past transactions:

```
yum history
```

2. To undo a previous transaction:

```
yum history undo <id>
```

3. To install firefox package with 'yes' as a response to all confirmations

```
yum -y install firefox
```

4. To update the mysql package it to the latest stable version

```
yum update mysql
```

Commonly used commands along with yum:

Command	Description
<code>install</code>	Installs the specified packages
<code>remove</code>	Removes the specified packages
<code>search</code>	Searches package metadata for keywords
<code>info</code>	Lists the description
<code>update</code>	Updates each package to the latest version
<code>repolist</code>	Lists repositories
<code>history</code>	Displays what has happened in past transactions
<code>groupinstall</code>	To install a particular package group
<code>clean</code>	To clean all cached files from enabled repository

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
<code>-C</code>	<code>--cacheonly</code>	Runs entirely from system cache, doesn't update the cache and use it even in case it is expired.
<code>--security</code>		Includes packages that provide a fix for a security issue. Applicable for the upgrade command.
<code>-y</code>	<code>--assumeyes</code>	Automatically answer yes for all questions.
<code>--skip-broken</code>		Resolves depolve problems by removing packages that are causing problems from the transaction. It is an alias for the

strict configuration option with value False. | | -v | --verbose | Verbose operation, show debug messages. |

The `zip` command

The `zip` command is used to compress files and reduce their size. It outputs an archive containing one or more compressed files or directories.

Examples:

In order to compress a single file with the `zip` command the syntax would be the following:

```
zip myZipFile.zip filename.txt
```

This also works with multiple files as well:

```
zip multipleFiles.zip file1.txt file2.txt
```

If you are compressing a whole directory, don't forget to add the `-r` flag:

```
zip -r zipFolder.zip myFolder/
```

Syntax:

```
zip [OPTION] zipFileName filesList
```


Possible options:

Flag | **Description** | **[:---|:---|** | **-d** | Removes the file from the zip archive. After creating a zip file, you can remove a file from the archive using the **-d** option | **-u** | Updates the file in the zip archive. This option can be used to update the specified list of files or add new files to the existing zip file. Update an existing entry in the zip archive only if it has been modified more recently than the version already in the zip archive. | **-m** | Deletes the original files after zipping. | **-r** | To zip a directory recursively, it will recursively zip the files in a directory. This option helps to zip all the files present in the specified directory. | **-x** | Exclude the files in creating the zip | **-v** | Verbose mode or print diagnostic version info. Normally, when applied to real operations, this option enables the display of a progress indicator during compression and requests verbose diagnostic info about zip file structure oddities |

The `unzip` command

The `unzip` command extracts all files from the specified ZIP archive to the current directory.

Examples:

In order to extract the files the syntax would be the following:

```
unzip myZipFile.zip
```

To unzip a ZIP file to a different directory than the current one, don't forget to add the `-d` flag:

```
unzip myZipFile.zip -d /path/to/directory
```

To unzip a ZIP file and exclude specific file or files or directories from being extracted, don't forget to add the `-x` flag:

```
unzip myZipFile.zip -x file1.txt file2.txt
```

Syntax:

```
unzip zipFileName [OPTION] [PARAMS]
```

Possible options:

Flag	Description	Params
:--- :--- :---		
-d	Unzip an archive to a different directory.	/path/to/directory
-x	Extract the archive but do not extract the specified files.	filename(s)
-j	Unzip without creating new folders, if the zipped archive contains a folder structure.	
-l	Lists the contents of an archive file without extracting it.	
-n	Do not overwrite existing files; supply an alternative filename instead.	
-o	Overwrite files.	
-P	Supplies a password to unzip a protected archive file.	password
-q	Unzips without writing status messages to the standard output.	
-t	Tests whether an archive file is valid.	
-v	Displays detailed (verbose) information about the archive without extracting it.	

The `shutdown` command

The `shutdown` command let you bring your system down in a secure way. When `shutdown` is executed the system will notify all logged-in users and disallow further logins. You have the option to shut down your system immediately or after a specific time.

Only users with root (or sudo) privileges can use the `shutdown` command.

Examples:

1. Shut down your system immediately:

```
sudo shutdown now
```

2. Shut down your system after 10 minutes:

```
sudo shutdown +10
```

3. Shut down your system with a message after 5 minutes:

```
sudo shutdown +5 "System will shutdown in 5 minutes"
```

Syntax:

shutdown [OPTIONS] [TIME] [MESSAGE]

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description	Example
------------	-----------	-------------	---------

-

		Reboot the system	-c
--	--	-------------------	----

-

		Cancel an sheduled shut down	
--	--	------------------------------	--

The `dir` command

The `dir` command lists the contents of a directory(*the current directory by default*). **It differs from `ls` command in the format of listing the content.** By default, the `dir` command lists the files and folders in columns, sorted vertically and special characters are represented by backslash escape sequences.

Syntax:

```
dir [OPTIONS] [FILE]
```

Examples:

1. To list files in the current directory:

```
dir
```

2. To list even the hidden files in the current directory:

```
dir -a
```

3. To list the content with detailed information for each entry

```
dir -l
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-a	--all	It displays all the hidden files(starting with .) along with two files denoted by . and ..
-A	--almost-all	It is similar to -a option except that it <i>does not display files that signals the current directory and previous directory.</i>
-l		
-s	--size	Print the allocated size of each file, in blocks
-h	--human-readable	Used with -l and -s, to print sizes like in human readable format like 1K, 2M and so on
-F		
-v	--verbose	Print source and destination files
--group-directories-first		To group directories before files
-R	--recursive	To List subdirectories recursively.
-S		sort by file size, display largest first

The `reboot` Command

`halt`, `poweroff`, and `reboot` are commands you can run as root to stop the system hardware.

- `halt` instructs the hardware to stop all CPU functions.
- `poweroff` sends an ACPI signal which instructs the system to power down.
- `reboot` instructs the system to reboot.

These commands require superuser `privileges`. If you are not logged in as root, you need to prefix the command with `sudo` or the signal isn't sent.

These programs allow a system administrator to reboot, halt or poweroff the system.

When called with `--force` or when in `runlevel` 0 or 6, this tool invokes the `reboot` system call itself (with `REBOOTCOMMAND` argument passed) and directly reboots the system. Otherwise, this invokes the `shutdown` tool with the appropriate arguments without passing `REBOOTCOMMAND` argument.

Before invoking reboot, a shutdown time record is first written to `/var/log/wtmp`

Examples:

1. If you are logged in as root, issuing the reboot command will immediately initiate a reboot sequence. The system shuts down and then commence a **warm boot**.

```
reboot
```

2. Execute the reboot command as root.

```
sudo reboot
```

Syntax

```
reboot [OPTION]... [REBOOTCOMMAND]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag | Long Flag | Description| |---|---|---| |**-f** | **--force** | Does not invoke shutdown and instead performs the actual action you would expect from the name.| |**-p** | **--poweroff** | Instructs the halt command to instead behave as poweroff.| |**-w** | **--wtmp-only** | Does not call shutdown or the reboot system call and instead only writes the shutdown record to /var/log/wtmp.| |**--verbose** | Outputs slightly more verbose messages when rebooting, which can be useful for debugging problems with shutdown.|

Environment

| ENV | Description | --- | --- | | **RUNLEVEL** | reboot will read the current runlevel from this environment variable if set in preference to reading from /var/run/utmp. |

Files

File	Description
<code>/var/run/utmp</code>	File where the current runlevel will be read from; this file also be updated with the runlevel record being replaced by a shutdown time record.
<code>/var/log/wtmp</code>	A new runlevel record for the shutdown time will be appended to this file.

The `sort` command

`SORT` command is used to sort a file, arranging the records in a particular order. By default, the `sort` command sorts file assuming the contents are ASCII. Using options in the `sort` command can also be used to sort numerically.

Examples:

Suppose you create a data file with name `file.txt`:

```
Command :  
$ cat > file.txt  
abhishek  
chitransh  
satish  
rajan  
naveen  
divyam  
harsh
```

Sorting a file: Now use the `sort` command

Syntax :

```
sort filename.txt
```

```
Command:  
$ sort file.txt
```

```
Output :  
abhishek  
chitransh  
divyam  
harsh  
naveen  
rajan  
satish
```

Note: This command does not actually change the input file, i.e. file.txt.


Sort function with mix file i.e. uppercase and lower case: When we have a mix file with both uppercase and lowercase letters then first the upper case letters would be sorted following with the lower case letters.

Example:

Create a file mix.txt

```
Command :  
$ cat > mix.txt  
abc  
apple  
BALL  
Abc  
bat
```

Now use the sort command



```
Command :  
$ sort mix.txt  
Output :  
Abc  
BALL  
abc  
apple  
bat
```


The `paste` command

The `paste` command write lines of two or more files sequentially, separated by TABs to the standard output

Syntax:

```
paste [OPTIONS]... [FILE]...
```

Examples:

1. To paste two files

```
paste file1 file2
```

2. To paste two files using new line as delimiter

```
paste -d '\n' file1 file2
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-d	--delimiter	use character of TAB
-s	--serial	paste one file at a time instead of in parallel
-z	--zero-terminated	set line delimiter to NUL, not newline
-h	--help	print command help
-V	--version	print version information

The `exit` command

The `exit` command is used to terminate (Close) active Shell

Syntax:

```
| exit
```

Shortcut: Instead of typing `exit`, press `ctrl + D`, it will do the same Functionality.

The `diff/sdiff` command

This command is used to display the differences in the files by comparing the files line by line.

Syntax:

```
diff [options] File1 File2
```

Example

1. Lets say we have two files with names a.txt and b.txt containing 5 Indian states as follows:-

```
$ cat a.txt  
Gujarat  
Uttar Pradesh  
Kolkata  
Bihar  
Jammu and Kashmir
```

```
$ cat b.txt  
Tamil Nadu  
Gujarat  
Andhra Pradesh  
Bihar  
Uttar pradesh
```

On typing the diff command we will get below output.

```
$ diff a.txt b.txt
0a1
> Tamil Nadu
2,3c3
< Uttar Pradesh
  Andhra Pradesh
5c5
  Uttar pradesh
```

Flags and their Functionalities

|Short Flag |Description | |--|--| | **-c**|To view differences in context mode, use the -c option. | | **-u**|To view differences in unified mode, use the -u option. It is similar to context mode | | **-i**|By default this command is case sensitive. To make this command case in-sensitive use -i option with diff. | | **-version**|This option is used to display the version of diff which is currently running on your system. |

The `tar` command

The `tar` command stands for tape archive, is used to create Archive and extract the Archive files. This command provides archiving functionality in Linux. We can use tar command to create compressed or uncompressed Archive files and also maintain and modify them.

Examples:

1. To create a tar file in abel directory:

```
tar -cvf file-14-09-12.tar /home/abel/
```

2. Untars file in the current directory:

```
tar -xvf file-14-09-12.tar
```

Syntax:

```
tar [options] [archive-file] [file or directory to be archived]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Use Flag | Description | `:-` | `:-` | `-c` | Creates Archive | `-x` | Extract the archive | `-f` | Creates archive with given filename | `-t` | Displays or lists files in archived file | `-u` | Archives and adds to an existing archive file | `-v` | Displays Verbose Information | `-A` | Concatenates the archive files | `-`

`z`|zip, tells tar command that creates tar file using gzip | `-j`|Filter archive tar file using tbzip | `w`|Verify a archive file | `r`|update or add file or directory in already existed .tar file | `-?`|Displays a short summary of the project | `-d`|Find the difference between an archive and file system | `--usage`|shows available tar options | `--version`|Displays the installed tar version | `--show-defaults`|Shows default enabled options |

Option Flag |Description | `---:---` | `--check-device`| Check device numbers during incremental archive| `-g`|Used to allow compatibility with GNU-format incremental ackups| `--hole-detection`|Used to detect holes in the sparse files| `-G`| Used to allow compatibility with old GNU-format incremental backups| `--ignore-failed-read`|Don't exit the program on file read errors| `--level`|Set the dump level for created archives| `-n`|Assume the archive is seekable| `--no-check-device`|Do not check device numbers when creating archives| `--no-seek`|Assume the archive is not seekable| `--occurrence=N`|Process only the Nth occurrence of each file| `--restrict`|Disable use of potentially harmful options| `--sparse-version=MAJOR,MINOR`|Set version of the sparce format to use| `-S`|Handle sparse files efficiently.|

Overwright control Flag |Description | `---:---` | `-k`|Don't replace existing files| `--keep-newer-files`|Don't replace existing files that are newer than the archives version| `--keep-directory-symlink`|Don't replace existing symlinks| `--no-overwrite-dir`|Preserve metadata of existing directories| `--one-top-level=DIR`|Extract all files into a DIR| `--overwrite`| Overwrite existing files| `--overwrite-dir`| Overwrite metadata of directories| `--recursive-unlink`| Recursively remove all files in the directory before extracting| `--remove-files`| Remove files after adding them to a directory| `--skip-old-files`| Don't replace existing files when extracting| `-u`| Remove each file before extracting over it| `-w`| Verify the archive after writing it|

The `gunzip` command

The `gunzip` command is an antonym command of `gzip` command. In other words, it decompress files deflated by `gzip` command.

`gunzip` takes a list of files on its command line and replaces each file whose name ends with `.gz`, `-gz`, `.z`, `-z`, or `_z` (ignoring case) and which begins with the correct magic number with an uncompressed file without the original extension. `gunzip` also recognizes the special extensions `.tgz` and `.taz` as shorthands for `.tar.gz` and `.tar.Z` respectively.

Examples:

1. Uncompress a file

```
gunzip filename.gz
```

2. Recursively uncompress content inside a directory, that match extension (suffix) compressed formats accepted by `gunzip`:

```
gunzip -r directory_name/
```

3. Uncompress all files in the current/working directory whose suffix match `.tgz`:

```
gunzip -S .tgz *
```

4. List compressed and uncompressed sizes, compression ratio and uncompressed name of input compressed file/s:

```
gunzip -l file_1 file_2
```

Syntax:

```
gunzip [ -acfhkLLnNrtvV ] [-S suffix] [ name ... ]
```

Video tutorial about using gzip, gunzip and tar commands:

[This video](#) shows how to compress and decompress in a Unix shell. It uses **gunzip** as decompression command.

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag|Long Flag|Description| |:-:|:-:|:-:| |**-c**|**--stdout**|write on standard output, keep original files unchanged| |**-h**|**--help**|give help information| |**-k**|**--keep**|keep (don't delete) input files| |**-l**|**--list**|list compressed file contents| |**-q**|**--quiet**|suppress all warnings| |**-r**|**--recursive**|operate recursively on directories| |**-S**|**--suffix=SUF**|use suffix SUF on compressed files| |**--synchronous**|synchronous output (safer if system crashes, but slower)| |**-t**|**--test**|test compressed file integrity| |**-v**|**--verbose**|verbose mode| |**-V**|**--version**|display version number|

The `hostnamectl` command

The `hostnamectl` command provides a proper API used to control Linux system hostname and change its related settings. The command also helps to change the hostname without actually locating and editing the `/etc/hostname` file on a given system.

Syntax

```
$ hostnamectl [OPTIONS...] COMMAND ...
```

where **COMMAND** can be any of the following

status: Used to check the current hostname settings

set-hostname NAME: Used to set system hostname

set-icon-name NAME: Used to set icon name for host

Example

1. Basic usage to view the current hostnames

```
$ hostnamectl
```

or

```
$ hostnamectl status
```

2. To change the static host name to *myhostname*. It may or may not require root access

```
$ hostnamectl set-hostname myhostname --static
```

3. To set or change a transient hostname

```
$ hostnamectl set-hostname myotherhostname --transient
```

4. To set the pretty hostname. The name that is to be set needs to be in the double quote(" ").

```
$ hostname set-hostname "prettyname" --pretty
```

The `iptables` Command

The `iptables` command is used to set up and maintain tables for the Netfilter firewall for IPv4, included in the Linux kernel. The firewall matches packets with rules defined in these tables and then takes the specified action on a possible match.

Syntax:

```
iptables --table TABLE -A/-C/-D... CHAIN rule --jump Target
```

Example and Explanation:

This command will append to the chain provided in parameters:

```
iptables [-t table] --append [chain] [parameters]
```

This command drops all the traffic coming on any port:

```
iptables -t filter --append INPUT -j DROP
```

Flags and their Functionalities:

|Flag|Description| |:---|:---| |`-C`|Check if a rule is present in the chain or not. It returns 0 if the rule exists and returns 1 if it does not.| |`-A`|Append to the chain provided in parameters.| |`-D`|Delete rule from the

The `netstat` command

The term `netstat` stands for Network Statistics. In layman's terms, `netstat` command displays the current network connections, networking protocol statistics, and a variety of other interfaces.

Check if you have `netstat` on your PC:

```
netstat -v
```

If you don't have `netstat` installed on your PC, you can install it with the following command:

```
sudo apt install net-tools
```

You can use `netstat` command for some use cases given below:

- `Netstat` command with `-nr` flag shows the routing table detail on the terminal.

Example:

```
netstat -nr
```

- `Netstat` command with `-i` flag shows statistics for the currently configured network interfaces. This command will display the first 10 lines of file `foo.txt`.

Example:

```
netstat -i
```

- **Netstat** command with **-tunlp** will gives a list of networks, their current states, and their associated ports.

Example:

```
netstat -tunlp
```

- You can get the list of all TCP port connection by using **-at** with **netstat**.

```
netstat -at
```

- You can get the list of all UDP port connection by using **-au** with **netstat**.

```
netstat -au
```

- You can get the list of all active connection by using **-l** with **netstat**.

```
netstat -l
```

The `lsuf` command

`lsuf` command shows **file information** of all the files opened by a running process. Its name is also derived from the fact that, list open files > `lsuf`

An open file may be a regular file, a directory, a block special file, a character special file, an executing text reference, a library, a stream or a network file (Internet socket, NFS file or UNIX domain socket.) A specific file or all the files in a file system may be selected by path.

Syntax:

```
lsuf [-OPTION] [USER_NAME]
```

Examples:

1. To show all the files opened by all active processes:

```
lsuf
```

2. To show the files opened by a particular user:

```
lsuf -u [USER_NAME]
```

3. To list the processes with opened files under a specified directory:


```
lsof +d [PATH_TO_DIR]
```

Options and their Functionalities:

|Option |Additional Options |Description | |:---|:---|:---| **| -i|tcp/udp/**
:port|List all network connections running, Additionally, on udp/tcp or
on specified port. **| -i4|**

-

|List all processes with ipv4 connections. **| -i6|**

-

|List all processes with ipv6 connections. **| -c|[PROCESS_NAME]|**List all
the files of a particular process with given name. **| -p|[PROCESS_ID]|**List
all the files opened by a specified process id. **| -p^[PROCESS_ID]|**List all
the files that are not opened by a specified process id. **| +d|[PATH]|**List
the processes with opened files under a specified directory **| +R|**

-

|List the files opened by parent process Id. |

Help Command

Run below command to view the complete guide to **lsof** command.

```
man lsof
```

The `bzip2` command

The `bzip2` command lets you to compress and decompress the files i.e. it helps in binding the files into a single file which takes less storage space as the original file use to take.

Syntax:

```
bzip2 [OPTIONS] filenames ...
```

Note : Each file is replaced by a compressed version of itself, with the name original name of the file followed by extension `bz2`.

Options and their Functionalities:

|Option |Alias |Description | |`:-`|`:-`|`:-`| |`-d`|`--decompress`|to decompress compressed file| |`-f`|`--force`|to force overwrite an existing output file| |`-h`|`--help`|to display the help message and exit| |`-k`|`--keep`|to enable file compression, doesn't deletes the original input file| |`-L`|`--license`|to display the license terms and conditions| |`-q`|`--quiet`|to suppress non-essential warning messages| |`-t`|`--test`|to check integrity of the specified .bz2 file, but don't want to decompress them| |`-v`|`--verbose`|to display details for each compression operation| |`-V`|`--version`|to display the software version| |`-z`|`--compress`|to enable file compression, but deletes the original input file|

By default, when bzip2 compresses a file, it deletes the original (or input) file. However, if you don't want that to happen, use the -k command line option.

Examples:

1. To force compression:

```
bzip2 -z input.txt
```

Note: This option deletes the original file also

2. To force compression and also retain original input file:

```
bzip2 -k input.txt
```

3. To force decompression:

```
bzip2 -d input.txt.bz2
```

4. To test integrity of compressed file:

```
bzip2 -t input.txt.bz2
```

5. To show the compression ratio for each file processed:

```
bzip2 -v input.txt
```

The `service` command

Service runs a System V init script in as predictable environment as possible, removing most environment variables and with current working directory set to `/`.

The `SCRIPT` parameter specifies a System V init script, located in `/etc/init.d/SCRIPT`. The supported values of `COMMAND` depend on the invoked script, service passes `COMMAND` and `OPTIONS` it to the init script unmodified. All scripts should support at least the start and stop commands. As a special case, if `COMMAND` is `--full-restart`, the script is run twice, first with the stop command, then with the start command.

The `COMMAND` can be at least start, stop, status, and restart. `service --status-all` runs all init scripts, in alphabetical order, with the status command/

Examples :

1. To check the status of all the running services :

```
service --status-all
```

2. To run a script

```
service SCRIPT-Name start
```

3. A more generalized command:

```
service [SCRIPT] [COMMAND] [OPTIONS]
```

The `vmstat` command

The `vmstat` command lets you monitor the performance of your system. It shows you information about your memory, disk, processes, CPU scheduling, paging, and block IO. This command is also referred to as **virtual memory statistic report**.

The very first report that is produced shows you the average details since the last reboot and after that, other reports are made which report over time.

`vmstat`



As you can see it is a pretty useful little command. The most important things that we see above are the `free`, which shows us the free space that is not being used, `si` shows us how much memory is swapped in every second in kB, and `so` shows how much memory is swapped out each second in kB as well.

`vmstat -a`

If we run `vmstat -a`, it will show us the active and inactive memory of the system running.



`vmstat -d`

The `vmstat -d` command shows us all the disk statistics.



As you can see this is a pretty useful little command that shows you different statistics about your virtual memory

The `mpstat` command

The `mpstat` command is used to report processor related statistics. It accurately displays the statistics of the CPU usage of the system and information about CPU utilization and performance.

Syntax:

```
mpstat [options] [<interval> [<count>]]
```

Note : It initializes the first processor with CPU 0, the second one with CPU 1, and so on.

Options and their Functionalities:

Option | **Description** | `|:---|:---|` | `-A` | to display all the detailed statistics |
`-h` | to display mpstat help | `-I` | to display detailed interrupts statistics |
`-n` | to report summary CPU statistics based on NUMA node placement |
`-N` | to indicate the NUMA nodes for which statistics are to be reported |
`-P` | to indicate the processors for which statistics are to be reported | `-o` | to display the statistics in JSON (Javascript Object Notation) format | `-T` | to display topology elements in the CPU report | `-u` | to report CPU utilization | `-v` | to display utilization statistics at the virtual processor level | `-V` | to display mpstat version | `-ALL` | to display detailed statistics about all CPUs |

Examples:

1. To display processor and CPU statistics:

```
mpstat
```

2. To display processor number of all CPUs:

```
mpstat -P ALL
```

3. To get all the information which the tool may collect:

```
mpstat -A
```

4. To display CPU utilization by a specific processor:

```
mpstat -P 0
```

5. To display CPU usage with a time interval:

```
mpstat 1 5
```

Note: This command will print 5 reports with 1 second time interval

The `ncdu` Command

`ncdu` (`NCurses Disk Usage`) is a curses-based version of the well-known 'du', and provides a fast way to see what directories are using your disk space.

Example

1. Quiet Mode

```
ncdu -q
```

2. Omit mounted directories

```
ncdu -q -x
```

Syntax

```
ncdu [-hqvX] [--exclude PATTERN] [-X FILE] dir
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag | Long Flag | Description| |---|---|---| | **-h** | - |Print a small help message| | **-q** | - |Quiet mode. While calculating disk space, ncd� will update the screen 10 times a second by default, this will be decreased to once every 2 seconds in quiet mode. Use this feature to save bandwidth over remote connections.| | **-v** | - |Print version.| | **-x** | - |Only count files and directories on the same filesystem as the specified dir.| | - | **--exclude** **PATTERN**|Exclude files that match PATTERN. This argument can be added multiple times to add more patterns.| | **-X** **FILE**| **--exclude-from** **FILE**| Exclude files that match any pattern in FILE. Patterns should be separated by a newline.|

The `uniq` command

The `uniq` command in Linux is a command line utility that reports or filters out the repeated lines in a file. In simple words, `uniq` is the tool that helps to detect the adjacent duplicate lines and also deletes the duplicate lines. It filters out the adjacent matching lines from the input file(that is required as an argument) and writes the filtered data to the output file .

Examples:

In order to omit the repeated lines from a file, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq kt.txt
```

In order to tell the number of times a line was repeated, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq -c kt.txt
```

In order to print repeated lines, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq -d kt.txt
```

In order to print unique lines, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq -u kt.txt
```

In order to allow the N fields to be skipped while comparing uniqueness of the lines, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq -f 2 kt.txt
```

In order to allow the N characters to be skipped while comparing uniqueness of the lines, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq -s 5 kt.txt
```

In order to make the comparison case-insensitive, the syntax would be the following:

```
uniq -i kt.txt
```

Syntax:

```
uniq [OPTION] [INPUT[OUTPUT]]
```

Possible options:

Flag | **Description** | **Params** | | :---|:---|:---| | **-c** | It tells how many times a line was repeated by displaying a number as a prefix with the line. | **-d** | It only prints the repeated lines and not the lines which aren't repeated. | **-i** | By default, comparisons done are case sensitive but with this option case insensitive comparisons can be made. | **-f** | It allows you to skip N fields (a field is a group of characters, delimited by

whitespace) of a line before determining uniqueness of a line.|-s|It doesn't compare the first N characters of each line while determining uniqueness. This is like the -f option, but it skips individual characters rather than fields.|-u|It allows you to print only unique lines.|-z|It will make a line end with 0 byte(NULL), instead of a newline.|-w|It only compares N characters in a line.|-help|It displays a help message and exit.|-version|It displays version information and exit.|-|

The **RPM** command

rpm - RPM Package Manager

rpm is a powerful **Package Manager**, which can be used to build, install, query, verify, update, and erase individual software packages. A **package** consists of an archive of files and meta-data used to install and erase the archive files. The meta-data includes helper scripts, file attributes, and descriptive information about the package. Packages come in two varieties: binary packages, used to encapsulate software to be installed, and source packages, containing the source code and recipe necessary to produce binary packages.

One of the following basic modes must be selected: **Query, Verify, Signature Check, Install/Upgrade/Freshen, Uninstall, Initialize Database, Rebuild Database, Resign, Add Signature, Set Owners/Groups, Show Querytags, and Show Configuration.**

General Options

These options can be used in all the different modes.

[Short Flag] [Long Flag] [Description] | ---|---|---| | -? | --help| Print a longer usage message then normal.| | - | --version |Print a single line containing the version number of rpm being used.| | - | --quiet | Print as little as possible - normally only error messages will be displayed.| | -v | - | Print verbose information - normally routine progress messages will be displayed.| | -vv | - | Print lots of ugly debugging information.| | - | --rcfile FILELIST | Each of the files in the colon separated FILELIST is read sequentially by rpm for configuration information. Only the first file in the list must exist, and tildes will be expanded to the value of \$HOME. The default FILELIST is

/usr/lib/rpm/rpmsrc:/usr/lib/rpm/redhat/rpmsrc:/etc/rpmsrc:~/.rpmsrc. | | - | -
-pipe CMD | Pipes the output of rpm to the command CMD. | | - | --
dbpath DIRECTORY | Use the database in DIRECTORY rather than the
default path /var/lib/rpm | | - | --root DIRECTORY | Use the file system
tree rooted at DIRECTORY for all operations. Note that this means the
database within DIRECTORY will be used for dependency checks and
any scriptlet(s) (e.g. %post if installing, or %prep if building, a package)
will be run after a chroot(2) to DIRECTORY. | | -D | --define='MACRO
EXPR' | Defines MACRO with value EXPR. | | -E | --eval='EXPR' | Prints
macro expansion of EXPR. |

Synopsis

Querying and Verifying Packages:

```
rpm {-q|--query} [select-options] [query-options]

rpm {-V|--verify} [select-options] [verify-options]

rpm --import PUBKEY ...

rpm {-K|--checksig} [--nosignature] [--nodigest] PACKAGE_FILE
...
```

Installing, Upgrading, and Removing Packages:

```
rpm {-i|--install} [install-options] PACKAGE_FILE ...
```

```
rpm {-U|--upgrade} [install-options] PACKAGE_FILE ...
```

```
rpm {-F|--freshen} [install-options] PACKAGE_FILE ...
```

```
rpm {-e|--erase} [--allmatches] [--nodeps] [--noscripts] [--notriggers] [--test] PACKAGE_NAME ...
```

Miscellaneous:

```
rpm {--initdb|--rebuilddb}

rpm {--addsign|--resign} PACKAGE_FILE...

rpm {--querytags|--showrc}

rpm {--setperms|--setugids} PACKAGE_NAME .
```

query-options

```
[--changelog] [-c,--configfiles] [-d,--docfiles] [--dump]
[--filesbypkg] [-i,--info] [--last] [-l,--list]
[--provides] [--qf,--queryformat QUERYFMT]
[-R,--requires] [--scripts] [-s,--state]
[--triggers,--triggerscripts]
```

verify-options

```
[--nodeps] [--nofiles] [--noscripts]
[--nodigest] [--nosignature]
[--nolinkto] [--nofiledigest] [--nosize] [--nouser]
[--nogroup] [--nomtime] [--nomode] [--nordev]
[--nocaps]
```

install-options

```
[--aid] [--allfiles] [--badreloc] [--excludepath OLDPATH]
[--excludedocs] [--force] [-h,--hash]
[--ignoresize] [--ignorearch] [--ignoreeos]
[--includedocs] [--justdb] [--nodeps]
[--nodigest] [--nosignature] [--nosuggest]
[--noorder] [--noscripts] [--notriggers]
[--oldpackage] [--percent] [--prefix NEWPATH]
[--relocate OLDPATH=NEWPATH]
[--replacefiles] [--replacepkgs]
[--test]
```

The `scp` command

SCP (secure copy) is a command-line utility that allows you to securely copy files and directories between two locations.

Both the files and passwords are encrypted so that anyone snooping on the traffic doesn't get anything sensitive.

Different ways to copy a file or directory:

- From local system to a remote system.
- From a remote system to a local system.
- Between two remote systems from the local system.

Examples:

1. To copy the files from a local system to a remote system:

```
scp /home/documents/local-file root@{remote-ip-address}:/home/
```

2. To copy the files from a remote system to the local system:

```
scp root@{remote-ip-address}:/home/remote-file  
/home/documents/
```

3. To copy the files between two remote systems from the local system.


```
scp root@{remote1-ip-address}:/home/remote-file root@{remote2-ip-address}/home/
```

Syntax:

```
scp [OPTION] [user@]SRC_HOST:]file1 [user@]DEST_HOST:]file2
```

- **OPTION** - scp options such as cipher, ssh configuration, ssh port, limit, recursive copy ...etc.
- **[user@]SRC_HOST:]file1** - Source file.
- **[user@]DEST_HOST:]file2** - Destination file

Local files should be specified using an absolute or relative path, while remote file names should include a user and host specification.

scp provides several that control every aspect of its behaviour. The most widely used options are:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-P		

-

|Specifies the remote host ssh port.| **-p**|

-

|Preserves files modification and access times.| **-q**|

-

|Use this option if you want to suppress the progress meter and non-error messages.| **-C**|

-

|This option forces scp to compresses the data as it is sent to the destination machine.| **-r**|

-

|This option tells scp to copy directories recursively.|

Before you begin

The `scp` command relies on `ssh` for data transfer, so it requires an `ssh` key or `password` to authenticate on the remote systems.

The `colon (:)` is how `scp` distinguish between local and remote locations.

To be able to copy files, you must have at least read permissions on the source file and write permission on the target system.

Be careful when copying files that share the same name and location on both systems, `scp` will overwrite files without warning.

When transferring large files, it is recommended to run the `scp` command inside a `screen` or `tmux` session.

The `sleep` command

`sleep` command is used to create a dummy job. A dummy job helps in delaying the execution. It takes time in seconds by default but a small suffix(s, m, h, d) can be added at the end to convert it into any other format. This command pauses the execution for an amount of time which is defined by NUMBER.

Note: If you will define more than one NUMBER with `sleep` command then this command will delay for the sum of the values.

Examples :

1. To sleep for 10s

```
sleep 10s
```

2. A more generalized command:

```
sleep NUMBER[SUFFIX]...
```

Options

It accepts the following options:

1. `--help`
display this help and exit
 2. `--version`
output version information and exit
-

The `split` command

The `split` command in Linux is used to split a file into smaller files.

Examples

1. Split a file into a smaller file using file name

```
split filename.txt
```

2. Split a file named filename into segments of 200 lines beginning with prefix file

```
split -l 200 filename file
```

This will create files of the name fileaa, fileab, fileac, filead, etc. of 200 lines.

3. Split a file named filename into segments of 40 bytes with prefix file

```
split -b 40 filename file
```

This will create files of the name fileaa, fileab, fileac, filead, etc. of 40 bytes.

4. Split a file using `--verbose` to see the files being created.

```
split filename.txt --verbose
```

Syntax:

```
split [options] filename [prefix]
```

The `stat` command

The `stat` command lets you display file or file system status. It gives you useful information about the file (or directory) on which you use it.

Examples:

1. Basic command usage

```
stat file.txt
```

2. Use the `-c` (or `--format`) argument to only display information you want to see (here, the total size, in bytes)

```
stat file.txt -c %s
```

Syntax:

```
stat [OPTION] [FILE]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
	<code>-L</code>	<code>--dereference</code> Follow links
<code>-f</code>	<code>--file-system</code>	Display file system status instead of file status
<code>-c</code>	<code>--format=FORMAT</code>	Specify the format (see below)
<code>-t</code>	<code>--terse</code>	Print the information in terse form
		<code>--cached=MODE</code>

| Specify how to use cached attributes. Can be: **always**, **never**, or **default** | | - | **--printf=FORMAT** | Like **--format**, but interpret backslash escapes (**\n**, **\t**, ...) | | - | **--help** | Display the help and exit | | - | **--version** | Output version information and exit |

Example of Valid Format Sequences for Files:

Format	Description
%a	Permission bits in octal
%A	Permission bits and file type in human readable form
%d	Device number in decimal
%D	Device number in hex
%F	File type
%g	Group ID of owner
%G	Group name of owner
%h	Number of hard links
%i	Inode number
%m	Mount point
%n	File name
%N	Quoted file name with dereference if symbolic link
%s	Total size, in bytes
%u	User ID of owner
%U	User name of owner
%w	Time of file birth, human-readable; - if unknown
%x	Time of last access, human-readable
%y	Time of last data modification, human-readable
%z	Time of last status change, human-readable

The `useradd` command

The `useradd` command is used to add or update user accounts to the system.

Examples:

To add a new user with the `useradd` command the syntax would be the following:

```
useradd NewUser
```

To add a new user with the `useradd` command and give a home directory path for this new user the syntax would be the following:

```
useradd -d /home/NewUser NewUser
```

To add a new user with the `useradd` command and give it a specific id the syntax would be the following:

```
useradd -u 1234 NewUser
```

Syntax:

```
useradd [OPTIONS] NameOfUser
```

Possible options:

Flag	Description	Params
:--- :--- :--- -d	The new user will be created using /path/to/directory as the value for the user's login directory /path/to/directory	
-u	The numerical value of the user's ID ID	
-g	Create a user with specific group id GroupID	
-M	Create a user without home directory -	
-e	Create a user with expiry date DATE (format: YYYY-MM-DD)	
-c	Create a user with a comment COMMENT	
-s	Create a user with changed login shell /path/to/shell	
-p	Set an unencrypted password for the user PASSWORD	

The `userdel` command

The `userdel` command is used to delete a user account and related files

Examples:

To delete a user with the `userdel` command the syntax would be the following:

```
userdel userName
```

To force the removal of a user account even if the user is still logged in, using the `userdel` command the syntax would be the following:

```
userdel -f userName
```

To delete a user along with the files in the user's home directory using the `userdel` command the syntax would be the following:

```
userdel -r userName
```

Syntax:

```
userdel [OPTIONS] userName
```

Possible options:

Flag | **Description** | |:---|:---| | -f | Force the removal of the specified user account even if the user is logged in | | -r | Remove the files in the user's home directory along with the home directory itself and the user's mail spool | | -Z | Remove any SELinux(Security-Enhanced Linux) user mapping for the user's login. |

The `usermod` command

The `usermod` command lets you to change the properties of a user in Linux through the command line. After creating a user we have to sometimes change their attributes like password or login directory etc. so in order to do that we use the `usermod` command.

Syntax:

```
usermod [options] USER
```

Note : Only superuser (root) is allowed to execute `usermod` command

Options and their Functionalities:

|Option |Description | `|:---|:---|` `| -a |`to add anyone of the group to a secondary group| `| -c |`to add comment field for the useraccount| `| -d |`to modify the directory for any existing user account| `| -g |`change the primary group for a User| `| -G |`to add supplementary groups| `| -l |`to change existing user login name| `| -L |`to lock system user account| `| -m |`to move the contents of the home directory from existing home dir to new dir| `| -p |`to create an un-encrypted password| `| -s |`to create a specified shell for new accounts| `| -u |`to assigned UID for the user account| `| -U |`to unlock any locked user|

Examples:

1. To add a comment/description for a user:

```
sudo usermod -c "This is test user" test_user
```

2. To change the home directory of a user:

```
sudo usermod -d /home/sam test_user
```

3. To change the expiry date of a user:

```
sudo usermod -e 2021-10-05 test_user
```

4. To change the group of a user:

```
sudo usermod -g sam test_user
```

5. To change user login name:

```
sudo usermod -l test_account test_user
```

6. To lock a user:

```
sudo usermod -L test_user
```

7. To unlock a user:

```
sudo usermod -U test_user
```

8. To set an unencrypted password for the user:

```
sudo usermod -p test_password test_user
```

9. To create a shell for the user:

```
sudo usermod -s /bin/sh test_user
```

10. To change the user id of a user:

```
sudo usermod -u 1234 test_user
```

The `ionice` command

The `ionice` command is used to set or get process I/O scheduling class and priority.

Examples of uses:

1. Sets process with PID 12 as an idle I/O process:

```
ionice -c 3 -p 12
```

2. Prints the class and priority of the processes with PID 12 and 21.

```
ionice -p 12 21
```

Syntax:

```
ionice [-c class] [-n level] [-t] command
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag |Long Flag |Description | |---|:---|:---| **| -p | -pid |** Specify the process IDs of running processes for which scheduling parameters should be retrieved or set. **| -t | -ignore |** Ignore the request for a priority that hasn't been specified. **| -h | -help |** Display the help text **| -u | -uid |** Specify the user IDs of running processes for which to get or

set the scheduling parameters|

The `du` command

The `du` command which is short for `disk usage` lets you retrieve information about disk space usage information in a specified directory. In order to customize the output according to the information you need, this command can be paired with the appropriate options or flags.

Examples:

1. To show the estimated size of sub-directories in the current directory:

```
du
```

2. To show the estimated size of sub-directories inside a specified directory:

```
du {PATH_TO_DIRECTORY}
```

Syntax:

```
du [OPTION]... [FILE]...  
du [OPTION]... --files0-from=F
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Note: This does not include an exhaustive list of options.

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-a	--all	Includes information for both files and directories
-c	--total	Provides a grand total at the end of the list of files/directories
-d	--max-depth=N	Provides information up to N levels from the directory where the command was executed
-h	--human-readable	Displays file size in human-readable units, not in bytes
-s	--summarize	Display only the total filesize instead of a list of files/directories

The `ping` command

PING (Packet Internet Groper) command is used to check the network connectivity between host and server/host. This command takes as input the IP address or the URL and sends a data packet to the specified address with the message "PING" and get a response from the server/host this time is recorded which is called latency. Ping uses ICMP(Internet Control Message Protocol) to send an ICMP echo message to the specified host if that host is available then it sends ICMP reply message. Ping is generally measured in millisecond every modern operating system has this ping pre-installed.

The basic ping syntax includes ping followed by a hostname, a name of a website, or the exact IP address.

```
ping [option] [hostname] or [IP address]
```

Examples:

1. To get ping version installed on your system.

```
sudo ping -v
```

2. To check whether a remote host is up, in this case, google.com, type in your terminal:

```
ping google.com
```

3. Controlling the number of pings: Earlier we did not define the number of packets to send to the server/host by using -c option we can do so.

```
ping -c 5 google.com
```

4. Controlling the number of pings: Earlier a default sized packets were sent to a host but we can send light and heavy packet by using -s option.

```
ping -s 40 -c 5 google.com
```

5. Changing the time interval: By default ping wait for 1 sec to send next packet we can change this time by using -i option.

```
ping -i 2 google.com
```

The `rsync` Command

`rsync` is a fast and extraordinarily versatile file copying tool. It can copy locally, to/from another host over any remote shell, or to/from a remote `rsync` daemon. It offers a large number of options that control every aspect of its behavior and permit very flexible specification of the set of files to be copied. It is famous for its delta-transfer algorithm, which reduces the amount of data sent over the network by sending only the differences between the source files and the existing files in the destination. `Rsync` is widely used for backups and mirroring and as an improved copy command for everyday use.

`Rsync` finds files that need to be transferred using a `quick check` algorithm (by default) that looks for files that have changed in size or in last-modified time. Any changes in the other preserved attributes (as requested by options) are made on the destination file directly when the quick check indicates that the file's data does not need to be updated.

Some of the additional features of `rsync` are:

- support for copying links, devices, owners, groups, and permissions
- `exclude` and `exclude-from` options similar to GNU `tar`
- a CVS `exclude` mode for ignoring the same files that CVS would ignore
- can use any transparent remote shell, including `ssh` or `rsh`
- does not require super-user privileges
- pipelining of file transfers to minimize latency costs
- support for anonymous or authenticated `rsync` daemons (ideal for mirroring)

Examples:

1. Copy/Sync a File on a Local Computer

```
rsync -zvh backup.tar.gz /tmp/backups/
```

2. Copy/Sync a Directory on Local Computer

```
rsync -avzh /root/rpmpkgs /tmp/backups/
```

3. Copy/Sync Files and Directory to or From a Server

```
rsync -avzh /root/rpmpkgs root@192.168.0.141:/root/
```

4. Show Progress While Transferring Data with rsync

```
rsync -avzhe ssh --progress /root/rpmpkgs  
root@192.168.0.141:/root/rpmpkgs
```

5. Set the Max Size of Files to be Transferred

```
rsync -avzhe ssh --max-size='200k' /var/lib/rpm/  
root@192.168.0.151:/root/tmprpm
```

Syntax:

1. Local: `rsync [OPTION...] SRC... [DEST]`
2. Access via remote shell:
 - Pull: `rsync [OPTION...] [USER@]HOST:SRC... [DEST]`
 - Push: `rsync [OPTION...] SRC... [USER@]HOST:DEST`
3. Access via rsync daemon:
 - Pull: `rsync [OPTION...] [USER@]HOST::SRC... [DEST]`
`rsync [OPTION...] rsync://[USER@]HOST[:PORT]/SRC...
[DEST]`
 - Push: `rsync [OPTION...] SRC... [USER@]HOST::DEST`
`rsync [OPTION...] SRC...
rsync://[USER@]HOST[:PORT]/DEST`

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

[Short Flag | Long Flag | Description | |---|---|---| | -v | --verbose | increase verbosity | | -q | --quiet | suppress non-error messages | | -|--no-motd | suppress daemon-mode MOTD (see caveat) | | -c | --checksum | skip based on checksum, not mod-time & size | | -a | --archive | archive mode; equals -r|ptgoD (no -H,-A,-X) | | -|--no-OPTION | turn off an implied OPTION (e.g., --no-D) | | -r | --recursive | recurse into directories | | -R | --relative | use relative path names | | -|--no-implied-dirs | don't send implied dirs with --relative | | -b | --backup | make backups (see --suffix & --backup-dir) | | -|--backup-dir=DIR | make backups into hierarchy based in DIR | | -|--suffix=SUFFIX | backup suffix (default ~ w/o --backup-dir) | | -u | --update | skip files that are newer on the receiver | | -|--inplace | update destination files in-place | | -|--append | append data onto shorter files | | -|--append-verify | --append w/old data in file checksum | | -d | --dirs | transfer directories without recursing | | -l | --links | copy symlinks as symlinks | | -L | --copy-links | transform symlink into referent file/dir | | -|--copy-unsafe-links | only "unsafe" symlinks are transformed | | -|--safe-links | ignore symlinks that point outside the tree | | -k | --copy-dirlinks | transform symlink to dir into referent dir | | -K | --keep-dirlinks | treat symlinked dir on receiver as dir | | -H | --hard-links | preserve hard links | | -p | --perms | preserve permissions | | -E | --executability | preserve executability | | -|--chmod=CHMOD | affect file and/or directory permissions | | -A | --acls | preserve ACLs (implies -p) | | -X | --xattrs | preserve extended attributes | | -o | --owner | preserve owner (super-user only) | | -g | --group | preserve group | | -|--devices | preserve device files (super-user only) | | -|--specials | preserve special files | | -D | | same as --devices --specials | | -t | --times | preserve modification times | | -O | --omit-dir-times | omit directories from --times | | -|--super | receiver attempts super-user activities | | -|--fake-super | store/recover privileged attrs using xattrs | | -S | --sparse | handle sparse files efficiently | | -n | --dry-run | perform a trial run with no changes made | | -W | --whole-file | copy files whole (w/o delta-xfer algorithm) | | -x | -one-file-system | don't cross filesystem boundaries | | -B | --block-

size=SIZE| force a fixed checksum block-size| |-e| --rsh=COMMAND
 |specify the remote shell to use| |-|--rsync-path=PROGRAM |specify the
 rsync to run on remote machine| |-|--existing skip |creating new files on
 receiver| |-|--ignore-existing |skip updating files that exist on receiver| |-
 |--remove-source-files| sender removes synchronized files (non-dir)| |-|--
 del |an alias for --delete-during| |-|--delete |delete extraneous files from
 dest dirs| |-|--delete-before| receiver deletes before transfer, not during|
 |-|--delete-during| receiver deletes during the transfer| |-|--delete-delay
 |find deletions during, delete after| |-|--delete-after |receiver deletes
 after transfer, not during| |-|--delete-excluded| also delete excluded files
 from dest dirs| |-|--ignore-errors| delete even if there are I/O errors| |---
 force |force deletion of dirs even if not empty| |-|--max-delete=NUM|
 don't delete more than NUM files| |-|--max-size=SIZE| don't transfer any
 file larger than SIZE| |-|--min-size=SIZE| don't transfer any file smaller
 than SIZE| |-|--partial| keep partially transferred files| |-|--partial-dir=DIR
 |put a partially transferred file into DIR| |-|--delay-updates |put all
 updated files into place at end| |-m | --prune-empty-dirs| prune empty
 directory chains from file-list| |-|--numeric-ids| don't map uid/gid values
 by user/group name| |-|--timeout=SECONDS| set I/O timeout in seconds|
 |-|--contimeout=SECONDS| set daemon connection timeout in seconds|
 |-l | --ignore-times |don't skip files that match size and time| |-|--size-
 only| skip files that match in size| |-|--modify-window=NUM |compare
 mod-times with reduced accuracy| |-T | --temp-dir=DIR| create
 temporary files in directory DIR| |-y | --fuzzy |find similar file for basis if
 no dest file| |-|--compare-dest=DIR| also compare received files relative
 to DIR| |-|--copy-dest=DIR| ... and include copies of unchanged files| |- |
 --link-dest=DIR| hardlink to files in DIR when unchanged| |-z | --
 compress| compress file data during the transfer| |-|--compress-
 level=NUM |explicitly set compression level| | - |--skip-compress=LIST|
 skip compressing files with suffix in LIST| |-C | --cvs-exclude |auto-ignore
 files in the same way CVS does| |-f | --filter=RULE |add a file-filtering
 RULE| | -F | - |same as --filter='dir-merge /.rsync-filter' ; repeated: --
 filter='- .rsync-filter'| |-|--exclude=PATTERN |exclude files matching
 PATTERN| |-|--exclude-from=FILE| read exclude patterns from FILE| |---

include=PATTERN |don't exclude files matching PATTERN| |--include-from=FILE| read include patterns from FILE| |--files-from=FILE| read list of source-file names from FILE| |0| --from0 |all *from/filter files are delimited by 0s| |s| --protect-args| no space-splitting; wildcard chars only| |--address=ADDRESS| bind address for outgoing socket to daemon| | - |--port=PORT |specify double-colon alternate port number| |--sockopts=OPTIONS| specify custom TCP options| |--blocking-io| use blocking I/O for the remote shell| |--stats| give some file-transfer stats| |8|--8-bit-output |leave high-bit chars unescaped in output| |h| --human-readable |output numbers in a human-readable format| |--progress |show progress during transfer| |P| - | same as --partial --progress| |i | --itemize-changes| output a change-summary for all updates| |--out-format=FORMAT| output updates using the specified FORMAT| |--log-file=FILE |log what we're doing to the specified FILE| |--log-file-format=FMT| log updates using the specified FMT| |--password-file=FILE| read daemon-access password from FILE| |--list-only| list the files instead of copying them| |--bwlimit=KBPS| limit I/O bandwidth; KBytes per second| |--write-batch=FILE| write a batched update to FILE| |--only-write-batch=FILE| like --write-batch but w/o updating dest| |--read-batch=FILE| read a batched update from FILE| |--protocol=NUM |force an older protocol version to be used| |--iconv=CONVERT_SPEC |request charset conversion of file names| | - | --checksum-seed=NUM| set block/file checksum seed (advanced)| |--daemon |run as an rsync daemon| |4 | --ipv4 |prefer IPv4| |6 | --ipv6 |prefer IPv6| | - |--version |print version number| |h |--help |show help|

087-the-dig-command.md

The `dig` command

`dig` - DNS lookup utility

The `dig` is a flexible tool for interrogating DNS name servers. It performs DNS lookups and displays the answers that are returned from the name server(s) that were queried.

Examples:

1. Dig is a network administration command-line tool for querying the Domain Name System.

```
dig google.com
```

2. The system will list all google.com DNS records that it finds, along with the IP addresses.

```
dig google.com ANY
```

Syntax:

```
dig [server] [name] [type] [q-type] [q-class] {q-opt}  
    {global-d-opt} host [@local-server] {local-d-opt}  
    [ host [@local-server] {local-d-opt} [...]]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

```
domain      is in the Domain Name System
q-class     is one of (in,hs,ch,...) [default: in]
q-type      is one of
(a,any,mx,ns,soa,hinfo,axfr,txt,...) [default:a]
            (Use ixfr=version for type ixfr)
q-opt       is one of:
-4                               (use IPv4 query transport
only)
-6                               (use IPv6 query transport
only)
-b address[#port]               (bind to source
address/port)
-c class                         (specify query class)
-f filename                     (batch mode)
-k keyfile                      (specify tsig key file)
-m                              (enable memory usage
debugging)
-p port                         (specify port number)
-q name                         (specify query name)
-r                              (do not read ~/.digrc)
-t type                         (specify query type)
-u                              (display times in usec
instead of msec)
-x dot-notation                 (shortcut for reverse
lookups)
-y [hmac:]name:key              (specify named base64
tsig key)
d-opt       is of the form +keyword[=value], where
keyword is:
+[no]aaflag                (Set AA flag in query
([no]aaflag))
+[no]aaonly                (Set AA flag in query
([no]aaflag))
+[no]additional            (Control display of
additional section)
+[no]adflag                (Set AD flag in query
(default on))
+[no]all                   (Set or clear all display
flags)
+[no]answer                (Control display of
answer section)
+[no]authority             (Control display of
```

authority section)	<code>+[no]badcookie</code>	(Retry BADCOOKIE
responses)	<code>+[no]besteffort</code>	(Try to parse even
illegal messages)	<code>+bufsize[=###]</code>	(Set EDNS0 Max UDP packet
size)	<code>+[no]cdflag</code>	(Set checking disabled
flag in query)	<code>+[no]class</code>	(Control display of class
in records)	<code>+[no]cmd</code>	(Control display of
command line -		global option)
packet header	<code>+[no]comments</code>	(Control display of
comments)		and section name
the request)	<code>+[no]cookie</code>	(Add a COOKIE option to
cryptographic	<code>+[no]crypto</code>	(Control display of
		fields in records)
(+[no]search))	<code>+[no]defname</code>	(Use search list
	<code>+[no]dnssec</code>	(Request DNSSEC records)
	<code>+domain=###</code>	(Set default domainname)
	<code>+[no]dscp[=###]</code>	(Set the DSCP value to
### [0..63])	<code>+[no]edns[=###]</code>	(Set EDNS version) [0]
	<code>+ednsflags=###</code>	(Set EDNS flag bits)
negotiation)	<code>+[no]ednsnegotiation</code>	(Set EDNS version
option)	<code>+ednsopt=###[:value]</code>	(Send specified EDNS
options)	<code>+noednsopt</code>	(Clear list of +ednsopt
	<code>+[no]expandaaaa</code>	(Expand AAAA records)
	<code>+[no]expire</code>	(Request time to expire)
SERVFAIL)	<code>+[no]fail</code>	(Don't try next server on
question section)	<code>+[no]header-only</code>	(Send query without a
answers)	<code>+[no]identify</code>	(ID responders in short
	<code>+[no]idnin</code>	(Parse IDN names

[default=on on tty])		
+[no]idnout		(Convert IDN response
[default=on on tty])		
+[no]ignore		(Don't revert to TCP for
TC responses.)		
+[no]keepalive		(Request EDNS TCP
keepalive)		
+[no]keepopen		(Keep the TCP socket open
between queries)		
+[no]mapped		(Allow mapped IPv4 over
IPv6)		
+[no]multiline		(Print records in an
expanded format)		
+ndots=###		(Set search NDOTS value)
+[no]nsid		(Request Name Server ID)
+[no]nssearch		(Search all authoritative
nameservers)		
+[no]onesoa		(AXFR prints only one soa
record)		
+[no]opcode=###		(Set the opcode of the
request)		
+padding=###		(Set padding block size
[0])		
+[no]qr		(Print question before
sending)		
+[no]question		(Control display of
question section)		
+[no]raflag		(Set RA flag in query
(+[no]raflag))		
+[no]rdflag		(Recursive mode
(+[no]recurse))		
+[no]recurse		(Recursive mode
(+[no]rdflag))		
+retry=###		(Set number of UDP
retries) [2]		
+[no]rrcomments		(Control display of per-
record comments)		
+[no]search		(Set whether to use
searchlist)		
+[no]short		(Display nothing except
short		
form of answers - global		
option)		
+[no]showsearch		(Search with intermediate
results)		
+[no]split=##		(Split hex/base64 fields

```

into chunks)
    +[no]stats                (Control display of
statistics)                  statistics)
    +subnet=addr              (Set edns-client-subnet
option)                       option)
    +[no]tcflag                (Set TC flag in query
(+[no]tcflag))               (+[no]tcflag))
    +[no]tcp                  (TCP mode (+[no]vc))
    +timeout=###              (Set query timeout) [5]
    +[no]trace                 (Trace delegation down
from root [+dnssec])
    +tries=###                (Set number of UDP
attempts) [3]
    +[no]ttlid                (Control display of ttls
in records)
    +[no]ttlunits             (Display TTLs in human-
readable units)
    +[no]unexpected            (Print replies from
unexpected sources            unexpected sources
                                default=off)
    +[no]unknownformat        (Print RDATA in RFC 3597
"unknown" format)
    +[no]vc                   (TCP mode (+[no]tcp))
    +[no]yaml                 (Present the results as
YAML)
    +[no]zflag                (Set Z flag in query)
    global d-opts and servers (before host name) affect
all queries.
    local d-opts and servers (after host name) affect only
that lookup.
    -h                        (print help and exit)
    -v                        (print version and exit)

```


The `whois` command

The `whois` command in Linux to find out information about a domain, such as the owner of the domain, the owner's contact information, and the nameservers that the domain is using.

Examples:

1. Performs a whois query for the domain name:

```
whois {Domain_name}
```

2. `-H` option omits the lengthy legal disclaimers that many domain registries deliver along with the domain information.

```
whois -H {Domain_name}
```

Syntax:

```
whois [ -h HOST ] [ -p PORT ] [ -aCFHlLMmrRSVx ] [ -g  
SOURCE:FIRST-LAST ]  
      [ -i ATTR ] [ -S SOURCE ] [ -T TYPE ] object
```

```
whois -t TYPE
```

```
whois -v TYPE
```

```
whois -q keyword
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Flag | **Description** | `|:---|:---|` | `-h HOST, --host HOST` | Connect to HOST. | `-H` | Do not display the legal disclaimers some registries like to show you. | `-p, --port PORT` | Connect to PORT. | `--verbose` | Be verbose. | `--help` | Display online help. | `--version` | Display client version information. Other options are flags understood by whois.ripe.net and some other RIPE-like servers. | `-a` | Also search all the mirrored databases. | `-b` | Return brief IP address ranges with abuse contact. | `-B` | Disable object filtering (*show the e-mail addresses*) | `-c` | Return the smallest IP address range with a reference to an irt object. | `-d` | Return the reverse DNS delegation object too. | `-g SOURCE:FIRST-LAST` | Search updates from SOURCE database between FIRST and LAST update serial number. It's useful to obtain Near Real Time Mirroring stream. | `-G` | Disable grouping of associated objects. | `-i ATTR[,ATTR]...` | Search objects having associated attributes. ATTR is attribute name. Attribute value is positional OBJECT argument. | `-K` | Return primary key attributes only. Exception is members attribute of set object which is always returned. Another exceptions are all attributes of objects organisation, person, and role that are never returned. | `-l` | Return the one level less specific object. | `-L` | Return all levels of less specific objects. | `-m` | Return all one level more specific objects. | `-M` | Return all levels of more specific objects. | `-q KEYWORD` | Return list of keywords supported by server. KEYWORD can be version for server version, sources for list of source databases, or types for object types. | `-r` | Disable recursive look-up for contact information. | `-R` | Disable following referrals and force showing the object from the local copy in the server. | `-s`

SOURCE [, **SOURCE**] . . . | Request the server to search for objects mirrored from SOURCES. Sources are delimited by comma and the order is significant. Use **-q** sources option to obtain list of valid sources. | **-t TYPE** | Return the template for a object of TYPE. | **-T TYPE** [, **TYPE**] . . . | Restrict the search to objects of TYPE. Multiple types are separated by a comma. | **-v TYPE** | Return the verbose template for a object of TYPE. | **-x** | Search for only exact match on network address prefix. |

The `ssh` command

The `ssh` command in Linux stands for "Secure Shell". It is a protocol used to securely connect to a remote server/system. `ssh` is securer in the sense that it transfers the data in encrypted form between the host and the client. `ssh` runs at TCP/IP port 22.

Examples:

1. Use a Different Port Number for SSH Connection:

```
ssh test.server.com -p 3322
```

2. `-i` `ssh` to remote server using a private key?

```
ssh -i private.key user_name@host
```

3. `-l` `ssh` specifying a different user name

```
ssh -l alternative-username sample.ssh.com
```

Syntax:

```
ssh user_name@host(IP/Domain_Name)
```

```
ssh -i private.key user_name@host
```

```
ssh sample.ssh.com ls /tmp/doc
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Flag | **Description** | **|:---|:---|** | **-1** | Forces ssh to use protocol SSH-1 only. | **-2** | Forces ssh to use protocol SSH-2 only. | **-4** | Allows IPv4 addresses only. | **-A** | Authentication agent connection forwarding is enabled.. | **-a** | Authentication agent connection forwarding is disabled. | **-C** | Compresses all data (including stdin, stdout, stderr, and data for forwarded X11 and TCP connections) for a faster transfer of data. | **-f** | Requests ssh to go to background just before command execution. | **-g** | Allows remote hosts to connect to local forwarded ports. | **-n** | Prevents reading from stdin. | **-p, --port PORT** | Port to connect to on the remote host. | **-i** | identity_file file from which the identity key (private key) for public key authentication is read. | **-l** | login_name Specifies the user to log in as on the remote machine. | **-q** | Suppresses all errors and warnings | **-V** | Display the version number. | **-v** | Verbose mode. It echoes everything it is doing while establishing a connection. It is very useful in the debugging of connection failures. | **-X** | Enables X11 forwarding (GUI Forwarding). | **-c cipher_spec** | Selects the cipher specification for encrypting the session. Specific cipher algorithm will be selected only if both the client and the server support it.

The `awk` command

Awk is a general-purpose scripting language designed for advanced text processing. It is mostly used as a reporting and analysis tool.

WHAT CAN WE DO WITH AWK?

1. AWK Operations: (a) Scans a file line by line (b) Splits each input line into fields (c) Compares input line/fields to pattern (d) Performs action(s) on matched lines
2. Useful For: (a) Transform data files (b) Produce formatted reports
3. Programming Constructs: (a) Format output lines (b) Arithmetic and string operations (c) Conditionals and loops

Syntax

```
awk options 'selection_criteria {action }' input-file >
output-file
```

Example

Consider the following text file as the input file for example below `$cat > employee.txt`

```
ajay manager account 45000 sunil clerk account
25000 varun manager sales 50000 amit manager account 47000
tarun peon sales 15000
```

1. Default behavior of Awk: By default Awk prints every line of data

from the specified file.

```
$ awk '{print}' employee.txt
```

```
ajay manager account 45000  
sunil clerk account 25000  
varun manager sales 50000  
amit manager account 47000  
tarun peon sales 15000
```

In the above example, no pattern is given. So the actions are applicable to all the lines. Action print without any argument prints the whole line by default, so it prints all the lines of the file without failure.

2. Print the lines which match the given pattern.

```
awk '/manager/ {print}' employee.txt
```

```
ajay manager account 45000  
varun manager sales 50000  
amit manager account 47000
```

In the above example, the awk command prints all the line which matches with the 'manager'.

3. Splitting a Line Into Fields : For each record i.e line, the awk command splits the record delimited by whitespace character by default and stores it in the \$n variables. If the line has 4 words, it will be stored in \$1, \$2, \$3 and \$4 respectively. Also, \$0 represents the whole line.

```
$ awk '{print $1,$4}' employee.txt
```

```
ajay 45000  
sunil 25000  
varun 50000  
amit 47000  
tarun 15000
```

Built-In Variables In Awk

Awk's built-in variables include the field variables—\$1, \$2, \$3, and so on (\$0 is the entire line) — that break a line of text into individual words or pieces called fields.

NR: NR command keeps a current count of the number of input records. Remember that records are usually lines. Awk command performs the pattern/action statements once for each record in a file. NF: NF command keeps a count of the number of fields within the current input record. FS: FS command contains the field separator character which is used to divide fields on the input line. The default is “white space”, meaning space and tab characters. FS can be reassigned to another character (typically in BEGIN) to change the field separator. RS: RS command stores the current record separator character. Since, by default, an input line is the input record, the default record separator character is a newline. OFS: OFS command stores the output field separator, which separates the fields when Awk prints them. The default is a blank space. Whenever print has several parameters separated with commas, it will print the value of OFS in between each parameter. ORS: ORS command stores the output record separator, which separates the output lines when Awk prints them. The default is a newline character. print automatically outputs the contents of ORS at the end of whatever it is given to print.

The `crontab` command

`crontab` - maintain crontab files for individual users (Vixie Cron)

`crontab` is the program used to install, deinstall or list the tables used to drive the `cron(8)` daemon in Vixie Cron. Each user can have their own crontab, and though these are files in `/var/spool/cron/crontabs`, they are not intended to be edited directly.

Syntax:

```
crontab [ -u user ] file
crontab [ -u user ] [ -i ] { -e | -l | -r }
```

Examples:

1. The `-l` option causes the current crontab to be displayed on standard output.

```
crontab -l
```

2. The `-r` option causes the current crontab to be removed.

```
crontab -r
```

3. The `-e` option is used to edit the current crontab using the editor specified by the `VISUAL` or `EDITOR` environment variables. After you exit from the editor, the modified crontab will be installed

automatically. If neither of the environment variables is defined, then the default editor `/usr/bin/editor` is used.

```
crontab -e
```

Help Command

Run below command to view the complete guide to `crontab` command.

```
man crontab
```

The `xargs` command

`xargs` is used to build and execute command lines from standard input

Some commands like `grep` can accept input as parameters, but some commands accept arguments, this is the place where `xargs` came into picture.

Syntax:

```
xargs [options] [command [initial-arguments]]
```

Options:

```
-0, --null
```

Input items are terminated by a null character instead of by whitespace, and the quotes and backslash are not special (every character is taken literally). Disables the end of file string, which is treated like any other argument. Useful when input items might contain white space, quote marks, or backslashes.

```
-a file, --arg-file=file
```

Read items from file instead of standard input. If you use this option, `stdin` remains unchanged when commands are run. Otherwise, `stdin` is redirected from `/dev/null`.

`-o, --open-tty`

Reopen stdin as `/dev/tty` in the child process before executing the command. This is useful if you want `xargs` to run an interactive application.

`--delimiter=delim, -d delim`

Input items are terminated by the specified character. The specified delimiter may be a single character, a C-style character escape such as `\n`, or an octal or hexadecimal escape code. Octal and hexadecimal escape codes are understood as for the `printf` command. Multibyte characters are not supported. When processing the input, quotes and backslash are not special; every character in the input is taken literally. The `-d` option disables any end-of-file string, which is treated like any other argument. You can use this option when the input consists of simply newline-separated items, although it is almost always better to design your program to use `--null` where this is possible.

`-p, --interactive`

Prompt the user about whether to run each command line and read a line from the terminal. Only run the command line if the response starts with `y'` or `Y'`. Implies `-t`.

Examples:

```
find /tmp -name core -type f -print | xargs /bin/rm -f
```

Find files named `core` in or below the directory `/tmp` and delete them.

Note that this will work incorrectly if there are any filenames containing newlines or spaces.

```
find /tmp -name core -type f -print0 | xargs -0 /bin/rm -f
```

Find files named core in or below the directory /tmp and delete them, processing filenames in such a way that file or directory names containing spaces or new- lines are correctly handled.

```
find /tmp -depth -name core -type f -delete
```

Find files named core in or below the directory /tmp and delete them, but more efficiently than in the previous example (because we avoid the need to use fork(2) and exec(2) to launch rm and we don't need the extra xargs process).

```
cut -d: -f1 < /etc/passwd | sort | xargs echo
```

Generates a compact listing of all the users on the system.

Help Command

Run below command to view the complete guide to **xargs** command.

```
man xargs
```

The `nohup` command

When a shell exits (maybe while logging out of a SSH session), the HUP ('hang up') signal is sent to all of its child processes, causing them to terminate. If you require a long-running process to continue after exiting shell, you'll need the `nohup` command. Prefixing any command with `nohup` causes the command to become *immune* to HUP signals. Additionally, STDIN is being ignored and all output gets redirected to local file `./nohup.out`.

Examples:

1. Applying `nohup` to a long-running debian upgrade:

```
nohup apt-get -y upgrade
```

Syntax:

```
nohup COMMAND [ARG]...  
nohup OPTION
```

The `pstree` command

The `pstree` command is similar to `ps`, but instead of listing the running processes, it shows them as a tree. The tree-like format is sometimes more suitable way to display the processes hierarchy which is a much simpler way to visualize running processes. The root of the tree is either `init` or the process with the given pid.

Examples

1. To display a hierarchical tree structure of all running processes:

```
pstree
```

2. To display a tree with the given process as the root of the tree:

```
pstree [pid]
```

3. To show only those processes that have been started by a user:

```
pstree [USER]
```

4. To show the parent processes of the given process:

```
pstree -s [PID]
```

5. To view the output one page at a time, pipe it to the `less`

command:

```
pstree | less
```

Syntax

```
ps [OPTIONS] [USER or PID]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-a	--arguments	Show command line arguments
-A	--ascii	use ASCII line drawing characters
-c	--compact	Don't compact identical subtrees
-h	--highlight-all	Highlight current process and its ancestors
-H PID	--highlight-pid=PID	highlight this process and its ancestors
-g	--show-pgids	show process group ids; implies -c
-G	--vt100	use VT100 line drawing characters
-l	--long	Don't truncate long lines
-n	--numeric-sort	Sort output by PID
-N type	--ns-sort=type	Sort by namespace type (cgroup, ipc, mnt, net, pid, user, uts)
-p	--show-pids	show PIDs; implies -c
-s	--show-parents	Show parents of the selected process
-S	--ns-changes	show namespace transitions
-t	--thread-names	Show full thread names
-T	--hide-threads	Hide threads, show only processes
-u	--uid-changes	Show uid transitions
-U	--unicode	Use UTF-8 (Unicode) line drawing characters
-V	--version	Display version information
-Z	--security-context	Show SELinux security contexts

The `tree` command

The `tree` command in Linux recursively lists directories as tree structures. Each listings is indented according to its depth relative to root of the tree.

Examples:

1. Show a tree representation of the current directory.

```
tree
```

2. `-L NUMBER` limits the depth of recursion to avoid display very deep trees.

```
tree -L 2 /
```

Syntax:

```
tree [-acdfghilnpqrstuvxACDFQNSUX] [-L level [-R]] [-H  
baseHREF] [-T title]  
      [-o filename] [--nolinks] [-P pattern] [-I pattern] [-  
-inodes]  
      [--device] [--noreport] [--dirsfirst] [--version] [--  
help] [--filelimit #]  
      [--si] [--prune] [--du] [--timefmt format] [--  
matchdirs] [--from-file]  
      [--] [directory ...]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Flag	Description
:--- :---	-a Print all files, including hidden ones.
-d	Only list directories.
-l	Follow symbolic links into directories.
-f	Print the full path to each listing, not just its basename.
-x	Do not move across file-systems.
-L #	Limit recursion depth to #.
-P REGEX	Recurse, but only list files that match the REGEX.
-I REGEX	Recurse, but do not list files that match the REGEX.
--ignore-case	Ignore case while pattern-matching.
--prune	Prune empty directories from output.
--filelimit #	Omit directories that contain more than # files.
-o FILE	Redirect STDOUT output to FILE.
-i	Do not output indentation.

The `whereis` command

`whereis` command is used to find the location of source/binary file of a command and manuals sections for a specified file in Linux system. If we compare `whereis` command with `find` command they will appear similar to each other as both can be used for the same purposes but `whereis` command produces the result more accurately by consuming less time comparatively.

Points to be kept on mind while using `whereis` command:

Since `whereis` command uses `chdir`(change directory 2V) to give you the result in fastest possible way, the pathnames given with the `-M`, `-S`, or `-B` must be full and well defined i.e. they must begin with a `/` and should be a valid path that exist in the system's directories, else it exits without any valid result. `whereis` command has a hard-coded(code which is not dynamic and changes with specification) path, so you may not always find what you're looking for.

Syntax

```
whereis [options] [filename]
```

Options

`-b` : This option is used when we only want to search for binaries. `-m` : This option is used when we only want to search for manual sections. `-s` : This option is used when we only want to search for source files. `-u` :

This option search for unusual entries. A source file or a binary file is said to be unusual if it does not have any existence in system as per [-bmsu] described along with “-u”. Thus `whereis -m -u *` asks for those files in the current directory which have unusual entries.

-B : This option is used to change or otherwise limit the places where whereis searches for binaries. -M : This option is used to change or otherwise limit the places where whereis searches for manual sections. -S : This option is used to change or otherwise limit the places where whereis searches for source files.

-f : This option simply terminate the last directory list and signals the start of file names. This must be used when any of the -B, -M, or -S options are used. -V: Displays version information and exit. -h: Displays the help and exit.

097-the-printf-command.md

The `printf` command

This command lets you print the value of a variable by formatting it using rules. It is pretty similar to the `printf` in C language.

Syntax:

```
$printf [-v variable_name] format [arguments]
```

Options:

| **OPTION** | Description | | --- | --- | | **FORMAT** | **FORMAT** controls the output, and defines the way that the **ARGUMENTS** will be expressed in the output | | **ARGUMENT** | An **ARGUMENT** will be inserted into the formatted output according to the definition of **FORMAT** | | **--help** | Display help and exit | | **--version** | Output version information and exit |

Formats:

The anatomy of the **FORMAT** string can be extracted into three different parts,

- *ordinary characters*, which are copied exactly the same characters as were used originally to the output.
- *interpreted character sequences*, which are escaped with a backslash ("`\`").
- *conversion specifications*, this one will define the way the

ARGUMENTs will be expressed as part of the output.

You can see those parts in this example,

```
printf " %s is where over %d million developers shape \"the  
future of software.\" " Github 65
```

The output:

```
Github is where over 65 million developers shape "the future  
of software."
```

There are two conversion specifications `%s` and `%d`, and there are two escaped characters which are the opening and closing double-quotes wrapping the words of *the future of software*. Other than that are the ordinary characters.

Conversion Specifications:

Each conversion specification begins with a `%` and ends with a **conversion character**. Between the `%` and the **conversion character** there may be, in order:

| | | | --- | --- | | - | A minus sign. This tells printf to left-adjust the conversion of the argument | | *number* | An integer that specifies field width; printf prints a conversion of ARGUMENT in a field at least number characters wide. If necessary it will be padded on the left (or right, if left-adjustment is called for) to make up the field width | | . | A period, which separates the field width from the precision | | *number* | An integer, the precision, which specifies the maximum number of characters to be printed from a string, or the number of digits after the decimal point of a floating-point value, or the minimum number of digits for an integer | | **h** or **l** | These differentiate between a short and a long

integer, respectively, and are generally only needed for computer programming |

The conversion characters tell `printf` what kind of argument to print out, are as follows:

Conversion char	Argument type
<code>---</code> <code>---</code>	<code>s</code> A string
<code>c</code>	An integer, expressed as a character corresponds ASCII code
<code>d</code> , <code>i</code>	An integer as a decimal number
<code>o</code>	An integer as an unsigned octal number
<code>x</code> , <code>X</code>	An integer as an unsigned hexadecimal number
<code>u</code>	An integer as an unsigned decimal number
<code>f</code>	A floating-point number with a default precision of 6
<code>e</code> , <code>E</code>	A floating-point number in scientific notation
<code>p</code>	A memory address pointer
<code>%</code>	No conversion

Here is the list of some examples of the `printf` output the ARGUMENT. we can put any word but in this one we put a 'linuxcommand` word and enclosed it with quotes so we can see easier the position related to the whitespaces.

FORMAT string	ARGUMENT string	Output string
<code>---</code> <code>---</code> <code>---</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>%s</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>%5s</code> <code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>%.5s</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linux</code>
<code>%-8s</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>%-15s</code> <code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>%12.5s</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linux</code>
<code>%-12.5</code>	<code>linuxcommand</code>	<code>linux</code>
<code>linux</code>	<code>linux</code>	<code>%-12.4</code> <code>linuxcommand</code>
<code>linux</code>	<code>linux</code>	<code>linux</code>

Notes:

- `printf` requires the number of conversion strings to match the number of ARGUMENTs
- `printf` maps the conversion strings one-to-one, and expects to find exactly one ARGUMENT for each conversion string
- Conversion strings are always interpreted from left to right.

Here's the example:

The input

```
printf "We know %f is %s %d" 12.07 "larger than" 12
```

The output:

```
We know 12.070000 is larger than 12
```

The example above shows 3 arguments, *12.07*, *larger than*, and *12*. Each of them interpreted from left to right one-to-one with the given 3 conversion strings (*%f*, *%d*, *%s*).

Character sequences which are interpreted as special characters by *printf*:

| Escaped char | Description | | --- | --- | | *\a* | issues an alert (plays a bell). Usually ASCII BEL characters | | *\b* | prints a backspace | | *\c* | instructs *printf* to produce no further output | | *\e* | prints an escape character (ASCII code 27) | | *\f* | prints a form feed | | *\n* | prints a newline | | *\r* | prints a carriage return | | *\t* | prints a horizontal tab | | *\v* | prints a vertical tab | | *\"* | prints a double-quote (") | | ** | prints a backslash () | | *\NNN* | prints a byte with octal value *NNN* (1 to 3 digits) | | *\xHH* | prints a byte with hexadecimal value *HH* (1 to 2 digits) | | *\uHHHH* | prints the unicode character with hexadecimal value *HHHH* (4 digits) | | *\UHHHHHHHH* | prints the unicode character with hexadecimal value *HHHHHHHH* (8 digits) | | *%b* | prints ARGUMENT as a string with "\" escapes interpreted as listed above, with the exception that octal escapes take the form *\0* or *\0NN* |

Examples:

The format specifiers usually used with *printf* are stated in the examples below:

- %s

```
$printf "%s\n" "Printf command documentation!"
```

This will print **Printf command documentation!** in the shell.

Other important attributes of printf command:

- %b - Prints arguments by expanding backslash escape sequences.
- %q - Prints arguments in a shell-quoted format which is reusable as input.
- %d , %i - Prints arguments in the format of signed decimal integers.
- %u - Prints arguments in the format of unsigned decimal integers.
- %o - Prints arguments in the format of unsigned octal(base 8) integers.
- %x, %X - Prints arguments in the format of unsigned hexadecimal(base 16) integers. %x prints lower-case letters and %X prints upper-case letters.
- %e, %E - Prints arguments in the format of floating-point numbers in exponential notation. %e prints lower-case letters and %E prints upper-case.
- %a, %A - Prints arguments in the format of floating-point numbers in hexadecimal(base 16) fractional notation. %a prints lower-case letters and %A prints upper-case.
- %g, %G - Prints arguments in the format of floating-point numbers in normal or exponential notation, whichever is more appropriate for the given value and precision. %g prints lower-case letters and %G prints upper-case.
- %c - Prints arguments as single characters.
- %f - Prints arguments as floating-point numbers.
- %s - Prints arguments as strings.
- %% - Prints a "%" symbol.

More Examples:

The input:

```
printf 'Hello\nyoung\nman!'
```

The output:

```
hello
young
man!
```

The two `\n` break the sentence into 3 parts of words.

The input:

```
printf "%f\n" 2.5 5.75
```

The output

```
2.500000
5.750000
```

The `%f` specifier combined with the `\n` interpreted the two arguments in the form of floating point in the separated new lines.

The `cut` command

The `cut` command lets you remove sections from each line of files. Print selected parts of lines from each FILE to standard output. With no FILE, or when FILE is -, read standard input.

Usage and Examples:

1. Selecting specific fields in a file

```
cut -d "delimiter" -f (field number) file.txt
```

2. Selecting specific characters:

```
cut -c [(k)-(n)/(k),(n)/(n)] filename
```

Here, **k** denotes the starting position of the character and **n** denotes the ending position of the character in each line, if *k* and *n* are separated by “-” otherwise they are only the position of character in each line from the file taken as an input.

3. Selecting specific bytes:

```

cut -b 1,2,3 filename           //select bytes 1,2
and 3
cut -b 1-4 filename           //select bytes 1
through 4
cut -b 1- filename           //select bytes
1 through the end of file
cut -b -4 filename           //select bytes
from the beginning till the 4th byte

```

Tabs and backspaces are treated like as a character of 1 byte.

Syntax:

```
cut OPTION... [FILE]...
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Short Flag |Long Flag |Description | |:---|:---|:---| **| -b |** -
bytes=LIST|select only these bytes| **| -c |** - **characters=LIST**|select only
these characters| **| -d |** - **delimiter=DELIM**|use DELIM instead of TAB for
field delimiter| **| -f |** - **fields**|select only these fields; also print any line
that contains no delimiter character, unless the -s option is specified| **| -s |** - **only-delimited**|do not print lines not containing delimiters| **| -z |** - **zero-terminated**|line delimiter is NUL, not newline|

The `sed` command

`sed` command stands for stream editor. A stream editor is used to perform basic text transformations on an input stream (a file or input from a pipeline). For instance, it can perform lot's of functions on files like searching, find and replace, insertion or deletion. While in some ways it is similar to an editor which permits scripted edits (such as `ed`), `sed` works by making only one pass over the input(s), and is consequently more efficient. But it is `sed`'s ability to filter text in a pipeline that particularly distinguishes it from other types of editors.

The most common use of `sed` command is for a substitution or for find and replace. By using `sed` you can edit files even without opening it, which is a much quicker way to find and replace something in the file. It supports basic and extended regular expressions that allow you to match complex patterns. Most Linux distributions come with GNU and `sed` is pre-installed by default.

Examples:

1. To Find and Replace String with `sed`

```
sed -i 's/{search_regex}/{replace_value}/g' input-file
```

2. For Recursive Find and Replace (*along with `find`*)

Sometimes you may want to recursively search directories for files containing a string and replace the string in all files. This can be done using commands such as `find` to recursively find files in the directory and piping the file names to `sed`. The following command will recursively search for files in the current working directory and pass the file names to `sed`. It will recursively search for files in the current working directory and pass the file names to `sed`.

```
find . -type f -exec sed -i  
's/{search_regex}/{replace_value}/g' {} +
```

Syntax:

```
sed [OPTION]... {script-only-if-no-other-script} [INPUT-  
FILE]...
```

- **OPTION** - sed options in-place, silent, follow-symlinks, line-length, null-data ...etc.
- **{script-only-if-no-other-script}** - Add the script to command if available.
- **INPUT-FILE** - Input Stream, A file or input from a pipeline.

If no option is given, then the first non-option argument is taken as the sed script to interpret. All remaining arguments are names of input files; if no input files are specified, then the standard input is read.

GNU sed home page: <http://www.gnu.org/software/sed/>

|Short Flag |Long Flag |Description | |:---|:---|:---| | -i [SUFFIX] |

--in-place[=SUFFIX]

|Edit files in place (makes backup if SUFFIX supplied).| | -n |

--quiet, --silent

|Suppress automatic printing of pattern space.| `|-e script|`
--expression=script
|Add the script to the commands to be executed.| `|-f script-file|`
--file=script-file
|Add the contents of script-file to the commands to be executed.| `|-l N|`
--line-length=N
|Specify the desired line-wrap length for the `l` command.| `|-r|`
--regexp-extended
|Use extended regular expressions in the script.| `|-s|`
--separate
|Consider files as separate rather than as a single continuous long
stream.| `|-u|`
--unbuffered
|Load minimal amounts of data from the input files and flush the output
buffers more often.| `|-z|`
--null-data
|Separate lines by NULL characters.|

Before you begin

It may seem complicated and complex at first, but searching and replacing text in files with sed is very simple.

To find out more: <https://www.gnu.org/software/sed/manual/sed.html>

The `vim` command

The `vim` is a text editor for Unix that comes with Linux, BSD, and macOS. It is known to be fast and powerful, partly because it is a small program that can run in a terminal (although it has a graphical interface). Vim text editor is developed by Bram Moolenaar. It supports most file types and vim editor is also known as a programmer's editor.

It is mainly because it can be managed entirely without menus or a mouse with a keyboard.

The most searched question about `vim` :

How to exit vim editor ?

The most searched question about vim editor looks very funny but it's true that the new user stuck at the very beginning when using vim editor.

The command to exit vim editor: `:wq`

Fun reading:

Here's a [survey](#) for the same question, look at this and do not think to quit the vim editor.

Installation:

First of all check if the vim is already installed or not, enter the following command:


```
vim --version
```

If it is already installed it will show its version, else we can run the below commands for the installations:

On Ubuntu/Debian:

```
sudo apt-get install vim
```

On CentOS/Fedora:

```
sudo yum install vim
```

If you want to use advanced features on CentOS/Fedora , you'll need to install enhanced vim editor, to do this run the following command:

```
sudo yum install -y vim-enhanced
```

Syntax:

```
vim [FILE_PATH/FILE_NAME]
```

Examples:

1. To open the file named "demo.txt" from your current directory:

```
vim demo.txt
```

2. To open the file in a specific directory:

```
vim {File_Path/filename}
```

Modes in vim editor:

There are some arguments as to how many modes that vim has, but the modes you're most likely to use are **command mode** and **insert mode**. These modes will allow you to do just about anything you need, including creating your document, saving your document and doing advanced editing, including taking advantage of search and replace functions.

Workflow of vim editor:

1. Open a new or existing file with **vim filename**.
2. Type **i** to switch into insert mode so that you can start editing the file.
3. Enter or modify the text of your file.
4. When you're done , press the **Esc** key to exit insert mode and back to command mode.
5. Type **:w** or **:wq** to save the file or save and exit from the file respectively.

Interactive training

In this interactive tutorial, you will learn the different ways to use the **vim** command:

[The Open vim Tutorial](#)

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

|Flags/Options |

Description

| |:---|:---| |**-e**|Start in Ex mode (see [Ex-mode](#))| |**-R**|Start in read-only mode| |**-R**|Start in read-only mode| |**-g**|Start the [GUI](#)| |**-eg**|Start the GUI in Ex mode| |**-Z**|Like "vim", but in restricted mode| |**-d**|Start in diff mode [diff-mode](#)| |**-h**|Give usage (help) message and exit|

Read more about vim:

vim can not be learned in a single day, use in day to day task to get hands on in vim editor.

To Learn more about **vim** follow the given article:

[Article By Daniel Miessler](#)

The `chown` command

The `chown` command makes it possible to change the ownership of a file or directory. Users and groups are fundamental in Linux, with `chown` you can change the owner of a file or directory. It's also possible to change ownership on folders recursively

Examples:

1. Change the owner of a file

```
chown user file.txt
```

2. Change the group of a file

```
chown :group file.txt
```

3. Change the user and group in one line

```
chown user:group file.txt
```

4. Change to ownership on a folder recursively

```
chown -R user:group folder
```

Syntax:

```
chown [-OPTION] [DIRECTORY_PATH]
```

The `find` command

The `find` command lets you **search for files in a directory hierarchy**

- Search a file with specific name.
- Search a file with pattern
- Search for empty files and directories.

Examples:

1. Search a file with specific name:

```
find ./directory1 -name sample.txt
```

2. Search a file with pattern:

```
find ./directory1 -name '*.txt'
```

3. To find all directories whose name is test in / directory.

```
find / -type d -name test
```

4. Searching empty files in current directory

```
find . -size 0k
```

Syntax:

```
find [options] [paths] [expression]
```

In Simple words

```
find [where to start searching from]
    [expression determines what to find] [-options] [what to
    find]
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Commonly-used primaries include:

- **name** pattern - tests whether the file name matches the shell-glob pattern given.
- **type** type - tests whether the file is a given type. Unix file types accepted include:

options	Description
b	block device
d	directory
f	regular file
l	Symbolic link
-print	always returns true; prints the name of the current file plus a newline to the stdout.
-mtime n	find's all the files which are modified n days back.
-atime n	find's all the files which are accessed 50 days back.
-cmin n	find's all the files which are modified in the last 1 hour.
-newer file	find's file was modified more recently than file.
-size n	File uses n units of space, rounding up.

Help Command

Run below command to view the complete guide to **find** command or

[click here.](#)



man find

The `rmdir` command

The **rmdir** command is used to remove empty directories from the filesystem in Linux. The rmdir command removes each and every directory specified in the command line only if these directories are empty.

Usage and Examples:

1. remove directory and its ancestors

```
rmdir -p a/b/c // is similar to 'rmdir  
a/b/c a/b a'
```

2. remove multiple directories

```
rmdir a b c // removes empty  
directories a,b and c
```

Syntax:

```
rmdir [OPTION]... DIRECTORY...
```

Additional Flags and their Functionalities:

Short Flag	Long Flag	Description
-i	--ignore-fail-on-non-empty	ignore each failure that is solely because a directory is


non-empty| **-p**| **--parents**|remove DIRECTORY and its ancestors| **-d**| **--
delimiter=DELIM**|use DELIM instead of TAB for field delimiter| **-v**| **--
verbose**|output a diagnostic for every directory processed|

The `lsblk` command

Summary

The `lsblk` command displays the block and loop devices on the system. It is especially useful when you want to format disks, write filesystems, check the filesystem and know the mount point of a device.

Syntax



```
lsblk [options] [<device> ...]
```

Reading information given by `lsblk`

On running `lsblk` with no flags or command-line arguments, it writes general disk information to the STDOUT. Here is a table that interpretes that information:

Column Name	Meaning	Interpretation
NAME	Name of the device.	Shows name of the device.
RM	Removable.	Shows 1 if the device is removable, 0 if not.
SIZE	Size of the device.	Shows size of the device.
RO	Read-Only.	Shows 1 if read-only, 0 if not.
TYPE	The type of block or loop device.	Shows <code>disk</code> for entire disk and <code>part</code> for partitions.
MOUNTPOINTS	Where the device is mounted.	Shows where the device is mounted. Empty if not mounted.

Reading information of a specific device

`lsblk` can display information of a specific device when the device's absolute path is passed to it. For example, `lsblk` command for displaying the information of the `sda` disk is:

```
lsblk /dev/sda
```

Useful flags for `lsblk`

Here is a table that show some of the useful flags that can be used with `lsblk`

Flag	Interpretation
<code>-f</code> or <code>fs</code>	Displays information about filesystem.
<code>-J</code> or <code>--json</code>	Displays all the information in JSON Format.
<code>-l</code> or <code>--list</code>	Displays all the information in List Format.
<code>-T</code> or <code>--tree</code>	Displays all the information in Tree Format.
<code>-m</code> or <code>--perms</code>	Displays device permissions.
<code>-p</code> or <code>--paths</code>	Displays absolute device paths.
<code>-o</code> or <code>--output-all</code>	Displays all available columns.
<code>-s</code> or <code>--scsi</code>	Displays SCSI devices only

Exit Codes

Like every Unix / Linux Program, `lsblk` returns an exit code to the environment. Here is a table of all the exit codes.

Exit Code	Meaning
0	Exit with success.
1	Exit with failure.
32	Specified device(s) not found.
64	Some of the specified devices were found while some not.

The `cmatrix` command

This command doesn't come by default in Linux. It has to be installed, and as seen in chapter [052](#) we need to run the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install cmatrix
```

And after everything is installed, you have become a 'legit hacker'. In order to use this command, just type in `cmatrix` and press enter:

```
cmatrix
```

And this is what you should see:



As you can see you have access to the matrix now. Well, not really.

What this actually is just a fun little command to goof around with. There are actually a few options you can use. For example you can change the text colour. You can choose from **green, red, blue, white, yellow, cyan, magenta and black**.

```
cmatrix -C red
```



And the falling characters will be red. This command isn't really something that will help you with your job or anything, but it is fun to know that you can have some fun in Linux.

999-wrap-up.md