Lecture01: An Introduction to Unix

Who has done Unix before?!

http://129.215.170.35/BPSM.html

Today we are going to "refreshen" our knowledge of Unix commands, and then use them to extract bits of information from a text file.

I have tried to make this guide as generally valid as possible, but there are many different flavours/versions of Unix available, so if you should find a command option behaving differently on your local machine you should consult the on-line manual page for that command (we'll see how later).

Most of the commands have numerous additional options that I have not mentioned, so for fuller information on these commands use the relevant on-line manual page.

The names of commands are printed in bold, and the names of

objects operated on by these commands (e.g. files, directories) are printed in teletype.

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awk - Pattern scanning and processing language

A whole language in itself, invoking awk can very useful as part of a pipe (series of linked commands). awk can filter rows based on column criteria or pattern matching, use arrays, functions, etc. etc..

In awk, the notation \$1 means the contents of the first field, \$2 means the second field, etc.

For awk, the default field separator **FS** is a **space**, but we can tell it to use something else if we want.

```
The prickly hedgehog was hibernating. $1 $2 $3 $4 $5 (fields)

The prickly hedgehog was hibernating. $1 $2 $3 $4 $5 (fields)
```

Text tables are frequently tab-delimited...

output rows of file1 where the third field/column has a value equal to 5; this <u>assumes</u> that the field separator is a **space**. This command acts as a filtering step, and in these instances, the evaluation command is surrounded by ordinary (and brackets inside the quotes.

awk '{FS="\t"; if(\$3 == 5){print \$0;}}' file1

first, we have told awk that the field separator is a **tab**, which is written as "\t"; awk will then output rows (\$0 means the whole line) where the third column of file1 has a value equal to 5.

This command is evaluating, and then doing something based on the evaluation, and thus is an action command. As this is an action, these commands have { and } curly brackets inside the quotes.

```
awk '{FS="\t"; if($3 == "foobar1"){print $0;}}' file1
```

first, we have told awk that the field separator (FS) is a **tab**; awk will then output rows where the third column of file1 is the text string "foobar1" (but not if it is foobar or foobar2)

```
awk '{FS="\t"; OFS="_"; if($3 == "foobar1"){print
$1,$2,$3;}}' file1
```

first, we have told awk that the field separator is a **tab**; we have also told awk that the output field separator (OFS) should be an underscore.

awk will then output the first, second and third fields (\$1,\$2,\$3) of rows/lines of the file where the third column of file1 is the text string is exactly "foobar1"; any output fields will be separated by underscores.

```
If file1 was these three lines of tab-delimited text:
F1 AS top one foobar1 X0
F2 AS mid foobar12 Y9
F3 AS bottom sample from the dataset foobar H3

the output would be
```

F1_AS top one_foobar1

```
awk '{FS="_"; print NF;}' file1
```

for each line of file1, using underscore "_" as field separator, output the **number** of fields on the line.

```
awk '{FS=" "; print "There are", NF, "fields on this line.";}'
file1
```

for each line of file1, using space " " as field separator, output a short sentence indicating the **number** of fields on the line.

```
awk '{FS="XXX"; print "The last field on this line is", $NF
;}' file1
```

for each line of file1, using "XXX" as field separator, output a short sentence that tells us what the **actual** last field on each line was.

```
awk '{FS="\t"; if($3 == "United Kingdom"){print $0;}}' file1
> file2
```

For each line, tell awk that field separator is tab. Determine if the third field/column of file1 is "United Kingdom" and if so, save the whole line to file2.

```
awk '{FS=" "; if($3 == "United Kingdom"){print $0;}}' file1 >
file2
```

Field separator is space. Determine if the third field/column of file1 is "United Kingdom" and if so, save the whole line to file2. We have specified that the field separator is a space. This makes no sense as "United Kingdom" would be two fields, as the separator is a space! You will **NOT** get the same answer as in the previous code line!

When awk code gets long, it is best to put it on several lines. Awk doesnt require you to do this, but it makes it easier to spot coding errors! And PDFs are much better....!

A brief comment line

Field separator is tab (telling awk only once).

Determine if the first three characters (a sub-string) of the third field/column (separated by tabs) of file1 are "Uni" and if so, save the first field onto the end of file2.

Curly brackets [] for the action, ordinary () brackets for the evaluation.

cat, zcat - display or concatenate files

screen, unless redirected elsewhere)

several files, writing the output to a new file.

cat takes content of a file and sends it to the standard output (i.e.

Generally used either to read files, or to string together copies of

```
cat ex1
displays the contents of the file ex1
zcat ex1.gz
works the same as cat, but takes a gzipped file as input, then uncompresses "on the fly" to the screen, file still compressed.
cat ex1 ex2 > newex
  creates a new file newex containing copies of ex1 and ex2, with the contents of ex2 following the contents of ex1
cat ex3 >> newex
  adds (appends) the contents of ex3 to the contents of newex, thus contents of newex are now ex1 ex2 ex3
```

pwd - display the name of your current directory (folder)cd - change directory (folder)

The command pwd gives the full pathname of your current directory.

cd is used to change from one directory to another.

cd dir1
 changes directory so that dir1 is your new current directory. dir1
 may be either the full pathname of the directory, or its pathname
 relative to the current directory.

cd
 changes directory to your home directory.

cd changes directory to the previous directory you were in.

cd ..
 changes directory to the parent directory of your current directory,

i.e up one level.

cd ../..

changes directory to the "grand-parent" directory of your current directory, i.e up two levels.

chmod - change the permissions on a file or directory

A directory listing generated using ls -al might look like this:

```
-rw-rw-r-- 1 someuser somegroup 2015 Oct 14 2020 dna.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 someuser somegroup 28 Oct 2 2020 exons.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 someuser somegroup 485 Oct 2 2020 genomic_dnal.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 someuser2 admin 124 Sep 30 2020 plasmid_dnal.text
-rw-rw-r-- 1 someuser2 admin 124 Sep 30 2020 plasmid_dnal.foo
```

chmod enables us to alter the permissions on files and directories using either symbolic or octal numeric codes. Note that you can only change these values on files that you own!

The symbolic codes are:

The following examples illustrate how these codes are used.

can still list its contents using 1s, however.)

```
sets the permissions on the file dna.txt to give the user read and write permission on dna.txt. No other permissions are altered.

chmod u+x,g+w,o-r dna.txt

alters the permissions on the file dna.txt to give the user execute permission on dna.txt, to give members of the user's group write permission on the file, and prevent any users not in this group from reading it.

chmod u+w,go-x dirl

gives the user write permission in the directory dirl, and prevents all other users having access to that directory (by using cd. They
```

Files have permission values in octal format too, namely:

- 4 read
 2 write
 1 execute
- so we can associate combinations (sums) of these values to "user", "group" and "other/world" categories to control what can and can't be done with a file.

chmod 741 dna.txt

changes the permissions on dna.txt to be rwx for user (4+2+1), r-- (read-only, can't write or run) for the group, and --x (executable only, can't read or write) for the world

```
-rwx r-- --x
```

chmod 750 dna.txt

changes the permissions on dna.txt to be rwx for user (4+2+1), rx (read-only, but executable, 4+1) for the group, and --- (no permissions at all) for the world

cp - copy a file

The command cp is used to make copies of files and directories (folders). Remember, each and every file has:

- 1. a path, default is "where you are right now on the filesystem"
- 2. a **name**, there is no default here!

When copying a file or directory, there has to be a source (where from?) and a destination (where to?)!

cp file1 file2

copies the contents of the file file1 into a new file called file2. We havent given a path for either file1 or file2, so the assumption of "where I am now" is made for both by default. Note that cp cannot copy a file onto itself.

```
cp file3 file4 dir1
```

creates copies (with the same names) of file3 and file4 in the directory dir1.

We haven't given a path for either file3 or file4, so the assumption of "where I am now" is made for both by default.

dir1 must already exist for the copying to succeed.

cp dir1/file3 .

copies file3 in dir1 to where you are, i.e the dot means "present working directory".

cp dir1/file3 dir2/file4
copies file3 in dir1 to file4 in dir2.

cp -u file3 dir1

if source file3 is newer than the destination file3 or when the destination file3 is missing, updates copy of file3 within the directory dir1. dir1 must already exist for the copying to succeed.

cp -r dir2 dir3

recursively copies the directory dir2, together with its contents and subdirectories, to the directory dir3.

If dir3 does not exist, it is created by cp, and the contents and subdirectories of dir2 are recreated within it.

If dir3 does exist, a subdirectory called dir2 is created within it, containing a copy of all the contents of the original dir2.

cut - extract sections from each line of input

The command cut is used to extract sections from each line of input; this can be done at the level of bytes (-b), characters (-c), or fields (-f) separated by a delimiter (-d, the tab character by default).

```
cut -c 3-12 file1
  output characters 3 to 12 of each line of file1.

cut -f 3,5,9 file1
  output fields 3, 5 and 9 of each line of file1. Assumes tab delimiter.

cut -d "_" -f 4- file1
  output the fourth and upwards "_" separated field of each line of
```

file1

```
If file1 contained this single line of text:
    this_is_not_a_silly_sentence
the output of cut -d "_" -f 4- file1 would be:
    a_silly_sentence
the output of cut -d "_" -f 5 file1 would be:
    silly
```

date - display the current date and time

date

returns information on the current date and time in the format shown below

Mon Jul 18 11:23:56 BST 2016

date -u

returns information on the current date and time in Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) format (GMT is a time **zone** and UTC is a time **standard**.)

Mon Jul 18 10:23:56 UTC 2016

The official abbreviation for Coordinated Universal Time is UTC. It came about in 1967 as a compromise between English and French speakers.

- In English, Coordinated Universal Time, abbreviated CUT.
- En français, Temps Universel Coordonné, abbreviated TUC.

The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) and the International Astronomical Union (IAU) designated one single abbreviation for use in all languages: UTC.

https://www.timeanddate.com/time/aboututc.html

It is possible to alter the format of the output from date. For example, using the command line

```
date '+The date is %d/%m/%y, and the time is %H:%M:%S.' at exactly 11.30am on 30th January 2020, would produce the output

The date is 30/01/20, and the time is 11:30:00.
```

To show the time in seconds since 1970-01-01 (Unix epoch time):

```
date +%s returns a number like 1505483716
```

find - find files of a specified name or type

find searches for files in a named directory and all its subdirectories.

find . -name '*.f'

searches the current directory and all its subdirectories for files ending in .f, and writes their names to the standard output. In some versions of Unix the names of the files will only be written out if the -print option is used.

find /local -name core -user user1

searches the directory /local and its subdirectories for files called core belonging to the user userl and writes their full file names to the standard output.

ftp - file transfer program

system (described as the local system), ftp is used to log on to another system (described as the remote system) that files are to be transferred to or from. As well as file transfers, it allows the inspection of directory contents on the remote system. There are numerous options and commands associated with ftp, and man ftp will give details of those.

WARNING! When you use ftp the communications between the systems are not encrypted. This means that your password could be snooped if you use it make an ftp connection. If you wish to transfer files between two systems where you have accounts it is better to use the commands sftp (secure file transfer program) or scp (secure remote file copy program) if available, as they provide encrypted file transfer. See the section on ssh for examples.

Some systems offer a service called "anonymous ftp", usually to allow general access to certain archives. To use such a service, enter anonymous instead of your username when you ftp to the system. It is fairly standard practice for the remote system to ask you to give your email address in place of a password. Once you have logged on you will have read access in a limited set of directories, usually within the /pub directory tree.

ftp -i ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

If the connection to the remote system ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov is established, it will respond:

Connected to ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov.

This warning banner provides privacy and security notices consistent with applicable federal laws, directives, and other federal guidance for accessing this Government system, which includes all devices/storage media attached to this system. This system is provided for Government-authorized use only. Unauthorized or improper use of this system is prohibited and may result in disciplinary action and/or civil and criminal penalties. At any time, and for any lawful Government purpose, the government may monitor, record, and audit your system usage and/or intercept, search and seize any communication or data transiting or stored on this system. Therefore, you have no reasonable expectation of privacy. Any communication or data transiting or stored on this system may be disclosed or used for any lawful Government purpose.

220 FTP Server ready.

Name (ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov:user1):

(supposing user1 is your username on your local system). Enter

anonymous and press Return. You will then be asked to enter your email address instead of a password.

After logging in, some Unix commands, such as **cd** and **ls**, will be available. Other useful commands are:

help

lists the commands available to you while using ftp

get remote1 local1

creates a copy on your local system of the file remote1 from the remote system. On your local system this new file will be called local1. If no name is specified for the file on the local system, it will be given the same name as the file on the remote system.

mget remote1*

retrieves all files starting with the name remotel from the remote system and puts them in your local working directory.

quit

finishes the **ftp** session. **bye** and **close** can also be used to do

this.

grep, zgrep - searches files for a specified string or expression

grep searches for lines containing a specified pattern and, by default, writes them to the standard output.

zgrep does the same thing as grep, but takes a gzipped file as input.

BOTH are case sensitive!

```
grep "motif1" file1
searches the file file1 for lines containing the pattern "motif1".
```

```
grep "^motif1" file1
```

searches the file file1 for lines containing the pattern "motif1" at the beginning of a word/string.

```
grep "motif1$" file1
searches the file file1 for lines containing the pattern "motif1"
at the end of a word/string.
```

```
grep -w "motif1" file1
searches the file file1 for lines containing the word "motif1".
```

```
cat file1 | grep "motif1"
  will apply grep to the standard input/output via a pipe, looking for
  lines containing motif1.
grep "motif1" file1 file2 filen
  will search the files file1, file2 and filen for the pattern
   motif1.
grep "motif1" a*
  will search all the files in the current directory with names
  beginning with 'a' for the pattern motif1. In this instance, the * is
  a wild-card that means "anything".
grep -c "motif1" file1
  will count the number of lines containing motif1 instead of
  outputting the lines themselves.
```

grep -m3 "motif1" file1

will output the first three lines that contain motif1.

```
grep -v "motif1" file1
  will write out the lines of file1 that do NOT contain motif1.
grep -E "motif1|motif2" file1
  searches the file file1 for lines containing one or more of the two
  patterns motif1 and motif2.
grep -Ei "motif1|motif2" file1
  searches, in a case-insensitive mannner, the file file1 for lines
  containing one or more of the two patterns motif1 and motif2.
cat file1 | grep "motif1"
  will apply grep to the standard input/output via a pipe, looking for
  lines containing motif1.
cat file1 | grep "motif1" | grep "motif3"
  will apply grep to the standard input/output via a pipe, looking for
  lines containing motif1 and then within those, lines that contain
```

motif3. The lines output will thus have motif1 AND motif3.

grep --help

will tell you about the huge number of options available.

gzip, pigz - compress a file

gzip reduces the size of named files, replacing them with files of the same name extended by .gz . The amount of space saved by compression varies. pigz is a similar utility that is able to work over multiple threads, and thus can be substantially faster.

```
gzip file1
results in a compressed file called file1.gz, and deletes file1.
```

compresses file2 and gives information, in the format shown below, on the percentage of the file's size that has been saved by compression:-

```
file2 : Compression 50.26 -- replaced with file2.gz
```

To restore files to their original state use the command <code>gunzip</code> or <code>gzip -d</code>.

gzip -d file2.gz
will replace file2.gz with the uncompressed file file2.

head, tail - display lines of a file

```
head -n5 file1
displays the first 5 lines of file1.

tail -n5 file1
displays the last 5 lines of file1.

tail -n +2 file1
shows all lines of file1 from the second line onwards.

head -n5 file1*
displays the first 5 lines of all files whose names start with file1.

tail -n5 file1*
displays the last 5 lines of all files whose names start with file1.
```

tail --silent -c5 file1*

outputs the last 5 characters of all files whose names start with file1, silently suppressing the filenames. Notice that the count includes the newline character at the end of each line, so you'll get 4 characters, visible or otherwise, back.

kill - kill a process

To kill a process using kill requires knowing the process id (PID). This can be found by using the command ps:

```
ps aux | grep "myoutofcontrolprocess"

user 4724 0.0 0.0 39904 4028 pts/3 R+ Sep07 0:14 myoutofcontrolprocess
```

will identify the process.

```
will stop (but not remove, i.e. pause) the process.
```

will continue the STOPped process.

should kill the process.

kill -9 4724

will kill the process, and all its dependants.

Is - list names of files in a directory

- lists the contents of a directory, and can be used to obtain information on the files and directories within it.
- lists the contents of the current directory in multiple columns across the screen, alphabetically, case sensitive.
- lists the contents of the current directory in a **single** column on the screen.
- lists the names of the files and directories in the directory dir1, (excluding files whose names begin with .).

also lists the contents of any subdirectories that dir1 contains.

ls -a dir1

will list all contents of dir1, (including files whose names begin with .).

ls -1 file1

gives long details of the access permissions for the file file1, its size in kbytes, and the time it was last altered.

ls -1 dir1

gives long format information on the contents of the directory dir1.

ls -al

gives full information on the contents of the current directory.

ls -alrt

gives, in reverse time order, full information on the contents of the current directory.

ls -ld dir1

To obtain the information on dirl itself, rather than its contents.

man - display an on-line manual page

man displays on-line reference manual pages.

man command1

will display the manual page for command1, e.g man cp, man man.

man -k keyword

lists the manual page subjects that have keyword in their headings. This is useful if you do not yet know the name of a command you are seeking information about.

man -Mpath command1

is used to change the set of directories that man searches for manual pages on command1

mkdir - make a directory

mkdir is used to create new directories. In order to do this you must have write permission in the parent directory of the new directory.

```
mkdir newdir
will make a new directory called newdir.
```

mkdir -p dir1/dir2/newdir

will create newdir and its parent directories dir1 and dir2, if
these do not already exist.

more, zmore - scan through a text file page by page

more displays the contents of a file on a terminal one screenful at a time.

zmore does the same as **more**, but takes a gzipped file as input.

more file1

starts by displaying the beginning of file1. It will scroll up one line every time the return key is pressed, and one screenful every time the space bar is pressed. Type ? for details of the commands available within more. Type q if you wish to quit more before the end of file1 is reached.

more -n file1

will cause n lines of file1 to be displayed in each screenful instead of the default (which is two lines less than the number of

lines that will fit into the terminal's screen).

my - move or rename files or directories

mv is used to change the name of files or directories, or to move them into other directories.

```
changes the name of a file from file1 to file2 unless dir2 already exists, in which case dir1 will be moved into dir2.

mv dir1 dir2 changes the name of a directory from dir1 to dir2.

mv file1 file2 dir3 moves the files file1 and file2 into the directory dir3.
```

passwd - change your password

Use passwd when you wish to change your password.

You will be prompted once for your current password, and twice for your new password.

Neither password will be displayed on the screen.

Use with care....!

paste - join files horizontally

For each corresponding line, paste will append the contents of each file at that line to its output along with a tab. When it has completed its operation for the last file, paste will output a newline character and move on to the next line.

paste file1 file2 > file3

line by line, paste the contents of file2 next to the contents of file1, separated by a tab, and output to file3.

paste -d az file1 file2 file3 > file123

line by line, paste the contents of file1, file2 and file3, next to each other, alternately delimited by "a" and then "z", and output the result to file123.

```
paste -s file1 file2 > file3
output the contents of file1 and file2 serially as tab-separated
```

items in horizontal orientation to file3

paste file1 file2

file1line1 file2line1 file1line2 file2line2 file1line3 file2line3

paste -s file1 file2

file1line1 file1line2 file1line3 file2line1 file2line2 file2line3

ps - list processes

ps displays information on processes currently running on your machine. This information includes the process id, the controlling terminal (if there is one), the cpu time used so far, and the name of the command being run.

NOTE: ps is a command whose options vary considerably in different versions of Unix. Use man ps for details of all the options available on the machine you are using.

gives brief details of your own processes in your current session.

gives fuller details of your own processes in your current session.

ps -au user1

gives fuller details of processes owned by user1 in your current session.

ps aux

gives fuller details of all processes owned by all users. Note missing "-", but effect depends on what flavour of Unix...

rm - remove files or directories: PERMANENTLY...

is used to remove files. In order to remove a file you must have write permission in its directory, but it is not necessary to have read or write permission on the file itself.

will delete the file file1, permanently, so use with care.

rm -i file1

instead, you will be asked if you wish to delete file1, and the file will not be deleted unless you answer y. This is a useful safety check when deleting lots of files, and you should consider aliasing it to minimise unwanted unhappy events....

recursively deletes the contents of dir1, its subdirectories, and dir1 itself, and should be used with caution.

rm -fr dir1

forcibly and recursively deletes the contents of dir1, its subdirectories, and dir1 itself. This is a "nuclear" option, so be very afraid!

rmdir - remove a directory

rmdir removes named empty directories. If you need to delete a non-empty directory rm -r can be used instead.

rmdir exdir
will remove the empty directory exdir.

sort - sort and collate lines

The command sort sorts and collates lines in files, sending the results to the standard output.

If no file names are given, sort acts on the standard input.

By default, **sort** sorts lines using a character by character comparison, working from left to right, and using the order of the ASCII character set.

sort -d

uses "dictionary order", in which only letters, digits, and whitespace characters are considered in the comparisons.

sort -r

reverses the order of the collating sequence.

sort -n

sorts lines according to the arithmetic value of leading numeric strings. Leading blanks are ignored when this option is used, (except in some System V versions of sort, which treat leading blanks as significant. To be certain of ignoring leading blanks use sort -bn instead).

sort -t\$'\t' -k1,1 file1

sorts the file file1 on the first column; default field delimiter is "non-blank to blank" transition so tab and space should work equally well; adding the -t\$'\t' is a safer way to ensure tabs are used.

We write the column twice (e.g. -k1,1) to ensure that sort is only using the given column (in this case, column 1) when determining the "sort key order"; everything on each line can be output, but the order will determined by the -k1,1 sort key.

sort -k1,1 -k2,2nr file1

sorts the file file1 on the first column, and then on the second column, treating the latter as numeric, outputting the lines in decreasing numeric value order of column 2.

```
cat file1 | grep "motif1" | sort -k1,1 -k2,2nr
....cats the file file1
....retains any line that has the string "motif1" in it,
....sorts on the first column, and then on the second column,
treating the latter as numeric, outputting the lines in decreasing
```

numeric value of column 2.

ssh - secure remote access

ssh (also known as slogin) is used for logging onto a remote system, and provides secure encrypted communications between the local and remote systems using the SSH protocol.

The remote system must be running an SSH server for such connections to be possible. You can ssh to a machine using its name, or, if you know it, its unique IP address. For example:

```
ssh bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk
or
ssh 129.215.237.197
   initiates a login connection to the course server
```

bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk, which has IP address 129.215.237.197.

```
ssh someuseruun@bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk
```

initiates a login connection for someuseruun to the course server bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk.

You will need to use your EASE login details (both username and password).

If you wish to transfer files over an encrypted connection you can use sftp (secure remote file transfer program) or scp (secure remote file copy program); authentication is handled as for ssh.

sftp bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk

Once you have authenticated access to bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk, you will be in your home directory. You can use the command cd to change directories on bioinfmsc5.bio.ed.ac.uk and lcd to change directories on your local system; get can be used to transfer files from the remote system, and put to transfer files to the remote system. The command quit will terminate the sftp session.

Alternatively, you could use scp to transfer files.

scp remoteserver:file1 newfile1

is used to transfer a copy of the file file in your home directory on the remote server to the current directory on the local system,

naming the file newfile1.

```
to copy the local file file2 to the remote system, calling the copy

newfile2
```

tar - create and use archives of files

tar can be used to create and manage an archive of a set of files. Tar stands for TapeARchive.

creates an archive file called archive1.tar containing the contents of the current directory (and any subdirectories it contains). The c option stands for "create" and the f for "filename".

tar cf archive1.tar *.html
 creates an archive file called archive1.tar containing all html files
 in the current directory.

tar cf archive2.tar mydir

creates an archive file called archive2.tar containing the contents of the directory mydir.

tar tvf archive1.tar

lists the contents of the archive file archive1.tar. The t stands for "list" and the v for "verbose listing".

tar xf archive1.tar

extracts the contents of archive1.tar and copy them into the current directory. The x stands for "extract".

tar xf archive1.tar file2
extracts file2 from archive1.tar (if file2 is in the archive).

tar uf archive1.tar file2

If file2 is not already in the archive it will be added. The u stands for "update". If there is already a file called file2 in the archive, file2 will be appended to the archive if it has a more recent timestamp than the file2 already in the archive. This means the most recent version of file2 will be obtained when file2 is extracted from the archive.

uniq - unique

uniq is frequently used after or with the sort command to determine frequencies of lines/elements.

uniq file1

listing of non-redundant lines in file1, but only if it is **sequential** lines that are not identical.

```
cat file1 | sort | uniq -c
```

number of occurrences of each non-redundant line of file1.

```
sort file1 | uniq -c
```

does the same thing, just a shorter command: count the number of occurrences of each non-redundant line of file1.

wc - counting words, letters, lines of files

mc file1
 newline count, word count, and character/byte count of file1.

cat file1
file1line1
file1line2
file1line3

wc file1

3 3 33 file1

wc -c file1
 number of characters in file1.

wc -w file1

number of words in file1.

wc -1 file1

number of lines in file1.

...and now let's try the exercises...